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# Paradigms for Unconditional Pseudorandom Generators

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# Paradigms for Unconditional Pseudorandom Generators

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## ABSTRACT

This is a survey of unconditional *pseudorandom generators* (PRGs). A PRG uses a short, truly random seed to generate a long, “pseudorandom” sequence of bits. To be more specific, for each restricted model of computation (e.g., bounded-depth circuits or read-once branching programs), we would like to design a PRG that “fools” the model, meaning that every function computable in the model behaves approximately the same when we plug in pseudorandom bits from the PRG as it does when we plug in truly random bits. In this survey, we discuss four major paradigms for designing PRGs:

- We present several PRGs based on  $k$ -wise uniform generators, small-bias generators, and simple combinations thereof, including proofs of Viola’s theorem on fooling low-degree polynomials [242] and Braverman’s theorem on fooling  $\mathbf{AC}^0$  circuits [36].
- We present several PRGs based on “recycling” random bits to take advantage of communication bottlenecks, such as the Impagliazzo-Nisan-Wigderson generator [131].

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- We present connections between PRGs and computational hardness, including the Nisan-Wigderson framework for converting a hard Boolean function into a PRG [183].
- We present PRG frameworks based on random restrictions, including the “polarizing random walks” framework [49].

We explain how to use these paradigms to construct PRGs that work *unconditionally*, with no unproven complexity-theoretic assumptions. The PRG constructions use ingredients such as finite field arithmetic, expander graphs, and randomness extractors. The analyses use techniques such as Fourier analysis, sandwiching approximators, and simplification-under-restrictions lemmas.

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# 1

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## Introduction

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To make random choices, it would be useful to have an unlimited supply of “truly random” bits: unbiased and independent coin flips. What can we do if we only have a few truly random bits? A *pseudorandom generator* (PRG) uses a small amount of true randomness, called the “seed,” to generate a long sequence that appears to be completely random (even though it isn’t). PRGs are ubiquitous in computing theory and practice. The basic motivation is that we think of randomness as a scarce computational resource, akin to time or space, so whenever we get our hands on some random bits, we want to stretch them as far as possible.

To model PRGs mathematically, we consider some “observer,” modeled as a function  $f$ . Let  $U_n$  denote the uniform distribution over  $\{0, 1\}^n$ . We would like to “fool”  $f$  in the following sense.

**Definition 1.1** (Fooling). Suppose  $f: \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$  is a function,  $X$  is a probability distribution over  $\{0, 1\}^n$ , and  $\varepsilon > 0$ . We say that  $X$  *fools  $f$  with error  $\varepsilon$* , or  $\varepsilon$ -fools  $f$ , if

$$|\Pr[f(X) = 1] - \Pr[f(U_n) = 1]| \leq \varepsilon.$$

More generally, we can consider a real-valued function  $f: \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . In this case, we say that  $X$  fools  $f$  with error  $\varepsilon$  if

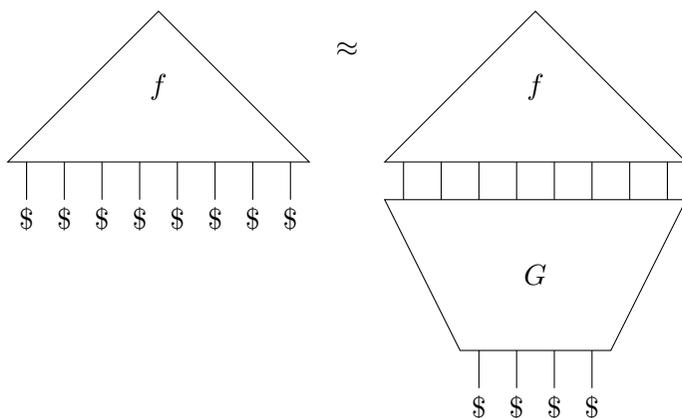
$$|\mathbb{E}[f(X)] - \mathbb{E}[f(U_n)]| \leq \varepsilon.$$

If  $\varepsilon = 0$ , we say that  $X$  *perfectly* fools  $f$ .

**Remark 1.1.** As a shorthand, we often identify the function  $f$  with the random variable  $f(U_n)$ . For example, instead of  $\mathbb{E}[f(U_n)]$ , we simply write  $\mathbb{E}[f]$ .

Definition 1.1 says that although  $X$  might not be uniform,  $X$  and  $U_n$  are nevertheless *indistinguishable*, at least from  $f$ 's perspective. Conversely, if  $X$  does *not*  $\varepsilon$ -fool  $f$ , we refer to  $f$  as a “distinguisher” for  $X$ . A PRG's job is to use a few truly random bits to sample a distribution that fools  $f$ .

**Definition 1.2 (PRGs).** Suppose  $f: \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and  $G: \{0, 1\}^s \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$  are functions and  $\varepsilon > 0$ . We say that  $G$  is an  $\varepsilon$ -PRG for  $f$  if  $G(U_s)$  fools  $f$  with error  $\varepsilon$ . In this case, we also say that  $G$  fools  $f$  with error  $\varepsilon$  (see Figure 1.1.)



**Figure 1.1:** A PRG ( $G$ ) uses a few truly random bits (depicted here using \$ symbols) to sample a pseudorandom string that is indistinguishable from a truly random string, from the perspective of the observer ( $f$ ).

The parameter  $s$  is called the *seed length* of the PRG; we would like  $s$  to be as small as possible. Throughout this text, the parameter “ $n$ ” will always denote the number of pseudorandom bits we are generating.

## 1.1 Whom Shall We Fool? Three Approaches to PRGs

An unavoidable fact of life is that for any nontrivial PRG, there exists a function that is not fooled by the PRG.

**Claim 1.1** (Impossibility of fooling all functions). Let  $G: \{0, 1\}^s \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$  where  $s < n$ . There exists some  $f: \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$  such that  $G$  does not 0.49-fool  $f$ .

*Proof.* Let  $f$  be the indicator function for the image of  $G$ . Then  $\mathbb{E}[f(G(U_s))] = 1$ , whereas  $\mathbb{E}[f] \leq 1/2$  because  $s < n$ .  $\square$

In light of Claim 1.1, the best we can hope for is generating bits that fool some large sets of observers but not all of them. After all, as Avi Wigderson says, *randomness is in the eye of the beholder* [248].

**Definition 1.3** (PRG for a class of functions). Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , let  $\mathcal{F}$  be a class of functions  $f: \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , let  $G: \{0, 1\}^s \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$  be a function, and let  $\varepsilon > 0$ . We say that  $G$  is an  $\varepsilon$ -PRG for  $\mathcal{F}$  if  $G$  fools every  $f \in \mathcal{F}$  with error  $\varepsilon$ .

Which observers shall we fool? The study of PRGs can be crudely divided into three approaches based on three possible answers:

1. Everyday non-adversarial applications.
2. All efficient observers.
3. Restricted models of computation.

We discuss these three approaches in Sections 1.1.1 to 1.1.3.

### 1.1.1 PRGs for everyday non-adversarial applications

In practice, when programmers want randomness, they invoke some type of `random()` method provided by the computing environment. Under the hood, these `random()` methods typically involve several components, each of which might be quite sophisticated. When practitioners speak of “pseudorandom number generators” or “random number generators,” they are usually referring to the entire randomness system as a whole,

including whatever techniques are used to produce an initial seed. For example, the system might derive a seed from the current time of day, even though such a seed is rather predictable. As another example, the system might use hardware random number generators based on thermal noise measurements.

In this text, we sidestep the important issue of producing a seed, along with many other issues that are important in practice. We focus on the challenge of stretching a truly random seed out to a long pseudorandom string. In our terminology, this is the job of a PRG (see Definition 1.2). A PRG is thus one of multiple components of a practical randomness system. For example, Java’s `Math.random()` method currently uses a type of PRG called a *linear congruential generator*. For such a PRG, the seed is a random number  $X_0 \in \{0, 1, \dots, M - 1\}$ , and the output sequence is  $(X_1, X_2, X_3, \dots)$ , where

$$X_{i+1} = a \cdot X_i + b \bmod M$$

for some parameters  $M, a, b$ . Meanwhile, Python’s `random.random()` method uses an algorithm called the “Mersenne twister” [169], and major web browsers currently use a PRG in the “xorshift+ family” [240] to implement Javascript’s `Math.random()` function.

### Why these PRGs are unsatisfactory

Practitioners use these randomness systems for both casual applications (e.g., video games) and serious applications (e.g., scientific simulations). However, for a generic randomized algorithm, there is *no firm mathematical guarantee* that the outputs will be reliable when the algorithm is executed using one of these practical randomness systems. The methods that practitioners typically use to run randomized algorithms must be considered *heuristics*.

To be clear, a lot of work goes into designing high-quality practical randomness systems. Designers strive to ensure that these systems can be safely used in any application that “comes up naturally” in practice. The system is only deemed acceptable for everyday use when it passes a great number of creative statistical tests, such as those in the TestU01 family [147].

These statistical tests are valuable, but there is a wide gap between the statistical tests and a typical randomized algorithm. The designers behind practical systems such as Java's `Math.random()` method wisely do not claim that they work in *adversarial* scenarios, so these systems are considered unsuitable for cryptography. This is true even if we focus solely on the PRG component of these systems. Furthermore, sometimes programs “accidentally” distinguish pseudorandom numbers from truly random numbers. There are quite a few documented cases in which PRGs have been shown to cause inaccurate scientific simulations [68], [69], [88], [89], [107], [139], [174], [187]! One must imagine that other cases have gone unnoticed.

To a theoretician, this state of affairs is deeply unsatisfactory. Yes, modern practical PRGs seem to almost always work well in practice, but we don't have a mathematically rigorous explanation for *why* these systems work. It's not even clear what precisely the goal is. (Mathematically, how can we make a distinction between “adversarially-designed” programs and “naturally-occurring” programs?) By theoreticians' standards, the success of practical PRGs is largely a mystery.

### 1.1.2 PRGs for all efficient observers

One of the great ideas in the theory of computing is the concept of a PRG that fools *all computationally efficient* observers. Given such a PRG and a truly random seed, we would be able to execute any randomized algorithm that is actually worth executing. (After all, there's no point running a program if one won't even survive long enough to see the output!) Such a PRG could also be used in cryptographic settings, because we can safely assume that eavesdroppers and hackers only have so much computational power.<sup>1</sup>

For example, the Blum-Blum-Shub (BBS) generator [27] uses a short seed to randomly select a suitable modulus  $M$  and a number

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<sup>1</sup>There is a subtle distinction here. In the context of randomized algorithms, it's okay if the PRG itself uses a little more time than the algorithms that we are trying to fool. On the other hand, in the context of cryptography, we want an efficiently-computable PRG that fools all efficient adversaries, including those that use polynomially more time than the PRG uses.

$X_0 \in \{1, 2, \dots, M - 1\}$ , and then it outputs the sequence  $(X_1 \bmod 2, X_2 \bmod 2, X_3 \bmod 2, \dots)$  where

$$X_{i+1} = X_i^2 \bmod M.$$

This PRG is reminiscent of linear congruential generators, but the similarity is only superficial. It is believed that the BBS generator fools polynomial-time algorithms.

### Why these PRGs are also (currently) unsatisfactory

Fooling all efficient observers is a well-defined and well-motivated *goal*. Unfortunately, nobody knows how to prove that some efficiently-computable PRG actually *has* this marvelous property.

To be clear, there is a substantial body of “evidence” indicating that such PRGs exist. For example, Blum *et al.* [27] showed that their generator fools all polynomial-time observers, under the plausible-but-unproven assumption that there is no good algorithm for the “quadratic residuosity problem”. There are many other examples of PRGs that fool all polynomial-time observers under reasonable cryptographic or complexity-theoretic assumptions [28], [83], [119], [134], [144], [183], [236], [249].<sup>2</sup> For practical cryptography, software developers tend to use PRGs that are not even supported by rigorous *conditional* proofs of correctness, but rather are supported by heuristic and intuitive arguments.

There is a genuine possibility that these PRGs are not secure. In one infamous incident, the U.S. National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST) recommended using a PRG called “Dual\_EC\_DRBG.” The PRG was designed by the U.S. National Security Agency (NSA), and allegedly, they *intentionally designed it to be insecure* for surveillance purposes [189].

Once again, to a theoretician, this state of affairs is not satisfactory. There is genuine room for doubt about *whether* known PRGs work, and perhaps more importantly, even if they do work, we don’t have a good

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<sup>2</sup>Note that some of these PRGs use somewhat more time than the observers they fool, and hence are suitable for simulating randomized algorithms but not for cryptography (cf. Footnote 1).

explanation for *why* they work. Conditional proofs can be considered partial explanations at best. The problem of designing PRGs that unconditionally fool all efficient observers is very challenging, with connections to deep topics such as the famous **P** vs. **NP** problem (see Section 4.1).

### 1.1.3 PRGs for restricted models of computation

The main topic of this text is a third approach to PRGs. In this third approach, we identify an interesting and well-defined *restricted model of computation*. Then we design PRGs that fool the chosen model of computation (unconditionally – with no unproven assumptions) and try to optimize the seed length of the PRG.

A toy example might clarify the idea. Let us design a PRG

$$G: \{0, 1\}^2 \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^3$$

that fools every observer  $f$  that only looks at two of the three output bits. This problem is not completely trivial, because we don't know which two bits  $f$  will observe. Nevertheless, the problem can be solved by defining

$$G(u_1, u_2) = (u_1, u_2, u_1 \oplus u_2),$$

where  $\oplus$  denotes the XOR operation. When  $u_1$  and  $u_2$  are chosen uniformly at random, the three output bits are correlated, but any two of the bits are independent and uniform random.

Unconditional PRGs can be constructed for much richer and more interesting restricted models of computation. We are especially interested in fooling models of computation that have a “complexity theory” flavor, i.e., we want the output of the PRG to appear random to any observer that is “sufficiently efficient” in some sense. Arguably, the two most important models in this field are *constant-depth circuits* (**AC**<sup>0</sup>, see Definition 2.13) and *read-once branching programs* (ROBPs, see Definition 1.5).

### The value of these PRGs

Could PRGs for restricted models ever be directly used in practical applications? Potentially. PRGs for restricted models can be used to

simulate randomized algorithms without significantly distorting their behavior, provided that the algorithms in question are “sufficiently efficient” in the appropriate sense. (See Section 1.5 for more details.)

Admittedly, it’s a bit unrealistic to imagine the PRGs studied in the theoretical literature being implemented on actual computers, because it is hard to compete with the practical PRGs discussed in Section 1.1.1. Instead, the study of PRGs for restricted models has a much grander and broader purpose: these PRGs help to uncover the mysteries of the theory of computing, and hence are invaluable from a scientific perspective.

We briefly elaborate on some of the applications of PRGs within the theory of computing in Section 1.5. Apart from any application, we hope to convince the reader that PRGs for restricted models are interesting in their own right.

## 1.2 Overview of this Text

In this work, we survey some of the most important frameworks and techniques for constructing unconditional PRGs for restricted models of computation. We focus on four major PRG paradigms:

- In Section 2, we present  $k$ -wise uniform generators, small-bias generators, and simple combinations thereof.
- In Section 3, we present PRGs that “recycle” randomness to take advantage of communication bottlenecks, such as the Impagliazzo-Nisan-Wigderson generator [131].
- In Section 4, we present connections between PRGs and computational hardness, including the Nisan-Wigderson framework for converting a hard Boolean function into a PRG [183].
- In Section 5, we present methods for constructing PRGs based on (pseudo)random restrictions, including the relatively recent “polarizing random walks” framework [49].

Along the way, as needed, we introduce the computational models that we fool (decision trees, circuits, branching programs, etc.) and tech-

niques for analyzing PRGs (Fourier analysis, sandwiching approximators, simplification-under-restriction lemmas, etc.)

The literature on unconditional PRGs is vast, and this survey is far from exhaustive. (For example, we do not discuss the important line of work on fooling *linear threshold functions* [78], [104], [173], [195].) Instead, we hope that this work serves as a suitable *introduction* to the field of unconditional PRGs, preparing the reader to study new and old papers on PRGs and make their own contributions.

The results that we cover include both classic and recent works. Besides covering the most important *principles* of PRG design and analysis, we also made sure to include expositions of many of the most important *examples* of unconditional PRGs, such as Viola's [242] PRG for low-degree polynomials, Braverman's [36] theorem that limited independence fools  $\mathbf{AC}^0$ , and Forbes and Kelley's [91] relatively recent PRG for arbitrary-order ROBPs.

This text is primarily expository. However, we couldn't help but include a few novel theorems and proofs. For example, we present a new proof of Braverman's theorem (Section 2.6), and we present a new improvement to the polarizing random walks framework in the low-error regime (Section 5.1.4). We also highlight plenty of important open problems regarding PRGs for restricted models of computation.

Many wonderful prior expository works [15], [97], [165], [175], [185], [238] and lecture notes [45]–[47], [215], [216], [218], [219], [229], [233], [244], [253] include some coverage of unconditional PRGs. However, none of them has quite the same focus as our work, so we feel that our work fills a gap.

In the rest of this section, we discuss some additional basic issues related to the concept of a PRG, paving the way for the PRG constructions in subsequent sections.

### 1.3 The Generic Probabilistic Existence Proof

For many classes  $\mathcal{F}$ , including classes defined by standard nonuniform computational models (such as decision trees, circuits, branching programs, etc.), there is a totally generic argument showing that there exist PRGs that fool  $\mathcal{F}$  with a small seed length.

**Proposition 1.1** (Nonexplicit PRGs). Let  $\mathcal{F}$  be a class of functions  $f: \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ . For every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists an  $\varepsilon$ -PRG for  $\mathcal{F}$  with seed length  $\log \log |\mathcal{F}| + 2 \log(1/\varepsilon) + O(1)$ .

*Proof.* Pick a function  $G: \{0, 1\}^s \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$  uniformly at random. Consider any arbitrary  $f \in \mathcal{F}$ . For each seed  $y$ , the value  $f(G(y))$  is a random bit satisfying

$$\mathbb{E}_G[f(G(y))] = \mathbb{E}_{U_n}[f(U_n)].$$

Furthermore, as  $y$  ranges over all  $2^s$  possible seeds, these random variables  $f(G(y))$  are independent. Therefore, by Hoeffding's inequality,

$$\Pr_G \left[ \left| \mathbb{E}[f] - 2^{-s} \sum_{y \in \{0,1\}^s} f(G(y)) \right| > \varepsilon \right] \leq 2e^{-2\varepsilon^2 2^s}.$$

By the union bound, the probability that  $G$  fails to  $\varepsilon$ -fool  $\mathcal{F}$  is bounded by  $2|\mathcal{F}|e^{-2\varepsilon^2 2^s}$ . For  $s = \log \log |\mathcal{F}| + 2 \log(1/\varepsilon) + O(1)$ , this probability is less than 1, i.e., there exists a  $G$  that does  $\varepsilon$ -fool  $\mathcal{F}$ .  $\square$

In a typical case – e.g., if  $\mathcal{F}$  is the set of all circuits of size at most  $n$  – each function  $f \in \mathcal{F}$  can be described using  $\text{poly}(n)$  bits, i.e.,  $|\mathcal{F}| \leq 2^{\text{poly}(n)}$ . In this case, the PRG guaranteed by Proposition 1.1 has seed length  $O(\log(n/\varepsilon))$ .

## 1.4 Explicitness

Proposition 1.1 has a major weakness: it does not guarantee that the PRG is *efficiently computable*. The proof of Proposition 1.1 is in some sense “nonconstructive.” Ideally, we want an *algorithm* for sampling from a pseudorandom distribution, and we want the algorithm to be reasonably efficient with respect to randomness *and* more conventional complexity measures simultaneously.

**Definition 1.4** (Explicitness). A PRG  $G: \{0, 1\}^s \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$  is *explicit* if it can be computed in time  $\text{poly}(n)$ .

One could consider alternative standards of explicitness. We could require that each individual output bit can be computed in time  $\text{polylog } n$ ,

or that the PRG runs in space  $O(\log n)$ , or that each bit can be computed in  $\mathbf{AC}^0$ , or any number of other conditions. The truth is, there is no “one true definition” of explicitness. The appropriate definition depends on what one hopes to gain from the PRG; see Section 1.5.

In this text, we will stick with Definition 1.4 for concreteness, but when we present PRG constructions, we will generally not bother carefully verifying the runtime bound. Instead, we will focus on making the construction clear to the reader.

### 1.4.1 Families of PRGs

Definition 1.4 refers to the time complexity of a PRG. To meaningfully speak of time complexity, we technically ought to be considering a whole *family* of PRGs. The convention in this line of work is to keep the family implicit. For example, a theorem might say something like the following.

For all  $n, m \in \mathbb{N}$  and all  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists an explicit  $\varepsilon$ -PRG for size- $m$  decision trees on  $n$  input bits with seed length  $O(\log(m/\varepsilon) + \log \log n)$ .

(See Section 2.3.3.) Translating into more precise language, the same theorem can be restated as follows.

There exists a randomized algorithm  $\mathcal{G}$  satisfying the following.

1. Given input parameters  $n, m, \varepsilon$ , the algorithm  $\mathcal{G}$  outputs a string  $\mathcal{G}(n, m, \varepsilon) \in \{0, 1\}^n$ .
2. For all  $n, m, \varepsilon$ , the output distribution  $\mathcal{G}(n, m, \varepsilon)$  fools size- $m$  decision trees with error  $\varepsilon$ .
3.  $\mathcal{G}(n, m, \varepsilon)$  uses at most  $O(\log(m/\varepsilon) + \log \log n)$  random bits and runs in time  $\text{poly}(n)$ .

There is something potentially troubling about this “translation” process. The quantifiers got flipped! In the informal theorem statement,

we say “for all  $n, m, \varepsilon$ , there exists an explicit PRG,” but strictly speaking, we mean that there exists a single algorithm  $\mathcal{G}$  that works for all  $n, m, \varepsilon$  simultaneously! Is this “flipped quantifiers” convention wise?

Let us make an analogy with big- $O$  notation. Recall, e.g., the famous planar separator theorem:

For all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , for every  $n$ -vertex planar graph, there exists a set of  $O(\sqrt{n})$  vertices such that removing those vertices splits the graph into connected components with at most  $2n/3$  vertices each.

If we wanted to be more rigorous, we ought to flip the quantifiers and write something like the following:

There exists a function  $f: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$  such that  $f \in O(\sqrt{n})$  and for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , for every  $n$ -vertex planar graph, there exists a set of  $f(n)$  vertices such that removing those vertices splits the graph into connected components with at most  $2n/3$  vertices each.

We don’t bother with such careful language because it obscures more than it clarifies. The important thing is that the expression “ $O(\sqrt{n})$ ” tells how the number of removed vertices scales with the universally quantified parameter  $n$ . Analogously, when we say “there exists an explicit PRG,” the word “explicit” tells how the *computational complexity* of the PRG scales with the parameters.

### 1.4.2 The default conjecture: Explicit PRGs exist

For each “reasonable” class  $\mathcal{F}$ , the standard conjecture is that there exists an *explicit* PRG with essentially the same seed length as the generic nonexplicit bound (Proposition 1.1). Oftentimes, this conjecture can be supported with evidence in the form of conditional constructions. For example, consider the class  $\mathcal{F}$  of all CNF formulas of size at most  $n$ . The nonexplicit PRG has seed length  $O(\log(n/\varepsilon))$ . Under plausible complexity-theoretic assumptions, there is indeed an explicit PRG for

all size- $n$  Boolean circuits (whether CNF formulas or not) with seed length  $O(\log(n/\varepsilon))$  [134].

Even without a compelling conditional construction, the “default” conjecture would be that for natural families of functions a probabilistic existence proof can be matched by an explicit construction. The main challenge is to find the explicit construction. Typically, such a PRG would be optimal, i.e., one can unconditionally prove a seed length lower bound matching the nonexplicit bound to within a constant factor.<sup>3</sup> For example, every PRG for size- $n$  CNF formulas (explicit or not) must have seed length at least  $\Omega(\log(n/\varepsilon))$ .

## 1.5 Applications of PRGs

PRGs for restricted models have many applications. We will not attempt to exhaustively list these applications, nor even to properly survey them. We will, however, briefly describe some of the most important applications. Hopefully, this brief discussion of applications will serve to motivate the main topic of this text, which is the construction and analysis of PRGs.

### 1.5.1 Simulating randomized algorithms

One of the most natural applications of PRGs is to simulate a randomized algorithm using only a few truly random bits (the seed of the PRG). Let  $A$  be a randomized algorithm that we would like to simulate. In order to simulate  $A$  without significantly distorting its behavior, what property should our PRG have?

For simplicity, let us assume that  $A$  is a decision algorithm, i.e., it outputs a bit. Let  $A(a, x)$  denote the output value of  $A$  when the input is  $a$  and the random bits are  $x$ . For each input  $a$ , we can define a function  $f_a: \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ , where  $n$  is the number of random bits that  $A$  uses,<sup>4</sup> by the rule  $f_a(x) = A(a, x)$ . That is,  $f_a$  describes the behavior of  $A$  on input  $a$  as a function of its random bits. Definition 1.2

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<sup>3</sup>For a counterexample, see the work of Hoza *et al.* [127].

<sup>4</sup>For simplicity, we assume that  $n$  is determined by  $a$  rather than varying based on the random bits. This is a “Monte Carlo” algorithm rather than a “Las Vegas” algorithm.

implies that if  $G: \{0, 1\}^s \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$  is an PRG that fools  $f_a$  with error  $\varepsilon$ , then  $G$  can be used to simulate  $A$  without changing its acceptance probability by more than  $\varepsilon$ :

$$|\Pr[A(a, U_n) = 1] - \Pr[A(a, G(U_s)) = 1]| \leq \varepsilon.$$

Thus, if we wish to design a PRG to simulate  $A$ , we should study the computational complexity of the functions  $f_a$ .

### Simulating randomized polynomial-time algorithms

One important case is when  $A$  is a *polynomial-time* randomized algorithm, corresponding to the complexity class **BPP**. In this case, the following claim says that the functions  $f_a$  can be computed by *polynomial-size Boolean circuits*.<sup>5</sup>

**Claim 1.2** (PRGs for circuits can be used to simulate **BPP**). Let  $A$  be a randomized decision algorithm and let  $a$  be an input. Let  $n$  be the number of random bits that  $A$  uses on input  $a$  and define  $f_a: \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$  by the rule  $f_a(x) = A(a, x)$ . Let  $T$  be the running time of  $A$  on input  $a$  and assume  $T \geq |a|$ . Then  $f_a$  can be computed by a Boolean circuit of size  $\text{poly}(T)$ .<sup>6</sup>

*Proof.* The function  $A(a, x)$  can be computed by a Boolean circuit of size  $\text{poly}(T)$  that reads both  $a$  and  $x$  [190]. When we fix the “ $a$ ” portion of the input bits to arbitrary values, what remains is a circuit of size  $\text{poly}(T)$  operating on  $x$ .  $\square$

Claim 1.2 implies that if  $G: \{0, 1\}^s \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$  fools circuits of size  $\text{poly}(T)$ , then  $G$  can be used to simulate time- $T$  randomized algorithms. The running time of this simulation is essentially  $T$  plus the running time of  $G$ , so for this application, the appropriate “explicitness” condition is that  $G$  can be computed quickly, e.g., in time  $\text{poly}(T)$ . Unfortunately, as discussed previously, the challenge of designing explicit PRGs for general Boolean circuits is extremely difficult.

<sup>5</sup>Recall that a Boolean circuit is a network of AND, OR, and NOT gates.

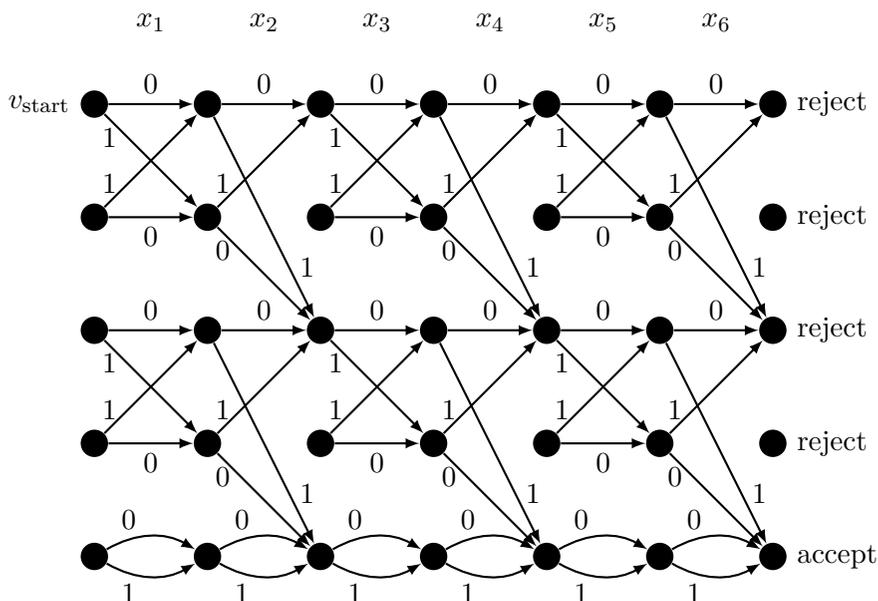
<sup>6</sup>Again, we assume for simplicity that  $n$  and  $T$  are determined by  $a$  rather than varying based on the random bits (cf. Footnote 4).

**Remark 1.2** (Nonuniformity). The Boolean circuit model is a *nonuniform* model, i.e., each individual Boolean circuit operates on inputs of some fixed length. The reader might find it counterintuitive that we seek PRGs for circuits in order to simulate *uniform* randomized polynomial-time algorithms (i.e., the one randomized algorithm can handle inputs of any arbitrary length). The concept of *advice* might be helpful [141]. Recall that a family of polynomial-size circuits (one circuit for each input length) is equivalent to a polynomial-time algorithm with a polynomial amount of advice: data that is trustworthy but that depends only on the input length. In our setting, the input  $a$  to the polynomial-time algorithm  $A$  can be viewed as advice that  $A$  uses to try to distinguish between truly random bits and the output of a PRG. We want to simulate  $A$  correctly even on a *worst-case* input  $a$ , and hence we want a PRG that fools an adversarial polynomial-time observer with advice, i.e., a Boolean circuit.

### Simulating randomized log-space algorithms

Another important case is when  $A$  is a *log-space* randomized algorithm, corresponding to the complexity class **BPL**. In this case, for each input  $a$ , the function  $f_a$  can be computed by a *polynomial-width standard-order read-once branching program* (ROBP), defined next.

**Definition 1.5** (Standard-order read-once branching programs). A length- $n$  *standard-order read-once branching program* (standard-order ROBP)  $f$  consists of a directed layered multigraph with  $n + 1$  layers,  $V_0, \dots, V_n$ . For every  $i < n$ , each vertex  $v \in V_i$  has two outgoing edges leading to  $V_{i+1}$ , one labeled 0 and the other labeled 1. Vertices in  $V_n$  have zero outgoing edges. There is a designated “start vertex”  $v_{\text{start}} \in V_0$ . An input  $x \in \{0, 1\}^n$  selects a path  $(v_0, v_1, \dots, v_n)$  through the graph: the path starts at  $v_0 = v_{\text{start}}$ , and upon reaching a vertex  $v_i \in V_i$ , the bit  $x_{i+1}$  specifies which outgoing edge to use. There is a designated set of “accept vertices”  $V_{\text{accept}} \subseteq V_n$ , and  $f(x) = 1$  if  $v_n \in V_{\text{accept}}$  and  $f(x) = 0$  otherwise. The *width* of the program is the maximum number of vertices in a single layer (see Figure 1.2).



**Figure 1.2:** A width-5 length-6 standard-order ROBP computing the function  $f(x) = \text{MAJ}(x_1 \oplus x_2, x_3 \oplus x_4, x_5 \oplus x_6)$ .

**Claim 1.3** (PRGs for ROBPs can be used to simulate **BPL**). Let  $A$  be a randomized decision algorithm and let  $a$  be an input. Let  $n$  be the number of random bits that  $A$  uses on input  $a$  and define  $f_a: \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$  by the rule  $f_a(x) = A(a, x)$ . Let  $S$  be the number of bits of space used by  $A$  on input  $a$  and assume  $S \geq \log |a|$ . Then  $f_a$  can be computed by a standard-order ROBP of width  $2^{O(S)}$ .

*Proof.* We think of  $A$  as a Turing machine with an input tape, a work tape, and a random tape. Each vertex in the program corresponds to a configuration of  $A$ , consisting of the contents of its work tape, the location of the input tape and work tape read heads, and the internal state of  $A$ . An edge  $(u, v)$  labeled  $b \in \{0, 1\}$  indicates that if we run  $A$  on input  $a$  starting at configuration  $u$  until its next coin toss, and if that coin toss outcome is  $b$ , then the machine's configuration immediately following the coin toss is  $v$ .  $\square$

**Remark 1.3** (The read-once property). In general, a log-space algorithm with a polynomial amount of advice is equivalent to a polynomial-size branching program that might read its bits many times (see Definition 5.16). Nevertheless, we get a *read-once* branching program in Claim 1.3. The reason is that we are focusing on the behavior of the algorithm *as a function of its random bits*. An algorithm in the standard **BPL** model only has read-once access to its random tape: the algorithm cannot go back and re-read old random bits. (If one is computing using a single fair coin, then one cannot ask the coin what the outcome of the first toss was after tossing it a second time.)

**Remark 1.4** (ROBP terminology). In the pseudorandomness literature, standard-order ROBPs are often referred to as simply “ROBPs.” This practice is a bit misleading, since the definition is *not* simply “a branching program that is read-once.” Indeed, in addition to being read-once, we are assuming that the program is *oblivious*, meaning that the variable queried in time step  $i$  depends only on  $i$ , and more specifically, we are assuming that the branching program follows the *standard variable ordering*, meaning that in time step  $i$ , the program queries the variable  $x_i$ . (The branching program in the proof of Claim 1.3 indeed reads its input bits in the standard order, because without loss of generality, the algorithm  $A$  reads its read-once random tape from left to right.) Unsurprisingly, many papers outside the pseudorandomness literature use terms like “read-once branching program” to refer to more general models that are not necessarily even oblivious [17], [21], [22], [201], [247]. In this text, for clarity, we use the more verbose term “standard-order ROBP” to emphasize the variable ordering assumption.<sup>7</sup>

Claim 1.3 implies that if  $G: \{0, 1\}^s \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$  fools standard-order ROBPs of width  $2^{O(S)}$ , then  $G$  can be used to simulate space- $S$  randomized algorithms. For this application, the appropriate “explicitness” condition is that  $G$  can be computed in low space – perhaps space  $O(S)$ . More precisely, the space complexity of the deterministic simulation is essentially  $S$  plus the space complexity of computing  $G(y)$  given *one-way read-only access* to the seed  $y$ .

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<sup>7</sup>Hoza used the same verbose terminology in some other recent expository work [125].

## Simulating other types of randomized algorithms

One can consider numerous other classes of randomized algorithms, as well as specific important randomized algorithms. In each case, if we wish to replace the truly random bits with pseudorandom bits, then the question we must answer is, what is the algorithm doing as a function of its random bits? If, for each fixed input  $a$ , the algorithm's behavior can be described by a function of "sufficiently low complexity" applied to its random bits, then we can design a PRG that fools such "low-complexity" functions and use it to simulate the algorithm. Because of the presence of the worst-case input  $a$ , the appropriate complexity measure will generally be captured by some *nonuniform* model of computation.

### 1.5.2 Derandomizing algorithms

If we use a PRG to simulate a randomized algorithm in the most natural possible way (as discussed above), we are still using a small amount of randomness, namely the truly random seed of the PRG. However, in many cases it is possible to eliminate this small amount of randomness, leading to a completely deterministic simulation. The most straightforward way to do this is to exhaustively try all possible seeds.

**Claim 1.4** (Trying all seeds and taking a majority vote). Let  $A$  be a randomized decision algorithm, let  $a$  be an input, and let  $n$  be the number of random bits that  $A$  uses on input  $a$ .<sup>8</sup> Let  $\varepsilon > 0$  and assume that  $A$  succeeds with probability greater than  $1/2 + \varepsilon$ , i.e., there is some "correct answer"  $b \in \{0, 1\}$  such that

$$\Pr[A(a, U_n) = b] > 1/2 + \varepsilon.$$

Define  $f_a: \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$  by the rule  $f_a(x) = A(a, x)$ . Let  $G: \{0, 1\}^s \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$  be a PRG that  $\varepsilon$ -fools  $f_a$ . Then

$$\text{MAJ}_{y \in \{0, 1\}^s} (A(a, G(y))) = b.$$

*Proof.* First, suppose  $b = 1$ . The definition of fooling implies that

$$\mathbb{E}[A(a, G(U_s))] = \mathbb{E}[f(G(U_s))] \geq \mathbb{E}[f] - \varepsilon > 1/2 + \varepsilon - \varepsilon = 1/2.$$

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<sup>8</sup>Again, we assume for simplicity that  $n$  is determined by  $a$ .

Therefore,  $A(a, G(y)) = 1$  for a majority of seeds  $y$ . Now suppose instead that  $b = 0$ . The fact that  $G$  fools  $f_a$  with error  $\varepsilon$  implies that  $G$  also fools  $1 - f_a$  with error  $\varepsilon$ , because for any distribution  $X$ , we have

$$|\mathbb{E}[1 - f_a(X)] - \mathbb{E}[1 - f_a]| = |1 - \mathbb{E}[f_a(X)] - 1 + \mathbb{E}[f_a]| = |\mathbb{E}[f_a] - \mathbb{E}[f_a(X)]|.$$

Therefore, by our previous analysis applied to  $1 - A(a, x)$ , we see that  $A(a, G(y)) = 0$  for a majority of seeds  $y$ .  $\square$

Claim 1.4 implies, for example, that if  $G: \{0, 1\}^s \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$  fools standard-order ROBPs of width  $2^{O(S)}$ , then we can use it to *deterministically* simulate randomized space- $S$  decision algorithms. The space complexity of this deterministic simulation is essentially  $S$ , plus  $s$ , plus the space complexity of computing  $G(y)$ . Thus, for this application, the appropriate “explicitness” condition is that  $G$  can be computed in low space – perhaps space  $O(s)$ . In particular, for this application, there is no significant benefit to constructing a PRG with space complexity  $o(s)$ , because in the end we are going to use  $s$  bits of space to iterate through all possible seeds anyway.

The standard nonconstructive argument (Proposition 1.1) implies that there exists a nonexplicit  $\varepsilon$ -PRG for width- $w$  length- $n$  standard-order ROBPs with seed length  $O(\log(wn/\varepsilon))$ . Furthermore, the standard definition of **BPL** implies that randomized log-space algorithms have polynomial running time, and hence they use at most polynomially many random bits. Consequently, if we can design a PRG for standard-order ROBPs with seed length  $O(\log(wn/\varepsilon))$  and space complexity  $O(\log(wn/\varepsilon))$ , then it will follow that  $\mathbf{L} = \mathbf{BPL}$ . That is, such a PRG would imply that randomized algorithms have at most a constant-factor advantage over deterministic algorithms in terms of space complexity. This would be a profound conclusion about the intrinsic relationship between randomness and memory as computational resources.

So far, optimal constructions of explicit PRGs for ROBPs are not known, but we do have “pretty good” constructions (see, e.g., Section 3.2). Furthermore, there are many partial derandomization results known for space-bounded computation, building on the theory of PRGs for ROBPs (in nontrivial ways). For example, it has been shown that randomized space- $S$  algorithms can be simulated deterministically in

space slightly less than  $S^{3/2}$  [124], [206]. The challenge of constructing optimal PRGs for standard-order ROBPs is an exciting and central open problem in the study of unconditional PRGs.

### Other applications

We have briefly discussed the most straightforward applications of PRGs, namely simulating randomized algorithms using little or no randomness. We now give a small sample of less straightforward applications.

- Ironically, it turns out that PRGs are sometimes useful for *designing randomized algorithms*. For example, PRGs for space-bounded computation are often used in the design of randomized streaming algorithms using a technique first introduced by Indyk [136].
- Unconditional PRGs for restricted models have applications to “hardness amplification within **NP**” [105], [121], [160].
- Unconditional PRGs for restricted models have applications in the area of “meta-complexity.” It turns out that PRGs can be used to rule out certain types of “natural proofs” of strong circuit lower bounds [199] or to show that certain models of computation cannot solve the “Minimum Circuit Size Problem” [137]. For these applications, the “correct” definition of explicitness is that for each fixed seed  $y \in \{0, 1\}^s$ , there is a small Boolean circuit  $C_y$  such that for every  $i \in [n]$ , we have  $C_y(i) = G(y)_i$ .

### 1.6 Beyond PRGs: Hitting Set Generators and More

For the sake of context, in this section we briefly describe some relaxations of the PRG definition. The main motivation behind studying these relaxations is that constructing PRGs is challenging. These “generalized PRGs” are sometimes easier to construct, and yet they suffice for some (but not all) of the applications of PRGs. We only give a short overview of these concepts, since our main focus is true PRGs.

The most well-known “generalized PRG” concept is a *hitting set generator* (HSG).

**Definition 1.6** (HSGs). Suppose  $\mathcal{F}$  is a class of functions  $f: \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ . An  $\varepsilon$ -HSG for  $\mathcal{F}$  is a function  $G: \{0, 1\}^s \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$  such that for every  $f \in \mathcal{F}$ , if  $\mathbb{E}[f] \geq \varepsilon$ , then there exists some  $x$  such that  $f(G(x)) = 1$ .

An HSG is a “one-sided PRG.” HSGs have been studied since the 1980s [3] if not earlier. HSGs can be used to derandomize algorithms that have one-sided error, simply by trying all seeds. In some contexts, HSGs can also be used (in nontrivial ways) to derandomize algorithms that have two-sided error [11], [12], [40], [61], [100].

A few years ago, [37] introduced a different generalization of PRGs, called *weighted PRGs* (WPRGs).<sup>9</sup>

**Definition 1.7** (WPRG). Suppose  $\mathcal{F}$  is a class of functions  $f: \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . An  $\varepsilon$ -WPRG for  $\mathcal{F}$  is a pair  $(G, \rho)$ , where  $G: \{0, 1\}^s \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$  and  $\rho: \{0, 1\}^s \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , such that for every  $f \in \mathcal{F}$ , we have

$$\left| \mathbb{E}_{U \sim U_s} [f(G(U)) \cdot \rho(U)] - \mathbb{E}[f] \right| \leq \varepsilon.$$

Thus, WPRGs generalize PRGs because we consider sparse *linear* combinations of the outputs of  $f$  rather than sparse *convex* combinations of the outputs of  $f$ . Several recent works have exploited this extra flexibility to construct WPRGs with better parameters than known PRGs [37], [52], [70], [124], [193].

Yet another generalization of PRGs is the concept of a *deterministic sampler*.

**Definition 1.8** (Deterministic sampler). Suppose  $\mathcal{F}$  is a class of functions  $f: \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . An  $\varepsilon$ -deterministic sampler for  $\mathcal{F}$  is a deterministic oracle algorithm  $A$  that makes queries to a function  $f \in \mathcal{F}$  and outputs a number  $A^f \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $|A^f - \mathbb{E}[f]| \leq \varepsilon$ .

The deterministic sampler model isolates a key feature of PRGs, which is that they are useful even if we merely have black-box access to the function  $f$ . Deterministic samplers have been discussed (by name)

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<sup>9</sup>In Braverman, Cohen, and Garg’s [37] original paper, they speak of “pseudorandom pseudo-distributions.” The “weighted PRG” terminology was introduced later, by Cohen *et al.* [70].

in a few recent works [61], [191], [194]. Several older algorithms can also be understood as deterministic samplers [11], [12], [40], [100], [132].

One can show that these four concepts form a hierarchy:

$$\text{PRG} \implies \text{WPRG} \implies \text{deterministic sampler} \implies \text{HSG}.$$

Thus, PRGs (our focus in this text) are the most desirable of the four.

## **Appendices**

# A

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## Converse of the Sandwiching Lemma

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Suppose we wish to show that every distribution that fools one class  $\mathcal{F}_{\text{simp}}$  also fools another class  $\mathcal{F}$ . We presented two techniques for proving such a “transfer theorem”:

1. The first technique is to express each  $f \in \mathcal{F}$  as a linear combination of functions in  $\mathcal{F}_{\text{simp}}$  and invoke the Triangle Inequality for PRG Errors.
2. The second technique is to sandwich each  $f \in \mathcal{F}$  between functions in  $\mathcal{F}_{\text{simp}}$  and invoke the Sandwiching Lemma.

As discussed in Section 2.5.1, we will now prove the following converse statement: If every distribution that fools  $\mathcal{F}_{\text{simp}}$  also fools  $\mathcal{F}$ , then every  $f \in \mathcal{F}$  is sandwiched between linear combinations of functions in  $\mathcal{F}_{\text{simp}}$ .

**Theorem A.1** (Characterization of when fooling one class implies fooling another). Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , let  $\mathcal{F}_{\text{simp}}$  be a finite class of functions  $f: \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , and let  $g: \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . Let  $\varepsilon_0, \varepsilon > 0$  and suppose that every distribution  $X$  that fools  $\mathcal{F}_{\text{simp}}$  with error  $\varepsilon_0$  also fools  $g$  with error  $\varepsilon$ .

Then  $g$  is  $(2\varepsilon)$ -sandwiched between two functions  $f_\ell, f_u: \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  of the form

$$f_\ell(x) = \lambda_\ell^{(0)} + \sum_{i=1}^{k_\ell} \lambda_\ell^{(i)} f_\ell^{(i)}(x) \quad (\text{A.1})$$

$$f_u(x) = \lambda_u^{(0)} + \sum_{i=1}^{k_u} \lambda_u^{(i)} f_u^{(i)}(x), \quad (\text{A.2})$$

where  $k_\ell, k_u \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $\lambda_\ell^{(i)}, \lambda_u^{(i)} \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $f_\ell^{(i)}, f_u^{(i)} \in \mathcal{F}_{\text{simp}}$ , and

$$\varepsilon_0 \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{k_\ell} |\lambda_\ell^{(i)}| \leq \varepsilon \quad (\text{A.3})$$

$$\varepsilon_0 \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{k_u} |\lambda_u^{(i)}| \leq \varepsilon. \quad (\text{A.4})$$

Conversely, if we start from the assumption that Equations (A.1) to (A.4) hold, then for any distribution  $X$  that fools  $\mathcal{F}_{\text{simp}}$  with error  $\varepsilon_0$ , the Triangle Inequality for PRG Errors implies that  $X$  fools  $f_\ell$  and  $f_u$  with error  $\varepsilon$ , and therefore the Sandwiching Lemma implies that  $X$  fools  $g$  with error  $3\varepsilon$ . This recovers the assumption of Theorem A.1 up to a factor of three<sup>1</sup> in the error parameter. In this sense, Theorem A.1 shows that the Triangle Inequality for PRG Errors and the Sandwiching Lemma are “complete.”

Before presenting the proof, let us elaborate on what the theorem says in two important special cases.

- Let  $\mathcal{F}_{\text{simp}}$  be the class of Boolean  $k$ -juntas and let  $\varepsilon_0 = 0$ . Then Theorem A.1 says that a function is fooled by every  $k$ -wise uniform distribution if and only if the function can be sandwiched between two *low-degree real polynomials*. This was first shown by Bazzi [20] and, independently, by Benamini *et al.* [26].
- Next, let  $\mathcal{F}_{\text{simp}}$  to be the class of parity functions. Then Theorem A.1 essentially says that a function is fooled by every small-bias distribution if and only if the function can be sandwiched

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<sup>1</sup>A more refined analysis, involving a more cumbersome version of the Sandwiching Lemma, gives a tight characterization without the extra factor of three.

between two functions with *low Fourier  $L_1$  norm*.<sup>2</sup> This was first shown by De *et al.* [75].<sup>3</sup>

The general case seems to be folklore.

*Proof of Theorem A.1.* The proof uses linear programming duality. For each  $f \in \mathcal{F}_{\text{simp}}$ , define  $\bar{f}: \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  by  $\bar{f}(x) = f(x) - \mathbb{E}[f]$ . Consider the following linear program in the variables  $\{p_x\}_{x \in \{0, 1\}^n}$ :

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{Maximize} && \sum_{x \in \{0, 1\}^n} p_x g(x), \\ & \text{subject to} && p_x \geq 0 \text{ for all } x \in \{0, 1\}^n \\ & && \text{and } \sum_{x \in \{0, 1\}^n} p_x = 1 \\ & && \text{and } \sum_{x \in \{0, 1\}^n} p_x \bar{f}(x) \leq \varepsilon_0 \text{ for all } f \in \mathcal{F}_{\text{simp}} \\ & && \text{and } - \sum_{x \in \{0, 1\}^n} p_x \bar{f}(x) \leq \varepsilon_0 \text{ for all } f \in \mathcal{F}_{\text{simp}}. \end{aligned}$$

The constraints say that the  $p_x$  variables are the probability mass function of some distribution that fools  $\mathcal{F}_{\text{simp}}$  with error  $\varepsilon_0$ . The program is feasible, because if nothing else we can set  $p_x = 2^{-n}$  (the uniform distribution). The objective function is the expectation of  $g$  under the distribution defined by the  $p_x$  variables, so the optimal value must be at most  $\mathbb{E}[g] + \varepsilon$ .

The dual linear program, in the variables  $z$  and  $\{y_f^+, y_f^-\}_{f \in \mathcal{F}_{\text{simp}}}$ , is as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{Minimize} && z + \varepsilon_0 \cdot \sum_{f \in \mathcal{F}_0} (y_f^+ + y_f^-), \\ & \text{subject to} && y_f^+, y_f^- \geq 0 \text{ for all } f \in \mathcal{F}_{\text{simp}} \\ & && \text{and } z + \sum_{f \in \mathcal{F}_0} \bar{f}(x) \cdot (y_f^+ - y_f^-) \geq g(x) \text{ for all } x \in \{0, 1\}^n. \end{aligned}$$

<sup>2</sup>Actually the quantity that matters is the sum of absolute values of the *nonempty* Fourier coefficients, whereas we included the empty Fourier coefficient in our definition of Fourier  $L_1$  norm.

<sup>3</sup>Note that there is a minor mistake in the formulation by De *et al.* [75]: in their Proposition 2.7, the lower and upper sandwichers should be allowed to have different values of “ $l$ ” and “ $\delta$ .”

By strong LP duality, the optimal value of this dual linear program is also at most  $\mathbb{E}[g] + \varepsilon$ . Observe that given a feasible solution to the dual linear program, if we subtract  $\min\{y_f^+, y_f^-\}$  from  $y_f^+$  and from  $y_f^-$ , then we get another feasible solution and the objective function can only decrease. Therefore, by setting  $y_f = y_f^+ - y_f^-$ , we obtain real numbers  $z^*$  and  $\{y_f^*\}_{f \in \mathcal{F}_{\text{simp}}}$  such that

$$\begin{aligned} z^* + \varepsilon_0 \cdot \sum_{f \in \mathcal{F}_{\text{simp}}} |y_f^*| &\leq \mathbb{E}[g] + \varepsilon, \text{ and} \\ z^* + \sum_{f \in \mathcal{F}_{\text{simp}}} \bar{f}(x) y_f^* &\geq g(x) \text{ for all } x \in \{0, 1\}^n. \end{aligned}$$

Define

$$\begin{aligned} f_u(x) &= z^* + \sum_{f \in \mathcal{F}_{\text{simp}}} y_f^* \cdot \bar{f}(x) \\ &= \left( z^* - \sum_{f \in \mathcal{F}_{\text{simp}}} y_f^* \mathbb{E}[f] \right) + \sum_{f \in \mathcal{F}_{\text{simp}}} y_f^* \cdot f(x). \end{aligned}$$

Then  $f_u$  has the form given by Equation (A.2), and  $f_u \geq g$ . Furthermore,  $\mathbb{E}[f_u] = z^*$ , so

$$0 \leq \mathbb{E}[f_u - g] = z^* - \mathbb{E}[g] \leq \varepsilon - \varepsilon_0 \cdot \sum_{f \in \mathcal{F}_{\text{simp}}} |y_f^*|.$$

This shows that  $\mathbb{E}[f_u - g] \leq \varepsilon$  and that Equation (A.4) holds.

Fooling  $g$  is equivalent to fooling  $-g$ , so the above also shows that there is some function  $f_\ell$  of the form given by Equation (A.1) such that  $-f_\ell \geq -g$ ,  $\mathbb{E}[g - f_\ell] \leq \varepsilon$ , and Equation (A.3) holds. Therefore,  $g$  is  $(2\varepsilon)$ -sandwiched between  $f_\ell$  and  $f_u$ .  $\square$

# B

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## List of PRGs

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For reference, we conclude this text by listing the best explicit PRG constructions currently known for various models of computation, arranged by the model they fool. The list is not meant to be exhaustive; only a selection of important computational models are included. In each case, we only record a single state-of-the-art seed length, which in many cases is superior to the PRG constructions that we presented.

## B.1 Circuit Models

In the list below, we use  $d$  to denote depth and  $m$  to denote size. Assume  $d = O(1)$  and  $m \geq n$ .

- Conjunctions/disjunctions of literals
  - Seed length:  $O(\log(1/\varepsilon) + \log \log n)$
  - Approach:  $k$ -wise  $\delta$ -bias
  - Reference: Folklore
- $\mathbf{AC}^0$  circuits
  - Seed length:  $\tilde{O}(\log^{d-1} m \cdot \log(m/\varepsilon))$
  - Approach: Variant of the Ajtai-Wigderson framework
  - Reference: [166]
- Read-once CNFs/DNFs
  - Seed length:  $O(\log n) + \tilde{O}(\log(1/\varepsilon))$
  - Approach: Iterated restrictions with early termination
  - Reference: [81]
- Read-once  $\mathbf{AC}^0$  formulas
  - Seed length:  $\tilde{O}(\log(n/\varepsilon))$
  - Approach: Iterated restrictions with early termination
  - References: [80], [82]
- De Morgan formulas
  - Seed length:  $m^{1/3+o(1)} \cdot \text{polylog}(1/\varepsilon)$
  - Approach: Variant of the IMZ framework
  - Reference: [120]
- Read-once De Morgan formulas
  - Seed length:  $O(\log^2 n \cdot \log(n/\varepsilon))$
  - Approach: Iterated restrictions
  - Reference: [91]

## B.2 Branching Program Models

In the list below, we use  $m$  to denote size and  $w$  to denote width. Assume  $m \geq n$ .

- Unrestricted branching programs
  - Seed length:  $\sqrt{m} \cdot \text{polylog}(n/\varepsilon)$
  - Approach: Variant of the IMZ framework
  - Reference: [120]
- Width-2 branching programs that read  $d$  bits at a time
  - Seed length:  $O(d \log n + d \cdot 2^d \cdot \log(m/\varepsilon))$
  - Approach: Sum of  $d$   $\delta$ -biased distributions
  - Reference: [29]
- Standard-order ROBPs with  $w = 3$ 
  - Seed length:  $\tilde{O}(\log n \cdot \log(1/\varepsilon))$
  - Approach: Iterated restrictions with early termination
  - Reference: [171]
- Standard-order ROBPs with  $4 \leq w \leq n$ 
  - Seed length:  $O(\log(n/\varepsilon) \cdot \log n)$
  - Approach: Recycling seeds
  - References: [131], [181]
- Standard-order ROBPs with  $w \gg n$ 
  - Seed length:  $O\left(\frac{\log(w/\varepsilon) \cdot \log n}{\log \log w}\right)$
  - Approach: Recycling seeds
  - References: [13], [140]

- Standard-order regular ROBPs
  - Seed length:  $\tilde{O}(\log(w/\varepsilon) \cdot \log n)$
  - Approach: INW generator
  - Reference: [38]
- Standard-order permutation ROBPs with  $w = O(1)$ 
  - Seed length:  $O(\log n \cdot \log(1/\varepsilon))$
  - Approach: INW generator
  - References: [74], [145], [224]
- Arbitrary-order ROBPs
  - Seed length:  $O(\log(wn/\varepsilon) \cdot \log^2 n)$
  - Approach: Iterated restrictions
  - Reference: [91]
- Arbitrary-order ROBPs with  $w = O(1)$ 
  - Seed length:  $\tilde{O}(\log(n/\varepsilon) \cdot \log n)$
  - Approach: Iterated restrictions
  - Reference: [91]
- Arbitrary-order permutation ROBPs with  $w = O(1)$ 
  - Seed length:  $\tilde{O}(\log n \cdot \log(1/\varepsilon))$
  - Approach: Polarizing random walks
  - Reference: [49]
- Decision trees, or more generally parity decision trees
  - Seed length:  $O(\log(m/\varepsilon))$
  - Approach:  $\delta$ -bias
  - Reference: [146]

### B.3 Algebraic Models

- Parity functions
  - Seed length:  $O(\log(n/\varepsilon))$
  - Approach: Balanced codes
  - References: [178], [217]
- Parities of at most  $k$  bits
  - Seed length:  $O(\log(k/\varepsilon)) + \log \log n$
  - Approach:  $\varepsilon$ -biased seed for  $k$ -wise uniform generator
  - Reference: [178]
- Degree- $d$  polynomials over  $\mathbb{F}_2$ 
  - Seed length:  $O(d \log n + d2^d \log(1/\varepsilon))$
  - Approach: Sum of  $d$   $\delta$ -biased distributions
  - Reference: [242]

### B.4 Models Based on Locality

- $[-1, 1]$ -valued  $k$ -juntas
  - Seed length:  $O(k + \log(1/\varepsilon) + \log \log n)$
  - Approach:  $k$ -wise  $\delta$ -bias
  - Reference: [178]
- Two-dimensional combinatorial rectangles
  - Seed length:  $\frac{n}{2} + O(\log(1/\varepsilon))$
  - Approach: Random edge of expander
  - Reference: [131]
- $d$ -dimensional combinatorial rectangles
  - Seed length:  $\tilde{O}(n/d + \log(1/\varepsilon) + \log \log n)$
  - Approach: Iterative alphabet reduction
  - Reference: [106]

- Two-party communication protocols with cost  $m$ 
  - Seed length:  $\frac{n}{2} + O(m + \log(1/\varepsilon))$
  - Approach: Random edge of expander
  - Reference: [131]

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