Unconditional Lower Bounds \& Derandomization
Lecture 2: January 23, 2024
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## 1 Introduction

### 1.1 Last time

- Overview of some restricted computational models that we will consider
- Defined worst-case lower bounds, average-case lower bounds, and PRGs
- Proved that PRGs imply worst-case lower bounds


### 1.2 Today

- Finish overview: prove that PRGs imply average-case lower bounds
- Deterministic Approximate Counting
- Start unit on Boolean formulas; prove various worst-case lower bounds


### 1.3 Notation Conventions

- $a \approx_{\varepsilon} b$ means $|a-b| \leq \varepsilon$
- $\mathcal{U}_{s}$ means uniform distribution over $\{0,1\}^{s}$ or $\{-1,1\}^{s}$
- $\mathbb{E}[f]$ means $\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{U} \sim \mathcal{U}_{n}}[f(\mathbf{U})]$
- Use bold to denote random variables, e.g., $\mathbb{E}[f(\mathbf{U})]$


## 2 Overview (continued)

Lemma 1. ( $P R G \Rightarrow$ average-case lower bounds)
Let $\mathcal{C}$ be a class of functions $f:\{0,1\}^{n} \mapsto\{0,1\}$ that is closed under restrictions. Note that all classes that we will consider satisfy this natural condition.
Let $G:\{0,1\}^{s} \mapsto\{0,1\}^{n}$ be an $\varepsilon-P R G$ for $\mathcal{C}$, where $s<n, \varepsilon<1 / 2$.
Let $r=s+\log \frac{1}{\varepsilon}$, and assume $r \leq n$.
Define function $h:\{0,1\}^{r} \mapsto\{0,1\}$ that outputs 1 on $x$ if and only if some string in the range of $G$ starts with $x$ :

$$
h(x)=1 \Longleftrightarrow \exists y \in\{0,1\}^{s}, z \in\{0,1\}^{n-r} \text { such that } G(y)=(x, z)
$$

Let $\mathcal{C}^{\prime}$ be all restrictions of functions in $\mathcal{C}$, by fixing the last $n-r$ bits, leaving the first $r$ bits alive.
Let $\mathcal{D}=\frac{1}{2} \mathcal{U}_{r}+\frac{1}{2} G\left(\mathcal{U}_{s}\right)_{1 \ldots r}$, which is a distribution constructed by a balanced convex combination of the distributions $\mathcal{U}_{r}$ and $G\left(\mathcal{U}_{s}\right)_{1 \ldots r}$.
Then, $h$ is $\varepsilon$-hard for $\mathcal{C}^{\prime}$ with regard to $\mathcal{D}$.
Proof. Let $\mathbf{U} \sim \mathcal{U}_{r}, \mathbf{U}^{\prime} \sim \mathcal{U}_{s}$. Fix any $f \in \mathcal{C}^{\prime}$, and by definition of $\mathcal{C}^{\prime}$, we know that $f(x)=f_{0}(x, a)$ for some $f_{0} \in \mathcal{C}, a \in\{0,1\}^{n-r}$. Then,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Pr}_{\mathbf{X} \sim \mathcal{D}}[f(\mathbf{X})=h(\mathbf{X})] & =\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Pr}[f(\mathbf{U})=h(\mathbf{U})]+\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Pr}\left[f\left(G\left(\mathbf{U}^{\prime}\right)_{1 \ldots r}\right)=h\left(G\left(\mathbf{U}^{\prime}\right)_{1 \ldots r}\right)\right] \\
& =\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Pr}[f(\mathbf{U})=h(\mathbf{U})]+\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Pr}\left[f\left(G\left(\mathbf{U}^{\prime}\right)_{1 \ldots r}\right)=1\right] \\
& \leq \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Pr}[f(\mathbf{U})=0]+\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Pr}[h(\mathbf{U})=1]+\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Pr}\left[f\left(G\left(\mathbf{U}^{\prime}\right)_{1 \ldots r}\right)=1\right] \\
& \leq \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Pr}[f(\mathbf{U})=0]+\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Pr}[h(\mathbf{U})=1]+\frac{1}{2}(\operatorname{Pr}[f(\mathbf{U})=1]+\varepsilon) \\
& =\frac{1}{2}+\frac{\varepsilon+\mathbb{E}[h]}{2} \\
& \leq \frac{1}{2}+\varepsilon .
\end{aligned}
$$

The first inequality follows by upper bounding $\operatorname{Pr}[f(\mathbf{U})=h(\mathbf{U})=0]$ and $\operatorname{Pr}[f(\mathbf{U})=$ $h(\mathbf{U})=1]$. The second inequality uses the fact $G \varepsilon$-fools $f$ because $f \in \mathcal{C}^{\prime} \subseteq \mathcal{C}$ and $G$ $\varepsilon$-fools $\mathcal{C}$. The last inequality follows because $h$ outputs 1 on $2^{s}$ out of $2^{r}=2^{s+\log \frac{1}{\varepsilon}}=\frac{2^{s}}{\varepsilon}$ inputs, so $\mathbb{E}[h] \leq \varepsilon$.
$\operatorname{Pr}_{\mathbf{X} \sim \mathcal{D}}[f(\mathbf{X})=h(\mathbf{X})] \geq \frac{1}{2}-\varepsilon$ can be proven similarly.
With Lemma 1 and previous results, we haven shown a hierarchy of lower bounds:
PRG $\Longrightarrow$ Average-Case Lower Bounds $\Longrightarrow$ Worst-Case Lower Bounds

## 3 Deterministic Approximate Counting

So far, we have considered PRGs, which are useful because they let us derandomize obliviously. PRGs are oblivious in the sense that the $2^{s}$ many $n$-bit outputs fool every $f \in \mathcal{C}$ without knowing $f$ explicitly. However, for most natural scenarios that we are interested in, we do know $f$ explicitly. Then, we could conceivably use this knowledge to aid the derandomization process, which leads us to the concept of Deterministic Approximate Counters (DAC).

Definition 2. ( $D A C$ )
Let $\mathcal{C}$ be a class of representations of functions $\{0,1\}^{n} \mapsto\{0,1\}$.
An algorithm is an $\varepsilon$-DAC for $\mathcal{C}$ if on any input $F \in \mathcal{C}$, it deterministically outputs a value in

$$
[\mathbb{E}[f(\mathbf{U})-\varepsilon, \mathbb{E}[f(\mathbf{U})+\varepsilon] .
$$

Fact 3. $D A C$ is weaker than $P R G$, but it still suffices for derandomization. So, if there is a poly $(n)$-time $(\varepsilon=0.1)$-DAC for $\mathcal{C}=\{$ all poly $(n)$-size circuits $\}$, then $P=B P P$.

Fact 4. For various classes of functions, the best known $\varepsilon-D A C$ is faster than $2^{s}$ poly $(n)$, where $s$ is the seed length of the best known $\varepsilon-P R G$.

One concrete example classes of functions are CNFs/DNFs: the best known PRG runs in $O\left(n^{\log n}\right)$ time, whereas the best known DAC runs in $O\left(n^{\log \log n}\right)$ time.

## 4 Boolean Formulas

### 4.1 Basics

Definition 5. (Boolean formula)
A De Morgan Boolean formula $F$ is a rooted binary tree with

- leaf nodes (labeled with $x_{i}$ or $\overline{x_{i}}$ )
- internal nodes (labeled with $\vee$ or $\wedge$ )

Definition 6. (Size and depth of Boolean formulas)
Given a Boolean formula $F$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { size }(F) & =\text { number of leaves } \\
& =\text { number of internal nodes }+1 \\
\text { depth }(F) & =\text { length of the longest root-to-leaf path }
\end{aligned}
$$

Remark 1. Without loss of generality, we assume that all negations are at the leaves, since we can always use De Morgan's Law to push negations down to the bottom level.


Figure 1: The example Boolean formula computes the function $f$ in an obvious way: $f\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, x_{4}\right)=x_{4} \wedge\left(\overline{x_{3}} \vee\left(\left(x_{2} \vee x_{3}\right) \wedge \overline{x_{1}}\right)\right.$

Definition 7. (Formula size and formula depth of functions) Given a function $f:\{0,1\}^{n} \mapsto\{0,1\}$,

- Formula size: size $(f)=$ the size of the smallest formula $F$ computing $f$.
- Formula depth: depth $(f)=$ the depth of the shallowest formula $F$ computing $f$.

Remark 2. Sometimes, gates with unbounded fan-in are allowed. This relaxation does not affect the size of the formula, but may affect its depth, as shown in Figure 2.


Figure 2: Allowing gates with unbounded fan-in changes the depth but not the size.
Example 8. (Decision List)
Consider the following decision list function with $n$ variables:

$$
\begin{array}{r}
\quad \text { if } x_{1} \longrightarrow 1 \\
\text { else if } x_{2} \longrightarrow 0 \\
\text { else if } x_{3} \longrightarrow 1 \\
\text { else if } x_{4} \longrightarrow 0
\end{array}
$$

This function is computed by the following Boolean formula $F$ :


It is clear that $\operatorname{size}(F)=n$ and depth $(F)=n$.
For any n-variable decision list function, the size of $O(n)$ is the minimum possible. However, the $O(n)$ depth is not minimal, and there exists a Boolean formula with $O(\log n)$ depth: the given decision list function can be computed by a depth-2 DNF (which has unbounded fan-in), and we can convert such a DNF into a Boolean formula with depth of $2 \log n$ and size of $\Theta\left(n^{2}\right)$.
Example 9. (Parity)
The parity function on $n$ variables is defined as

$$
\operatorname{PAR}_{n}\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i} \bmod 2
$$

We can recursively construct a Boolean formula that computes $\mathrm{PAR}_{n}$ :

where $y=\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{\frac{n}{2}}\right), z=\left(x_{\frac{n}{2}+1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)$.
We can compute the size of the resulting formula inductively. Let $s(i)$ denote the size of a Boolean formula computing $\mathrm{PAR}_{i}$, then $s(1)=1, s(2 i)=4 s(i)$. Hence $s(n)=n^{2}$, which is in fact optimal, i.e., size $\left(\mathrm{PAR}_{n}\right)=\Omega\left(n^{2}\right)$.

The proof of the $\Omega\left(n^{2}\right)$ lower bound is highly non-trivial. In the following sections, we will instead prove a weaker lower bound of $\Omega\left(n^{\frac{3}{2}}\right)$ using techniques that are more relevant for PRGs.
Fact 10. There exist $O(n)$-size Boolean circuits computing $\mathrm{PAR}_{n}$.

### 4.2 Shannon's Lower Bound via Counting Arguments

Idea: The following result uses counting arguments to establish lower bounds for nonexplicit problems. The strategy is to demonstrate that there are many $n$-variable Boolean functions, while there are not too many Boolean formulas with small size. Therefore, some fraction of Boolean functions necessarily have large formula size.

Fact 11. There are $2^{2^{n}}$ many functions $f:\{0,1\}^{n} \mapsto\{0,1\}$ (since each function has $2^{n}$ possible inputs, and has 2 possible output values for each input).

Theorem 12. [Sha49] At least a $1-1 / 2^{n}$ fraction of all functions $f:\{0,1\}^{n} \mapsto\{0,1\}$ have formula size

$$
\operatorname{size}(f) \geq \frac{2^{n}}{2 \log n}
$$

Proof. Let $s=\frac{2^{n}}{2 \log n}$. We will show that the number of Boolean formulas with size $s$ over $n$ variables is much fewer than $2^{2^{n}} / 2^{n}$.

To upper bound the number of possible Boolean formulas with size $s$, it suffices to consider the number of possible specifications of such formulas. Any size-s Boolean formula $F$ can be specified by:
(i) The structure of the binary tree

Since $\operatorname{size}(F)=s, F$ has $s$ leaves and $s-1$ internal nodes. We can describe any such tree as an element of

$$
\{I I, I L, L I, L L\}^{s-1}
$$

where $L$ and $I$ represent internal and leaf node respectively, and each tuple represents the node type of the left and right children. Any tree structure can be unambiguously parsed into a sequence of $s-1$ tuples, by traversing every internal node in an orderly fashion and recording the node types of the current node's children. Therefore, the number of possible tree structures is at most $4^{s-1}$.
(ii) Labels of all nodes

Each internal node can be labeled as $\vee$ or $\wedge$, so there are $2^{s-1}$ possible labelings for the $s-1$ internal nodes.
Each leaf node can be labeled as $x_{i}$ or $\overline{x_{i}}$, for any $i \in[n]$, so there are $(2 n)^{s}$ possible labelings for the $s$ leaf nodes.

Thus, the number of size- $s$ formulas over $n$ variables can be upper bounded by

$$
4^{s-1} \cdot 2^{s-1} \cdot(2 n)^{s} \leq(16 n)^{s}
$$

For $s=\frac{2^{n}}{2 \log n}$ and sufficiently large $n$,

$$
(16 n)^{s}=2^{\log (16 n) \cdot 2^{n} / 2 \log (n)}=2^{\frac{4+\log (n)}{\log (n)} \cdot 2^{n}}<2^{0.51 \cdot 2^{n}} \ll \frac{1}{2^{n}} \cdot 2^{2^{n}}
$$

Therefore, at most a $1-1 / 2^{n}$ fraction of functions have formula size larger than $s$.
Fact 13. For any function $f:\{0,1\}^{n} \mapsto\{0,1\}$, there is a $D N F / C N F$ computing $f$ which has at most $2^{n-1}$ terms/clauses. Since there are at most $n$ literals in each term/clause, we can upper bound its size with by $n 2^{n-1}$.

Homework Problem 1. Extend Theorem 12 to average-case lower bound under $\mathcal{U}_{n}$.
Remark 3. Theorem 12 provides an exponential lower bound for the formula size of almost all functions. However, the lower bound is unsatisfying because it is not explicit: from it, we cannot derive lower bounds for the formula size of explicit functions, such as functions in NP or $P$.

### 4.3 Subbotovskaya's Lower Bound via Random Restrictions

[Sub61] analyzed the effect of random restrictions on Boolean formulas.
Idea: Given a Boolean formula $F$ computing function $f:\{0,1\}^{n} \mapsto\{0,1\}$, we can shrink the size of $F$ by restriction, i.e., randomly and independently set some of the input variables $x_{i}$ to be $0 / 1$, leaving the rest free. Then, we argue that this restriction operation shrinks size $(F)$ by a significant amount. Thus, if the size of the restricted formula is at least 1 , then $\operatorname{size}(F)$ must have been large.
Definition 14. (Restriction)
$A$ restriction (or a partial assignment) is a mapping $\rho:[n] \mapsto\{0,1, *\}$, where we understand $\rho(i)=*$ to mean that $x_{i}$ is left unassigned.

We abuse the notation and also use $\rho \in\{0,1, *\}^{n}$ to denote a specific partial assignment yielded by the mapping $\rho$.

Definition 15. (Restriction of function)
A restriction of function $f$ by $\rho$ is defined as

$$
f \upharpoonright \rho=f(\rho(1), \ldots, \rho(n)) .
$$

Note that $f \upharpoonright \rho$ is a subfunction of $f$, on variables $x_{i}$ for which $\rho(i)=*$.

Example 16. Let $\rho=(1,0,1, *, *, 1)$, and let $f$ be a 6 -variable function.
Then, $f \upharpoonright \rho=f\left(1,0,1, x_{4}, x_{5}, 1\right)$, which is a 2 -variable function.
The restriction can be interpreted as "zooming in" on a subcube of $f$.
Definition 17. Let $\mathcal{R}_{k}$ denote the following distribution over restrictions:

- Choose $k$ variables uniform randomly and leave them unassigned (as *)
- Assign $0 / 1$ values randomly to the remaining $n-k$ variables

Theorem 18. [Sub61]
Let $f:\{0,1\}^{n} \mapsto\{0,1\}$. Let $\boldsymbol{\rho} \sim \mathcal{R}_{k}$. Let $\Gamma=\frac{3}{2}$. Then,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\underset{\rho \sim \mathcal{R}_{k}}{\operatorname{Pr}}\left[\operatorname{size}(f \upharpoonright \rho) \leq 4 \cdot\left(\frac{k}{n}\right)^{\Gamma} \cdot \operatorname{size}(f)\right] \geq \frac{3}{4} . \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Application: Before delving into the proof, we consider the following application to see how Theorem 18 is useful in proving lower bounds on formula size.

Let $k=1, f=\operatorname{PAR}_{n} . f \upharpoonright \rho$ is $x_{i}$ or $\overline{x_{i}}$ for some $i \in[n]$, so $\operatorname{size}(f \upharpoonright \rho)=1$. Thus,

$$
\begin{aligned}
1 & \leq 4 \cdot\left(\frac{1}{n}\right)^{\frac{3}{2}} \cdot \operatorname{size}(f) \\
\operatorname{size}(f) & \geq \frac{1}{4} \cdot n^{\frac{3}{2}}
\end{aligned}
$$

Proof. (Theorem 18)
Let $F$ be the optimal (i.e., smallest) formula computing $f$. Let $s=\operatorname{size}(F)$.
We can view $\boldsymbol{\rho}$ being constructed in $n-k$ stages. At each stage, choose a variable randomly from the remaining unassigned variables, and randomly assign $0 / 1$ to it. We will analyze the effect of this restriction stage-by-stage.

First stage: Choose $x_{i}$ and randomly assign $b \in_{r}\{0,1\}$ to it. Fixing $x_{i}=b$ makes all instances of $x_{i}$ and $\overline{x_{i}}$ vanish from $F$. By an averaging argument,

$$
\mathbb{E}\left[\# \text { occurrence of } x_{i} \text { or } \overline{x_{i}}\right]=s / n \text {. }
$$

So $\mathbb{E}[$ size $(f)]$ shrinks by at least $s / n$.
In fact, $\mathbb{E}[$ size $(f)]$ shrinks more due to the following "secondary effect":

- Consider any occurrences of $x_{i}$ or $\overline{x_{i}}$ in $F$, i.e., $x_{i} \wedge G$ (A similar argument can be made for $x_{i} \vee G$ ), where $G$ is a subformula of $F$ and $\operatorname{size}(G) \geq 1$.
- The key insight is that $G$ cannot contain any $x_{i}$ or $\overline{x_{i}}$ :

Suppose for sake of contradiction that $G$ contains at least one $x_{i}$ or $\overline{x_{i}}$. Then, since $G$ only matters if $x_{i}=1$, we can replace every occurrence of $x_{i}$ or $\overline{x_{i}}$ with 1 or 0 , respectively. This operation reduces $\operatorname{size}(G)$ and hence $\operatorname{size}(F)$, but does not change the function computed by $F$. However, this reduction in size contradicts the optimality of $F$.

- So, with probability $1 / 2$, setting $x_{i}$ to a constant makes $G$ vanish, reducing $\operatorname{size}(F)$ by $\operatorname{size}(G) \geq 1$.
Therefore, the expected number of literals that vanish from $F$ due to this "secondary effect" is at least $\frac{s}{2 n}$. In total,

$$
\mathbb{E}[\operatorname{size}(f \upharpoonright \boldsymbol{\rho}) \text { after } 1 \text { stage }] \leq s-\frac{3}{2} \cdot \frac{s}{n}=s\left(1-\frac{3}{2 n}\right) \leq s \cdot\left(1-\frac{1}{n}\right)^{\frac{3}{2}}
$$

Second stage: Proceed after making $F$ optimal, which can only decrease the formula size. Since $f \upharpoonright \rho$ in this stage is a function on $n-1$ variables,
$\mathbb{E}[\operatorname{size}(f \upharpoonright \boldsymbol{\rho})$ after 2 stages $] \leq s \cdot\left(1-\frac{1}{n}\right)^{\frac{3}{2}} \cdot\left(1-\frac{1}{n-1}\right)^{\frac{3}{2}}=s \cdot\left(\frac{n-1}{n}\right)^{\frac{3}{2}} \cdot\left(\frac{n-2}{n-1}\right)^{\frac{3}{2}}$.
After $n-k$ stages: (on optimal formula at each stage)

$$
\mathbb{E}[\operatorname{size}(f \upharpoonright \rho)] \leq s \cdot\left(\frac{n-1}{n}\right)^{\frac{3}{2}} \cdot\left(\frac{n-2}{n-1}\right)^{\frac{3}{2}} \cdots\left(\frac{k}{k+1}\right)^{\frac{3}{2}}=s \cdot\left(\frac{k}{n}\right)^{\frac{3}{2}}
$$

Finally, by Markov's inequality,

$$
\operatorname{Pr}_{\rho \sim \mathcal{R}_{k}}\left[\operatorname{size}(f \upharpoonright \boldsymbol{\rho}) \leq 4 \cdot s \cdot\left(\frac{k}{n}\right)^{\frac{3}{2}}\right] \geq \frac{3}{4} .
$$

History: Let $\Gamma$ denote the best shrinkage exponent such that (1) holds.

- $\operatorname{size}\left(\mathrm{PAR}_{n}\right)=\Omega\left(n^{2}\right)$ implies $\Gamma \leq 2$
- [IN93]: $\Gamma \geq 1.55$
- [PZ93]: $\Gamma \geq 1.63$
- [Hås98]: $\Gamma \geq 2-o(1)$
- [Tal14]: better $o(1)$

Project Topic 1. Study [Hås98] and [Tal14].

### 4.4 Andre'ev's Lower Bound

[And87] proposed a clever way to obtain $\widetilde{\Omega}\left(n^{\Gamma+1}\right)$ lower bound for the formula size of an explicit function. Note that the notation $\widetilde{\Omega}(\cdot)$ hides polylogarithmic factors.

### 4.4.1 Warmup to Andre'ev's function

From Theorem 12, we know that there exists an $n$-variable function with formula size at least $\frac{2^{n}}{2 \log n}$. By replacing $n$ with $\log n$, we know that there exists a $(\log n)$ variable function that requires formula size at least $\frac{n}{2 \log \log n}$. Since this lower bound is nonexplicit, we only know the existence of such a function:

$$
\exists \psi:\{0,1\}^{\log n} \mapsto\{0,1\} \text { such that } \operatorname{size}(\psi) \geq \frac{n}{2 \log \log n}
$$

Let $b=\log n$. Let $m=n / b$. We can view $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$ as $b$ blocks of variables, with $m$ variables in each block. Let $f_{\psi}:\{0,1\}^{n} \mapsto\{0,1\}$ be defined as

$$
\begin{equation*}
f_{\psi}\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)=\psi\left(x_{1} \oplus \cdots \oplus x_{m}, x_{m+1} \oplus \cdots \oplus x_{2 m}, \ldots, x_{n-m+1} \oplus \cdots \oplus x_{n}\right) . \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $k=b \ln (4 b)$, so that $\boldsymbol{\rho} \sim \mathcal{R}_{k}$ leaves $b \ln (4 b)$ variables unassigned.
Lemma 19. With probability at least $3 / 4$ over $\boldsymbol{\rho} \sim \mathcal{R}_{k}$

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{size}\left(f_{\psi} \upharpoonright \boldsymbol{\rho}\right) \leq 4 \cdot\left(\frac{k}{n}\right)^{\Gamma} \cdot \operatorname{size}\left(f_{\psi}\right) \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. It suffices to apply Theorem 18 to $f_{\psi}$.
Lemma 20. With probability at least $3 / 4$ over $\boldsymbol{\rho} \sim \mathcal{R}_{k}$

$$
\begin{equation*}
\forall i \in[b], \text { block } i \text { gets at least one } * . \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. By direct calculation.
There are $\binom{n}{k}$ ways to assign $k *$ 's to $n$ variables. Fix a block $i \in[b]$. The event that no variables in block $i$ gets a $*$ happen if and only if all $k *$ 's are assigned to the other $n-m$ variables, and there are $\binom{n-m}{k}$ such assignments. Thus,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Pr}_{\rho \sim \mathcal{R}_{k}}[\text { block } i \text { gets no } *] & =\frac{\binom{n-m}{k}}{\binom{n}{k}} \leq\left(\frac{n-m}{n}\right)^{k} \\
& =\left(1-\frac{1}{b}\right)^{b \ln (4 b)} \leq \frac{1}{4 b}
\end{aligned}
$$

By union bound over all $b$ blocks,

$$
\underset{\rho \sim \mathcal{R}_{k}}{\operatorname{Pr}}[\exists i \text {, block } i \text { gets no } *] \leq b \cdot \frac{1}{4 b}=\frac{1}{4} .
$$

By Lemmas 19 and 20, with probability at least $1 / 2, \boldsymbol{\rho} \sim \mathcal{R}_{k}$ satisfies 3 and 4. For any such $\rho, f_{\psi} \upharpoonright \rho$ contains $\psi$ as a subfunction. So

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{n}{2 \log \log n} \leq \operatorname{size}(\psi) & \leq \operatorname{size}\left(f_{\psi} \upharpoonright \rho\right) \\
& \leq 4 \cdot\left(\frac{k}{n}\right)^{\Gamma} \cdot \operatorname{size}\left(f_{\psi}\right) \\
& =4\left(\frac{(\log n) \cdot \ln (4 \log n)}{n}\right)^{\Gamma} \cdot \operatorname{size}\left(f_{\psi}\right) \\
\operatorname{size}\left(f_{\psi}\right) & =\widetilde{\Omega}\left(n^{\Gamma+1}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

### 4.4.2 Andre'ev's actual function

Idea: There is an issue with $f_{\psi}$ as defined in (2): it is not explicit. The function $f_{\psi}$ depends on a nonexplicit function $\psi$, whose existence is known from Theorem 12 . We can fix this issue viewing $\psi\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{b}\right)$ as an $\left(2^{b}=n\right)$-bit string, and feed it as input into Andre'ev's function.

Theorem 21. [And8'7]
Let $A(x, y):\{0,1\}^{2 n} \mapsto\{0,1\}$ be Andre'ev's function. A is explicit and satisfies

$$
\operatorname{size}(A(x, y)) \leq \widetilde{\Omega}\left(n^{\Gamma+1}\right)
$$

Proof. For any string $y \in\{0,1\}^{n}, y$ can be viewed as a $b$-bit function. Let $f_{y}$ : $\{0,1\}^{n} \mapsto\{0,1\}$ be defined as

$$
f_{y}\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)=y\left(x_{1} \oplus \cdots \oplus x_{m}, x_{m+1} \oplus \cdots \oplus x_{2 m}, \ldots, x_{n-m+1} \oplus \cdots \oplus x_{n}\right) .
$$

Let Andre'ev's actual function $A(x, y):\{0,1\}^{2 n} \mapsto\{0,1\}$ be defined as

$$
A(x, y)=f_{y}\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)
$$

There exists some string $y \in\{0,1\}^{n}$ that is equivalent to the string representing $\psi$, so

$$
\operatorname{size}(A(x, y)) \geq \operatorname{size}\left(f_{\psi}\right) \geq \widetilde{\Omega}\left(n^{\Gamma+1}\right)
$$

Homework Problem 2. Show that $A(x, y)$ is computable by $O(n)$-size circuit.
Fact 22. $A \in P$.
Fact 23. A exhibits the largest known gap between circuit size and formula size:

- Circuit size $O(n)$
- Formula size $\widetilde{\Omega}\left(n^{3}\right)$

Project Topic 2. KRW conjecture [KRW95].

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