



On One-way Functions from NP-Complete Problems

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Abstract

We present the first natural NP-complete problem whose average-case hardness w.r.t. the uniform distribution over instances is *equivalent* to the existence of one-way functions (OWFs). The problem, which originated in the 1960s, is the *Conditional Time-Bounded Kolmogorov Complexity Problem*: let $K^t(x | z)$ be the length of the shortest “program” that, given the “auxiliary input” z , outputs the string x within time $t(|x|)$, and let $\text{McK}^t\text{P}[\zeta]$ be the set of strings (x, z, k) where $|z| = \zeta(|x|)$, $|k| = \log |x|$ and $K^t(x | z) < k$, where, for our purposes, a “program” is defined as a RAM machine.

Our main result shows that for every polynomial $t(n) \geq n^2$, there exists some polynomial ζ such that $\text{McK}^t\text{P}[\zeta]$ is NP-complete. We additionally extend the result of Liu-Pass (FOCS’20) to show that for every polynomial $t(n) \geq 1.1n$, and every polynomial $\zeta(\cdot)$, mild average-case hardness of $\text{McK}^t\text{P}[\zeta]$ is equivalent to the existence of OWFs. Taken together, these results provide the following crisp characterization of what is required to base OWFs on $\text{NP} \not\subseteq \text{BPP}$:

There exists concrete polynomials t, ζ such that “Basing OWFs on $\text{NP} \not\subseteq \text{BPP}$ ” is equivalent to providing a “worst-case to (mild) average-case reduction for $\text{McK}^t\text{P}[\zeta]$ ”.

In other words, the “holy-grail” of Cryptography (i.e., basing OWFs on $\text{NP} \not\subseteq \text{BPP}$) is equivalent to a basic question in algorithmic information theory.

As an independent contribution, we show that our NP-completeness result can be used to shed new light on the feasibility of the *polynomial-time bounded symmetry of information* assertion (Kolmogorov’68).

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1 Introduction

A one-way function (OWF) [DH76] is a function f that can be efficiently computed (in polynomial time), yet no probabilistic polynomial-time (PPT) algorithm can invert f with inverse polynomial probability for infinitely many input lengths n . Whether OWFs exist is unequivocally the most important open problem in Cryptography: OWFs are both necessary [IL89] and sufficient for many of the most central cryptographic primitives and protocols (e.g., pseudorandom generators [BM88, HILL99], pseudorandom functions [GGM84], private-key encryption [GM84], digital signatures [Rom90], commitment schemes [Nao91], identification protocols [FS90], coin-flipping protocols [Blu82], and more). These primitives and protocols are often referred to as *private-key primitives*, or “Minicrypt” primitives [Imp95] as they exclude the notable task of public-key encryption [DH76, RSA83].

While many candidate constructions of OWFs are known—most notably based on factoring [RSA83], the discrete logarithm problem [DH76], or the hardness of lattice problems [Ajt96]—the question of whether OWFs can be based on some “standard” complexity-theoretic assumption is mostly wide open. Indeed, a central open problem—often referred to as the “holygrail of cryptography”—originating in the seminal work of Diffie and Hellman [DH76] is whether the existence of OWFs can be based on the assumption that $\text{NP} \not\subseteq \text{BPP}$.¹ So far, however, most results in the literature have been negative. Notably, starting with the work by Brassard [Bra83] in 1983, a long sequence of works have shown various types of black-box separations between *restricted* types of OWFs (e.g., one-way permutations) and NP-hardness (see e.g., [Bra83, BT03, AGGM06, Pas06, GWXY10, Liv10, HMX10, BB15]). We emphasize, however, that these results only show limited separations: they either consider restricted types of one-way functions, or restricted classes of black-box reductions. Thus, even w.r.t. black-box reductions, the question of whether OWFs can be based on the assumption that $\text{NP} \not\subseteq \text{BPP}$, is wide open. In this work, our focus is on providing a complexity-theoretic characterization of *exactly* what is required for basing OWFs on $\text{NP} \not\subseteq \text{BPP}$:

Is there a simple complexity-theoretic characterization of what is required for basing OWFs on the assumption that $\text{NP} \not\subseteq \text{BPP}$?

We believe that having a crisp complexity-theoretic characterization will be useful both for obtaining more meaningful separation results, and towards the goal of eventually getting a construction of OWFs based on $\text{NP} \not\subseteq \text{BPP}$.

Towards Characterizing the Possibility of Basing OWFs on $\text{NP} \not\subseteq \text{BPP}$ A first step towards answering the above question is implied by a recent work by Liu and Pass [LP20]; they demonstrated the first natural NP-language whose average-case hardness characterizes the existence of OWFs. In more detail, they demonstrated that for any polynomial $t(n) \geq 1.1n$, OWFs exist if and only if the *t*-bounded Kolmogorov complexity problem, MK^tP , is mildly hard-on-average, where a language L is said to be *mildly hard-on-average* if there exists some polynomial $p(\cdot)$ such that no PPT heuristic \mathcal{H} can decide L with probability $1 - 1/p(n)$ over random n -bit instances for infinitely many input lengths n . (We provide more details on the definition of MK^tP below.) $\text{MK}^{\text{poly}}\text{P}$ is contained in NP, but it is unknown whether this problem (which has been studied since the 1960s) is NP-complete. Indeed, this is one of the long-standing open problems in algorithmic information-theory [Ko91]. A simple corollary of the result from [LP20] (as far as we know, this has not been previously observed) is that basing OWFs on $\text{NP} \not\subseteq \text{BPP}$ is *equivalent* to (1) proving that $\text{MK}^{\text{poly}}\text{P}$ is NP-complete (perhaps with a non-constructive reduction), and (2) providing a worst-case to average-case reduction for

¹Or more precisely, whether OWFs can be based on the assumption that $\text{NP} \not\subseteq \text{ioBPP}$ since the definition of OWFs requires “almost everywhere” hardness. For convenience, in the introduction we are ignoring this issue.

MK^{polyP} .² To see why this is the case, note that if (1) and (2) are satisfied, then by the result of [LP20], we have directly based OWFs on $\text{NP} \not\subseteq \text{BPP}$. For the converse direction, note that if OWFs can be based on $\text{NP} \not\subseteq \text{BPP}$, then $\text{NP} \not\subseteq \text{BPP}$ implies the existence of OWF, which by [LP20] implies that MK^{polyP} is average-case hard (and thus also worst-case hard); thus we have that (1) must hold. To see that (2) also holds, note that since $\text{MK}^{\text{polyP}} \in \text{NP}$, it follows that $\text{MK}^{\text{polyP}} \not\subseteq \text{BPP}$ implies that $\text{NP} \not\subseteq \text{BPP}$, which in turn implies OWF (by assumption) which in turn by [LP20] implies that MK^{polyP} is average-case hard, and thus (2) follows.

The above discussion, however, leaves open the question of whether a crisper characterization can be obtained. In particular, if one can come up with a *natural* NP-complete language L whose average-case hardness is equivalent to the existence of OWFs, then the question of whether OWFs can be based on $\text{NP} \not\subseteq \text{BPP}$ would be equivalent to the question of whether there exists a worst-case to average-case reduction for this particular problem. This thus begs the question whether there exists some natural NP-complete language that characterizes the existence of OWFs:

Does there exist some “natural” NP-complete language L such that OWFs exist iff L is hard-on-average?

This question was recently raised (but not solved) in a paper by Allender et al [ACM⁺21a] (and without the above motivation). We note that “naturalness” of the language L is *key* for this question to make sense: It is easy to modify MK^{polyP} into a new “artificial” language L' which is both NP-complete, yet (mild) average-case hardness of L' is equivalent to mild average-case hardness of MK^{polyP} (and thus equivalent to the existence of OWFs).³ But such an artificial problem would have no relevance to the central question that concerns us (i.e., providing a crisp characterization of when OWF can be based on $\text{NP} \not\subseteq \text{BPP}$).

There is a long history of work on trying to base OWFs on average-case hardness of NP-complete problems, starting with the work of Merkle and Hellman [MH78]. While the original attempts failed to produce secure schemes (see [Od190] for a survey), more recent approaches pioneered by Impaglizzo and Naor [IN89], Ajtai [Ajt96] and Ajtai and Dwork [AD97] produced not just OWFs but also more advanced cryptographic primitives (such as collision-resistant hash functions and public-key encryption) based on well-founded average-case hardness assumptions on the subset sum problem (which is NP-complete). However, it is not known whether the existence of OWFs implies average-case hardness of the subset sum problem (i.e., they only have a one-sided implication).

In this work, we identify the first natural NP-complete language L —*time-bounded Conditional Kolmogorov-complexity* [ZL70, Lev73, Tra84, LM91]—such that mild average-case hardness of L (with respect to the uniform distribution on instances) is equivalent to the existence of OWFs. As a consequence, we get that basing OWFs on $\text{NP} \not\subseteq \text{BPP}$ is equivalent to providing a worst-case to average case reduction for this particular problem, yielding a simple complexity-theoretic characterization of exactly what it takes to base OWFs on $\text{NP} \not\subseteq \text{BPP}$.

1.1 Our Results

Before describing our results in detail, let us first briefly recall the notion of Time-bounded Kolmogorov Complexity and the result of [LP20] that we will be relying on.

²We emphasize that we need a worst-case to *2-sided* error average-case reduction. Hirahara’s elegant work [Hir18] makes partial progress on this question by presenting a worst-case (approximate) to *errorless* average-case reduction; errorless average-case hardness does not suffice for [LP20].

³Simply consider the language L' of $2n$ -bit instances $x||y$ where $x, y \in \{0, 1\}^n$, and either (a) $x = 0^n$ and $y \in \text{SAT}$, or (b) $x \neq 0^n$ and $y \in \text{MK}^{\text{polyP}}$. In other words, L' is a combination of SAT and MK^{polyP} , so clearly this language is NP-complete, but when considering uniform statements, we only hit SAT instances with negligible probability, and thus this language behaves essentially just like MK^{polyP} on average.

Time-bounded Kolmogorov Complexity and OWFs What makes the string 12121212121212121212121212121212121 less random than 60484850668340357492? The notion of *Kolmogorov complexity* (K -complexity) [Sol64, Kol68b, Cha69] from the field of algorithmic information theory provides an elegant method for measuring the amount of “randomness” in individual strings: The K -complexity of a string is the length of the shortest program (to be run on some fixed universal Turing machine U) that outputs the string x . The notion of $t(\cdot)$ -time-bounded Kolmogorov Complexity (K^t -complexity) is a computationally-restricted version of K -complexity: $K^t(x)$ is defined as the length of the shortest program that outputs the string x within time $t(|x|)$. As surveyed by Trakhtenbrot [Tra84], the problem of efficiently determining the K^t -complexity for $t(n) = \text{poly}(n)$ predates the theory of NP-completeness and was studied in the Soviet Union since the 60s as a candidate for a problem that requires “brute-force search”. The modern complexity-theoretic study of this problem goes back to Sipser [Sip83], Ko [Ko86] and Hartmanis [Har83]. Let $\text{MK}^{t(\cdot)}\text{P}$ denote the decisional $t(n)$ -time bounded Kolmogorov complexity problem; namely, the language of pairs (x, k) where $|k| = \lceil \log |x| \rceil$ and $K^t(x) \leq k$.

As mentioned above, Liu and Pass [LP20] demonstrated that for every polynomial $t(n) \geq 1.1n$, mild average-case hardness of MK^tP is equivalent to the existence of OWFs. But as mentioned, it is not known whether MK^tP is NP-complete (for any polynomial t). Towards getting a characterization of OWFs based on average-case hardness of an NP-complete problem, we will consider a generalization of MK^tP based on *conditional* Kolmogorov complexity.

Conditional Time-bounded Kolmogorov Complexity The $t(\cdot)$ -time-bounded *Conditional Kolmogorov Complexity* [ZL70, Lev73, Tra84, LM91] of a string x conditioned on the string z —denoted $K^t(x | z)$ —is the length of the shortest program that, given the “auxiliary input” z , outputs the string x within time $t(|x|)$. More formally,

$$K^t(x | z) = \min_{\Pi \in \{0,1\}^*} \{|\Pi| : U(\Pi(z), 1^{t(|x|)}) = x\},$$

where U is a universal Turing machine, and we let $U(\Pi(z), 1^t)$ denote the output of the program Π on input z after t steps. Whereas the notion of a “program” typically is taken to be a Turing machine, in this work we focus on the setting where a program is taken to be a RAM-machine—namely Π is now allowed to be a RAM-machine that can make Random Access queries into the auxiliary string z . Let $\text{McK}^{t(\cdot)}\text{P}[\zeta(\cdot)]$ denote the decisional $t(\cdot)$ -time bounded $\zeta(\cdot)$ -conditional Kolmogorov complexity problem; namely, the language of triples (x, z, k) where $|z| = \zeta(|x|)$, $|k| = \lceil \log |x| \rceil$ and $K^t(x | z) \leq k$. Whereas conditional (time-bounded) Kolmogorov complexity has been studied for decades (see e.g., [LM91]), it has also remained an open question to determine whether this problem is NP-complete.⁴

We observe that the result of [LP20] extends, with only relatively minor modifications in the proof, also to conditional Kolmogorov complexity: We show that for every polynomial $t(\cdot) \geq 1.1n$, and every polynomial $\zeta(\cdot)$, mild average-case hardness of $\text{McK}^t\text{P}[\zeta]$ is equivalent to the existence of OWFs.

Theorem 1.1 (closely following [LP20]). *For every polynomial $t(n) \geq 1.1n$, every polynomial $\zeta(\cdot)$, mild average-case hardness of $\text{McK}^t\text{P}[\zeta]$ is equivalent to the existence of OWFs.*

So, if we could show that $\text{McK}^t\text{P}[\zeta]$ is NP-complete for some polynomials t, ζ , we would be done. Our main theorem does exactly this.

⁴We remark, however, that as far as we know, we are the first to consider this problem w.r.t. RAM programs as opposed to Turing machines. In our view, this RAM version of the problem is as natural (if not more) than the “standard” TM version.

Theorem 1.2 (Main Theorem). *For every polynomial $t(n) \geq n^2$, there exists some polynomial $\zeta(\cdot)$, such that $\text{McK}^t\text{P}[\zeta]$ is NP-complete (under randomized polynomial-time reductions).*

Let us emphasize that the combination of Theorem 1.1 and Theorem 1.2, for instance, yields the following crisp characterization of the “holygrail” of Cryptography:

There exists (concrete) polynomials t, ζ such that “Basing OWFs on $\text{NP} \not\subseteq \text{BPP}$ ” is equivalent to the existence of a worst-case to (mild) average-case reduction for $\text{McK}^t\text{P}[\zeta]$.

In other words, the “holy grail” of Cryptography is equivalent to a basic question in algorithmic information theory. Furthermore, let us point out that for the unconditional time-bounded Kolmogorov complexity problem $\text{MK}^{\text{poly}}\text{P}$, some partial⁵ worst-case to average-case reductions are known [Hir18], so this gives us hope that a full worst-case to average-case reduction may be possible also for McK^tP .

As we shall discuss shortly, Theorem 1.2 is also interesting in its own right and has other direct applications: we show how to shed new light on a long-standing open problem regarding *symmetry of information* [ZL70] for the setting of time-bounded Kolmogorov complexity.

Let us emphasize that for the NP-completeness result to hold, it is imperative that our notion of conditional Kolmogorov complexity views programs as *RAM-machines* (as opposed to *Turing machines*). We leave it as an intriguing open problem to determine whether the “standard” conditional time-bounded Kolmogorov complexity (where interpreting a program as a Turing machine) is also NP-complete.

We proceed to providing a proof overview of the main theorem (i.e. Theorem 1.2).

1.2 Proof Overview

We first note that it directly follows that for all polynomials t, ζ , $\text{McK}^t\text{P}[\zeta] \in \text{NP}$ —the witness for an instance (x, z, k) is simply a RAM program Π such that $|\Pi| \leq k$ and $\Pi(z)$ generates x within $t(|x|)$ steps. We turn to discussing how to prove that there exist polynomials t, ζ , such that $\text{McK}^t\text{P}[\zeta]$ is NP-hard. On a high-level, our approach will start off by using the recent breakthrough approach by Ilango [Ila19, Ila20] showing NP-hardness of an *oracle-variant* of the *circuit minimization problem* (MCSP) [KC00]—that is, the problem of, given the truth table of a boolean function, determining the size of the smallest circuit that computes the function—and next extend it to deal with the conditional Kolmogorov complexity problem by appropriately embedding the “oracles” used in the construction of [Ila19] in the auxiliary input.

In more detail, following [AHM⁺08, HOS18, Ila19, Ila20, ILO20], we will embed an (approximate) Bounded Set Cover instance into an $\text{McK}^t\text{P}[\zeta]$ instance; the approximate Bounded Set Cover problem is known to be NP-complete [Tre01]. Recall that in the Bounded Set Cover problem, we are given a collection of sets S_1, S_2, \dots, S_r , each of which is a *constant-size* subset of the universe $U = [n]$ and the goal is to find a minimal set of indexes, s , such that $\cup_{i \in s} S_i = [n]$ (i.e., finding the minimal collection \mathcal{S} of sets S_i that cover $[n]$). We start off by generalizing an idea from [Ila19, Ila20, ILO20] and replace the universe $U = [n]$ with n random strings $A_i \in \{0, 1\}^m$, where $m(n)$ is some sufficiently large polynomial (in the formal proof $m(n) = n^3$). Roughly speaking, the rationale for doing this is that a set cover, intuitively, should give a succinct (proportional to the size of the set cover) way to generate the random string $A = A_1 || A_2 || \dots || A_n$ if we have *oracle access* to the sets S_i —we simply need to specify the sets in the set cover and can then reconstruct the union of these sets. This construction was used in [Ila19] to prove NP-hardness of the oracle-version of the MCSP problem—the sets S_i were simply placed into the oracle. ([Ila20] provides a more elaborate construction that also shows NP-hardness of a conditional variant of the MCSP problem; we will, however, not rely on that extension.)

⁵The reduction only shows so-called *errorless*, as opposed to 2-sided error, average-case hardness.

To convert the above set-cover instance into a conditional Kolmogorov complexity problem, our new idea will be to place the description of the sets S_i (each of which consists of some set of strings A_i) at *random locations* in the auxiliary string z and to make sure z is very long (yet still only of polynomial length), and consider the conditional Kolmogorov complexity problem of computing $K^t(A \mid z)$ where $A = A_1 \parallel A_2 \parallel \dots \parallel A_n$. Conceptually, one can view this approach as a way to *obfuscate* the oracle used in [Ila19] and placing the obfuscation in z . Intuitively, since we are placing the descriptions of the sets S_i at random locations in z , a time-bounded algorithm can only access S_i if it “knows” the random location where it has been put, and thus, intuitively, we can view z as an information-theoretic obfuscation of gates that compute these descriptions.⁶

If there exists a set cover s of size ℓ , $K^t(A \mid z)$ should be no more than $\ell O(\log n) + O(1)$, by considering the program that simply hardcodes the location in z of the descriptions of the sets S_i for $i \in s$. The harder part is showing that if $K^t(A \mid z) \leq \ell O(\log n)$ then there exists a set-cover of size $O(\ell)$. Relying on the intuition that z acts as an obfuscation of the description of the sets $\{S_i\}$, the intuition for why this holds is that if z is sufficiently longer than $t(|x|)$, and the description of the sets are put into random positions of z , any program with running-time $t(|x|)$ that reconstructs the string $A = A_1 \parallel A_2 \parallel \dots \parallel A_n$ (which with overwhelming probability has high Kolmogorov complexity) must “know” the location in the auxiliary string z of sets $\{S_i\}_{i \in s}$ in some set cover s , in the sense that by running this program, those positions can be “reconstructed”. In a bit more detail, by running this program and looking at the memory access queries made by the program into z , we must be hitting the locations where the sets have been put. But since these locations are random (by construction of z), the program needs to basically “hard-code” them, or else we would be able to compress the indexes of these locations, but these indexes have high Kolmogorov complexity as they were picked at random, which is a contradiction.

The reader may note that, perhaps curiously, we are using an argument based on Kolmogorov complexity to formalize the statement that $K^t(A \mid z) \leq \ell O(\log n)$. In more detail, we are relying on a Kolmogorov-complexity style compression argument to formalize that z acts as a good “obfuscation” of the description of the sets $\{S_i\}$. This proof technique bears similarities to the proof technique pioneered by Gennero and Trevisan [GT00] in the context of proving that a random permutation is one-way w.r.t. polynomial-size circuits.

Let us end by noting that the above proof outline oversimplifies and misses several crucial details that make the actual proof quite a bit more complicated.

1.3 Applications to Polynomial-time Bounded Symmetry of Information

The celebrated *symmetry of information* theorem by Kolmogorov and Levin from 1967 [ZL70] states that for all strings $x, y \in \{0, 1\}^*$:

$$K(xy) = K(y) + K(x \mid y) \pm O(\log |xy|)$$

where xy denotes the concatenation of the strings x, y . The proof of this theorem, however, involves a computationally expensive exhaustive search through all strings of lengths $|x|, |y|$. The question of whether a *polynomial-time bounded* version of information symmetry holds, where K -complexity is replaced by K^t -complexity for polynomials t , has remained an open problem. We refer to the assertion that there exists some constant $0 < \epsilon \leq 1$ such that for all sufficiently large polynomials t , all $x, y \in \{0, 1\}^*$ (of polynomially-related length), it holds that

$$K^{t^\epsilon}(xy) \geq K^t(y) + K^t(x \mid y) - O(\log |xy|)$$

⁶This intuition is somewhat misleading: since z is only of polynomial length, the “obfuscation” only works with respect to a-priori time-bounded attackers (that can only explore a small fraction of z) and can only have inverse polynomial security. But in our context, such a relaxed notion of security suffices.

$$K^{t^{1/\epsilon}}(xy) \leq K^t(y) + K^t(x | y) + O(\log |xy|)$$

as the *polynomial-time symmetry of information assertion* (polySOI). The question of whether a polynomial-time symmetry of information assertion holds goes back to a work by Kolmogorov from 1968 [Kol68a]; as retold by Levin [Lev03]:

Kolmogorov suggested at the time [Kol68a] that this information symmetry theorem may be a good test case to prove that for some tasks exhaustive search cannot be avoided (in today's terms, $P \neq NP$)

The first formal complexity-theoretic investigation of this question goes back to works by Longpré and Mocas [LM91] and Longpré and Watanabe [LW92]. They consider a *length-restricted* version of the polySOI where we additionally add the requirement that $|x| = |y|$ and show that (1) the length-restricted polySOI assertion holds if $NP = P$, and (2) the length-restricted polySOI assertion is false if one-way functions exist. We here focus our attention on the above “length-unrestricted” version of the polySOI assertion, where x and y can be of arbitrary polynomially-related lengths. We demonstrate, as a corollary of the techniques behind the proof of Theorem 1.2, that the (length unrestricted) polySOI assertion is *unconditionally* false.

Theorem 1.3. *The (length-unrestricted) polynomial-time symmetry of information assertion is false.*

Let us provide a brief overview of how this theorem is proven, and the instrumental role that the proof of Theorem 1.2 plays in this proof. The proof, roughly speaking, proceeds in the following steps:

- **Step 1: Polynomial increase in running-time can only decrease $K^t(x)$ by $O(\log |x|)$.** We first show that polySOI implies that if we polynomially increase the running-time bound, then this cannot have a significant effect on K^t ; more precisely, for large enough t , it holds that for all constants c , $K^t(x)$ cannot be more than $O(\log |x|)$ more than $K^{t^c}(x)$. Intuitively, this follows from polySOI by letting y be a sufficiently long all “dummy” string, 0^m . We note that this step inherently relies on us considering a length *unrestricted* polySOI.

- **Step 2: Showing that a “strong” polySOI assertion holds.** We next observe that combining Step 1 with polySOI yields a strong form of the polySOI assertion where $\epsilon = 1$; i.e., it holds that

$$K^t(xy) = K^t(y) + K^t(x | y) \pm O(\log |xy|)$$

- **Step 3: Polynomial increase in running-time can only decrease *conditional* $K^t(x|z)$ by $O(\log |xz|)$.** We then combine the “strong” polySOI assertion from Step 2 with Step 1 to show that an analog of Step 1 holds also with respect to conditional time-bounded Kolmogorov complexity. More precisely, for large enough t , it holds that for all constants c , $K^t(x | z)$ cannot be more than $O(\log |xz|)$ larger than $K^{t^c}(x | z)$.
- **Step 4: Contradicting the construction in Theorem 1.2.** We finally observe that the statement of Step 3 contradicts the construction in the proof of Theorem 1.2. In particular, in the proof of Theorem 1.2, we showed strings x, z where the condition time-bounded Kolmogorov complexity $K^t(x | z)$ is large (roughly the size of the set-cover). However, this relied on t being sufficiently small so that the program cannot read all of z . If t is large, so that the program can read all of z , then $K^t(x | z)$ is tiny (x can be trivially reconstructed from z). This contradicts the statement of Step 3.

Let us emphasize that Theorem 1.3 is incomparable to the result of [LW92]: [LW92] consider a weaker “length-restricted” polynomial-time symmetry of information assertion (where $|x| = |y|$), whereas we are considering a “length-unrestricted” version. While [LW92] show that the length-restricted polySOI indeed holds if $\text{NP} = \text{P}$, we show that the length-unrestricted version is unconditionally false. We do, however, note that the “standard” (non time-bounded) symmetry of information theorem of [ZL70]) consider the length unrestricted case, in analogy with what we do.

Furthermore, for our result to hold (and in contrast to [LW92]), it is crucial that we consider RAM-programs as the model of computation, as opposed to the (more standard in the context of time-bounded Kolmogorov complexity) notion of TM-programs; nevertheless, in our eyes, considering RAM programs is equally motivated (if not more) than TM programs.

1.4 Related Works

As mentioned above, there has been a recent sequence of surprising works proving NP-hardness results for variants of the MCSP problem [AHM⁺08, HOS18, Ila19, Ila20, ILO20]; in particular, as mentioned, Ilango [Ila20] proves that a conditional version of the MCSP problem is NP-hard. As observed already in [Tra84], and further explored in [ABK⁺06], the MCSP problem is closely related to the time-bounded Kolmogorov complexity problem—intuitively, the two problems capture the same concept, but using a different model of computation—but a formal reduction between these problems is not known so these results do not directly extend to the setting we consider. (However, as mentioned above, the starting point for our approach is the result of [Ila19] showing NP-hardness for an oracle version of the MCSP problem.)

A recent result by Hirahara [Hir20] directly addresses conditional time-bounded Kolmogorov complexity and shows NP-hardness for a variant of this problem, $\text{McK}^{\text{polyP}^{\text{SAT}}}$, where the program has access to a SAT-oracle. (The $\text{McK}^{\text{polyP}^{\text{SAT}}}$ problem, however, is not known to be in NP, but is in NP^{NP} , so NP-completeness is not shown).

An intriguing recent paper by Allender et al [ACM⁺21a] presented a natural NP-complete problem L —a sparse variant of the MCSP problem—such that average-case hardness of L was claimed to imply the existence of OWFs; the authors also claimed a “weak” converse of this implication—that the existence of OWFs implies a very weak, so-called “non-trivial”, notion of average-case hardness of the language⁷; unfortunately, an error was found in the paper. Concurrently and independently from the current work, the authors of [ACM⁺21a] show how to repair the issues in their proof and present a different NP-complete language whose average-case hardness implies the existence of OWFs, and for which the same weak converse holds.⁸ While their original posting [ACM⁺21a]—which inspired the current work—attempted to base OWFs on the average-case hardness of a sparse version of the MCSP problem, their new paper [ACM⁺21b] instead bases OWFs on average-case hardness of a conditional Kolmogorov complexity style problem, just as in the current work. Their conditional Kolmogorov complexity problem differs from ours in several aspects: (1) whereas we consider conditional Kolmogorov complexity w.r.t. RAM programs, [ACM⁺21b] considers it w.r.t. Turing machines with “oracle-access” to the auxiliary input z ; and (2) instead of considering a time-bounded version of conditional Kolmogorov complexity (as we do), [ACM⁺21b] instead *charge* for running-time in their notion of Kolmogorov complexity, following the *KT* notion of [ABK⁺06]. Due to these differences, NP-completeness of their problem follows essentially directly from the NP-completeness results of [Ila19] (whereas we have to work a lot harder, as explained above). However, due to these differences, they only manage to show a one-directional implication between

⁷Roughly speaking, that average-case hardness holds for an inverse *exponential*, as opposed to inverse polynomial, fraction of inputs.

⁸The papers appear on ECCC/Eprint within one day of each other.

average-case hardness of their problem and OWFs (and only a weak converse in the other direction), whereas we establish an *equivalence* between average-case hardness of $\text{McK}^t\text{P}[\zeta]$ (for any polynomials $t(n) > 1.1n, \zeta(\cdot)$) and OWFs.

Subsequent to the initial posting [LP21a] of this paper, [ACM⁺21c] have shown, based on the results in [RS21] that (mild) average-case hardness of the NP-complete problem considered in [ACM⁺21b] is equivalent to the existence of OWFs computable in log space; their work thus provides an elegant characterization of what it means to base OWFs computable in logspace on $\text{NP} \not\subseteq \text{BPP}$. We emphasize that these results were obtained subsequently to initial posting of the current paper (see [ACM⁺21b] which is concurrent to the initial posting of this paper [LP21a].)

After the initial posting of this paper, we were informed by Rahul Ilango [Ila21] that he had independently also shown NP-completeness of some conditional time-bounded Kolmogorov complexity problem, but without writing down the results. Indeed, as far as we can tell, our paper is the first to present any type of NP-completeness results for Kolmogorov complexity problems.

Resource bounded notions of conditional Kolmogorov complexity are useful also in other (related) contexts. In a companion paper to the current work [LP21b], we rely on a notion of *space-bounded* conditional Kolmogorov complexity (defined similarly to the time-bounded notion of conditional Kolmogorov complexity used in the current paper) to characterize OWFs in NC^0 ; alternative characterizations without relying on conditional Kolmogorov complexity were provided in [RS21].

In [LP21b], we also identify a problem whose (infinitely-often) average-case hardness w.r.t. errorless heuristics is equivalent to $\text{EXP} \neq \text{BPP}$ (i.e., the problem is EXP-average-case complete w.r.t. errorless heuristics), yet (two-sided error) average-case hardness of this problem is equivalent to the existence of OWFs; related results were also obtained in [RS21]. Taken together, the current work and [LP21b, RS21], demonstrate that the existence of OWFs can be characterized through the average-case hardness of both NP-complete (this work) and EXP-complete ([LP21b, RS21]) languages.

2 Preliminaries

We let $[n]$ denote the set $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ for any integer $n \in \mathbb{N}$. For any two strings x, y , let $x||y$ denote the concatenation of x and y ; whenever it is clear from context, we sometimes also use xy to denote the concatenation of x and y . In this work, we sometimes consider strings that contain a special symbol \perp (besides 0 and 1). We will use the following standard encoding scheme—which we refer to as simply the *standard encoding scheme* enc_\perp) to transform a string that may contain \perp into a binary string: $\text{enc}_\perp(x)$, of a string $x \in \{0, 1, \perp\}^*$ is a $2|x|$ -bit binary string where we replace each bit in x by 00 for 0, 01 for 1, and 11 for \perp .

2.1 Set Cover

Let n be an integer and $S_1, S_2, \dots, S_\ell, T$ be sets $\subseteq [n]$. We say that the sets S_1, S_2, \dots, S_ℓ cover T if $T \subseteq S_1 \cup S_2 \cup \dots \cup S_\ell$. Let \mathcal{S} be a collection of sets. We define $\text{cover}(T, \mathcal{S})$ to be the minimum number of sets in \mathcal{S} necessary to cover T .

We recall the γ -Bounded Set Cover Problem:

- Input: $(1^n, 1^\ell, \mathcal{S})$ where n, ℓ are integers $\in \mathbb{N}$ and $\mathcal{S} = \{S_1, S_2, \dots, S_r\}$ is a collection of subsets $\subseteq [n]$. It is guaranteed that all the sets in \mathcal{S} covers $[n]$ together and for all $i \in [r]$, $|S_i| \leq \gamma$.
- Decide: Is $\text{cover}([n], \mathcal{S}) \leq \ell$.

We also consider the approximate version of the γ -Bounded Set Cover problem. The α -approximate γ -Bounded Set Cover Problem is a promise problem $(\Pi_{\text{yes}}, \Pi_{\text{no}})$ where Π_{yes} contains $(1^n, 1^\ell, \mathcal{S})$ such that $\text{cover}([n], \mathcal{S}) \leq \ell$ and Π_{no} consists of $(1^n, 1^\ell, \mathcal{S})$ such that $\text{cover}([n], \mathcal{S}) > \alpha \cdot \ell$.

Trevisan [Tre01] showed that approximating the γ -Bounded Set Cover Problem within a constant factor is NP-hard:

Theorem 2.1 ([Tre01]). *For every constant $\alpha \geq 1$, there exists a constant $\gamma \in \mathbb{N}$ such that the α -approximate γ -Bounded Set Cover Problem is NP-hard. More concretely, for any language $L \in \text{NP}$, there exists a polynomial-time algorithm R such that on input $x \in L$, $R(x)$ outputs an instance in Π_{yes} ; on input $x \notin L$, $R(x)$ outputs an instance in Π_{no} , where $(\Pi_{\text{yes}}, \Pi_{\text{no}})$ denotes the α -approximate γ -Bounded Set Cover Problem.*

2.2 The RAM Model

A RAM program $\Pi = (M, y)$ consists of a CPU “next-step” Turing machine M , and some initial input $y \in \{0, 1\}^*$. Let $\text{state} = 0$ be an initial state. The execution of this RAM program Π on input $z \in \{0, 1\}^*$ (which may be empty) proceeds as follows.

- At initialization, the memory is set to $y||\perp||z$, and the “read bit” b^{read} is set to \perp . (For simplicity, we assume that each memory position contains a symbol $\in \{0, 1, \perp\}$.⁹ We assume that the memory is of infinite length and the rest of the positions in the memory are filled with \perp .)
- At each CPU step, M receives as input $\text{state} \in \{0, 1\}^*$, the most recently read bit b^{read} , and outputs a new state $\text{state}' \in \{0, 1\}^*$, a read position i^{read} , a write position i^{write} and some bit b^{write} (to be written to position i^{write}).¹⁰
- The execution of this step replaces state with state' , sets b^{read} to the content of memory position i^{read} , and replaces the content of memory position i^{write} by b^{write} .
- When $\text{state} = \varepsilon$ (i.e., the empty string), the computation ends and the output of the of the computation is defined as the content of the memory tape up to the symbol \perp .¹¹
- The running time of Π is defined to be the sum of the running time of M in all CPU steps.

Note that any polynomial-time Turing machine can be simulated by a polynomial-time RAM program by simply copying the content of the memory into state , next letting M run the original Turing machine using state as its tape, and finally copying the content of state back into the memory.

2.3 Time-bounded Conditional Kolmogorov Complexity

We introduce the notion of time-bounded conditional Kolmogorov complexity with respect to RAM programs. Roughly speaking, the t -time-bounded Kolmogorov complexity, $K^t(x | z)$, of a string $x \in \{0, 1\}^*$ conditioned on a string $z \in \{0, 1\}^*$ is the length of the shortest RAM program $\Pi = (M, y)$ such that $\Pi(z)$ outputs x in $t(|x|)$ steps.

Let U be some fixed Universal Turing machine that can emulate any RAM program Π with polynomial overhead. Let $U(\Pi(z), 1^t)$ denote the output of $\Pi(z)$ when emulated on U for t steps. We now define the notion of t -time-bounded conditional Kolmogorov complexity.

⁹When we implement this, we always use the standard encoding scheme, enc_\perp . We also note that the string y and z can never contain the symbol \perp (since they exclusively consist of 0s and 1s). When we load y and z into the memory, instead of storing y and z directly, we store the standard encoding of y and z (where 0 becomes 00 and 1 becomes 01).

¹⁰Formally, the inputs and outputs of M are separated by the \perp symbol so that state can be of variable length.

¹¹In a real execution, the content of the memory is encoded by the standard encoding scheme. The output of the computation is then defined by the *decoded* content of the memory.

Definition 2.2. Let t be a polynomial. For all $x \in \{0, 1\}^*$ and $z \in \{0, 1\}^*$, define

$$K^t(x | z) = \min_{\Pi \in \{0, 1\}^*} \{|\Pi| : U(\Pi(z), 1^{t(|x|)}) = x\}$$

where $|\Pi|$ is referred to as the description length of Π . When there is no time bound, we define

$$K(x | z) = \min_{\Pi \in \{0, 1\}^*} \{|\Pi| : U(\Pi(z), 1^{t'}) = x \text{ for some finite } t'\}$$

We also consider the decisional variant of the minimum t -time-bounded conditional Kolmogorov complexity problem. Let t, ζ be two polynomials, and let $\text{McK}^t\text{P}[\zeta]$ denote the language of triples (x, z, k) , having the property that $K^t(x | z) \leq k$, where $z \in \{0, 1\}^{\zeta(|x|)}$ and $k \in \{0, 1\}^{\lceil \log n \rceil}$.

We note that for any string $z \in \{0, 1\}^*$, $x \in \{0, 1\}^*$, for any polynomial $t(\cdot)$, $K^t(x | z)$, is always upper bounded by $|x| + O(1)$.

Fact 2.1. There exists a constant $c \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for all polynomial $t(\cdot)$, for all string $z \in \{0, 1\}^*$, $x \in \{0, 1\}^*$, $K^t(x | z) \leq |x| + c$.

Proof: Consider the RAM program $\Pi = (M, x)$ where M is a Turing machine that directly sets state $= \varepsilon$. Note that in the execution of Π , x will be put into the memory and Π will halt immediately. Thus Π will output the string x . Note that M is a constant-size machine, so the description length of Π is at most $|x| + c$ for some constant c . ■

We finally remark that for any polynomials $t(\cdot), \zeta(\cdot)$, $\text{McK}^t\text{P}[\zeta] \in \text{NP}$.

Claim 1. For all polynomials $t(\cdot), \zeta(\cdot)$, $\text{McK}^t\text{P}[\zeta] \in \text{NP}$.

Proof: On input an instance $(x, z, k) \in \text{McK}^t\text{P}[\zeta]$, and a witness Π , checking if $|\Pi| \leq k$, $|z| = \zeta(|x|)$ and $U(\Pi(z), 1^{t(|x|)}) = x$ can be done in polynomial time. ■

2.4 One-way Functions

We recall the definition of one-way functions [DH76]. Roughly speaking, a function f is one-way if it is polynomial-time computable, but hard to invert for PPT attackers.

Definition 2.3. Let $f : \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^*$ be a polynomial-time computable function. f is said to be a one-way function (OWF) if for every PPT algorithm \mathcal{A} , there exists a negligible function μ such that for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$,

$$\Pr[x \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^n; y = f(x) : \mathcal{A}(1^n, y) \in f^{-1}(f(x))] \leq \mu(n)$$

We may also consider a weaker notion of a *weak one-way function* [Yao82], where we only require all PPT attackers to fail with probability noticeably bounded away from 1:

Definition 2.4. Let $f : \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^*$ be a polynomial-time computable function. f is said to be a α -weak one-way function (α -weak OWF) if for every PPT algorithm \mathcal{A} , for all sufficiently large $n \in \mathbb{N}$,

$$\Pr[x \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^n; y = f(x) : \mathcal{A}(1^n, y) \in f^{-1}(f(x))] < 1 - \alpha(n)$$

We say that f is simply a weak one-way function (weak OWF) if there exists some polynomial $q > 0$ such that f is a $\frac{1}{q(\cdot)}$ -weak OWF.

Yao's hardness amplification theorem [Yao82] shows that any weak OWF can be turned into a (strong) OWF.

Theorem 2.5 ([Yao82]). Assume there exists a weak one-way function. Then there exists a one-way function.

2.5 Average-case Hard Languages

We turn to defining what it means for a language to be average-case hard (for PPT algorithms). We will be considering languages that are only defined on some input lengths (such as $\text{McK}^t\text{P}[\zeta]$). We say that a language L is *defined over inputs lengths* $s(\cdot)$ if $L \subseteq \cup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \{0, 1\}^{s(n)}$. For concreteness, note that $\text{McK}^t\text{P}[\zeta]$ is defined on input lengths $s(n) = n + \zeta(n) + \lceil \log n \rceil$.

We now turn to defining average-case hardness.

Definition 2.6. *We say that a language L defined over inputs lengths $s(\cdot)$ is $\alpha(\cdot)$ hard-on-average (α -HoA) if for all PPT heuristic \mathcal{H} , for all sufficiently large $n \in \mathbb{N}$,*

$$\Pr[x \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^{s(n)} : \mathcal{H}(x) = L(x)] < 1 - \alpha(n)$$

In other words, there does not exist a PPT “heuristic” \mathcal{H} that decides L with probability $1 - \alpha(n)$ on infinitely many input lengths $n \in \mathbb{N}$ over which L is defined.

We refer to a language L as being *mildly HoA* if there exists a polynomial $p(\cdot) > 0$ such that L is $\frac{1}{p(\cdot)}$ -HoA.

3 NP-Hardness of $\text{McK}^t\text{P}[\zeta]$

In this section, we prove our main theorem: We show that there exists a reduction from the approximate γ -Bounded Set Cover Problem to $\text{McK}^t\text{P}[\zeta]$ when t, ζ are sufficiently large.

Theorem 3.1. *For all polynomial $t(n) \geq n^2$, there exists a polynomial $\zeta(n)$ such that $\text{McK}^t\text{P}[\zeta]$ is NP-hard under many-one randomized polynomial-time reductions.*

Proof: The theorem follows from Proposition 3.1 and Proposition 3.2 (stated and proved in Section 3.2), and Theorem 2.1. ■

In fact, we note that the reduction only has one-sided errors:

Theorem 3.2. *For all polynomial $t(n) \geq n^2$, if there exists a polynomial $\zeta(n)$ such that $\text{McK}^t\text{P}[\zeta] \in \text{coRP}$, then $\text{NP} \subseteq \text{coRP}$.*

Proof: By Proposition 3.1, our reduction succeeds with probability 1 on YES instances. By Proposition 3.2, our reduction succeeds with high probability ($\geq \frac{1}{2}$) on NO instances. Finally, the corollary follows from Theorem 2.1. ■

3.1 A Reduction from the γ -Bounded Set Cover Problem to McK^tP

Let γ be a constant, let $t(n) \geq n^2$ be a polynomial, and consider $\zeta(n) = (t(n))^4 n^{2\gamma}$. We will show that there exists a randomized reduction from the γ -Bounded Set Cover Problem to $\text{McK}^t\text{P}[\zeta]$.

Given an instance $(1^n, 1^\ell, \mathcal{S})$ where $\mathcal{S} = \{S_1, S_2, \dots, S_r\}$ of the γ -Bounded Set Cover Problem, we proceed as follows:

- Let $m = n^3$; for each $i \in [n]$, sample a random string $A_i \in \{0, 1\}^m$, and consider the length- $(n \times m)$ concatenation $A = A_1 || A_2 || \dots || A_n$ of the sampled strings. Think of A_i as a randomized encoding of the element i in the Set Cover problem. See Figure 1 for an illustration of these strings.

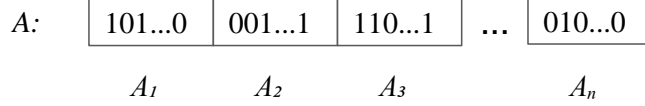


Figure 1: An illustrative example for the string A

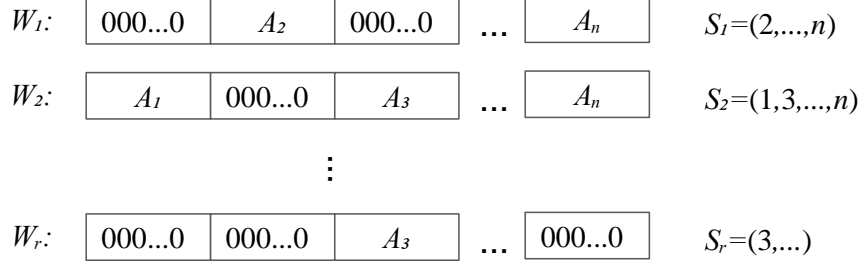


Figure 2: An illustrative example for the gadget strings W_i . Note that if we have a Set Cover $(i_1, i_2, \dots, i_\ell)$, then the bitwise OR of the strings $W_{i_1}, W_{i_2}, \dots, W_{i_\ell}$ equals A .

- For each $i \in [r]$, we construct a “gadget” string $W_i \in (\{0, 1\}^m)^n$ (for set S_i). We partition W_i into n blocks $W_{i,1}, W_{i,2}, \dots, W_{i,n}$ where each block is of size m . We let $W_{i,j} = A_j$ if $j \in S_i$, and otherwise $W_{i,j} = 0^m$. In other words, W_i reveals the strings A_j for all $j \in S_i$; think of W_i as a randomized encoding of the set S_i . See Figure 2 for an illustration of these strings.
- Let $\lambda = 4 \log r + 4 \log t(nm)$. For each $i \in [r]$, we sample a “key” $k_i \in \{0, 1\}^\lambda$ for W_i . For simplicity, we assume that the sampled keys are distinct with each other. (If this is not the case, the reduction just aborts; since this happens only with negligible probability we may ignore this event in the analysis.)
- We are finally ready to describe the “auxiliary input” z . The idea is to hide the gadgets $\{W_i\}$ in z at random locations specified by the keys so as to ensure that the only way for a t -time bounded program to recover W_i is to essentially hard-code the key k_i as part of its description. In more detail, we consider a string z of length $2^\lambda \times n \times m$; partition z into 2^λ blocks $z_{0^\lambda}, z_{0^\lambda-1}, \dots, z_{1^\lambda-1}, z_{1^\lambda}$ where for all $p \in \{0, 1\}^\lambda$, $|z_p| = n \times m$. For all $p \in \{0, 1\}^{2^\lambda}$, let $z_p = W_i$ if $p = k_i$ for some $i \in [r]$, and otherwise, let $z_p = 0^{n \times m}$. See Figure 3 for an illustration of these strings.

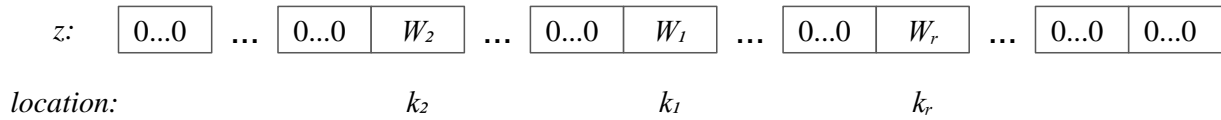


Figure 3: An illustrative example of the “auxiliary” input z

- Finally, the reduction will output YES if $K^t(A | z) \leq 2\lambda\ell$. Note that the length of z is upper bounded by $\zeta(|A|)$, and thus this is a syntactically valid reduction to an $\text{McK}^t\text{P}[\zeta]$ instance.

We turn to analyzing the success probability of the reduction.

3.2 Analyzing the Reduction

We will prove that the above reduction gives us a 4-approximation of the γ -Bounded Set Cover Problem. We first show that if $[n]$ can be covered by a small number ($\leq \ell$) of sets, the time-bounded Kolmogorov complexity of A conditioned on the string z will be small ($\leq 2\lambda\ell$): the program computing A simply needs to hard-code the keys k_i corresponding to the ℓ sets in the set cover; it can look into z at the positions specified by the keys and output the bitwise OR of the content of those positions.

Proposition 3.1. *If $\text{cover}([n], \mathcal{S}) \leq \ell$ then $K^t(A | z) \leq K^{t'}(A | z) \leq 2\lambda\ell$ where $t'(n) = n^2$.*

Proof: Let $S_{i_1}, S_{i_2}, \dots, S_{i_\ell}$ be the ℓ sets in \mathcal{S} that cover $[n]$. (Since the sets are γ -Bounded, it follows that $\ell \geq n/\gamma$.) Let Π be a RAM program with n, m, λ and the keys $k_{i_1}, \dots, k_{i_\ell}$ hardwired in it. For each $j \in [\ell]$, Π first reads $W'_{i_j} = z_{k_{i_j}}$ from the k_{i_j} -th block of the string z (where $|z_{k_{i_j}}| = n \times m$). (Recall that z is partitioned into 2^λ blocks and each block is of size $n \times m$.) Π then obtains $W'_{i_1}, \dots, W'_{i_\ell}$ and Π simply outputs

$$W'_{i_1} \vee W'_{i_2} \vee \dots \vee W'_{i_\ell}$$

where \vee denotes the bitwise OR for binary strings.

We first show that Π indeed outputs the string A . Note that by the construction of string z , it holds that

$$(W'_{i_1}, \dots, W'_{i_\ell}) = (z_{k_{i_1}}, \dots, z_{k_{i_\ell}}) = (W_{i_1}, \dots, W_{i_\ell}).$$

Recall that in the construction of the gadget string W_{i_j} (for each $j \in [\ell]$), W_{i_j} is partitioned into n blocks $W_{i_j,1}, \dots, W_{i_j,n}$. And for each block $b \in [n]$, $W_{i_j,b} = A_b$ if $b \in S_{i_j}$, and otherwise $W_{i_j,b} = 0^m$. Since the sets $S_{i_1}, \dots, S_{i_\ell}$ cover $[n]$, for all $b \in [n]$, there exists an index j such that the b -th block of the gadget string W_{i_j} matches A_b . Thus, $W_{i_1} \vee W_{i_2} \vee \dots \vee W_{i_\ell} = A$.

We then show that Π can be described within $2\lambda\ell$ bits. Recall that Π contains the values n, m, λ (which takes $O(\log n)$ bits to describe), the keys $k_{i_1}, \dots, k_{i_\ell}$ (which takes $\lambda\ell$ bits), and the code of Π (which takes $O(1)$ bits). We will provide a more fine-grained analysis in the Appendix A to show that the code of Π is of constant-bit length in the RAM model. Thus, Π can be represented using $\lambda\ell + O(\log n) \leq 2\lambda\ell$ bits.

Finally, note that Π runs in time $O(\ell n m \text{poly} \log n) \leq (nm)^2 = t'(|A|) \leq t(|A|)$ (since in each CPU step, the CPU next-step machine takes $O(\text{poly} \log n)$ time). (We refer the reader to the Appendix A for a more detailed running time analysis.) Thus, we conclude that $K^t(A | z) \leq K^{t'}(A | z) \leq 2\lambda\ell$. ■

The key part of the analysis is showing that if $K^t(A | z) \leq 2\lambda\ell$ then $\text{cover}([n], \mathcal{S}) \leq 4\ell$:

Proposition 3.2. *With probability at least $1 - 2/n$ over the random choice of k_1, k_2, \dots, k_r (which determines z) and A , it holds that if $K^t(A | z) \leq 2\lambda\ell$ then $\text{cover}([n], \mathcal{S}) \leq 4\ell$.*

The proof of Proposition 3.2 is provided in Section 3.3. Proposition 3.1 together with Proposition 3.2 concludes that our reduction achieves a 4-approximation.

3.3 Proof of Proposition 3.2

Let Π be a RAM program such that $|\Pi| \leq 2\lambda\ell$ and $\Pi(z)$ prints A in $\leq t = t(|A|)$ CPU steps (where t is the running time bound associated with the problem $\text{McK}^t\text{P}[\zeta]$). The existence of such Π is implied by the assumption that $K^t(A | z) \leq 2\lambda\ell$. We will now show how to use Π, z to extract out

a Set Cover of size 4ℓ . Towards this, recall that when executing $\Pi(z)$, in each CPU step, $\Pi(z)$ will read one bit from the memory. Let

$$q_1, q_2, \dots, q_t$$

be the memory positions that $\Pi(z)$ reads in the execution of $\Pi(z)$ (such that in CPU step i , $\Pi(z)$ reads the content of memory position q_i). Note that the string z will be stored in the memory of $\Pi(z)$, and we are interested in the memory positions where the string z is stored. So, we let d be the memory position such that z is stored from position d to position $d + |z| - 1$. In addition, most of the bits in z are just zeros and $z_{k_1}, z_{k_2}, \dots, z_{k_r}$ are the only informative blocks. (Recall that z is partitioned into 2^λ blocks of size $n \times m$.) Thus, let

$$p_i = \lfloor (q_i - d) / (n \times m) \rfloor$$

be the index of the block in z from which $\Pi(z)$ reads one bit in CPU step i . When p_i matches some key k_j , $z_{p_i} = z_{k_j} = W_j$. When p_i does not match any of the keys, $z_{p_i} = 0^{n \times m}$.¹²

We say that $\Pi(z)$ makes a **useful access** to the string z in CPU step i if there exists $j \in [r]$ such that $p_i = k_j$ and for all $i' < i$, $p_i \neq p_{i'}$. In other words, $\Pi(z)$ makes a **useful access** when it first reads some bit in the block z_{k_j} for some $j \in [r]$. We say that $\Pi(z)$ **hits** some block z_p if in some CPU step i , $\Pi(z)$ reads one bit from z_p .

Bounding the number of useful accesses We first present an upper-bound on the number of useful accesses. The following central claim shows that if the number of useful accesses is large, then the Kolmogorov complexity of **Keys** must be small.

Claim 2. *Let $\text{Keys} = k_1 || k_2 || \dots || k_r$ be the concatenation of k_1, k_2, \dots, k_r . If $\Pi(z)$ makes α (or more) useful accesses to the string z , then*

$$K(\text{Keys} \mid A, \mathcal{S}) \leq |\Pi| + (r - \alpha)\lambda + \alpha(\log t + \log r) + O(\log n)$$

We defer the proof of Claim 2 to Section 3.4

We observe that since **Keys** are picked at random, their (conditional) Kolmogorov complexity is high.

Claim 3. *For all $A \in \{0, 1\}^{n \times m}$, with probability $1 - 1/n$ (over the random choice of **Keys**), it holds that*

$$K(\text{Keys} \mid A, \mathcal{S}) \geq |\text{Keys}| - \log n = r\lambda - \log n.$$

Proof: Note that the total number of RAM programs with description length $< r\lambda - \log n$ is at most $2^{r\lambda - \log n} \leq \frac{2^{r\lambda}}{n}$, while the total number of the choices of **Keys** is $2^{r\lambda}$; thus the claim follows. ■

By combining Claim 2 and Claim 3 we get the following bound on the number of useful accesses.

Corollary 3.3. *With probability $1 - 1/n$ over the random choice of **Keys**, if $|\Pi| \leq 2\lambda\ell$, it holds that $\Pi(z)$ makes at most 4ℓ useful accesses*

¹²Here we discuss the string z constructed by the reduction, instead of the one stored in the memory. (So Π can not manipulate values in z .) Thus, when p_i is out of the range (e.g., $p_i < 0$), it still holds that $z_{p_i} = 0^{n \times m}$.

Proof: Assume not. Then by Claim 2,

$$\begin{aligned}
K(\text{Keys} \mid A, \mathcal{S}) &\leq |\Pi| + (r - 4\ell)\lambda + 4\ell(\log t + \log r) + O(\log n) \\
&\leq 2\lambda\ell + r\lambda - 4\lambda\ell + 4\ell(\log t + \log r) + O(\log n) \\
&\leq r\lambda - (2\lambda\ell - 4\ell(\log t + \log r) - O(\log n)) \\
&\leq r\lambda - (2 \cdot 4(\log t + \log r) \cdot \ell - 4\ell(\log t + \log r) - O(\log n)) \\
&\leq r\lambda - \left(\frac{n}{\gamma} - O(\log n)\right) \\
&< r\lambda - \log n
\end{aligned}$$

which contradicts Claim 3. \blacksquare

Extracting a small Set Cover We now turn to showing that we can extract a Set Cover from Π, z which is bounded in size by the number of useful accesses. We first show that if $\Pi(z)$ manages to output the string A , yet does not make useful accesses such that the union of all the blocks that are hit by $\Pi(z)$ equal A , then the Kolmogorov complexity of A must be small.

Claim 4. *Assume that*

- $\Pi(z)$ makes α useful accesses;
- $\Pi(z)$ outputs the string A .
- $z_{p_1} \vee z_{p_2} \vee \dots \vee z_{p_t} \neq A$; ¹³

Then,

$$K(A \mid \mathcal{S}) \leq |\Pi| + (n - 1)m + \alpha(\log t + \log r) + O(\log n)$$

We defer the proof of Claim 4 to Section 3.4.

We observe that since A is a random string, its (conditional) Kolmogorov complexity must be high.

Claim 5. *With probability $1 - 1/n$ (over the random choice of A), it holds that*

$$K(A \mid \mathcal{S}) \geq |A| - \log n \geq nm - \log n.$$

Proof: Note that the total number of RAM programs with description length $< nm - \log n$ is at most $2^{nm - \log n} \leq \frac{2^{nm}}{n}$ (while the total number of the choices of A is 2^{nm}); thus the claim follows. \blacksquare

Combining Claim 4 and Claim 5, we conclude that the union of all the blocks hit by $\Pi(z)$ must equal A (provided that $\Pi(z)$ prints the string A and makes at most 4ℓ useful accesses).

Corollary 3.4. *With probability $1 - 1/n$ over the random choice of A , if $|\Pi| \leq 2\lambda\ell$, $\Pi(z) = A$, and $\Pi(z)$ makes at most 4ℓ useful accesses, it holds that $z_{p_1} \vee z_{p_2} \vee \dots \vee z_{p_t} = A$.*

Proof: Assume not. Then by Claim 4,

$$\begin{aligned}
K(A \mid \mathcal{S}) &\leq |\Pi| + (n - 1)m + 4\ell(\log t + \log r) + O(\log n) \\
&\leq 2\lambda\ell + (n - 1)m + 4\ell(\log t + \log r) + O(\log n) \\
&= nm - (m - (2\lambda\ell + 4\ell(\log t + \log r) + O(\log n))) \\
&< nm - \log n \quad (\text{since } m = n^3, \lambda \leq n, \ell \leq n)
\end{aligned}$$

¹³When $p_i < 0$ or $p_i \geq 2^\lambda$, we assume that z_{p_i} is an all-zero string and $z_{p_i} = 0^{n \times m}$.

which contradicts to Claim 5. ■

We finally show that if the union of all the blocks hit by $\Pi(z)$ matches A , then we can extract out a Set Cover whose size is bounded by the number of useful accesses $\Pi(z)$ made.

Claim 6. *If $\Pi(z)$ makes at most 4ℓ useful accesses and $z_{p_1} \vee z_{p_2} \vee \dots \vee z_{p_t} = A$, then $\text{cover}([n], \mathcal{S}) \leq 4\ell$.*

Proof: Let α be the number of useful accesses made by $\Pi(z)$. Let

$$i_1, i_2, \dots, i_\alpha$$

be the CPU steps when $\Pi(z)$ makes a useful access; that is, $i_1, i_2, \dots, i_\alpha$ is a sequence of CPU step indices such that for each $l \in [\alpha]$, $\Pi(z)$ will make a useful access in CPU step i_l . (Recall that except for z_{k_1}, \dots, z_{k_r} , the blocks in the string z are all-zero strings.) Recall that $\Pi(z)$ makes a useful access when it first reads some bit in the block z_{k_j} for some $j \in [r]$.) Thus, by the definition of useful access, it follows that

$$z_{p_{i_1}} \vee z_{p_{i_2}} \vee \dots \vee z_{p_{i_\alpha}} = z_{p_1} \vee z_{p_2} \vee \dots \vee z_{p_t} = A$$

Since $\Pi(z)$ makes a useful access in CPU step i_l , p_{i_l} must equal some key. We let $j_1, j_2, \dots, j_\alpha \in [r]$ be a sequence of indices of the keys such that

$$(p_{i_1}, p_{i_2}, \dots, p_{i_\alpha}) = (k_{j_1}, k_{j_2}, \dots, k_{j_\alpha})$$

Note that (by the construction of the string z)

$$(W_{j_1}, W_{j_2}, \dots, W_{j_\alpha}) = (z_{p_{i_1}}, z_{p_{i_2}}, \dots, z_{p_{i_\alpha}})$$

Thus, it follows that

$$W_{j_1} \vee W_{j_2} \vee \dots \vee W_{j_\alpha} = z_{p_{i_1}} \vee z_{p_{i_2}} \vee \dots \vee z_{p_{i_\alpha}} = A$$

Finally, we argue that $S_{j_1}, S_{j_2}, \dots, S_{j_\alpha}$ cover $[n]$, which concludes the proof (since $\alpha \leq 4\ell$). We recall that for each $l \in [\alpha]$, W_{j_l} is the gadget string for S_{j_l} . Furthermore, W_{j_l} is partitioned into n blocks, $W_{j_l,1}, W_{j_l,2}, \dots, W_{j_l,n}$. For each block $b \in [n]$, $W_{j_l,b} = A_b$ if $b \in S_{j_l}$, and otherwise $W_{j_l,b} = 0^m$. Since $W_{j_1} \vee W_{j_2} \vee \dots \vee W_{j_\alpha} = A$, it follows that for all blocks $b \in [n]$,

$$W_{j_1,b} \vee W_{j_2,b} \vee \dots \vee W_{j_\alpha,b} = A_b.$$

Thus, for all $b \in [n]$, there must exist $l \in [\alpha]$ such that $b \in S_{j_l}$. We conclude that the sets $S_{j_1}, S_{j_2}, \dots, S_{j_\alpha}$ indeed cover $[n]$. ■

We can now conclude the proof of Proposition 3.2:

Proof: [of Proposition 3.2] By Corollary 3.3, with probability $1 - 1/n$, $\Pi(z)$ makes at most 4ℓ useful accesses. By Corollary 3.4, with probability $1 - 1/n$, it holds that $z_{p_1} \vee z_{p_2} \vee \dots \vee z_{p_t} = A$. Finally by Claim 6, it holds that $\text{cover}([n], \mathcal{S}) \leq 4\ell$, which happens with probability at least $1 - 2/n$ (by a union bound). ■

3.4 Proof of Claim 2 and Claim 4

In both Claim 2 and Claim 4, the goal is to compress some strings (either Keys or A) provided that $\Pi(z)$ prints A . Towards doing this, we need be able to find a short representation of the information needed to perform the execution of $\Pi(z)$. Towards this, it will be helpful to track when $\Pi(z)$ makes a useful access. Furthermore, note that every useful access corresponds to some key k_j such that z_{k_j} stores the gadgets W_j of the set S_j . For each such useful access, we will also track this “key index”

j . As we shall see, given Π , A and S , as well as the sequence of CPU steps and key indexes (of useful accesses), the whole execution of $\Pi(z)$ can be emulated without having access to z . In fact, as we shall formalize now, we actually do not even need the full content of A and S , but rather just the gadgets W_j corresponding to the sets hit by the useful accesses.

To formalize this, let $t = t(|A|)$ be the maximum number of CPU steps that $\Pi(z)$ can run, and let α be some integer bounded by the number of useful accesses made by $\Pi(z)$. We refer a pair of sequences of CPU steps and key indexes $\omega = ((i_1, i_2, \dots, i_\alpha), (j_1, j_2, \dots, j_\alpha)) \in [t]^\alpha \times [r]^\alpha$ as a configuration. We say that $\Pi(z)$ matches ω if the first time $\Pi(z)$ makes a useful access is in CPU step i_1 and $\Pi(z)$ reads one bit from the block $z_{k_{j_1}}$ (and recall that $z_{k_{j_1}} = W_{j_1}$), and the second time $\Pi(z)$ makes a useful access is in CPU step i_2 and $\Pi(z)$ reads one bit from the block $z_{k_{j_2}}$, and so on.

Lemma 3.3. *Let $\alpha \in \mathbb{N}$, and $\omega = ((i_1, \dots, i_\alpha), (j_1, \dots, j_\alpha))$ be a configuration in $[t]^\alpha \times [r]^\alpha$. If $\Pi(z)$ matches ω then one can emulate $\Pi(z)$ for i_α CPU steps using the code of Π , the configuration ω , and $W_{j_1}, W_{j_2}, \dots, W_{j_\alpha}$ (without having access to z).*

Proof: We now describe how to emulate the execution of $\Pi(z)$ for i_α steps using the code of Π , the configuration ω , and $W_{j_1}, W_{j_2}, \dots, W_{j_\alpha}$. Recall that d is the memory position where z starts at; that is, z is stored in memory positions d to $d + |z| - 1$.

Given the code of Π , we start to emulate $\Pi(z)$ with the content of memory positions $d, d + 1, \dots, d + |z| - 1$ (which are supposed to store z) set to 0. In the simulation, we keep track of all memory positions that $\Pi(z)$ has written to. In each CPU step i , if i matches some value in $\{i_1, i_2, \dots, i_\alpha\}$ (and suppose $i = i_l$), we proceed as follows:

- Let q_i be the memory position which Π will read from in CPU step i and proceed as follows.
- Let $p_i = \lfloor (q_i - d) / (n \times m) \rfloor$. Put the string $W_{j_l} \in \{0, 1\}^{n \times m}$ into the memory from position $d + p_i \times nm$ to position $d + p_i \times nm + nm - 1$, with the following exception: If Π has ever previously written into a memory between position $d + p_i \times nm$ and $d + p_i \times nm + nm - 1$, we keep those bits unchanged.
- Finally, let Π will read the bit from the memory (just as if the string z had been there), and we continue to emulate the execution of $\Pi(z)$ in the rest of CPU step i .

If i does not appear in $\{i_1, i_2, \dots, i_\alpha\}$, we simply emulate the execution honestly. When $i = i_\alpha$, we stop to emulate $\Pi(z)$.

We argue, by induction, that the above procedure perfectly emulates the execution of $\Pi(z)$ in the first i_α CPU steps. For the base case, we consider CPU step $i = 0$, in which $\Pi(z)$ has not started yet, so the statement is trivially true. For any $i \leq i_\alpha$, we now assume that in all the steps $\leq i - 1$, our simulation perfectly emulates $\Pi(z)$, and we will prove that also in CPU step i , the simulation does so as well. First note that if, in CPU step i , Π attempts to read from a memory position q_i that has (1) previously been written or read from, (2) the memory position is not within the range $[d, d + |z| - 1]$, or (3) the memory access to q_i is not a useful access, then the induction step directly follows from the induction hypothesis and the fact that the step is performed in exactly the same way in the simulation as in the real execution. We thus only need to consider the case when the memory access to q_i is a useful access. But whenever this happens, by the induction hypothesis, the simulation will produce exactly the same content in the block of z where q_i is contained, as in the real execution of $\Pi(z)$. It thus follows that also this step is perfectly emulated.

Thus, we conclude that $\Pi(z)$ can be emulated for i_α steps using the code of Π , the configuration ω , and $W_{j_1}, W_{j_2}, \dots, W_{j_\alpha}$. ■

We are now ready to prove Claim 2, which we restate for the convenience of the reader.

Claim 7 (Claim 2, restated). *Let $\text{Keys} = k_1||k_2||\dots||k_r$ be the concatenation of k_1, k_2, \dots, k_r . If $\Pi(z)$ makes α (or more) useful accesses to the string z , then*

$$K(\text{Keys} \mid A, \mathcal{S}) \leq |\Pi| + (r - \alpha)\lambda + \alpha(\log t + \log r) + O(\log n)$$

Proof: If $\Pi(z)$ makes at least α useful accesses, $\Pi(z)$ must match some configuration

$$\omega = ((i_1, i_2, \dots, i_\alpha), (j_1, j_2, \dots, j_\alpha))$$

where $\omega \in [t]^\alpha \times [r]^\alpha$. We let $\{j'_1, j'_2, \dots, j'_{r-\alpha}\} = [r] - \{j_1, j_2, \dots, j_\alpha\}$ be the set of key indices that do *not* appear in ω .

We consider the following program Π' that prints the string $\text{Keys} = k_1||k_2||\dots||k_r$ with the string A and the collection of sets \mathcal{S} as auxiliary information. Π' has the values $n, m, \lambda, \alpha, t, r$ hardwired in it, and the code of Π' also includes the configuration ω , the code of Π , and the $r - \alpha$ keys $k_{j'_1}, k_{j'_2}, \dots, k_{j'_{r-\alpha}}$. Π' first computes $W_{j_1}, W_{j_2}, \dots, W_{j_\alpha}$ from A and \mathcal{S} . Π' then emulates the execution of $\Pi(z)$ (using the code of Π , the configuration ω , and $W_{j_1}, W_{j_2}, \dots, W_{j_\alpha}$, using the method described in Lemma 3.3) for i_α CPU steps (recall that i_α is the CPU step when $\Pi(z)$ makes its α 'th useful access). Let d be the index such that z is initially stored in the memory from position d to the position $d + |z| - 1$. Let

$$q_1, q_2, \dots, q_{i_\alpha}$$

be the memory positions that $\Pi(z)$ reads (such that in CPU step i , $\Pi(z)$ reads one bit from memory position q_i) in the first i_α CPU steps. We will decode $k_{j_1}, k_{j_2}, \dots, k_{j_\alpha}$ from $q_1, q_2, \dots, q_{i_\alpha}$ as follows: For each $i \leq i_\alpha$, let

$$p_i = \lfloor (q_i - d) / (n \times m) \rfloor$$

Since $\Pi(z)$ matches ω , it follows that

$$p_{i_1} = k_{j_1}, p_{i_2} = k_{j_2}, \dots, p_{i_\alpha} = k_{j_\alpha}$$

Thus, Π' has access to $k_{j'_1}, k_{j'_2}, \dots, k_{j'_{r-\alpha}}$ (hardwired) and can compute $k_{j_1}, k_{j_2}, \dots, k_{j_\alpha}$ as specified above. Thus, Π' can recover and output the string $\text{Key} = k_1||k_2||\dots||k_r$.

Finally, we show that the description length of Π' is at most $|\Pi| + (r - \alpha)\lambda + \alpha(\log t + \log r) + O(\log n)$. To describe Π' , we require:

- $|\Pi|$ bits to store the code of Π ;
- $(r - \alpha)\lambda$ bits to store the $r - \alpha$ keys $k_{j'_1}, k_{j'_2}, \dots, k_{j'_{r-\alpha}}$;
- $\alpha(\log t + \log r)$ bits to store the configuration ω .
- $O(\log n)$ bits to store the values $n, m, \lambda, \alpha, t, r$.
- $O(1)$ bits to describe the CPU next-step machine.

Thus, the description length of Π' is at most $|\Pi| + (r - \alpha)\lambda + \alpha(\log t + \log r) + O(\log n)$, and from this we conclude that

$$K(\text{Keys} \mid A, \mathcal{S}) \leq |\Pi| + (r - \alpha)\lambda + \alpha(\log t + \log r) + O(\log n)$$

which completes the proof. ■

We next proceed to prove Claim 4, which we first restate:

Claim 8 (Claim 4, restated). *Assume that*

- $\Pi(z)$ makes α useful accesses;
- $\Pi(z)$ outputs the string A .
- $z_{p_1} \vee z_{p_2} \vee \dots \vee z_{p_t} \neq A$; ¹⁴

Then,

$$K(A \mid \mathcal{S}) \leq |\Pi| + (n - 1)m + \alpha(\log t + \log r) + O(\log n)$$

Proof: Consider some Π, z satisfying the pre-conditions of the claim. Since $\Pi(z)$ has the property that

$$z_{p_1} \vee z_{p_2} \vee \dots \vee z_{p_t} \neq A,$$

and recalling that each z_{p_i} is divided n m -size blocks, $z_{p_i,1}, \dots, z_{p_i,n}$, it follows that there exists a block index $b \in [n]$ such that for each block $z_{p_i} \in \{0,1\}^{n \times m}$ that $\Pi(z)$ reads, $z_{p_i,b} = 0^m$. In addition, note that $\Pi(z)$ makes α useful accesses, so $\Pi(z)$ must match some configuration

$$\omega = ((i_1, i_2, \dots, i_\alpha), (j_1, j_2, \dots, j_\alpha))$$

where $\omega \in [t]^\alpha \times [r]^\alpha$. Since $\Pi(z)$ matches ω , we know that

$$(W_{j_1}, W_{j_2}, \dots, W_{j_\alpha}) = (z_{p_{i_1}}, z_{p_{i_2}}, \dots, z_{p_{i_\alpha}})$$

Thus,

$$W_{j_1} \vee W_{j_2} \vee \dots \vee W_{j_\alpha} \neq A$$

It follows that for all $l \in [\alpha]$, $W_{j_l,b} = 0^m$. From this, we can conclude that the gadget strings $W_{j_1}, W_{j_2}, \dots, W_{j_\alpha}$ can be constructed from \mathcal{S} and all randomized encodings $A_1, \dots, A_{b-1}, A_{b+1}, \dots, A_n$ excluding A_b .

Based on this observation, let us show how to construct a program Π' that outputs the string A given \mathcal{S} as auxiliary information. The program Π' embeds the values $n, m, \lambda, \alpha, r, t$, the value of b , the code of Π , the configuration ω , and strings $A_1, \dots, A_{b-1}, A_{b+1}, \dots, A_n$ into its code. Π' first computes $W_{j_1}, W_{j_2}, \dots, W_{j_\alpha}$ from $A_1, \dots, A_{b-1}, A_{b+1}, \dots, A_n$ and \mathcal{S} . Π' then simulates the execution of $\Pi(z)$ using the code of Π , the configuration ω , and the gadget strings $W_{j_1}, W_{j_2}, \dots, W_{j_\alpha}$ (making use of Lemma 3.3), and finally outputs whatever $\Pi(z)$ outputs. Note that since $\Pi(z)$ makes exactly α useful accesses, Π' can emulate $\Pi(z)$ all the way until it terminates. Furthermore, recall that by assumption $\Pi(z)$ outputs A , so Π' will do so as well.

We finally show that the description length of Π' is at most $|\Pi| + (n - 1)m + \alpha(\log t + \log r) + O(\log n)$. To see this, note that to specify Π' , we require:

- $|\Pi|$ bits to include the code of Π ;
- $(n - 1)m$ bits to store strings $A_1, \dots, A_{b-1}, A_{b+1}, \dots, A_n$;
- $\alpha(\log t + \log r)$ bits to save the configuration ω .
- $O(\log n)$ bits to store the values $n, m, \lambda, \alpha, r, t, b$
- $O(1)$ bits to implement the CPU next-step machine:

Thus, we have that the description length of Π' is at most $|\Pi| + (n - 1)m + \alpha(\log t + \log r) + O(\log n)$. From this we conclude that

$$K(A \mid \mathcal{S}) \leq |\Pi| + (n - 1)m + \alpha(\log t + \log r) + O(\log n).$$

which proves the claim. ■

¹⁴When $p_i < 0$ or $p_i \geq 2^\lambda$, we assume that z_{p_i} is an all-zero string and $z_{p_i} = 0^{n \times m}$.

4 OWFs from Mild Avg-case Hardness of $\text{McK}^t\text{P}[\zeta]$

We here show that for all polynomials $t(n) > 0, \zeta(n) \geq 0$, mild average-case hardness of $\text{McK}^t\text{P}[\zeta]$ implies the existence of OWFs. The proof closely follows the proof in [LP20]; for the reader familiar with the construction in [LP20], the only modification is that the OWF construction now interprets part of its input as the “auxiliary string” z and simply outputs it.

Theorem 4.1. *Assume that there exist polynomials $t(n) > 0, \zeta(n) \geq 0, p(n) > 0$ such that $\text{McK}^t\text{P}[\zeta]$ is mildly HoA. Then, there exists a weak OWF f (and thus also a OWF).*

Proof: We start with the assumption that $\text{McK}^t\text{P}[\zeta]$ is mildly HoA; that is, there exists a polynomial $p(\cdot)$ such that for all PPT heuristics \mathcal{H} and all sufficiently large n ,

$$\Pr[x \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^n, z \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^{\zeta(n)}, k \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^{\lceil \log n \rceil} : \mathcal{H}(x, z, k) = \text{McK}^t\text{P}[\zeta](x, z, k)] < 1 - \frac{1}{p(n)}.$$

Let c be the constant from Fact 2.1. Consider the function $f : \{0, 1\}^{n+c+\lceil \log(n+c) \rceil + \zeta(n)} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^*$, which given an input $\ell \|\Pi'\|z$ where $|\ell| = \lceil \log(n+c) \rceil$, $|\Pi'| = n+c$, and $|z| = \zeta(n)$, outputs $\ell \|\Pi(z), 1^{t(n)}\|z$ where $\Pi = [\Pi']_\ell$ is the ℓ -bit prefix of Π' . That is,

$$f(\ell \|\Pi'\|z) = \ell \|\Pi(z), 1^{t(n)}\|z.$$

Observe that f is only defined over some input lengths, but by an easy padding trick, it can be transformed into a function f' defined over all input lengths, such that if f is (weakly) one-way (over the restricted input lengths), then f' will be (weakly) one-way (over all input lengths): $f'(x')$ simply truncates its input x' (as little as possible) so that the (truncated) input x now becomes of length $m = n + c + \lceil \log(n+c) \rceil + \zeta(n)$ for some n and outputs $f(x)$.

We now show that f is a $\frac{1}{q(\cdot)}$ -weak OWF, where $q(n) = 2^{2c+3}np(n)^2$, which concludes the proof of the theorem. The remaining proof follows exactly the same structure as the proof [LP20] with only minor adjustments to deal with the fact that we now consider conditional Kolmogorov complexity.

Assume for contradiction that f is not a $\frac{1}{q(\cdot)}$ -weak OWF. That is, there exists some PPT attacker \mathcal{A} that inverts f with probability at least $1 - \frac{1}{q(n)} \leq 1 - \frac{1}{q(m)}$ for infinitely many $m = n + c + \lceil \log(n+c) \rceil + \zeta(n)$. Fix some such $m, n > 2$. We first claim that we can use \mathcal{A} to construct a PPT heuristic \mathcal{H}^* such that

$$\Pr[x \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^n, z \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^{\zeta(n)} : \mathcal{H}^*(x, z) = K^t(x | z)] \geq 1 - \frac{1}{p(n)}.$$

If this is true, consider the heuristic \mathcal{H} which given a string $x \in \{0, 1\}^n$, a string $z \in \{0, 1\}^{\zeta(n)}$, and a size parameter $k \in \{0, 1\}^{\lceil \log n \rceil}$, outputs 1 if $\mathcal{H}^*(x) \leq k$, and outputs 0 otherwise. Note that if \mathcal{H}^* succeeds on some string x , \mathcal{H} will also succeed. Thus,

$$\Pr[x \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^n, z \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^{\zeta(n)}, k \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^{\lceil \log n \rceil} : \mathcal{H}(x, z, k) = \text{McK}^t\text{P}[\zeta](x, z, k)] \geq 1 - \frac{1}{p(n)},$$

which is a contradiction.

It remains to construct the heuristic \mathcal{H}^* that computes $K^t(x | z)$ with high probability over random inputs $x \in \{0, 1\}^n, z \in \{0, 1\}^{\zeta(n)}$, using \mathcal{A} . By an averaging argument, except for a fraction $\frac{1}{2p(n)}$ of random tapes r for \mathcal{A} , the *deterministic* machine \mathcal{A}_r (i.e., machine \mathcal{A} with randomness fixed to r) fails to invert f with probability at most $\frac{2p(n)}{q(n)}$. Fix some such “good” randomness r for which \mathcal{A}_r succeeds to invert f with probability $1 - \frac{2p(n)}{q(n)}$.

On input $x \in \{0, 1\}^n, z \in \{0, 1\}^{\zeta(n)}$, our heuristic $\mathcal{H}_r^*(x, z)$ runs $\mathcal{A}_r(i||x||z)$ for all $i \in [n+c]$ where i is represented as a $\lceil \log(n+c) \rceil$ bit string, and outputs the length of the smallest RAM program Π output by \mathcal{A}_r such that $\Pi(z)$ produces the string x within $t(n)$ steps. Let S be the set of pairs $(x, z) \in \{0, 1\}^n \times \{0, 1\}^{\zeta(n)}$ for which $\mathcal{H}_r^*(x, z)$ fails to compute $K^t(x | z)$. Note that \mathcal{H}_r^* thus fails with probability

$$fail_r = \frac{|S|}{2^{n+\zeta(n)}}.$$

Consider any pair $(x, z) \in S$ and let $w = K^t(x | z)$ be its conditional K^t -complexity. By Fact 2.1, we have that $w \leq n+c$. Since $\mathcal{H}_r^*(x, z)$ fails to compute $K^t(x | z)$, \mathcal{A}_r must fail to invert $(w||x||z)$. But, since $w \leq n+c$, the output $(w||x||z)$ is sampled with probability

$$\frac{1}{n+c} \cdot \frac{1}{2^w 2^{\zeta(n)}} \geq \frac{1}{(n+c)} \frac{1}{2^{n+c+\zeta(n)}} \geq \frac{1}{n 2^{2c+1}} \cdot \frac{1}{2^{n+\zeta(n)}}$$

in the one-way function experiment, so \mathcal{A}_r must fail with probability at least

$$|S| \cdot \frac{1}{n 2^{2c+1}} \cdot \frac{1}{2^{n+\zeta(n)}} = \frac{1}{n 2^{2c+1}} \cdot \frac{|S|}{2^{n+\zeta(n)}} = \frac{fail_r}{n 2^{2c+1}}$$

which by assumption (that \mathcal{A}_r is a good inverter) is at most that $\frac{2p(n)}{q(n)}$. We thus conclude that

$$fail_r \leq \frac{2^{2c+2} np(n)}{q(n)}$$

Finally, by a union bound, we have that \mathcal{H}^* (using a uniform random tape r) fails in computing $K^t(x | z)$ with probability at most

$$\frac{1}{2p(n)} + \frac{2^{2c+2} np(n)}{q(n)} = \frac{1}{2p(n)} + \frac{2^{2c+2} np(n)}{2^{c+3} np(n)^2} = \frac{1}{p(n)}.$$

Thus, \mathcal{H}^* computes $K^t(x | z)$ with probability $1 - \frac{1}{p(n)}$ for infinitely many $n \in \mathbb{N}$ (and therefore \mathcal{H} decides $\text{McK}^t\text{P}[\zeta]$ with probability $1 - \frac{1}{p(n)}$ for infinitely many n), which contradicts the assumption that $\text{McK}^t\text{P}[\zeta]$ is $\frac{1}{p(\cdot)}$ -HoA. ■

5 Mild Avg-case Hardness of $\text{McK}^t\text{P}[\zeta]$ from OWFs

We here show that that for all polynomial ζ and every polynomial $t(n) \geq 1.1n$, the existence of OWFs implies mild average-case hardness of $\text{McK}^t\text{P}[\zeta]$. Again, our proof closely follows the proof in [LP20] with only minor modifications to deal with the fact that we now consider conditional Kolmogorov complexity.

Theorem 5.1. *If one-way functions exist, then for every constant $\epsilon > 0$, all $t(n) \geq (1 + \epsilon)n$, for all polynomial $\zeta(n) \geq 0$, $\text{McK}^t\text{P}[\zeta]$ is mildly HoA.*

Proof: The theorem follows immediately from Theorem 5.4 and Theorem 5.5, which will be stated and proved below. ■

5.1 Some additional preliminaries

Let us first recall some additional standard preliminaries.

Computational Indistinguishability We recall the definition of (computational) indistinguishability [GM84].

Definition 5.2. *Two ensembles $\{A_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ and $\{B_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ are said to be $\mu(\cdot)$ -indistinguishable, if for every probabilistic machine D (the “distinguisher”) whose running time is polynomial in the length of its first input, there exists some $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ so that for every $n \geq n_0$:*

$$|\Pr[D(1^n, A_n) = 1] - \Pr[D(1^n, B_n) = 1]| < \mu(n)$$

We say that are $\{A_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ and $\{B_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ simply indistinguishable if they are $\frac{1}{p(\cdot)}$ -indistinguishable for every polynomial $p(\cdot)$.

Statistical Distance and Entropy For any two random variables X and Y defined over some set \mathcal{V} , we let $\text{SD}(X, Y) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{v \in \mathcal{V}} |\Pr[X = v] - \Pr[Y = v]|$ denote the *statistical distance* between X and Y . For a random variable X , let $H(X) = \mathbb{E}[\log \frac{1}{\Pr[X=x]}]$ denote the (Shannon) entropy of X , and let $H_\infty(X) = \min_{x \in \text{Supp}(X)} \log \frac{1}{\Pr[X=x]}$ denote the *min-entropy* of X .

5.2 Entropy-preserving PRGs

Liu and Pass [LP20] defined a notion of a *conditionally-secure entropy-preserving pseudorandom generator (cond-EP PRG)*. Roughly speaking, a cond-EP PRG is a function where the output is indistinguishable from the uniform distribution and also preserves the entropy in the input only when *conditioned on* some event E .

Definition 5.3. *An efficiently computable function $G : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{n+\gamma \log n}$ is a $\mu(\cdot)$ -conditionally secure entropy-preserving pseudorandom generator (μ -condEP PRG) if there exist a sequence of events $= \{E_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ and a constant α (referred to as the entropy-loss constant) such that the following conditions hold:*

- **(pseudorandomness):** $\{G(U_n | E_n)\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ and $\{U_{n+\gamma \log n}\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ are $\mu(n)$ -indistinguishable;
- **(entropy-preserving):** For all sufficiently large $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $H(G(U_n | E_n)) \geq n - \alpha \log n$.

We say that G has *rate-1 efficiency* if its running time on inputs of length n is bounded by $n + O(n^\epsilon)$ for some constant $\epsilon < 1$. When defining running-time, we here mean running-time in terms of a RAM-program computation. [LP20] showed the existence of rate-1 efficient cond EP-PRG; in [LP20] running-time was counted in terms of execution on Turing machine, but we note that identically the same proof shows that the PRG is rate-1 efficient also when run on a RAM.

Theorem 5.4 ([LP20]). *Assume that OWFs exist. Then, for every $\gamma > 1$, there exists a rate-1 efficient μ -cond-EP PRG $G_\gamma : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{n+\gamma \log n}$, where $\mu = \frac{1}{n^2}$.*

5.3 Mild Avg-case Hardness of $\text{McK}^t\text{P}[\zeta]$ from Cond-EP PRGs

Theorem 5.5. *Assume that for some $\gamma \geq 4$, there exists a rate-1 efficient μ -condEP PRG $G : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{n+\gamma \log n}$ where $\mu(n) = 1/n^2$. Then, for every $\epsilon > 0$, all $t(n) \geq (1 + \epsilon)n$, for all polynomial $\zeta(n) \geq 0$, $\text{McK}^t\text{P}[\zeta]$ is mildly HoA.*

Proof: The proof follows exactly the same structure as the proof [LP20] with only minor adjustments to deal with the fact that we now consider conditional Kolmogorov complexity. Essentially, the key observation is that random strings have high Kolmogorov complexity also conditioned on any

arbitrary string, and due to this observation, essentially the proof in [LP20] can still be applied. We proceed to the full details.

Let $\gamma \geq 4$, and let $G' : \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}^{m'(n)}$ where $m'(n) = n + \gamma \log n$ be a rate-1 efficient μ -condEP PRG, where $\mu = 1/n^2$. For any constant c , let $G^c(x)$ be a function that computes $G'(x)$ and truncates the last c bits. It directly follows that G^c is also a rate-1 efficient μ -condEP PRG (since G' is so). Consider any $\varepsilon > 0$ and any polynomial $t(n) \geq (1 + \varepsilon)n$ and let $p(n) = 2n^{2(\alpha + \gamma + 1)}$.

Assume for contradiction that there exists some PPT $\mathcal{H}(x, z, k)$ that decides $\text{McK}^t\text{P}[\zeta]$ with probability $1 - \frac{1}{p(m)}$ for infinitely many $m \in \mathbb{N}$. Since $m'(n+1) - m'(n) \leq \gamma + 1$, there must exist some constant $c \leq \gamma + 1$ such that \mathcal{H} succeeds (to decide $\text{McK}^t\text{P}[\zeta]$) with probability $1 - \frac{1}{p(m)}$ for infinitely many m of the form $m = m(n) = n + \gamma \log n - c$. Let $G(x) = G^c(x)$; recall that G is a rate-1 efficient μ -condEP PRG (trivially, since G^c is so), and let $\alpha, \{E_n\}$, respectively, be the entropy loss constant and sequence of events, associated with it.

We next show that \mathcal{H} can be used to break the condEP PRG G . Towards this, note that a random string still has high K^t -complexity with high probability even if conditioned on a random string: for $m = m(n)$, we have,

$$\Pr_{x \in \{0,1\}^m, z \in \{0,1\}^{\zeta(m)}} [K^t(x | z) > m - \frac{\gamma}{2} \log n] \geq \frac{2^m - 2^{m - \frac{\gamma}{2} \log n}}{2^m} = 1 - \frac{1}{n^{\gamma/2}}, \quad (1)$$

since the total number of RAM programs Π with length smaller than $m - \frac{\gamma}{2} \log n$ is only $2^{m - \frac{\gamma}{2} \log n}$, and fix an auxiliary string z , $\Pi(z)$ could output a single string. However, any string output by G , must have ‘‘low’’ K^t complexity no matter what string is conditioned on: For every sufficiently large $n, m = m(n)$, we have that,

$$\Pr_{x \in \{0,1\}^n, z \in \{0,1\}^{\zeta(m)}} [K^t(G(x) | z) > m - \frac{\gamma}{2} \log n] = 0, \quad (2)$$

since $G(x)$ can be produced by a RAM program Π with the seed x of length n and the code of G (of constant length) hardwired in it (and the string z is skipped). The running time of Π is bounded by $t(n)$ for all sufficiently large n (since G is rate-1 efficient in the RAM model), so $K^t(G(x) | z) = n + O(1) \leq m - \gamma/2 \log n$ for sufficiently large n (since recall that $\gamma \geq 4$).

Based on these observations, we now construct a PPT distinguisher \mathcal{A} breaking G . On input $1^n, x$, where $x \in \{0,1\}^{m(n)}$, $\mathcal{A}(1^n, x)$ samples $z \leftarrow \{0,1\}^{\zeta(m)}$ and picks $k = m - \frac{\gamma}{2} \log n$. \mathcal{A} outputs 1 if $\mathcal{H}(x, z, k)$ outputs 1 and 0 otherwise. Fix some $n, m = m(n), m'(n) = m + \zeta(m) + \lceil \log m \rceil$ for which \mathcal{H} succeeds to decide $\text{McK}^t\text{P}[\zeta]$ with probability $\frac{1}{p(m)}$. The following two claims conclude that \mathcal{A} distinguishes $\mathcal{U}_{m(n)}$ and $G(\mathcal{U}_n | E_n)$ with probability at least $\frac{1}{n^2}$.

Claim 9. $\mathcal{A}(1^n, \mathcal{U}_m)$ outputs 0 with probability at least $1 - \frac{2}{n^{\gamma/2}}$.

Proof: Note that $\mathcal{A}(1^n, x)$ will output 0 if (1) x is a string with K^t -complexity larger than $m - \gamma/2 \log n$ conditioned on a randomly sampled string z and (2) \mathcal{H} succeeds on input (x, z, k) . Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} & \Pr[\mathcal{A}(1^n, x) = 0] \\ & \geq \Pr[K^t(x | z) > m - \gamma/2 \log n \wedge \mathcal{H} \text{ succeeds on } (x, z, k)] \\ & \geq 1 - \Pr[K^t(x | z) \leq m - \gamma/2 \log n] - \Pr[\mathcal{H} \text{ fails on } (x, z, k)] \\ & \geq 1 - \frac{1}{n^{\gamma/2}} - \frac{1}{p(m)} \\ & \geq 1 - \frac{2}{n^{\gamma/2}}. \end{aligned}$$

where the probability is over a random $x \leftarrow \mathcal{U}_m$, $z \leftarrow \mathcal{U}_{\zeta(m)}$, $k \leftarrow \lceil \log m \rceil$ and the randomness of \mathcal{A} and \mathcal{H} . ■

Claim 10. $\mathcal{A}(1^n, G(\mathcal{U}_n | E_n))$ outputs 0 with probability at most $1 - \frac{1}{n} + \frac{3}{n^2}$

Proof: Recall that by assumption, $\mathcal{H}(x, z, k)$ fails to decide whether $(x, z, k) \in \text{McK}^t\text{P}[\zeta]$ for a random $x \in \{0, 1\}^m$, $z \in \{0, 1\}^{\zeta(m)}$, $k \in \{0, 1\}^{\lceil \log m \rceil}$ with probability at most $\frac{1}{p(m)}$.

By an averaging argument, for at least a $1 - \frac{1}{n^2}$ fraction of random tapes r for \mathcal{H} (resp a $1 - \frac{1}{n^2}$ fraction of random choices of z), the deterministic machine \mathcal{H}_r (resp the machine \mathcal{H} with part of input fixed to z) fails to decide $\text{McK}^t\text{P}[\zeta]$ with probability at most $\frac{n^2}{p(m)}$. Fix some “good” randomness r and “good” string z such that $\mathcal{H}_{r,z}$ decides $\text{McK}^t\text{P}[\zeta](\cdot, z, \cdot)$ with probability at least $1 - \frac{n^2}{p(m)}$.

We next analyze the success probability of $\mathcal{A}_{r,z}$. Assume for contradiction that $\mathcal{A}_{r,z}$ outputs 1 with probability at least $1 - \frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{n^{\alpha+\gamma}}$ on input $G(\mathcal{U}_n | E_n)$. Recall that (1) the entropy of $G(\mathcal{U}_n | E_n)$ is at least $n - \alpha \log n$ and (2) the quantity $-\log \Pr[G(\mathcal{U}_n | E_n) = y]$ is upper bounded by n for all $y \in G(\mathcal{U}_n | E_n)$. By an averaging argument, with probability at least $\frac{1}{n}$, a random $y \in G(\mathcal{U}_n | E_n)$ will satisfy

$$-\log \Pr[G(\mathcal{U}_n | E_n) = y] \geq (n - \alpha \log n) - 1.$$

We refer to an output y satisfying the above condition as being “good” and other y ’s as being “bad”. Let $S = \{y \in G(\mathcal{U}_n | E_n) : \mathcal{A}_{r,z}(1^n, y) = 0 \wedge y \text{ is good}\}$, and let $S' = \{y \in G(\mathcal{U}_n | E_n) : \mathcal{A}_{r,z}(1^n, y) = 0 \wedge y \text{ is bad}\}$. Since

$$\Pr[\mathcal{A}_{r,z}(1^n, G(\mathcal{U}_n | E_n)) = 0] = \Pr[G(\mathcal{U}_n | E_n) \in S] + \Pr[G(\mathcal{U}_n | E_n) \in S'],$$

and $\Pr[G(\mathcal{U}_n | E_n) \in S']$ is at most the probability that $G(\mathcal{U}_n | E_n)$ is “bad” (which as argued above is at most $1 - \frac{1}{n}$), we have that

$$\Pr[G(\mathcal{U}_n | E_n) \in S] \geq \left(1 - \frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{n^{\alpha+\gamma}}\right) - \left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right) = \frac{1}{n^{\alpha+\gamma}}.$$

Furthermore, since for every $y \in S$, $\Pr[G(\mathcal{U}_n | E_n) = y] \leq 2^{-n+\alpha \log n+1}$, we also have,

$$\Pr[G(\mathcal{U}_n | E_n) \in S] \leq |S| 2^{-n+\alpha \log n+1}$$

So,

$$|S| \geq \frac{2^{n-\alpha \log n-1}}{n^{\alpha+\gamma}} = 2^{n-(2\alpha+\gamma) \log n-1}$$

However, for any $y \in G(\mathcal{U}_n | E_n)$, if $\mathcal{A}_{r,z}(1^n, y)$ outputs 0, then by Equation 2, $K^t(y | z) \leq m - \gamma/2 \log n = k$, so $\mathcal{H}_{r,z}$ fails to decide $\text{McK}^t\text{P}[\zeta]$ on input $(y, z, m - \gamma/2 \log n)$.

Thus, the probability that $\mathcal{H}_{r,z}$ fails (to decide $\text{McK}^t\text{P}[\zeta]$) on a random input (y, z, k) (where y and k are uniformly sampled in $\{0, 1\}^m$ and $\{0, 1\}^{\lceil \log m \rceil}$, z is a fixed string) is at least

$$|S|/2^{m+\lceil \log m \rceil} = \frac{2^{n-(2\alpha+\gamma) \log n-1}}{2^{n+\gamma \log n+\lceil \log m \rceil}} \geq \frac{2^{-(2\alpha+2\gamma) \log n-1}}{2^{\lceil \log m \rceil}} \geq 2^{-2(\alpha+\gamma+1) \log n-1} = \frac{1}{2n^{2(\alpha+\gamma+1)}}$$

which contradicts the fact that $\mathcal{H}_{r,z}$ fails to decide $\text{McK}^t\text{P}[\zeta]$ with probability at most $\frac{n^2}{p(m)} < \frac{1}{2n^{2(\alpha+\gamma+1)}}$ (since $n < m$).

We conclude that for every good randomness r , every good choice of string z , $\mathcal{A}_{r,z}$ outputs 0 with probability at most $1 - \frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{n^{\alpha+\gamma}}$. Finally, by union bound (and since a random tape is bad

with probability $\leq \frac{1}{n^2}$ and a random choice of z is bad with probability $\leq \frac{1}{n^2}$), we have that the probability that $\mathcal{A}(G(\mathcal{U}_n | E_n))$ outputs 1 is at most

$$\frac{2}{n^2} + \left(1 - \frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{n^{\alpha+\gamma}}\right) \leq 1 - \frac{1}{n} + \frac{3}{n^2},$$

since $\gamma \geq 2$. ■

We conclude, recalling that $\gamma \geq 4$, that \mathcal{A} distinguishes \mathcal{U}_m and $G(\mathcal{U}_n | E_n)$ with probability of at least

$$\left(1 - \frac{2}{n^{\gamma/2}}\right) - \left(1 - \frac{1}{n} + \frac{2}{n^2}\right) \geq \left(1 - \frac{2}{n^2}\right) - \left(1 - \frac{1}{n} + \frac{2}{n^2}\right) = \frac{1}{n} - \frac{4}{n^2} \geq \frac{1}{n^2}$$

for infinitely many $n \in \mathbb{N}$. ■

6 Applications to Polynomial-time Symmetry of Information

In this section, we consider the consequences of *polynomial-time symmetry of information* (polySOI). We start by formalizing the polynomial-time symmetry of information assertion.

Definition 6.1. *We say that the polynomial-time symmetry of information assertion (polySOI) holds if there exist constants $d \in \mathbb{N}, 0 < \varepsilon \leq 1$ and a polynomial $t_0(n) \geq n$, such that for all polynomials $p(n) \geq n, t(n) \geq t_0(n)$, and all but finitely many strings $x, y \in \{0, 1\}^*$ such that $|x| \leq p(|y|)$ and $|y| \leq p(|x|)$, it holds that:*

$$K^{t^{1/\varepsilon}}(xy) - d \log |xy| \leq K^t(y) + K^t(x | y) \leq K^{t^\varepsilon}(xy) + d \log |xy|$$

Larger run-time has small effect on K^t We observe that if polySOI holds, then for every string x , the gap between $K^t(x)$ and $K^{t^c}(x)$ is just logarithmic in $|x|$ (but still depends on c). Thus, allowing the running-time to be polynomially larger does not help compress the string x by too much. To formalize this, and subsequent claims, let $a \stackrel{c}{\approx} b$ denote $a - c \leq b \leq a + c$.

Lemma 6.1. *Assume that polySOI holds. Then there exist a constant d' and a polynomial $t_0(n) \geq n$ such that for all $c \geq 1$, all polynomial $t(n) \geq t_0(n)$, all but finitely many strings x , it holds that*

$$K^{t^c}(x) \stackrel{cd' \log |x|}{\approx} K^t(x)$$

Proof: We first claim that $K^{t^c}(x) \leq K^t(x)$; this simply follows from the fact that the machine that produces x in time $t(|x|)$ will also produce x in time $t^c(|x|)$ if $c \geq 1$.

To show the converse direction, let $n = |x|$, and let d, ε be the constant fixed in polySOI. We first observe that conditioning on a simple string (such as 0^m) cannot significantly decrease K^t -complexity (as the string we condition on can be easily generated):

Claim 11. *There exists a constant $0 < \alpha < 1$ such that for any $m \in \mathbb{N}$, it holds that*

$$K^{t^\alpha}(x | 0^m) + 2 \log m + O(1) \geq K^t(x)$$

Proof: Let Π be the (shortest) machine that generates the string x on input 0^m in time $t^\alpha(|x|)$. We build a machine Π' that simulates the machine Π , and provide Π with input 0^m . Note that Π' does not need an input, and Π' outputs the string x in $\text{poly}(t^\alpha(|x|)) \leq t(|x|)$ if α is sufficiently small.

Additionally, note that the Π' can be bounded by $|\Pi| + 2 \log m + O(1)$, which concludes the proof. ■

We now apply polySOI to the string x padded with the dummy string 0^m for a sufficiently large m . More precisely, consider the string $x0^m$, where m is fixed to be an integer satisfying $t^{\varepsilon-\alpha}(m+n) \geq O(m) + t^c(n)$; such an m can always be picked for every $t(n) \geq t_0(n)$, where $t_0(n) = n^{\frac{1}{\varepsilon-\alpha}}$.

By polySOI, it holds that

$$K^{t^{\alpha-\varepsilon}}(x0^m) + d \log |x0^m| \geq K^{t^\alpha}(0^m) + K^{t^\alpha}(x | 0^m)$$

With respect to the LHS, we remark that $K^{t^c}(x) + 2 \log m + O(1) \geq K^{t^{\alpha-\varepsilon}}(x0^m)$; this follows since if there exists a machine generating x in time $t^c(|x|)$, we can build a machine that prints $x0^m$ in time $O(m) + t^c(n) \leq t^{\alpha-\varepsilon}(m+n)$ by the choice of m (by just outputting m zeros after outputting x).

With respect to the RHS, note that $K^{t^\alpha}(0^m) \geq 0$, and $K^{t^\alpha}(x | 0^m) + 2 \log m + O(1) \geq K^t(x)$ due to Claim 11. Thus

$$K^{t^c}(x) + 4 \log m + O(1) + d \log |0^m x| \geq K^t(x)$$

which concludes the proof. ■

We next use the above lemma to show that if polySOI holds, a stronger variant of polySOI, where $\varepsilon = 1$, also holds.

Lemma 6.2. *Assume that polySOI holds. Then there exist a constant $\delta \in \mathbb{N}$ and a polynomial $t_0(n) \geq n$ such that for all polynomials $p(n) \geq n, t(n) \geq t_0(n)$, all but finitely many strings $x, y \in \{0, 1\}^*$ such that $|x| \leq p(|y|)$ and $|y| \leq p(|x|)$,*

$$K^t(xy) \stackrel{\delta \log |xy|}{\approx} K^t(y) + K^t(x | y).$$

Proof: By polySOI, there exist constants $d \in \mathbb{N}, 0 < \varepsilon \leq 1$ and a polynomial $t_0(\cdot)$ such that for all polynomials $p(n) \geq n, t(n) \geq t_0(n)$, all (but finitely many) strings $x, y \in \{0, 1\}^*$ such that $|x| \leq p(|y|)$ and $|y| \leq p(|x|)$,

$$K^{t^{1/\varepsilon}}(xy) - d \log |xy| \leq K^t(y) + K^t(x | y) \leq K^{t^\varepsilon}(xy) + d \log |xy|$$

For all $t(n) \geq t_0(n)^{1/\varepsilon}$, by Lemma 6.1, there exists a constant d' such that

$$K^{t^{1/\varepsilon}}(xy) \stackrel{1/\varepsilon d' \log |xy|}{\approx} K^t(xy)$$

$$K^{t^\varepsilon}(xy) \stackrel{1/\varepsilon d' \log |xy|}{\approx} K^t(xy)$$

Let $\delta = 1/\varepsilon d' + d$, it follows that

$$K^t(xy) \stackrel{\delta \log |xy|}{\approx} K^t(y) + K^t(x | y)$$

■

We next show that in fact a conditional variant of Lemma 6.1 will also hold.

Lemma 6.3. *Assume that polySOI holds. Then there exist a constant β and a polynomial $t_0(n) \geq n$ such that for all $c \geq 1$, all polynomials $t(n) \geq t_0(n), p(n) \geq n$, all but finitely many strings $x, z \in \{0, 1\}^*$ such that $|x| \leq p(|z|)$ and $|z| \leq p(|x|)$, it holds that*

$$K^{t^c}(x | z) \stackrel{c\beta \log |xz|}{\approx} K^t(x | z)$$

Proof: Since polySOI holds, by Lemma 6.2, there exists a constant δ such that

$$K^{t^c}(x | z) \stackrel{\delta \log |xz|}{\approx} K^{t^c}(xz) - K^{t^c}(z)$$

$$K^t(x | z) \stackrel{\delta \log |xz|}{\approx} K^t(xz) - K^t(z)$$

By Lemma 6.1, there exists a constant d' such that

$$K^{t^c}(xz) \stackrel{cd' \log |xz|}{\approx} K^t(xz)$$

$$K^{t^c}(z) \stackrel{cd' \log |z|}{\approx} K^t(z)$$

Let $\beta = 2\delta + 2d'$. It follows that

$$K^{t^c}(x | z) \stackrel{c\beta \log |xz|}{\approx} K^t(x | z)$$

■

Concluding the Proof We are now ready to show that the polySOI assertion is false.

Theorem 6.2. *The polySOI assertion is false.*

Proof: Assume for contradiction that polySOI holds. Let $\gamma \geq 3$ be a constant, let $t(n) \geq n^2$ be a sufficiently large polynomial, and consider $\zeta(n) = (t(n))^4 n^{2\gamma}$. For all sufficiently large n , consider all instances $(1^n, 1^\ell, \mathcal{S})$ of the γ -Bounded Set Cover Problem. Note that in the γ -Bounded Set Cover Problem, it is guaranteed that $\text{cover}([n], \mathcal{S}) \geq n/\gamma$. We focus on the reduction to $\text{McK}^t\text{P}[\zeta]$ and let A, z, m, λ be as in Section 3.1. By Proposition 3.2, with probability at least $1 - 2/n$, it holds that

$$K^t(A | z) \geq \frac{\text{cover}([n], \mathcal{S})}{2} \lambda \geq n/(2\gamma) \quad (3)$$

Let c be a constant $\geq 8\gamma$. We show that

$$K^{t^c}(A | z) \leq O(\log n)$$

which (combined with Equation 3) contradicts Lemma 6.3. Consider the following machine Π which outputs A on input z . Π simply outputs the bitwise OR of all blocks in z . (Recall that each block is of length $n \times m$ and there are 2^λ such blocks in z .) Note that each block in z is either an all-zero string $0^{n \times m}$ or some “gadget” string W_i (for some $i \leq |\mathcal{S}|$) and $W_1 \vee \dots \vee W_{|\mathcal{S}|} = A$. Thus, Π will indeed output the string A . Finally, note that Π runs in $O(2^\lambda \times n \times m) \leq O(\zeta(n)) \leq t^c(|A|)$ and Π can be implemented using $O(\log n)$ bits. We conclude that $K^{t^c}(A | z) \leq O(\log n)$. ■

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A Proof of Lemma 3.1: Implementing Π in the RAM model

Recall that in Lemma 3.1, we aim at constructing a machine Π that prints $A \in \{0,1\}^{n \times m}$ with running time $\leq t(|A|)$. The machine Π has the values n, m, λ, ℓ , the keys $k_{i_1}, k_{i_2}, \dots, k_{i_\ell}$ (where each of the keys is of length $\lambda \in O(\log n)$), and the string $z \in (\{0,1\}^{n \times m})^{2^\lambda}$ in its memory. It is guaranteed that

$$z_{k_{i_1}} \vee z_{k_{i_2}} \vee \dots \vee z_{k_{i_\ell}} = A.$$

We note that the machine Π only has to read $z_{k_{i_1}}, z_{k_{i_2}}, \dots, z_{k_{i_\ell}}$ from the string z using the keys $k_{i_1}, k_{i_2}, \dots, k_{i_\ell}$, and outputs the bit-wise or of those strings. (Note that the length of z could be larger than $t(|A|)$, Π 's running time bound, and thus a Turing machine cannot finish the algorithm in time $t(|A|)$.)

We show that there exists a CPU “next-step” machine M receiving a state with $O(\log n)$ bits that implements the above algorithm. Recall that in each CPU step, M receives a state \mathbf{state} and some “read bit” b^{read} as input, and outputs a new state \mathbf{state}' , a read position i^{read} , a write position i^{write} , and some bit b^{write} . The execution of Π will replace \mathbf{state} with the new state \mathbf{state}' , b^{read} with the content of memory position i^{read} , and replace the content of memory position i^{write} by b^{write} .

When designing a CPU next-step machine M , it is instructive to view the state \mathbf{state} as a “snapshot” of some registers of Π , and each register could store a $O(\log n)$ bit string. Thus, we can view the machine M as a machine that receives the values in the registers as input, and outputs some new value for each register. Thus, we are equipped with some registers, and our implementation is as follows.

- M loads n, m, λ into some registers.
- M creates a new register j , initialized with 1. M makes a loop with j going from 1 to ℓ . In the j -th iteration, M loads k_{i_j} into a register.
- In the j -th iteration, M creates two new register p and L , and L is set to be a large enough integer such that the contents in memory positions $\geq L$ are \perp .
- M makes a loop with p going from 1 to $n \times m$. M loads $z_{k_{i_j}, p}$ into a register.
- In the p -th iteration, if the memory is empty in position $L + p$, M moves $z_{k_{i_j}, p}$ to the memory position $L + p$. Otherwise, M replace the content of memory position $L + p$ with its binary-or with $z_{k_{i_j}, p}$.
- The two loops end here.

- Finally, M outputs the string saved from memory position $L + 1$ to memory position $L + nm$.

Note that the above procedure (as a RAM program) takes $O(\ell nm)$ CPU steps, but in each CPU step, the machine M is only in charged of computing the new values in the registers (and the values of i^{read} , i^{write} , b^{write}) from the old values in the registers (and the value of b^{read}). And we only have constant number of registers, and each of them is of size $O(\log n)$. Thus, in each CPU step, the computation of M is polynomial in its input size ($O(\log n)$), and the total running time of the RAM program is $O(\ell n \text{poly} \log n)$.