#### The Nisan-Wigderson pseudorandom generator (lecture notes)

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#### 1 Pseudorandom generators

Previously, we proved the following theorem, showing that  $AC^0$  circuits do a very poor job of computing or even approximating the parity function.

<span id="page-0-0"></span>**Theorem 1** (Non-optimal bound on the correlation between parity and  $AC^0$ ). If  $C: \{0,1\}^r \to \{0,1\}$  is an  $\mathsf{AC}^0_d$  circuit, then either C has size  $2^{r^{\Omega(1/d)}},$  or else

$$
\Pr_{x \in \{0,1\}^r} [C(x) = \text{PARITY}_r(x)] \le \frac{1}{2} + 2^{-r^{\Omega(1/d)}}.
$$

Next, as an application of [Theorem 1,](#page-0-0) we will construct a *pseudorandom generator* (PRG) that fools  $AC^0$ circuits. That is, we will show how to use a small number of truly random bits to sample a long sequence of bits that "appear random" to any  $AC^0$  circuit. To make this precise, let  $U_n$  denote the uniform distribution over  $\{0,1\}^n$ . A PRG is defined as follows.

**Definition 1** (Distinguishers, fooling, and PRGs). Let X be a distribution over  $\{0,1\}^n$ , and let  $C: \{0,1\}^n \to$  $\{0, 1\}$ . We say that C distinguishes X from  $U_n$  with advantage  $\varepsilon$  if

$$
|\Pr[C(X) = 1] - \Pr[C(U_n) = 1]| > \varepsilon.
$$

Otherwise, we say that X fools C with error  $\varepsilon$ . A pseudorandom generator (PRG) is a function  $G: \{0,1\}^s \to$  $\{0,1\}^n$ . We say that G fools C with error  $\varepsilon$  if  $G(U_s)$  fools C with error  $\varepsilon$ . The parameter s is called the seed length of the PRG.

We will use [Theorem 1](#page-0-0) to prove the following.

<span id="page-0-1"></span>**Theorem 2** (PRG that fools  $AC^0$ ). For every  $n, S, d \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $S \geq n$ , for every  $\varepsilon \in (0, 1)$ , there exists a  $PRG G: \{0,1\}^s \rightarrow \{0,1\}^n$  such that:

- The generator G fools all  $AC_d^0$  circuits of size at most S with error  $\varepsilon$ .
- The seed length is  $s = (\log(S/\varepsilon))^{O(d)}$ .
- Given the parameters  $n, S, d, \varepsilon$  and a seed  $x \in \{0,1\}^s$ , the output  $G(x)$  can be computed in  $\text{poly}(n)$  time.

Other than [Theorem 1,](#page-0-0) the proof of [Theorem 2](#page-0-1) uses barely any facts about  $AC^0$ . That is, the proof technique is a general framework for converting correlation bounds into PRGs, called the "Nisan-Wigderson framework." In these lecture notes, we will focus on the case of  $AC^0$  for simplicity's sake, but you can study a more general formulation of the framework in, for example, Hatami and Hoza's survey [\[HH24\]](#page-3-0).

## 2 Generating unpredictable bits

Our goal is to sample pseudorandom bits that are *indistinguishable* from uniform random bits by  $AC^0$  circuits. First, we will show how to sample pseudorandom bits such that each bit is *unpredictable* by  $AC^0$  circuits that get to see all the previous bits.

**Definition 2** (Next-bit predictors). Let X be a distribution over  $\{0,1\}^n$  and let  $i \in [n]$ . A next-bit predictor for X with advantage  $\varepsilon$  is a function  $C: \{0,1\}^{i-1} \to \{0,1\}$ , for some  $i \in [n]$ , such that

$$
\Pr[C(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_{i-1}) = X_i] > \frac{1}{2} + \varepsilon.
$$

For example, if we define  $G: \{0,1\}^{n-1} \to \{0,1\}^n$  by  $G(x) = (x, x_1 \oplus x_2 \oplus \cdots \oplus x_{n-1})$ , then [Theorem 1](#page-0-0) immediately implies that next-bit predictors for  $G(U_{n-1})$  with non-negligible advantage cannot be computed in  $AC^0$ . To improve the seed length, our approach will be to apply the XOR operation to n different subsets of the seed bits. We will use the following family of subsets.

<span id="page-1-1"></span>**Lemma 1** (Nearly disjoint sets). For every  $r, n \in \mathbb{N}$  with  $r \leq n$ , there exist  $S_1, S_2, \ldots, S_n \subseteq [s]$ , where  $s = O(r^2)$ , such that:

- $|S_1| = |S_2| = \cdots = |S_n| = r$ .
- For every  $i, j \in [n]$  such that  $i \neq j$ , we have  $|S_i \cap S_j| < \log n$ .
- Given r and n, the sets  $S_1, \ldots, S_n$  can be constructed in poly(n) time.

*Proof.* In poly(r) time, we can find a prime number  $p \in [r, 2r]$  via naïve brute-force search. (Such a prime [always exists.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bertrand%27s_postulate)) For each string  $a = (a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_{\log n-1}) \in \{0, 1\}^{\log n} \cong [n]$ , we define

$$
S_a = \{(x, a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \dots + a_{\log n - 1}x^{\log n - 1} \bmod p) : x \in [r]\}.
$$

In other words, if we let  $\mathbb{F}_p$  denote the field of integers modulo p and we define  $P_a \in \mathbb{F}_p[x]$  by  $P_a(x) =$  $a_0 + a_1x + \cdots + a_{\log n-1}x^{\log n-1}$ , then  $S_a = \{(x, P_a(x)) : x \in [r]\}.$ 

Clearly,  $|S_a| = r$ , and  $S_a \subseteq \mathbb{F}_p^2 \cong [p^2]$ . Constructing these sets just involves some simple arithmetic. Finally, if  $a \neq b$ , we have  $|S_a \cap S_b| = |\{x \in [r] : P_a(x) - P_b(x) = 0\}|$ . Over any field, a nonzero degree-D polynomial can have at most D distinct roots.<sup>[1](#page-1-0)</sup> Consequently,  $P_a - P_b$  has at most log n–1 distinct roots.  $\Box$ 

We define  $G: \{0,1\}^s \to \{0,1\}^n$  by the formula

<span id="page-1-3"></span>
$$
G(x) = \left(\bigoplus_{i \in S_1} x_i, \bigoplus_{i \in S_2} x_i, \dots, \bigoplus_{i \in S_n} x_i\right),\tag{1}
$$

where  $S_1, \ldots, S_n \subseteq [s]$  are the sets from [Lemma 1,](#page-1-1) using a value r that we will choose later.

<span id="page-1-4"></span>**Theorem 3** (The NW PRG is unpredictable). Let  $C: \{0,1\}^{j-1} \to \{0,1\}$  be a next-bit predictor for  $G(U_s)$ with advantage  $\varepsilon$ , where G is defined above, and assume that C can be computed by an  $AC_d^0$  circuit of size S. Then either  $S \geq 2^{r^{\Omega(1/d)}} - \text{poly}(n)$  or else  $\varepsilon \leq 2^{-r^{\Omega(1/d)}}$ .

Proof. The definition of next-bit predictors says that

$$
\Pr_{x \in \{0,1\}^s} \left[ C \left( \bigoplus_{i \in S_1} x_i, \dots, \bigoplus_{i \in S_{j-1}} x_i \right) = \bigoplus_{i \in S_j} x_i \right] > \frac{1}{2} + \varepsilon.
$$

The best case is at least as good as the average case, so there is some way of fixing  $x_i$  for all  $i \notin S_j$  such that we preserve the advantage:

<span id="page-1-2"></span>
$$
\Pr_{x \in \{0,1\}^{S_j}} \left[ C \left( \bigoplus_{i \in S_1} x_i, \dots, \bigoplus_{i \in S_{j-1}} x_i \right) = \bigoplus_{i \in S_j} x_i \right] > \frac{1}{2} + \varepsilon. \tag{2}
$$

<span id="page-1-0"></span><sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Proof by induction on D: Let  $x_*$  be a root of a degree-D polynomial P. Perform long division to write  $P(x) = (x-x_*)\cdot P'(x) + c$ for some constant c. Then  $P(x_*) = c$ , so  $c = 0$ , so  $P(x) = (x - x_*) \cdot P'(x)$ . If  $y_*$  is a root of P with  $y_* \neq x_*$ , then  $y_*$  must be a root of P', because [a product of nonzero field elements is always nonzero.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Field_(mathematics)#Consequences_of_the_definition) By induction, P' has at most  $D-1$  distinct roots.

For each  $k \in [j-1]$ , define  $b_k = \bigoplus_{i \in S_k \setminus S_j} x_i$  (a parity involving only the fixed bits). Define  $C' : \{0,1\}^{S_j} \to$  $\{0,1\}$  by the rule

$$
C'(x) = C\left(b_1 \oplus \bigoplus_{i \in S_1 \cap S_j} x_i, \ldots, b_{j-1} \oplus \bigoplus_{i \in S_{j-1} \cap S_j} x_i\right).
$$

Then [Eq. \(2\)](#page-1-2) implies that  $C'$  correlates with PARITY<sub>r</sub>:

$$
\Pr_{x \in \{0,1\}^{S_j}}[C'(x) = \text{PARITY}_r(x)] > \frac{1}{2} + \varepsilon.
$$

Each XOR operation  $\bigoplus_{i\in S_k\cap S_j}x_i$  can be performed by a polynomial-size brute-force DNF formula, because  $|S_k \cap S_j| < \log n$ . Therefore, C' can be computed by an  $AC_{d+2}^0$  circuit of size  $S + \text{poly}(n)$ . Consequently, by [Theorem 1,](#page-0-0) either  $\varepsilon \leq 2^{-r^{\Omega(1/d)}}$ , or else  $S \geq 2^{r^{\Omega(1/d)}}$  – poly $(n)$ .  $\Box$ 

### 3 Yao's distinguisher-to-predictor lemma

The last ingredient in the proof of [Theorem 2](#page-0-1) is the following lemma. We specialize to the case of  $AC^0$ circuits only for simplicity's sake.

<span id="page-2-1"></span>**Lemma 2** (Yao's distinguisher-to-predictor lemma). Let  $n, d, S \in \mathbb{N}$  and let  $\varepsilon \in (0, 1)$ . Let X be a random variable distributed over  $\{0,1\}^n$ , and assume there exists an  $AC_d^0$  circuit C of size S that distinguishes X from U<sub>n</sub> with advantage  $\varepsilon$ . Then there exists a next-bit predictor for X with advantage  $\varepsilon/(2n)$  that is computable by an  $AC_d^0$  circuit of size S.

*Proof.* The first step is a hybrid argument. Sample  $R \sim U_n$  independently of X. For each  $i \in \{0, 1, \ldots, n\}$ , define

$$
Y^{(i)} = X_1 X_2 \dots X_i R_{i+1} R_{i+2} \dots R_n,
$$

so  $Y^{(0)} = R$  and  $Y^{(n)} = X$ . Then by the triangle inequality,

$$
\varepsilon < |\Pr[C(R) = 1] - \Pr[C(X) = 1]| \le \sum_{i=1}^{n} |\Pr[C(Y^{(i-1)}) = 1] - \Pr[C(Y^{(i)}) = 1]|.
$$

Consequently, there is some  $i \in [n]$  such that

$$
|\Pr[C(Y^{(i-1)}) = 1] - \Pr[C(Y^{(i)}) = 1]| > \frac{\varepsilon}{n}.
$$

By flipping the output bit if necessary, we can assume without loss of generality that

<span id="page-2-0"></span>
$$
\Pr[C(Y^{(i)}) = 1] > \Pr[C(Y^{(i-1)}) = 1] + \frac{\varepsilon}{n}.\tag{3}
$$

Intuitively, [Eq. \(3\)](#page-2-0) says that " $C(x) = 1$ " is a signal suggesting that the first i bits of x were sampled from the distribution X. This intuition suggests the following randomized next-bit predictor: Given  $X_1, \ldots, X_{i-1}$ :

- 1. Sample  $R \sim U_n$ .
- 2. If  $C(X_1X_2...X_{i-1}R_iR_{i+1}...R_n) = 1$ , then output  $R_i$ .
- 3. Otherwise, sample  $Z \in \{0,1\}$  uniformly at random, and output Z.

Let Success denote the event that the procedure above correctly outputs  $X_i$ . Then

$$
\Pr[\text{Success}] = \Pr[C(Y^{(i-1)}) = 1 \text{ and } R_i = X_i] + \Pr[C(Y^{(i-1)}) = 0 \text{ and } Z = X_i]
$$
  
\n
$$
= \Pr[C(Y^{(i)}) = 1 \text{ and } R_i = X_i] + \Pr[C(Y^{(i-1)}) = 0 \text{ and } Z = X_i]
$$
  
\n
$$
= \frac{1}{2} \cdot \Pr[C(Y^{(i)}) = 1] + \frac{1}{2} \Pr[C(Y^{(i-1)}) = 0]
$$
  
\n
$$
> \frac{1}{2} \cdot \Pr[C(Y^{(i-1)}) = 1] + \frac{\varepsilon}{2n} + \frac{1}{2} \Pr[C(Y^{(i-1)}) = 0]
$$
  
\n
$$
= \frac{1}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2n}.
$$
  
\n(Hdependence)  
\n(*Eq. (3)*)

So far, we have described a randomized next-bit predictor. By averaging, there is some way to fix the internal randomness in the predictor  $(R \text{ and } Z)$  while preserving the advantage. Now we have three cases based on the fixed values of  $R$  and  $Z$ .

- If  $R_i = Z$ , then the predictor is a constant function.
- If  $R_i = 1$  and  $Z = 0$ , then the predictor has the form  $C'(X_1 \dots X_{i-1}) = C(X_1 \dots X_{i-1} R_i \dots R_n)$ .
- If  $R_i = 0$  and  $Z = 1$ , then the predictor has the form  $C'(X_1 \dots X_{i-1}) = 1 C(X_1 \dots X_{i-1} R_i \dots R_n)$ .

 $\Box$ 

In all three cases, the predictor is computable by an  $AC_d^0$  circuit of size at most S.

*Proof of [Theorem 2.](#page-0-1)* Let G be the generator from [Eq. \(1\),](#page-1-3) and suppose there exists an  $AC_d^0$  circuit of size S that distinguishes  $G(U_s)$  from  $U_n$  with advantage  $\varepsilon$ . By [Lemma 2,](#page-2-1) there exists a next-bit predictor for  $G(U_s)$  with advantage  $\varepsilon/(2n)$ , computable by an  $AC_d^0$  circuit of size S. By [Theorem 3,](#page-1-4) this implies that either  $S \geq 2^{r^{\Omega(1/d)}} - \text{poly}(n)$  or else  $\varepsilon/(2n) \leq 2^{-r^{\Omega(1/d)}}$ . Either way, we get  $r \leq r_* = (\log(S/\varepsilon))^{O(d)}$ . Taking a contrapositive, we have shown that if construct G using  $r = r_* + 1$ , then G fools  $AC_d^0$  circuits of size S with error  $\varepsilon$ . This generator is clearly computable in poly $(n)$  time, and furthermore, it has seed length  $s = O(r^2) = (\log(S/\varepsilon))^{O(d)}.$  $\Box$ 

# References

<span id="page-3-0"></span>[HH24] Pooya Hatami and William Hoza. "Paradigms for Unconditional Pseudorandom Generators". In: Foundations and Trends in Theoretical Computer Science 16.1-2 (2024), pp. 1–210. issn: 1551-305X. doi: [10.1561/0400000109](https://doi.org/10.1561/0400000109).