

On the randomized complexity of range avoidance, with applications to cryptography and metacomplexity

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Abstract

We study the Range Avoidance Problem (**Avoid**), in which the input is an expanding circuit $C : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{n+1}$, and the goal is to find a $y \in \{0, 1\}^{n+1}$ that is *not* in the image of C . We are interested in the *randomized* complexity of this problem, i.e., in the question of whether there exist efficient randomized algorithms that output a valid solution to **Avoid** with probability significantly greater than $1/2$. (Notice that achieving probability $1/2$ is trivial by random guessing.)

Our first main result shows that cryptographic one-way functions exist unless **Avoid** can be solved efficiently with probability $1 - 1/n^C$ (on efficiently sampleable input distributions). In other words, even a relatively weak notion of hardness of **Avoid** already implies the existence of all cryptographic primitives in Minicrypt.

In fact, we show something a bit stronger than this. In particular, we introduce two new natural problems, which we call **CollisionAvoid** and **AffineAvoid**. Like **Avoid**, these are total search problems in the polynomial hierarchy. They are provably at least as hard as **Avoid**, and seem to be notably harder. We show that one-way functions exist if either of these problems is weakly hard on average.

Our second main result shows that in certain settings **Avoid** can be solved with probability 1 in expected polynomial time, given access to *either* an oracle that approximates the Kolmogorov-Levin complexity of a bit string, *or* an oracle that approximates conditional time-bounded Kolmogorov complexity. This shows an interesting connection between **Avoid** and meta-complexity.

Finally, we discuss the possibility of proving hardness of **Avoid**. We show barriers preventing simple reductions from hard problems in FNP to **Avoid**.

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1 Introduction

We study the Range Avoidance Problem (**Avoid**). This is the computational search problem in which the input is a circuit $C : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{n+s}$ for some *stretch* $s > 0$, and the goal is to find $y \in \{0, 1\}^{n+s}$ that is *not* in the image of C (i.e., for all $x \in \{0, 1\}^n$, $C(x) \neq y$). **Avoid** can be thought of as the computational problem corresponding to the “dual pigeonhole principle,” which states that an expanding function cannot be surjective. In this introduction, we will primarily be interested in the case when the stretch $s = 1$.

Avoid was recently introduced by Kleinberg, Korten, Mitropolsky, and Papadimitriou [KKMP21] as an example of a total search problem that is unlikely to be in FNP but *does* lie in the polynomial hierarchy, i.e. $\text{Avoid} \in \text{TF}\Sigma_2$. There has since been much follow-up work on the complexity of **Avoid** because of surprising connections to derandomization [Kor22, GLW22, GGNS23], circuit complexity [RSW22, CHLR23, CHR23, Li23], and other areas of complexity theory [ILW23].

In this work, we study the *randomized* complexity of **Avoid**, i.e., the hardness (or easiness?) of solving **Avoid** using randomized algorithms. Here, one must be rather precise about what one means. In particular, notice that the very simple (and efficient!) algorithm that simply outputs a random string in $\{0, 1\}^{n+s}$ already solves **Avoid** with probability at least $1 - 2^{-s} \geq 1/2$. To see this, simply notice that the set of all images of C has size at most 2^n , while the range $\{0, 1\}^{n+s}$ has size 2^{n+s} , so that at most a 2^{-s} fraction of the bitstrings of length $n+s$ are in the image of C . This property makes **Avoid** stand out quite a bit among search problems that are thought to be “hard” (e.g., hard for deterministic algorithms).¹ This peculiarity was already observed in [KKMP21], and it is the starting point of our work.

Indeed, we are interested in the question of how high the success probability of an efficient randomized algorithm can be. As far as the authors know, it is open to find even a $2^{(1-\varepsilon)n}$ -time algorithm that solves **Avoid** with probability even at least, say, $1/2 + 1/n$ when the stretch $s = 1$.²

1.1 Our results

1.1.1 Hardness of **Avoid** implies cryptography

Our first main contribution is a proof that if **Avoid** is “even slightly hard” for randomized algorithms, then cryptographic one-way functions exist.

Theorem 1.1. *If there is some efficiently sampleable family of distributions of expanding circuits \mathcal{D}_n and a constant $C > 0$ such that no (randomized) polynomial-time algorithm solves **Avoid** with probability larger than $1 - 1/n^C$ on input distribution \mathcal{D}_n , then one-way functions exist.*

Recall that, as far as we know, no efficient algorithm solves **Avoid** with probability even slightly larger than $1/2$. So, this assumption is relatively weak. Of course, if one-way functions exist,

¹Much of the prior work on **Avoid** was interested in the complexity of **Avoid** *relative to an NP oracle*. However, the same idea shows that there is a trivial FZPP^{NP} algorithm for **Avoid** (just sample a random string y and use the NP oracle to check the coNP statement of whether y is outside the image of the circuit). In fact, subject to some caveats, there is even a pseudodeterministic algorithm for **Avoid** relative to an NP oracle [CHR23, Li23]. So, in our context of the randomized complexity of **Avoid**, we do not allow ourselves an NP oracle.

²Of course, it is trivial to solve **Avoid** in roughly 2^n time by simply enumerating the entire image of the input circuit C . And, in less than 2^n time, one can do very slightly better than $1 - 2^{-s}$. In particular, for any $T \leq 2^n$, one can solve **Avoid** with probability at least $1 - 2^{-s} + T/2^{n+s}$ in time roughly T simply by returning a random element $y \in \{0, 1\}^{n+s} \setminus S$ where $S := \{C(x_i)\}_{i=1}^T$ is the set of images of any choice of distinct inputs $x_1, \dots, x_T \in \{0, 1\}^n$.

then it is well known that many other cryptographic primitives of interest exist as well, such as pseudorandom generators, pseudorandom functions, secret-key encryption, digital signatures, etc.

1.1.2 Two harder variants of Avoid (whose hardness also implies cryptography)

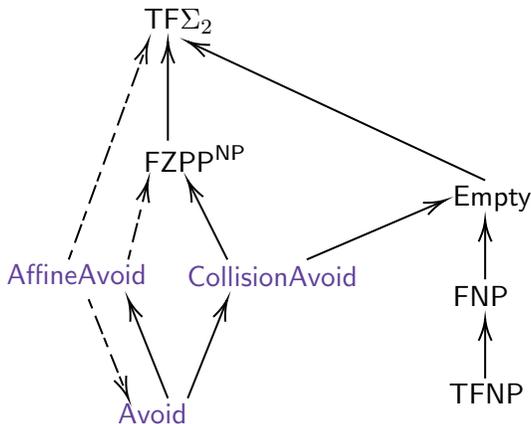


Figure 1: Relationships between different computational problems and complexity classes. Solid arrows represent reductions or containment. (Here, we are abusing notation quite a bit and conflating complexity classes with individual computational problems.) Dashed arrows represent reductions or containments that only work in rather restricted parameter regimes. See Section 3. The problems marked in purple are problems whose hardness implies cryptography.

Our second main contribution is the introduction of two new total search problems that are closely related to *Avoid*, which we call *AffineAvoid* and *CollisionAvoid*. In fact, both are at least as hard as *Avoid*. (See Section 3 for some basic results about these two problems.)

In *AffineAvoid*, the input is again an expanding circuit $C : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{n+s}$ for $s > 0$. However, now instead of asking for a *single* point $y \in \{0, 1\}^{n+s}$ that is not in the image of C , we ask for an entire d -dimensional affine subspace $S \subseteq \{0, 1\}^{n+s}$ such that all points in S are not in the image of C . (Here, we define an affine subspace of $\{0, 1\}^{n+s}$ via the natural identification of $\{0, 1\}^{n+s}$ with the vector space \mathbb{F}_2^{n+s} . The affine subspace can of course be represented succinctly as the affine span of $d + 1$ vectors in \mathbb{F}_2^{n+s} . In the introduction, we sometimes implicitly assume that $s = 1$.) This problem is trivially at least as hard as *Avoid*, and for suitably chosen d we show (using Gowers norms) that the problem is total. Indeed, for the parameters that interest us most, we show that a random affine subspace of dimension $d = \log \log n$ is a valid solution to *AffineAvoid* with probability at least $1/(2n)$, which in particular implies that the problem is in $\text{FZPP}^{\text{NP}} \subseteq \text{TF}\Sigma_2$ for these parameters, like *Avoid*.

(One of the reasons that *AffineAvoid* interests us is the following. One can easily reduce the problem of finding a $(d + \ell)$ -dimensional affine subspace outside of the image of a circuit $C : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{n+s+\ell}$ to the problem of finding a d -dimensional affine subspace outside of the image of a circuit $C' : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{n+s}$. This reduction is a bit more satisfying than the trivial reduction from *Avoid* with stretch $s+\ell$ to *Avoid* with stretch s . In particular, the reduction between *AffineAvoid* with different parameters essentially preserves the probability that a random subspace of the appropriate dimension is a valid output, while the reduction between *Avoid* instances does not

preserve the probability that a random string is a valid output. This suggests that the complexity of `AffineAvoid` might not be too dependent on the stretch s .³ See [Section 1.3](#).)

In `CollisionAvoid`, the input is a *length-preserving* circuit $C : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$. The goal is now *either* to output an element $y \in \{0, 1\}^n$ that is not in the image of C *or* to output $x \in \{0, 1\}^n$ such that the image $C(x)$ is unique (and to state whether the output is a non-image or an element with a unique image). Notice that `CollisionAvoid` is still a total problem, since either C is a bijection (in which case every $x \in \{0, 1\}^n$ has a unique image), or it is not (in which case there is an element not in the image). Furthermore, we show that it is at least as hard as `Avoid` and that it is contained in $\text{FZPP}^{\text{NP}} \subseteq \text{TF}\Sigma_2$. Indeed, we observe that, like for `Avoid` and `AffineAvoid`, there is a simple input-independent distribution of outputs that yields a solution to `CollisionAvoid` on any circuit C with probability at least $1/3$. (The relationship between `CollisionAvoid` and `Avoid` seems at least superficially similar to the relationship between Papadimitriou’s celebrated `Pigeon` and `WeakPigeon` problems [[Pap94](#)].)

Both of these new problems seem to be harder than `Avoid`. However, our next main contribution shows that even (weak, average-case) hardness of `CollisionAvoid` or `AffineAvoid` implies the existence of one-way functions. ([Theorem 1.1](#) can be viewed as a corollary of either of the below theorems. In fact, we do not bother to prove [Theorem 1.1](#) directly, but instead prove the two stronger theorems below. However, in the introduction we include [Theorem 1.1](#) as well for clarity.)

Theorem 1.2. *If there is some efficiently sampleable family of distributions of expanding circuits \mathcal{D}_n and a constant $C > 0$ such that no (randomized) polynomial-time algorithm solves `AffineAvoid` with probability larger than $1 - 1/n^C$ on input distribution \mathcal{D}_n with $d = \log \log n$, then one-way functions exist.*

Theorem 1.3. *If there is some efficiently sampleable family of distributions of length-preserving circuits \mathcal{D}_n and a constant $C > 0$ such that no (randomized) polynomial-time algorithm solves `CollisionAvoid` with probability larger than $1 - 1/n^C$ on input distribution \mathcal{D}_n , then one-way functions exist.*

1.1.3 `Avoid` reduces to problems in meta-complexity

Our next contribution is a reduction from `Avoid` to `GapMkT`, i.e., the problem of approximating the Kolmogorov-Levin complexity of a given bit string (see [Section 2.3](#) for the formal definitions). `GapMkT` is one of the central computational problems in *meta-complexity*.

Theorem 1.4 (Informal; see [Theorem 6.2](#)). *There is an expected polynomial-time randomized algorithm with access to an `GapMkT` oracle that solves `Avoid` with probability one. (I.e., $\text{Avoid} \in \text{FZPP}^{\text{GapMkT}}$.)*

We note that the complexity of `GapMkT` is quite uncertain. It is not even clear whether it is in `FNP`. Indeed, the problem of computing the Kolmogorov-Levin complexity of a string *exactly* is actually complete for `EXP` under `P/Poly` reductions [[ABK⁺06](#)]. But, it is not clear how hard the approximate version of this problem is [[OS18](#), [MMW19](#), [OPS21](#), [CHO⁺22](#)].

We also note that the existence of one-way functions is known to imply the hardness of `GapMkT`. So, [Theorem 1.1](#) already implies a (randomized) reduction from *average-case* `Avoid`

³ `Avoid` with stretch s is known to be equivalent to `Avoid` with stretch s' for any $1 \leq s, s' \leq \text{poly}(n)$ under FP^{NP} reductions. But, it is unclear whether the same is true under reductions that are not given access to an `NP` oracle.

to GapMkT_P. (In fact, a recent exciting line of work shows that *average-case* hardness of certain variants of MkT_P is very closely related to the existence of one-way functions [LP20, LP21]!) However, the reduction implied by [Theorem 1.1](#) only works for average-case Avoid, *and* it does not succeed with probability 1, while the reduction in [Theorem 1.4](#) works in the worst case and succeeds with probability one.

We also show essentially the same result for a certain (relatively easy) gap version of the time-bounded Kolmogorov complexity problem (see [Definition 2.11](#) for the exact definition of GapMkK^{t,∞P}).

Theorem 1.5 (Informal; see [Theorem 6.1](#)). *There is an expected polynomial-time randomized algorithm with access to an GapMkK^{t,∞P} oracle that solves Avoid with probability one. (I.e., Avoid ∈ FZPP^{GapMkK^{t,∞P}}.)*

Again, the complexity of GapMkK^{t,∞P} is rather complex. Just like with MkT_P, it is relatively easy to see that if one-way functions exist, then GapMkK^{t,∞P} is hard. Furthermore, in some parameter regimes, the problem is actually known to be NP-hard [Hir22, HIR23]. However, the specific problem that we consider is not known to be NP-hard. In particular, we work in the parameter regime in which (1) the time bound t is large relative to the input size; (2) the gap between the YES and NO cases is quite large (for large stretch s); and (3) the NO case considers only time-*unbounded* conditional Kolmogorov complexity $K^\infty(y|x)$. (See [Definition 2.11](#).) In such a regime, the problem is not known to be NP-hard.

1.1.4 It might be hard to prove that Avoid is hard

Our final contribution is the observation that reductions from hard problems in FNP to Avoid must make many oracle calls. The idea is that any reduction from a hard problem in FNP to Avoid can be converted into an algorithm that simply runs the reduction and simulates responses to the oracle queries with random strings. Since a random string is a valid solution to Avoid with probability $1 - 2^{-s}$, such an algorithm will be successful unless the number of oracle queries is large relative to 2^s . This yields a barrier against reducing hard problems in FNP to Avoid. (See [Section 1.3](#).)

Theorem 1.6. *If $A \in \text{FNP}$ has a polynomial-time reduction to Avoid with stretch at least s making at most $q \leq O(2^s \log n)$ oracle calls, then $A \in \text{FZPP}$.*

We obtain the two following theorems as corollaries by taking A to be FNP-hard and choosing specific parameters for s and q .

Theorem 1.7. *If Avoid is FNP-hard under Karp reductions (even for stretch $s = 1$), then $\text{FZPP} = \text{FNP}$ and $\text{NP} = \text{RP}$.*

Theorem 1.8. *If Avoid is FNP-hard under randomized polynomial-time reductions for stretch $\omega(\log(n))$, then $\text{FZPP} = \text{FNP}$ and $\text{NP} = \text{RP}$.*

1.2 Related work

In the few years since Kleinberg, Korten, Mitropolsky, and Papadimitriou introduced Avoid in [KKMP21], the community has proven a flurry of exciting results about the problem. We list some of the relevant works below.

First, Korten showed that an efficient deterministic algorithm for `Avoid` would imply efficient deterministic constructions of *many* important objects whose existence follows from the probabilistic method [Kor22]. These include truth tables with nearly maximal circuit complexity, pseudorandom strings, nearly optimal two-source extractors and Ramsey graphs, rigid matrices, strings with large Kolmogorov complexity, hard communication problems, and hard data structure problems.

Then, Ren, Santhanam, and Wang showed more connections between algorithms for `Avoid` (perhaps with oracles) and circuit lower bounds, and brought new attention to the problem of solving `Avoid` for very restricted classes of circuits (even in FP^{NP}) [RSW22]. Chen, Huang, Li, and Ren then showed how to use these ideas to essentially match the best known circuit lower bounds using (oracle) algorithms for `Avoid` on restricted classes of circuits [CHLR23]. Chen, Hirahara, and Ren then showed how to construct a *pseudodeterministic* algorithm for `Avoid` with access to an NP oracle, and showed that this algorithm implies novel circuit lower bounds [CHR23]. Li then improved on this work to show a pseudodeterministic algorithm for `Avoid` with access to an NP oracle strong enough to prove essentially optimal circuit lower bounds for symmetric exponential time [Li23].

In a different line of work, Guruswami, Lyu, and Wang showed new (oracle) algorithms for range avoidance on restricted classes of circuits and showed that many objects of interest can be constructed if one can solve `Avoid` on even slightly less restricted classes of circuits [GLW22]. Gajulapalli, Golovnev, Nagargoje, and Saraogi continued this line of work by showing further algorithms and reductions of this flavor [GGNS23].

Finally, Ilango, Li, and Williams showed that if subexponentially secure indistinguishability obfuscation (a very strong cryptographic primitive) exists, then `Avoid` \notin FP unless $\text{NP} = \text{coNP}$ [ILW23]. To our knowledge, this is the only known example of a proof that an algorithm for `Avoid` would imply something that is thought not to be true. (Many of the above results show that an algorithm for `Avoid` would imply something that we do not currently know how to prove, but which we expect to be true.)

1.3 Future directions

Our results suggest a number of interesting directions to explore further. We list some of them below.

Connections between `Avoid` and pseudorandomness. We show that if `Avoid` is suitably hard on the average for randomized algorithms, then one-way functions exist. By well-known results in cryptography, this in turn implies the existence of cryptographic pseudorandom generators (PRGs) [HILL99]. So, if `Avoid` is hard on average, then cryptographic PRGs exist.

On the other hand, Korten [Kor22] showed that if `Avoid` is in FP , then there exists a different kind of PRG. (Cryptographic PRGs have polynomial stretch but satisfy a very strong notion of pseudorandomness, while Korten shows PRGs with exponential stretch that satisfy a much weaker notion of pseudorandomness.)

This might suggest a deeper connection between the complexity of `Avoid` and pseudorandomness. One might even hope (perhaps foolishly?) for a win-win result showing that, whether `Avoid` is easy or hard, one still obtains some kind of PRG. Our current results do not quite achieve this because (1) our construction of cryptographic PRGs from `Avoid` requires average-case hardness against randomized algorithms, while Korten’s construction requires worst-case deterministic

algorithms; and (2) the two results use different notions of PRGs. However, perhaps one can prove something in the spirit of such a result, or otherwise explore this apparently deep connection between `Avoid` and pseudorandomness.

One possible direction towards better understanding this relationship would be to study possible worst-case to average-case reductions for `Avoid`. In particular, such a reduction would be a step towards removing the first issue described above.

Better understanding of `CollisionAvoid` and `AffineAvoid`. We introduce two new computational problems `CollisionAvoid` and `AffineAvoid`. We show some basic properties of these problems in [Section 3](#), including reducing `Avoid` to both of them, and reducing both of them to `Empty` (for some parameter regimes in the case of `AffineAvoid`). See [Figure 1](#).

However, there is much that we still do not know about these problems. So, we ask what more can be said. For example, we do not know whether they can be reduced back to `Avoid` (except, in the case of `AffineAvoid`, in a rather extreme setting of parameters). Even FP^{NP} reductions would be interesting.

One of the things that makes `AffineAvoid` interesting is that the parameters d and s can be varied together, and this allows for non-trivial reductions between different regimes. In particular, [Theorem 3.6](#) shows a reduction from $(s + \ell, d + \ell)$ -`AffineAvoid` to (s, d) -`AffineAvoid`, which one can think of as a strengthening of the trivial result that $(s + \ell)$ -`Avoid` reduces to s -`Avoid`. It would be particularly exciting to show a reduction in the other direction, e.g., to show a reduction from (s, d) -`AffineAvoid` to (s', d') -`AffineAvoid` for $s < s'$. Perhaps one can even show that $(s + \ell, d + \ell)$ -`AffineAvoid` and (s, d) -`AffineAvoid` are equivalent.

More relationships between `Avoid` and metacomplexity. We show that `Avoid` reduces to two important problems in metacomplexity. However, there are many more interesting metacomplexity problems that we do not know how to similarly relate to `Avoid`. We do note that most problems in metacomplexity are known to be hard if one-way functions exist, so just like with `GapMKtP` and `GapMcKt,∞P`, [Theorem 1.1](#) shows that a certain form of average-case hardness of `Avoid` implies hardness of most metacomplexity problems. However, like with `GapMKtP` and `GapMcKt,∞P`, this implication is qualitatively weaker than a direct reduction that works in the worst case (and succeeds with probability 1).

We note that `Avoid` also has a different relationship with metacomplexity. Specifically, Korten showed that `Avoid` is closely related to the problem of outputting a truth table corresponding to a language with large circuit complexity [[Kor22](#)].

Hardness of `Avoid`. In [Theorem 7.1](#), we show some barriers to reducing seemingly hard problems in `FNP` to `Avoid`. However, these barriers do not rule out such reductions; they simply show that these reductions must work in the low-stretch regime and make many oracle queries. It would therefore be very interesting to get around these barriers and actually reduce a plausibly hard problem to `Avoid`. (Prior work, such as [[Kor22](#)], showed reductions from problems that are either unlikely to be in `FNP` or are not truly thought to be hard, often under FP^{NP} reductions.) One could potentially dream of proving `NP`-hardness of `Avoid` for small stretch $s = O(\log n)$, but a reduction from any plausibly hard problem in `FNP` would be interesting.

Our results in particular show that suitable hardness of `Avoid` implies hardness of meta-complexity problems and the existence of cryptography (under different notions of hardness). So, a suitable reduction from a plausibly hard problem $A \in \text{FNP}$ to `Avoid` would show that hardness of A implies the same things.

2 Preliminaries

We denote $\{0, 1, \dots, N - 1\}$ by $[N]$. We denote probabilistic polynomial time algorithms by PPT.

2.1 Computational problems

Below we define some of the computational problems that interest us in this work. The first two problems, `Empty` and `Avoid` were originally defined in [KKMP21] (though what we call s -`Avoid` was called 2^s -`Empty` in [KKMP21]). [KKMP21] also observed that `Empty` is NP-hard and that `Empty` is equivalent to the variant of the problem in which the range of the circuit is $[N + \text{poly}(\log N)]$ instead of $[N + 1]$.

Definition 2.1. *The `Empty` problem is defined as follows: given as input the description of a circuit $C : [N] \rightarrow [N + 1]$, find a $y \in [N + 1]$ such that $\forall x \in [N] : C(x) \neq y$.*

Definition 2.2. *For any integer $s := s(n) > 0$, the s -`Avoid` problem is defined as follows: given as input the description of a Boolean circuit $C : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{n+s}$, find a $y \in \{0, 1\}^{n+s}$ such that $\forall x \in \{0, 1\}^n : C(x) \neq y$.*

We call s the stretch of an s -`Avoid` instance, and when the stretch is one we simply write `Avoid`.

We also introduce the following two problems.

Definition 2.3. *For any $s := s(n) > 0$, $d := d(n)$, the (s, d) -`AffineAvoid` problem is defined as follows: given as input the description of a Boolean circuit $C : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{n+s}$, and an integer d , find an affine subspace of dimension d outside the range of C , where we identify $\{0, 1\}^{n+s}$ with \mathbb{F}_2^{n+s} in the natural way for the purposes of defining an affine subspace.*

We call s the stretch of an `AffineAvoid` instance.

Definition 2.4. *The `CollisionAvoid` problem is defined as follows: given as input the description of a Boolean circuit $C : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$, output either:*

1. $(\text{NON-IMAGE}, y)$, where $y \in \{0, 1\}^n$ is not in the image of C ;
2. $(\text{NON-COLLISION}, x)$, where $x \in \{0, 1\}^n$ satisfies that $C(x) \neq C(x')$ for all $x' \neq x$.

2.2 Reductions

Definition 2.5. *A deterministic Karp reduction from a search problem A to a search problem B is a pair of deterministic polynomial-time algorithms R, S such that:*

1. Given an instance I_A of A , $R(I_A)$ outputs an instance of I_B .
2. Given any solution s_B to $I_B := R(I_A)$, $S(I_A, s_B)$ outputs a solution s_A for I_A .

We will need to be a little precise in our notion of a Karp reduction from a decision problem to a search problem. We adapt Papadimitriou's notion of reduction for our purposes.

Definition 2.6. A Karp reduction from a decision problem A to a search problem B is a pair of polynomial time algorithms R, S such that:

1. If $x \in A$, it holds that for all y such that $\langle R(x), y \rangle \in B$, $S(x, y) = 1$.
2. If $x \notin A$, it holds that for all y , $S(x, y) = 0$.

For convenience, we often describe our Karp reductions simply as algorithms for problem A that work with an oracle for problem B and make a single oracle call.

2.3 Kolmogorov complexity

Definition 2.7. For a given string $x \in \{0, 1\}^*$, the Kolmogorov-Levin complexity is defined as:

$$\text{Kt}(x) = \min_M \{d + \log t \mid U(\langle M \rangle, 1^t) = x, d = |\langle M \rangle|\},$$

where U is the Universal Turing machine that runs Turing machine M (here, $\langle M \rangle$ denotes the description of M in bits) for t steps and outputs what M outputs.

Correspondingly, the conditional Kolmogorov-Levin complexity of a string y conditioned on x is defined as:

$$\text{Kt}(y|x) = \min_M \{d + \log t \mid U(\langle M \rangle, x, 1^t) = y, d = |\langle M \rangle|\},$$

where U is the Universal Turing machine that runs Turing machine M on input x for t steps and outputs what M outputs.

Definition 2.8 (Time-Bounded Kolmogorov Complexity). For a given string $x \in \{0, 1\}^*$ and $t \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{\infty\}$, the t -time bounded Kolmogorov-Levin complexity is defined as:

$$\text{K}^t(x) = \min_M \{d \mid U(\langle M \rangle, 1^t) = x, d = |\langle M \rangle|\},$$

where U is the Universal Turing machine that runs Turing machine M (here, $\langle M \rangle$ denotes the description of M in bits) for t steps and outputs what M outputs.

Correspondingly, the t -time bounded conditional Kolmogorov complexity of a string $y \in \{0, 1\}^*$ conditioned on x is defined as:

$$\text{K}^t(y|x) = \min_M \{d \mid U(\langle M \rangle, x, 1^t) = y, d = |\langle M \rangle|\},$$

where U is the Universal Turing machine that runs Turing machine M on input x for t steps and outputs what M outputs.

Definition 2.9. The MKtP problem is defined as follows: Given as input a string $x \in \{0, 1\}^*$ and an integer k decide if $\text{Kt}(x) \leq k$.

We will also be interested in the approximate version of the problem.

Definition 2.10. For $\gamma : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$, the γ -GapMKtP problem is defined as follows: Given as input a string $x \in \{0,1\}^*$ and an integer k ,

1. if $\text{Kt}(x) \leq k$, output 1; and
2. if $\text{Kt}(x) \geq k + \gamma(k)$, output 0.

We also consider a non-standard problem that approximates the time-bounded conditional Kolmogorov complexity. (Notice that the fact that in the NO case we use K^∞ only makes the problem easier.)

Definition 2.11. For $1 \leq a < b$ and some time bound $t := t(n)$, (a,b) -GapMcK $^{t,\infty}$ P is the promise problem defined as follows: Given as input strings $x, y \in \{0,1\}^*$,

1. if $\text{K}^t(y | x) \leq a$, output 1; and
2. if $\text{K}^\infty(y | x) \geq b$, output 0.

The following lemma will be useful for our purposes.

Lemma 2.12 (Chain Rule). For any two strings x, y , we have

$$\text{Kt}(x \circ y) \leq \text{Kt}(y|x) + \text{Kt}(x) + O(\log(|x|)) ,$$

where $x \circ y$ is the concatenation of x and y .

Proof. To see this, note that to output $x \circ y$, it suffices for us to use two machines M_x (which outputs string x), and M_y (which outputs string y while using x as input). The algorithm is then defined as follows:

1. Run M_x to output x .
2. Copy x to the input tape of M_y .
3. Run $M_y(x)$ to append y to the output.

Now, letting t_x be the time it takes M_x to output string x , and t_y be the time it takes M_y to output string y (when given input x), the total time it takes to output $x \circ y$ is at most $t_x + t_y + |x|$. Furthermore, the description length is at most $\langle M_x \rangle + \langle M_y \rangle + O(\log(|x|))$.

Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Kt}(x \circ y) &\leq \langle M_x \rangle + \langle M_y \rangle + O(\log(|x|)) + \log(t_x + t_y + |x|) \\ &\leq \langle M_x \rangle + \langle M_y \rangle + O(\log(|x|)) + \log(t_x) + \log(t_y) \\ &= \text{Kt}(x) + \text{Kt}(y|x) + O(\log(|x|)) . \end{aligned} \quad \square$$

Lemma 2.13 (Incompressibility of random strings). For any positive integer n and $0 \leq t \leq n$,

$$\Pr_{x \sim \{0,1\}^n} [\text{Kt}(x) \leq t] \leq 2^{-(n-t-1)} .$$

Proof. Let x be a randomly chosen string of length n . There are at most 2^{t+1} strings that can be output by some Turing machine whose description length is at most t . Thus, the probability that a randomly chosen string of length n has Kolmogorov-Levin complexity $\text{Kt}(x) \leq t$ is at most:

$$\frac{2^{t+1}}{2^n} = 2^{-(n-t-1)} .$$

□

Lemma 2.14 (Weak Monotonicity). *Let $x \in \{0, 1\}^{\ell_x}$ and $y \in \{0, 1\}^{\ell_y}$. Then:*

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Kt}(x) &\leq \text{Kt}(x \circ y) + O(\log(\ell_x + \ell_y)) , \\ \text{Kt}(y) &\leq \text{Kt}(x \circ y) + O(\log(\ell_x + \ell_y)) . \end{aligned}$$

Proof. To see this, note that it suffices to design an algorithm that first computes $x \circ y$ and then outputs the first ℓ_x of $x \circ y$ to outputs x or the last ℓ_y bits to output y . □

Lemma 2.15 ([HIR23], Fact 2.13). *For any string $y \in \{0, 1\}^*$, time bound t (including $t = \infty$), and positive integer α , we have*

$$\Pr_{x \sim \{0, 1\}^n} [\text{Kt}(x|y) \leq n - \alpha] \leq \frac{1}{2^{\alpha-1}} .$$

2.4 Average-case hardness and one-way circuits

We will need a notion of (weak) average-case hardness of a computational problem. Our notion of hardness corresponds to hardness on efficiently sampleable distributions. As in the cryptography literature, we call the sampling algorithm Gen .

Definition 2.16. *A computational problem B is weakly hard on average with generator Gen if Gen is a PPT algorithm that takes as input 1^κ and outputs an instance x of B with size $n(\kappa) \leq \text{poly}(\kappa)$, and for every PPT algorithm \mathcal{A} there exists a κ_0 such that for all $\kappa \geq \kappa_0$,*

$$\Pr_{x \leftarrow \text{Gen}(1^\kappa)} [\mathcal{A}(1^\kappa, x) \text{ is a solution to instance } x \text{ of } \mathsf{B}] \leq 1 - 1/\kappa .$$

Note the close relationship between the above definition and the following definition of an efficiently sampleable (weak) one-way function. For convenience, we actually use a slightly non-standard circuit-based definition (which is equivalent to the standard definition).

Definition 2.17. *We say that a PPT algorithm Gen samples a weak one-way circuit if:*

1. *On input 1^κ , Gen outputs a circuit $C : \{0, 1\}^{n(\kappa)} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{m(\kappa)}$ where $n(\kappa)$ and $m(\kappa)$ are some (fixed) polynomially bounded functions.*
2. *For any PPT algorithm \mathcal{A} , there exists a κ_0 such that for all $\kappa \geq \kappa_0$,*

$$\Pr_{C \leftarrow \text{Gen}(1^\kappa), x \sim \{0, 1\}^{n(\kappa)}} [x' \leftarrow \mathcal{A}(1^\kappa, C, C(x)), C(x') = C(x)] \leq 1 - 1/\kappa .$$

Theorem 2.18 (Theorem 5.2.1 of [Zim04], Restated). *If there exists a PPT algorithm that samples a weak one-way circuit, then one-way functions exist.*

We will also need the following simple lemma.

Lemma 2.19. *Suppose that Gen is an algorithm that takes as input 1^κ and outputs a circuit $C : \{0, 1\}^{n(\kappa)} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{m(\kappa)}$ for some functions $n(\kappa)$ and $m(\kappa)$, and suppose that \mathcal{A} is an algorithm with the property that*

$$\Pr_{C \leftarrow \text{Gen}(1^\kappa), x \sim \{0, 1\}^{n(\kappa)}} [x' \leftarrow \mathcal{A}(1^\kappa, C, C(x)), C(x') = C(x)] > 1 - 1/\kappa .$$

Then, for every $0 < \alpha < \kappa$,

$$\Pr_{C \leftarrow \text{Gen}(1^\kappa)} [C \in S_\alpha] > 1 - \alpha/\kappa ,$$

where S_α is the set of all circuits C such that

$$\Pr_{x \sim \{0, 1\}^{n(\kappa)}} [x' \leftarrow \mathcal{A}(1^\kappa, C, C(x)), C(x') = C(x)] > 1 - 1/\alpha .$$

Proof. Notice that

$$\begin{aligned} 1 - 1/\kappa &< \Pr_{C \leftarrow \text{Gen}(1^\kappa), x \sim \{0, 1\}^{n(\kappa)}} [x' \leftarrow \mathcal{A}(1^\kappa, C, C(x)), C(x') = C(x)] \\ &= \Pr[C \in S_\alpha] \cdot \Pr[C(x') = C(x) \mid C \in S_\alpha] + \Pr[C \notin S_\alpha] \cdot \Pr[C(x') = C(x) \mid C \notin S_\alpha] \\ &\leq \Pr[C \in S_\alpha] + (1 - 1/\alpha) \cdot \Pr[C \notin S_\alpha] \\ &= \Pr[C \in S_\alpha]/\alpha + 1 - 1/\alpha . \end{aligned}$$

Rearranging this, we see that $\Pr[C \in S_\alpha] > 1 - \alpha/\kappa$, as needed. \square

Finally, we will need the following technical lemma, which bounds the probability of an algorithm encountering a certain bad event in terms of its failure probability in the one-way function game on a fixed circuit. The bad event is that a random element in the co-domain of the fixed circuit lands in the image of the circuit but the algorithm still fails to find an inverse.

Lemma 2.20. *For any circuit $C : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^m$ and any algorithm \mathcal{B} , we have*

$$\Pr_{y \sim \{0, 1\}^m, \mathcal{B}} [C(\mathcal{B}(y)) \neq y \wedge y \in \text{Im}(C)] \leq 2^{n-m} \cdot \Pr_{x \sim \{0, 1\}^n} [x' \leftarrow \mathcal{B}(C(x)), C(x') \neq C(x)] .$$

Proof. Notice that for any $y \in \text{Im}(C)$, we must have $\Pr_{x \sim \{0, 1\}^n} [C(x) = y] \geq 1/2^n$, since the domain of C has size 2^n . Therefore, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr_{y, \mathcal{B}} [C(\mathcal{B}(y)) \neq y \wedge y \in \text{Im}(C)] &= \sum_{y \in \text{Im}(C)} \frac{1}{2^m} \Pr_{\mathcal{B}} [C(\mathcal{B}(y)) \neq y] \\ &\leq 2^{n-m} \cdot \sum_{y \in \text{Im}(C)} \Pr_x [C(x) = y] \Pr_{\mathcal{B}} [C(\mathcal{B}(y)) \neq y] \\ &= 2^{n-m} \cdot \Pr_{x, \mathcal{B}} [C(\mathcal{B}(y)) \neq y \mid C(x) = y] . \end{aligned} \quad \square$$

2.5 Gowers norms

We review a useful definition in the literature of additive combinatorics: the Gowers norms.

Definition 2.21. Let $f : \mathbb{F}_2^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a function. For every non-negative integer d , we define the Gowers d -norm (U_d norm) of f to be:

$$\|f\|_{U_d} = \left(\mathbb{E}_{s, v_1, \dots, v_d \sim \mathbb{F}_2^n} \left[\prod_{S \subseteq [d]} f\left(s + \sum_{j \in S} v_j\right) \right] \right)^{\frac{1}{2^d}}.$$

We remark that the Gowers 0-norm is simply the expectation of the function f , $\|f\|_{U_0} = \mathbb{E}_x[f(x)]$. We will use the Cauchy-Schwarz-Gowers inequality (see, e.g., [VW08, Lemma 2.4]) that shows that the Gowers norms are monotonically non-decreasing.

Theorem 2.22. For every integer $n, k \geq 1$ and every $f : \mathbb{F}_2^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$,

$$\|f\|_{U_{k-1}} \leq \|f\|_{U_k}.$$

We will now use the Gowers norms to prove that every large subset of \mathbb{F}_2^n contains an affine subspace of non-trivial dimension.

Lemma 2.23. Let $n \geq 2, d \geq 1$ be integers, and $S \subseteq \mathbb{F}_2^n$ be a set of size $|S| \geq \lambda 2^n$ for $\lambda \in (0, 1]$. Let s, v_1, v_2, \dots, v_d be $d+1$ vectors chosen uniformly and independently from \mathbb{F}_2^n . Then with probability at least $\lambda^{2^d} - 2^{d-n}$, $s + \text{span}(v_1, \dots, v_d)$ forms an affine subspace of dimension d which is contained in S .

Proof. Let $f : \mathbb{F}_2^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ be the indicator function of S : $f(x) = 1$ if and only if $x \in S$. Consider the Gowers d -norm of f , raised to the power of 2^d :

$$\|f\|_{U_d}^{2^d} = \left(\mathbb{E}_{s, v_1, \dots, v_d \sim \mathbb{F}_2^n} \left[\prod_{T \subseteq [d]} f\left(s + \sum_{j \in T} v_j\right) \right] \right).$$

Notice that term $\prod_{T \subseteq [d]} f(s + \sum_{j \in T} v_j) = 1$ if and only if $s + \text{span}(v_1, \dots, v_d)$ is fully contained in S . Hence, for uniform and independent s, v_1, v_2, \dots, v_d , we have that $s + \text{span}(v_1, \dots, v_d)$ is contained in S with probability

$$\|f\|_{U_d}^{2^d} \geq \|f\|_{U_0}^{2^d} \geq (\lambda)^{2^d},$$

where the first inequality follows by [Theorem 2.22](#), and the second inequality uses $\|f\|_{U_0} = \mathbb{E}_x[f(x)] \geq \lambda$.

Next, we consider the probability that v_1, \dots, v_d span a subspace of dimension d . The probability that d uniform and independent vectors are linearly independent is bounded from below by

$$\prod_{i=0}^{d-1} (1 - 2^{i-n}) \geq 1 - \sum_{i=0}^{d-1} 2^{i-n} \geq 1 - 2^{d-n}.$$

By the union bound, with probability at least $\lambda^{2^d} - 2^{d-n}$, $s + \text{span}(v_1, \dots, v_d)$ is a d -dimensional affine subspace contained in S . \square

3 Basic results

In this section, we present a few simple reductions and observations about `Avoid`, `CollisionAvoid`, and `AffineAvoid`.

3.1 CollisionAvoid

We start by observing that `Avoid` is no harder than `CollisionAvoid` via a simple Karp reduction.

Theorem 3.1. *There is a deterministic Karp reduction from `Avoid` to `CollisionAvoid`.*

Proof. Given a circuit $C : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{n+1}$ for `Avoid`, the reduction constructs a `CollisionAvoid` instance $C' : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$ as follows: $C'(x) = C(x)_{[n]}$. I.e., $C'(x)$ outputs the first n bits of $C(x)$.

The reduction then calls its `CollisionAvoid` oracle on input C' , receiving as output either $(\text{NON-IMAGE}, y)$ or $(\text{NON-COLLISION}, x)$. If the oracle's output is $(\text{NON-IMAGE}, y)$ for $y \in \{0, 1\}^n$, then the reduction outputs $y \circ 0$. If the oracle's output is $(\text{NON-COLLISION}, x)$ for $x \in \{0, 1\}^n$, the reduction computes $y^* := C(x)$ and outputs \bar{y} , which is y^* with its last bit flipped.

Clearly the reduction is deterministic, runs in polynomial time, and makes a single oracle call.

To see that the reduction is correct, notice that if oracle's output is $(\text{NON-IMAGE}, y)$, then by definition there is no $x' \in \{0, 1\}^n$ such that $C'(x') = y$. By the definition of C' this means that there is no $x' \in \{0, 1\}^n$ such that $C(x') = y \circ 0$, i.e., $y \circ 0$ is not in the image of C , as needed. On the other hand, if the oracle's output is $(\text{NON-COLLISION}, x)$, then by definition the only input $x' \in \{0, 1\}^n$ such that $C'(x') = C'(x)$ is x itself. In particular, y^* is the unique string in the image of C whose first n bits are $y^*_{[n]}$. Therefore, \bar{y} is not in the image of C . \square

Next, we show that `CollisionAvoid` is no harder than `Empty`.

Theorem 3.2. *There is a deterministic Karp reduction from `CollisionAvoid` to `Empty`.*

Proof. Given a circuit $C : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$ for `CollisionAvoid`, the reduction constructs an `Empty` instance $C' : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow [2^n + 1]$ to be

$$C'(x) = \begin{cases} 2^n & \text{if } x = 0^n, \\ C(x) & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

(In other words, C' maps 0^n to an element that is not in the range of C .)

The reduction then calls its `Empty` oracle on input C' , receiving as output y . If the oracle's output satisfies that $y = C(0^n)$, the reduction outputs $(\text{NON-COLLISION}, 0^n)$. Otherwise, the reduction outputs $(\text{NON-IMAGE}, y)$.

Clearly the reduction is deterministic, runs in polynomial time and makes a single oracle call.

To see that the reduction is correct, consider a solution y for `Empty` with input C' , clearly we have $y \in [2^n]$, or equivalently when written in binary $y \in \{0, 1\}^n$. We consider two cases.

If $y = C(0^n)$, then, because y is a valid solution to `Empty` on input C' , we know that $C(x) \neq C(0^n)$ for any $x \neq 0^n$ (since for $x \neq 0^n$, $C(x) = C'(x)$). Hence, $(\text{NON-COLLISION}, 0^n)$ is a valid solution to the `CollisionAvoid` instance in this case.

Otherwise, $y \neq C(0^n)$ and since y is not in the image of C' , it follows that y is not in the image of C . Hence, $(\text{NON-IMAGE}, y)$ is a valid solution to the `CollisionAvoid` instance, as needed. \square

Similar to `Avoid`, `CollisionAvoid` also admits an input-independent randomized algorithm that succeeds with constant probability. In particular, this implies that $\text{CollisionAvoid} \in \text{FZPP}^{\text{NP}}$ by using the NP oracle for verification of the guessed solutions.

Theorem 3.3. *There is an input-independent BPP algorithm for `CollisionAvoid` that succeeds with probability at least $1/3$.*

Proof. Regardless of any input circuit $C : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$ for `CollisionAvoid`, the algorithm samples a uniform string $y \in \{0, 1\}^n$. Then it outputs $(\text{NON-IMAGE}, y)$ with probability $2/3$ and $(\text{NON-COLLISION}, y)$ with probability $1/3$.

To see that the algorithm succeeds with probability at least $1/3$, let $\delta := 1 - \frac{|\text{Im}(C)|}{2^n}$. We then have:

$$\Pr_y[y \notin \text{Im}(C)] = \delta ,$$

$$\Pr_y[\forall x \neq y, C(x) \neq C(y)] \geq 1 - 2\delta .$$

The first inequality follows from the definition of δ . To see the second inequality, notice that there are at most 2δ fraction of inputs involved in collisions.

Therefore, the success probability is at least

$$\frac{2}{3} \cdot \delta + \frac{1}{3} \cdot (1 - 2\delta) \geq \frac{1}{3} . \quad \square$$

3.2 AffineAvoid

We start by presenting some choices of parameters where `AffineAvoid` admits an FZPP^{NP} algorithm.

Theorem 3.4. *Let $c > 0$ be a constant, and $s := s(n) \geq 1$ and $d := d(n) \geq 1$ satisfy*

$$(1 - 2^{-s})^{2^d} - 2^{d-n-s} > \frac{1}{n^c}$$

for all large enough n . Then (s, d) -AffineAvoid $\in \text{FZPP}^{\text{NP}}$. In particular, $(1, \log \log n)$ -AffineAvoid $\in \text{FZPP}^{\text{NP}}$.

Proof. Consider any circuit $C : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{n+s}$ as input of (s, d) -AffineAvoid, and define S to be the set of all non-images of C . We have

$$|S| \geq 2^{n+s} - 2^n = (1 - 2^{-s})2^{n+s} .$$

The algorithm proceeds as follows. Sample $u, v_1, \dots, v_d \in \mathbb{F}_2^{n+s}$ uniformly at random. Then verify that $u + \text{span}(v_1, \dots, v_d)$ has dimension d and use the NP oracle to verify that $\forall x \in \mathbb{F}_2^{n+s}$, $C(x) \notin u + \text{span}(v_1, \dots, v_d)$. If all tests pass, output the affine subspace $u + \text{span}(v_1, \dots, v_d)$. Otherwise, repeat the procedure.

It is easy to see that any affine subspace output by the algorithm is a correct solution. It remains to show that the algorithm terminates in expected $\text{poly}(n)$ time.

By [Lemma 2.23](#), with probability $(1 - 2^{-s})^{2^d} - 2^{d-n-s} > \frac{1}{n^c}$, $u + \text{span}(v_1, \dots, v_d)$ sampled by the algorithm is a d -dimensional affine subspace contained in S . Hence the expected running time is bounded from above by n^c . \square

Next, we present choices of parameters where `AffineAvoid` falls in $\text{TF}\Sigma_2\text{P}$.

Theorem 3.5. *Let $s := s(n) \geq 1$ and $d := d(n) \geq 1$ satisfy*

$$(1 - 2^{-s})^{2^d} - 2^{d-n-s} > 0$$

for all large enough n . Then (s, d) -AffineAvoid $\in \text{TF}\Sigma_2\text{P}$. In particular, $(1, \log n - 1)$ -AffineAvoid $\in \text{TF}\Sigma_2\text{P}$.

Proof. Let $C : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{n+s}$ be an input of (s, d) -AffineAvoid, and S be the set of all non-images of C :

$$|S| \geq 2^{n+s} - 2^n = (1 - 2^{-s})2^{n+s}.$$

By [Lemma 2.23](#), with probability $(1 - 2^{-s})^{2^d} - 2^{d-n-s} > 0$, we can sample a d -dimensional affine subspace contained in S . In other words, a solution to (s, d) -AffineAvoid is guaranteed to exist.

Hence, one could write down the $\text{TF}\Sigma_2\text{P}$ statement as follows:

$$\exists u, v_1, \dots, v_d \in \mathbb{F}_2^{n+s}, \forall x \in \mathbb{F}_2^n, C(x) \notin u + \text{span}(v_1, \dots, v_d),$$

and the result follows. \square

We conclude with a simple reduction between `AffineAvoid` with different parameters.

Theorem 3.6. *Let $\ell := \ell(n) \geq 1$ be an efficiently computable function. Then for every $d := d(n) \geq 1$ there is a deterministic Karp reduction from $(s + \ell, d + \ell)$ -AffineAvoid to (s, d) -AffineAvoid.*

In particular, by setting $d = 0$, we have that $(s + \ell, \ell)$ -AffineAvoid reduces to s -Avoid.

Proof. Given a circuit $C : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{n+s+\ell}$ for $(s + \ell, d + \ell)$ -AffineAvoid, the reduction defines an (s, d) -AffineAvoid instance $C' : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{n+s}$ to be $C'(x) = C(x)_{[n+s]}$. I.e., $C'(x)$ outputs the first $n + s$ bits of $C(x)$.

The reduction then calls its (s, d) -AffineAvoid oracle on input C' , receives as output $u, v_1, \dots, v_d \in \mathbb{F}_2^{n+s}$ where $u + \text{span}(v_1, \dots, v_d)$ is an affine subspace that contains no images of C' . Finally, the reduction outputs $u \circ 0^\ell, v_1 \circ 0^\ell, \dots, v_d \circ 0^\ell, e_{n+s+1}, \dots, e_{n+s+\ell}$ where $e_i \in \mathbb{F}_2^{n+s+\ell}$ is the i th standard basis vector.

Clearly the reduction is a deterministic Karp reduction with a single oracle call. Let $A := u + \text{span}(v_1, \dots, v_d) \subseteq \mathbb{F}_2^{n+s}$. Since no element in A is in the image of C' , it follows that no point in $\mathbb{F}_2^{n+s+\ell}$, whose first $(n + s)$ coordinates lie in A , is in the image of C . In other words, the affine subspace $A' := u \circ 0^\ell + \text{span}(v_1 \circ 0^\ell, \dots, v_d \circ 0^\ell, e_{n+s+1}, \dots, e_{n+s+\ell})$ contains no images of C , which finishes the proof. \square

4 CollisionAvoid to Minicrypt

In this section we show that hardness of CollisionAvoid implies the existence of weak one-way function families.

Theorem 4.1. *Suppose CollisionAvoid is weakly hard on average with generator Gen, then there exists a generator Gen' that samples weak one-way circuits.*

Combining the above with [Theorem 2.18](#) immediately implies the following, which is the formal version of [Theorem 1.3](#).

Corollary 4.2. *If CollisionAvoid is weakly hard on average with some generator, then (standard) one-way functions exist.*

Proof of Theorem 4.1. For any $\kappa > 0$, we define $\text{Gen}'(1^\kappa) := \text{Gen}(1^\gamma)$ for some $\gamma = \gamma(\kappa) := \lfloor \kappa^{1/4}/100 \rfloor$. Since $\text{Gen}(1^\gamma)$ outputs a circuit $C : \{0,1\}^{n(\gamma)} \rightarrow \{0,1\}^{n(\gamma)}$, which is an instance of CollisionAvoid, $\text{Gen}'(1^\kappa)$ outputs a circuit $C : \{0,1\}^{n'(\kappa)} \rightarrow \{0,1\}^{n'(\kappa)}$, where $n'(\kappa) := n(\lfloor \kappa^{1/4}/100 \rfloor)$.

We claim that Gen' samples a weak one-way circuit. Assume towards contradiction that this is not true. Then, there exists a PPT algorithm \mathcal{B} such that for infinitely many κ ,

$$\Pr_{C \leftarrow \text{Gen}'(1^\kappa), x \sim \{0,1\}^n} [x' \leftarrow \mathcal{B}(1^\kappa, C, C(x)), C(x') = C(x)] > 1 - 1/\kappa. \quad (1)$$

Notice that we may assume without loss of generality that this holds for infinitely many values of κ of the form $\kappa = (100\gamma)^4$ for integer γ .

We present in [Algorithm 1](#) an algorithm that we claim solves average-case CollisionAvoid on the distribution produced by $\text{Gen}(1^\gamma)$ with probability larger than $1 - 1/\gamma$ for arbitrarily large γ .

Algorithm 1: CollisionAvoid($C, 1^\gamma$)

```

Set  $\kappa := (100\gamma)^4$ ;
Do  $\Delta = 10\gamma + 1$  times
    Sample  $y \sim \{0,1\}^n$ ;
    Set  $x' \leftarrow \mathcal{B}(1^\kappa, C, y)$ ;
    if  $C(x') \neq y$  then
        | Output (NON-IMAGE,  $y$ );
    end
end
Sample  $x \sim \{0,1\}^n$  and output (NON-COLLISION,  $x$ );

```

We call this algorithm \mathcal{A} . Clearly the algorithm runs in polynomial time. To see that the algorithm is correct, let $\kappa := (100\gamma)^4$, let $\alpha := 1000\gamma^3$, and let $\Delta := 10\gamma + 1$. We may assume that κ is such that [Equation \(1\)](#) holds. Let S be the set of circuits C that satisfy

$$\Pr_{x \sim \{0,1\}^n} [x' \leftarrow \mathcal{B}(1^\kappa, C, C(x)), C(x') = C(x)] > 1 - 1/\alpha.$$

By [Lemma 2.19](#), we have

$$\Pr_{C \sim \text{Gen}(1^\gamma)}[\mathcal{A} \text{ solves CollisionAvoid}] \geq (1 - \alpha/\kappa) \cdot \Pr[\mathcal{A} \text{ solves CollisionAvoid} \mid C \in S].$$

It therefore suffices to show that for each $C \in S$, \mathcal{A} solves CollisionAvoid on C with probability at least $(1 - 1/\gamma)/(1 - \alpha/\kappa)$, and to do that, it suffices to show that \mathcal{A} solves CollisionAvoid on such C with probability at least $1 - 1/(2\gamma) > (1 - 1/\gamma)/(1 - \alpha/\kappa)$.

To that end, fix the input $C \in S$ to \mathcal{A} . Let

$$\varepsilon := |\text{Im}(C)|/2^n = \Pr_{y \sim \{0,1\}^n}[y \in \text{Im}(C)],$$

and define the event E to be the event that \mathcal{A} outputs (NON-IMAGE, y) for some y .

Notice that E occurs if any sample y inside the loop of [Algorithm 1](#) is not inverted. Therefore,

$$1 - \Pr[E] = \Pr_{y \sim \{0,1\}^n}[x' \leftarrow \mathcal{B}(1^\kappa, C, y) : C(x') = y]^\Delta = (\varepsilon - p)^\Delta,$$

where

$$p := \Pr_{y \sim \{0,1\}^n}[x' \leftarrow \mathcal{B}(1^\kappa, C, y) : C(x') \neq y \text{ and } y \in \text{Im}(C)]$$

is the probability that y lands in the image of C but \mathcal{B} still fails to find a preimage of y . Of course, $p \geq 0$, and [Lemma 2.20](#) tells us that $p < 1/\alpha$. Therefore,

$$1 - \varepsilon^\Delta \leq \Pr[E] < 1 - (\varepsilon - 1/\alpha)^\Delta.$$

(Here, we are using our choice of Δ as an odd integer to conclude that the inequality holds even if $1/\alpha > \varepsilon$.) It follows that

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[\mathcal{A} \text{ fails}] &= \Pr[\mathcal{A} \text{ fails and } E] + \Pr[\mathcal{A} \text{ fails and not } E] \\ &< (1 - (\varepsilon - 1/\alpha)^\Delta) \cdot \Pr[\mathcal{A} \text{ fails} \mid E] + \varepsilon^\Delta \cdot \Pr[\mathcal{A} \text{ fails} \mid \text{not } E] \\ &\leq (1 - (\varepsilon - 1/\alpha)^\Delta) \cdot \Pr[\mathcal{A} \text{ fails} \mid E] + 2(1 - \varepsilon) \cdot \varepsilon^\Delta, \end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

where the last line uses the fact that⁴

$$\Pr[\mathcal{A} \text{ fails} \mid \text{not } E] \leq 2(1 - \varepsilon).$$

It remains to bound the probability that \mathcal{A} fails conditioned on E , i.e., conditioned on outputting inside the loop. We have

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[\mathcal{A} \text{ succeeds} \mid E] &= \Pr_{y \sim \{0,1\}^n}[y \notin \text{Im}(C) \mid C(\mathcal{B}(1^\kappa, C, y)) \neq y] \\ &= \frac{1 - \varepsilon}{\Pr_{y \sim \{0,1\}^n}[C(\mathcal{B}(1^\kappa, C, y)) \neq y]} \\ &= \frac{1 - \varepsilon}{1 - \varepsilon + p} \\ &> \frac{1 - \varepsilon}{1 - \varepsilon + 1/\alpha}, \end{aligned}$$

⁴To see this, note that $\Pr[\mathcal{A} \text{ fails} \mid \text{not } E] = \Pr_{x \sim \{0,1\}^n}[\exists x' : x' \neq x, C(x) = C(x')]$, and let δ denote this quantity. For δ fraction of the inputs, they each have to collide with at least one other input, whereas the remaining $1 - \delta$ fraction of the inputs have unique images. Thus, the image size $|\text{Im}(C)| = 2^n \varepsilon$ is at most $2^n (\frac{\delta}{2} + (1 - \delta))$. Rearranging then yields the fact that $\delta \leq 2(1 - \varepsilon)$.

where the last line again uses [Lemma 2.20](#). So,

$$\Pr[\mathcal{A} \text{ fails} \mid E] < 1 - \frac{1 - \varepsilon}{1 - \varepsilon + 1/\alpha} = \frac{1}{1 + (1 - \varepsilon)\alpha}.$$

Plugging back in to [Equation \(2\)](#), we see that

$$\Pr[\mathcal{A} \text{ fails}] < \frac{1 - (\varepsilon - 1/\alpha)^\Delta}{1 + (1 - \varepsilon)\alpha} + 2(1 - \varepsilon) \cdot \varepsilon^\Delta.$$

The result then follows by noting that each of the terms on the right-hand side above is bounded by $1/(4\gamma)$. In particular, for $\varepsilon \geq 1 - 1/(8\gamma\Delta) \geq 1 - 1/(4\gamma\Delta) + 1/\alpha$, the first term is bounded by

$$\frac{1 - (\varepsilon - 1/\alpha)^\Delta}{1 + (1 - \varepsilon)\alpha} \leq 1 - \left(1 - \frac{1}{4\gamma\Delta}\right)^\Delta \leq \frac{1}{4\gamma},$$

while for $\varepsilon < 1 - 1/(8\gamma\Delta)$, we have

$$\frac{1 - (\varepsilon - 1/\alpha)^\Delta}{1 + (1 - \varepsilon)\alpha} \leq \frac{1 + 1/\alpha^\Delta}{1 + \alpha/(8\gamma\Delta)} < \frac{2}{1 + 1000\gamma^3/(8\gamma \cdot (10\gamma + 1))} < \frac{1}{4\gamma},$$

as needed. On the other hand, the second term is maximized when $\varepsilon = \Delta/(\Delta + 1)$, in which case it is equal to

$$2 \left(1 - \frac{\Delta}{\Delta + 1}\right) \left(\frac{\Delta}{\Delta + 1}\right)^\Delta \leq \frac{2}{\Delta + 1} \leq \frac{1}{4\gamma},$$

as needed. □

5 AffineAvoid to Minicrypt

In this section we show that the hardness of `AffineAvoid` implies the existence of weak one-way functions.

Theorem 5.1. *Suppose $(1, \log \log n)$ -AffineAvoid is weakly hard on average with generator `Gen`, then there exists a generator `Gen'` that samples weak one-way circuits.*

Combining the above with [Theorems 2.18](#) and [3.6](#) immediately implies the following, which is the formal version of [Theorem 1.2](#).

Corollary 5.2. *For any efficiently computable $\ell := \ell(n) \geq 1$, if $(\ell(n), \ell(n) + \log \log n)$ -AffineAvoid is weakly hard on average with some generator, then (standard) one-way functions exist.*

Proof of Theorem 5.1. Let `Gen`(1^γ) output circuits $C: \{0, 1\}^{n(\gamma)} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{n(\gamma)+1}$. Since `Gen` is efficiently computable, $n(\gamma) \leq \gamma^c$ for some constant integer $c \geq 1$ and all large enough γ . For any $\kappa > 0$, we define `Gen'`(1^κ) := `Gen`(1^γ) for $\gamma := \gamma(\kappa) = \lfloor \kappa^{1/(c+3)} \rfloor$. Notice that this choice of γ satisfies

$$1000n(\gamma) \log(n(\gamma)) \gamma^2 \log(4\gamma) \leq \kappa$$

for all sufficiently large κ .

Since **Gen** outputs a circuit $C : \{0, 1\}^{n(\gamma)} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{n(\gamma)+1}$ which is an instance of $(1, \log \log n(\gamma))$ -**AffineAvoid**, **Gen'** outputs a circuit $C : \{0, 1\}^{n'(\kappa)} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{n'(\kappa)+1}$ where $n'(\kappa) := n(\gamma(k))$.

We claim that **Gen'** samples a weak one-way circuit. If not, there is a PPT algorithm \mathcal{B} such that for infinitely many κ ,

$$\Pr_{C \leftarrow \text{Gen}'(1^\kappa), x \sim \{0, 1\}^n} [x' \leftarrow \mathcal{B}(1^\kappa, C, C(x)), C(x') = C(x)] > 1 - 1/\kappa.$$

We claim that **Algorithm 2** solves average-case $(1, \log \log n(\gamma))$ -**AffineAvoid** on the distribution produced by **Gen**(1^γ) with probability at least $1 - 1/\gamma$.

Algorithm 2: **AffineAvoid**(C, κ)

Set $d := \log \log n$;
Do $\Delta := 2n \log(4\gamma)$ **times**
 Sample $s, v_1, \dots, v_d \sim \{0, 1\}^{n+1}$;
 Set $Q = s + \text{span}(v_1, \dots, v_d)$;
 if $\dim(Q) = d$ and $\forall y \in Q, C(\mathcal{B}(1^\kappa, C, y)) \neq y$ **then**
 | Output s, v_1, \dots, v_d ;
 end
end

We call this algorithm \mathcal{A} . Clearly, the algorithm runs in polynomial time. Now, we provide a proof of correctness. Let $n := n(\gamma), \kappa := 1000n \log(n)\gamma^2 \log(4\gamma), \alpha := 10n \log(n)\gamma \log(4\gamma)$ and let $\Delta := 2n \log(4\gamma)$. Further, let S be the set of circuits C that satisfy

$$\Pr_{x \sim \{0, 1\}^n} [x' \leftarrow \mathcal{B}(1^\kappa, C, C(x)), C(x') = C(x)] > 1 - 1/\alpha. \quad (3)$$

By **Lemma 2.19**,

$$\Pr_{C \sim \text{Gen}(1^\gamma)} [\mathcal{A} \text{ solves AffineAvoid on } C] \geq (1 - \alpha/\kappa) \cdot \Pr[\mathcal{A} \text{ solves AffineAvoid on } C \mid C \in S].$$

It remains to show that for each $C \in S$, \mathcal{A} solves $(1, \log \log n)$ -**AffineAvoid** on C with probability at least $(1 - 1/\gamma)/(1 - \alpha/\kappa)$. Due to the choice of $\alpha/\kappa = 1/(100\gamma)$, it suffices to show that \mathcal{A} is successful on C with probability at least $1 - 1/(2\gamma) \geq (1 - 1/\gamma)/(1 - \alpha/\kappa)$.

Let $d = \log \log n$, and $C \in S$ be a fixed circuit. For $1 \leq i \leq \Delta$, let E_i be the event where \mathcal{A} outputs an affine subspace in the i th iteration of the loop. Then by the union bound,

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[\mathcal{A} \text{ fails}] &\leq \sum_{i=1}^{\Delta} \Pr[\mathcal{A} \text{ fails and } E_i] + \Pr[\mathcal{A} \text{ fails and } \neg E_1, \dots, \neg E_\Delta] \\ &\leq \Delta \Pr[\mathcal{A} \text{ fails and } E_1] + \Pr[\neg E_1, \dots, \neg E_\Delta]. \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

An affine subspace Q is a solution to **AffineAvoid** if $\dim(Q) = d$ and $Q \cap \text{Im}(C) = \emptyset$. From **Lemma 2.23**, we know that for a random choice of s, v_1, \dots, v_d , the affine subspace $Q = s + \text{span}(v_1, \dots, v_d)$ is a solution with probability at least $1/(2n)$. Moreover, if Q is a solution, then

\mathcal{A} outputs it. Therefore, from [Lemma 2.23](#), the probability of not sampling such a Q in Δ trials is at most

$$\Pr[\neg E_1, \dots, \neg E_\Delta] \leq (1 - 1/(2n))^\Delta. \quad (5)$$

It remains to bound the probability $\Pr[\mathcal{A} \text{ fails and } E_1]$. This is the probability that \mathcal{A} samples an affine subspace Q such that $\dim(Q) = d$, $Q \cap \text{Im}(C) \neq \emptyset$, and the one-way function inverter \mathcal{B} fails to invert on each point from $Q \cap \text{Im}(C)$.

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[\mathcal{A} \text{ fails and } E_1] &\leq \Pr_{Q, \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B}}[Q \cap \text{Im}(C) \neq \emptyset \text{ and } \forall y \in Q \cap \text{Im}(C) : C(\mathcal{B}(1^\kappa, C, y)) \neq y] \\ &\leq \sum_{y \in \text{Im}(C)} \Pr_Q[y \in Q] \cdot \Pr_{\mathcal{B}}[C(\mathcal{B}(1^\kappa, C, y)) \neq y] \\ &\leq \frac{2^d}{2^{n+1}} \cdot \sum_{y \in \text{Im}(C)} \Pr_{\mathcal{B}}[C(\mathcal{B}(1^\kappa, C, y)) \neq y] \\ &= 2^d \cdot \Pr_{y, \mathcal{B}}[C(\mathcal{B}(1^\kappa, C, y)) \neq y \text{ and } y \in \text{Im}(C)] \\ &\leq 2^{d-1} \cdot \Pr_x[x' \leftarrow \mathcal{B}(1^\kappa, C, C(x)), C(x') \neq C(x)] \\ &\leq \log n / (2\alpha), \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

where the penultimate inequality follows from [Lemma 2.20](#), and the last inequality uses $d = \log \log n$ and that C satisfies [Equation \(3\)](#).

Using [Equations \(4\) to \(6\)](#), we can now bound the failure probability of \mathcal{A} as follows,

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[\mathcal{A} \text{ fails}] &\leq \Delta \log n / (2\alpha) + (1 - 1/(2n))^\Delta \\ &\leq \Delta \log n / (2\alpha) + e^{-\Delta/2n} \\ &\leq 1/(10\gamma) + 1/(4\gamma) \\ &< 1/(2\gamma), \end{aligned}$$

where the penultimate inequality follows from $\Delta = 2n \log(4\gamma)$ and $\alpha = 10n \log(n)\gamma \log(4\gamma)$. This finishes the proof of the theorem. \square

6 Avoid and Kolmogorov Complexity

In this section, we prove [Theorems 6.1](#) and [6.2](#) which are the formal versions of [Theorems 1.4](#) and [1.5](#), respectively. Specifically, in [Section 6.1](#), we provide an FZPP algorithm that solves [Avoid](#) using an (a, b) -GapMck^{t,∞P} oracle for appropriate a , b , and t . Similarly, in [Section 6.2](#), we provide an FZPP algorithm that solves [Avoid](#) using a γ -GapMKtP oracle. (See [Section 2.3](#) for the definitions of (a, b) -GapMck^{t,∞P} and γ -GapMKtP.)

6.1 Avoid to GapMck^{t,∞P}

Theorem 6.1. *For any $s := s(n) \geq 1$ and $g(n) > n + s(n)$, there is an FZPP reduction from s -Avoid on circuits of size $g(n)$ to (a, b) -GapMck^{t,∞P} for $a \leq n + O(1)$, $b \geq n + s(n) - 2$, and $t \leq \text{poly}(g(n))$.*

Proof. Let \mathcal{O} be an oracle for (a, b) -GapMCK^{t,∞}P. Notice that $\mathcal{O}(x, y)$ outputs 0 only if $K^t(y|x) > a$.

Algorithm 3: Avoid(C)

```

Sample  $y \sim \{0, 1\}^{n+s}$  ;
if  $\mathcal{O}(C, y) = 0$  then
  | Output  $y$ ;
end
else
  | Repeat the procedure;
end

```

We present the reduction in [Algorithm 3](#). First, we prove the correctness of the reduction. For this, we show that for every $z \in \text{Im}(C)$, $K^t(z|C) \leq n + O(1)$. This is achieved by hard coding the n -bit input x and evaluating $C(x) = z$ in $\text{poly}(|C|) = \text{poly}(g(n))$ steps. Hence, any string y that is output by the reduction is not in the image of C .

It remains to prove that the reduction runs in expected polynomial time. For this, we show that the algorithm retries a constant number of times in expectation. Since y is chosen uniformly at random, [Lemma 2.15](#) states that $K^\infty(y|C) \geq n + s - 2$ with probability at least $1/2$. Thus, the reduction uses at most 2 attempts in expectation before finding a desired y . \square

6.2 Avoid to GapMKtP

Theorem 6.2. *Let $s, g: \mathbb{Z}_{>0} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ be functions and $\gamma: \mathbb{Z}_{>0} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ be a non-decreasing function such that $s(n) = \omega(\log g(n))$ and*

$$\gamma(2g(n)^2) < s(n)/4.$$

Then $s(n)$ -Avoid on circuits of size $g(n)$ is in $\text{FZPP}^{\gamma\text{-GapMKtP}}$.

Note that we chose to present a relatively simple form of [Theorem 6.2](#), instead of attempting to present the strongest version of this theorem that we know how to prove. (E.g., a careful reading of our proof shows that it suffices to take $s \geq C \log g$ for some constant $C > 0$ that depends on the specific universal Turing machine used to define GapMKtP, and that it suffices to take γ such that $\gamma((s+n) \cdot g + C \log g) < s - C \log g$.)

One interesting setting of the parameters of [Theorem 6.2](#) is where the approximation guarantee of the GapMKtP oracle is $\gamma(k) = O(\log k)$. In this case, for circuits of polynomial size $g(n) = \text{poly}(n)$, the stretch in [Theorem 6.2](#) can be taken as low as $s = \omega(\log n)$. Also, for circuits of unrestricted size⁵, the stretch in [Theorem 6.2](#) is only $s = \omega(n)$.

Corollary 6.3. *Let $c > 0$ be an arbitrary constant, and $\gamma(k) = c \log k$. Then*

- *for any $s(n) = \omega(\log n)$, s -Avoid on circuits of polynomial size is in $\text{FZPP}^{\gamma\text{-GapMKtP}}$; and*
- *for any $s(n) = \omega(n)$, s -Avoid $\in \text{FZPP}^{\gamma\text{-GapMKtP}}$.*

⁵Without loss of generality, we can assume that the circuit size $g \leq 2^n$ as otherwise Avoid can be trivially solved in time linear in the input size.

Proof of Theorem 6.2. If the number of gates g is smaller than the number of outputs $n + s$, then some pair of the outputs computes the same function, and it is therefore trivial to solve **Avoid** on such circuits. Thus, in the following we assume that $g \geq n + s$, and, in particular, that $g(n)$ is unbounded.

Let \mathcal{O} be an oracle for γ -GapMkTP. For a string z of length ℓ , we will use \mathcal{O} to compute $\text{apxKt}(z)$ such that $\text{Kt}(z) \leq \text{apxKt}(z) < \text{Kt}(z) + \gamma(\ell)$. To do this using $O(\ell)$ calls to \mathcal{O} , we simply output the highest value $i \in [\ell + O(\log \ell)]$ for which $\mathcal{O}(z, i)$ outputs 1. (Note that Kt of a string of length ℓ is bounded from above by $\ell + O(\log \ell)$.)

We describe our reduction's behavior on input a circuit $C : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{n+s}$ of size g in **Algorithm 4** below.

Algorithm 4: **Avoid**(C)

```

Sample  $y_1, y_2, \dots, y_g \sim \{0, 1\}^{n+s}$ ;
 $k_0 \leftarrow \text{apxKt}(C)$ ;
for  $i \in \{1, \dots, g\}$  do
  |  $k_i \leftarrow \text{apxKt}(C \circ y_1 \circ \dots \circ y_i)$ ;
end
if  $\exists i \in [g]$  s.t.  $k_{i+1} - k_i \geq n + s/2$  then
  | Output  $y_{i+1}$ ;
end
else
  | Repeat the procedure;
end

```

We first prove a basic fact about the k_i . To that end, note that for every $i \in [g + 1]$,

$$|C \circ y_1 \circ \dots \circ y_i| \leq g + i \cdot (n + s) \leq g + g \cdot (n + s) \leq 3g^2/2,$$

where we have used that $n + s \leq g$ and $g \leq g^2/2$ for large enough n . Thus, using the fact that $\gamma(2g(n)^2) < s(n)/4$ and that γ is non-decreasing, we have that

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma(\text{Kt}(C \circ y_1 \circ \dots \circ y_i)) &\leq \gamma(|C \circ y_1 \circ \dots \circ y_i| + O(\log(|C \circ y_1 \circ \dots \circ y_i|))) \\ &\leq \gamma(3g^2/2 + O(\log(3g^2/2))) \\ &\leq \gamma(2g^2) \\ &< s/4. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, for every $i \in [g]$,

$$\begin{aligned} k_{i+1} - k_i &\leq \text{Kt}(C \circ y_1 \circ \dots \circ y_{i+1}) + \gamma(\text{Kt}(C \circ y_1 \circ \dots \circ y_{i+1})) - \text{Kt}(C \circ y_1 \circ \dots \circ y_i) \\ &< \text{Kt}(C \circ y_1 \circ \dots \circ y_{i+1}) - \text{Kt}(C \circ y_1 \circ \dots \circ y_i) + s/4. \end{aligned} \tag{7}$$

Next, we prove the correctness of the algorithm. Notice that given the description of C , every string y_{i+1} from the image of C can be described using n bits (namely, a preimage of y_{i+1}), and computed in time $\tilde{O}(g)$. Thus, for every $y_{i+1} \in \text{Im}(C)$,

$$\text{Kt}(y_{i+1}|C) \leq n + O(\log g). \tag{8}$$

In particular, if $y_{i+1} \in \text{Im}(C)$, then

$$\begin{aligned}
k_{i+1} - k_i &< \text{Kt}(C \circ y_1 \circ \dots \circ y_{i+1}) - \text{Kt}(C \circ y_1 \circ \dots \circ y_i) + s/4 \\
&\leq \text{Kt}(y_{i+1}|C \circ y_1 \circ \dots \circ y_i) + \text{Kt}(C \circ y_1 \circ \dots \circ y_i) - \text{Kt}(C \circ y_1 \circ \dots \circ y_i) + s/4 + O(\log g) \\
&= \text{Kt}(y_{i+1}|C \circ y_1 \circ \dots \circ y_i) + s/4 + O(\log g) \\
&\leq \text{Kt}(y_{i+1}|C) + s/4 + O(\log g) \\
&< n + s/4 + O(\log g) \\
&< n + s/2,
\end{aligned}$$

where the first inequality is by Equation (7), the second inequality uses Lemma 2.12, the penultimate inequality is by Equation (8), and the last inequality is due to $s = \omega(\log g)$. Therefore, any string y_{i+1} that is output by the algorithm is not in the image of C .

It remains to prove that the algorithm runs in expected polynomial time. For this, we show that the algorithm retries a constant number of times in expectation.

Since y_1, \dots, y_g are chosen randomly, Lemma 2.13 states that $\text{Kt}(y_1 \circ \dots \circ y_g) \geq g \cdot (n + s) - O(\log g)$ with probability at least $1 - 1/\text{poly}(n) \geq 1/2$. It follows by Lemma 2.14 that with probability at least $1/2$,

$$\text{Kt}(C \circ y_1 \circ \dots \circ y_g) \geq \text{Kt}(y_1 \circ \dots \circ y_g) - O(\log g) \geq g \cdot (n + s) - O(\log g). \quad (9)$$

When Equation (9) holds, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
\sum_{i=0}^{g-1} (\text{Kt}(C \circ y_1 \circ \dots \circ y_{i+1}) - \text{Kt}(C \circ y_1 \circ \dots \circ y_i)) &= \text{Kt}(C \circ y_1 \circ \dots \circ y_g) - \text{Kt}(C) \\
&\geq g \cdot (n + s) - O(\log g) - \text{Kt}(C).
\end{aligned}$$

It follows that when Equation (9) holds, there must exist some $i \in [g]$ such that

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{Kt}(C \circ y_1 \circ \dots \circ y_{i+1}) - \text{Kt}(C \circ y_1 \circ \dots \circ y_i) &\geq \frac{\text{Kt}(C \circ y_1 \circ \dots \circ y_g) - \text{Kt}(C)}{g} \\
&\geq (n + s) - \frac{O(\log g)}{g} - \frac{\text{Kt}(C)}{g} \\
&\geq n + s - O(\log g) \\
&\geq n + 3s/4,
\end{aligned}$$

where the penultimate inequality holds due to the fact that $\text{Kt}(C) \leq O(g \log g)$ (as a circuit with g gates can be described using $O(g \log g)$ bits), and the last inequality uses the fact that $s = \omega(\log g)$.

We conclude that with probability at least $1/2$, there exists an i such that

$$k_{i+1} - k_i \geq \text{Kt}(C \circ y_1 \circ \dots \circ y_{i+1}) - \text{Kt}(C \circ y_1 \circ \dots \circ y_i) - \gamma(2g^2) \geq n + 3s/4 - s/4 \geq n + s/2.$$

Thus, the algorithm uses at most 2 attempts in expectation before finding a desired y_{i+1} . \square

7 Hardness of hardness

Lastly, we show barriers to proving hardness of **Avoid**. Specifically, we show that if there is a randomized reduction from any problem $A \in \text{FNP}$ to **Avoid**, then $A \in \text{FZPP}$. (Here, we say $A \in \text{FZPP}$ for a search problem A if there is a randomized algorithm \mathcal{B} for A such that, whenever there exists a solution to an instance I_A , \mathcal{B} will output a valid solution in expected polynomial time. We impose no restrictions on \mathcal{B} when I_A has no solutions—e.g., it might not terminate.)

Theorem 7.1. *For any constant $c > 0$, any $s := s(\ell) \geq 1$, and any $q := q(\ell) \geq 1$ satisfying $(1 - 2^{-s})^q \geq 1/\ell^c$ for all large enough ℓ , if there exists a (possibly randomized) polynomial-time reduction from a search problem $A \in \text{FNP}$ to **Avoid** that on input an instance of A with size ℓ makes at most $q(\ell)$ calls to an **Avoid** oracle on circuits with stretch at least $s(\ell)$, then $A \in \text{FZPP}$.*

Proof. Let $A \in \text{FNP}$, and let $\mathcal{B}^{\text{Avoid}}$ be the randomized polynomial-time reduction that makes at most q queries to its **Avoid** oracle. Let $p := p(\ell) \geq 1/\text{poly}(\ell)$ be a lower bound on the success probability of $\mathcal{B}^{\text{Avoid}}$ on inputs with length ℓ .

We now give an algorithm \mathcal{D} that solves any instance I_A of A for which there exists a solution in expected polynomial time. The algorithm \mathcal{D} on input I_A with size ℓ behaves as follows:

1. Simulate $\mathcal{B}^{\text{Avoid}}(I_A)$.
2. Whenever $\mathcal{B}^{\text{Avoid}}(I_A)$ makes a query to its **Avoid** oracle **Avoid** for a circuit $C : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{n+s'}$ for $s' \geq s$, \mathcal{D} simulates the oracle's response with a uniformly random string of length $n + s'$.
3. When $\mathcal{B}^{\text{Avoid}}(I_A)$ terminates and outputs a string w_A , \mathcal{D} checks whether w_A is indeed a valid solution of I_A (which can be done efficiently because $A \in \text{FNP}$).
4. If it is, \mathcal{D} outputs w_A . Otherwise, it restarts.

It is clear that the algorithm \mathcal{D} only ever outputs correct solutions w_A . Thus, it suffices to show that algorithm \mathcal{D} runs in expected polynomial time on inputs I_A that have a valid solution. We do this by first bounding the probability that \mathcal{D} succeeds in finding a valid witness string w_A in a single run of the loop above.

By definition, our simulation of $\mathcal{B}^{\text{Avoid}}(I_A)$ must succeed with probability at least p if we solve all of the **Avoid** instances correctly. The probability that a random $(n + s')$ -bit string is in the range of any fixed circuit $C : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{n+s'}$ is at most $2^{-s'} \leq 2^{-s}$. Thus, the probability that we succeed on all q instances is at least $(1 - 2^{-s})^q \geq 1/\ell^c$. And, the success probability of any given instance is therefore at least p/ℓ^c .

Thus, we run at most ℓ^c/p simulations in expectation. Since each simulation runs in polynomial time, \mathcal{D} runs in expected polynomial time as claimed. \square

There are two interesting choices of s and q that yield the following corollaries. By setting $q = 1$, then letting $s \geq 1$:

Corollary 7.2. *If there exists a (randomized) Karp reduction from **FSAT** to **Avoid** (even with stretch 1), then $\text{FZPP} = \text{FNP}$.*

Furthermore, by letting $q = \text{poly}(\ell)$, we can then allow $s = \omega(\log(\ell)) = \omega(\log(n))$.

Corollary 7.3. *If there exists a (randomized) polynomial-time reduction from FSAT to s -Avoid of stretch $s(n) = \omega(\log(n))$, then $\text{FZPP} = \text{FNP}$.*

In both cases, we remark that $\text{FZPP} = \text{FNP}$ would also imply that $\text{NP} = \text{RP}$.

Theorem 7.4. *If $\text{FZPP} = \text{FNP}$, then $\text{NP} = \text{RP}$.*

Proof. Assume that FSAT has an algorithm B such that on satisfiable instances $\phi : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$, $A(\phi)$ takes expected $p(n)$ time to output a satisfying assignment y for some polynomial $p(n)$.

We now give a randomized polynomial time algorithm D that has one-sided error for SAT. On input ϕ , we simulate $B(\phi)$ for $2p(n)$ steps, and if $B(\phi)$ outputs an assignment y , we output $\phi(y)$, otherwise we output 0. Note that this means our algorithm only outputs 1 if y is a satisfying assignment.

Assuming that ϕ is not satisfiable, we will never output 1. So, it suffices to lower bound the probability we output 1 assuming that ϕ is satisfiable. Note that by Markov, the probability that $B(\phi)$ uses more than $2p(n)$ is at most $1/2$. Thus the probability that we output 1 on satisfiable instances ϕ is at least $1/2$. \square

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