Abstract

We consider sets of strings with high Kolmogorov complexity, mainly in resource-bounded settings but also in the traditional recursion-theoretic sense. We present efficient reductions, showing that these sets are hard and complete for various complexity classes.

In particular, in addition to the usual Kolmogorov complexity measure $K$, we consider the time-bounded Kolmogorov complexity measure $K_T$ that was introduced in [All01], as well as a space-bounded measure $K_S$, and Levin’s time-bounded Kolmogorov complexity $K_t$ [Lev84]. Let $R_K, R_{K_T}, R_{K_S}, R_{K_t}$ be the sets of strings $x$ having complexity at least $|x|/2$, according to each of these measures. Our main results are:

- $R_{K_S}$ and $R_{K_t}$ are complete for PSPACE and EXP, respectively, under P/poly-truth-table reductions.
- $\text{EXP} = \text{NP}^{R_{K_t}}$.
- $\text{PSPACE} = \text{ZPP}^{R_{K_S}} \subseteq P^{R_K}$.
- The Discrete Log is in BPP$^{R_{K_T}}$.

Our hardness results for EXP and PSPACE rely on nonrelativizing proof techniques.

Our techniques also allow us to show that all recursively-enumerable sets are reducible to $R_K$ via P/poly-truth-table reductions.

Our hardness result for PSPACE gives rise to fairly natural problems that are complete for PSPACE under $\leq_P$ reductions, but not under $\leq_m$ reductions.

In spite of the EXP- and PSPACE-completeness of $R_{K_t}$ and $R_{K_S}$, it remains unknown if either of these problems is in logspace.

1 Introduction

Much recent work in derandomization can be viewed as an attempt to understand and exploit the interplay between the two common meanings of the phrase “random string”: a string picked at random (according to some distribution), and a string with high Kolmogorov complexity (in some sense). In this paper, we further investigate the relationship between these two notions.

We apply recent advances in derandomization to obtain fundamentally new types of complete sets for several standard complexity classes. The sets consist of random strings with respect to various Kolmogorov measures.
We will focus on the set \( R_K = \{ x : K(x) > |x|/2 \} \) of strings with high traditional Kolmogorov complexity, as well as various resource-bounded variants \( R_\mu \) for \( \mu = KT, KS, Kt \). See Section 2 for the definitions of \( KT, KS, \) and \( Kt \). The choice of \( |x|/2 \) as a quantification of “high complexity” is rather arbitrary. Our results hold for any reasonable bound ranging from \( |x|^\epsilon \) to \( \epsilon |x| \), \( 0 < \epsilon < 1 \).

The sets \( R_\mu \) of Kolmogorov random strings are good examples of sets with a lot of information content that is difficult to access. Time- and space-bounded versions of Kolmogorov random strings have been studied as possible examples of sets that are intractable without being complete for any of the standard complexity classes. For instance, Buhrman and Mayordomo [BM97] studied the time \( t \)-incompressible strings (for \( t(n) = 2^{n^2} \)) and showed that this set is in \( EXP - P \), but is not complete under polynomial-time Turing reducibility.

As yet another example of this phenomenon, Cai and Kabanets [KC00] studied the Minimum Circuit Size Problem (MCSP), which (as observed in [All01]) is closely related to \( KT \) complexity. They present evidence that MCSP is not in \( P \), but is also not likely to be \( NP \)-complete under \( \leq_T^P \) reductions. Also, Ko [Ko91] showed for a variant of this set that there are relativized worlds where it is neither in \( P \) nor \( coNP \)-complete with respect to polynomial-time Turing reductions.

When no resource bounds are present, the set of Kolmogorov random strings \( R_K \) is easily seen to be \( co-re \) and not decidable, but the complement of the halting problem is \textit{not} reducible to \( R_K \) via a many-one reduction. It was shown only recently by Kummer that a truth-table reduction is sufficient [Kum96], although it had long been known [Mar66] that \( Turing \) reductions can be used. It should be emphasized that Kummer’s reduction is \textit{not} feasible and asks \textit{many} queries. Indeed, it is easy to see that any long string that is used as a query in a polynomial-time truth-table reduction must have small Kolmogorov complexity, and thus one might conjecture that reductions to the set \( R_K \) must involve exponentially-many queries.

These results suggest that the sets of resource-bounded random strings are not complete for the complexity class they naturally live in. Buhrman and Torenvliet [BT01] gave some evidence that this is not the complete picture. They showed that for the \textit{conditional} version of space bounded Kolmogorov complexity the set of random strings is hard for \( PSPACE \) under \( NP \) reductions. However, their result had the major drawback that it needed conditional Kolmogorov complexity, used \( NP \) reductions, and, moreover, their proof technique could not be used beyond \( PSPACE \).

Using very different techniques, we provide much stronger results in the same direction: the set of random strings \textit{can} be exploited by efficient reductions. For instance, we show that the set \( R_{Kt} \) of strings with high complexity using Levin’s time-bounded Kolmogorov notion \( Kt \) [Lev84] is complete for \( EXP \) under truth-table reductions computable by polynomial-size circuits. Thus we obtain natural examples that witness the difference in power of various reducibilities.

In some instances, we are also able to provide completeness results under \textit{uniform} reductions. By making use of multiple-prover interactive proofs for \( EXP \) ([BFL91]) we show that \( R_{Kt} \) is complete for \( EXP \) under \textit{NP-Turing} reductions.

Of greater interest is the fact that the set \( R_{KS} \) of strings with high space-bounded Kolmogorov complexity is complete for \( PSPACE \) under \( ZPP-Turing \) reductions. Our proofs rely on the existence of complete sets for \( PSPACE \) that are both downward-self-reducible and random-self-reducible [TV02], and hence our proofs do not relativize. It remains unknown if the results themselves hold relative to all oracles.

For the unbounded case we even show that \( PSPACE \) is reducible to \( R_K \) under \textit{uniform} polynomial time reductions. The main tool here in addition to the previous results, is the fact that we can construct, in polynomial time, a string of high Kolmogorov complexity using \( R_K \) as an oracle.
1.1 The connection to derandomization

There is an obvious connection between Kolmogorov complexity and derandomization. For any randomized algorithm $A$ with a small probability of error and any input $x$, the coin flip sequences $r$ that result in a wrong answer are atypical, and therefore have short descriptions of some kind.

By considering different notions of Kolmogorov complexity, less-obvious (and more-useful) connections can be exposed. Assume that the coin flip sequences that result in wrong answers have small $\mu$-complexity, for some some Kolmogorov measure $\mu$. If we can generate a coin flip sequence $r$ that belongs to the set $R_\mu$ of strings with high $\mu$-complexity, then we obtain an upper bound on the complexity of $A$, by running the randomized algorithm on $(x, r)$. If we can at least check membership in $R_\mu$, we can reduce the error probability to zero by picking a coin flip sequence $r$ uniformly at random until we get one in $R_\mu$ (of which there are many), and then running $A$ on $(x, r)$. The first interesting application of this approach is due to Sipser [Sip83]. His proof that BPP lies in the polynomial-time hierarchy uses $\mu = KD^{poly}$, the polynomial-time bounded distinguishing complexity. The corresponding set $R_\mu$ lies in coNP. The hardness versus randomness tradeoffs by Babai et al. [BFNW93] and by Impagliazzo and Wigderson [IW97] can be cast as an application with $\mu = KT$, a time-bounded Kolmogorov measure introduced in [All01], which essentially measures the circuit complexity of the Boolean function defined by the string described. The observation from [KvM99] that the construction of [IW97] relativizes with respect to any oracle $A$ can be viewed in terms of a Kolmogorov measure which we denote as $KT^A$. This interpretation plays a crucial role in Trevisan’s recent construction of extractors out of pseudo-random generators [Tre01]. Other connections are surveyed in [All01].

Our main technique is to use relativizing hardness versus randomness tradeoffs in the contrapositive. Such results state that if there exists a computational problem in a certain complexity class $C$ that is hard when given oracle access to $A$, then there exists a pseudo-random generator secure against $A$ that is computable within $C$. However, we argue that no pseudo-random generator computable in $C$ can be secure against $R_\mu$. Thus we conclude that every problem in $C$ is easy given oracle access to $R_\mu$, i.e., $C$ reduces to $R_\mu$. For our results, we exploit the nonuniform hardness versus randomness tradeoffs in [BFNW93] and [IW97], as well as the uniform ones in [HILL99] and [IW98].

1.2 The structure of complexity classes

The tools of reducibility and completeness (in particular NP-completeness) are responsible for most of the success that complexity theory has had in proving (or providing evidence for) intractability of various problems. Although it has been known since the work of Ladner [Lad75] that, if P is not equal to NP, then there are intractable problems in NP that are not NP-complete, there are not many interesting candidates for this status. Certainly the sets constructed in [Lad75] are quite artificial (constructed by putting huge empty segments inside a standard complete problem such as SAT). Similarly, although there are a great many notions of reducibility that have been considered, and for many of these notions it is known that more powerful reducibilities provide more complete sets [Wat87, AAI+02] (at least for large complexity classes such as EXP), almost all of the known constructions proceed by diagonalization and do not produce very “natural” languages.

There are two notable examples that run counter to this trend, and that are relevant to the research we report on here.

1. Buhrman and Mayordomo [BM97] study time-bounded Kolmogorov complexity $K^t$ for
time bounds \( t(n) \geq 2^{n^2} \), and show that the set \( R^t = \{ x : K'(x) \geq |x| \} \) lies in \( \text{EXP} - \text{P} \) and is not complete for \( \text{EXP} \) under polynomial-time Turing reducibility \( \leq^p_t \).

2. Kabanets and Cai [KC00] study the set MCSP defined as \( \{(f, s) : f \text{ is a string of length } 2^n \text{ interpreted as the truth-table of a Boolean function, and } f \text{ is computed by a Boolean circuit with at most } s \text{ gates}\} \). Kabanets and Cai show that if MCSP is in \( \text{P/poly} \), then there are no secure pseudorandom generators, thus providing evidence of intractability. On the other hand, they show that some “natural” approaches that one might use to show that MCSP is \( \text{NP-complete} \) would have some dramatic consequences if they were to succeed (such as proving that \( \text{EXP} \not\subseteq \text{P/poly} \) and \( \text{BPP} \not= \text{EXP} \)).

Although these examples seem to have little to do with each other, we present a framework that shows both of these problems are variations on a single theme. Also, the techniques of resource-bounded Kolmogorov complexity provide us with natural examples of computational problems witnessing that certain well-studied notions of reducibility yield different classes of \( \text{PSPACE} \)-complete sets.

1.3 Outline of the rest of the paper

In Section 2 we present background and definitions regarding resource-bounded Kolmogorov complexity. In Section 3 we present the statement of our main results, although most of the proofs are postponed until Sections 4 and 5. We conclude with open problems in Section 6.

2 Resource-Bounded Kolmogorov Complexity

We assume that the reader is familiar with Kolmogorov complexity: \( K(x) = \min \{ |d| : U(d) = x \} \) (for some fixed universal multitape Turing machine \( U \)). For background, consult [LV93] (but note that the function \( K(x) \) is called \( \mathcal{C}(x) \) there).

Several notions of time-bounded Kolmogorov complexity have been studied. One of the most useful was introduced by Levin [Lev84].

**Definition 1 (Levin)** Let \( U \) be a universal Turing machine. Define \( K_t(x) \) to be \( \min \{ |d| + \log t : U(d) = x \text{ in at most } t \text{ steps} \} \).

The elements of \( \{0, 1\}^* \) can be enumerated in order of increasing \( K_t(x) \), and Levin observed that this ordering yields essentially the fastest way to search for accepting computations of nondeterministic Turing machines.

Another notion of time-bounded Kolmogorov complexity was introduced in [All01], where it was shown to be related to the “easy witness” method of Impagliazzo, Kabanets, and Wigderson [Kab01, IKW01], and the “natural proofs” framework of Razborov and Rudich [RR97].

**Definition 2** Let \( U \) be a universal Turing machine. Define \( K_T(x) = \min \{ |d| + t : \text{for all } i \leq |x|, U(d, i) = x_i, \text{ and } U(d, |x| + 1) = * \text{, in at most } t \text{ steps} \} \).

The significant difference between the \( KT \) and \( Kt \) measures lies in the exponential difference in the weight that is given to the time bound in the two measures; the fact that the description \( d \) in \( KT \) describes the string \( x \) bit-wise is necessary in order to allow sublinear running times. The properties of the measure \( Kt \) would be essentially unchanged if the bit-wise convention were employed in that definition as well. Note that \( \log |x| \leq KT(x) \leq |x| + O(\log |x|) \).

Let us further define a space-bounded analog of \( KT \) complexity:
Definition 3 Let $U$ be a universal Turing machine. Define $KS(x) = \min\{|d| + s : U(d) = x\}$. Observes that the $Kt$, $KT$ and $KS$ measures can be generalized to obtain $Kt^A$, $KT^A$ and $KS^A$ for oracles $A$, by giving $U$ access to an oracle. It turns out that this is useful in clarifying the relationship between these complexity measures. The following theorem is credited to Ronneburger in [All01]:

**Theorem 4** The following statements hold:

1. Let $A$ be complete for $E$ under linear-time reductions. Then there is a $k \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $KT^A(x)/k \leq Kt(x) \leq kKT^A(x)$. In other words, $Kt = \Theta(KT^A)$.

2. Let $B$ be complete for $\text{DSPACE}(n)$ under linear-time reductions. Then there is a $k' \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $KT^B(x)/k' \leq KS(x) \leq k'KT^B(x)$. In other words, $KS = \Theta(KT^B)$.

That is, one can view $Kt$ and $KS$ complexities as merely variations of $KT$ complexity; $Kt$ complexity is $KT$ complexity relative to $E$ and $KS$ is $KT$ relative to $\text{DSPACE}(n)$.

If $x$ is a string of length $2^n$, then $x$ can be viewed as the truth-table of an $n$-ary Boolean function. Let $\text{SIZE}(x)$ denote the number of gates in the smallest circuit computing the Boolean function represented by $x$. As observed in [All01], $\text{SIZE}(x) = O(KT(x) \log KT(x))$ and $KT(x) = O(\text{SIZE}^2(x) + \log |x|)$. For relativized computation, the correspondence is nearly as close.

**Theorem 5** $\text{SIZE}^4(x) = O(KT^A(x)^3)$ and $KT^A(x) = O(\text{SIZE}^A(x)^2 + \log |x|)$.

In this paper we focus our attention mainly on sets of strings with high Kolmogorov complexity.

**Definition 6** For any any Kolmogorov complexity measure $\mu$ (such as $K$, $Kt$, $KS$, $KT$), define $R_\mu = \{x : \mu(x) \geq \frac{|x|}{2}\}$.

The bound of $|x|/2$ in the definition of $R_\mu$ is arbitrary; all of our results hold for any reasonable bound in the range $|x|^\epsilon$ to $|x|$, $0 < \epsilon < 1$.

It is obvious that $R_K$ is co-r.e. $R_{Kt} \in E$, $R_{KS} \in \text{DSPACE}(n)$, and $R_{KT} \in \text{coNP}$. It is observed in [All01] that none of these sets lie in $AC^0$. No other upper or lower bounds are known for the resource-bounded sets $R_\mu$. As stated in the introduction, earlier results had indicated that these sets would not be complete for the complexity classes in which they reside. [All01] points out that $R_{Kt}$ is not complete for $\text{EXP}$ under $\leq_{it}^p$ reductions, and essentially identical observations show that $R_{KS}$ is not complete for $\text{PSPACE}$ under $\leq_{T}^{\log}$ reducibility. For completeness, we include this argument below.

**Theorem 7** $R_{KS}$ is not hard for $\text{PSPACE}$ under $\leq_{T}^{\log}$ reductions.

**Proof.** Note first of all that $\leq_{T}^{\log}$ reducibility coincides with $\leq_{it}^{\log}$ reducibility [LL76]. Let $T$ be a subset of $0^*$ that is in $\text{PSPACE}$ but not in $\text{L}$. Suppose $T \leq_{it}^{\log} R_{KS}$, and let $f$ be the query generator of such a reduction. Note that $KS(f(0^n)) = O(\log n)$. Thus each of the strings $y$ that the reduction queries on input $0^n$ has $KS(y) = O(\log n)$. Hence, the only strings $y$ for which the query can receive a ‘‘yes’’ answer are of length $O(\log n)$, and for such queries the answer is computable directly in space $O(\log n)$.

Hence all of the queries can be answered in space $O(\log n)$ and it follows that $T \in \text{L}$, contrary to our choice of $T$. \qed

5
3 Main Results

Some evidence that the set of resource bounded random strings could be useful was given in [BT01]. There it was shown that the set of strings with high conditional linear space complexity is hard for PSPACE under NP reductions. Improving greatly the results in [BT01], we show that strings of high Kolmogorov complexity are very useful as oracles. First, we present some hardness results in terms of nonuniform (P/poly) reductions that apply to many large complexity classes. In the next subsection we consider some special cases where we are able to strengthen our results to provide uniform reductions.

3.1 Nonuniform Hardness Results

It will be useful to recall the definition of PSPACE-robustness [BFNW93]. A language $A$ is PSPACE-robust if $\text{PSPACE}^A = \text{P}^A$. Clearly, the complete sets for many large complexity classes (such as PSPACE, EXP, EXPSPACE, EEXPSPACE, ...) have this property.

We will refer to the density of language $L$ as the fraction of all strings of length $n$ that belong to $L$.

**Theorem 8** Let $A$ be any PSPACE-robust set. Let $L$ be a set of polynomial density such that for every $x \in L$, $KT_A(x) > |x|^\gamma$, for some constant $0 < \gamma < 1$. Then $A$ is reducible to $L$ via $\leq^{P/\text{poly}}$ reductions.

**Corollary 9**

- $R_{Kt}$ is complete for EXP under $\leq^{P/\text{poly}}_{tt}$ reductions.
- $R_{KS}$ is complete for PSPACE under $\leq^{P/\text{poly}}_{tt}$ reductions.

The hardness results apply not only to $R_{Kt}$ and $R_{KS}$, but to any dense set containing no strings of low resource-bounded Kolmogorov complexity (including the Buhrman-Mayordomo set and $R_K$).

A similar proof shows that, in the recursion-theoretic setting, the (very-high-complexity) truth-table reductions of [Kum96] can be replaced by reductions produced by small, but nonuniform, circuit families.

**Theorem 10** Any recursively enumerable set is $\leq^{P/\text{poly}}_{tt}$ reducible to $R_K$, hence, $\text{r.e.} \subseteq \text{P}^{R_K/\text{poly}}$.

3.2 Uniform Hardness Results

For the special cases of EXP and PSPACE, we are able to show hardness results under uniform notions of reducibility.

**Theorem 11** EXP = NP$^{R_{Kt}}$.

**Theorem 12** PSPACE = ZPP$^{R_{KS}}$.

Again, these hardness results apply not only to $R_{Kt}$ and $R_{KS}$, but to any dense set containing no strings of low resource-bounded Kolmogorov complexity.

It is an interesting question if the ZPP-Turing reducibility in this PSPACE-completeness result can be improved to hardness under deterministic poly-time Turing reducibility. Although we are not yet able to answer this question, the following theorem may be indicative.
Theorem 13 PSPACE \subseteq \text{P}^{R_K}.

Let us mention one other consequence of our PSPACE-completeness result. Watanabe and Tang showed in [WT92] that \(\leq_p^p\) and \(\leq^p_m\) reducibilities yield different classes of PSPACE-complete sets if and only if \(\leq_{TP}^{BPP}\) and \(\leq_m^p\) reducibilities yield different PSPACE-complete sets. Using similar techniques, we are able to prove the following.

Theorem 14 There is a tally set \(T\) such that PSPACE = \text{P}^{R_{KS}[T]}, where at least one of the following holds:

- \(R_{KS}\) is complete for PSPACE under \(\leq^p_m\) reductions, but not under \(\leq^p_{TT}\) reductions, or
- \(R_{KS} \cup T\) is complete for PSPACE under \(\leq^p_T\) reductions, but not under \(\leq^p_m\) reductions.

Proof. By Theorem 12 there is a probabilistic Turing machine \(M\) running in time \(n^k\) accepting QBF with oracle \(R_{KS}\), with error probability less than 2\(^{2n}\). Let \(S\) be the set \(\{r : r\) is the lexicographically-first sequence of length \(n^k\) with the property that, for all strings \(x\) of length \(n\) \(M^{R_{KS}}(x,r)\) accepts if and only if \(x \in \text{QBF}\}\). By standard arguments, \(S\) consists of exactly one string of each length \(n^k\), and \(S \in \text{PSPACE}\). We encode the “good” coin flip sequences of \(S\) in the tally set \(T = \{0^{2n^k+1} : i\)-th bit of the unique string of length \(n^k\) in \(S\) is 1\}. Note that \(R_{KS}\) can only contain a finite number of strings in \(0^n\). It is immediate that \(T \in \text{PSPACE}\) and that QBF is in \(BPP^{R_{KS}[T]}\).

If \(R_{KS} \cup T\) is not complete for PSPACE under \(\leq^p_m\) reductions, then the second condition of the theorem holds.

On the other hand, if QBF \(\leq^p_m R_{KS} \cup T\) then we can apply a standard argument of [Ber78]. Berman showed that if a length-decreasing self-reducible set \(A\) is \(\leq^p_m\)-reducible to a tally set, then \(A \in \text{P}\). A similar argument applied to the \(\leq^p_m\) reduction from \(A = \text{QBF}\) to \(R_{KS} \cup T\) yields a \(\leq^p_{TT}\) reduction from QBF to \(R_{KS}\). This, combined with Theorem 7, shows that the first condition of the theorem holds. \(\Box\)

We are not able to prove that \(R_{KT}\) is complete for coNP under any notion of feasible reducibility. On the other hand, we are able to show that some apparently-intractable problems are reducible to \(R_{KT}\).

Theorem 15 The Discrete Logarithm problem is solvable in \(BPP^{R_{KT}}\).

Corollary 16 The Discrete Logarithm problem is solvable in \(BPP^{MCSP}\).

4 Reductions from Complete Problems

In this and the next section we give proofs of our results from Section 3. Our main technique is to use relativizing hardness-randomness tradeoffs in the contrapositive. In particular we will argue that an appropriate set \(R_\mu\) of Kolmogorov random strings can be used to distinguish the output of a pseudo random generator \(G_f\) (based on a function \(f\)) from truly random strings. This in turn will enable us to efficiently reduce \(f\) to \(R_\mu\). In this section, the function \(f\) will always be a complete function for a standard complexity class.
4.1 Tools

Let us first review the main technical tools we are going to use.

The authors of [BFNW93] show, for any \( \epsilon > 0 \), how to construct from a function \( f \) a pseudo-random generator \( G^\text{BFNW}_f : \{0,1\}^{n'} \to \{0,1\}^n \) such that for any \( x \) of size \( n' \), the function \( G^\text{BFNW}_f(x) \) is computable in space \( O(n') \) given access to \( f \) for inputs of size at most \( n' \). Moreover, for some constant \( c \) independent of \( \epsilon \), if \( f \) is PSPACE-robust, then each bit of \( G^\text{BFNW}_f(x) \) is computable in time \( n^{cc} \) with oracle access to \( f \).

**Theorem 17** ([BFNW93, KvM99]) Let \( f \) be a function, \( \epsilon > 0 \), and \( G^\text{BFNW}_f : \{0,1\}^{n'} \to \{0,1\}^n \) be the pseudo-random generator described above. Let \( T \) be a set and \( p(n) \) a polynomial. If for all large \( n \) \( \Pr_{r \in U_n}[r \in T] - \Pr_{x \in U_n}[G^\text{BFNW}_f(x) \in T] \geq 1/p(n) \), then there exists a polynomial size oracle circuit family \( \{C_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \) with oracle \( T \) that computes \( f \) and queries \( T \) non-adaptively.

Impagliazzo and Wigderson reexamine the approach of [BFNW93] and obtain a uniform version of Theorem 17. Their result immediately implies:

**Theorem 18** ([IW98]) Let \( f : \{0,1\}^* \to \{0,1\}^* \) be a random and downward self-reducible function, \( \epsilon > 0 \), and \( G^\text{BFNW}_f : \{0,1\}^n \to \{0,1\}^n \) be the pseudo-random generator described above. Let \( T \) be a set and \( p(n) \) a polynomial. If \( \Pr_{r \in U_n}[r \in T] - \Pr_{x \in U_n}[G^\text{BFNW}_f(x) \in T] \geq 1/p(n) \), for all \( n \) large enough, then there exists a probabilistic, polynomial time Turing machine with oracle \( T \) that on input \( x \) outputs \( f(x) \) with probability at least \( 2/3 \).

The preceding two theorems provide the key derandomization techniques that are required to prove our completeness results. They are stated in the contrapositive of their original formulations since that is the way we will use them. However, some of our completeness results (namely for EXP and PSPACE) involve uniform reductions that make use of randomness. These reductions can then be further derandomized by applying hardness versus randomness tradeoffs in the standard way. We will make use of the strengthening of the results of [BFNW93], as provided by Impagliazzo and Wigderson [IW97] (see also [STV01]). Given access to a Boolean function \( f \), [IW97] constructs a pseudo-random generator \( G^\text{IW}_f : \{0,1\}^{O(\log n)} \to \{0,1\}^n \) with the following property (see also [KvM99]):

**Theorem 19** ([IW97], [KvM99]) For any \( \epsilon > 0 \), there exists a constant \( c > 0 \) such that the following holds. Let \( A \) be a set and \( n > 1 \) be an integer. Let \( f : \{0,1\}^{\lceil \log n \rceil} \to \{0,1\} \) be a Boolean function that cannot be computed by oracle circuits of size \( n' \) with oracle \( A \). Then \( G^\text{IW}_f : \{0,1\}^{\lfloor \log n \rfloor} \to \{0,1\}^n \) satisfies: \( \Pr_{r \in U_n}[C^A(r) = 1] - \Pr_{x \in U_{\lfloor \log n \rfloor}}[C^A(G^\text{IW}_f(x)) = 1] < 1/n \), for any oracle circuit \( C^A \) of size at most \( n \).

For \( x \) of size \( \lfloor \log n \rfloor \), function \( G^\text{IW}_f(x) \) is computable in time polynomial in \( n \) given access to function \( f \) on inputs of length \( \lceil \log n \rceil \).

4.2 Proofs

The next proof illustrates our proof technique.

**Proof of Theorem 8:** Let \( A, L \) and \( \gamma \) be as in the statement of the theorem and let \( f \) be the characteristic function of \( A \). Consider \( G^\text{BFNW}_f : \{0,1\}^{n'} \to \{0,1\}^n \), where we choose \( \epsilon \)
as follows. We know that every bit of $G^\text{BFNW}_f$ is computable in time $n^{c\epsilon}$, for some constant $c$ independent of $\epsilon$. We may assume that $c > 1$, so set $\epsilon = \gamma/2c$. We claim that any string in the range of $G^\text{BFNW}_f$ has small KT-A complexity. Let $y = G^\text{BFNW}_f(x)$, for some $x \in \{0,1\}^n$. On input $x$, every bit of $G^\text{BFNW}_f(x)$ is computable in time $n^{\gamma/2}$ with access to oracle $A$. Hence, KT-A($y$) $\leq 2|x| + O(n^{\gamma/2}) + O(1) \leq O(n^{\gamma/2})$. It follows, that $L$ distinguishes the output of $G^\text{BFNW}_f$ from random strings, so by Theorem 17, $f$ is $\leqP/poly$ reducible to $L$.

Using the fact that any recursively enumerable set can be decided with polynomial advice, we can prove the analog in the recursion theoretic setting.

**Proof of Theorem 10:** The proof is similar to the proof of Theorem 8. Let $f$ be the characteristic function of a recursively-enumerable set. Consider $G^\text{BFNW}_f : \{0,1\}^{n/2} \rightarrow \{0,1\}^n$. We claim that any string in the range of $G^\text{BFNW}_f$ has small Kolmogorov complexity. Let $y = G^\text{BFNW}_f(x)$, for some $x \in \{0,1\}^{n/2}$. To compute $y$ given $x$, we need to query $f$ on inputs of size at most $n^{1/2}$. If we know the number $l$ of strings $z$ of length at most $n^{1/2}$ on which $f(z) = 1$, then we can determine exactly which strings $z$ these are (by carrying out the enumeration until all have appeared). This number $l$ is less than $2^{n^{1/2}+1}$ and hence can be specified with $O(n^{1/2})$ bits. String $y$ can be fully described by giving $x$, $l$, and programs for $f$ and $G^\text{BFNW}_f$, thus $K(y) \leq O(n^{1/2})$. It follows that $R_K$ distinguishes the output of $G^\text{BFNW}_f$ from random strings. By Theorem 17, $f$ is $\leqP/poly$ reducible to $R_K$.

Many authors have observed that having access to the truth table of a hard function can be used to obtain upper bounds on BPP [NW94, IW97]. Similarly, using oracle access to strings of high Kolmogorov complexity we obtain the following derandomizations which we will use in the proofs of Theorems 11 and 12.

**Lemma 20** Let $A$ be any oracle and $L$ be a set such that $L \in \text{P}^A/poly$ and for every $x \in L$, KT-A($x$) $> |x|^{\gamma}$, for some constant $0 < \gamma < 1$.

1. If $L$ contains a string of every length then $\text{MA}^L \subseteq \text{NP}^L$,

2. If $L$ is of at least polynomial density then $\text{BPP}^L \subseteq \text{ZPP}^L$.

**Proof of Lemma 20:**

1. The NP-machine $M$ guesses a string $\chi_f \in L$ of length $m$, for $m = n^c$, and interprets it as the truth-table of a Boolean function $f$ on inputs of size $\log m$. Since $\chi_f \in L$, KT-A($\chi_f$) $\geq m^\gamma$. As the circuit size of a function is lower bounded by the root of the KT-complexity of its truth-table (Theorem 5), $f$ requires circuits of size at least $\Omega(m^{\gamma/2})$ even when the circuit has access to the oracle $A$. If, instead of $A$, the circuit has access to $L$, then (because of our assumption that $L$ is reducible to $A$ by circuits of size $m^k$ for some $k$), the size required to compute $f$ is at least $\Omega(m^{\gamma/4k})$.

The function $f$ is of sufficient hardness to construct the generator $G^\text{BFNW}_f$, as stated in Theorem 19, to stretch $O(\log n)$ random bits into $n^c$ pseudorandom bits that are indistinguishable from random by any polynomially bounded computation with oracle access to $L$. Thus we can fully derandomize the probabilistic part of the MA-computation.  

2. We use a similar argument as above. Here we randomly choose a candidate for $\chi_f$. As $L$ is dense, the result follows immediately.  

\[ 9 \]
Applying the previous lemma with oracles $A$ and $A'$, complete for $E$ and $\text{DSPACE}(n)$ respectively, Theorem 4 yields the following corollary.

**Corollary 21**

1. $\text{MA}^{R_{KS}} = \text{NP}^{R_{KS}}$, 
2. $\text{BPP}^{R_{KS}} = \text{ZPP}^{R_{KS}}$.

We can immediately apply this corollary to prove Theorem 11.

**Proof of Theorem 11:** The inclusion $\text{NP}^{R_{KS}} \subseteq \text{EXP}$ is trivial, so we focus on the other inclusion. A consequence of Corollary 9 is that $\text{EXP} \subseteq \text{MA}^{R_{KS}}$. To see this let $A$ be any language in $\text{EXP}$. Then $A$ is accepted by a 2-prover interactive proof system with provers computable in $\text{EXP}$ [BFL91]. The $\text{MA}^{R_{KS}}$ protocol is as follows. Merlin sends Arthur the poly-size circuits that, when given access to the oracle $R_{KS}$, compute the answers given by the two provers for $A$. Arthur then executes the MIP protocol, simulating the provers’ answers by executing the circuits and querying the oracle $R_{KS}$. The theorem now follows immediately from Corollary 21.

To prove a uniform hardness result for $\text{PSPACE}$, as stated in Theorem 12, we can use the technique of [IW98] and the following theorem of [TV02].

**Theorem 22 ([TV02])** There exists a problem for $\text{DSPACE}(n)$ that is hard for $\text{PSPACE}$, random self-reducible, and downward self-reducible.

**Proof of Theorem 12:** Let $f \in \text{DSPACE}(n)$ be a function that is downward and random self-reducible and hard for $\text{PSPACE}$, as guaranteed by Theorem 22. First, we will show that $f \in \text{BPP}^{R_{KS}}$. Consider $G_{f}^{\text{BFNW}} : \{0,1\}^{n+1/2} \rightarrow \{0,1\}^{n}$. From the properties of $G_{f}^{\text{BFNW}}$ it follows that all the strings in the range of $G_{f}^{\text{BFNW}}$ have small space-bounded Kolmogorov complexity, in particular, $\text{KS}(y) \leq O(|y|^{1/2})$, for any $y = G_{f}^{\text{BFNW}}(z)$, for some $z$. Hence, $R_{KS}$ distinguishes the output of $G_{f}^{\text{BFNW}}$ from random strings and by Theorem 18, there is a probabilistic procedure with oracle $R_{KS}$ that on input $x$ outputs $f(x)$ with probability at least $2/3$.

Hence, $\text{PSPACE} \subseteq \text{BPP}^{R_{KS}}$. We can use Corollary 21 to derandomize the $\text{BPP}^{R_{KS}}$ computation to obtain $\text{PSPACE} \subseteq \text{ZPP}^{R_{KS}}$.

We would obtain a deterministic polynomial-time reduction of $\text{PSPACE}$ to $R_{KS}$ in the preceding theorem, if there was a deterministic method to obtain a string of high KS complexity using $R_{KS}$ as an oracle. We do not know if this is possible. On the other hand, if one considers Kolmogorov complexity without resource bounds, we are able to achieve this.

**Lemma 23** $\text{BPP}^{R_{K}} = \text{P}^{R_{K}}$.

The proof of this theorem shows how to use $R_{K}$ as an oracle to incrementally build up a string $z$ in $R_{K}$. The construction works block-wise, and is inspired by a construction of Buhrman and Vereshchagin, who use the oracle $\{ x : \text{K}(x) \geq |x| \}$ to build a string $x$ with $\text{K}(x) \geq |x|$ in a bit-wise fashion. Our construction obtains a string $z \in R_{K}$ which then is used to derandomize the BPP computation.
Proof of Lemma 23: We prove the lemma in two steps. First, we will show that for any
\( m = n^{O(1)} \), we can find a string \( f \) of length \( m \) such that \( K(f) \geq |f|/2 \), via a polynomial-time computation with access to oracle \( R_K \). Then, we will use \( f \) to derandomize \( \text{BPP}^{R_K} \).

We use the following claim: there exists a constant \( c_1 \) such that for any strings \( z \) and \( y \),

\[ K(zy) \geq K(z) + K(y|z) - c_1 \log |zy| \].

This claim immediately follows from [LV93], Section 2.8.

We search for \( f \) inductively. We start with a string \( z \), initially equal to the empty string.

Assume (inductively) that \( K(z) \geq |z|/2 \). Try all strings \( y \) of length \( 2c_1 \log m \), and use the oracle \( R_K \) to see if \( K(zy) \geq |zy|/2 \). We are guaranteed to find such a \( y \), since for most \( y \) it holds that

\[ K(y|z) \geq |y|, \] and for any such \( y \)

\[ K(zy) \geq K(z) + K(y|z) - c_1 \log |zy| \geq |z|/2 + 2c_1 \log m - c_1 \log m = |zy|/2. \]

Let \( M \) be a probabilistic oracle Turing Machine that with oracle \( R_K \) computes a language from \( \text{BPP}^{R_K} \). \( M \) takes input \( x \) and a random string \( r \) of length polynomial in \( |x| \). For input \( x \) of length \( n \), we can construct in polynomial time an oracle circuit \( C_x \) such that \( C^{R_K}_x(r) = M^{R_K}(x, r) \). Denote the size of \( C_x \) by \( m \); \( m \) is polynomial in \( n \). We claim and prove later that any function \( f : \{0, 1\}^{\log m} \rightarrow \{0, 1\} \) that is computable by a circuit of size \( m^{1/2} \) with oracle \( R_K \) has Kolmogorov complexity at most \( O(m^{1/2} \log m) \). (We consider the Kolmogorov complexity of a function \( f \) as the Kolmogorov complexity of its truth-table.) By the first part of the proof, in \( P^{R_K} \) we can find a truth-table of function \( f : \{0, 1\}^{\log m} \rightarrow \{0, 1\} \) such that \( K(f) \geq |f|/2 \). Since \( f \) cannot be computed by circuits of size \( O(m^{1/2}) \), by Theorem 19, it can be used to estimate the acceptance probability of \( C_x \) in polynomial time with oracle access to \( R_K \). Thus, to conclude \( \text{BPP}^{R_K} = P^{R_K} \) we only need to show the previous claim.

A circuit of size at most \( m^{1/2} \) makes oracle queries of size at most \( m^{1/2} \). Since \( R_K \) is a recursively-enumerable set, to compute the characteristic function of \( R_K \) for all strings of size at most \( m^{1/2} \), we only need to specify how many of these strings are in \( R_K \). This can be described by \( m^{1/2} + 1 \) bits. Hence, any function \( f : \{0, 1\}^{\log m} \rightarrow \{0, 1\} \), that is computable by an oracle circuit of size \( m^{1/2} \) with oracle \( R_K \) can be described by \( m^{1/2} + 1 \) bits plus the description of the circuit plus some constant. Thus, for any such \( f \), \( K(f) \leq O(m^{1/2} \log m) \). \( \square \)

Proof of Theorem 13: Using Theorem 12 (relative to \( R_K \) instead of \( R_{KS} \)) and Lemma 23, we immediately obtain the desired result \( \text{PSPACE} \subseteq P^{R_K} \). \( \square \)

5 Reductions from the Discrete Log Problem

The previous section paints an illuminating picture about completeness of sets with high resource-bounded Kolmogorov complexity and completeness in \( \text{PSPACE} \) and \( \text{EXP} \) and larger complexity classes. In this section we explore what these techniques have to say about KT complexity and sets in \( \text{NP} \) and \( \text{coNP} \).

It was already observed in [KC00] that if MCSP is in \( \text{P/poly} \), then secure pseudorandom generators do not exist. Although we know of no implication (in either direction) between the hypotheses “MCSP is in \( \text{P/poly} \)” and “\( R_{KT} \) is in \( \text{P/poly} \),” the proof of [KC00] also suffices to show that secure pseudorandom generators do not exist if \( R_{KT} \) is in \( \text{P/poly} \).

We do not know if \( R_{KT} \) is complete for \( \text{coNP} \) or hard for any familiar subclass of \( \text{coNP} \) under any feasible notion of reducibility. However, we are able to show that there is a probabilistic polynomial-time Turing machine that solves the Discrete Logarithm Problem with bounded error, when given an oracle for \( R_{KT} \). More precisely, when given as input a triple \((p, g, z)\) where \( p \) is an \( n \)-bit prime number, \( 0 < g < p \), and \( 0 < z < p \), the machine outputs with probability at
least 2/3 a positive integer \( i \) such that \( g^i \equiv z \pmod{p} \), or 0 if there is no such \( i \). As will be clear from the proof, \( R_{KT} \) can be replaced by any suitably dense language containing no strings of KT-complexity less than \( n^\epsilon \) for some \( \epsilon > 0 \). In particular, the Discrete Log is in BPP-MCSP.

Kabanets and Cai observe in [KC00] that BPP \( \subseteq \) ZPP\(^{R_{KT}} \), but we are not able to show that BPP\(^{R_{KT}} \) is contained in ZPP\(^{R_{KT}} \). (I.e., we know of no analog of Lemma 20 for KT-complexity.) Thus we are not able to improve our reduction from a BPP-reduction to a ZPP-reduction. (We note that, for inputs \((p, g, x)\) such that \( x \) is in the orbit of \( g \), which is the usual class of inputs for which the discrete log is of interest, the algorithm we present does exhibit ZPP-like behavior, since with high probability we obtain a number \( i \) that we can deterministically check satisfies \( g^i \equiv x \pmod{p} \). However, when \( x \) is not in the orbit of \( g \), we obtain no proof of this fact – merely strong evidence.)

The hardness versus randomness tradeoff we will use to establish this result is the construction by [HILL99] of a pseudo-random generator \( G^HILL \): \( \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}^{2n} \) out of a (supposedly one-way) function \( f : \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}^n \). \( G^HILL \) is computable in polynomial time given oracle access to \( f \).

We will apply their result with \( f^{-1} \) being the Discrete Log function. Since the Discrete Log really is a family of functions parameterized by the prime \( p \) and the generator \( g \), we will consider functions \( f \) that are similarly parameterized. More specifically, we will consider a function \( f(y, x) \) that is length-preserving for every fixed \( y \), i.e. \( x \mapsto f_{|x|}(y, x) \) for \( f_n(y, \cdot) : \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}^n \). The function \( f(y, x) \) will be computable uniformly in time polynomial in \(|x|\) (so wlog. \( y \) is polynomially bounded in \(|x|\)). The result in [HILL99] can be stated as follows.

**Theorem 24 ([HILL99])** Let \( f(y, x) \) be computable uniformly in time polynomial in \(|x|\). For any oracle \( L \), polynomial-time probabilistic oracle Turing machine \( M \), and polynomial \( p \), there exists a polynomial-time probabilistic oracle Turing machine \( N \) and polynomial \( q \) such that the following holds for any \( n \) and \( y \): If \( |\Pr_{r \in U_{2n}}[M^L(y, r, s) = 1] - \Pr_{x \in U_n}[M^L(y, G^HILL_{f_n(y, \cdot)}(x), s) = 1]| \geq 1/p(n) \), then \( \Pr_{x \in U_n}[f(y, N^L(y, f(y, x), s)) = f(y, x)] \geq 1/q(n) \), where \( s \) denotes the internal coin flips of \( M \) or \( N \), respectively.

Theorem 24 states that if there exists a distinguisher with access to an oracle \( L \) that distinguishes the output of \( G^HILL \) from the uniform distribution, then oracle access to \( L \) suffices to invert \( f \) on a nonnegligible fraction of the inputs. We now argue that such a distinguisher exists in case \( L = R_{KT} \).

**Lemma 25** Let \( L \) be a language of polynomial density such that, for some \( c \), for every \( x \in L \), KT\((x) \geq |x|^1/c \). Let \( G(y, x) \) be a function computable uniformly in time polynomial in \(|x|\) such that for any \( y \), \( G_n(y, \cdot) : \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}^{2n} \). Then there is a polynomial-time probabilistic oracle machine \( M \) and a polynomial \( p \) such that for any \( n \) and \( y \), \( |\Pr_{r \in U_{2n}}[M^L(y, r, s) = 1] - \Pr_{x \in U_n}[M^L(y, G(y, x), s) = 1]| \geq 1/p(n) \).

**Proof.** Similar to [RR97], we use the construction of [GGM86] to build out of \( G \) a pseudorandom generator \( G' \) with larger stretching. Specifically, the proof of Theorem 4.1 of [RR97] constructs \( G'(y, x) \) such that \( G'_n(y, \cdot) : \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}^{2^k} \), and shows that if \( z = G'(y, x) \), then the circuit size \( \text{SIZE}(z) = (n + k)^{O(1)} \). We can pick \( k = O(\log n) \) such that for each \( x \) and polynomially bounded \( y \), KT\((G'(y, x)) < (G'(y, x))^1/c \). Thus \( L \) is a statistical test that accepts almost all random strings of length \(|x|^1/c \) but rejects all pseudorandom strings. As in [RR97], this gives us a probabilistic oracle machine using \( L \) that distinguishes \( G(y, \cdot) \) from the uniform distribution. \(
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Theorem 24 and Lemma 25 allow us to show that Discrete Log is computable in $\text{BPP}^{\text{RKT}}$.

**Proof of Theorem 15:** On input $(p, g, z)$, we first check (in BPP) if $p$ is prime. Let $n$ be the number of bits in $p$, and $y$ denote the pair $(p, g)$. Consider the function $f(y, x) = g^x \mod p$. Lemma 25 with $L = \text{RKT}$ and Theorem 24 give us a polynomial-time probabilistic oracle Turing machine $N$ such that for some polynomial $q$ and all $p$ and $g$, with probability at least $1/q(n)$ over randomly chosen $x$ and $s$, $N^{\text{RKT}}(p, g, g^x, s)$ produces an output $i$ such that $g^i = g^x$.

Now we make use of the self-reducibility properties of the Discrete Log. In particular, on our input $(p, g, z)$, we choose many more than $q(n)$ values $v$ and run algorithm $N$ on input $(p, g, zg^v \mod p)$. If $z$ is in the orbit of $g$, then with high probability at least one of these trials will return a value $u$ such that $g^u = zg^v \mod p$, which means that we can pick $i = u - v$ and obtain $z = g^i \mod p$.

On the other hand, if none of the trials is successful, then with high probability $z$ is not in the orbit of $g$ and the algorithm should return 0.

To summarize our knowledge about $\text{RKT}$, it lies in coNP, and it is at least as hard as the discrete logarithm problem. Is it in $\text{NP} \cap \text{coNP}$? If so, then it would provide a dense combinatorial property in NP that is useful against $\text{P/poly}$, contrary to a conjecture of Rudich [Rud97]. Is there any stronger evidence that $\text{RKT}$ is not in NP?

**Theorem 26** If $\text{RKT}$ is in $\text{NP}$, then $\text{MA} = \text{NP}$.

**Proof.** It is shown in [IKW01] that if an NP machine can, on input of length $n$, find the truth table of a function of size $n^{O(1)}$ with large circuit complexity, then $\text{MA} = \text{NP}$. Certainly this is easy if $\text{RKT}$ is in $\text{NP}$.

This observation (similar to observations in [IKW01]) can not be taken as evidence that $\text{RKT} \notin \text{NP}$, since many people conjecture that $\text{MA}$ is equal to $\text{NP}$.

However it does show that this would require nonrelativizing proof techniques.

## 6 Open Problems

KT-complexity was introduced in [All01] as a tool for summarizing some recent progress in the field of derandomization, and for describing the theory of natural proofs from the standpoint of Kolmogorov complexity. In this paper, we provide additional motivation for studying KT complexity and its variants. It provides natural and interesting examples of apparently intractable problems in NP, PSPACE, and EXP that are not complete under the more familiar notions of reducibility and hence constitute a fundamentally new class of complete problems. It is worth pointing out that variants of these sets (such as $\{x : \text{Kt}(x) \geq |x|/3\}$) appear to be incomparable to $\text{RKT}$ under $\leq^p_\text{in}$ reductions. This deserves further investigation.

Is there some sense in which KT complexity yields NP-complete sets? For instance, what can one say about $\{ (x, y, i) \mid \text{KT}(x|y) \leq i \}$? The result of [VV83] is intriguing in this light; in [VV83] Vazirani and Vazirani presented a language in NP that is complete under probabilistic reductions that is not known to be complete under deterministic reductions. Their problem superficially seems to be related to time-bounded Kolmogorov complexity.

Other intriguing open questions are: Is the EXP-complete set $\text{RKT}$ in $\text{P}$? Is it in $\text{L}$? Is $\text{PSPACE} \subseteq \text{P}^{\text{RKS}}$?
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