# Stochasticity in Algorithmic Statistics for Polynomial Time\*

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#### Abstract

A fundamental notion in Algorithmic Statistics is that of a stochastic object, i.e., an object having a simple plausible explanation. Informally, a probability distribution is a plausible explanation for x if it looks likely that x was drawn at random with respect to that distribution. In this paper, we suggest three definitions of a plausible statistical hypothesis for Algorithmic Statistics with polynomial time bounds, which are called acceptability, plausibility and optimality. Roughly speaking, a probability distribution  $\mu$  is called an acceptable explanation for x, if x possesses all properties decidable by short programs in a short time and shared by almost all objects (with respect to  $\mu$ ). Plausibility is a similar notion, however this time we require x to possess all properties T decidable even by long programs in a short time and shared by almost all objects. To compensate the increase in program length, we strengthen the notion of 'almost all'—the longer the program recognizing the property is, the more objects must share the property. Finally, a probability distribution  $\mu$  is called an optimal explanation for x if  $\mu(x)$  is large (close to  $2^{-C^{\text{poly}}(x)}$ ).

Almost all our results hold under some plausible complexity theoretic assumptions. Our main result states that for acceptability and plausibility there are infinitely many non-stochastic objects, i.e. objects that do not have simple plausible (acceptable) explanations. Using the same techniques, we show that the distinguishing complexity of a string x can be super-logarithmically less than the conditional complexity of x with condition x for almost all x (for polynomial time bounded programs). Finally, we study relationships between the introduced notions.

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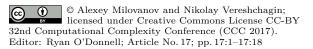
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#### 1 Introduction

# Acceptable statistical hypotheses

▶ Example 1. Assume we are given an n-bit natural number x which is a square and has no other features. Which statistical hypotheses we would accept for x? An acceptable hypothesis is the following: the number x was obtained by random sampling in the set of all n-bit squares, where all numbers have equal chances to be drawn (the hypothesis  $\mu_1$ ).

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And the following hypothesis  $\mu_2$  is clearly not acceptable: the number x was obtained by random sampling in the set of all n-bit numbers. On what grounds we refute hypothesis  $\mu_2$ ? Because we can exhibit an easily checked property (to be a square) possessed by x and not possessed by a vast majority of all n-bit strings.

The reader can object to this line of reasoning by noting that on these grounds we can reject the hypothesis  $\mu_1$  as well. Indeed, we exhibit the property "to be equal to x", which is also shared by a negligible fraction of numbers with respect to  $\mu_1$ . However, in contrast to the property "to be a square", this property is not simple, as it has no short program recognizing the property in a short time. And for the property "to be a square", there is such a program.

Generalizing this example, we will define the notion of an acceptable statistical hypothesis x. A probability distribution  $\mu$  over the set of binary strings will be called an acceptable hypothesis for a binary string x if there is no simple set  $T\ni x$  with negligible  $\mu(T)$ . We will call a set T simple if there is a short program to decide membership in T in a short time, as in Example 1.

A string will be called stochastic, if it has a simple acceptable hypothesis. How will we measure simplicity of a probability distribution  $\mu$ ? In the same way as we measure the simplicity of a refutation set T: a probability distribution will be called simple, if it can be sampled by a short probabilistic machine with no input in a short time. We say that such a machine  $samples\ a\ distribution\ \mu$ , if for all x the probability of the event "M outputs x" equals  $\mu(x)$ . The running time of M is defined as the maximum of M's running time over all outcomes of its coin tossing.

Of course in a rigorous definition of an acceptable hypothesis  $\mu$ , we have to specify three parameters: the upper bound  $\alpha$  for the length of a program that recognizes T, the upper bound t for the running time of that program, and the upper bound  $\varepsilon$  for  $\mu(T)$  (how small should be  $\mu(T)$  to be qualified as "negligible"). The larger these parameters are, the stronger the notion of an acceptable hypothesis is. And in a rigorous definition of a simple distribution  $\mu$ , we have to specify two parameters: the upper bound  $\alpha'$  for the length of a program sampling  $\mu$  and the upper bound t' for the running time of that program. The smaller these parameters are, the stronger the notion of a simple distribution is. Thus in the notion of stochasticity we have 5 parameters,  $\alpha'$ , t' and  $\alpha$ , t,  $\varepsilon$ . It seems natural to choose  $\alpha > \alpha'$  and t > t', that is, to give more resources to those who want to refute a hypothesis  $\mu$  than the amount of resources needed to sample  $\mu$  (as it was in Example 1).

Also in the definition of an acceptable hypothesis the parameter  $\varepsilon$  should be much smaller than  $2^{-\alpha}$ . In this case the notion of an acceptable distribution satisfies *The Majority Principle:* for every probability distribution  $\mu$  for almost all (w.r.t.  $\mu$ ) strings x the distribution  $\mu$  is an acceptable hypothesis for x (Proposition 7 below). We believe that any notion of a plausible statistical hypothesis should satisfy this principle.

The main question we are interested in is the following: for which values of parameters there are strings that have no simple acceptable explanations? Such strings will be called non-stochastic. Our main result states that under assumption NE  $\neq$  RE there are infinitely many non-stochastic strings x for  $t, t', 1/\varepsilon = poly(n)$  and  $\alpha, \alpha' = O(\log n)^1$ , where n = |x| (Theorem 8).

In Section 6 we explain why we need complexity theoretic assumptions to prove the main result: we prove that existence of non-stochastic strings for such parameters implies that

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> All of the logarithms are base 2.

 $P \neq PSPACE$ . To prove Theorem 8, we introduce the notion of an *elusive set*. Using that notion, we establish that there is a super-logarithmic gap between Kolmogorov complexity and Distinguishing complexity with polynomial time bounds (similar questions were addressed in [3]). We also study the following two notions of a good statistical hypothesis.

#### Plausible statistical hypotheses

▶ Example 2. Let  $G: \{0,1\}^n \to \{0,1\}^{2n}$  be a Pseudo Random Number Generator (the precise definition is given in Assumption 4 below). Consider a string x = G(s) of length 2n. Would we accept the uniform distribution over all strings of length 2n as a good statistical hypothesis for x? We do not like this hypothesis, as the fraction of x' of length 2n for which x' = G(s') for some s' is negligible. However it is impossible to check this property by a short program in short time – for almost all s the uniform distribution over all strings of length 2n is an acceptable hypothesis for  $G_n(s)$  (Theorem 17). However for every fixed s the property  $G_n(s) = x$  can be decided by a long program (of length n), into which s is hard-wired.

Let us give up the requirement that the program recognizing T in a short time is short. In a compensation, let us decrease the threshold for  $\mu(T)$ : we will now think that  $\mu(T)$  is negligible if  $\log \mu(T)$  is much less than the negative length of the program recognizing T. Notice that in Example 2 we have  $\log \mu(T) = -2n$ , which is by n less than the negative length of the program recognizing T. Probability distributions satisfying this requirement are called plausible hypotheses for x. The definitions imply that every plausible hypothesis is acceptable (Proposition 6). The converse is false (Theorem 17). And again the notion of plausibility satisfies the Majority Principle (Proposition 7).

As plausibility implies acceptability, our main result implies that there are infinitely many strings that have no simple plausible explanations. The existence of such strings can be proved also under other assumptions. Indeed, under Assumption 2 (below) only strings whose distinguishing complexity is close to Kolmogorov complexity can have simple plausible explanations (Proposition 16). And strings with a large gap between these complexities exist under assumption FewP  $\cap$  SPARSE  $\not\subseteq$  P [3].

#### Optimal statistical hypotheses

In practice, it is hard to decide whether a given probability distribution  $\mu$  is plausible or acceptable for a given string x, as there are many possible "refutation sets" T and for a given T it is very hard to check whether it indeed refutes  $\mu$  or not. Ideally, we would like to have a sound notion of a good hypothesis such that for a given simple distribution  $\mu$  and a given string x, we could decide whether  $\mu$  is good for x in a short time. Or, at least to refute  $\mu$  in a short time, if  $\mu$  is not good for x.

There is a natural parameter measuring how good is  $\mu$  as an explanation for x, namely  $\mu(x)$ . Let us try to use this parameter instead of "refutation sets". According to the new definition, a simple probability distribution  $\mu$  is a good explanation for x if  $\mu(x)$  is large. How large? We will compare  $\mu(x)$  with  $2^{-C^t(x)}$ , where  $C^t(x)$  denotes Kolmogorov complexity with time bounded by t, where t is large enough compared to the running time of the short probabilistic program sampling  $\mu$ . We will call  $\mu$  an optimal hypothesis for x if  $\mu(x) \approx 2^{-C^t(x)}$ .

There are three arguments to justify this definition. Firstly, whatever t we choose, the Majority Principle holds true (Proposition 13). Second, under some complexity theoretic assumption, if t is large enough compared to the running time of probabilistic machine sampling  $\mu$  then  $\mu(x)$  cannot significantly exceed  $2^{-C^t(x)}$ , therefore, if  $\mu(x)$  is close to this

value, then  $\mu$  is optimal indeed. This fact was established in [1]. And third, given  $\mu, x$  we can prove in a short time that  $\mu$  is not an optimal hypothesis for x, if this is the case – it suffices to produce a program p for x such that  $\mu(x) \ll 2^{-|p|}$  (we assume here that  $\mu(x)$  can be computed in a short time).

#### Relations between the introduced notions

It follows from the definitions that plausibility implies acceptability and optimality. (To prove the second implication, we let  $T = \{x\}$  in the definition of plausibility.) All other statements in the remainder of this section hold true under some assumptions (that are specified later).

For strings x with  $CD^{\text{poly}(n)}(x) \ll C^{\text{poly}(n)}(x)$  there are no plausible explanations at all (Proposition 16). For such strings we are not aware about any relations between acceptability and optimality.

On the other hand, for strings x with  $\mathrm{CD^{poly}(n)}(x) \approx \mathrm{C^{poly}(n)}(x)$ , the picture is clear: Plausibility = Optimality  $\Rightarrow$  Acceptability, and the converse implication does not hold (Example 2, Theorem 17 and Remark 3.3). The equivalence of plausibility and optimality (Theorem 18) for such strings is good news, as it provides a justification to the Maximal Likelihood Estimator. Indeed, imagine that x was drawn at random w.r.t. a simple but unknown probability distribution  $\mu$ . Then with high  $\mu$ -probability all  $\mathrm{C}(x), \mathrm{C}^t(x), \mathrm{CD}^t(x)$  are close to each other and are close to  $-\log \mu(x)^2$  and  $\mu$  is an acceptable and plausible hypothesis for x (Propositions 7, 13, 12). Given x, we want to find  $\mu$  or any other plausible or at least acceptable statistical hypothesis for x. Using the Maximal Likelihood Estimator, we choose among all simple hypotheses  $\mu$  the one that maximizes  $\mu(x)$ . Theorem 18 guarantees the success to this strategy – the chosen hypothesis  $\mu$  is both acceptable and plausible.

In the next section we define the notions of a program and of Kolmogorov complexities used in the paper.

#### 2 Preliminaries

Fix a deterministic one-tape Turing machine U that inputs three binary strings p, x, y and outputs one binary string and satisfies the following condition:

For any other deterministic one-tape Turing machine V there is a constant c and a polynomial f such that for all p there is q with |q| < |p| + c for which U(q, y, r) = V(p, y, r) (for all y, r) and the running time of U(q, y, r) is bounded by

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f(|y| + |r| + \text{ the running time of } V(p, y, r))
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and the similar inequality for the space holds as well.

This machine will be called *universal*. Using the universal machine we can define the Kolmogorov complexity (with or without time or space bounds) and the notions of programs and their running times for deterministic and randomized machines.

**Kolmogorov complexity:**  $C^t(x|y)$  is the minimal length of p such that  $U(p, y, \Lambda) = x$  in time t. Similarly,  $CS^m(x|y)$  is the minimal length of p such that  $U(p, y, \Lambda) = x$  on space s. If  $U(p, y, \Lambda) = x$  in time t, we say that p is a program for x conditional to y (or simply a program for x, if  $y = \Lambda$ ), and we call t the running time of p on input y.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Provided that t is larger than certain polynomial of the time needed to sample  $\mu$ .

The distinguishing complexity:  $CD^t(x|y)$  is the minimal length of p such that

- U(p, x, y) = 1;
- U(p, x', y) halts in t steps for all x' of the same length as x;
- U(p, x', y) = 0 for all  $x' \neq x$ .

**Programs of deterministic machines:** We say that a program p outputs y on input x in time t if  $U(p, y, \Lambda)$  in time t.

**Programs of randomized machines:** Considering the uniform probability distribution over r's, we obtain a universal randomized machine. More specifically, a program of a randomized machine is a pair (p, m). A machine with program (p, m) on an input string y tosses a fair coin m times and then outputs U(p, y, r), where r denotes the outcome of the tossing. We can fix  $y = \Lambda$  thus obtaining the notion of a program of a randomized machine without input. The length of the program (p, m) is defined as  $|p| + \log m$ , and the running time (space) as the maximum over all  $r \in \{0, 1\}^m$  of the running time (space) of U(p, y, r).

In the next section provide the rigorous definitions and formulations to all informal definitions and statements mentioned in the Introduction.

# 3 Our results and their comparison to the previous ones

# 3.1 Existence of non-stochastic strings

By a technical reason we consider only probability distributions  $\mu$  over  $\{0,1\}^n$  for some n and assume that  $\mu(x)$  is a rational number for all x.

▶ **Definition 3.** Let  $t, \alpha$  be natural numbers and  $\varepsilon$  a real number between 0 and 1. A  $(t, \alpha, \varepsilon)$ acceptable statistical hypothesis (or explanation) for a string x of length n is a probability
distribution  $\mu$  such that  $\mu(T) \ge \varepsilon$  for all  $T \ni x$  recognized by a deterministic program of
length less than  $\alpha$  in at most t steps for all inputs of length n.

The larger  $t, \alpha, \varepsilon$  are, the stronger the notion of a  $(t, \alpha, \varepsilon)$ -acceptable hypothesis becomes. For every x the distribution concentrated on x is a (\*, \*, 1)-acceptable hypothesis for x (the asterisk for the time parameter means that the time can be arbitrary large as long as the program always halts). However, we are interested in simple explanations.

▶ **Definition 4.** A probability distribution  $\mu$  is called  $(t, \alpha)$ -simple if it can be sampled by a probabilistic program (with no input) of length less than  $\alpha$  in time at most t.<sup>3</sup> (Recall that a machine M samples  $\mu$  in time t if for all x the probability of event "M outputs x" equals  $\mu(x)$  and the running time of M is at most t for all outcomes of coin tossing.)

Strings that have  $(t', \alpha')$ -simple  $(t, \alpha, \varepsilon)$ -acceptable explanations for small  $t', \alpha'$  and large  $t, \alpha, \varepsilon$  are informally called stochastic and otherwise non-stochastic. The smaller  $t', \alpha'$  and the larger  $t, \alpha, \varepsilon$  are, the stronger the notion of stochasticity is and the weaker the notion of non-stochasticity is.

▶ **Definition 5.** A probability distribution  $\mu$  is called a  $(t, \varepsilon)$ -plausible hypothesis for a sting x of length n, if for any set  $T \ni x$  recognized by a program of length l whose running time on all inputs of length n is at most t we have  $\mu(T) \geqslant 2^{-l}\varepsilon$ .

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> In Theorem 18 we will need simplicity in another sense: we will need that the function  $x \mapsto \mu(x)$  can be computed by a program of length  $\alpha$  in time t.

The following proposition is a straightforward corollary from the definitions:

- ▶ Proposition 6. Every  $(t, \varepsilon)$ -plausible hypothesis for x is  $(t, \alpha, \varepsilon 2^{-\alpha})$ -acceptable for x for any  $\alpha$ .
- ▶ Remark. Notice that if  $\mu$  is  $(t,\alpha)$ -plausible for x then  $\mu(x)>0$ . In contrast,  $(t,\alpha,\varepsilon)$ -acceptability of  $\mu$  for x does not imply that in general. However, if the set  $T=\{x\mid \mu(x)=0\}$  can be recognized by a program of length  $\alpha$  in time t, then  $(t,\alpha,\varepsilon)$ -acceptability for x implies  $\mu(x)>0$ . Another reason for not stipulating  $\mu(x)>0$  in the definition of acceptability is that we can achieve this almost 'for free'. Indeed, for every  $(t,\alpha)$ -simple distribution  $\mu$  the distribution  $\mu'$  that is the arithmetic mean of  $\mu$  and the uniform distribution over the set of all strings of length n is  $(t',\alpha')$ -simple for  $t',\alpha'$  close to  $t,\alpha$ . For all x of length n we have  $\mu'(x)>0$ . If  $\mu$  is  $(t,\alpha,\varepsilon)$ -acceptable for x, then  $\mu'$  is  $(t,\alpha,\varepsilon/2)$ -acceptable for x.

The next statement shows that the Majority Principle is valid for  $(t, \alpha, \varepsilon)$ -acceptability provided  $\varepsilon \ll 2^{-\alpha}$  and for  $(t, \varepsilon)$ -plausibility provided  $\varepsilon \ll 1/n$ .

▶ **Proposition 7** (Majority Principle). For every probability distribution  $\mu$  over binary strings of length n and all  $\alpha, \varepsilon$  we have

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\mu\{x \mid \mu \text{ is not } (*, \alpha, \varepsilon)\text{-acceptable for } x\} < \varepsilon 2^{\alpha},

\mu\{x \mid \mu \text{ is not } (*, \varepsilon)\text{-plausible for } x\} < \varepsilon(n + O(1)).
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This proposition as well as all other statements in this section will be proved in Section 5.

Our main result shows that there are infinitely many non-stochastic strings x for polynomial values of  $t, t', 1/\varepsilon$  and logarithmic values of  $\alpha, \alpha'$ . This result holds under the following

▶ Assumption 1. For some language L in NP over the unary alphabet there is no probabilistic polynomial time machine that for each string x in L finds a certificate for membership of x in L with probability at least 1/2. Equivalently, for some language L in NE (the class of languages accepted in time  $2^{O(n)}$  by non-deterministic Turing machines) there is no probabilistic machine that for each string x in L in time  $2^{O(|x|)}$  finds a certificate for membership of x in L with probability at least 1/2.

This assumption follows from the assumption NE  $\neq$  RE, where RE denotes the class of languages recognized in time  $2^{O(n)}$  by probabilistic Turing machines that err with probability at most 1/2 for all strings in the language and do not err for strings outside the language. It is unknown whether these two assumptions are equivalent or not (see [5]).

▶ **Theorem 8.** Under Assumption 1 for some constant d for all c for infinitely many n there is a string of length n that has no  $(n^c, c \log n)$ -simple  $(n^d, d, n^{-c})$ -acceptable hypotheses.

In other words, for the strings x from this theorem, for every  $(n^c, c \log n)$ -simple  $\mu$  there is  $T \ni x$  recognized by a program of length d in time  $n^d$  with  $\mu(T) < n^{-c}$ . The values of parameters in this theorem are chosen so that the Majority Principle holds: for any candidate  $\mu$  the fraction of strings for which  $\mu$  is not acceptable is less than  $2^d n^{-c}$  which is negligible for large c and n. And the resources  $n^d$ , d needed to refute a candidate  $\mu$  can be even smaller than resources  $n^c$ ,  $c \log n$  allowed to sample the candidate  $\mu$ , as c can be much larger than d.

Later we will compare this result to known results on non-existence of stochastic strings. The latter exist only for t = t' = \*.

# 3.2 Super-logarithmic gap between distinguishing complexity and Kolmogorov complexity

In the proof of Theorem 8 we use the notion of an elusive set, which is interesting in its own right.

▶ **Definition 9.** A language T is called *elusive* if it is decidable in polynomial time and for all c for infinitely many n the following holds. T contains at least one word of length n, however there is no probabilistic machine M with program of length at most  $c \log n$  and running time at most  $n^c$  that with probability at least  $n^{-c}$  produces a string of length n from T.

We show that under PI Assumption 1 there exists an elusive set (Theorem 22). Then we prove that any elusive set has infinitely many non-stochastic strings. There is another interesting corollary from the existence of elusive sets: there are infinitely many pairs x, r with  $\mathrm{CD}^{\mathrm{poly}(n)}(x|r) \ll \mathrm{C}^{\mathrm{poly}(n)}(x|r)$  (the definition of conditional distinguishing complexity and conditional Kolmogorov complexity is given in Section 2). More specifically, the following holds.

▶ **Theorem 10.** Under Assumption 1 for some constant d for all c there are infinitely many strings x with

$$CD^{n^d}(x|r) \leqslant C^{n^c}(x|r) - c\log n$$

for 98% of r's of length  $n^d$ . Here n stands for the length of x. Moreover, under Assumption 2 (see below), in the left hand side of the last inequality, we can replace the conditional complexity by the unconditional one:

$$CD^{n^d}(x) < C^{n^c}(x|r) - c \log n.$$

▶ Assumption 2. There is a set that is decidable by deterministic Turing machines in time  $2^{O(n)}$  but is not decidable by Boolean circuits of size  $2^{o(n)}$  for almost all n.

The existence of pairs x, r satisfying the first part of Theorem 10 is known to be equivalent to the impossibility to separate in polynomial time non-satisfiable Boolean formulas from those having the unique satisfying assignment [3]. The latter statement (denoted by  $(1SAT, SAT) \notin P$ ) follows from the assumption NP  $\neq$  RP, which is weaker than Assumption 1, using Valiant and Vazirani Lemma [11].<sup>4</sup> For unconditional complexity, previously it was known that there are strings with  $CD^{n^d}(x) < C^{n^c}(x) - c \log n$  under the assumption FewP  $\cap$  SPARSE  $\not\subseteq P$  [3]. Thus the first part of Theorem 10 is not new, however its second part is.

# 3.3 A comparison of the notions of acceptability, plausibility and optimality

**Definition 11.** A probability distribution  $\mu$  is called  $(t, \varepsilon)$ -optimal for x, if

$$\mu(x) > \varepsilon 2^{-C^t(x)}.$$

The larger  $t, \varepsilon$  are, the stronger the notion of  $(t, \varepsilon)$ -optimality is. Assume that the distribution  $\mu$  is  $(t', \alpha)$ -simple for a small  $\alpha$ . We will explain that the definition of optimality

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Thus if  $(1SAT, SAT) \in P$  then there are no elusive sets. Is the inverse true?

makes sense for values of t which are larger than some polynomial of |x| + t' and does not make any sense if, conversely, t' is larger than some polynomial of |x| + t.

Consider the following

- ▶ Assumption 3. There is a set which is decidable by deterministic Turing machines in time  $2^{O(n)}$  but is not decidable by deterministic Turing machines in space  $2^{o(n)}$  for almost all n.
- ▶ **Proposition 12.** Under Assumption 3 the following holds. There is a constant d such that for all  $(t, \alpha)$ -simple probability distributions  $\mu$  for all strings x of length n,

$$\log \mu(x) \leqslant -C^{(n+t)^d}(x) + \alpha + d\log(n+t).$$

Assume that  $\mu$  is a  $(t, \varepsilon)$ -optimal  $(t', \alpha)$ -simple hypothesis for x and  $t > (n+t')^d$  where d is the constant from Proposition 12. Then  $\log \mu(x)$  differs from the maximal possible value of  $\log \mu'(x)$  for  $(t', \alpha)$ -simple hypotheses  $\mu'$  by at most  $\alpha + \log(1/\varepsilon) + d\log(n+t')$ . This fact provides some justification for the notion of optimality. Another justification for the definition is the validity of the Majority Principle:

▶ Proposition 13. For some constant c for all n and all strings x of length n for all probability distributions  $\mu$  we have

$$\mu\{x \mid \mu \text{ is not } (*, \varepsilon)\text{-optimal for } x\} < \varepsilon(n+c).$$

Conversely, if t' is larger than some polynomial of |x| + t then for all strings there is a simple optimal hypothesis (and thus the notion of optimality becomes trivial).

▶ **Proposition 14.** There is a constant c such that for all t every string x of length n has a  $((n+t)^c, c\log(n+t))$ -simple (t,1)-optimal hypothesis.

Letting  $T = \{x\}$  in the definition of plausibility we can see that plausibility implies optimality:

▶ Proposition 15. For all strings x and for all  $(t, \varepsilon)$ -plausible hypotheses  $\mu$  for x we have  $\log \mu(x) \ge -\operatorname{CD}^t(x) + \log \varepsilon \ge -\operatorname{C}^t(x) + \log \varepsilon - O(1)$ .

By Proposition 12 the first inequality in this proposition implies the following

▶ **Proposition 16.** Under Assumption 3 there is a constant d such that for every string x of length n that has a  $(t_1, \alpha)$ -simple  $(t_2, \varepsilon)$ -plausible hypothesis we have

$$C^{(n+t_1)^d}(x) \leqslant CD^{t_2}(x) + \alpha + \log(1/\varepsilon) + d\log(n+t_1).$$

Therefore strings with a large gap between distinguishing complexity and Kolmogorov complexity do not have simple plausible explanations. From the result of [3] cited above it follows that (under some complexity theoretic assumptions) for some d for every c there are infinitely many strings x without  $(n^c, c \log n)$ -simple  $(n^d, n^{-c})$ -plausible hypotheses (where n denotes the length of x).

Thus plausibility implies acceptability and optimality. Is there any implication in the reverse direction? Assuming the existence of a Pseudo Random Number Generator  $G:\{0,1\}^n \to \{0,1\}^{2n}$  we can show that acceptability does not imply neither plausibility, nor optimality.

- ▶ Assumption 4 (Existence of PRNG). There is a polynomial time computable function  $G: \{0,1\}^* \to \{0,1\}^*$ , such that |G(s)| = 2|s| and for every sequence of Boolean circuits  $\{C_n\}$  with 2n inputs and 1 output such that the size of  $C_n$  is bounded by a polynomial of n, the difference of probabilities of events  $C_n(G(s)) = 1$  and  $C_n(r) = 1$  tends to 0 faster than every inverse polynomial of n (that is, for any polynomial p for all sufficiently large p the difference of probabilities is less than 1/p(n)). We assume here the uniform distributions over strings p and p of length p and p and p are respectively.
- ▶ Theorem 17. Assume that there is PRNG  $G: \{0,1\}^n \to \{0,1\}^{2n}$ , as in Assumption 4. Then for all c for all sufficiently large n for 99% of strings s of length n the uniform distribution over strings of length 2n is a  $(n^c, c \log n, n^{-c}/200)$ -acceptable hypothesis for  $G_n(s)$ .
- ▶ Remark. Note that the uniform distribution is neither optimal  $(C^{\text{poly}(n)}(x) \leq n + O(1))$ , and  $\log \mu(x) = -2n$ , nor plausible (recall Example 2) hypothesis for x. By counting arguments for almost all s for  $x = G_n(s)$  it holds  $CD^{\text{poly}(n)}(x) \approx C^{\text{poly}(n)}(x) \approx C(x) \approx n$ . Therefore, there are strings satisfying Theorem 17 and having the latter property.

Finally, for simple hypotheses  $\mu$  and for strings with  $\mathrm{CD}^{\mathrm{poly}}(x) \approx \mathrm{C}^{\mathrm{poly}}(x)$  optimality implies plausibility and hence acceptability. However this time we need that  $\mu$  can be computed rather than sampled in a short time by a short program.

▶ **Theorem 18.** Under Assumption 2 there is a constant c such that the following holds true. Let  $\mu$  be a probability distribution  $\mu$  such that the function  $x \mapsto \mu(x)$  can be computed by a program of length  $\alpha$  in time t. Assume further that  $\mu(x) > \varepsilon 2^{-\operatorname{CD}^{(n+t+t_1)^c}(x)}$ , where n is the length of x and  $t_1$  an arbitrary number. Then  $\mu$  is a  $(t_1, \varepsilon 2^{-\alpha - c \log n})$ -plausible hypothesis for x.

Notice that in this theorem instead of  $((n+t+t_1)^c,\varepsilon)$ -optimality we use a stronger condition  $\mu(x) > \varepsilon 2^{-\operatorname{CD}^{(n+t+t_1)^c}(x)}$  (with distinguishing complexity in place of Kolmogorov complexity). However for strings x and  $t_2$  with  $C^{t_2}(x) \leqslant \operatorname{CD}^{(n+t+t_1)^c}(x) + \beta$  we can replace that condition by the condition of  $(t_2,\varepsilon 2^\beta)$ -optimality of  $\mu$  for x. Informally speaking, if  $C^{\text{poly}}(x) \approx \operatorname{CD}^{\text{poly}}(x)$  then optimality for x implies plausibility for x.

# 3.4 Non-stochastic strings in classical Algorithmic Statistics

In Algorithmic Statistics without resource bounds [4, 6, 7, 8, 12, 13] plausibility of a statistical hypothesis  $\mu$  for x is measured by one parameter  $-\log \mu(x) - C(x|\mu)$ , called randomness deficiency of x w.r.t.  $\mu$ . Probability distributions can be represented by the lists of pairs (a string, its probability) ordered in a standard way. Thus we can talk on conditional Kolmogorov complexity  $C(x|\mu)$  and of Kolmogorov complexity  $C(\mu)$  of  $\mu$  itself. Up to an additive constant  $C(\mu)$  coincides with the length of the shortest program sampling  $\mu$  (assuming that the program always halts).

Neglibibility of randomness deficiency is similar to all three our definitions of a good hypothesis. More specifically the inequality  $-\log\mu(x)-\mathrm{C}(x|\mu)<\beta$  is similar to saying that  $\mu$  is  $(*,\alpha,2^{-\beta})$ -acceptable,  $(*,2^{-\beta})$ -plausible and  $(*,\alpha,2^{-\beta})$ -optimal for x. However there is an important difference. The inequality  $-\log\mu(x)-\mathrm{C}(x|\mu)<\gamma$  implies that  $\mu$  is  $(*,\gamma+O(1))$ -optimal for x, but not the other way around. If  $-\log\mu(x)-\mathrm{C}(x|\mu)<\gamma$  then for every set  $T\ni x$  accepted by a non-deterministic program p we have  $\mu(T)>2^{-|p|-\gamma}$ . Conversely, if  $-\log\mu(x)-\mathrm{C}(x|\mu)\geqslant\gamma$ , then there is a set  $T\ni x$  accepted by a short non-deterministic program (of length about  $\mathrm{C}(\mu)$ ) with  $\mu(T)\leqslant 2^{-\gamma}$ .

In contrast, both the notion of  $(*, \gamma)$ -plausibility and the notion of  $(*, \alpha, \varepsilon)$ -acceptability are defined by means of *deterministic* recognizing machines. Thus  $-\log \mu(x) - C(x|\mu) < \gamma$  implies  $(*, \gamma)$ -plausibility but not the other way around (with logarithmic accuracy: the inequality  $-\log \mu(x) - C(x|\mu) < \gamma$  implies only  $(*, \gamma) + O(\log n)$ -plausibility.)

A string x is called Kolmogorov  $(\alpha, \beta)$ -stochastic if there is a probability distribution  $\mu$  with  $C(\mu) \leq \alpha$  and  $-\log \mu(x) - C(x|\mu) \leq \beta$ . As we have just explained, Kolmogorov  $(\alpha, \beta)$ -stochasticity implies the existence of a  $(*, \alpha)$ -simple  $(*, 2^{-\beta})$ -plausible (and hence  $(*, \alpha_2, 2^{-\beta-\alpha_2})$ -acceptable for all  $\alpha_2$ ) hypothesis. (Again we ignore logarithmic terms.)

Shen proved the existence of Kolmogorov  $(\alpha, \beta)$ -non-stochastic string for  $\alpha, \beta$  that are linear in n:

▶ **Theorem 19** ([10]). For some constant c for all n and all  $\alpha, \beta$ , with  $2\alpha + \beta < n - c \log n$ , there is a Kolmogorov  $(\alpha, \beta)$ -non-stochastic string of length n.

As we have mentioned, this statement does not imply the existence of non-stochastic strings in our sense (even for very large values of time parameters). However the techniques of [10] can be used to prove the following:

▶ **Theorem 20.** For all n and all  $\alpha, \beta$  with  $\alpha + \beta < n$  there is a string of length n that has no  $(*, \alpha)$ -simple  $(*, \alpha + O(\log n), 2^{-\beta})$ -acceptable hypotheses.

It is not hard to see that Theorem 20 implies Theorem 19. Later the term  $2\alpha$  in Theorem 19 was replaced with  $\alpha$ :

▶ **Theorem 21** ([13]). For some constant c for all n and all  $\alpha, \beta$ , with  $\alpha + \beta < n - c \log n$ , there is a Kolmogorov  $(\alpha, \beta)$ -non-stochastic string of length n.

This result is optimal up to logarithmic terms. Indeed, for all x of length n and all  $\alpha \leq n$  the uniform distribution  $\mu$  over strings of length n that have the same  $\alpha$  first bits as x, has complexity about  $\alpha$  and randomness deficiency at most  $n - \alpha$ :

$$-\log \mu(x) - C(x|\mu) = n - \alpha - C(x|\mu) \leqslant n - \alpha.$$

So using the known methods we can show the existence of strings of length n that have no  $(*, \alpha_1)$ -simple  $(*, \alpha_2, \varepsilon)$ -acceptable hypotheses for  $\alpha_1, \log(1/\varepsilon) = \Omega(n)$  and for  $\alpha_2$  which are only logarithmically larger than  $\alpha_1$ . It is essential for those methods that the running time can be arbitrary large and hence they cannot be used in the case when the running time is bounded by a polynomial of the length.

The notion of an optimal hypothesis is also borrowed from the classical Algorithmic Statistics. A distribution  $\mu$  with small Kolmogorov complexity is called optimal if  $\log \mu(x)$  is close to -C(x), which is equivalent to saying that the randomness deficiency is small. However, optimality was studied also for distribution  $\mu$  with large Kolmogorov complexity, in which case optimality was defined as  $\log \mu(x) \approx C(\mu) - C(x)$ . Using the Symmetry of Information, we can show that the randomness deficiency never exceeds the 'optimality deficiency'  $C(\mu) - C(x) - \log \mu(x)$ , but not the other way around [13]. However in the definition of Kolmogorov stochasticity, we can use the optimality deficiency instead of randomness deficiency: for a string of length n there is an \*,  $\alpha$ -simple hypothesis with optimality deficiency less than  $\beta$  if and only if the string is Kolmogorov  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ -stochastic. More accurately, both directions 'if' and 'only if' hold up to adding some terms of order  $O(\log n)$  to parameters  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$  [13].

# 4 Open questions

- ▶ Question 1. Under which other assumptions (different from Assumption 1) there are non-stochastic strings and elusive sets? Under which other assumptions (different  $(1SAT, SAT) \in P$  and P = PSPACE) there are no elusive sets and all strings are stochastic?
- ▶ Question 2. Let us replace in the definitions of a plausible and acceptable hypothesis deterministic machines by non-deterministic ones. Do the notions of a plausible and acceptable hypothesis and of stochastic string become stronger?
- ▶ Question 3. Are there strings that do not possess simple optimal hypotheses?
- ▶ Question 4. How acceptability is related to optimality for strings x with  $CD^{poly}(x) \ll C^{poly}(x)$ ?
- ▶ Question 5. Are there non-stochastic strings with polynomial bounds for time and linear bounds for program length: is it true that for some c and  $\varepsilon$  < 1 for all d and all  $\delta$  < 1 for all but finitely many n every string x of length n has an  $(n^c, \varepsilon n)$ -simple  $(n^d, \delta n, n^{-c})$ -acceptable hypothesis?

# 5 The proofs

# 5.1 Proof of Proposition 7

The first inequality: the number of sets recognized by a program of length less than  $\alpha$  is less than  $2^{\alpha}$  and each such set contains a fraction at most  $\varepsilon$  of all *n*-bit strings w.r.t.  $\mu$ .

The second inequality: w.l.o.g. we may consider only sets T recognized by programs of length less than n+c (for some constant c). Indeed, assume that a set  $T\ni x$  witnesses implausibility of  $\mu$  for x and is recognized by a program of length l>n+c. Then  $\mu(x)\leqslant \mu(T)\leqslant \varepsilon 2^{-n-c}$ . Thus the set  $\{x\}$ , whose complexity is less than n+c, witnesses implausibility of  $\mu$  for x (if c is large enough). Then we can repeat the arguments from the previous paragraph: for every fixed l any set T recognized by a program of length l refutes a fraction at most  $\varepsilon 2^{-l}$  of all strings and the number of programs of length l is  $2^l$ , thus all together they refute a fraction at most  $\varepsilon$  of strings of length n.

# 5.2 Proof of Theorem 8

▶ **Theorem 22.** Under Assumption 1 there exists an elusive set.

**Proof.** Fix a language L over the unary alphabet  $\{1\}$  satisfying Assumption 1. Since  $L \in NP$ , it can be represented in the form

$$L = \{1^k \mid \exists x \in \{0, 1\}^{k^c} \ R(1^k, x)\},\$$

where c > 0 is a natural number and R a relation decidable in time poly(k).

Consider the set

$$T = \{x \in \{0,1\}^{k^c} \mid R(1^k, x)\}.$$

Obviously T can be recognized in polynomial time. Let us show that T is elusive.

Let d be any constant. For the sake of contradiction assume that for some m for all k > m with  $1^k \in L$  there is a program  $M_k$  of length  $d \log k^c$  that, with probability at least  $k^{-cd}$ , in time  $k^{cd}$  prints a string from T of length  $k^c$ . To obtain a contradiction we construct the following probabilistic algorithm that finds in polynomial time with failure probability at most 1/2 a certificate for membership of an input string  $1^k$  in L:

**The algorithm.** On input  $1^k$  we run all randomized programs of length  $d \log k^c$  in  $k^{cd}$  steps. Each program is run  $k^{cd}$  times. For each string x output by any of those programs we check the equality  $R(1^k, x) = 1$ . If the equality holds true for at least one of those x's, we output any such x. (The end of the Algorithm.)

This algorithm runs in polynomial time. Let us bound the probability of failure on any input  $1^k \in L$ . We assume that for all  $1^k \in L$  with k > m there is a randomized program of length  $d \log k^c$  that produces a string from T with probability at least  $k^{-cd}$ . The probability that  $k^{cd}$  times its output falls outside T is less than  $(1 - k^{-cd})^{k^{cd}} \leq 1/e$ . Therefore for all k > m the algorithm fails with probability at most 1/e, which is a contradiction.

**Proof of Theorem 8.** By Theorem 22 there is an elusive set T. For some d there is a machine with program of length at most d recognizing T in time  $n^d$ .

Let  $T^{=n}$  denote the set of all strings of length n from T. For every n such that  $T^{=n} \neq \emptyset$  pick any string  $x_n$  from  $T^{=n}$ . We claim that for any constant c for infinitely many n the string  $x_n$  does not have  $(n^c, c \log n)$ -simple  $(n^d, d, n^{-c})$ -acceptable hypotheses.

For the sake of contradiction assume that for some m for all n > m there is such hypothesis  $\mu_n$ . As  $x_n \in T$  and T is recognized by a program of length at most d in time  $n^d$  we have  $\mu(T) \geqslant n^{-c}$ . Thus for each such n the probabilistic program of length less than  $c \log n$  sampling the distribution  $\mu_n$  in time  $n^c$  produces a string from T with probability at least  $n^{-c}$ , which contradicts the assumption that T is elusive.

#### 5.3 Proof of Theorem 10

▶ Proposition 23. Assume that L is an elusive set. Then for all constants c there is a constant d such that there are infinitely many  $x \in L$  with

$$CD^{n^d}(x|r) \leqslant C^{n^c}(x|r) - c\log n$$

for 99% of strings r of length  $n^d$ . Here n denotes the length of x.

This proposition follows from Sipser's lemma.

▶ **Lemma 24** ([9]). For every language L recognizable in polynomial time there is a constant d such that for all n for 99% of strings r of length  $n^d$  and all  $x \in L^{=n}$  we have

$$CD^{n^d}(x|r) \leq \log |L^{=n}| + d \log n.$$

**Proof Proposition 23.** Let d be the constant from Sipser's Lemma applied to the given elusive language L. Let c be an arbitrary constant. By Sipser's lemma it suffices to show that  $\log |L^{=n}| + d \log n$  is less than the right hand side of the inequality we have to prove. More precisely, we have to show that

$$\log|L^{=n}| + d\log n \leqslant C^{n^c}(x|r) - c\log n$$

for infinitely many  $x \in L$  and for 99% of r of length  $n^d$ .

For the sake of contradiction assume that for some m for all n > m for all  $x \in L^{=n}$  we have

$$C^{n^c}(x|r) < \log |L^{=n}| + (c+d) \log n$$

for at least 1% of r's. For any such n consider the program  $M_n$  of probabilistic machine that samples a random string w of length less that  $\log |L^{=n}| + (c+d) \log n$  (all such strings are

equiprobable) and a string r of length  $n^d$ . Then  $M_n$  considers w as a program of a string conditional to r, runs that program in  $n^c$  steps and outputs its result (if any). Thus  $M_n$  outputs every  $x \in L^{=n}$  with probability at least  $1/(100|L^{=n}|n^{c+d})$ . And hence for all n > m with non-empty  $L^{=n}$  the output  $M_n$  falls in  $L^{=n}$  with probability at least

$$|L^{=n}|/(100|L^{=n}|n^{c+d}) = 1/100n^{c+d}.$$

This contradicts the assumption that L is an elusive set, as  $M_n$  runs in time poly(n) and its program length is  $O(\log n)$ .

The first part Theorem 10 follows immediately from Theorem 22 and Proposition 23. Let us prove the second part of Theorem 10. In [14], it was shown that under Assumption 2 we can replace in Sipser's lemma conditional complexity by the unconditional one.

▶ **Theorem 25** (Theorem 3.2 in [14]). Under Assumption 2 for all  $L \in PSPACE/poly$  there is a constant d such that for all  $x \in L^{=n}$  we have

$$CD^{n^d, L^{=n}}(x) \leqslant \log |L^{=n}| + d \log n.$$

Moreover the constant d depends only on the length of the advice string for L and on the space bound for L.

In the notation  $CD^{n^d,L^{=n}}(x)$  the superscript  $L^{=n}$  means that the distinguishing program is granted the access to an oracle for  $L^{=n}$ . If L is decidable on polynomial space we can drop this superscript.

Combining this theorem with the proof of Proposition 23 and Theorem 22 we obtain the proof of the second part of Theorem 10.

- ▶ Remark. In [3], a weaker result is derived from an assumption that is not comparable with our one:
- ▶ **Theorem 26** ([3]). Assume that FewP  $\cap$  SPARSE  $\nsubseteq$  P. Then for some constant d for all c for infinitely many x we have

$$CD^{n^d}(x) < C^{n^c}(x) - c \log n.$$

Here n denotes the length of x.

- ▶ Remark. In [3], the following relation between (1 SAT, SAT) and distinguishing complexity was discovered:
- ▶ **Theorem 27** ([3]). The following are equivalent:
- (1)  $(1SAT, SAT) \notin P$ .
- (2) For some d for all c there are x and y with

$$CD^{(|x|+|y|)^d}(x|y) \le C^{(|x|+|y|)^c}(x|y) - c\log(|x|+|y|).$$

From Theorem 27 and Theorem 10 we obtain the following implication NE  $\not\subseteq$  RE  $\Rightarrow$   $(1SAT, SAT) \not\in$  P, which is not surprising since  $(1SAT, SAT) \in$  P implies NP = RP using the Valiant–Vazirani Lemma.

# 5.4 Proof of Proposition 12

- ▶ **Definition 28.** A probability distribution  $\sigma$  over  $\{0,1\}^*$  is called P-samplable, if there is a program of randomized machine that samples this distribution in time bounded by a polynomial of the length of the output.
- ▶ **Theorem 29** (Lemma 3.2 in [1]). Under Assumption 3 for every P-samplable probability distribution  $\sigma$  there is a d such that for all x of length n,

$$C^{n^d}(x) \leq -\log \sigma(x) + d\log n.$$

**Proof of Proposition 12.** Assume that  $\mu$  is sampled by a program q of length less than  $\alpha$  in time t. Assume that  $\alpha < n$  as otherwise the statement is obvious (the complexity of x with a polynomial time bound does not exceed its length).

Consider the following P-samplable probability distribution  $\sigma$ : we choose a random t with probability proportional to  $1/t^2$ , then we choose a random program q' of a randomized machine with probability proportional to  $2^{-|q'|}/|q'|^2$ , run that program in t steps and output the triple  $(1^t, q', x)$ , where x is the result of q' (if any, and the empty string otherwise). The triple  $(1^t, q', x)$  is encoded in such a way that the code length be polynomial in t + |q'| + |x|. By Theorem 29

$$C^{|y|^d}(y) \le -\log \sigma(y) + d\log |y|$$

for some constant d and all y. Letting  $y = (1^t, q, x)$ , we obtain

$$C^{|(1^t, q, x)|^d}(1^t, q, x) \le -\log \sigma(1^t, q, x) + c\log |(1^t, q, x)|$$
  
$$\le 2\log t + \alpha + 2\log \alpha - \log \mu(x) + O(\log(t + |x|)).$$

Since the complexity of any entry of a tuple does not exceed the complexity of the tuple itself, we get the sought inequality.

# 5.5 Proof of Proposition 13

Indeed, if  $\mu$  is not \*,  $\beta$ -optimal for x, then  $\mu(x) < 2^{-\beta - C(x)}$ . The sum of probabilities of all such words is less than  $\varepsilon$  times the sum of  $2^{-C(x)}$  over all x of length n. The latter sum is less than n + O(1), since  $C(x) \le n + O(1)$  for all x of length n and for all fixed k the sum of  $2^{-C(x)}$  over all x with C(x) = k is at most 1 (there are at most  $2^k$  such x's).

# 5.6 Proof of Proposition 14

Consider the machine that chooses a random program of length  $C^t(x)$  (with uniform distribution), runs it in t steps and outputs its result (if any). The program of this machine has length  $O(\log(n+t))$  and its running time is bounded by a polynomial in t+n. With probability at least  $2^{-C^t(x)}$  that machine prints x hence it samples a probability distribution  $\mu$  that is  $\operatorname{poly}(n+t)$ , 1-optimal for x.

# 5.7 Proof of Theorem 17

Fix an arbitrary constant c. For any set  $T_n$  of strings of length 2n recognizable by a program of length less than  $c \log n$  in time  $n^c$  we can construct a Boolean circuit  $C_n$  recognizing that set whose size is bounded by a polynomial of n (that polynomial depends only on c). Therefore there is a function  $\varepsilon(n)$  that tends to 0 faster than any inverse polynomial of n

and such that the probabilities of events  $G_n(s) \in T_n$  and  $r \in T_n$  differ at most by  $\varepsilon(n)$  for any such set  $T_n$ .

For the sake of a contradiction assume that for infinitely many n for 1% of strings s of length n there is a set  $T_s$  recognizable by a program of length less than  $c \log n$  in time  $n^c$  with  $\Pr[r \in T_s] < n^{-c}/200$ . Consider the union  $\mathcal{T}_n$  of all such sets. Since  $G_n(s) \in \mathcal{T}_n$  for all such s, the probability of event  $G_n(s) \in \mathcal{T}_n$  is at least 1/100. On the other hand, the probability of event  $r \in \mathcal{T}_n$  is less than  $2^{c \log n}$  (the number of sets  $T_s$ ) times  $n^{-c}/200$ , which equals 1/200. Thus the difference of probabilities of events  $r \in \mathcal{T}_n$  and  $G_n(s) \in \mathcal{T}_n$  is greater than 1/200.

Recall now that for each n probabilities of events  $G_n(s) \in T_s$  and  $r \in T_s$  differ by at most  $\varepsilon(n)$ , which tends to 0 faster than any inverse polynomial of n. The number of  $T_s$  is less than  $2^{c \log n}$ . Thus we obtain the inequality  $2^{c \log n} \varepsilon(n) > 1/200$  for infinitely many n, which is a contradiction.

# 5.8 Proof of Theorem 18

First we derive a corollary from Theorem 25.

▶ Corollary 30. Under Assumption 2 for some constant d for all n for every program q of length at most 3n that recognizes a set  $T \subset \{0,1\}^n$  in time t, for all  $x \in T$  we have

$$CD^{(n+t)^d}(x) \leqslant \log|T| + |q| + d\log(n+t).$$

**Proof.** Fix any sequence of strings  $q_n$  with  $q_n \leq 3n$ . Let

$$L = \bigcup_{n,t} T_{n,t}$$
, where  $T_{n,t} = \{0^{[n,t]-n} 1x \mid |x| = n, \ q_n(x) = 1 \text{ in time } t\}$ .

Here [n,t] – denotes a polynomial computing a 1-1-mapping from pairs of natural numbers to natural numbers such that  $[n,t] \ge n,t$ . Given the length of any word from  $T_{n,t}$  we can compute n and t in polynomial time. Therefore  $L \in P/3n$  and  $L^{=([n,t]+1)} = T_{n,t}$ . Hence we can apply Theorem 25 to L and conclude that

$$CD^{([n,t]+1)^d,q_n}(0^{[n,t]-n}1x) \leq \log |T_{n,t}| + d\log(n+t)$$

for all t, for all x of length n and all sequences  $\{q_n\}$  as above. The constant d does not depend on  $\{q_n\}$ , therefore this inequality holds for all n, t, for all x of length n and all  $q \leq 3n$ . Plug into this inequality t, q, n, x from the conditions of theorem. We obtain

$$CD^{([n,t]+1)^d,q}(0^{[n,t]-n}1x) \le \log |T| + d\log(n+t).$$

It remains to append to the program of this length distinguishing  $0^{[n,t]-n}1x$  from other strings the information about n,t and q. In this way we get a distinguishing program for x of length  $\log |T| + |q| + O(\log(n+t))$  with running time  $\operatorname{poly}(n,t)$  that does not need an oracle for T.

**Proof of Theorem 18.** Assume the contrary: there is  $T \ni x$  recognizable by a program of length l in time  $t_1$  with  $\mu(T) < \varepsilon 2^{-l-\alpha-c\log n}$  (where the constant c will be chosen later). Then consider the set  $T' = \{x' \in T \mid \mu(x') \geqslant 2^{-i}\}$  where -i stands for the integer part of the binary logarithm of  $\mu(x)$ . This set has at most  $\mu(T)2^i \leqslant 2\mu(T)/\mu(x)$  strings (of length n) and can be recognized in time  $t + t_1$  by a program of length  $\alpha + l + O(\log \log(1/\mu(x)))$ .

W.l.o.g. we may assume that  $\mu(x) \ge 2^{-n}$  and that  $\alpha, l \le n$ . Thus the length of that program is less than 3n. Corollary 30 implies that for some constant d

$$CD^{(n+t+t_1)^d}(x) \leq \log \mu(T) - \log \mu(x) + \alpha + l + d \log n.$$

that is,

$$\log \mu(x) \leqslant -\operatorname{CD}^{(n+t+t_1)^d}(x) + \alpha + l + \log \mu(T) + d \log n$$

$$\leqslant -\operatorname{CD}^{(n+t+t_1)^d}(x) + \alpha + l + \log \varepsilon - l - \alpha - c \log n + d \log n$$

$$= g \operatorname{CD}^{(n+t+t_1)^d}(x) + \log \varepsilon - c \log n + d \log n.$$

Let c = d + 1. Then the last inequality implies that

$$\log \mu(x) < -\operatorname{CD}^{(n+t+t_1)^d}(x) + \log \varepsilon \leqslant -\operatorname{CD}^{(n+t+t_1)^c}(x) + \log \varepsilon,$$

which contradicts the condition of the theorem.

# Proof of Theorems 20 and 19

**Proof of Theorem 20.** For every  $\mu$  sampled by a program of length  $< \alpha$  consider the set of all x' satisfying the inequality  $\mu(x') \ge 2^{-\beta}$ . For any fixed  $\mu$  there at most  $2^{\beta}$  such x' (otherwise the sum of their probabilities would exceed 1). Therefore the total number of strings in all such sets is less than

$$2^{\alpha}2^{\beta} < 2^{n}$$
.

Here the first factor is an upper bound for the number of  $\mu$  and the second factor the number of x' for a fixed  $\mu$ .

Let x by the lex first string of length n outside all such sets. Its Kolmogorov complexity is at most  $\alpha + O(\log n)$ , as we can find it from the number N of distributions  $\mu$  sampled by a program of length  $< \alpha$  and from parameters  $\alpha, \beta$  (from  $\alpha$  and N we can find all such distributions by running in parallel all programs of length less than  $\alpha$  until we find N distributions; then for every of the distributions  $\mu$  we can find the set of strings x' with  $\mu(x') \ge 2^{-\beta}$ ).

Let us show that x does not possess  $(*, \alpha)$ -simple  $(*, \alpha + O(\log n), 2^{-\beta})$ -acceptable hypotheses. Assume that  $\mu$  is sampled by a program of length  $< \alpha$ . Consider the set  $T = \{x\}$ . Its complexity is at most  $\alpha + O(\log n)$  and  $\mu$ -probability is less than  $2^{-\beta}$  by construction. Hence the set T witnesses that  $\mu$  is not acceptable for x.

**Proof of Theorem 19.** Assume that  $\alpha', \beta'$  satisfy the inequality  $2\alpha' + \beta' + c \log n < n$  where c is the constant hidden in the O-notation in Theorem 20 (actually a little larger). Let in Theorem 20  $\alpha = \alpha'$  and  $\beta = \beta' + \alpha' + c \log n$ . If the word x existing by Theorem 20 were Kolmogorov  $(\alpha', \beta')$ -stochastic, then it would have  $(*, \alpha')$ -simple  $(*, \alpha_2, 2^{-\beta' - \alpha_2})$ -acceptable hypothesis for all  $\alpha_2$ . Letting  $\alpha_2 = \alpha + c \log n$ , we would derive that x has an  $(*, \alpha)$ -simple  $(*, \alpha + c \log n, 2^{-\beta})$ -acceptable hypothesis, which contradicts the statement of Theorem 20.

# 6 Non-stochastic strings and P = PSPACE

In this section we show why we need some complexity-theoretic assumption in Theorem 8 – its statement implies  $P \neq PSPACE$  (Theorem 31). In other words, P = PSPACE implies that the conclusion in Theorem 8 is false. However, this is due to the fact that, in Theorem 8, the

length of a program (and its running time) recognizing the refutation set T does not depend on program length and time to sample the distribution. If we allow the former depend on the latter then, on the contrary, P = PSPACE implies that non-stochastic strings exist (Theorem 32).

▶ **Theorem 31.** Assume that P = PSPACE. Then for every c there is d for which every string of length n has an  $(n^d, 2 \log n)$ -simple  $(n^c, c \log n, n^{-d})$ -acceptable hypothesis.

**Proof.** Fix a constant c. Define sets  $A_0, A_1, \ldots$  recursively:  $A_0 = \{0, 1, \}^n$  and for i > 0 let

$$A_i = \{x \in A_{i-1} \mid \exists (n^c, c \log n, n^{-c}) \text{-simple } T \ni x \mid T \cap A_{i-1} | \leqslant 2^n n^{-i-c} \}.$$

The definition of  $A_i$  implies that it has at most  $2^n n^{-i}$  words. Indeed, there are less than  $n^c$   $(n^c, c \log n)$ -simple sets and each of them contributes at most  $2^n n^{-i-c}$  strings to  $A_i$ .

Thus  $A_n$  is empty. On the other hand,  $A_0 = \{0,1\}^n$ , therefore for every string x of length n there is  $i \leq n$  with  $x \in A_i \setminus A_{i+1}$ . For a given x fix such i and consider the distribution  $\mu_i$  sampled as follows. Sample a random  $j \leq 2^n n^{-i}$  and output jth in the lexicographical order word from  $A_i$  (if there is no such word, then the last one, say).

Assume that there is an  $(n^c, c \log n)$ -simple  $T \ni x$  with  $\mu_i(T) < n^{-d}$ . The probability of each string from  $A_i$  is at least  $2^{-n}n^i$  hence we have

$$|A_i \cap T| < n^{-d} 2^n n^{-i} \le 2^n n^{-(i+1)-c}$$

(the last inequality holds provided  $d \ge c + 1$ ). Hence  $x \in A_{i+1}$ , which contradicts to the choice of i.

It remains to show that  $\mu_i$  is  $(n^d, 2\log n)$ -simple provided d is large enough. The distribution  $\mu_i$  can be identified by numbers n, i, hence there is a program of length  $2\log n$  sampling  $\mu_i$ . Given the index of a string x in  $A_i$  we can find x on the space polynomial in n and  $n^c$ . Under assumption P = PSPACE, we can do it in time polynomial in n and  $n^c$  and hence  $\mu_i$  is  $(n^d, 2\log n)$ -simple for some d.

In this theorem the time  $n^d$  to sample an  $(n^c, c \log n, n^{-d})$ -acceptable hypothesis  $\mu$  for x can be much larger than the time  $n^c$  allowed to refute  $\mu$ . Does a similar statement hold for d that does not depend on c? The next theorem answers this question in the negative.

▶ **Theorem 32.** Assume that P = PSPACE. Then for some constant e for every  $n, \alpha, t$  there is a string of length n that has no  $(t, \alpha)$ -simple  $((\alpha+t+n)^e, \alpha+2\log t+2\log n, 2^{-n+\alpha})$ -acceptable statistical hypotheses.

Plugging  $t = n^d$  and  $\alpha = d \log n$  we get, for each n, a string of length n with no  $(n^d, d \log n)$ -simple  $(n^{ed}, (2d+2) \log n, 2^{-n+d \log n})$ -acceptable hypotheses. Thus for any d for some c = O(d) there are infinitely many strings which have no  $(n^d, 2 \log n)$ -simple  $(n^c, c \log n, n^{-d})$ -acceptable hypotheses.

**Proof.** Let  $\mu_p^t$  denote the probability distribution sampled by a program p in time t. Consider the arithmetic mean of all  $(t, \alpha)$ -simple distributions:  $\mu(x) = 2^{-\alpha} \sum_{|p| < \alpha} \mu_p^t(x)$ . Let x stand for the lex first string of length n such that  $\mu(x) \leq 2^{-n}$ . This string can be found on space poly $(n + t + \alpha)$ . Using the assumption P = PSPACE we conclude that x can be found in time  $p(n + t + \alpha)$  from  $t, \alpha, n$ , where p is a polynomial.

We claim that x has has no  $(t, \alpha)$ -simple  $(p(\alpha+t+n), \alpha+2\log t+2\log n, 2^{-n+\alpha})$ -acceptable statistical hypotheses. For the sake of contradiction assume that  $\mu_p^t$  is such a hypothesis for x. By construction we have  $\mu_p^t(x) \leq 2^{-n+\alpha}$  and hence the singleton set  $T = \{x\}$  has small probability. It can be recognized in time  $p(\alpha+t+n)$  by a program of length less than  $\alpha+2\log t+2\log n$ , consisting of t and n in the self-delimiting encoding followed by p.

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▶ Remark. Assume that, in the definitions of a simple and acceptable hypothesis, we would restrict space instead of time. Then in Theorems 31 and 32 we would not need any assumptions.

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