Circuit Lower Bounds for MCSP from Local Pseudorandom Generators

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Abstract

The Minimum Circuit Size Problem (MCSP) asks if a given truth table of a Boolean function $f$ can be computed by a Boolean circuit of size at most $\theta$, for a given parameter $\theta$. We improve several circuit lower bounds for MCSP, using pseudorandom generators (PRGs) that are local; a PRG is called local if its output bit strings, when viewed as the truth table of a Boolean function, can be computed by a Boolean circuit of small size. We get new and improved lower bounds for MCSP that almost match the best-known lower bounds against several circuit models. Specifically, we show that computing MCSP, on functions with a truth table of length $N$, requires

- $N^{3-o(1)}$-size De Morgan formulas, improving the recent $N^{2-o(1)}$ lower bound by Hirahara
  and Santhanam (CCC 2017),
- $N^{2-o(1)}$-size formulas over an arbitrary basis or general branching programs (no non-trivial
  lower bound was known for MCSP against these models), and
- $2^{\Omega(N^{1/(d+1.01)})}$-size depth-$d$ $\AC^0$ circuits, improving the (implicit, in their work) exponential
  size lower bound by Allender et al. (SICOMP 2006).

The $\AC^0$ lower bound stated above matches the best-known $\AC^0$ lower bound (for PARITY)
up to a small additive constant in the depth. Also, for the special case of depth-2 circuits (i.e.,
$\CNFs$ or $\DNFs$), we get an optimal lower bound of $2^{\Omega(N)}$ for MCSP.

Keywords. minimum circuit size problem (MCSP), circuit lower bounds, pseudorandom generators (PRGs), local PRGs, De Morgan formulas, branching programs, constant-depth circuits

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1 Introduction

Given the truth table of some Boolean function $f$ and a size parameter $\theta$, the minimum circuit size problem (MCSP) asks whether $f$ can be computed by a circuit of size at most $\theta$. Understanding the exact complexity of MCSP is an important open problem in computational complexity theory, dating back to the 1950s [Tra84].

It is easy to see that MCSP is in $\text{NP}$. A popular conjecture is that MCSP is also $\text{NP}$-hard. However, despite serious efforts over the years, such a proof is still unknown. Given that it is difficult to show that MCSP is hard, perhaps the problem is easy? It turns out that this cannot be the case under some plausible cryptographic assumptions. More specifically, it is known that if one-way functions exist, then MCSP is not in $\text{P}$ [KC00]. As proving an unconditional lower bound for MCSP seems far beyond the reach of currently known techniques, can we at least prove unconditional lower bounds for MCSP against some restricted computational models?\(^1\)

Two of the most studied restricted computational models in complexity theory are constant-depth circuits ($\text{AC}^0$) and De Morgan formulas. For $\text{AC}^0$ circuits, the best-known lower bound is about PARITY: PARITY on $N$ variables requires depth-$d$ $\text{AC}^0$ circuits of size $2^{\Omega(N^{1/(d-1)})}$ [Hås86]. For De Morgan formulas, the state-of-the-art lower bound is almost cubic, namely $N^{3-o(1)}$, for some polynomial-time computable function [Hås98, Tal14, Tal17a, DM18].

Notably, there are also lower bounds against these models for MCSP. Allender et al. [ABK+06] showed that MCSP, on functions represented as a truth table of length $N$, cannot be computed by polynomial-size constant-depth $\text{AC}^0$ circuits. In fact, by a more careful analysis of their argument, one can get a lower bound of $2^{N^{1/(c-d+O(1))}}$, for a constant $c \geq 2$. However, such a lower bound still has a worse dependence on the depth compared to the PARITY lower bound. For De Morgan formulas, Hirahara and Santhanam [HS17] showed that computing MCSP requires De Morgan formulas of size $N^{2-o(1)}$.

Given these two MCSP lower bounds and the best-known lower bounds against these two models, it is natural to ask whether we can get MCSP lower bounds against small-depth circuits and De Morgan formulas that match the state-of-the-art lower bounds against these models. More specifically, can we show that computing MCSP requires depth-$d$ $\text{AC}^0$ circuits of size $2^{N^{1/(d+O(1))}}$ and De Morgan formulas of size $N^{3-o(1)}$? Furthermore, can we show lower bounds for MCSP against some other restricted models that match their state-of-the-art lower bounds? In this paper, we answer these questions in the affirmative.

1.1 Our results

Our first result is an almost-cubic De Morgan formula lower bound for MCSP.

**Theorem 1.** Any De Morgan formula computing MCSP on truth tables of length $N$ must have size at least $N^3/2^{O(\log^{2/3} N)}$.

We also get almost-quadratic lower bounds against formulas over an arbitrary basis as well as general branching programs; these almost match the best-known lower bounds against these models [Nec66].

---

\(^1\)A recent line of research on hardness magnification [OS18, OPS18] provides another motivation for proving relatively weak lower bounds for restricted circuit models against certain “gap variants” of MCSP. Such lower bounds are shown to imply much stronger (superpolynomial) lower bounds.
Theorem 2. Let $C$ be either a formula over any basis or a branching program that computes MCSP on truth tables of length $N$. Then $C$ must have size at least $N^2/2^{O(\sqrt{\log N})}$.

For small-depth circuits, we have the following improved lower bound for MCSP, whose dependence on the depth matches the one in the PARITY lower bound, up to a small additive constant.

Theorem 3. For every $d > 2$ and every constant $\gamma > 0$, any depth-$d$ $\text{AC}^0$ circuit computing MCSP on truth tables of length $N$ must have size $2^{\Omega(N^{1/(d+1+\gamma)})}$.

For the special case of depth-2 circuits, we can have an optimal lower bound.

Theorem 4. Any CNF or DNF computing MCSP on truth tables of length $N$ must have size $2^{O(N)}$.

Also, in this paper, we give a fine-grained analysis of the approach of obtaining MCSP lower bounds from average-case hardness via the Nisan-Wigderson framework (see Section 7).

1.2 Our techniques

For a class $C$ of $N$-variate Boolean functions, a pseudorandom generator (PRG) against $C$ is a deterministic efficiently-computable function $G$ mapping short binary strings (seeds) to longer binary strings so that every function in $C$ accepts $G$’s output on a uniformly random seed with about the same probability as that for an actual uniformly random string.

A key notion in this work is that of a local PRG. We say that a PRG is local if its $N$-bit output (viewed as the truth table of some function) has small circuit complexity. More precisely, for any fixed seed to the PRG, there exists a small circuit such that, given $j \in [N]$ as an input, the circuit computes the $j$-th bit of the PRG output, where the complexity of the circuit is measured relative to its input length, namely $\log N$. Note that our notion of local PRGs does not require that the PRG in question is explicit; that is, we do not require that a local PRG can be computed by some uniform algorithm.

Local PRGs in the context of MCSP (and related problems) have been studied in previous works (see, e.g., [ABK+06, OS17, HS17, Hir18]). In this work, we refine the previous approaches, and obtain stronger circuit lower bounds by establishing strong locality properties of certain PRG constructions.\(^2\)

1.2.1 MCSP lower bounds from local PRGs

Suppose we have a local PRG against some class of circuits $\mathcal{C}$ of size $s$, and we want to show that MCSP cannot be computed by any size-$s$ circuit in $\mathcal{C}$. Suppose some size-$s$ circuit $C$ in $\mathcal{C}$ computes MCSP. Using the fact that a random function has almost maximum circuit complexity, we have that $C$ will output false on most of its inputs (by setting the size parameter $\theta$ to be a non-trivial quantity that is asymptotically smaller than $2^n/n$, where $n$ is the input length of the function). If we replace the uniformly random inputs with the outputs of the local PRG, then, by the definition

\(^2\)Note that, as one of our ICALP’19 reviewers pointed out, the notion of a local PRG can be also found in the context of cryptography [CM01], where a PRG $G : \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}^m$ is called $k$-local, for some constant $k > 0$, if every output PRG bit $G(x)_j$, for any $x \in \{0,1\}^n$ and $j \in [m]$, depends only on $k$ input bits $x_{i_1}, \ldots, x_{i_k}$, for $i_1, \ldots, i_k \in [n]$. In our work, however, locality refers to the circuit complexity of the PRG at hand and the output bits of our PRGs may depend on a super-constant number of input bits.
of PRG, C will still output \text{\textsc{false}} with large probability. However, since the PRG is local, all of its outputs have circuit complexity smaller than the size parameter $\theta$, and hence must be accepted by C. A contradiction.

To get a stronger lower bound, we would like to make the above argument to work for large $s$. Note that the local complexity of the PRG, $\lambda(s)$, is a function on the size of the circuit $C$, and we need this local complexity to be “non-trivial” in order to reach a contradiction. Therefore, we want to choose $s$ so that this local complexity remains asymptotically smaller than $2^n/n$. As a result, the final lower bound (i.e., the largest $s$ that we can choose) is determined by the local complexity $\lambda$. So the main question we study in our paper is: What is the smallest local complexity of a PRG against a given circuit class?

1.2.2 MCSP lower bound against De Morgan formulas

Our formula lower bound for MCSP is obtained by applying the framework described above to a local PRG against formulas. The state-of-the-art PRG against formulas is given by Impagliazzo, Meka, and Zuckerman [IMZ19], which we refer to as the IMZ PRG. Their PRG has a seed length of $s^{1/3+o(1)}$ for size $s$ formulas (note that such a PRG is useful against sub-cubic formulas only). If we want to utilize the IMZ PRG to get an MCSP lower bound against formulas, we will need to argue that the IMZ PRG is local.

In fact, in order to get an almost-cubic lower bound, we will need such a PRG to be strongly local in the sense that any single output bit of the PRG (on any given fixed seed) can be computed by a circuit of size comparable to its seed length, which is $s^{1/3+o(1)}$. However, by inspecting the construction, the IMZ PRG does not seem to have such a property, and a straightforward implementation seems to require a circuit of size at least $s^{2/3}$ (see Appendix B for more details), which yields a weaker lower bound for MCSP.

To overcome this issue, we present an alternative PRG useful against sub-cubic formulas which is strongly local. The construction of this PRG can be viewed as a modification of the IMZ PRG. At a high level, it is based on the Ajtai-Wigderson construction [AW89], which is a framework for constructing PRGs against computations that can be simplified under (pseudo)random restrictions. This framework is then combined with the ideas for reducing (recycling) random bits using an extractor, by exploiting communication bottlenecks in computations [NZ96]. Our modification, particularly the utilization of the Ajtai-Wigderson construction, allows us to compute any output bit of the PRG efficiently by reducing the number of calls to the extractor. Using some crucial observations on the circuit complexity of certain pseudorandom objects, we get a PRG that is locally computable by a $s^{1/3+o(1)}$-size circuit.\footnote{It is also possible to use the original IMZ PRG to obtain an almost-cubic formula lower bound for MCSP. We can show that the IMZ PRG, although not fully strongly local, is “almost strongly local” in the sense that most of its outputs have very small circuit complexity; see Appendix B.}

1.2.3 MCSP lower bounds against formulas over an arbitrary basis or branching programs

The MCSP lower bounds against formulas over an arbitrary basis or branching programs are obtained similarly to those for De Morgan formulas. The idea is to construct strongly local PRGs against these models by modifying the PRGs in [IMZ19]. Then, by applying our “MCSP circuit lower bounds from local PRGs” framework, we get the desired lower bounds.
1.2.4 MCSP lower bounds against \( \mathbf{AC}^0 \)

We use a local PRG against \( \mathbf{AC}^0 \) to get MCSP lower bounds. To get a lower bound matching the one in Theorem 3, we can use the state-of-the-art PRG against \( \mathbf{AC}^0 \) by Trevisan and Xue [TX13], which has a seed length of \((\log s)^{d+O(1)}\) for size-\(s\) depth-\(d\) \( \mathbf{AC}^0 \) circuits. By a careful analysis of the construction of this PRG, we can show that the Trevisan-Xue PRG is strongly local and can be used to get an MCSP lower bound that is close to the one stated in Theorem 3. However, in this paper, we will present a more direct proof of such a lower bound by using the pseudorandom switching lemma for constant-depth circuits, which is due to Trevisan and Xue [TX13] as well, and is a key ingredient in their PRG.

The idea is to show that for any small-depth circuit of size less than the claimed lower bound, there is some locally computable restriction that turns the circuit into a constant function, but leaves many variables unrestricted. However, MCSP cannot be constant under such a restriction, because depending on the partial assignment to the unrestricted variables, the resulting input function (which is composed of the restriction and the partial assignment) can be either easy or hard. Such an approach based on pseudorandom restrictions can also be applied to the special case of depth-2 circuits to get optimal \( \mathbf{CNF} \) (and \( \mathbf{DNF} \)) lower bounds for MCSP.

1.3 Remainder of the paper

We give the necessary background in Section 2. In Section 3, we describe our framework of using local PRGs to obtain lower bounds for MCSP. We prove the almost-cubic De Morgan formula lower bound for MCSP (Theorem 1) in Section 4, and the almost-quadratic lower bounds against formulas over an arbitrary basis and branching programs (Theorem 2) in Section 5. The improved \( \mathbf{AC}^0 \) lower bounds for MCSP (Theorem 3 and Theorem 4) are proved in Section 6. In Section 7, we discuss the framework of proving MCSP lower bounds from average-case hardness. Finally, we give some open problems in Section 8.

2 Preliminaries

2.1 Notation

For any computational model, we use the term size to refer to its complexity measure. For example, if the model is circuits of some fixed depth, then the size is the number of gates in the circuit.

For a positive integer \( n \) that is a power of two,\(^4\) we use the following notation:

- \([n]\) denotes the set \(\{1, \ldots, n\}\). We will sometimes identify \([n]\) with \(\{0, 1\}^{\log n}\), in a natural way.
- \(\mathbb{F}_n\) denotes the field with \(n\) elements. Again, we will sometimes identify \(\mathbb{F}_n\) with \(\{0, 1\}^{\log n}\) where the elements in \(\mathbb{F}_n\) are represented by \((\log n)\)-bit strings.
- \(U_n\) denotes the uniform distribution over \(\{0, 1\}^n\).
- We use \(\widetilde{O}(\cdot)\) to hide polylogarithmic factors. That is, for any \(f: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}\), we have that \(\widetilde{O}(f(n)) = O(f(n) \cdot \text{polylog}(f(n)))\).

\(^4\)We may sometimes implicitly assume that some quantity, such as the number of variables, or circuit size, is a “nice” number (e.g., a power of two). This can always be made true by adding dummy variables or dummy gates, which may change the respective quantity by a small amount, and all of our results will still hold asymptotically.
For a function \( f : \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\} \), \( \mathbf{tt}(f) \in \{0,1\}^{2^n} \) denotes the truth table of \( f \), and \( \mathsf{CC}(f) \) denotes its circuit complexity, that is, the size of the smallest Boolean circuit that computes \( f \).

### 2.2 Pseudorandomness

**Definition 5 (Pseudorandom generators).** Let \( G : \{0,1\}^r \rightarrow \{0,1\}^n \) be a function, \( \mathcal{F} \) be a class of Boolean functions, and \( 0 < \varepsilon < 1 \). We say that \( G \) is a pseudorandom generator of seed length \( r \) that \( \varepsilon \)-fools \( \mathcal{F} \) if, for every function \( f \in \mathcal{F} \), it is the case that

\[
\left| \mathbb{E}_{z \sim \{0,1\}^r} [f(G(z))] - \mathbb{E}_{x \sim \{0,1\}^n} [f(x)] \right| \leq \varepsilon.
\]

A multidimensional distribution is called \( k \)-wise independent if any \( k \) coordinates of the distribution are uniformly distributed.

**Definition 6 (\( k \)-wise independence).** A distribution \( X \) over \( [m]^n \) is called \( k \)-wise independent with parameter \( p \) if, for any \( 1 \leq i_1 \leq \cdots \leq i_k \leq n \) and every \( b_1, \ldots, b_k \in [m] \), we have

\[
\Pr[X_{i_1} = b_1, \ldots, X_{i_k} = b_k] = p^k.
\]

If \( k = 2 \), then we call this distribution pair-wise independent with parameter \( p \). If \( p = 1/m \), then we just refer to this distribution as \( k \)-wise independent.

We will need the following concentration bound for \( k \)-wise independent distributions, which is an application of Cantelli’s inequality.

**Proposition 7.** For any \( 0 < p < 1 \), let \( X_1, \ldots, X_n \) be pair-wise independent variables over \( \{0,1\} \) such that \( \Pr[X_i = 1] = p \) for each \( i \in [n] \). Then, it is the case that

\[
\Pr[X \leq pn/2] \leq \frac{4}{pn}.
\]

The following simple fact will be convenient for us.

**Lemma 8.** Let \( X \) and \( Y \) be two random variables that take values in \( \{0,1\} \) and \( \mathcal{E} \) be some event. If

- \( |\mathbb{E}[X \mid \mathcal{E}] - \mathbb{E}[Y \mid \mathcal{E}]| \leq \varepsilon_1 \) and
- \( \Pr[\neg \mathcal{E}] \leq \varepsilon_2 \),

then \( |\mathbb{E}[X] - \mathbb{E}[Y]| \leq \varepsilon_1 + \varepsilon_2 \).

**Proof.** We have

\[
\mathbb{E}[X] = \mathbb{E}[X \mid \mathcal{E}] \cdot \Pr[\mathcal{E}] + \mathbb{E}[X \mid \neg \mathcal{E}] \cdot \Pr[\neg \mathcal{E}],
\]

and

\[
\mathbb{E}[Y] = \mathbb{E}[Y \mid \mathcal{E}] \cdot \Pr[\mathcal{E}] + \mathbb{E}[Y \mid \neg \mathcal{E}] \cdot \Pr[\neg \mathcal{E}].
\]

Then,

\[
\mathbb{E}[X] - \mathbb{E}[Y] = (\mathbb{E}[X \mid \mathcal{E}] - \mathbb{E}[Y \mid \mathcal{E}]) \cdot \Pr[\mathcal{E}] + (\mathbb{E}[X \mid \neg \mathcal{E}] - \mathbb{E}[Y \mid \neg \mathcal{E}]) \cdot \Pr[\neg \mathcal{E}]
\]

\[
\leq |\mathbb{E}[X \mid \mathcal{E}] - \mathbb{E}[Y \mid \mathcal{E}]| \cdot \Pr[\mathcal{E}] + |\mathbb{E}[X \mid \neg \mathcal{E}] - \mathbb{E}[Y \mid \neg \mathcal{E}]| \cdot \Pr[\neg \mathcal{E}]
\]

\[
\leq \varepsilon_1 + \varepsilon_2.
\]

The fact \( \mathbb{E}[Y] - \mathbb{E}[X] \leq \varepsilon_1 + \varepsilon_2 \) can be similarly shown. \( \square \)
2.3 Random restrictions

A restriction for a \( n \)-variate Boolean function \( f \), usually denoted as \( \rho \in \{0, 1, \ast\}^n \), specifies a way of fixing the values of some subset of variables for \( f \). That is, if \( \rho_i = \ast \), we leave the \( i \)-th variable unrestricted and otherwise fix its value to be \( \rho_i \in \{0, 1\} \). We denote by \( f_\rho \) the restricted function after the variables are restricted according to \( \rho \), and denote by \( \rho^{-1}(\ast) \) the set of unrestricted variables. A random restriction is then a distribution over restrictions. We will often view sampling a random restriction as a two-step process: The first step is selecting (in some random manner) a subset of unrestricted variables (also called the “star” or “\( \ast \)” variables) and the second step is fixing (in some random manner) the values of all the other variables. Then, a random restriction over \( n \) variables can also be specified by a pair \( (\sigma, \beta) \in \{0, 1\}^n \times \{0, 1\}^n \), where \( \sigma \) (as a characteristic string) specifies the set of unrestricted variables, and \( \beta \) specifies the values for fixing the restricted variables.

We say that a random restriction (or random selection) is \( p \)-regular if each variable is left unrestricted with probability \( p \). One way to generate a \( p \)-regular random restriction is to leave each variable, independently, unrestricted with probability \( p \), and otherwise assign to it a 0 or a 1, uniformly at random. Such a random restriction is called a \( (\text{truly}) \ p \)-random restriction. Note that to sample such a restriction, we can first pick a string in \( \{0, 1\} \cdot \log(1/p) \approx [1/p]^n \) to specify the selection of the unrestricted variables, where a coordinate is unrestricted if and only if all of its corresponding \( \log(1/p) \) bits are 0, and then a string in \( \{0, 1\}^n \) to specify the values assigned to each of the restricted variables. So sampling a restriction in this way requires \( n \cdot \log(1/p) + n \) random bits. We can also generate a restriction in a pseudorandom manner, which may use fewer random bits. For example, one way to do this is to use a limited-independence distribution, so that each variable is set to be unrestricted with probability \( p \), and any \( k \) of the variables are independent. Note that such a “pseudorandom selection” can be obtained using a \( k \)-wise independent distribution on \( \{1/p\}^n \). Also, we can let each variable be assigned a 0 or a 1 uniformly at random in a way such that any \( k \) of the variables are independent; this again can be done using a \( k \)-wise independent distribution on \( \{0, 1\}^n \).

Finally, note that we can also get a restriction by combining a sequence of restrictions \( \rho_1, \ldots, \rho_t \), in a natural way, namely by applying the sub-restrictions one by one. In this case, we write the final restriction as \( \rho_1 \circ \cdots \circ \rho_t \).

2.4 Simple facts about Boolean circuits

We refer to a textbook as [Juk12] for a general introduction to Boolean circuits.

Proposition 9. A Boolean circuit of size \( s \) can be specified using \( O(s \log s) \) bits. Hence there are at most \( 2^{O(s \log s)} = s^{O(s)} \) distinct circuits of size at most \( s \).

Theorem 10 ([Sha49]). The fraction of functions on \( n \) variables that have a circuit of size less than \( 2^n/(3n) \) is \( o(1) \).

Lemma 11. For any integer \( t > 0 \), there exists a circuit \( C \) of size \( \tilde{O}(t) \) such that, given any string \( x \in \{0, 1\}^t \), the circuit does the following:

- If \( x = 0^t \), then \( C \) outputs \( (0, 0^\log t) \).
- If \( x \neq 0^t \), then \( C \) outputs \( (1, q) \), where \( q \in \{0, 1\}^\log t \) is the index of the first bit in \( x \) that is not 0.
Proof. Define \( z^{(0)} = (0, 0^{\log t}) \) and \( z^{(i)} \), for any \( i = 1, \ldots, t \), recursively as follows:

\[
\begin{cases}
  z^{(i)} = \\
  \begin{cases}
    z^{(i-1)}, & \text{if } (z^{(i-1)})_1 = 1, \\
    z^{(i-1)}, & \text{if } (z^{(i-1)})_1 = 0 \text{ and } x_i = 0, \text{ and} \\
    (1, i), & \text{if } (z^{(i-1)})_1 = 0 \text{ and } x_i = 1.
  \end{cases}
\end{cases}
\]

Note that each \( z^{(i)} \) can be computed in \( \text{polylog}(t) \) size given \( z^{(i-1)} \). Using a circuit of size \( \tilde{O}(t) \) we can compute \( z^{(t)} \), which is our output. \( \square \)

The following circuit upper bound for the addressing (storage access) function is well-known (see, e.g., [Weg87]); we include a proof for completeness.

**Lemma 12.** For any integers \( t, m > 0 \), there exists a circuit of size \( O(t \cdot m) \) such that, given any string \( y = (y_1, \ldots, y_t) \), where \( y_i \in \{0, 1\}^m \), for each \( i \), and an index \( i \in \{0, 1\}^{\log t} \), the circuit outputs \( y_i \).

**Proof.** We first look at the first bit (i.e., the least significant bit in binary) of \( i \) and output either the first half of \( y \) (i.e., \( y_1, \ldots, y_{t/2} \)), if the first bit is 0, or the second half (i.e., \( y_{(t/2)+1}, \ldots, y_t \)), if the first bit is 1; denote this output as \( y^{(1)} \). This can be done by a circuit of size \( c \cdot t \cdot m \), for some constant \( c > 0 \). Then, we look at the second bit of \( i \) and output either the first half or the second half of \( y^{(1)} \), denoted as \( y^{(2)} \). This can be done by a circuit of size \( c \cdot t \cdot m/2 \). We repeat the above process \( \log t \) times, in total, until we get \( y^{(\log t)} \), which is \( y_i \). The circuit complexity of this procedure is

\[
\sum_{k=1}^{\log t} (c \cdot t \cdot m)/2^{k-1} = O(t \cdot m).
\]

3 The “MCSP circuit lower bounds from local PRGs” framework

We first describe how to use local PRGs to obtain circuit lower bounds for MCSP.

**Definition 13 (Local PRGs).** Let \( \lambda : \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N} \) be a size function. For any Boolean computational model and size \( s > 0 \), we say that a function \( G : \{0, 1\}^{r(N,s)} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^N \) is a \((N, s, \lambda(N, s))\)-local PRG against the model if

- \( G \) 1/3-fools every device \( f \) on \( N \) variables of size \( s \) in the model; that is,

\[
\left| \mathbb{E}_{z \sim \{0, 1\}^r} [f(G(z))] - \mathbb{E}_{x \sim \{0, 1\}^N} [f(x)] \right| \leq 1/3,
\]

and

- for any seed \( z \in \{0, 1\}^r \), the function \( g_z : \{0, 1\}^{\log N} \rightarrow \{0, 1\} \) defined as \( g_z(j) = G(z)_j \) can be computed by a general circuit of size at most \( \lambda(N, s) \).

**Remark 14.** Definition 13 is a notable departure from earlier work on PRGs, in that there is no requirement that a local PRG is easy to compute. Instead, the utility of the PRG is derived from the requirement that each of the functions \( g_z \) is easy to compute.
Theorem 15. There exists a constant \( c > 0 \) such that the following holds. For any computational model, let \( s \) be such that \( \text{MCSP} \) on truth tables of length \( N \) can be computed by a device of size \( s \) in the model. If there exists some \((N, s, \lambda(N, s))\)-local PRG, of any seed-length, against the model, then \( \lambda(N, s) \geq \frac{N}{c \log N} \).

Proof. Let \( C \) be a device in the computational model such that \( C \) computes \( \text{MCSP} \) on truth tables of length \( N \). Suppose \( C \) has size \( s \), and let \( G \) be a \((N, s, \lambda(N, s))\)-local PRG against \( C \) with some seed length \( r \).

For the sake of contradiction, suppose that \( \lambda(N, s) < \frac{N}{c \log N} \).

On the one hand, since most functions require circuits of size greater than \( \frac{N}{c \log N} \) (Theorem 10) and \( C \) computes \( \text{MCSP} \), we have

\[
\mu = \Pr_{tt(f) \sim \{0, 1\}^N} [C(tt(f), \lambda(N, s)) = 0] \geq 1/2.
\]

Also, since \( G \) fools \( C \), we have

\[
\Pr_{z \sim \{0, 1\}^r} [C(G(z), \lambda(N, s)) = 0] \geq \mu - 1/3 \geq 1/6.
\]

On the other hand, because \( G \) is \((N, s, \lambda(N, s))\)-local, we must have \( C(G(z), \lambda(N, s)) = 1 \), for every \( z \). A contradiction.

It is easy to see that a local hitting set generator (HSG) is sufficient for the above argument to work. HSGs are a weak version of PRGs with the following property: For every function \( f \) in the class, if \( f \) accepts many of its inputs, then a HSG outputs such an input for at least one of its seeds.

4 Almost-cubic De Morgan formula lower bounds for MCSP

In this section, we present our almost-cubic De Morgan formula lower bound for MCSP. By saying “formula” within this section, we refer to formulas over the De Morgan basis (AND, OR, and NOT). By the size of a formula, we mean its usual leaf complexity, i.e., the number of leaves in the tree representation of the formula.

Theorem 16 (Theorem 1, restated). Any De Morgan formula computing MCSP on truth tables of length \( N \) must have size at least \( N^3/2^{O(\log^{2/3} N)} \).

We will construct a strongly local PRG useful against sub-cubic formulas. That is, given as input an index \( j \), the \( j \)-th bit of the PRG can be computed by a circuit of size that is comparable to its seed length, which in our case is around \( s^{1/3} \) for size \( s \) formulas.

Lemma 17. For any \( s \geq N \), there exists a \((N, s, s^{1/3}, 2^{O(\log^{2/3}(s))})\)-local PRG against De Morgan formulas.

Given the local PRG in Lemma 17, we can combine it with our Theorem 15 to obtain a formula lower bound for MCSP.
Proof of Theorem 16. Let \( s \leq N^3 \) be such that MCSP on truth tables of length \( N \) can be computed by some formula of size \( s \). By Theorem 15 and Lemma 17, we have

\[
s^{1/3} \cdot 2^{O((\log^2/3)s)} \geq \frac{N}{(c \log N)};
\]

then, \( s \geq \frac{N^3}{(2^{O((\log^2/3)N)}c^3 (\log^2 N))} \).

The rest of this section is devoted to proving Lemma 17.

4.1 Almost-linear-size \( k \)-independent generators

The PRG in Lemma 17 will use \( k \)-wise independent distributions. Recall that a multidimensional distribution is called \( k \)-wise independent if any \( k \) coordinates of the distribution are uniformly distributed (see Definition 6).

A \( k \)-independent generator is a function from binary strings to binary strings that takes as input a random seed and stretches that seed to a string that follows a \( k \)-wise independent distribution. We will need efficient and local constructions for \( k \)-independent generators as well as some other pseudorandom objects. These objects can be constructed using finite fields; we need the following result, which says that finite field arithmetic can be performed by almost-linear-size circuits.

Fact 18 (See, e.g., [vzGG13, GS13]). For any integer \( \ell > 0 \), let the elements in \( \mathbb{F}_{2^\ell} \) be represented by \( \ell \)-bit strings. Then, addition over \( \mathbb{F}_{2^\ell} \) can be performed by a circuit of size \( O(\ell) \) and multiplication over \( \mathbb{F}_{2^\ell} \) can be performed by a circuit of size \( \tilde{O}(\ell) \).

We now describe an efficient construction for \( k \)-independent generators, using the fact that finite field arithmetic can be done using almost linear-size circuits.

Lemma 19. For any integer \( k > 0 \), there exists a \( k \)-independent generator \( G : \{0,1\}^r \to \{0,1\}^n \), with \( r = k \cdot \max\{\log n, \log m\} \), such that the following holds. There exists a circuit of size

\[
k \cdot \max\{\tilde{O}(\log n), \tilde{O}(\log m)\}
\]

such that, given \( j \in \{0,1\}^{\log n} \) and a seed \( z \in \{0,1\}^r \), the circuit computes the \( j \)-th coordinate of \( G(z) \).

Proof. Let \( n' = \max\{n, m\} \) and suppose \( n' = 2^\ell \). We view the elements in \( \mathbb{F}_{n'} \) as \( \ell \)-bit strings. Consider the following function \( g : \mathbb{F}_{n'} \times \mathbb{F}_{n'} \to \mathbb{F}_{n'} \):

\[
g(i, z_0, \ldots, z_{k-1}) = z_0 + z_1 \cdot i + \cdots + z_{k-1} \cdot i^{k-1}.
\]

It is known (see [Vad12, Proposition 3.33]) that the function \( G : \mathbb{F}_n^k \to \mathbb{F}_{n'}^n \), given as

\[
G(z_0, \ldots, z_{k-1}) = (g(1, z_0, \ldots, z_{k-1}), \ldots, g(n', z_0, \ldots, z_{k-1}))
\]

is a \( k \)-independent generator.

Using Fact 18 it is easy to implement a circuit of size \( k \cdot \tilde{O}(\ell) \) that computes \( g(j, z) \). Note that to get an output in \([m]\) we can simply output the first \( \log m \) bits of \( G(z)_j \), since the field has characteristic 2. \qed
4.2 Almost-linear-size extractors

Our PRG will make use of randomness extractors. Here, we describe an extractor that is computable by a circuit of size that is almost linear in the length of its input. We start by reviewing some basic definitions regarding extractors.

**Definition 20** (\(\varepsilon\)-closeness and statistical distance). Let \(0 \leq \varepsilon \leq 1\). We say two distributions \(X\) and \(Y\) (over some universe \(D\)) are \(\varepsilon\)-close if their statistical distance, defined as

\[
\max_{T:D \rightarrow \{0,1\}} |\Pr[T(X) = 1] - \Pr[T(Y) = 1]|,
\]

is at most \(\varepsilon\).

**Definition 21** (Min-entropy). Let \(X\) be a random variable. The min-entropy of \(X\), denoted by \(H_\infty(X)\), is the largest real number \(k\) such that \(\Pr[X = x] \leq 2^{-k}\) for every \(x\) in the range of \(X\). If \(X\) is a distribution over \(\{0,1\}^k\) with \(H_\infty(X) \geq k\), then \(X\) is called a \((\aleph, k)\)-source.

**Definition 22** (Extractors). A function \(E: \{0,1\}^k \times \{0,1\}^d \rightarrow \{0,1\}^m\) is an \((k, \varepsilon)\)-extractor if, for any \((\aleph, k)\)-source \(X\), the distribution \(E(X, U_d)\) is \(\varepsilon\)-close to \(U_m\).

We now state the extractor, which for a high min-entropy source extracts a constant fraction of the min-entropy, using seeds of polylogarithmic length. The construction and circuit complexity of this extractor are presented in Appendix A.

**Lemma 23** (Almost-linear-size extractors, following [NZ96]). There exists some randomness extractor \(E: \{0,1\}^\aleph \times \{0,1\}^d \rightarrow \{0,1\}^m\) that is an \((\aleph/2, \varepsilon)\)-extractor with \(m = \Omega(\aleph)\) and \(d = \text{polylog}(\aleph/\varepsilon)\). Moreover, \(E\) can be computed by a circuit of size \(\aleph \cdot \text{polylog}(\aleph/\varepsilon)\).

4.3 Strongly local PRG useful against sub-cubic De Morgan formulas

For a formula \(F\), let \(L(F)\) denote the size (which is measured by the number of leaves) of \(F\). We need the following pseudorandom shrinkage lemma for De Morgan formulas, which says that there exists a \(p\)-regular restriction, where the unrestricted variables are selected pseudorandomly and the restricted variables are fixed truly-randomly, such that with high probability the size of the restricted formula will “shrink” by a factor of \(p^2\).

**Lemma 24** (Pseudorandom shrinkage lemma, [IMZ19, Lemma 4.8]\(^5\)). There exists a constant \(c_0 > 0\) such that the following holds. For any constant \(c > c_0\), any \(s \geq N\), \(p \geq s^{-1/2}\), and any De Morgan formula \(F\) on \(N\) variables of size \(s\), there exists a \(p\)-regular pseudorandom selection \(D\) over \(N\) variables that is samplable using \(r = 2^{O(\log^{2/3} s)}\) random bits such that

\[
\Pr_{\sigma \sim D, x \sim \{0,1\}^N} \left[ L(F_{(\sigma, x)}) \geq 2^{3c \log^{2/3} s} \cdot p^2 \cdot s \right] \leq s^{-c}.
\]

Moreover, there exists a circuit of size \(2^{O(\log^{2/3} s)}\) such that, given \(j \in \{0,1\}^\log N\) and a seed \(z \in \{0,1\}^T\), the circuit computes the \(j\)-th coordinate of \(D(z)\).

\(^5\)The pseudorandom shrinkage lemma in [IMZ19] is not stated in this form, but rather selects the unrestricted variables and fixes the restricted variables both pseudorandomly (based on limited independence). This immediately implies the above lemma, where the restricted variables are set independently (and hence also \(k\)-wise independently, for any \(k\)). Further, the last statement follows from the fact that the restricted variables are chosen by a \(k\)-wise independent distribution, which can be computed locally; see Lemma 19.
We are now ready to show our PRG in Lemma 17.

**Proof of Lemma 17.** The construction is as follows: We first sample a \( p \)-regular pseudorandom selection from Lemma 24. Then, we fill the star coordinates, specified by the pseudorandom selection, in the output string with the output of some extractor which takes a min-entropy source sample and a short seed. (More precisely, the star coordinates are filled with the output of some limited-independence generator that takes the output of an extractor as a seed.) We then sample another pseudorandom selection, and fill the star coordinates specified by this pseudorandom selection but this time only for those that have not been filled in previous steps, again with the output of the same extractor using the *same min-entropy source sample* but a *different short seed*. We continue this way until all the coordinates are filled.

More formally, our PRG uses the following parameters:

- \( p = 1/s^{1/3} \), the expected fraction of unrestricted variables in each of the pseudorandom selections;
- \( \varepsilon = 1/poly(N) \) and \( \varepsilon_0 = \varepsilon/(10t) \), which specify the error of the PRG;
- \( t = \ln(4N/\varepsilon)/p = s^{1/3} \cdot O(\log N) \), the number of steps needed so that all the coordinates will be filled with probability \( 1 - \varepsilon/4 \);
- \( s_0 = p^2 \cdot s \cdot 2^{O(\log^{2/3} s)} = s^{1/3} \cdot 2^{O(\log^{2/3} s)} \), the size of the formula after being simplified by a pseudorandom restriction;
- \( k \geq s_0 = s^{1/3} \cdot 2^{O(\log^{2/3} s)} \), the amount of independence needed to fool the simplified formula, and \( r_k = k \cdot \log N \) the seed length for the \( k \)-independent generator;
- \( \aleph \), the length of the min-entropy source for the extractor, which is such that \( \aleph \geq 2 \cdot \log(1/\varepsilon_0) + c \cdot s_0 \cdot \log s_0 \), where \( c > 0 \) is some constant, and that \( \Omega(\aleph) \geq r_k \). We can take \( \aleph = s^{1/3} \cdot 2^{O(\log^{2/3} s)} \);
- \( d = polylog(\aleph/\varepsilon_0) = polylog(N) \), the seed length of the extractor;
- \( \ell = 2^{O(\log^{2/3} s)} \), the number of random bits for sampling a pseudorandom selection.

**Construction.** The PRG takes a seed \((X, Y_1, \ldots, Y_t, \gamma_1, \ldots, \gamma_t) \in \{0,1\}^r\), where

- \( X \in \{0,1\}^\aleph \) is the min-entropy source sample of an extractor,
- \( Y_i \in \{0,1\}^{polylog(N)} \), for each \( i \in [t] \), is the seed of an extractor, and
- \( \gamma_i \in \{0,1\}^\ell \), for each \( i \in [t] \), is the seed for sampling a pseudorandom selection.

The construction of the PRG proceeds in the following two stages.

---

\[^{6}\text{In fact, there are mainly two types of parameters here. Those that are close to } s^{1/3}, \text{ which are } 1/p, t, s_0, k, N, \text{ and those that are close to } N^{\omega(1)}, \text{ which are } d \text{ and } \ell.\]
Stage 1. Compute a sequence of \( t \) \( p \)-regular pseudorandom selections \( \sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_t \), using Lemma 24, with the seeds \( \gamma_1, \ldots, \gamma_t \). Below, we denote the star coordinates in \( \sigma_i \) by \( \sigma_i^{-1}(\ast) \). Let \( S_1, \ldots, S_t \subseteq [N] \) be \( t \) disjoint sets defined by
\[
S_i = \sigma_i^{-1}(\ast) \setminus (S_1 \cup \cdots \cup S_{i-1}).
\]

Stage 2. Define \( Z_1, \ldots, Z_t \in \{0, 1\}^N \) by
\[
Z_i = G_k(E(X, Y_i)),
\]
where \( E: \{0, 1\}^N \times \{0, 1\}^d \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{\Omega(N)} \) is an \((N/2, \varepsilon_0)\)-extractor and \( G_k: \{0, 1\}^{rk} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^N \) is a \( k \)-independent generator. The final output of our PRG is the binary string that has the values \( Z_i|_{S_i} \) in the positions indexed by \( S_i \), for all \( i \in [t] \), where \( Z_i|_{S_i} \) denotes the bit values of \( Z_i \) projected to the set \( S_i \). (We fix those positions that are not in any of the \( S_i \)'s to be 0.) Stage 2 of the PRG construction is depicted in Figure 1.

![Figure 1: Construction of the PRG in Lemma 17, Stage 2. For each \( i \in [t] \), \( 1_{S_i} \in \{0, 1\}^N \) denotes the characteristic Boolean vector of the set \( S_i \), where \( S_i \subseteq [N] \) is the set of star coordinates, in the \( i \)-th pseudorandom selection, that did not appear in the preceding sets \( S_1, \ldots, S_{i-1} \). Also, \( \land \) denotes a coordinate-wise AND operation (i.e., coordinate-wise multiplication of Boolean vectors) and \( \lor \) is a coordinate-wise OR operation.](image-url)
Correctness. Next, we show that the above PRG $\varepsilon$-fools $N$-variate formulas of size $s$. First, note that, by our choice of $t$, with probability $1 - \varepsilon/4$, $S = S_1 \cup \cdots \cup S_t$ covers all $N$ coordinates. To proceed, we will use a hybrid argument. Let $G$ denote the distribution given by the PRG described above. Let $U$ be the uniform distribution. Note that if in the above construction we replace $Z_i$, for all $i \in [t]$, with $U$, then we would get a uniform distribution. Now we can start from there and we will gradually replace $U$ with the $Z_i$’s step-by-step for a total of $t$ steps. We will argue that after each replacement step, the expected value of the function does not change by much. Let $B_i$ be the distribution where we have replaced $U$ with $Z_i$ in the first $i$ steps and $S = [N]$. That is,

$$B_i = \left( Z_1|_{S_1}, \ldots, Z_i|_{S_i}, U|_{S_{i+1}}, \ldots, U|_{S_t} \right) = \left( Z_1|_{S_1}, \ldots, Z_i|_{S_i}, U|_{S_{i+1} \cup \cdots \cup S_t} \right)$$

and we want to show that $|\mathbb{E}[f(U)] - \mathbb{E}[f(G)]| = |\mathbb{E}[f(B_0)] - \mathbb{E}[f(B_t)]| \leq \varepsilon$. Let

$$A_i = \left( Z_1|_{S_1}, \ldots, Z_i|_{S_i}, U|_{S_{i+1}}, \ldots, U|_{S_t}, U|_{[N] \setminus S} \right) = \left( Z_1|_{S_1}, \ldots, Z_i|_{S_i}, U|_{S_{i+1} \cup \cdots \cup S_t \cup (N \setminus S)} \right)$$

be the version of the distribution $B_i$ in the case where $S \subseteq [N]$. Let $C$ denote the event $S = [N]$; by Lemma 8, for all $i$, we get that

$$|\mathbb{E}[f(A_i)] - \mathbb{E}[f(B_i)]| \leq |\mathbb{E}[f(A_i) \mid C] - \mathbb{E}[f(B_i) \mid C]| + \Pr[-C] \leq 0 + \varepsilon/4 = \varepsilon/4.$$ 

Therefore, it would suffice to establish $|\mathbb{E}[f(A_0)] - \mathbb{E}[f(A_t)]| \leq \varepsilon/2$ since this inequality would imply the desired $|\mathbb{E}[f(B_0)] - \mathbb{E}[f(B_t)]| \leq \varepsilon$.

Note that using the distributions would $B_i$ require that $S = [N]$ and this could result in dependencies among the sets $S_i$. This is the reason for introducing the distributions $A_i$; we shall later make use of the fact that the selections $\sigma_i$, that come up in the definitions of the sets $S_i$, are independent.

Now, for the sake of contradiction, suppose there exists a size-$s$ formula $f$ on $N$ variables such that

$$|\mathbb{E}[f(A_0)] - \mathbb{E}[f(A_t)]| > \varepsilon/2.$$ 

By the triangle inequality, there exists an $0 \leq i < t$ such that

$$|\mathbb{E}[f(A_i)] - \mathbb{E}[f(A_{i+1})]| > \varepsilon/(2t). \tag{1}\label{eq:1}$$

Let us say that both the expectations in Equation (1) are over

$$\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_{i+1}, Y_1, \ldots, Y_{i+1}, X, U,$$

and we remove the absolute value without loss of generality. Then, we have

$$\mathbb{E}_{\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_{i+1}, Y_1, \ldots, Y_{i+1}, X, U}[f(A_i)] - \mathbb{E}_{\sigma_{i+1}, Y_{i+1}, U}[f(A_{i+1})] > \varepsilon/(2t). \tag{2}\label{eq:2}$$

Denote $W_i = (\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_i, Y_1, \ldots, Y_i, X)$, and let $f'$ be the random function (where the randomness is over $W_i$) defined as

$$f' = f(Z_1|_{S_1}, \ldots, Z_i|_{S_i}, \cdots).$$
That is, $f'$ is the restricted function after the first $i$ steps. Then, the left hand side of Equation (2) becomes

$$
\mathbb{E}_{W_i} \left[ \mathbb{E}_{\sigma_{i+1}, U} \left[ f'(U|S_{i+1}, U|S_{i+2} \cup \cdots \cup S_{i+2} \cup (|N| \setminus S)) \right] \right] - \mathbb{E}_{\sigma_{i+1}, U} \left[ f'(Z_{i+1}|S_{i+1}, U|S_{i+2} \cup \cdots \cup S_{i+2} \cup (|N| \setminus S)) \right].
$$

Note that, at this point, we can view $\rho_{i+1} = (\sigma_{i+1}, U)$ as a pseudorandom restriction (in the sense of Lemma 24) applied to $f'$. Next, let $f''$ be the random function defined as the restricted function of $f'$ under $\rho_{i+1}$ (note that the randomness is over $W_i$, and also the pseudorandom restriction $\rho_{i+1}$). Now Equation (3) becomes

$$
\mathbb{E}_{W_i, \rho_{i+1}} \left[ \mathbb{E}_{U} \left[ f''(U) \right] - \mathbb{E}_{Y_{i+1}} \left[ f''(Z_{i+1}) \right] \right].
$$

Note that in the above, we abuse the notation and use $U$ and $Z_{i+1}$ to denote $U|S_{i+1}$ and $Z_{i+1}|S_{i+1}$, respectively.

Next we want to show that the difference between the two expectations in Equation (4) is at most $3\varepsilon_0 = 3\varepsilon/(10t) \leq \varepsilon/(2t)$, which would give a contradiction, by Equation (2). The intuition is the following. On the one hand, $f''$ is obtained by a pseudorandom restriction $\rho_{i+1}$, and so, with high probability, it has size at most $s_0$. On the other hand, $Z_{i+1}$ is obtained using an extractor that is supposed to extract enough random bits for an $s_0$-independent generator.

The issue, however, is that $f''$ depends on $X$, the source sample of the extractor. Therefore, $f''$ may contain information about $X$, so that $X$ is not truly random anymore. Nonetheless, being a formula of size at most $s_0$, $f''$ cannot contain too much information, and so cannot take too much entropy away from $X$. We make this argument more formal next.

Let us define the set of good functions for $f''$, namely

$$
\mathcal{F} = \left\{ g \mid L(g) \leq s_0 \quad \text{and} \quad \Pr_{W_i, \rho_{i+1}}[f'' = g] \geq \varepsilon_0/s_0^{c_0} \right\},
$$

where $c$ is some constant. Let $\mathcal{E}$ denote the event $f'' \in \mathcal{F}$. We first show the following.

**Claim 25.** It is the case that $\Pr[-\mathcal{E}] \leq 2\varepsilon_0$.

**Proof of Claim 25.** We have

$$
\Pr[-\mathcal{E}] = \Pr[(f'' \notin \mathcal{F}) \land (L(f'') > s_0)] + \Pr[(f'' \notin \mathcal{F}) \land (L(f'') \leq s_0)] \\
\leq \Pr[(L(f'') > s_0)] + \Pr[(f'' \notin \mathcal{F}) \land (L(f'') \leq s_0)].
$$

Note that, by the pseudorandom shrinkage lemma (Lemma 24), we have

$$
\Pr[L(f'') > s_0] \leq \varepsilon_0;
$$

in fact, our choices of $s_0$ and $\varepsilon_0$ were informed by our intention to make the above inequality hold. Also note that under the condition that $L(f'') \leq s_0$, there can be at most $s_0^{O(s_0)}$ choices for $f''$, since a formula of size $s_0$ can be specified using $O(s_0 \log s_0)$ bits (Proposition 9). Therefore,

$$
\Pr[(f'' \notin \mathcal{F}) \land (L(f'') \leq s_0)] \leq s_0^{O(s_0)} \cdot \varepsilon_0/s_0^{c_0} \leq \varepsilon_0.
$$
Let us now analyze Equation (4) while conditioning on the event $\mathcal{E}$. We show the following.

**Claim 26.** It is the case that $E[f''(U) \mid \mathcal{E}] - E[f''(Z_{i+1}) \mid \mathcal{E}] \leq \varepsilon_0$.

**Proof of Claim 26.** First note that conditioning on $\mathcal{E}$, $X$ still has a large min-entropy. More precisely, for every $g \in \mathcal{F}$ it is the case that

$$H_{\infty}(X \mid f'' = g) \geq \aleph/2.$$

This is because, for every $x$, we have

$$\Pr[X = x \mid f'' = g] \leq \frac{2^{-\aleph} \cdot \varepsilon_0}{s_0^{c \cdot s_0}} = 2^{-\aleph/2}.$$

Then, by the definition of the extractor, we have

$$E[f''(G_k(U)) \mid \mathcal{E}] - E[f''(Z_{i+1}) \mid \mathcal{E}] \leq \varepsilon_0.$$

Finally, note that

$$E[f''(G_k(U)) \mid \mathcal{E}] = E[f''(U) \mid \mathcal{E}],$$

since $s_0$-wise independent distributions fool size-$s_0$ formulas.

Combining Claim 25, Claim 26, and Lemma 8, we get that the quantity in Equation (4) is at most $3\varepsilon_0$, which leads to a contradiction. This completes the proof of the correctness.

**Locality.** To see that the $j$-th bit of the PRG can be computed using a circuit of size $s^{1/3} \cdot 2^{O(\log^{2/3} s)}$, we observe the following equivalent construction:

1. Compute the $j$-th bits of the $t$ pseudorandom selections $(\sigma_1)_j, \ldots, (\sigma_t)_j$.
2. Retrieve $Y_q$, where $q$ is the smallest integer such that $(\sigma_q)_j$ is a star.
3. Compute $(Z_q)_j = G_k(E(X, Y_q))_j$ as the $j$-th bit of the PRG.

Note that Step 1 can be done using a circuit of size $t \cdot 2^{O(\log^{2/3} s)} = s^{1/3} \cdot 2^{O(\log^{2/3} s)}$, by the pseudorandom shrinkage lemma (Lemma 24). Also, Step 2 can be done by first computing $q$ from the sequence $((\sigma_i)_j)_{i \in [t]}$ using a circuit of size $\widetilde{O}(t)$ (Lemma 11), and then outputting $Y_q$ from $(Y_i)_{i \in [t]}$ using a circuit of size $t \cdot \text{polylog}(N)$ (Lemma 12). Finally, Step 3 can be done by a circuit of size $\widetilde{O}(\aleph)$ using the efficient extractor (Lemma 23) and the limited-independence generator (Lemma 19).

5 **Almost-quadratic lower bounds against arbitrary basis formulas and branching programs**

Here, we prove MCSP lower bounds against formulas, over an arbitrary basis, and branching programs. These lower bounds are obtained similarly to those for De Morgan formulas in the previous section. The idea is to construct strongly local PRGs against these models by modifying the PRGs in [IMZ19].

The following pseudorandom shrinkage lemma for formulas over an arbitrary basis as well as branching programs is an analogue of Lemma 24.
Lemma 27 ([IMZ19, Lemma 4.2 and Lemma 5.3]). There exists a constant \(c_0 > 0\) such that the following holds. For any constant \(c > c_0\) and any \(s \geq N\), let \(p = s^{-1/2}\) and \(F\) be a formula over any basis (or a branching program) on \(N\) variables of size \(s\); then, there exists a \(p\)-regular pseudorandom selection \(D\) over \(N\) variables that is samplable using \(r = \text{polylog}(N)\) random bits such that

\[
\Pr_{\sigma \sim D, x \sim \{0,1\}^N} \left[ L(F(\sigma, x)) \geq 2^{3\sqrt{c \log s} \cdot p \cdot s} \right] \leq 2 \cdot s^{-c}.
\]

Moreover, there exists a circuit of size \(2^{O(\log^{2/3} s)}\) such that, given \(j \in \{0,1\}^{\log N}\) and a seed \(z \in \{0,1\}^r\), the circuit computes the \(j\)-th bit of \(D(z)\).

Using the above pseudorandom shrinkage lemma and an argument as in the proof of the strongly local PRG against De Morgan formulas (Lemma 17), we get the following local PRGs.

Lemma 28. For any \(s \geq n\), there exists a \((N, s, s^{1/2} \cdot 2^{O(\sqrt{\log s})})\)-local PRG against size-\(s\) formulas over an arbitrary basis (or branching programs).

The MCSP lower bound in Theorem 2 follows from Lemma 28 and Theorem 15.

6 Improved AC\(^0\) lower bounds for MCSP

In this section, we show improved lower bounds for MCSP against constant-depth circuits.

6.1 The case of depth \(d > 2\)

We first show an improved lower bound against depth-\(d\) circuits that almost matches the lower bound for PARITY.

Theorem 29 (Theorem 3, restated). For every \(d > 2\) and every constant \(\gamma > 0\), any depth-\(d\) AC\(^0\) circuit computing MCSP on truth tables of length \(N\) must have size \(2^{\Omega(N^{1/(d+1+\gamma)})}\).

The above result is proved using the following structural property of small-depth circuits, which says that, for any such circuit, there exists some locally computable restriction that simplifies the circuits to a constant while leaving many variables unrestricted.

Lemma 30. For any size-\(s\) depth-\(d\) circuit \(C\), there exists a restriction \(\rho \in \{0,1,*\}^N\) such that

- \(C_\rho\) is a constant function,
- \(|\rho^{-1}(*)| \geq \frac{N}{O(\log s)^{d-2}} - \log s\), and
- there exists a circuit of size \(d \cdot \log(N) \cdot \tilde{O}(\log^3 s)\) such that, given \(j \in \{0,1\}^{\log N}\), the circuit computes the \(j\)-th coordinate of \(\rho\).

We now prove Theorem 29 using Lemma 30.
**Proof of Theorem 29.** Let $C$ be a depth-$d$ $\text{AC}^0$ circuit on $\{0,1\}^N \times \{0,1\}^{\log N}$ such that $C$ computes MCSP on truth tables of length $N$, and let $s$ be the size of $C$.

For a size parameter $\lambda = d \cdot \log(N) \cdot \tilde{O}(\log^3 s)$, let $C' = C(\cdot, \lambda)$. Let $\rho$ be a restriction from Lemma 30 for $C'$.

By Lemma 30, we have that $C'_\rho$ is a constant function. First, note that

$$C'_\rho\left(0^{\rho^{-1}(s)}\right) = 1.$$ 

To see this, note that

$$C'_\rho\left(0^{\rho^{-1}(s)}\right) = C(\text{tt}(f), \lambda),$$

where $C$ computes MCSP and $f: \{0,1\}^{\log N} \rightarrow \{0,1\}$ is the following:

$$f(j) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } \rho_j = 0 \text{ or } \rho_j = *, \\ 1, & \text{if } \rho_j = 1. \end{cases}$$

By Item 3 of Lemma 30, such a function $f$ can be computed by a $\lambda$-size circuit. On the other hand, there can be $2^{|\rho^{-1}(s)|}$ different functions corresponding to the different partial assignments to the unrestricted variables. Since there are at most $2^{O(\lambda \log \lambda)}$ different circuits of size at most $\lambda$, in order for $C'_\rho$ to be of size

$$2^{O(\lambda \log \lambda)} \geq 2^{|\rho^{-1}(s)|} = 2^{\frac{N}{O(\log \rho \log s - \log s)}},$$

which, by a simple calculation, implies $s = 2^{\Omega(N^{1/(d+1+\gamma)})}$, for any constant $\gamma > 0$. \qed

The proof of Lemma 30 uses the pseudorandom switching lemma due to Trevisan and Xue [TX13], which we revisit below. The (pseudorandom) switching lemma says that a depth-2 circuit is likely to be simplified after being hit by a (pseudo)random restriction.

Below, when we refer to the size of a DNF or CNF we mean the number of its terms or clauses, respectively.

**Lemma 31** (Pseudorandom switching lemma, [TX13, Lemma 7]). For any integers $t, w > 0$, $s \geq N$, and any $0 < p, \varepsilon_0 < 1$, let $F$ be an $N$-variate $w$-CNF or $w$-DNF of size $s$, and let $\mathcal{D}$ be a distribution over $\{0,1\}^N \times \{0,1\}^N$ that $\varepsilon_0$-fools $(s_0 = s \cdot 2^{w(\log(1/p)+1)})$-clause CNFs, then

$$\mathbf{Pr}_{\rho \sim \mathcal{D}}[F_\rho \text{ does not have a depth-$t$ decision tree}] \leq 2^{t+w+1} \cdot (5pw)^w + \varepsilon_0 \cdot 2^{(t+1)(2w+\log s)}.$$ 

**Lemma 32** (Following [TX13, Theorem 11]). For any integers $d, t > 0$, $s \geq N$, and any $(480/N)^{1/(d-2)} < p < 1$ and $0 < \varepsilon_0 < 1$, there exists a distribution $\mathcal{D}$ over $\{0,1\}^{N \cdot \log(1/p)} \times \{0,1\}^N$ for sampling a pseudorandom restriction such that

- for any size-$s$ depth-$d$ circuit $C$ on $N$ variables, we have that
  $$\mathbf{Pr}_{\rho \sim \mathcal{D}}[C_\rho \text{ is not a } t\text{-DNF or } t\text{-CNF}] \leq s \cdot \left(2^{2t+1} \cdot (10p \log s)^t + \varepsilon_0 \cdot 2^{(t+1)(2t+\log s)}\right),$$

- with probability at least $2/3$ the number of unrestricted variables is $\frac{p^{d-2}}{80} \cdot N$, and
• there exists a circuit of size \(d \cdot k \cdot \tilde{O}(\log N)\) such that, given \(j \in \{0,1\}^{\log N}\) and a seed \(z \in \{0,1\}^{d\cdot k \cdot \tilde{O}(\log N)}\), the circuit computes the \(j\)-th coordinate of \(\rho\) (as an element in \(\{0,1,*\}\)), where

\[
k = O \left( (\log(s) + t \cdot \log(1/p))^2 + (\log(s) + t \cdot \log(1/p)) \cdot \log(1/\epsilon_0) \right).
\]

**Proof (sketch).** The proof is similar to that of Theorem 11 in [TX13]. The idea is to apply the pseudorandom switching lemma (Lemma 31) repeatedly. Each time, we sample a pseudorandom restriction using some distribution that \(\epsilon_0\)-fools \(\text{CNFs}\) of size \(s_0 = s \cdot 2^{-w \cdot (\log(1/p)+1)}\), for \(w = t\). By Lemma 31, each time, with high probability, the two bottom layers can be computed by depth-\(t\) decision trees, so we can switch them to \(t\)-\(\text{DNF}\)s or \(t\)-\(\text{CNF}\)s, and hence reduce the depth of the circuit by one as we merge them with the layer above.

One difference here from the argument in [TX13] is that we only apply the pseudorandom switching lemma (say over \([1/p]^{2N}\)) instead of using the PRG against depth-2 circuits in [DETT10], where

\[
k = O \left( (\log(s) + t \cdot \log(1/p))^2 + (\log(s) + t \cdot \log(1/p)) \cdot \log(1/\epsilon_0) \right),
\]

and we use the fact that such a \(k\)-wise independent distribution \(\epsilon_0\)-fools \(s_0\)-clause \(\text{CNFs}\) [Tal17b, Theorem 22].

Note that the expected number of unrestricted variables is \(\frac{p^d - 2}{40} \cdot N\). Then Item 2 follows from the fact that the random restriction is pair-wise independent and Proposition 7.

Finally, it is easy to get Item 3 using Lemma 19.

We are now ready to show Lemma 30.

**Proof of Lemma 30.** By Lemma 32, using the parameters \(t = O(\log s), p = 1/O(\log s),\) and \(\epsilon_0 = 1/2^{O(\log^2 s)}\), we get a restriction \(\rho_0\) such that the circuit restricted by \(\rho_0\) is a width-\(O(\log s)\) \(\text{DNF}\) or \(\text{CNF}\), with probability at least \(1 - 1/\text{poly}(N)\). Note that, by Item 2 of Lemma 32, \(\rho_0\) leaves at least \(\frac{N}{O(\log s)^{d-2}}\) variables unrestricted, with constant probability. Therefore, by a union bound, with some constant probability, we get a restriction \(\rho_0\) that both simplifies the circuit to be a width-(\(\log s\)) \(\text{DNF}\) or \(\text{CNF}\) and that leaves \(\frac{N}{O(\log s)^{d-2}}\) variables unrestricted. Note that once we have such a restriction, we can make the restricted circuit constant by further fixing at most \(\log s\) variables; denote this restriction by \(\rho_1\). The final restriction is \(\rho = \rho_0 \circ \rho_1\).

We now show the last item. Note that our final restriction consists of two parts, \(\rho_0\) and \(\rho_1\), where \(\rho_0\) is a restriction from Lemma 32 and \(\rho_1\) is a restriction that fixes \(\log s\) variables. To compute the final restriction, given an index \(j \in \{0,1\}^{\log N}\), we can first check if the \(j\)-th variable is fixed by \(\rho_1\) and output the fixing value if it is the case. This can be done by hard-wiring the \(s\) variables that are fixed by \(\rho_1\) and their corresponding fixing values. It is easy to see that the above can be done using a circuit of size at most \(O(\log s \cdot \log N)\). Otherwise, we can output the \(j\)-th coordinate of \(\rho_0\), which can be done with a circuit of size \(d \cdot \log(N) \cdot \tilde{O}(\log^3 s)\), by Item 3 of Lemma 32.

---

7The PRG in [DETT10] is based on a small-biased distribution. While it has smaller seed length, compared to a \(k\)-wise independent distribution, it does not seem to offer any advantage in terms of the local circuit complexity of computing the PRG.
6.2 The case of depth 2

Here, we show that computing MCSP requires depth-2 circuits of almost maximum size.\(^8\)

**Theorem 33** (Theorem 4, restated). *Any CNF or DNF computing MCSP on truth tables of length \(N\) must have size \(2^{\Omega(N)}\).*

To prove Theorem 33, we will utilize the following lemma and corollary.

**Lemma 34.** Let \(0 < \delta < 1\). Any \(N\)-variate CNF or DNF of width \(s \leq 2^\delta N\) can be fixed to a constant by applying a restriction that sets \(O\left(\sqrt{\delta N}\right)\) variables.

**Proof.** We will show the lemma for the case of DNFs. The proof can be easily adapted to the case of CNFs. Fix a constant \(A := \frac{1}{\sqrt{\delta}}\). We choose the restriction in question in two phases. In Phase 1, we show that we can set at most \(O\left(\sqrt{\delta N}\right)\) variables to get the width of the DNF down to \(A \log s = \sqrt{\delta} N\). In Phase 2, we can easily set any term of the remaining DNF to fix the function. Since Phase 2 is trivial, let us henceforth focus on Phase 1.

To this end, imagine that we choose a uniformly random input variable \(x_i\) (for some \(i\)) and set it to a random value. If \(T\) is any term in the DNF of size greater than \(A \log s\), then \(T\) is set to 0 with probability at least \(\frac{A \log s}{2N}\). Repeating this process \(t := 2\sqrt{\delta} N\) times, we see that the probability that \(T\) survives is at most

\[
\left(1 - \frac{A \log s}{2N}\right)^t = \left(1 - \frac{\log s}{2\sqrt{\delta} N}\right)^{2\sqrt{\delta} N} \leq \exp(-\log s) < \frac{1}{s}.
\]

By a union bound over the (at most) \(s\) terms of the DNF in question, there is a restriction \(\rho\) that restricts \(O\left(\sqrt{\delta N}\right)\) variables such that \(\rho\) sets all the terms of width greater than \(A \log s\) to 0. This completes Phase 1.

**Corollary 35.** For any size-\(s\) depth-2 circuit \(C\), there exists a restriction \(\rho \in \{0, 1, *\}^N\) such that

- \(C_\rho\) is a constant function,
- \(|\rho^{-1}(\ast)| \geq \Omega(N)\), and
- there exists a circuit of size \(s/\Omega(\log \log s)\) such that, given \(j \in \{0, 1\}^{\log N}\), the circuit computes the \(j\)-th coordinate of \(\rho\).

**Proof.** By Lemma 34. We shall verify that all of three properties of Corollary 35 hold for the restriction \(\rho\) that is proved to exist by Lemma 34. Items 1 and 2 trivially hold, as \(C_\rho\) is a constant by the construction of \(\rho\) and \(|\rho^{-1}\{0, 1\}| = O\left(\sqrt{\delta} N\right)\), respectively. Item 3 follows by a result of Lupanov [GII+19, Theorem 2.2] for the (biased) Boolean function that sets all the unrestricted variables to 0.

We are now able to prove the main result of this subsection (Theorem 33) by using Corollary 35.

**Proof of Theorem 33 (sketch).** One may prove Theorem 33 by using Corollary 35 exactly as we did in the proof of Theorem 29 with Lemma 30.

\(^8\)The results of this subsection exactly follow the guidelines of one of our ToCT reviewers.
7 MCSP circuit lower bounds from average-case hard functions

7.1 The Nisan-Wigderson generator

It is well known in the field of derandomization that, if we have a function that is average-case hard against some circuit class \( \mathcal{C} \), we can get a PRG for \( \mathcal{C} \) by plugging the hard function into the Nisan-Wigderson framework \([NW94]\) (provided that the hard function is not too hard to compute and that \( \mathcal{C} \) satisfies some mild conditions). The construction involves computing some combinatorial design with some suitably chosen parameters; a design is a list of subsets (over some universe) that have some combinatorial properties (see Definition 36). Also, to compute a single bit of such a PRG, we need to compute the corresponding subset of the design. There are known design constructions such that any single subset of the design can be computed efficiently and locally (without computing the whole design). Therefore, using such a local design, we can get a locally computable PRG which can be used to obtain an MCSP lower bound against \( \mathcal{C} \).

The idea of using Nisan-Wigderson PRGs to study MCSP and related problems has been explored before (e.g. \([ABK^+06, OS17, Hir18]\)). However, the previous works were content with the fact that the output of a PRG has circuit complexity at most polynomial in the seed length. Here, we provide a more fine-grained analysis of the local complexity of the Nisan-Wigderson PRG, which depends on the parameters that we choose for the design, and in turn will depend on the “usefulness” of the average-case hard function. This allows us to turn average-case hardness against some circuit class \( \mathcal{C} \) into a lower bound for MCSP against the same class, where such a lower bound is more quantitatively linked to the average-case hardness.

We first review the Nisan-Wigderson framework.

**Definition 36 (Designs \([NW94]\)).** Let \( N, r, \ell, \alpha \) be positive integers. A family of sets \( S_1, \ldots, S_N \) is a \((N, r, \ell, \alpha)\)-design if

- \( \forall j \in [N] : S_j \subseteq [r] \),
- \( \forall j \in [N] : |S_j| = \ell \), and
- \( \forall j, k \in [s] \), such that \( j \neq k \), it is the case that \( |S_j \cap S_k| \leq \alpha \).

**Lemma 37 (Local designs).** For any positive integers \( N \) and \( \alpha \), there exists a \((N, r, \ell, \alpha)\)-design such that \( r = N^{2/(\alpha+1)} \) and \( \ell = N^{1/(\alpha+1)} \). Moreover, given any \( z \in \{0, 1\}^r \), and any \( j \in \{0, 1\}^{\log N} \), \( z|S_j \in \{0, 1\}^\ell \) can be computed by a circuit of size

\[
O\left(N^{2/(\alpha+1)}\right) + N^{1/(\alpha+1)} \cdot \tilde{O}(\log N).
\]

**Proof.** Consider the field \( \mathbb{F}_\ell \) with \( \ell \) elements. We identify the universe \([r]\) with \( \mathbb{F}_\ell \times \mathbb{F}_\ell \) of size \( \ell^2 \). Let \( \{e_1, \ldots, e_\ell\} \) be the \( \ell \) elements of the field (in lexicographic order). For each \( j \in \{0, 1\}^{\log N} \), we view \( j \) as an element in \([\ell]^{\alpha+1}\) and identify it with a degree-\( \alpha \) polynomial \( p_j \in \mathbb{F}_\ell[x] \). Let

\[
S_j = \{(e_1, p_j(e_1)), \ldots, (e_\ell, p_j(e_\ell))\}.
\]

Note that, for all \( j \), the set \( S_j \) is a subset of \( \mathbb{F}_\ell \times \mathbb{F}_\ell \), the set \( S_j \) has size \( \ell \), and for two different sets \( S_j \) and \( S_k \) we have that \( |S_j \cap S_k| \leq \alpha \), as the difference \( p_j - p_k \) is a polynomial of degree at most \( \alpha \), and thus has at most \( \alpha \) roots.
Note that we can hard-wire \((e_k, e^2_k, \ldots, e^\alpha_k)\) into some circuit, for all \(k \in [\ell]\), by using size \(\ell \cdot \alpha \cdot \log \ell = \tilde{O}(\ell)\). Then computing \(p_j(e_k)\), for any \(k\), can be done with a circuit of size \(\alpha \cdot \tilde{O}(\log \ell)\) (using Fact 18). As a result, \(S_j\) can be computed in size

\[
\ell \cdot \alpha \cdot \tilde{O}(\log \ell) = N^{1/(\alpha+1)} \cdot \tilde{O}(\log N).
\]

Once we have the set \(S_j\), we can divide the input \(z\) into \(\ell\) equal-size blocks. For each element \((a, b)\) in \(S_j\), we output the \(b\)-th bit of the \(a\)-th block, using Lemma 12, in \(O(\ell)\) size. Then, computing \(z|_{S_j}\) takes size \(\ell \cdot O(\ell) = O\left(N^{2/(\alpha+1)}\right)\).

**Definition 38 (Average-case hardness).** Let \(\mathcal{C}\) be a class of circuits on \(N\) variables. We say that a function \(f\) is \((s, \varepsilon)\)-hard against \(\mathcal{C}\) if, for every \(C \in \mathcal{C}\) of size \(s\), it is the case that

\[
\Pr_{x \sim \{0,1\}^N}[f(x) = C(x)] \leq \frac{1}{2} + \varepsilon.
\]

Let \(\text{DNF}_\alpha\) denote the class of DNF circuits on \(\alpha\) variables. Note that every \(\alpha\)-variate Boolean function can be computed by a DNF of size at most \(2^\alpha\).

**Theorem 39 (Nisan-Wigderson generator [NW94]).** Let \(\mathcal{C}\) be a class of circuits on \(N\) variables of size \(s\). Let \(S_1, \ldots, S_N\) be a \((N, r, \ell, \alpha)\)-design, and let \(f : \{0,1\}^\ell \to \{0,1\}\) be a function that is \((s + N \cdot 2^\alpha, \varepsilon/N)\)-hard against \(\mathcal{C} \circ \text{DNF}_\alpha\). Then, the Nisan-Wigderson generator \(\text{NW}^f : \{0,1\}^r \to \{0,1\}^N\), defined as

\[
\text{NW}^f(z) = \left(f\left(z|_{S_1}\right), \ldots, f\left(z|_{S_N}\right)\right),
\]

is a PRG that \(\varepsilon\)-fools \(\mathcal{C}\).

Combining Theorem 39 with the design construction in Lemma 37, we immediately get the following.

**Theorem 40 (Local Nisan-Wigderson generator).** Let \(\mathcal{C}\) be a class of circuits on \(N\) variables of size \(s\). For any \(\alpha = \alpha(N, s)\), if there exists a function \(f : \{0,1\}^\ell \to \{0,1\}\), where \(\ell = N^{1/(\alpha+1)}\), that is \((s + N \cdot 2^\alpha, 1/(3N))\)-hard against \(\mathcal{C} \circ \text{DNF}_\alpha\), then there exists a \((N, s, \lambda(N, s))\)-local PRG against \(\mathcal{C}\), with

\[
\lambda(N, s) = O\left(N^{2/(\alpha+1)}\right) + N^{1/(\alpha+1)} \cdot \tilde{O}(\log N) + \mathcal{C}(f).
\]

We remark that the above local Nisan-Wigderson generator has local complexity that is comparable to its seed length (for this particular local design and modulo the circuit complexity of the hard function).

### 7.2 Applications

Next we demonstrate the use of such local PRGs in obtaining lower bounds for MCSP from average-case hardness results.

One of the restricted circuit classes that have been well studied in circuit complexity is the class of constant-depth circuits augmented with few SYM (symmetric) or THR (linear threshold) gates (see, e.g., [LVW93, Vio07, LS11, ST18]). A SYM gate computes a symmetric function, which is a
Boolean function whose output depends only on the sum of its input variables. A THR gate computes a linear threshold function, which is a Boolean function defined as the sign of some linear form, over Boolean variables, with real coefficients. We will combine the above local Nisan-Wigderson framework with the following average-case lower bounds against the class of constant-depth circuits augmented with a few (sublinearly many) symmetric and linear threshold gates.

**Theorem 41 ([ST18, Theorem 4]).** There exists a constant \( \tau > 0 \) such that the following hold. For any \( \ell \), there exists a function \( f : \{0,1\}^\ell \rightarrow \{0,1\} \) that is \( (\ell^\tau \log \ell, \exp(-\Omega(\ell^{0.249}))) \)-hard against \( AC^0 \) circuits of size \( \ell^\tau \log \ell \) with at most \( \ell^{0.249} \) SYM or THR gates. Moreover \( f \) can be computed by a circuit of size \( O(\ell) \).

As a result, we get a local PRG against such circuits.

**Corollary 42.** There exists some constant \( \tau > 0 \) such that, for any \( s \geq N \), there exists a \((N,s,\lambda(N,s))-\)local PRG against \( AC^0 \) circuits of size \( s = \ell^\tau \log \ell \), for some \( \ell > 0 \), with at most \( \ell^{0.249} \) SYM or THR gates and \( \lambda(N,s) = 2^{O(\sqrt{\log s})} \).

**Proof.** Let \( \mathcal{C} \) be the class of \( AC^0 \) circuits of size \( \ell^\tau \log \ell \), for some constant \( \tau > 0 \), with at most \( \ell^{0.249} \) SYM or THR gates. Choose

\[
\alpha = \tau' \cdot \frac{\log N}{\sqrt{\log s}},
\]

where \( \tau' > 0 \) is some sufficiently small constant. Then, for \( \ell = N^{1/(\alpha+1)} \), if we can show the existence of some efficiently computable function \( f : \{0,1\}^\ell \rightarrow \{0,1\} \) that is \((s + N \cdot 2^\alpha, 1/(3N))\)-hard against \( \mathcal{C} \circ DNF_{\alpha} \), then the result follows from Theorem 40. The existence of such a function is given by Theorem 41, by noting that for our choice of \( \alpha \) we have

\[
\ell^\tau \log \ell \geq s + N \cdot 2^\alpha,
\]

and

\[
\exp(-\Omega(\ell^{0.249})) \leq 1/(3N).
\]

We remark that the above example does not take advantage of the fact that the local complexity of the Nisan-Wigderson PRG is almost the same as its seed length. This is because, in this case, the seed length has some arbitrary constant in the exponent.

Combining Corollary 42 with Theorem 15, we get the following.

**Theorem 43.** There exists a constant \( \gamma > 0 \) such that the following hold. Let \( \mathcal{C} \) be the class of constant-depth \( AC^0 \) circuits augmented with at most \( 2^{\gamma \sqrt{\log N}} \) SYM or THR gates. Then, any circuit in \( \mathcal{C} \) computing MCSP on truth tables of length \( N \) must have size \( N^{\Omega(\log N)} \).

As another application of our framework, combined with the Nisan-Wigderson generator, we show that separating \( P/poly \) (non-uniform circuits of polynomial size) from some restricted circuit class, such as \( TC^0 \) (non-uniform constant-depth polynomial-size circuits with threshold gates) or \( NC^1 \) (non-uniform polynomial-size logarithmic-depth circuits), implies MCSP lower bounds against the same class of circuits. More precisely, we show that if there exists some function in \( P/poly \) that is mildly hard against \( TC^0 \) (resp. \( NC^1 \)), then MCSP cannot be computed by \( TC^0 \) (resp. \( NC^1 \)) circuits.
Theorem 44. If there exists a function in $\mathbb{P}/\mathsf{poly}$ that requires size-$s$ $\mathsf{TC}^0$ (resp. $\mathsf{NC}^1$) circuits to compute within error $1/\mathsf{poly}(n)$, for some superpolynomial size function $s$, then MCSP requires superpolynomial size $\mathsf{TC}^0$ (resp. $\mathsf{NC}^1$) circuits.

Proof (sketch). Let $s(n) = n^{\omega(1)}$ and let $f = \{f_n\}_n$, with $f_n : \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}$, be a function that requires size-$s(n)$ $\mathsf{TC}^0$ circuits to compute with error at most $1/\mathsf{poly}(n)$. Using standard hardness amplification tools, such as the direct product theorem and the XOR lemma (see, e.g., [CIKK16, Section 4]), we can amplify $f$ to a strongly hard on average function within $\mathbb{P}/\mathsf{poly}$. By plugging $f$ into the Nisan-Wigderson construction (Theorem 39) we get a local PRG against $\mathsf{TC}^0$; this implies that $\text{MCSP} \notin \mathsf{TC}^0$ by Theorem 15.

8 Open problems

Our De Morgan formula lower bound for MCSP is still slightly weaker than the state-of-the-art De Morgan formula lower bound due to Tal [Tal17a], which is $\Omega\left(\frac{N^3}{\log N \cdot (\log \log N)^2}\right)$. Can the MCSP lower bound be improved? Are there better constructions of local PRGs against formulas? Or, are there alternative proofs that do not rely on local PRGs?

What are other restricted models of computation against which we can show MCSP lower bounds using local PRGs? The recent “random walk PRG” by Chattopadhyay, Hatami, Hosseini, and Lovett [CHHL18] is also local and can be used to get MCSP lower bounds. However, as a general PRG that can be used to fool a variety of restricted models, it has sub-optimal usefulness (which is determined by its seed length) compared to the best-known lower bounds for most of those models.

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References


27
A Circuit complexity of the Nisan-Zuckerman extractor: Proof of Lemma 23

In this section, we will describe the construction of the Nisan-Zuckerman extractor [NZ96], and show that it can be computed by a circuit of almost-linear size.

Lemma 45 (Lemma 23, restated). There exists an extractor \( E: \{0,1\}^n \times \{0,1\}^d \to \{0,1\}^m \) that is an \((n/2,\varepsilon)\)-extractor with \( m = \Omega(n) \) and \( d = \text{polylog}(n/\varepsilon) \). Moreover, \( E \) can be computed by a circuit of size \( n \cdot \text{polylog}(n/\varepsilon) \).

In proving Lemma 23, we start with some definitions. The extractor works for sources of high min-entropy.

Definition 46 (Dense source). We say that a distribution over \( \{0,1\}^n \) is a \( \delta \)-source if it has min-entropy at least \( \delta \cdot n \).

Definition 47 (Block-wise source). A distribution \( X = (X_1, \ldots, X_s) \) over \( \{0,1\}^{\ell_1} \times \cdots \times \{0,1\}^{\ell_s} \) is called a block-wise \( \delta \)-source if, for every \( x_1, \ldots, x_{i-1}, X_i|X_1=x_1,\ldots,X_{i-1}=x_{i-1} \) is a \( \delta \)-source (i.e., has min-entropy at least \( \delta \cdot \ell_i \)).

The extractor will make use of universal hashing, which we define below.

Definition 48 (k-wise independent hashing). A family of hash functions \( \mathcal{H} = \{ h: \{0,1\}^n \to \{0,1\}^m \} \) is called \( k \)-wise independent if, for any \( x_1, \ldots, x_k \in \{0,1\}^n \), where \( x_1, \ldots, x_k \) are distinct, and \( y_1, \ldots, y_k \in \{0,1\}^m \), we have
\[
\Pr_{h \sim \mathcal{H}} [ h(x_1) = y_1 \land \cdots \land h(x_k) = y_k ] = (1/2^m)^k.
\]
\( \mathcal{H} \) is also called a universal hash family if it is 2-wise independent.

It is easy to see that any \( k \)-wise independent hashing family can be defined using some \( k \)-wise independent distribution. As a result, by Lemma 19, we have the following construction of \( k \)-wise independent hash families.

Lemma 49. There exists a \( k \)-wise independent hash family \( \mathcal{H} = \{ h: \{0,1\}^n \to \{0,1\}^m \} \) such that, given any \( h \in \mathcal{H} \), as a \( kn \)-bit string, the function \( h \) can be computed by a circuit of size \( k \cdot O(\max\{n,m\}) \).

The Nisan-Zuckerman extractor consists of two parts. The first part, block-wise source conversion, takes the source of high min-entropy and converts it into an almost block-wise source by building a list of “blocks.” The second part, block-wise source extraction, takes the resulting block-wise source of the previous part and extracts the randomness “block-by-block,” using some hash-based extractor. Next, we describe some basic component functions as well as how they are combined to perform the respective task of each part. The main focus here is around the circuit complexity of these procedures and we will not get into details about their correctness. Interested readers are referred to [NZ96, Section 5] for details on the correctness.

In the following, we only work with \( \delta \)-sources and block-wise \( \delta' \)-sources where \( \delta \) and \( \delta' \) are constants.
Block-wise source converter $D$. This function has the following parameters:

- $n$, the size of the original input;
- $\delta$, the quality of the input source;
- $\ell_1 \leq \cdots \leq \ell_s \leq n$, the size of each block; and
- $k$, the amount of independence used.

We first describe how to build one block using a function that we call $B$. To build the $i$-th block, on input $x \in \{0, 1\}^n$ and $y_i \in \{0, 1\}^{k \log n}$, the function $B$ first divides $x$ into $\ell_i$ contiguous disjoint sets $A_1, \ldots, A_{\ell_i}$, each of size $m_i = n/\ell_i$. It then uses the $(k \log n)$-bit string $y_i$ to pick, $k$-wise independently, $j_1, \ldots, j_{\ell_i}$, where $j_q \in [m_i]$, for each $q \in [\ell_i]$, and outputs the $\ell_i$-bit vector

$$((A_1)_j, \ldots, (A_{\ell_i})_{j_{\ell_i}}).$$

The block-wise source converter $D$ works as follows.

1. **Input:** $x \in \{0, 1\}^n$ and $y_1, \ldots, y_s \in \{0, 1\}^{k \log n}$.
2. **Output:** $(B(x, y_1), \ldots, B(x, y_s)) \in \{0, 1\}^{\ell_1} \times \cdots \times \{0, 1\}^{\ell_s}$.

Nisan and Zuckerman [NZ96] showed that if the input $x$ is from a $\delta$-source and $k = O(\log(1/\varepsilon))$, then, for all but at most a $\varepsilon/4$ fraction of the seeds $y_1, \ldots, y_s$, the output of the function $D$ is $(\varepsilon/4)$-close to a block-wise $\delta'$-source, where $\delta' = \Omega(\delta / \log(1/\delta))$.

**Claim 50.** The function $D$ can be computed using a circuit of size $s \cdot k \cdot \tilde{O}(n)$.

**Proof.** It is sufficient to show that outputting the $i$-th block takes a circuit of size $k \cdot \tilde{O}(n)$. On input $y_i \in \{0, 1\}^{k \log n}$, we can compute, using Lemma 19, $(j_1, \ldots, j_{\ell_i}) \in [m_i]^{\ell_i}$ with a circuit of size

$$\ell_i \cdot k \cdot \tilde{O}(\log(m_i \cdot \ell_i)) = k \cdot \tilde{O}(n).$$

Then, for each index $j_q$, with $q \in [\ell_i]$, we can compute $(A_q)_{j_q}$ using a circuit of size $O(m_i)$ (by Lemma 12). \hfill \square

Block-wise source extractor $C$. This function has $s + 1$ parameters:

- $\delta'$, the quality of the block source, and
- $\ell_1, \ldots, \ell_s$, the block sizes. Here, $\frac{\ell_{i+1}}{\ell_i} = 1 + \frac{\delta'}{4}$, for all $1 < i \leq s$.

The way the block-wise source extractor $C$ works is described below.

1. **Input:** $x_1 \in \{0, 1\}^{\ell_1}, \ldots, x_s \in \{0, 1\}^{\ell_s}$ and $y_0 \in \{0, 1\}^{2\ell_s}$.
2. For each $i$, we consider a universal family of hash functions,

$$\mathcal{H}_i = \left\{ h: \{0, 1\}^{\ell_i} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{\delta' \ell_i/2} \right\}_h,$$

given by Lemma 49, and each function in $\mathcal{H}_i$ is by $2\ell_i$ bits.
3. \( h_s \leftarrow y_0 \).

4. For \( i \leftarrow s \) down to 1: \( h_{i-1} \leftarrow h_i \circ h_i(x_i) \), where \(^{\circ}\) denotes string concatenation.

5. **Output:** \( h_0 \), excluding the bits in \( h_s \). Note that this output is a string in \( \{0,1\}^m \).

It was shown in [NZ96] that if \( x_1, \ldots, x_s \) are chosen from a block-wise \( \delta' \)-source and \( y_0 \) is uniform, then the output of the function \( C \) is \( \left( 2 \cdot 2^{-\delta' \ell_1 / 4} \right) \)-close to uniform.

**Claim 51.** The function \( C \) can be computed using a circuit of size \( s \cdot \tilde{O}(\ell_1) \).

*Proof.* Note that, given \( h_i \in \{0,1\}^{2\ell_i} \) and \( x_i \in \{0,1\}^{\ell_i} \), we can compute \( h_i(x_i) \) using a circuit of size \( \tilde{O}(\ell_i) \) (by Lemma 49). Then, to compute \( h_0 \), we need to compute \( h_i \) for \( i = s - 1, \ldots, 0 \), which takes a circuit of size

\[
\sum_{i=1}^{s} \tilde{O}(\ell_i).
\]

The above is at most \( s \cdot \tilde{O}(\ell_1) \), since \( \ell_1 \) is the largest among \( \ell_1, \ldots, \ell_s \). \( \square \)

**The final extractor** \( E \). The parameters are:

- \( n \), the size of the input source;
- \( \delta \), where \( 1/n \leq \delta \leq 1/2 \), the quality of the input source;
- \( \varepsilon \), where \( 2^{-\delta n} \leq \varepsilon \leq 1/n \), the quality of the output distribution;
- \( \delta' = \Theta(\delta / \log(1/\delta)) \);
- \( \ell_0 = \Theta(\delta^2 n / \log(1/\delta)) \); \( \ell_i = \ell_{i-1} / (1 + \delta'/4) \) for each \( 0 < i < s \), with \( s = O(\log(n) \log(1/\delta) / \delta) \); therefore, \( \ell_s = \log(1/\varepsilon) \log(1/\delta) / \delta \);
- \( k = O(\log(1/\varepsilon)) \).

The following is a description of the extractor \( E \):

1. **Input:** \( x_1 \in \{0,1\}^n \), \( y_1, \ldots, y_s \in \{0,1\}^{k \log n} \), \( y_0 \in \{0,1\}^{2\ell_s} \).
2. **Output:** \( C(D(x, y_1, \ldots, y_s), y_0) \). (Here, \( D \) and \( C \) are used with the parameters specified above.)

It was shown in [NZ96] that if \( x \) is from a \( \delta \)-source and the \( y \)'s are uniform, then the output of the function \( E \) is \( \varepsilon \)-close to a uniform \( m \)-bit string, where \( m = \Omega(\delta^2 n / \log(1/\delta)) \).

**Claim 52.** The function \( E \) can be computed using a circuit of size \( n \cdot \text{polylog}(n/\varepsilon) \).

*Proof.* This follows easily from Claim 50 and Claim 51. \( \square \)
B The IMZ PRG is “almost strongly local”

Here, we show that the IMZ PRG [IMZ19] is “almost strongly local,” in the sense that, for most of its seeds, the output of the PRG can be computed by some circuit of size comparable to its seed length.

**Lemma 53.** For any $s \geq N$, there exists a PRG $G$: $\{0,1\}^r \rightarrow \{0,1\}^N$ that $1/\text{poly}(N)$-fools De Morgan formulas in $N$ variables of size $s$, where $r = s^{1/3} \cdot 2^{O(\log^{2/3} s)}$. Moreover, for at least a fraction of $1 - 1/\text{poly}(N)$ of the seeds $z \in \{0,1\}^r$, the function defined as 

$$g_z(j) = G(z)_j$$

**Lemma 53.** can be computed by a circuit of size $s^{1/3} \cdot 2^{O(\log^{2/3} s)}$.

It is easy to see that such a PRG is sufficient to obtain MCSP lower bounds using our framework (see Theorem 15).

We first need a version of the pseudorandom shrinkage lemma, in which we select and fix the variables both in a pseudorandom manner (note that in Lemma 24 we select the variables pseudorandomly and then fix the variables in a truly-random manner). Such a pseudorandom shrinkage lemma is provided in [IMZ19].

**Lemma 54 (Pseudorandom shrinkage lemma, [IMZ19, Lemma 4.8]).** There exists a constant $c_0 > 0$ such that the following hold. For any constant $c > c_0$, any $s \geq N$, $p \geq s^{-1/2}$, and any De Morgan formula $F$ on $N$ variables of size $s$, there exists a $p$-regular pseudorandom restriction $D$ over $\{0,1,*\}^N$, that is samplable using $r = 2^{O(\log^{2/3} s)}$ random bits, such that

$$\Pr_{\rho \sim D}[L(F_\rho) \geq 2^3 c \cdot \log^{2/3} s \cdot p^2 \cdot s] \leq s^{-c}.$$

Moreover, there exists a circuit of size $2^{O(\log^{2/3} s)}$ such that, given $j \in \{0,1\}^N$ and a seed $z \in \{0,1\}^r$, the circuit computes the $j$-th coordinate of $D(z)$.

We are now ready to show Lemma 53.

**Proof of Lemma 53.** The construction is essentially that of [IMZ19]. We use the same parameters as those in the proof of Lemma 17.

The PRG first samples $t$ independent pseudorandom restrictions using Lemma 54. For each of the restrictions, the PRG replaces the * coordinates with the output of some extractor (in fact, it is the output of some limited-independence generator that takes the output of the extractor as a seed). After the * coordinates are replaced in each restriction, the PRG XORs, coordinate-wisely, the $t$ binary strings.

More formally, the PRG takes as input a seed

$$(X,Y_1,\ldots,Y_t,\gamma_1,\ldots,\gamma_t) \in \{0,1\}^r,$$

where

- $X \in \{0,1\}^\ell$ is the min-entropy source sample of an extractor,
- $Y_i \in \{0,1\}^{\text{polylog}(N)}$, for each $i \in [t]$, is the seed of an extractor, and
• $\gamma_i \in \{0,1\}^k$, for each $i \in [t]$, is the seed for sampling a pseudorandom restriction.

Then, the $j$-th bit of the PRG is the XOR of a sequence of bits $(U_1)_{j}, \ldots, (U_t)_{j}$, where for each $i \in [t]$ the value of $(U_i)_{j}$ depends on the value of $(\rho_i)_{j}$, where $\rho_i$ is a $p$-regular pseudorandom restriction sampled from Lemma 54 with seed $\gamma_i$. Specifically,

$$(U_i)_{j} = \begin{cases} (\rho_i)_{j}, & \text{if } (\rho_i)_{j} \neq \ast, \text{ and} \\ (Z_i)_{j} = G_k(E(X,Y_i))_{j}, & \text{if } (\rho_i)_{j} = \ast, \end{cases}$$

where $E: \{0,1\}^N \times \{0,1\}^d \rightarrow \{0,1\}^{\Omega(N)}$ is an $(N/2, \varepsilon)$-extractor and $G_k: \{0,1\}^{rk} \rightarrow \{0,1\}^N$ is a $k$-independent generator. It was shown in [IMZ19] that the PRG constructed as above $\varepsilon$-fools De Morgan formulas of size $s$.

Note that, for each $i \in [t]$ and $j \in [N]$, $(\rho_i)_{j}$ can be computed by a circuit of size $M_1 = 2^{O(\log^{2/3} s)}$ (Lemma 54). Also, using Lemma 23 and Lemma 19, $(Z_i)_{j}$ can be computed by a circuit of size $M_2 = \widetilde{O}(N) = s^{1/3+o(1)}$.

To compute the $j$-th bit of the PRG, we need to have the values $(U_1)_{j}, \ldots, (U_t)_{j}$. It seems that we need to compute both $(\rho_i)_{j}$ (which is cheap to compute) and $(Z_i)_{j}$ (which is expensive to compute) for all $i \in [t]$, which seems to require size at least $t \cdot M_2 \geq s^{2/3}$. However, we want to compute this with a circuit of size $s^{1/3}$. The key observation here is that we do not need to compute $(Z_i)_{j}$ for all the $i$ values; we only need to compute $(Z_i)_{j}$ for those $i$'s such that the $j$-th coordinate of the $i$-th pseudorandom restriction is a star (i.e., $(\rho_i)_{j} = \ast$). Since the $j$-th coordinate is a star with probability $p$, we can expect to see only $p \cdot t \leq O(\log N)$ stars in the sequence $((\rho_i)_{j})_{i\in[t]}$. In fact, since the $t$ pseudorandom restrictions are independently sampled, by a standard concentration bound, with high probability, we only see $\polylog(N)$ stars in the sequence. Then, a union bound over the $N$ coordinates yields that, with high probability over the $\rho$'s, we only have $\polylog(N)$ stars in $((\rho_i)_{j})_{i\in[t]}$ for all $j \in [N]$. Therefore, for each of these “good” seeds, to compute the $j$-th bit of the PRG, we can first compute the sequence $((\rho_i)_{j})_{i\in[t]}$ (which can be done with a circuit of size $t \cdot M_1$). Then, for each $i$ such that the $j$-th coordinate of the $i$-th restriction is a star (there are only $\polylog(N)$ such $i$ values), we compute $(Z_i)_{j}$. This can be done by a circuit of size $\polylog(N) \cdot M_2$.

We provide a sketch of how to implement a circuit performing the above task. First, we need to compute the sequence $((\rho_i)_{j})_{i\in[t]}$, which can be done by a circuit of size $t \cdot 2^{O(\log^{2/3} s)}$. Then, we need to find the $i$’s for which we need to compute $(Z_i)_{j}$ and select the corresponding $Y_i$’s. This can be done by using divide and conquer and $t$ “bins” with fixed $\polylog(N)$ “slots,” each of size $\log t$, to store those indices $i$. Here, each slot is a set of gates that hold the bits of an index $i$ and each bin is a set of slots.

More specifically, we will look through $(\rho_i)_{j}$ for $i \in [t]$ and “copy” to the bin those $i$’s for which $(\rho_i)_{j} = \ast$. For the first step, we store the index “1” to the leftmost slot of the bin iff $(\rho_1)_{j} = \ast$. At the next step, we look at the current bin and the next index, say $i’$. We then create a new bin which holds all the indices in the previous bin and also $i’$ iff $(\rho_{i’})_{j} = \ast$; here, the indices are stored in the leftmost slots and the rest of the slots are marked as “empty.” Since each bin is of size $\polylog(N)$ and merging the current bin with a new index can be done in polynomial time (which implies that it can be done by a $\polylog(N)$-size circuit), each step can be done by a circuit of size at most $\polylog(N)$. After $t$ steps, we will have a bin that stores all of the star indices (some of the slots in the bin can be empty). Therefore, the whole procedure can be done by a circuit of size $O(t) \cdot \polylog(N)$.  

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Once we have the indices, we retrieve the corresponding $Y_i$’s (using Lemma 12). We then compute the extractor on each of these $Y_i$’s (with the same min-entropy source sample $X$) and apply the limited-independence generator on the output of the extractor to get the $j$-th bit for each of those $i$’s. We also need to make sure that we produce only 0 for those $i$’s that come from the “empty” slots, in the bin where the indices are stored. Once we have those bits, we XOR them and then we XOR the resulting bit with the non-star values in $((\rho_i)_j)_{i\in[t]}$. The XOR of the non-star values can be obtained by taking the XOR of the values in $((\rho_i)_j)_{i\in[t]}$ and by treating the stars as 0’s.