

Synergy Between Circuit Obfuscation and Circuit Minimization

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Abstract

We study close connections between Indistinguishability Obfuscation (IO) and the Minimum Circuit Size Problem (MCSP), and argue that efficient algorithms/construction for MCSP and IO create a *synergy*¹. Some of our main results are:

- If there exists a perfect (imperfect) IO that is computationally secure against nonuniform polynomial-size circuits, then for all $k \in \mathbb{N}$: $\text{NP} \cap \text{ZPP}^{\text{MCSP}} \not\subseteq \text{SIZE}[n^k]$ ($\text{MA} \cap \text{ZPP}^{\text{MCSP}} \not\subseteq \text{SIZE}[n^k]$).
- In addition, if there exists a perfect IO that is computationally secure against nonuniform polynomial-size circuits, then $\text{NEXP} \cap \text{ZEXP}^{\text{MCSP}} \not\subseteq \text{P/poly}$.
- If $\text{MCSP} \in \text{BPP}$, then statistical security and computational security for IO are equivalent.
- If computationally-secure perfect IO exists, then $\text{MCSP} \in \text{BPP}$ iff $\text{NP} = \text{ZPP}$.
- If computationally-secure perfect IO exists, then $\text{ZEXP} \neq \text{BPP}$.

To the best of our knowledge, this is the first consequence of strong circuit lower bounds from the existence of an IO. The results are obtained via a construction of an optimal *universal distinguisher*, computable in randomized polynomial time with access to the MCSP oracle, that will distinguish any two circuit-samplable distributions with the advantage that is the statistical distance between these two distributions minus some negligible error term. This is our main technical contribution. As another immediate application, we get a simple proof of the result by Allender and Das (*Inf. Comput.*, 2017) that $\text{SZK} \subseteq \text{BPP}^{\text{MCSP}}$.

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¹ Synergy refers to the phenomenon where the combination of X and a “weak” version of Y gives rise to a “stronger” version of Y.



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1 Introduction

Circuit Obfuscation

The main purpose of program obfuscation is to transform a given program into an “unintelligible” one, while preserving the program’s original functionality. A natural way to represent a program is via a Boolean circuit. Given that, the most common notion of obfuscation is the notion of *indistinguishability obfuscation*, introduced in [8]. Roughly speaking, a (potentially) randomized procedure IO is an *indistinguishability obfuscator*, if the obfuscations of two circuits C_1 and C_2 of the same size and functionality are “indistinguishable”. In other words, no algorithm can “distinguish” between the outputs of $\text{IO}(C_1)$ and $\text{IO}(C_2)$ with a “noticeable” advantage.

The kind of security provided by the IO is defined by the class of the allowed distinguishing algorithms. More formally, consider a particular class of algorithms \mathcal{A} and ask whether IO is “secure against” \mathcal{A} . For example, if \mathcal{A} is the class of *all* (possibly inefficient) algorithms, we say that IO is *statistically* secure. On the other hand, if \mathcal{A} is the class of *efficient* (i.e. randomized polynomial-time) algorithms, we say that IO is *computationally* secure.

The correctness of an IO procedure is called *perfect* if the functionality of the input circuit is preserved with probability one (over the internal randomness of the IO), or *imperfect* if the functionality is preserved with high probability only.

Circuit obfuscation turned out to be a very useful tool in many cryptographic and complexity-theoretic applications, see, e.g., [19, 43, 20, 10, 35]. The past decade saw numerous candidate constructions, culminating with the work of [29]. Yet, identifying the exact necessary and sufficient conditions for the existence of indistinguishability obfuscators remains an important open question. One reason for that is that unlike the vast majority of cryptographic primitives, obfuscators could still exist even if $\text{P} = \text{NP}$! In fact, in this case we get an “ultimate” obfuscator: for each circuit C , the IO will output some canonical equivalent \hat{C}^2 .

The place of IO within the Five Worlds

Thus, in the language of Impagliazzo’s Five Worlds [26], an IO exists in *Algorithmica*. The work of [29], on the other hand, makes a good argument that an IO may exist in *Cryptomania*. What about the other three worlds: *Heuristica*, *Pessiland*, and *Minicrypt*? It turns out that none of these remaining three worlds can accommodate an IO . The results of [43] show that an IO plus a one-way function imply public key encryption (and more), and hence IO cannot exist in *Minicrypt*. The results of [34] essentially show that an (even imperfect) IO cannot exist in *Pessiland*: if there are no one-way functions but an (imperfect) IO exists, then $\text{NP} \subseteq \text{io-BPP}$. This result also rules out *Heuristica* as a possible home for an IO . We will prove a stronger connection: if an (imperfect) IO exists in *Heuristica* (where $\text{DistNP} \subseteq \text{AvgP}$), then $\text{NP} = \text{P}$ (see Theorem 31 below).

So IO can exist in either *Algorithmica* or *Cryptomania*. Many of the results that we shall present in this paper can be viewed as instantiations of this fact, for various settings of parameters of IO : *If you assume IO exists, and assume something that threatens the existence of cryptography, then you find yourself in Algorithmica.*

² For example, given a circuit C one can find the lexicographically-smallest, equivalent circuit \hat{C} in PH .

Circuit Minimization

Minimum Circuit Size Problem (MCSP) [45, 31] asks for a given truth table of an n -variate Boolean function $f: \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ and a parameter $0 \leq s \leq 2^n$, if f is computable by a Boolean circuit of size at most s . It is easy to see that $\text{MCSP} \in \text{NP}$. Yet, it is unknown if MCSP is NP-hard, or if MCSP is easy, say in BPP. What is known is that MCSP is powerful enough to “kill” cryptography. That is, any one-way function candidate can be efficiently inverted on average by a randomized polynomial-time algorithm with access to the MCSP oracle [41, 3]. Hence, an efficient algorithm for MCSP cannot exist in Minicrypt or Cryptomania.³

Interplay between IO and MCSP

By the preceding discussion, if we assume that both an IO exists and that MCSP is “easy”, then we should get that NP is also “easy” (as we must be in some version of Algorithmica; see Theorems 5 & 6 for more details)⁴. In fact, we shall argue that MCSP and IO act in a *synergy*. That is, the assumed existence of an appropriate version of IO makes MCSP more powerful than it is known to be. And, on the other hand, we show results where assumed “easiness” of MCSP makes an IO stronger (i.e., more secure). We state some of our main results next.

1.1 Our Main Results

We show that the existence of an (even imperfect) IO secure against P/poly implies new circuit lower bounds.

► **Theorem 1.** *Suppose there exists a perfect IO secure against P/poly. Then:*

1. $\text{NEXP} \cap \text{ZPEXP}^{\text{MCSP}} \not\subseteq \text{P/poly}$.
2. For all $k \in \mathbb{N}$: $\text{NP} \cap \text{ZPP}^{\text{MCSP}} \not\subseteq \text{SIZE}[n^k]$.

► **Theorem 2.** *Suppose there exists an imperfect IO secure against P/poly. Then for all $k \in \mathbb{N}$:*

$$\text{MA} \cap \text{ZPP}^{\text{MCSP}} \not\subseteq \text{SIZE}[n^k].$$

The two preceding theorems should be contrasted with the unconditional circuit lower bounds proved in [44] and [27]. There it is shown that $\text{ZPEXP}^{\text{MCSP}} \not\subseteq \text{P/poly}$ and that, for every $k > 0$, $\text{ZPP}^{\text{MCSP}}/1 \not\subseteq \text{SIZE}[n^k]$ and $\text{MA}/1 \not\subseteq \text{SIZE}[n^k]$. Although removing the extra bit of advice from the lower bounds may seem incremental, it actually has been a long standing open problem that resisted many attempts! Indeed, the same issue arises in other instances involving lower bounds for randomized complexity classes; see, e.g., [7, 18, 46, 47]. Additionally, while widely *believed* to be true, showing that $\text{NEXP} \not\subseteq \text{P/poly}$ seems to require techniques beyond our current reach. For a further discussion, see the seminal paper of Williams [50] where it was shown that $\text{NEXP} \not\subseteq \text{ACC}$ and subsequent improvements (e.g. [38]). In conclusion, the two new theorems above prove stronger circuit lower bounds, but under an assumption that a certain IO exists. One interpretation of that is that a construction of these kinds of IO will require novel techniques.

Our next result is a uniform version of Theorem 1.

³ In fact, even an efficient one-sided average-case algorithm for MCSP (i.e., an efficiently computable natural property in the sense of [41], which is useful against exponential-size circuits) would “kill” one-way functions.

⁴ This observation was made in [27] and previously a similar observation was made in [34].

► **Theorem 3.** *Suppose there exists a computationally-secure perfect IO. Then $ZPEXP \neq BPP$.*

While we do not have hierarchy theorems for randomized complexity classes, one can show that $ZPEXP \neq ZPP$ (see Appendix C). Yet, separating $ZPEXP$ (or even $NEXP$ and EXP^{NP}) from BPP appears to be a longstanding open problem (see e.g. [15, 49]). In that sense our result resolves the problem under the assumption that a computationally-secure perfect IO exists.

The following theorems are examples of results where $MCSP$ empowers IO , and where IO empowers $MCSP$.

► **Theorem 4.** *An IO (both imperfect and perfect) is statistically-secure if and only if it is secure against $FBPP^{MCSP}$. Hence, assuming $MCSP \in BPP$, statistically-secure IO exists if and only if computationally-secure IO exists.*

► **Theorem 5.** *Let $\Gamma \in \{ZPP, BPP\}$. Suppose there exists a computationally-secure imperfect IO. Then $MCSP \in \Gamma$ iff $NP \subseteq \Gamma$.*

Note that Theorem 5 strengthens a similar result of [27] to the imperfect setting.

► **Theorem 6.** *Suppose there exists a computationally-secure perfect IO. Then $MCSP \in BPP$ iff $NP = ZPP$.*

► **Remark 1.** Note that all the results still hold true if we only have an obfuscator IO for a class of circuits \mathcal{C} for which the *equivalence* problem (i.e., testing if two given circuits $C_0, C_1 \in \mathcal{C}$ agree on all inputs) is coNP -hard such as: 3-CNFs (even read-thrice 3-CNFs), read-twice depth-3 formulas, monotone depth-3 formulas⁵ and others. All these circuit classes are small subsets of NC^1 , which is the starting points of most candidate IO constructions (see e.g. [40, 21, 36, 29] and references within).

► **Remark 2.** Recall that the results of [34] show that if there are no one-way functions yet an imperfect IO exists, then $NP \subseteq \text{io-BPP}$. The authors subsequently pose an open problem to get a similar result only relying on an obfuscator for 3-CNFs. While we do not solve their open problem, we believe that Theorem 5, adjusted according to the previous remark, can be viewed as partial progress towards the resolution of the problem especially in light of the recent characterizations of one-way functions in terms of “ $MCSP$ ”-like problems [37, 4, 25, 24].

1.2 Our Techniques

Our main technical tool is a *universal distinguisher* that, given any two circuits C_0 and C_1 that are samplers for some distributions D_0 and D_1 , will distinguish between D_0 and D_1 essentially as well as is information-theoretically possible (with the distinguishing advantage equal to the statistical distance between D_0 and D_1 minus a negligible error term). We show (see Corollary 17) that such a universal distinguisher is computable in $FBPP^{MCSP}$ ⁶. The main idea is to use a distributional inverter and a connection between one-way functions and distributional one-way functions from [28]. In particular, we argue (see Lemma 32) that a distributional inverter suffices to get a distinguisher for **any** two circuit-samplable distributions D_0 and D_1 . We then use the result of [3] that allows to invert any candidate

⁵ Monotone depth-3 formulas are the only class on the list for which the equivalence problem is coNP -hard, but the satisfiability problem is trivial. See [16] for more details.

⁶ $FBPP^{MCSP}$ denotes the class of randomized polynomial-time algorithms with $MCSP$ oracle.

one-way (and, in fact, any polynomial-time computable) function in randomized-polynomial time given an MCSP oracle (see Lemma 15 for more details). Indeed, we generalize the inverter of [3] to get a *distributional* inverter for any candidate distributional one-way function (see Lemma 16). We believe that this extension could be of independent interest.

We note, however, that it is fairly easy to construct a universal distinguisher in FBPP^{SAT} by approximating the “maximum likelihood” distinguisher using the well-known fact that approximate counting can be done in FBPP^{NP} [30]. For completeness, we provide the full proof in Theorem 40 of the appendix. From this perspective, our construction constitutes another example of a computational task that can still be performed with the MCSP oracle instead of the SAT oracle. See [27] for further discussion.

With this universal distinguisher in hand, we immediately get Theorem 4. We then obtain the circuit lower bounds in Theorems 1 and 2 by a “win-win” argument on the circuit complexity of MCSP. If $\text{MCSP} \notin \text{P/poly}$, we are done. Otherwise (i.e., if $\text{MCSP} \in \text{P/poly}$) security against P/poly implies security against $\text{FBPP}^{\text{MCSP}}$ and hence, by our universal distinguisher result above, is equivalent to statistical security for our IO. Then we leverage this very secure IO to get into *Algorithmica* where NP is “easy” by extending some ideas from [23, 48]. The latter leads to certain “collapses” of high complexity classes (such as NEXP^{NP}), which are known to contain languages outside P/poly, to smaller complexity classes (such as NEXP). Hence we get circuit lower bounds for these smaller complexity classes, as required. Theorem 6 is proved using similar ideas.

1.3 Relation to Previous Work

The results in [22, 3] imply the following: For any two samplable distribution ensembles $\{A_n\}, \{B_n\}$, we have that $\{A_n\}, \{B_n\}$ are statistically indistinguishable if and only if they are indistinguishable by $\text{FBPP}^{\text{MCSP}}$ algorithms. While this result says that statistical indistinguishability and $\text{FBPP}^{\text{MCSP}}$ -computable indistinguishability are the same for efficiently *uniformly* computable distribution ensembles, we need a stronger result applicable also to efficiently *nonuniformly* computable distributions. That is, we need a *universal* distinguisher that will distinguish any two distributions given by sampler circuits, with the distinguishing advantage close to the statistical distance between these distributions.

In [39], Naor and Rothblum used similar techniques to prove a similar result, yet with **different** quantifier order: for any *uniformly* computable distribution ensembles there exist a $\text{FBPP}^{\text{MCSP}}$ -computable distinguisher with the distinguishing advantage close to the statistical distance between these distributions. Yet, by using the MCSP oracle as a *universal* inverter, one can “extract” a universal distinguisher from their proofs. For completeness we include a self-contained proof in the universal setting.

In [23], Goldwasser and Rothblum showed that the existence of statistically-secure obfuscators IO implies that $\text{NP} \subseteq \text{coAM}$, which in turn results in a collapse of the polynomial hierarchy by [11]. In particular, their idea was to solve SAT in SZK⁷. This is done by leveraging the IO to reduce SAT to *Statistical Difference* (SD) - the standard SZK-complete promise problem of [42]. The result then follows from [17, 2] where it was shown that $\text{SZK} \subseteq \text{AM} \cap \text{coAM}$. In [48] a simplified and quantified proof of the result was presented. We use some of these ideas as a part our “win-win” argument (see Lemma 22 for more details).

⁷ The class of decision problems for which a “yes” answer can be verified by a statistical zero-knowledge proof protocol.

Finally, it follows from the definition that the existence of non-uniform one-way functions (i.e. secure against P/poly) already implies very strong circuit lower bounds. Namely, $\text{NP} \not\subseteq \text{P/poly}$. However, this approach cannot be used to derive lower bounds from the existence of an IO since the very same lower bound is already required in order to obtain a one-way function from an IO! In other words, given an IO, one-way functions exist iff $\text{NP} \not\subseteq \text{P/poly}$. Our results allow us to obtain a weaker, but still strong circuit lower bound $\text{NEXP} \not\subseteq \text{P/poly}$ from the existence of an IO, thus avoiding this circular reference.

The rest of the paper

The necessary background is given in Section 2. Our main technical contribution (a universal distinguisher) is given in Section 3. In Section 4, we give a simple proof that $\text{SZK} \subseteq \text{BPP}^{\text{MCSP}}$ [5]. We give some consequences for MCSP from IO assumptions (including Theorems 5 and 6) in Section 5, and those for IO from MCSP assumptions (including Theorem 4) in Section 6. We prove Theorems 1 and 2 in Section 7. In Section 8, we prove that even an imperfect IO cannot exist in Heuristica. We conclude with some open questions in Section 9. Some auxiliary results are stated in the appendix.

2 Preliminaries

2.1 Definitions

A function $\text{negl}(n)$ is *negligible* if for any $k \in \mathbb{N}$ there exists $n_k \in \mathbb{N}$ such that, for all $n > n_k$, $\text{negl}(n) < 1/n^k$.

► **Definition 3** (Statistical Distance). *Let X_0 and X_1 be two random variables taking values in some finite universe \mathcal{U} . The Statistical Distance between X_0 and X_1 is defined as*

$$\Delta(X_0, X_1) \triangleq \max_{A: \mathcal{U} \rightarrow \{0,1\}} \{ \Pr_{u \sim X_0}[A(u) = 1] - \Pr_{u \sim X_1}[A(u) = 1] \},$$

where $A: \mathcal{U} \rightarrow \{0,1\}$ is an arbitrary statistical test (distinguisher).⁸ Another equivalent definition is that

$$\Delta(X_0, X_1) = (1/2) \cdot \sum_{u \in \mathcal{U}} | \Pr_{X_0}[X_0 = u] - \Pr_{X_1}[X_1 = u] |.$$

We say that X_0 and X_1 are δ -close, if $\Delta(X_0, X_1) \leq \delta$.

► **Definition 4** (Indistinguishability Obfuscator [8, 34, 12]). *We say that a randomized procedure $\text{IO}(C; r)$ (with randomness r) is an Indistinguishability Obfuscator for a circuit class \mathcal{C} with the following:*

1. **(Perfect/Imperfect) Correctness:** IO is ε -imperfect if for every circuit $C \in \mathcal{C}$:

$$\Pr_r[C \equiv \text{IO}(C; r)] \geq 1 - \varepsilon(|C|).$$

If $\varepsilon = 0$, then we say that IO is perfect.

2. **Polynomial slowdown:** There are $a, k \in \mathbb{N}$ such that, for every circuit $C \in \mathcal{C}$ and every r ,

$$|\text{IO}(C; r)| \leq a \cdot |C|^k.$$

⁸ Note that the maximum is attained by the statistical test A such that $A(u) = 1 \iff \Pr[X_0 = u] \geq \Pr[X_1 = u]$.

3. Security:

- a. **Statistical:** IO is statistically $(1 - \delta)$ -secure if for all pairs of circuits $C_1, C_2 \in \mathcal{C}$ such that $C_1 \equiv C_2$ and $|C_1| = |C_2| = s$, we have

$$\Delta(\text{IO}(C_1; r), \text{IO}(C_2; r')) \leq \delta(s),$$

where $\text{IO}(C; r)$ is a distribution over the outputs of $\text{IO}(C; r)$ for random r . We say that IO is statistically secure, if $\delta(s)$ is a negligible function.

- b. **Computational:** Let \mathcal{A} be a class of (randomized) algorithms. We say that IO is $(1 - \delta)$ -secure against \mathcal{A} , if for every algorithm $A \in \mathcal{A}$, for all pairs of sufficiently large circuits $C_1, C_2 \in \mathcal{C}$ such that $C_1 \equiv C_2$ and $|C_1| = |C_2| = s$, we have

$$|\Pr_{r,A}[A(\text{IO}(C_1; r)) = 1] - \Pr_{r,A}[A(\text{IO}(C_2; r)) = 1]| \leq \delta(s),$$

where the probabilities are over the internal randomness r of IO as well as over possible internal randomness of A . If $\delta(s)$ is negligible, we say that IO is secure against \mathcal{A} . We say that IO is computationally secure if it is secure against the class FBPP.

► **Remark 5 (Efficiency of IO).** By default, we assume $\text{IO}(C; r)$ is computable by a randomized polynomial-time algorithm with internal randomness r . We consider IO computable in other complexity classes, e.g., $\text{FBPP}^{\text{MCSP}}$. In such a case, we shall explicitly say that an IO is $\text{FBPP}^{\text{MCSP}}$ -computable.

► **Remark 6.** Some definitions in the literature also contain a security parameter. In the above definition it is incorporated in the circuit size. Any reasonable encoding scheme for Boolean circuits allows one to represent a circuit of size s as a circuit of larger size.

We will need the following definition and result for our proofs.

► **Definition 7 (Statistical Difference [42]).** Let $\alpha(n) : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ and $\beta(n) : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ be computable functions, such that $\alpha(n) > \beta(n)$. Then $\text{SD}^{(\alpha(n), \beta(n))}$ is promise problem defined as $\text{SD}^{(\alpha(n), \beta(n))} \triangleq (\text{SD}_{\text{YES}}^{(\alpha(n), \beta(n))}, \text{SD}_{\text{NO}}^{(\alpha(n), \beta(n))})$, where

$$\text{SD}_{\text{YES}}^{(\alpha(n), \beta(n))} = \{(C_0, C_1) \mid \Delta(C_0, C_1) \geq \alpha(n)\}, \quad \text{SD}_{\text{NO}}^{(\alpha(n), \beta(n))} = \{(C_0, C_1) \mid \Delta(C_0, C_1) \leq \beta(n)\}.$$

Here, C_0 and C_1 are Boolean circuits $C_0, C_1 : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^m$ of size $\text{poly}(n)$ that are samplers for some distributions D_0 and D_1 , respectively.

For the standard parameters, we define $\text{SD} \triangleq \text{SD}^{(2/3, 1/3)}$.

For an oracle O , we define the relativized version of the problem $\text{SD}^O^{(\alpha(n), \beta(n))}$ as above, when C_0 and C_1 are O -oracle circuits.

► **Lemma 8 ([42]).** Suppose $\alpha(n)^2 - \beta(n) \geq 1/\text{poly}(n)$. Then for any oracle O , the problem $\text{SD}^O^{(\alpha(n), \beta(n))}$ is SZK^O -complete. In particular, SD is SZK -complete.

2.2 Useful Lemmas

Let $\text{FBPP}^{\text{MCSP}}$ denote the class of randomized polynomial-time algorithms with MCSP oracle.

► **Lemma 9 (implicit in [27]).** If there exists an IO $(1 - \delta)$ -secure against $\text{FBPP}^{\text{MCSP}}$, for some $\delta \leq 1 - 1/n^\ell$ for a constant $\ell > 0$, then $\text{NP} \subseteq \text{ZPP}^{\text{MCSP}}$ and hence $\text{ZPP}^{\text{NP}} = \text{ZPP}^{\text{MCSP}}$.

► **Lemma 10 ([48]).** If there exists an IO statistically $(1 - \delta)$ -secure, for some $\delta < 1$, then $\text{NP} \subseteq \text{coNP}$ and hence $\text{PH} = \text{NP} \cap \text{coNP}$.

► **Lemma 11 ([48]).** Let IO be an ε -imperfect obfuscator and let C_1, C_2 be such that $C_1 \not\equiv C_2$. Then $\Delta(\text{IO}(C_1; r), \text{IO}(C_2; r')) \geq 1 - 2\varepsilon$, over the internal randomness r, r' of the IO.

- ▶ **Lemma 12** ([32]). For any $k \in \mathbb{N}$: $\text{NP}^{\text{NP}} \not\subseteq \text{SIZE}[n^k]$. In addition, $\text{NEXP}^{\text{NP}} \not\subseteq \text{P/poly}$.
- ▶ **Lemma 13** ([13, 33]). If $\text{SAT} \in \text{P/poly}$, then $\text{PH} = \text{ZPP}^{\text{SAT}}$, and polynomial-size circuits for SAT can be constructed in ZPP^{SAT} .
- ▶ **Lemma 14** ([27]). If $\text{MCSP} \in \text{P/poly}$, then $\text{BPP}^{\text{MCSP}} = \text{ZPP}^{\text{MCSP}}$.

We require the following result of [3] that allows to find preimages of functions computable in polynomial time.

- ▶ **Lemma 15** ([3]). Let $f_y(x) = f(y, x)$ be a function computable uniformly in time polynomial in $|x|$. There exists a polynomial-time probabilistic oracle Turing machine M such that for any $n, K \in \mathbb{N}$ and any y :

$$\Pr_{|x|=n, r} [f_y(M^{\text{MCSP}}(1^K, y, f_y(x), r)) = f_y(x)] \geq 1/K,$$

where $x \in \{0, 1\}^n$ is chosen uniformly at random and r denotes the internal randomness of M .

We generalize this result to get a *distributional* inverter for any candidate distributional one-way function in the sense of [28]. Roughly speaking, such a distributional inverter finds uniformly random preimages of a given polynomial-time computable function. More precisely, we have the following.

- ▶ **Lemma 16.** Let $f_y(x) = f(y, x)$ be a function computable uniformly in time polynomial in $|x|$. There exists a polynomial-time probabilistic oracle Turing machine M such that, for any $n, K \in \mathbb{N}$ and any y , the following two distributions

$$(x, f_y(x)) \quad \text{and} \quad (M^{\text{MCSP}}(1^K, y, f_y(x), r), f_y(x)),$$

for $x \in \{0, 1\}^n$ chosen uniformly at random, and r the internal uniform randomness of M , are at most $(1/K)$ -far in statistical distance.

Proof. We combine Lemma 15 with the reduction from [28] showing that an inverter for candidate one-way functions can be used to get a distributional inverter for every distributional one-way function candidate $f_y(x)$ computable in polynomial time. ◀

3 From Computational to Statistical Security

Below we will argue the existence of a universal distinguisher. We will describe an algorithm $\mathcal{D}(C_0, C_1; 1^{1/\gamma})$ in $\text{FBPP}^{\text{MCSP}}$ that, given any pair of circuits C_0 and C_1 that are samplers for some distributions D_0 and D_1 , and a parameter $0 < \gamma < 1$, will distinguish D_0 and D_1 with advantage at least $\delta - \gamma$, where δ is the statistical distance between D_0 and D_1 .

- ▶ **Corollary 17.** There is an $\text{FBPP}^{\text{MCSP}}$ algorithm \mathcal{D} satisfying the following. Given any pair of circuits C_0 and C_1 that are samplers for some distributions D_0 and D_1 , and given a parameter K in unary, the algorithm $\mathcal{D}(C_0, C_1; 1^K)$ will distinguish D_0 and D_1 with advantage at least $\delta - 1/K$, where δ is the statistical distance between D_0 and D_1 .

As was mentioned, a similar proof was given in [39]. We defer the proof to Section A of the appendix.

- ▶ **Remark 18.** We note that a universal distinguisher as in Corollary 17 is fairly easy to construct in FBPP^{SAT} (using the well-known fact that approximate counting can be done in FBPP^{NP} [30]); see Theorem 40 in Section B of the appendix. Thus, Corollary 17 is another example of a computational task that can still be performed with the MCSP oracle instead of the SAT oracle.

4 Another Proof that $\text{SZK} \subseteq \text{BPP}^{\text{MCSP}}$

Corollary 17 can be used to give another proof of the following result by Allender and Das [5].

► **Theorem 19** ([5]). $\text{SZK} \subseteq \text{BPP}^{\text{MCSP}}$.

Proof. Recall the standard SZK-complete promise problem Statistical Difference (SD) (see Definition 7): Given a pair of circuits (C_0, C_1) that are samplers for the distributions D_0 and D_1 such that either D_0 and D_1 have the statistical distance less than $1/3$, or they have the statistical distance greater than $2/3$, decide which is the case.

By Corollary 17, we get an $\text{FBPP}^{\text{MCSP}}$ universal distinguisher \mathcal{D} . Consider the distinguisher $B = \mathcal{D}(C_0, C_1; 1^{10})$. Let δ be the statistical distance between D_0 and D_1 . Note that in case $\delta < 1/3$, the algorithm B (and, in fact, any algorithm) has distinguishing advantage less than $1/3$, whereas for $\delta > 2/3$, B has advantage at least $(2/3) - (1/10) = 17/30 > 1/3$. Using random sampling and the Chernoff bounds, we can estimate in $\text{FBPP}^{\text{MCSP}}$ the advantage of our algorithm B at distinguishing between D_0 and D_1 , with high probability and sufficient accuracy. The theorem follows. ◀

► **Remark 20.** Note that the BPP^{MCSP} algorithm for SZK in the proof of Theorem 19 works for any version of the Statistical Difference problem with a non-negligible gap between the yes- and no-instances, not just for the $1/3$ vs. $2/3$ gap.

Next, we extend the result above to the relativized version of the problem SD^O (see Definition 7) for any $O \in \text{BPP}^{\text{MCSP}} \cap \text{P/poly}$.

► **Theorem 21.** *Let $O \in \text{BPP}^{\text{MCSP}} \cap \text{P/poly}$ be any language. Then for any $\alpha(n)$ and $\beta(n)$ such that $\alpha(n) \geq \beta(n) + n^{-\ell}$, for some $\ell > 0$, we have that:*

$$\text{SD}^O(\alpha(n), \beta(n)) \in \text{BPP}^{\text{MCSP}}. \quad (1)$$

In particular, if $\text{MCSP} \in \text{P/poly}$, then

$$\text{SZK}^{\text{MCSP}} \subseteq \text{BPP}^{\text{MCSP}}. \quad (2)$$

Proof. To prove (1), we proceed exactly as in the proof of Theorem 19 above, except using Corollary 38 instead of Corollary 17, and using the observation in Remark 20. To prove (2), we use (1) for $O = \text{MCSP}$ and the fact that $\text{SD}^{\text{MCSP}(2/3, 1/3)}$ is SZK^{MCSP} -complete (by Lemma 8). ◀

5 Implications for Circuit Minimization from Obfuscation

The following lemma provides some consequences of the existence of an imperfect, computationally-secure IO, with an appropriate range of parameters. Among other things, the proof uses some ideas from [23] and [27].

► **Lemma 22.** *Let $\Gamma \in \{\text{FBPP}, \text{P/poly}\}$. Suppose there exist an ε -imperfect IO($C; r$) that is $(1 - \delta)$ -secure against Γ , where $(1 - 2\varepsilon)^2 - \delta \geq 2/n^\ell$ for some constant $\ell > 0$. If $\text{MCSP} \in \Gamma$, then:*

1. $\text{NP} \subseteq \text{SZK}$,
2. $\text{PH} = \text{MA} = \text{ZPP}^{\text{MCSP}}$, and
3. *There is a ZPP^{MCSP} algorithm A and a constant $k > 0$, such that $A(1^n)$ outputs an $O(n^k)$ -size circuit for SAT (and for MCSP) on n -bit inputs.*

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Proof.

1. First, observe that since $\text{MCSP} \in \Gamma$, $\text{FBPP}^{\text{MCSP}} \subseteq \Gamma$. Consequently, an IO that is secure against Γ is also secure against $\text{FBPP}^{\text{MCSP}}$. It follows from Corollary 17 that this IO is statistically $(1 - \delta')$ -secure, for $\delta' = \delta + 1/n^\ell$ (since we can make the distributional inverter's error α to be smaller than any inverse polynomial of our choice). We now use this IO to reduce SAT to the Statistical Difference problem (see Definition 7): Given a SAT instance ϕ , construct some unsatisfiable instance \perp of the same size as ϕ and on the same set of input variables. Consider the distributions

$$\text{IO}(\phi; r) \text{ and } \text{IO}(\perp; r') \tag{3}$$

over all random strings r, r' .

We have two cases:

- If ϕ is unsatisfiable, then $\phi \equiv \perp$, and by the statistical $(1 - \delta')$ -security property of our IO, we get that these two distributions in (3) have statistical distance at most δ' .
- If ϕ is satisfiable, then by Lemma 11, the statistical distance between the distributions in (3) is at least $1 - 2\varepsilon$.

Since $(1 - 2\varepsilon)^2 \geq \delta + 2n^{-\ell} = \delta' + n^{-\ell}$, by Lemma 8, the resulting instance of the SD problem is SZK-complete, and so $\text{NP} \subseteq \text{SZK}$.⁹

2. By [17, 2], we have $\text{SZK} \subseteq \text{AM} \cap \text{coAM}$. By [11], since $\text{NP} \subseteq \text{SZK} \subseteq \text{coAM}$, it follows that

$$\text{PH} = \text{AM}. \tag{4}$$

Next, by Theorem 19, $\text{SZK} \subseteq \text{BPP}^{\text{MCSP}}$. By Lemma 14, $\text{BPP}^{\text{MCSP}} = \text{ZPP}^{\text{MCSP}}$. Hence, we get that

$$\text{NP} \subseteq \text{SZK} \subseteq \text{ZPP}^{\text{MCSP}}. \tag{5}$$

As $\text{MCSP} \in \text{P/poly}$, we also get from (5) that

$$\text{NP} \subseteq \text{P/poly}. \tag{6}$$

By [6], (6) implies that $\text{AM} = \text{MA}$. So by (4), we conclude that

$$\text{PH} = \text{MA}.$$

Finally, (6) also implies $\text{PH} = \text{ZPP}^{\text{NP}}$ by Lemma 13. Hence, by (5), we get that

$$\text{PH} = \text{ZPP}^{\text{NP}} \subseteq \text{ZPP}^{\text{ZPP}^{\text{MCSP}}} = \text{ZPP}^{\text{MCSP}}.$$

3. By Lemma 13, if $\text{SAT} \in \text{P/poly}$, then polynomial-size circuits for SAT can be found by a ZPP^{NP} algorithm. By (6), we get that polynomial-size circuits for SAT can be found by a $\text{ZPP}^{\text{ZPP}^{\text{MCSP}}}$ algorithm, which can be simulated by a ZPP^{MCSP} algorithm. As $\text{MCSP} \in \text{NP}$ and SAT is NP-complete, polynomial-size circuits for SAT can be used to construct polynomial-size circuits for MCSP as well. ◀

⁹ Note that this reduction to SZK actually allows one to solve not just SAT but an *equivalence* problem for any class of circuits that an IO can obfuscate. Thus, to conclude that $\text{NP} \subseteq \text{SZK}$, it suffices to pick any coNP-hard circuit equivalence problem for the class of circuits where SAT may be easy. For example, one can take the problem of testing equivalence of depth-3 *monotone* formulas, known to be coNP-complete [16]

Items (2) and (3) in the lemma should be contrasted with the result of [13, 33] that $\text{SAT} \in \text{P/poly}$ implies both that polynomial-size circuits for SAT can be constructed by a ZPP^{SAT} algorithm, and that $\text{PH} = \text{ZPP}^{\text{SAT}}$. Under an additional assumption that a P/poly -secure imperfect IO exists, we get similar implications for MCSP instead of SAT .

The following corollary strengthens a result of [27] to the imperfect setting.

► **Corollary 23** (Theorem 5 re-stated). *Let $\Gamma \in \{\text{ZPP}, \text{BPP}\}$. Suppose there is an ε -imperfect IO that is $(1 - \delta)$ -secure against FBPP , where $(1 - 2\varepsilon)^2 \geq \delta + 2/n^\ell$ for some constant $\ell > 0$. Then $\text{MCSP} \in \Gamma$ iff $\text{NP} \subseteq \Gamma$.*

Proof. The first direction is clear since $\text{MCSP} \in \text{NP}$. For the other direction, by Lemma 22, $\text{NP} \subseteq \text{ZPP}^{\text{MCSP}}$ and hence $\text{NP} \subseteq \text{ZPP}^\Gamma$. ◀

For the case of a perfect IO, we get a somewhat stronger statement.

► **Theorem 24** (Theorem 6 re-stated). *Suppose there is a perfect IO that is $(1 - \delta)$ -secure against FBPP , where $\delta \leq 1 - 2/n^\ell$ for some constant $\ell > 0$. If $\text{MCSP} \in \text{BPP}$, then $\text{NP} = \text{ZPP}$.*

Proof. Since $\text{MCSP} \in \text{BPP}$, computational $(1 - \delta)$ -security implies $(1 - \delta)$ -security against $\text{FBPP}^{\text{MCSP}}$. It follows by Corollary 17 that this IO is statistically $(1 - \delta')$ -secure, for $\delta' = \delta + 1/n^\ell \leq 1 - 1/n^\ell$.

By Lemma 10, $\text{PH} = \text{NP} = \text{coNP}$. By Lemma 9, $\text{PH} = \text{NP} = \text{ZPP}^{\text{MCSP}} \subseteq \text{BPP}$. But $\text{NP} \subseteq \text{BPP}$ implies that $\text{NP} = \text{RP}$. Since $\text{coNP} = \text{NP}$, we get $\text{NP} = \text{ZPP}$. ◀

6 Implications for Obfuscation from Circuit Minimization

► **Theorem 25.** *Suppose $\text{MCSP} \in \text{P/poly}$. There is an $\text{FZPP}^{\text{MCSP}}$ -computable perfect IO that is statistically secure if and only if there is an $\text{FBPP}^{\text{MCSP}}$ -computable ε -imperfect IO that is $(1 - \delta)$ secure against P/poly , for any $0 \leq \varepsilon, \delta \leq 1$ such that $1 - 2\varepsilon \geq \delta + 2/n^\ell$, for some constant $\ell > 0$.*

Proof. The interesting direction is from the right to the left. Since $\text{MCSP} \in \text{P/poly}$, $(1 - \delta)$ -security against P/poly implies, by Corollary 17, statistical $(1 - \delta')$ -security, for $\delta' = \delta + n^{-\ell}$.

▷ **Claim 26.** If $\text{MCSP} \in \text{P/poly}$ and there is an $\text{FBPP}^{\text{MCSP}}$ -computable ε -imperfect IO that is statistically $(1 - \delta')$ -secure for $1 - 2\varepsilon \geq \delta' + n^{-\ell}$, for some constant $\ell > 0$, then $\text{SAT} \in \text{ZPP}^{\text{MCSP}}$.

Proof of Claim 26. Given an instance ϕ of SAT , let \perp be an unsatisfiable formula of the same size as ϕ (over the same variables). Consider the two distributions $\text{IO}(\phi; r)$ and $\text{IO}(\perp; r')$ over random r, r' . If $\phi \equiv \perp$, the two distributions are at most statistical distance δ' apart; if ϕ is in SAT , then the two distributions have the statistical distance at least $1 - 2\varepsilon$.

Each distribution is samplable using a polynomial-size MCSP -oracle circuit, which we can obtain from our IO algorithm. Thus, we get an FP^{MCSP} -reduction from coSAT to $\text{SD}^{\text{MCSP}}(1 - 2\varepsilon, \delta')$. Since $\delta' + n^{-\ell} \leq 1 - 2\varepsilon$, we conclude by Theorem 21 that $\text{SAT} \in \text{BPP}^{\text{MCSP}}$. By Lemma 14, $\text{BPP}^{\text{MCSP}} = \text{ZPP}^{\text{MCSP}}$, concluding the proof. ◀

Since $\text{SAT} \in \text{ZPP}^{\text{MCSP}} \subseteq \text{P/poly}$, we get by Lemma 13 that $\text{PH} = \text{ZPP}^{\text{MCSP}}$. Given a circuit C , we can find the lexicographically smallest equivalent circuit D (of size at most that of C) in $\text{FP}^{\text{PH}} \subseteq \text{FZPP}^{\text{MCSP}}$. This gives us a perfect $\text{IO}(C; r)$ that is statistically secure.¹⁰ ◀

¹⁰Technically, this $\text{IO}(C; r)$ outputs either a smallest equivalent circuit D , or, with a tiny probability, the “don’t know” answer. We can modify it to output the input circuit C in the latter case, getting perfect correctness, and only slightly decreasing statistical security.

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Along the same lines:

► **Corollary 27.** *Suppose $\text{MCSP} \in \text{BPP}$. There is an ε -imperfect IO with statistical security if and only if there is an ε -imperfect IO with computational $(1-\delta)$ -security where $1-2\varepsilon \geq \delta+2/n^\ell$. (Assuming $\text{MCSP} \in \text{ZPP}$, you get a similar equivalence but for a perfect IO with statistical security.)*

Proof sketch. The interesting direction is from the right to the left. We first argue as in the proof of Theorem 25 to conclude that $\text{SAT} \in \text{ZPP}^{\text{MCSP}}$. Since $\text{MCSP} \in \text{BPP}$, we get that $\text{NP} \subseteq \text{BPP}$, and hence, $\text{PH} = \text{BPP}$. So, given an input circuit C , we can find the lexicographically smallest equivalent circuit D (of size at most that of C), using an $\text{FP}^{\text{PH}} = \text{FBPP}$ algorithm. This algorithm is a (negligibly) imperfect IO with statistical security. (In case of $\text{MCSP} \in \text{ZPP}$, we argue in a similar way, getting that $\text{PH} = \text{ZPP}$, and so a canonical circuit D for a given input circuit C can be found in FZPP .) ◀

7 Circuit Lower Bounds from Obfuscation

Here we prove Theorems 1 and 2, re-stated below.

► **Theorem 28** (Theorem 1 re-stated). *Suppose there exist a perfect IO $(1-\delta)$ -secure against P/poly , where $\delta \leq 1-2/n^\ell$ for some $\ell > 0$. Then:*

1. $\text{NEXP} \cap \text{ZPEXP}^{\text{MCSP}} \not\subseteq \text{P/poly}$.
2. For all $k \in \mathbb{N}$, $\text{NP} \cap \text{ZPP}^{\text{MCSP}} \not\subseteq \text{SIZE}[n^k]$.

Proof. The proof of all items goes by a “win-win” argument. Suppose $\text{MCSP} \notin \text{P/poly}$. Then both claims follow immediately since $\text{MCSP} \in \text{NP}$.

Now suppose $\text{MCSP} \in \text{P/poly}$. Then randomized polynomial-time algorithms with MCSP oracle can be simulated by polynomial-size circuits. Consequently, IO is $(1-\delta)$ -secure against these algorithms. By Corollary 17, this IO is statistically $(1-\delta')$ -secure, for $\delta' = \delta + n^{-\ell} \leq 1 - n^{-\ell}$. By Lemmas 9 and 10, we get that

$$\text{NP}^{\text{NP}} \subseteq \text{PH} = \text{NP} \cap \text{coNP} \subseteq \text{ZPP}^{\text{MCSP}} \subseteq \text{NP}^{\text{NP}}.$$

So, $\text{NP}^{\text{NP}} = \text{NP} \cap \text{coNP} = \text{ZPP}^{\text{MCSP}}$. By padding, $\text{NEXP}^{\text{NP}} = \text{NEXP} \cap \text{coNEXP} = \text{ZPEXP}^{\text{MCSP}}$, and so both claims follow from Lemma 12. ◀

► **Theorem 29** (Theorem 2 re-stated). *Suppose there exist an ε -imperfect IO $(1-\delta)$ -secure against P/poly , where $(1-2\varepsilon)^2 \geq \delta + 2/n^\ell$ for some $\ell > 0$. Then for all $k \in \mathbb{N}$, $\text{MA} \cap \text{ZPP}^{\text{MCSP}} \not\subseteq \text{SIZE}[n^k]$.*

Proof. Again we use a “win-win” argument. If $\text{MCSP} \notin \text{P/poly}$, then the theorem follows. Otherwise, we get by Lemma 22 (Item 2) that $\text{PH} = \text{MA} = \text{ZPP}^{\text{MCSP}}$, which is not in $\text{SIZE}[n^k]$ for any fixed $k > 0$ by Lemma 12. ◀

► **Theorem 30** (Theorem 3 re-stated). *Suppose there is a perfect IO that is $(1-\delta)$ -secure against FBPP , where $\delta \leq 1-2/n^\ell$ for some constant $\ell > 0$. Then $\text{ZPEXP} \neq \text{BPP}$.*

Proof of Theorem 3. Suppose for a contradiction that $\text{ZPEXP} = \text{BPP}$. Then, in particular, $\text{MCSP} \in \text{BPP}$. By Theorem 6, $\text{NP} = \text{ZPP}$ and hence

$$\text{ZPEXP} = \text{BPP} \subseteq \text{ZPP}^{\text{NP}} = \text{ZPP}^{\text{ZPP}} = \text{ZPP}$$

which leads to a contradiction (see Appendix C). ◀

8 Excluding an Imperfect IO from Heuristica

Below we assume that the reader is familiar with the basic definitions of average-case complexity (in particular, the definitions of DistNP and AvgP); see, e.g., [9].

► **Theorem 31.** *Suppose $\text{DistNP} \subseteq \text{AvgP}$. If an ε -imperfect computationally $(1 - \delta)$ -secure IO exists for $1 - 2\varepsilon \geq \delta + 2n^{-\ell}$ for some $\ell > 0$, then $\text{NP} = \text{P}$.*

Proof. Consider MCSP with $s = 2^{0.9n}$ under the uniform distribution over 2^n -bit inputs. This is a language in DistNP. If $\text{DistNP} \subseteq \text{AvgP}$, we get a language $L' \in \text{P}$ that agrees with MCSP for $s = 2^{0.9n}$ on almost all instances, but may be incorrect on a tiny fraction of “no” instances of MCSP (here we use the zero-error property of problems in AvgP). Then the complement $L = \bar{L}'$ is a language in P of polynomial density (because almost all strings are very hard) such that for every $x \in L$, the circuit complexity of x (when viewed as a truth table of a boolean function) is at least $|x|^{0.9}$. All results in this paper that use MCSP as an oracle continue to hold with any such L as an oracle instead. In particular, as in the proof of Theorem 25 (see Claim 26), we conclude that $\text{NP} \subseteq \text{BPP}^L = \text{BPP}$. Finally, by [14], if $\text{DistNP} \subseteq \text{AvgP}$ then $\text{BPP} = \text{P}$, and so $\text{NP} = \text{P}$. ◀

9 Open Questions

In this paper we showed that an (even imperfect) IO secure against non-uniform polynomial-size circuits implies non-trivial circuit lower bounds. Can one prove circuit lower bounds from the assumption that a (uniform) computationally-secure IO exists?

Can we leverage the connection between one-way functions and a close relative of MCSP (time-bounded Kolmogorov complexity) [37, 4, 25, 24] to get better understanding of IO?

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A A Universal Distinguisher in FBPP^{MCSP}

We will first argue that such a distinguisher for a pair of distributions sampled by circuits C_0 and C_1 can be obtained given oracle access to a distributional inverter (in the sense of Impagliazzo and Luby [28]) for a function defined in terms of C_0 and C_1 (see Lemma 32 below). Then we appeal to Lemma 16 to get a universal distributional inverter.

► **Lemma 32.** *There is an oracle FBPP algorithm \hat{D} satisfying the following. Let C_0 and C_1 be two circuits that are samplers for distributions D_0 and D_1 over some finite universe \mathcal{U} , and let δ be the statistical distance between D_0 and D_1 . Let $F(b, r)$ use r to sample from D_b . Let A be a distributional inverter for F so that the distributions*

$$((b, r), F(b, r)) \quad \text{and} \quad (A(F(b, r)), F(b, r))$$

are at most α^2 -close in statistical distance, where $0 \leq \alpha \leq \delta/28$. Then $\hat{D}^A(C_0, C_1; 1^{1/\alpha})$ is a distinguisher for D_0 and D_1 with advantage at least $\delta - 14\alpha \geq \delta/2$.

Proof. Let $B(x)$ be the first bit of $A(x)$, and let $Q(x)$ be the probability that $B(x)$ is 0, i.e.,

$$Q(x) = \Pr_A[B(x) = 0],$$

where the probability is over the internal randomness of A . Let K be such that an empirical estimate of K iid $\{0, 1\}$ -valued random variables is within α of its expectation with probability $1 - (\alpha/2)$; by the Chernoff bounds, we have that $K = O((\log 1/\alpha)/\alpha^2)$. Let $\tilde{Q}(x; \rho)$ be the random variable where we use randomness ρ to sample from $A(x)$ independently K times and use these to create an empirical estimate of $Q(x)$; so ρ is K times the internal randomness of A . Let $C(x; \rho)$ be the probabilistic Boolean algorithm where we accept x if $\tilde{Q}(x; \rho) \geq 1/2$. We will show that

$$\Pr_{x \sim D_{0,\rho}} [C(x; \rho) = 1] - \Pr_{x \sim D_{1,\rho}} [C(x; \rho) = 1] \geq \delta - 14\alpha. \quad (7)$$

Let $p_0(x)$ be the probability of x for D_0 , and $p_1(x)$ that for D_1 . Note that

$$q(x) = p_0(x)/(p_0(x) + p_1(x))$$

is the conditional probability that $b = 0$ given that $F(b, r) = x$. Then

$$\Pr_{x \sim D_{0,\rho}} [C(x; \rho) = 1] - \Pr_{x \sim D_{1,\rho}} [C(x; \rho) = 1] = \mathbf{Exp}_\rho \left[\sum_{x: \tilde{Q}(x;\rho) \geq 1/2} (p_0(x) - p_1(x)) \right], \quad (8)$$

and

$$\delta = \sum_{x: q(x) \geq 1/2} (p_0(x) - p_1(x)). \quad (9)$$

Note that if, for “typical” randomness ρ used by \tilde{Q} , we had for all $x \in \mathcal{U}$ that $\tilde{Q}(x; \rho) \geq 1/2 \Leftrightarrow q(x) \geq 1/2$, then the right-hand sides of (8) and (9) would be identical (for that randomness ρ of \tilde{Q}), and we would get our goal of (7) minus the error term for “atypical” randomness of \tilde{Q} . We formalize this argument next.

For given internal randomness ρ of \tilde{Q} , let the error set $E = E(\rho)$ be the set of those $x \in \mathcal{U}$ so that exactly one of $\tilde{Q}(x; \rho)$ and $q(x)$ is at least $1/2$, i.e.,

$$E(\rho) = \{x \in \mathcal{U} \mid \tilde{Q}(x; \rho) \geq 1/2 \not\Leftrightarrow q(x) \geq 1/2\}.$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} & \Pr_{x \sim D_{0,\rho}} [C(x; \rho) = 1] - \Pr_{x \sim D_{1,\rho}} [C(x; \rho) = 1] \\ &= \mathbf{Exp}_\rho \left[\sum_{x: \tilde{Q}(x;\rho) \geq 1/2} (p_0(x) - p_1(x)) \right] \\ &= \mathbf{Exp}_\rho \left[\sum_{x \notin E(\rho): \tilde{Q}(x;\rho) \geq 1/2} (p_0(x) - p_1(x)) + \sum_{x \in E(\rho): \tilde{Q}(x;\rho) \geq 1/2} (p_0(x) - p_1(x)) \right] \\ &= \mathbf{Exp}_\rho \left[\sum_{x \notin E(\rho): q(x) \geq 1/2} (p_0(x) - p_1(x)) + \sum_{x \in E(\rho): q(x) < 1/2} (p_0(x) - p_1(x)) \right] \\ &= \mathbf{Exp}_\rho \left[\sum_{x: q(x) \geq 1/2} (p_0(x) - p_1(x)) + \sum_{x \in E(\rho): q(x) < 1/2} (p_0(x) - p_1(x)) - \sum_{x \in E(\rho): q(x) \geq 1/2} (p_0(x) - p_1(x)) \right] \\ &\geq \delta - \mathbf{Exp}_\rho \left[\sum_{x \in E(\rho)} |p_0(x) - p_1(x)| \right], \end{aligned}$$

where we used (9) to get the last line.

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We bound the sum under the expectation in the last line above by looking at three sets whose union contains $E = E(\rho)$:

$$\begin{aligned} E_1(\rho) &= \{x \mid |\tilde{Q}(x; \rho) - Q(x)| \geq \alpha\}, \\ E_2 &= \{x \mid |Q(x) - q(x)| \geq 2\alpha\}, \\ E_3 &= \{x \mid |q(x) - 1/2| \leq 3\alpha\}. \end{aligned}$$

▷ **Claim 33.** For every ρ , $E(\rho) \subseteq E_1(\rho) \cup E_2 \cup E_3$.

Proof of Claim 33. If $\tilde{Q}(x; \rho) \geq 1/2$, and $x \notin (E_1 \cup E_2)$, then $q(x) > 1/2 - 3\alpha$. So either $q(x) \geq 1/2$, or $x \in E_3$. Similar reasoning applies if $\tilde{Q}(x; \rho) < 1/2$. So these three sets cover E . ◁

We bound the sum for E_1 just by using Chernoff bounds, the sum for E_2 by the statistical distinguishability of our distributional inverter A , and the sum for E_3 using the fact that having q close to $1/2$ means $p_0(x)$ and $p_1(x)$ are relatively close. For $E_1(\rho)$ and E_2 , we will actually upperbound the summation of $p_0(x) + p_1(x)$, over x from the respective set.

▷ **Claim 34.** $\mathbf{Exp}_\rho \left[\sum_{x \in E_1(\rho)} (p_0(x) + p_1(x)) \right] \leq \alpha$.

Proof of Claim 34. By linearity of expectation, it suffices to upperbound

$$\mathbf{Exp}_\rho \left[\sum_{x \in E_1(\rho)} p_0(x) \right] + \mathbf{Exp}_\rho \left[\sum_{x \in E_1(\rho)} p_1(x) \right].$$

The first expectation can be thought of as the probability that, if we sample x from D_0 , and then perform the empirical estimate (using randomness ρ), that we are off by at least α . The second expectation is the same but for D_1 . By the Chernoff bounds (our choice of K), each probability is at most $\alpha/2$. ◁

▷ **Claim 35.** $\sum_{x \in E_2} (p_0(x) + p_1(x)) \leq \alpha$.

Proof of Claim 35. We use the accuracy of the inverter A . The distinguishing probability between $(A(F(b, r)), F(b, r))$ and $((b, r), F(b, r))$ is at least that between any distributions computable from these. So in particular, the statistical distance between $(B(x), x)$ and (b, x) , for $x = F(b, r)$, is at most α^2 . Using the fact that the statistical distance is the half of the ℓ_1 -norm of the difference between the distributions, we get

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha^2 &\geq (1/2) \cdot \sum_x (1/2) \cdot (p_0(x) + p_1(x)) \cdot (|q(x) - Q(x)| + |1 - Q(x) - (1 - q(x))|) \\ &= (1/2) \cdot \sum_x (p_0(x) + p_1(x)) \cdot |q(x) - Q(x)|, \end{aligned}$$

Since for all x in E_2 , $|q(x) - Q(x)| \geq 2\alpha$, and restricting to $x \in E_2$ only reduces the sum in the last line, we have

$$\alpha^2 \geq (1/2) \cdot \sum_{x \in E_2} (p_0(x) + p_1(x)) (2\alpha),$$

or $\sum_{x \in E_2} (p_0(x) + p_1(x)) \leq \alpha$, as required. ◁

▷ **Claim 36.** $\sum_{x \in E_3} |p_0(x) - p_1(x)| \leq 12\alpha$.

Proof of Claim 36. If $x \in E_3$ then

$$\left| \frac{p_0(x)}{p_0(x) + p_1(x)} - \frac{1}{2} \right| \leq 3\alpha.$$

Multiplying through by $2(p_0(x) + p_1(x))$,

$$|p_0(x) - p_1(x)| \leq 6\alpha(p_0(x) + p_1(x)).$$

Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{x \in E_3} |p_0(x) - p_1(x)| &\leq \sum_{x \in E_3} 6\alpha(p_0(x) + p_1(x)) \\ &\leq 12\alpha, \end{aligned}$$

as required. \triangleleft

Combining Claims 34–36, we get that the advantage of our probabilistic circuit C at distinguishing D_0 and D_1 is at least $\delta - 14\alpha$, as required. Given oracle access to A , our algorithm $\hat{\mathcal{D}}^A(C_0, C_1; 1^{1/\alpha})$ will construct such a circuit C in time polynomial in $1/\alpha$. \blacktriangleleft

We now prove Corollary 17. We repeat it here for convenience.

► **Corollary 37.** *There is an $\text{FBPP}^{\text{MCSP}}$ algorithm \mathcal{D} satisfying the following. Given any pair of circuits C_0 and C_1 that are samplers for some distributions D_0 and D_1 , and given a parameter K in unary, the algorithm $\mathcal{D}(C_0, C_1; 1^K)$ will distinguish D_0 and D_1 with advantage at least $\delta - 1/K$, where δ is the statistical distance between D_0 and D_1 .*

Proof. Use Lemma 16 to get an $\text{FBPP}^{\text{MCSP}}$ -computable universal distributional inverter that achieves statistical distance α^2 for $\alpha = 1/(14K)$. Define the algorithm \mathcal{D} as follows. For given input circuits C_0 and C_1 , run the oracle algorithm $\hat{\mathcal{D}}^A(C_0, C_1; 1^{1/\alpha})$ from Lemma 32, invoking the universal distributional inverter from Lemma 16 on every oracle query to A made by $\hat{\mathcal{D}}$. \blacktriangleleft

Next, we show that we can extend our universal distinguisher for distributions samplable by O -oracle circuits for languages O satisfying certain technical conditions.

► **Corollary 38.** *Let $O \in \text{BPP}^{\text{MCSP}} \cap \text{P/poly}$ be any language. Then there is an $\text{FBPP}^{\text{MCSP}}$ algorithm \mathcal{D} that, given any pair of O -oracle circuits C_0 and C_1 that are samplers for some distributions D_0 and D_1 , and given a parameter K in unary, the algorithm $\mathcal{D}(C_0, C_1; 1^K)$ will distinguish D_0 and D_1 with advantage at least $\delta - 1/K$, where δ is the statistical distance between D_0 and D_1 .*

Proof. Use Lemma 16 to get an $\text{FBPP}^{\text{MCSP}}$ -computable universal distributional inverter that achieves statistical distance α^2 for $\alpha = 1/(14K)$. As in the proof of Lemma 32, we use MCSP -oracle circuit samplers for distributions D_0 and D_1 to get a circuit for distributional one-way function candidate F . We then use our universal inverter to get a distributional inverter A needed in Lemma 32 for any given input circuits C_0 and C_1 . Observe that we can invert F since F is computable by a small O -oracle circuit (given the O -oracle circuits for sampling D_0 and D_1), and hence F is also computable by a circuit of polynomial size with *no* oracle gates (since by assumption $O \in \text{P/poly}$). The correctness proof of the inverting algorithm relies on the fact that a small circuit for F exists. Yet, the inverting algorithm for

F does not need to know a small circuit for F ; it just must be able to evaluate F efficiently, given a small description of F . Using the encoding of an O -oracle circuit for F works since the inverting algorithm can evaluate the circuit with probability close to 1, given access to the MCSP oracle (since $O \in \text{BPP}^{\text{MCSP}}$). ◀

B A Universal Distinguisher in FBPP^{NP}

► **Lemma 39** ([30]). *There exists a randomized algorithm that given oracle access to NP can approximate any function $f(x)$ in $\#\text{P}$ to within the multiplicative factor $(1 \pm \varepsilon)$, with probability at least $1 - \gamma$, in time polynomial in $|x|$, $1/\varepsilon$, and $\log(1/\gamma)$.*

► **Theorem 40.** *There is an FBPP^{NP} algorithm \mathcal{D} , that given circuits C_0 and C_1 that are samplers for distributions D_0 and D_1 , and $K \in \mathbb{N}$ in unary, will distinguish D_0 and D_1 with the distinguishing advantage at least $\delta - 1/K$, where δ is the statistical distance between D_0 and D_1 .*

Proof. Given C_0 and C_1 , let $p_0(x)$ be the probability of x according to D_0 , and $p_1(x)$ that according to D_1 . For $0 < \gamma = \varepsilon \leq 1/2$ to be determined, consider the following probabilistic circuit $A(x; r)$: Compute the estimates $\tilde{p}_0(x) = (1 \pm \varepsilon)p_0(x)$ and $\tilde{p}_1(x) = (1 \pm \varepsilon)p_1(x)$ with probability at least $1 - \gamma$ (using the algorithm from Lemma 39), and accept iff $\tilde{p}_0(x) > \tilde{p}_1(x)$.

We say that randomness r is good for x if both estimates $\tilde{p}_0(x)$ and $\tilde{p}_1(x)$ are correct within the multiplicative factor $(1 \pm \varepsilon)$. Note that by Lemma 39, for every x , r is good for x with probability at least $1 - 2\gamma$. We have

$$\begin{aligned} & \Pr_{x \sim D_0, r}[A(x; r) = 1] - \Pr_{x \sim D_1, r}[A(x; r) = 1] \\ & \geq \Pr_{x \sim D_0, r}[A(x; r) = 1 \mid r \text{ is good for } x] - \Pr_{x \sim D_1, r}[A(x; r) = 1 \mid r \text{ is good for } x] - 2\gamma \\ & = \sum_{x: p_0(x) > p_1(x)} (p_0(x) - p_1(x)) - 2\gamma \\ & \quad - \sum_{x: p_0(x) > p_1(x) \wedge \tilde{p}_0(x) < \tilde{p}_1(x)} (p_0(x) - p_1(x)) \\ & \quad + \sum_{x: p_0(x) \leq p_1(x) \wedge \tilde{p}_0(x) > \tilde{p}_1(x)} (p_0(x) - p_1(x)). \end{aligned}$$

Note that

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_{x: p_0(x) > p_1(x) \wedge \tilde{p}_0(x) < \tilde{p}_1(x)} (p_0(x) - p_1(x)) \\ & \leq \sum_{x: (p_0(x) > p_1(x)) \wedge ((1-\varepsilon)p_0(x) < (1+\varepsilon)p_1(x))} (p_0(x) - p_1(x)) \\ & \leq \sum_x ((1 + \varepsilon)/(1 - \varepsilon) - 1) \cdot p_1(x) \\ & = (2\varepsilon)/(1 - \varepsilon). \end{aligned}$$

Similarly,

$$\sum_{x: p_0(x) \leq p_1(x) \wedge \tilde{p}_0(x) > \tilde{p}_1(x)} (p_1(x) - p_0(x)) \leq (2\varepsilon)/(1 - \varepsilon).$$

Putting everything together, we get

$$\Pr_{x \sim D_0, r}[A(x; r) = 1] - \Pr_{x \sim D_1, r}[A(x; r) = 1] \geq \delta - (2\gamma + (4\varepsilon)/(1 - \varepsilon)),$$

which is at least $\delta - 10\varepsilon$. Setting $\varepsilon = 1/(10K)$ concludes the proof. ◀

C Separating ZPEXP from ZPP

▷ Claim 41. $ZPEXP \neq ZPP$.

Proof. Suppose for a contradiction that $ZPEXP = ZPP$. Then

$$NP^{NP} \subseteq EXP \subseteq ZPEXP \subseteq ZPP.$$

By translation, $NEXP^{NP} \subseteq ZPEXP$ and hence by Lemma 12, $ZPEXP \not\subseteq P/poly$. Yet, by Adleman's Theorem ([1]) $ZPP \subseteq BPP \subseteq P/poly$. ◁

► Remark 42. Similarly, one can show that $BPEXP \neq BPP$. However, separating ZPEXP or even NEXP or EXP^{NP} from BPP remains a longstanding open question. See e.g. [15, 49].