# Uniform Direct-Product Theorems: Simplified, Optimized, and Derandomized 

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#### Abstract

The classical Direct-Product Theorem for circuits says that if a Boolean function $f:\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow$ $\{0,1\}$ is somewhat hard to compute on average by small circuits, then the corresponding $k$-wise direct product function $f^{k}\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right)=\left(f\left(x_{1}\right), \ldots, f\left(x_{k}\right)\right)$ (where each $\left.x_{i} \in\{0,1\}^{n}\right)$ is significantly harder to compute on average by slightly smaller circuits. We prove a fully uniform version of the Direct-Product Theorem with information-theoretically optimal parameters, up to constant factors. Namely, we show that for given $k$ and $\epsilon$, there is an efficient randomized algorithm $A$ with the following property. Given a circuit $C$ that computes $f^{k}$ on at least $\epsilon$ fraction of inputs, the algorithm $A$ outputs with probability at least $3 / 4$ a list of $O(1 / \epsilon)$ circuits such that at least one of the circuits on the list computes $f$ on more than $1-\delta$ fraction of inputs, for $\delta=O((\log 1 / \epsilon) / k)$; moreover, each output circuit is an $\mathrm{AC}^{0}$ circuit (of size $\operatorname{poly}(n, k, \log 1 / \delta, 1 / \epsilon))$, with oracle access to the circuit $C$. Using the Goldreich-Levin decoding algorithm [GL89], we also get a fully uniform version of Yao's XOR Lemma [Yao82] with optimal parameters, up to constant factors. Our results simplify and improve those in [IJK06].

Our main result may be viewed as an efficient approximate, local, list-decoding algorithm for direct-product codes (encoding a function by its values on all $k$-tuples) with optimal parameters. We generalize it to a family of "derandomized" direct-product codes, which we call intersection codes, where the encoding provides values of the function only on a subfamily of $k$-tuples. The quality of the decoding algorithm is then determined by sampling properties of the sets in this family and their intersections. As a direct consequence of this generalization we obtain the first derandomized direct product result in the uniform setting, allowing hardness amplification with only constant (as opposed to a factor of $k$ ) increase in the input length. Finally, this general setting naturally allows the decoding of concatenated codes, which further yields nearly optimal derandomized amplification.


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## 1 Introduction

Applications of complexity theory such as cryptography and derandomization require reliably hard problems that cannot be solved by any algorithm with a non-trivial advantage over random guessing. Direct-product theorems are a primary tool in hardness amplification, allowing one to convert problems that are somewhat hard into problems that are more reliably hard. In a direct-product theorem, we start with a function $f$ such that any feasible algorithm has a nonnegligible chance of failing to compute $f(x)$ given a random $x$. We then show that no feasible algorithm can, given multiple instances of the problem $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}$, compute all of the values $f\left(x_{i}\right)$, with even a small probability of success. (Usually, the $x_{i}$ 's are chosen independently, but there are also derandomized direct-product theorems where the $x_{i}$ 's are chosen pseudo-randomly.) Many strong direct product theorems are known for non-uniform models, such as Boolean circuits [Yao82, Lev87, GNW95, Imp95, IW97, STV01]. Unfortunately, in general, direct-product theorems fail in completely uniform models such as probabilistic computation.

However, Trevisan [Tre05] pointed out that proofs of direct product theorems correspond to (approximate) error-correction of sparse codes. Using this view, we think of a function $f$ as being encoded by $\operatorname{Code}(f)=f^{k}$, its values on all $k$-tuples. We seek a decoding algorithm which will generate efficient circuit(s) for $f$, given access to $C^{\prime}$ which is a highly corrupted codeword, agreeing with $f^{k}$ only on an $\epsilon$-fraction of all $k$-tuples.

The strictly uniform direct-product theorem fails because these codes are not uniquely decodable: one can easily imagine such a circuit $C^{\prime}$ which agrees on $\epsilon$-fraction of each of $1 / \epsilon$ different functions. Thus list decoding is essential, and one can quantify uniformity in terms of the list size. In particular, all non-uniform direct-product theorems, yield list size which is exponential in $1 / \epsilon$. In contrast, uniform direct-product theorems should have the list size which is polynomial in $1 / \epsilon$. [IJK06] gave the first such proof of the direct-product theorem; however, the proof was quite complex and fell short of the information-theoretic bounds in many respects.

Here, we give a new uniform direct-product theorem that has the following features:

- Optimality: The parameters achieved by our list decoding algorithm are information theoretically optimal (to within constant factors).
- Efficiency: The decoding algorithm is simply a projection, namely implementable in uniform $\mathrm{NC}^{0}$ with oracle access to the corrupted circuit $C^{\prime}$. The circuits it produces are implementable in uniform $\mathrm{AC}^{0}$. Thus, our hardness amplification applies to much simpler uniform classes than $P$.
- Simplicity: Both the decoding algorithm and the proof of correctness are extremely simple (even when compared with proofs in the non-uniform setting!).
- Generality: The decoding algorithm algorithm and its proof turns out to work without change for a general family of codes of which the above direct-product code is just an example. We define this class of intersection codes, which is simply specified by the family of $k$-subsets used to record values of $f$ in $\operatorname{Code}(f)$. We explain how the quality of the decoding (and thus of the amplification) depend on the sampling properties of the family of sets, and of their pairwise intersections.
- Derandomization: As an immediate bonus of the above setting we get the first derandomized direct-product theorems in the uniform setting. A direct application of the above
intersection codes to subspaces yields amplification with input size $O(n)$, instead of the trivial bound of $O(k n)$ when using all subsets. In a more sophisticated application, using a concatenation of two intersection codes, we get similar savings in randomness, but with hardly any loss in other parameters.
- Consequences: As observed by [TV02, Tre05], efficient list-decoding has the same consequences as unique decoding in terms of hardness amplification within many natural complexity classes, e.g., NP, $\mathrm{P}^{\mathrm{NP} \|}$, \#P, PSPACE and EXP.


### 1.1 Statement of the Uniform Direct-Product theorem

Let us describe now the hardness amplification results in computational complexity terms. For this we need the following terminology. We say that a circuit $C \epsilon$-computes a function $F$ if $C(z)=F(z)$ for at least $\epsilon$ fraction of inputs $z$. A function $F$ is $(1-\epsilon)$-hard for size $t(n)$ if no circuit of size $t(n)$ $\epsilon$-computes $F$.

Following [TV02], we define the "semi-uniform" class BPP//log as the class of probabilistic algorithms with advice of length $O(\log n)$ that depends on the random coin tosses of the algorithm, but not on the input. We can view such an algorithm as producing a polynomial-sized list of polynomial-size circuits: the algorithm then is judged by how well the best circuit on its list does. A probabilistic polynomial-time algorithm with advice, $A(x, r, z), \epsilon$-computes $F$ if, for every length $n$, there is a function $z(r)$ taking a polynomial-size string $r$ to a logarithmic length output, so that $\operatorname{Pr}_{x, r}[A(x, r, z(r))=F(x)] \geq \epsilon$. A function $F$ is $(1-\epsilon)$-hard for BPP//log if no such algorithm and function $z(r)$ exist. For superpolynomial time complexity $t=t(n)$, we can generalize in the obvious way to the class $\operatorname{BPTIME}(\operatorname{poly}(t)) / / O(\log t)$.

Given a Boolean function $f:\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow\{0,1\}$, the $k$-wise direct-product function $f^{k}$ is mapping every $k$-set $\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right)$ of $n$-bit strings (ordered according to some fixed ordering of the universe $\{0,1\}^{n}$ ) to the $k$-tuple $\left(f\left(x_{1}\right), \ldots, f\left(x_{k}\right)\right) .{ }^{1}$

One of our main results is the following.
Theorem 1.1 (Uniform Direct-Product Theorem). There is an absolute constant $c>0$ so that for any functions $\delta=\delta(n), k=k(n), t=t(n)$, and $\epsilon=\epsilon(n) \geq e^{-\delta k / c}$ and $\epsilon>t^{-1 / c}$, if $f$ is $\delta$-hard for $\operatorname{BPTIME}(t) / / \log t$, then $f^{k}$ is $(1-\epsilon)$-hard for $\operatorname{BPTIME}\left(t^{1 / c}\right) / /(1 / c) \log t$.

The proof is via the following reconstruction algorithm, which is information-theoretically optimal up to constant factors.

Theorem 1.2 (Approximate list-decoding algorithm). There is a constant $c$ and a probabilistic algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ with the following property. Let $k \in \mathbb{N}$, and $0<\epsilon, \delta<1$ be such that $\epsilon>e^{-\delta k / c}$. Let $C^{\prime}$ be a circuit that $\epsilon$-computes the Direct-Product $f^{k}$, for some Boolean function $f:\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow\{0,1\}$. Given such a circuit $C^{\prime}$, algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ outputs with probability $\Omega(\epsilon)$ a circuit $C$ that $(1-\delta)$-computes $f$. The algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ is a uniform randomized $\mathrm{NC}^{0}$ algorithm (with one $C^{\prime}$-oracle gate), and the produced circuit $C$ is an $\mathrm{AC}^{0}$ circuit of size poly $(n, k, \log 1 / \delta, 1 / \epsilon)$ (with $C^{\prime}$-oracle gates).

In our proof, the circuit output by algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ will have the following structure. Fix $s=k / 2$. Let $A=\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{s}\right)$ be an (ordered) $s$-subset of $\{0,1\}^{n}$, and let $v=\left(v_{1}, \ldots, v_{s}\right)$ be an $s$-bit string. For intuition, imagine that $v_{i}=f\left(a_{i}\right)$ for all $1 \leqslant i \leqslant s$.

[^1]We define the following randomized circuit $\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{v}}$ :
"On input $x \in\{0,1\}^{n}$, check if $x=a_{i}$ for some $a_{i} \in A$; if so, then output $v_{i}$. Otherwise, repeatedly sample random $k$-sets $B$ such that $A \cup\{x\} \subseteq B$, discarding any $B$ where $C^{\prime}$ is inconsistent with our answers $v$ for $A$ (i.e., where $\left.C^{\prime}(B)\right|_{A} \neq v$ ). For the first consistent $B$, output $\left.C^{\prime}(B)\right|_{x}$. Produce some default (error) output if no consistent $B$ is found even after $100 \cdot(\ln 1 / \delta) / \epsilon$ iterations."

The algorithm $C_{A, v}$ makes sense when $v_{i}=f\left(a_{i}\right)$ for all $1 \leqslant i \leqslant s$. This alone would not be sufficient to ensure that $C_{A, v}$ is a good circuit for $f$. We will need a stronger property of the set $A$ (that for many sets $B$ consistent with $A$, the values $C^{\prime}(B)$ are mostly correct), which will still be ensured with reasonable probability for a random choice of $(A, v)$ as described above.

Here is the complete description of our algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ :
"Pick at random a $k$-set $B_{0}$, an $s$-subset $A \subseteq B_{0}$. Set $v=\left.C^{\prime}\left(B_{0}\right)\right|_{A}$. Output the circuit $C_{A, v}$."

### 1.2 Generalized direct-product encoding: intersection codes

Our proof technique will allow us to analyze a certain generalized direct-product code, which we define below. Let $f: U \rightarrow R$, where $U$ is some universe. Usually, $U$ will be $\{0,1\}^{n}$, or $\mathbb{F}_{q}^{m}$, an $m$-dimensional vector space over a finite field $\mathbb{F}_{q}$. The range $R$ is an arbitrary set $(R=\{0,1\}$ for Boolean $f$ ). We assume some fixed ordering of the elements of $U$, and identify a size- $s$ subset of $U$ with the $s$-tuple of ordered elements.

For a parameter $k \in \mathbb{N}$, we specify a $k$-wise direct-product encoding of $f$ by two families of subsets of $U$. Let $\mathcal{T}$ be a family of $k$-subsets of $U$, and let $\mathcal{S}$ be a family of $s$-subsets of $U$ (with $s<k)$; the family $\mathcal{S}$ is only used in the analysis. The intersection code $\operatorname{Code}=\operatorname{Code}(\mathcal{T}, \mathcal{S})$ is defined by $\operatorname{Code}(f): \mathcal{T} \rightarrow R^{k}$, giving for every $k$-set $B \in \mathcal{T}$ the values $f(b)$ for all $b \in B$.

Our two running examples of these families are:

- Independent: $\mathcal{T}$ are all $k$-subsets of $U$, and $\mathcal{S}$ are all $s$-subsets of $U$. Here we fix $s=k / 2$.
- Subspaces: We identify $U$ with the vector space $\mathbb{F}_{q}^{m}$. For positive integers $d \geqslant 8$ and $r=d / 2$, we take $\mathcal{T}$ to be all $d$-dimensional affine subspaces of $U$, and $\mathcal{S}$ to be all $r$-dimensional affine subspaces of $U$. Here we have $k=q^{d}$ and $s=q^{r}=\sqrt{k}$.

The Independent example is the $k$-wise direct-product function considered earlier. The Subspaces example will give us a derandomized version of the direct-product theorem, where inputs of $f^{k}$ will be all points in a given affine $d$-dimensional subspace of $U$. Note that to specify $k=q^{d}$ such points, we only need to specify the $d+1$ vectors of $U$ that define the $d$-dimensional affine subspace ( $d$ basis vectors plus a shift vector). In our case, $d$ and $r$ will be constants, and so these affine subspaces are specified with only $O(n)$ bits.

The code Code is $\delta$-approximately $(\epsilon, \ell)$-list decodable if for every function $C^{\prime}: \mathcal{T} \rightarrow R^{k}$ there is a collection of at most $\ell$ functions $g_{1}, g_{2}, \cdots, g_{\ell}$ such that, for every function $f: U \rightarrow R$, if $C o d e(f)$ $\epsilon$-agrees with $C^{\prime}$, then $f$ will $(1-\delta)$-agree with some $g_{i}$, for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant \ell$. The code Code is efficiently locally decodable if there is an efficient algorithm that uses oracle access to $C^{\prime}$ to generate circuits for the functions $g_{i}$ 's (which also use that oracle).

Our decoding algorithm for $\operatorname{Code}(\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{T})$ is exactly the same as the algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ described in the previous section, with sets $A$ coming from $\mathcal{S}$, and sets $B$ from $\mathcal{T}$. We show that this algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ produces a good circuit for $f$, provided that families $\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{T}$ satisfy certain sampling conditions. In particular, we prove the following.

Theorem 1.3. Both Independent and Subspaces codes are efficiently, locally, $\delta$-approximately $(\epsilon, O(1 / \epsilon))$-list decodable, where

- Independent: $\delta=O((\log 1 / \epsilon) / k)$,
- Subspaces: $\delta=O\left(1 /\left(\epsilon^{2} k^{1 / 4}\right)\right)$.

Moreover, the decoder for the Independent code is a uniform randomized $\mathrm{NC}^{0}$ algorithm that outputs $\mathrm{AC}^{0}$ circuits. ${ }^{2}$

We use very little about the set systems $\mathcal{S}$ and $\mathcal{T}$. The following is an informal summary of the properties we need.

Computational assumptions: It is possible to efficiently sample from the following distributions: $B$ uniformly chosen in $\mathcal{T}$; Given $B \in \mathcal{T}$, uniformly pick $A \in \mathcal{S}$ with $A \subset B$; Given $A \in \mathcal{S}$ and $x \in U \backslash A$, uniformly pick $B \in \mathcal{T}$ with $A \cup\{x\} \subset B$.

Symmetry: For a fixed $B \in \mathcal{T}$, for a random $A \in \mathcal{S}$ with $A \subset B$, the elements of $A$ are individually uniform over $B$. For a fixed $A \in \mathcal{S}$, and random $B \in \mathcal{T}$ with $A \subset B$, the elements in $B \backslash A$ are individually uniform over $U \backslash A$.

Sampling: For a fixed $B \in \mathcal{T}$ and any sufficiently large subset $W \subset B$, with high probability over a random $A \in \mathcal{S}, A \subset B,|A \cap W| /|A|$ is approximately the same as $|W| /|B|$. For a fixed $A \in \mathcal{S}$, and any sufficiently large subset $H \subset U \backslash A$, with high probability over a random $B \in \mathcal{T}, A \subset B$, we have that $|(B \backslash A) \cap H| /|B \backslash A|$ is approximately the same as $|H| /|U \backslash A|$.

### 1.3 Concatenated codes and hardness condensing

We also prove a stronger version of Theorem 1.3 for the case where we allow an oracle circuit $C^{\prime}$ for the direct-product $f^{k}$ to be only approximately correct on at least $\epsilon$ fraction of inputs to $f^{k}$. More precisely, we allow a circuit $C^{\prime}$ such that, for at least $\epsilon$ fraction of $T \in \mathcal{T}, C^{\prime}(T)$ and $f^{k}(T)$ agree on at least $\left(1-\delta^{\prime}\right)$ fraction of elements of $T$. Note that the usual version of direct-product decoding assumes $\delta^{\prime}=0$. Given such a circuit $C^{\prime}$, we show how to obtain a circuit $C$ which $(1-\delta)$-computes $f$, for $\delta=O\left(\delta^{\prime}\right)$.

This relaxed notion of approximate list decoding can be formalized as follows. The code Code is $\left(\delta, \delta^{\prime}\right)$-approximately $(\epsilon, \ell)$-list decodable if for every function $C^{\prime}: \mathcal{T} \rightarrow R^{k}$ there is a collection of at most $\ell$ functions $g_{1}, g_{2}, \cdots, g_{\ell}$ such that, for every function $f: U \rightarrow R$, if the $k$-tuples $f^{k}(T)$ and $C^{\prime}(T)\left(1-\delta^{\prime}\right)$-agree on at least $\epsilon$ fraction of sets $T \in \mathcal{T}$, then $f$ will $(1-\delta)$-agree with some $g_{i}$, for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant \ell$. Efficient local decodability means, as before, that a collection of circuits for such $g_{i}$ 's can be efficiently generated, given oracle access to a circuit $C^{\prime}$.

We prove the following "approximate" version of Theorem 1.3.
Theorem 1.4. Both Independent and Subspaces codes are efficiently, locally, $(\delta, \Omega(\delta))$-approximately $(\epsilon, O(1 / \epsilon))$-list decodable, where

- Independent: $\delta=O((\log 1 / \epsilon) / k)$,

[^2]- Subspaces: $\delta=O\left(1 /\left(\epsilon^{2} k^{1 / 4}\right)\right)$.

While interesting in its own right, Theorem 1.4 will also allow us to obtain a strong derandomized version of uniform direct product theorem for a Boolean function $f:\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow\{0,1\}$. The $k$-wise direct-product encoding based on affine subspaces already yields a harder function on inputs of size $O(n)$. However, Theorem 1.3 says that to obtain hardness $\epsilon$ from constant hardness $\delta$, one needs to take $k=\operatorname{poly}(1 / \epsilon)$, which is too big when $\epsilon$ is exponentially small in $n$. The best one can hope for, by analogy with the non-uniform derandomized hardness amplification [IW97, STV01], is a derandomized direct-product encoding $h$ of $f$ such that $h$ has hardness $\epsilon=e^{-\Omega(n)}$, while the input size of $h$ is $O(n)$ and the output size $k=O(\log 1 / \epsilon)$. We will be able to meet this goal partially: we define a function $h$ of hardness $\epsilon=e^{-\Omega(\sqrt{n})}$ with input size $O(n)$ and $k=O(\log 1 / \epsilon)$.

The function $h$ is a concatenation of two encodings: first we encode a given Boolean function $f:\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow\{0,1\}$ with the Subspaces $K$-wise direct-product code, obtaining a function $g$ : $\mathcal{T} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{K}$, where $K=O\left(1 /(\epsilon \delta)^{8}\right)$ and $\mathcal{T}$ is the collection of all $d$-dimensional affine subspaces of $\mathbb{F}_{q}^{m}$; here we identify $\{0,1\}^{n}$ with $\mathbb{F}_{q}^{m}$. Then we encode each output $g(B)$, for $B \in \mathcal{T}$, with the Independent $k$-wise direct-product code, for the universe $\{0,1\}^{K}$ and $k=O((\log 1 / \epsilon) / \delta)$. Theorem 1.4 is needed to handle possible errors created in the decoding of the inner code.

Theorem 1.5 (Uniform Derandomized Direct-Product Theorem). There is an absolute constant $c>0$ so that for any constant $0<\delta<1$, and any functions $t=t(n), k=k(n), \epsilon=\epsilon(n) \geq$ $\max \left\{e^{-\delta k / c}, e^{-\Omega(\sqrt{n})}, t^{-1 / c}\right\}$, and $K=K(n)=O\left(1 /(\epsilon \delta)^{8}\right)$, if $f:\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow\{0,1\}$ is $\delta$-hard for $\operatorname{BPTIME}(t) / / \log t$, then the function $h$ defined from $f$ as described above is $(1-\epsilon)$-hard for $\operatorname{BPTIME}\left(t^{1 / c}\right) / /(1 / c) \log t$. The input size of $h$ is $O(n)$.

We give an interpretation of Theorem 1.5 in terms of "hardness condensing" in the spirit of [BOS06]. We obtain some form of "hardness condensing" with respect to $\operatorname{BPTIME}(t) / / \log t$. For an affine subspace $B \in \mathcal{T}$, think of $g(B)=\left.f\right|_{B}$ as the truth table of the Boolean function mapping $b \in B$ to $f(b)$. Since $B$ is an affine $d$-dimensional subspace, each element of $B$ can be described by a $d$-tuple of field elements $\left(\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{d}\right) \in \mathbb{F}_{q}^{d}$, and so each $\left.f\right|_{B}: \mathbb{F}_{q}^{d} \rightarrow\{0,1\}$ is a Boolean function on $d \log q$-size inputs. Also, each $B \in \mathcal{T}$ can be described with $(d+1) m \log q$ bits, and so each function in the function family $\left\{\left.f\right|_{B}\right\}_{B \in \mathcal{T}}$ has a short description.

Consider the problem: Given (a description of) $B \in \mathcal{T}$, construct a circuit that computes $\left.f\right|_{B}$ well on average. We show the following.

Theorem 1.6 (Hardness condensing). For an absolute constant $c>0$, if a function $f$ is $\delta$-hard for $\operatorname{BPTIME}(t) / / \log t$, then every probabilistic $t^{1 / c}$-time algorithm $\mathcal{C}$ has probability at most $\epsilon=$ $\max \left\{q^{-d / 16}, t^{-1 / c}\right\}$ (over random $B \in \mathcal{T}$ and the internal randomness of $\mathcal{C}$ ) of producing a circuit that $(1-\Omega(\delta))$-computes $\left.f\right|_{B}$.

Intuitively, for almost every $B$, the function $\left.f\right|_{B}$ has almost the same hardness as $f$, but is defined on inputs of smaller size. Thus the reduction from $f$ to $f_{B}$ can be thought of as "hardness condensing".

Finally, we also consider a truncated version of the Hadamard code, and argue that it is approximately, efficiently, locally, list-decodable, with information-theoretically optimal parameters, up to constant factors. For a Boolean function $f:\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow\{0,1\}$ and a parameter $k \in \mathbb{N}$, the $k$-XOR encoding of $f$ is defined as the function $f^{\oplus k}$ mapping each $k$-subset of $n$-bit strings $\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right)$ to the value $\oplus_{i=1}^{k} f\left(x_{i}\right)$. This binary encoding of $f$ is essentially the encoding used in

Yao's XOR Lemma [Yao82], with the only difference that we consider $k$-sets rather than $k$-tuples of $n$-bit strings.

We have the following.
Theorem 1.7. The $k$-XOR code is efficiently, locally, $\delta$-approximately $\left(1 / 2+\epsilon, O\left(1 / \epsilon^{2}\right)\right)$-list decodable, for $\delta=O((\log 1 / \epsilon) / k)$.

### 1.4 Relation to previous work

### 1.4.1 Non-uniform Direct Product Theorem

The classical Direct-Product Theorem (and closely related Yao's XOR Lemma [Yao82]) for circuits has many proofs [Lev87, Imp95, GNW95, IW97]. The basic idea behind all these proofs is the following: If a given circuit $C^{\prime} \epsilon$-computes $f^{k}\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right)$, for some $\delta$-hard function $f:\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow$ $\{0,1\}$, with $\epsilon>(1-\delta)^{k}$, then it must be the case that the correctness of the answers of $C^{\prime}$ at some position $i$ is correlated with the correctness of its answers in the remaining positions (since otherwise it would be the same as trying to compute $f\left(x_{1}\right), \ldots, f\left(x_{k}\right)$ independently sequentially, which obviously cannot be done with probability greater than $\left.(1-\delta)^{k}\right)$.

This correlation of $C^{\prime \prime}$ 's answers can be exploited in various ways to get a circuit $(1-\delta)$ computing $f$ from the circuit $C^{\prime}$ (yielding different proofs of the direct-product theorem in [Lev87, Imp95, GNW95, IW97]). Usually, one takes a random $k$-tuple ( $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}$ ) containing a given input $x$ in some position $i$, runs $C^{\prime}$ on that tuple, and checks how well $C^{\prime}$ did in positions other than $i$. To perform such a check, one obviously needs to know the true values of $f$ at the inputs $x_{j}$ for $j \neq i$; these are provided in the form of non-uniform advice in the circuit model. Then one decides on the guess for the value $f(x)$ based on the quality of $C^{\prime \prime}$ s answers for $x_{j}, j \neq i$. For example, in [IW97], one flips a random coin with probability that is some function of the number of incorrect answers given by $C^{\prime}$ outside position $i$.

### 1.4.2 Uniform Direct Product Theorem, and decoding vs. testing

To get a uniform algorithm for $f$, we need to remove (or at least minimize the amount of) the non-uniform advice $f\left(x_{j}\right), j \neq i$. The first result of that type was obtained in [IJK06]. Their idea was to use the circuit $C^{\prime}$ itself in order to get enough labeled examples $(x, f(x)$ ), and then run the direct-product decoding algorithm of [IW97] on $C^{\prime}$ and the obtained examples.

To get sufficiently many examples, [IJK06] use a method they called direct product amplification, which is to take an algorithm solving the $k$-wise direct product to one that (approximately) solves the $k^{\prime}$-wise direct product problem with $k^{\prime} \gg k$. This amplification is essentially equivalent to approximate list decoding when there are only $k^{\prime}$ possible instances in the domain of the function $f$. Their list-decoding algorithm used one random "advice set" (where the algorithm produced correct answers) as a consistency check for another set that contains the instance to be solved. To be a meaningful consistency check, the advice set and instance-containing set need to have a large intersection. For independent random sets, this implies by the birthday-paradox bounds, that $k^{\prime} \ll k^{2}$. Because of this constraint, [IJK06] had to use direct-product amplification iteratively, to cover the whole domain size of $2^{n}$ instances. These iterations complicated the construction and made the parameters far from optimal.

We instead pick the instance-containing set conditioned on having a large intersection with the advice set. This can be done at one shot, on any domain size, so no iterations are needed.

This idea is similar in spirit to the direct-product testing methods used by [GS00, DR06], and we were inspired by these papers. However, while they showed that this is sufficient in the unique decoding regime (where the algorithm is computing the direct product with high probability), we were surprised that this one idea sufficed in the list-decoding case as well. Our derandomized subspace construction was also inspired by [RS97, AS03], who list-decode functions correlated to multi-variable polynomials by using consistency checks on small dimensional subspaces.

While our results were inspired by similar results on direct-product testing, we have not found any formal connection between the testing and decoding problems. In particular, passing the consistency test with non-negligible probability is not sufficient to test non-negligible correlation with a direct-product function. It would be very interesting to find such a connection.

Remainder of the paper. Section 2 contains some background facts, and basic sampling properties of graphs used in decoding of intersection codes. The analysis of our algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ is given in Section 3. where we state the conditions on the pair $(\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{T})$ that are sufficient for $\mathcal{A}$ to produce a good circuit $C_{A, v}$. Section 4 contains the proofs of Theorems 1.4, 1.5, and 1.6. Theorem 1.7 is proved in Section 5. Section 6 contains concluding remarks and open questions.

## 2 Preliminaries

### 2.1 Concentration bounds

The standard form of the Hoeffding bound [Hoe63] says that, for any finite subset $F$ of measure $\alpha$ in some universe $\mathcal{U}$, a random subset $R$ of size $t$ is very likely to contain close to $\alpha t$ points from $F$. The following is a natural generalization for the case where $F$ is any $[0,1]$-valued function over $\mathcal{U}$.

Lemma 2.1 (Hoeffding [Hoe63]). Let $F: \mathcal{U} \rightarrow[0,1]$ be any function over a finite universe $\mathcal{U}$ with the expectation $\operatorname{Exp}_{x \in \mathcal{U}}[F(x)]=\alpha$, for any $0 \leqslant \alpha \leqslant 1$. Let $R \subseteq \mathcal{U}$ be a random subset of size $t$. Define a random variable $X=\sum_{x \in R} F(x)$. Then the expectation of $X$ is $\mu=\alpha t$, and for any $0<\gamma \leqslant 1, \operatorname{Pr}[|X-\mu| \geqslant \gamma \mu] \leqslant 2 \cdot e^{-\gamma^{2} \mu / 3}$.

Lemma 2.2. Let $X_{1}, \ldots, X_{t}$ be random variables taking values in the interval $[0,1]$, with expectations $\mu_{i}, 1 \leqslant i \leqslant t$. Let $X=\sum_{i=1}^{t} X_{i}$, and let $\mu=\sum_{i=1}^{t} \mu_{i}$ be the expectation of $X$. For any $0<\gamma \leqslant 1$, we have the following:

- [Chernoff-Hoeffding] If $X_{1}, \ldots, X_{t}$ are independent, then $\operatorname{Pr}[|X-\mu| \geqslant \gamma \mu] \leqslant 2 \cdot e^{-\gamma^{2} \mu / 3}$.
- [Chebyshev] If $X_{1}, \ldots, X_{t}$ are pairwise independent, then $\operatorname{Pr}[|X-\mu| \geqslant \gamma \mu] \leqslant 1 /\left(\gamma^{2} \mu\right)$.


### 2.2 Pairwise independence of subspaces

Let $U=\mathbb{F}_{q}^{m}$ be an $m$-dimensional linear space over a finite field $\mathbb{F}_{q}$. An affine $d$-dimensional subspace $A$ of $U$ is specified by a collection of $d$ linearly independent vectors $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{d} \in U$ and an arbitrary vector $b \in U$ so that $A=\left\{b+\sum_{i=1}^{d} \alpha_{i} a_{i} \mid \alpha_{i} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}, 1 \leqslant i \leqslant d\right\}$. Thus the elements of $A$ are in one-to-one correspondence with $d$-tuples of scalars $\left(\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{d}\right)$.

We will use the following easy fact.
Claim 2.3. A sequence of all $q^{d}$ elements of a randomly chosen d-dimensional affine subspace of $U$ are pairwise independent and uniform over $U$.

A linear $d$-dimensional subspace $A$ of $U$ is specified by a collection of $d$ linearly independent vectors $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{d} \in U$ so that $A=\left\{\sum_{i=1}^{d} \alpha_{i} a_{i} \mid \alpha_{i} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}, 1 \leqslant i \leqslant d\right\}$. It is no longer the case that all elements of a random linear subspace $A$ are pairwise independent. For example, if vectors $\bar{\alpha}=\left(\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{d}\right)$ and $\bar{\beta}=\left(\beta_{1}, \ldots, \beta_{d}\right)$ are scalar multiples of each other (i.e., are linearly dependent), then in every random subspace $A$ the two corresponding elements of $A$ will also be scalar multiples of each other.

However, if we restrict our attention to any sequence $\bar{\alpha}_{1}, \ldots, \bar{\alpha}_{t}$ of $d$-tuples $\bar{\alpha}_{i} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}^{d}$ such that every two of $\bar{\alpha}_{i}$ 's are linearly independent, we get that the corresponding elements in a random $d$-dimensional linear subspace $A$ are pairwise independent and uniform over $U$. It is easy to see that one can choose $t=\left(q^{d}-1\right) /(q-1)$ nonzero vectors $\bar{\alpha}_{1}, \ldots, \bar{\alpha}_{t} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}^{d}$ such that every two of them are linearly independent. Thus we get the following.

Claim 2.4. For $t=\left(q^{d}-1\right) /(q-1)$, let $\bar{\alpha}_{1}, \ldots, \bar{\alpha}_{t} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}^{d}$ be pairwise linearly independent vectors. Let $A$ be a random d-dimensional linear subspace of $U$. Then the $t$ vectors of $A$ that correspond to $\bar{\alpha}_{1}, \ldots, \bar{\alpha}_{t}$ are pairwise independent and uniform over $U$.

### 2.3 Graphs

We will consider bipartite graphs $G=G(L, R)$ defined on a bipartition $L \cup R$ of vertices; we think of $L$ as left vertices, and $R$ as right vertices of the graph $G$. For a vertex $v$ of $G$, we denote by $N_{G}(v)$ the set of its neighbors in $G$; if the graph $G$ is clear from the context, we will drop the subscript and simply write $N(v)$. We say that $G$ is bi-regular if the degrees of vertices in $L$ are the same, and the degrees of vertices in $R$ are the same.

### 2.3.1 Auxiliary graphs for $(\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{T})$-codes

The following three graphs will be useful for the analysis of our intersection codes. Let $U$ be any finite set. Let $\mathcal{T}$ be a family of $k$-subsets of $U$, and let $\mathcal{S}$ be a family of $s$-subsets of $U$, for some $s<k$.

Definition 2.5 (inclusion graph). The inclusion $\operatorname{graph} I(\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{T})$ is the bipartite graph that has an edge $(A, B)$ for every $A \in \mathcal{S}$ and $B \in \mathcal{T}$ such that $A \subseteq B$.

The inclusion graph $I(\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{T})$ is called transitive if, for every $B, B^{\prime} \in \mathcal{T}$, there is a permutation $\pi$ of $U$ which moves $B$ to $B^{\prime}$ and induces an isomorphism of $I$, and similarly, for every $A, A^{\prime} \in \mathcal{S}$, there is a permutation $\sigma$ of $U$ which moves $A$ to $A^{\prime}$ and induces an isomorphism of $I$.

Definition $2.6(\mathcal{S}$-graph $)$. For every $B \in \mathcal{T}$, the $\mathcal{S}$-graph $H\left(B, N_{I}(B)\right)$ is the bipartite graph that has an edge $(x, A)$ for every $x \in B$ and $A \in N_{I}(B)$ such that $x \in A$.

Definition $2.7\left(\mathcal{T}\right.$-graph). For every $A \in \mathcal{S}$, the $\mathcal{T}$-graph $G\left(U \backslash A, N_{I}(A)\right)$ is the bipartite graph that has an edge $(x, B)$ for every $x \in U \backslash A$ and $B \in N_{I}(A)$ such that $x \in B \backslash A$.

Note that if $I(\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{T})$ is transitive, then the structure of the $\mathcal{S}$-graph $H(B, N(B))$ is independent of the choice of $B$, and similarly, the structure of the $\mathcal{T}$-graph $G(U \backslash A, N(A))$ is independent of the choice of $A$. This will simplify the analysis of the properties of these graphs. One can easily check that the inclusion graph $I$ for both of our running examples of families $(\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{T})$, Independent and Subspaces, is transitive.

### 2.3.2 Samplers

Let $G=G(L, R)$ be any bi-regular bipartite graph. For a function $\lambda:[0,1] \rightarrow[0,1]$, we say that $G$ is a $(\beta, \lambda(\beta))$-sampler if, for every function $F: L \rightarrow[0,1]$ with the average value $\mu \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \operatorname{Exp}_{x \in L}[F(x)]$, there are at most $\lambda(\mu) \cdot|R|$ vertices $r \in R$ where

$$
\left|\operatorname{Exp}_{y \in N(r)}[F(y)]-\mu\right| \geqslant \mu / 2
$$

Note that the case of a Boolean function $F: L \rightarrow\{0,1\}$ with the average $\mu$ corresponds to the property that all but $\lambda(\mu)$ fraction of nodes $r \in R$ have close to the expected number of neighbors in the set $\{x \mid F(x)=1\}$ of measure $\mu$. The sampler defined above is a natural generalization to the case of $[0,1]$-valued $F$; it is also a special case of an oblivious approximator [BGG93] or approximating disperser [Zuc97].

For the analysis of intersection codes $\operatorname{Code}(\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{T})$ based on families $\mathcal{S}$ and $\mathcal{T}$, we will need that the corresponding $\mathcal{S}$-graphs and $\mathcal{T}$-graphs be samplers. We show that this is true for both of our running examples. Since both our inclusion graphs (for Independent and Subspaces cases) are transitive, the structure of the $\mathcal{S}$-graphs and $\mathcal{T}$-graphs is independent of the choices of $B \in \mathcal{T}$ and $A \in \mathcal{S}$, respectively.

Lemma 2.8. For both Independent and Subspaces families $(\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{T})$, the $\mathcal{S}$-graph $H$ is $(\alpha, \nu(\alpha))$ sampler, where

- Independent: $\nu(\alpha)=2 \cdot e^{-\alpha k / 24}$,
- Subspaces: $\nu(\alpha)=4 /(\alpha \sqrt{k})$.

Proof. For Independent, we use the Hoeffding bound of Lemma 2.1. For Subspaces, we use the fact that points in a random affine subspace of a given affine space are uniformly distributed and pairwise independent (cf. Claim 2.3), and then apply Chebyshev's bound of Lemma 2.2.

Lemma 2.9. For both Independent and Subspaces families $(\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{T})$, the $\mathcal{T}$-graph $G$ is $(\beta, \lambda(\beta))$ sampler, where

- Independent: $\lambda(\beta)=2 \cdot e^{-\beta k / 24}$,
- Subspaces: $\lambda(\beta)=4 q^{2} /(\beta \sqrt{k})$.

Proof. For Independent, we use the Hoeffding bound of Lemma 2.1.
For subspaces, we use pairwise independence and the Chebyshev bound. Fix an affine subspace $A$ of dimension $r$. Suppose $A$ is $V+v$, for some $r$-dimensional linear subspace $V$ of $U=\mathbb{F}_{q}^{m}$, and a vector $v \in U$. To choose a random $d=2 r$-dimensional affine subspace $B$ containing $A$, we choose a random $r$-dimensional subspace $W$ of $U$ such that $W$ is orthogonal to $V$, and define our affine $2 r$-dimensional subspace $B=A+W$.

Note that all of $U \backslash A$ can be represented as the disjoint union of cosets $A+u$, over all distinct nonzero vectors $u$ in the orthogonal subspace $V^{\perp}$. A function $F:(U \backslash A) \rightarrow[0,1]$ with the expectation $\beta$ yields $[0,1]$-valued functions $F_{u}$ where $F_{u}$ is the restriction of $F$ to the coset $A+u$, for every nonzero vector $u \in V^{\perp}$. Let $\beta_{u}$ denote the average value of $F_{u}$ over the points in $A+u$. Clearly, the average of $\beta_{u}$ 's is exactly $\beta$.

If we pick $t$ nonzero vectors $u_{1}, \ldots, u_{t} \in V^{\perp}$ independently at random, we would obtain by the Chernoff-Hoeffding bound that the average $(1 / t) \sum_{i=1}^{t} \beta_{u_{i}}$ is very likely to be close to $\beta$. Similarly, if these $t$ vectors were chosen pairwise independently, we could argue the concentration around the expectation $\beta$ by Chebyshev's bound. The intuition is that vectors in a random $r$-dimensional subspace $W$ are essentially pairwise independent, and hence we can argue that our random affine subspace $B$ is likely to be a good sample for estimating the average of $F$.

More precisely, let $w_{1}, \ldots, w_{t} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}^{r}$ be any fixed collection of $t=\left(q^{r}-1\right) /(q-1)$ nonzero vectors such that every two of them are linearly independent. By Claim 2.4, in a random $W$ the $t$ corresponding vectors of $W$ are pairwise independent and uniform over $V^{\perp}$. Let us denote by $\omega_{i}$, $1 \leqslant i \leqslant t$, the element of $W$ corresponding to $w_{i}$ (i.e., $\omega_{i}$ is a linear combination of the basis vectors of $W$ with scalar coefficients being the $r$ field elements of $w_{i}$ ).

For each field element $i \in \mathbb{F}_{q}$, define $B_{i}=\cup_{j=1}^{t}\left(A+i \cdot \omega_{j}\right)$. Note that $B=\cup_{i \in \mathbb{F}_{q}} B_{i}$. Fix any nonzero $i \in \mathbb{F}_{q}$. For a random $W$, the vectors $i \cdot \omega_{1}, \ldots, i \cdot \omega_{t}$ are pairwise independent. By Chebyshev's bound of Lemma 2.2, the probability that $\left(1 /\left|B_{i}\right|\right) \cdot \sum_{x \in B_{i}} F(x)$ is less than $\beta / 2$ or more than $3 \beta / 2$ is at most $4 /(\beta t)$. By the union bound, the probability that at least one of $B_{i}$ 's deviates from the expectation is at most $4(q-1) /(\beta t)$. Thus, with probability at least $1-4 /\left(\beta q^{r-2}\right)=1-4 q^{2} /(\beta s)$, a random affine subspace $B$ containing $A$ is a good sample for estimating the expectation of $F$. Since $s=\sqrt{k}$ for Subspaces, we get the desired claim.

### 2.3.3 Properties of samplers and their subgraphs

Here we prove two properties of samplers, which will be useful for the analysis of our decoding algorithm. These properties basically show that samplers are "robust" to deletions of vertices.

The first property says that for any two large vertex subsets $W$ and $F$ of a sampler, the fraction of edges between $W$ and $F$ is close to the product of the densities of $W$ and $F$.

Lemma 2.10. Suppose $G=G(L, R)$ is a $(\beta, \lambda)$-sampler. Let $W \subseteq R$ be any set of measure $\rho$, and let $F \subseteq L$ be any set of measure $\beta$. Then we have

$$
\mathbf{P r}_{x \in L, y \in N(x)}[x \in F \& y \in W] \geqslant \beta(\rho-\lambda) / 2
$$

Proof. We need to estimate the probability of picking an edge between $F$ and $W$ in a random experiment where we first choose a random $x \in L$ and then its random neighbor $y$. Since the graph $G$ is assumed to be bi-regular, this probability remains the same in the experiment where we first pick a random $y \in R$ and its random neighbor $x \in N(y)$. The latter is easy to estimate using the sampling property of the graph $G$, as we show next.

Let $F^{\prime} \subseteq F$ be of density exactly $\beta$. Let $W^{\prime} \subseteq W$ be the subset of vertices that have at least $\beta / 2$ fraction of their neighbors in $F$. Since $G$ is a $(\beta, \lambda)$-sampler and $W$ is of measure $\rho$, we get that $W^{\prime}$ is of measure at least $\rho-\lambda$. Then conditioned on picking a vertex $y \in W^{\prime}$, the probability that its random neighbor is in $F$ is at least $\beta / 2$. The lemma follows.

The second property deals with edge-colored samplers. Suppose that all edges in a bi-regular graph $G=G(L, R)$ are colored with two colors, red and green, so that the number of red edges is at most $t$, for some $t \geqslant 0$. Since $G$ is bi-regular, picking a random vertex $x \in L$ and its random incident edge is the same as picking a random $y \in R$ and its random incident edge, and clearly, the probability of getting a red edge in both cases is $t /|E|$, where $E$ is the edge set of $G$. Now suppose that we are given a subgraph $G^{\prime}$ obtained from $G$ by removing some vertices from $R$ (and all the
edges incident upon the removed vertices). Let $W \subseteq R$ be a subset of the remaining vertices in $G^{\prime}$, and suppose that $G^{\prime}$ has at most $t$ red edges. Since $G^{\prime}$ is still right-regular (i.e., all vertices $w \in W$ have the same degree), sampling a random incident edge of a random vertex $w \in W$ still yields a red edge with probability at most $t /\left|E^{\prime}\right|$, where $E^{\prime}$ is the edge set of $G^{\prime}$. For general graphs $G$, we can't say that the probability of getting a red edge remains the same when we pick a random incident edge of a random vertex $x \in L$ (since $G^{\prime}$ may not be bi-regular). However, we prove that this is approximately true when $G$ is a sampler.

Lemma 2.11. Suppose $G=G(L, R)$ is a $(\beta, \lambda)$-sampler, with the right degree $D$. Let $W \subseteq R$ be any subset of density $\rho$, and let $G^{\prime}=G(L, W)$ be the induced subgraph of $G$ (obtained after removing all vertices in $R \backslash W$ ), with the edge set $E^{\prime}$. Let Col: $E^{\prime} \rightarrow\{$ red, green $\}$ be any coloring of the edges of $G^{\prime}$ such that at most $\alpha D|W|$ edges are colored red, for some $0 \leqslant \alpha \leqslant 1$. Then

$$
\mathbf{P r}_{x \in L, y \in N_{G^{\prime}}(x)}[\operatorname{Col}(\{x, y\})=r e d] \leqslant \max \{2 \alpha /(1-\lambda / \rho), \beta\}
$$

Proof. We need to estimate the probability of picking a red edge in $G^{\prime}$ when we first pick a random $x \in L$ and then pick its random neighbor $y$ in $G^{\prime}$. For every $x \in L$, let $d_{x}$ be the degree of $x$ in $G^{\prime}$, and let $\xi(x)$ be the fraction of red edges incident to $x$ in $G^{\prime}$. The probability we want to estimate is exactly $\mu=\operatorname{Exp}_{x \in L}[\xi(x)]$. If $\mu \leqslant \beta$, then we are done. So for the rest of the proof, we will suppose that $\mu>\beta$.

Let $W^{\prime} \subseteq W$ be the subset of those vertices $w$ where $\operatorname{Exp}_{x \in N(w)}[\xi(x)] \geqslant \mu / 2$. (Here we use $N(w)$ to denote the neighborhood $N_{G^{\prime}}(w)$ of $w$ in $G^{\prime}$, which is the same as $N_{G}(w)$ by the definition of $G^{\prime}$.) Since $G$ is a $(\beta, \lambda)$-sampler and $W$ has measure $\rho$ in $G$, we get that $W^{\prime}$ has measure at least $\rho-\lambda$ in $G$, and hence measure $1-\lambda / \rho$ in $G^{\prime}$. Hence, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{y \in W} \operatorname{Exp}_{x \in N(y)}[\xi(x)] \geqslant \sum_{y \in W^{\prime}} \operatorname{Exp}_{x \in N(y)}[\xi(x)] \geqslant|W|(1-\lambda / \rho) \mu / 2 \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

On the other hand, $\sum_{y \in W}\left(D \cdot \operatorname{Exp}_{x \in N(y)}[\xi(x)]\right)$ is simply the summation over all edges $(x, y)$ in $G^{\prime}$ where each edge $(x, y)$ with $x \in L$ contributes $\xi(x)$ to the sum. Since the degree of each $x$ is $d_{x}$, each $x \in L$ contributes exactly $d_{x} \xi(x)$, which is the number of incident red edges at $x$. Hence, the total sum is exactly the number of red edges in $G^{\prime}$, which is at most $\alpha D|W|$ by assumption. It follows that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{y \in W} \operatorname{Exp}_{x \in N(y)}[\xi(x)]=(1 / D) \sum_{x \in L} d_{x} \xi(x) \leqslant|W| \alpha \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Finally, comparing the bounds in Eqs. (1) and (2), we conclude that $\mu \leqslant 2 \alpha /(1-\lambda / \rho)$.

## 3 Decoding intersection codes

Let $(\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{T})$ be a pair of families of subsets of $U$, and let $\operatorname{Code}(\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{T})$ be the intersection code defined for these families. Fix a function $f: U \rightarrow R$. Let $C^{\prime}$ be a circuit that $\epsilon$-computes $C o d e(f)$. We will show how to compute from $C^{\prime}$ a deterministic circuit $C$ that $(1-\delta)$-computes $f$, for $\delta>0$ being the parameter that depends on $\epsilon$ and $(\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{T})$.

Our decoding algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ for $\operatorname{Code}(\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{T})$ can be defined in terms of the inclusion and $\mathcal{T}$-graphs. Fix any edge $(A, B)$ of the inclusion graph $I(\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{T})$. Let $v=\left.C^{\prime}(B)\right|_{A}$ be the values that the circuit $C^{\prime}(B)$ gives for the elements in $A$.

Let $G=G(U \backslash A, N(A))$ be the $\mathcal{T}$-graph for $A$. Let Cons $\subseteq N(A)$ be the subset of those $B^{\prime} \in N(A)$ for which $\left.C^{\prime}\left(B^{\prime}\right)\right|_{A}=v$. We will say that such sets $B^{\prime}$ are consistent with $B$.

Define the circuit $\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{v}}$ :
"On input $x \in U$, if $x \in A$, then output the corresponding value $v_{x}$. Otherwise, repeatedly sample random neighbors $B^{\prime}$ of $x$ in the $\mathcal{T}$-graph $G$, discarding any $B^{\prime} \notin$ Cons, until the first $B^{\prime} \in C$ ons is obtained. For this $B^{\prime} \in C o n s$, output the value $\left.C^{\prime}\left(B^{\prime}\right)\right|_{x}$. Produce the default (error) output if no $B^{\prime} \in C o n s$ is found even after $O((\ln 1 / \delta) / \epsilon)$ steps."

Define the decoding algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ :
"On an input circuit $C^{\prime}$, pick a random edge $(A, B)$ of the inclusion graph $I(\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{T})$, set $v=\left.C^{\prime}(B)\right|_{A}$, and output the circuit $C_{A, v}$."

Remark 3.1. For the described algorithm $C_{A, v}$ to be efficient, we need an efficient procedure for sampling random neighbors of a given left vertex in the $\mathcal{T}$-graph $G(U \backslash A, N(A))$. For both of our running examples, one can easily argue that such efficient sampling is possible.

We now state the main technical result of our paper: the conditions on $(\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{T})$ under which the decoding algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ produces a good circuit $C_{A, v}$. For the rest of this section, we set $\epsilon^{\prime}=\epsilon / 2$.

Theorem 3.2. Suppose that the inclusion $\operatorname{graph} I(\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{T})$ is transitive (and hence also bi-regular), the $\mathcal{S}$-graph $H$ is a $\left(\mu, \delta \epsilon^{\prime 2} /(128 \mu)\right)$-sampler for every $\mu>\delta / 64$, and the $\mathcal{T}$-graph $G$ is a $\left(\delta / 16, \epsilon^{\prime} / 2\right)$ sampler. Then the algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ produces with probability $\epsilon^{\prime} / 2$ a randomized circuit $C_{A, v}$ satisfying

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left[C_{A, v} \text { computes } f\right] \geqslant 1-\delta / 4
$$

where the probability is over the inputs and the internal randomness of $C_{A, v}$.
Remark 3.3. Note that if a randomized circuit $C_{A, v}$ satisfies the conclusion of Theorem 3.2, then by randomly fixing its internal randomness we get (with probability at least $3 / 4$ ) a deterministic circuit $C$ that $(1-\delta)$-computes $f$.

We postpone the proof of Theorem 3.2, and use it to prove Theorem 1.3.
Proof of Theorem 1.3. For Independent, we get by Lemmas 2.8 and 2.9 that both $H$ and $G$ are $\left(\mu, \lambda(\mu)\right.$-samplers for $\lambda(\mu) \leqslant e^{-\Omega(\mu k)}$. For $\mu>\delta / 64$, write $\mu=c \delta$ where $c=\mu / \delta>1 / 64$. For the graph $H$, we get that $\mu \cdot \lambda(\mu) \leqslant c \delta e^{-\Omega(c \delta k)}$. For $\delta=d \log (1 / \epsilon) / k$ for large enough constant $d$, we get $e^{-\Omega(c d \log 1 / \epsilon)}=\epsilon^{\Omega(c d)} \leqslant \epsilon^{\prime 2} \epsilon^{c d^{\prime}}$, for some large constant $d^{\prime}$ dependent on $d$. Assume that $\epsilon<0.9$ (if a circuit $C^{\prime} \epsilon$-computes $f^{k}$ for $\epsilon \geqslant 0.9$, it obviously 0.9 -computes $\left.f^{k}\right) .{ }^{3}$ Choosing sufficiently large constant $d$, we can ensure that $\epsilon^{c d^{\prime}}<2^{-c} / 128$, and so $c \delta e^{-\Omega(c \delta k)} \leqslant c \delta \epsilon^{\prime 2} 2^{-c} / 128 \leqslant \delta \epsilon^{\prime 2} / 128$. Thus $H$ satisfies the assumptions of Theorem 3.2. Setting $\delta=d(\log 1 / \epsilon) / k$ for a large enough $d \in \mathbb{N}$ will also make the $\mathcal{T}$-graph $G$ satisfy the assumptions of of Theorem 3.2.

For Subspaces, Lemma 2.8 gives us that $H$ is $(\mu, \lambda(\mu))$-sampler for $\lambda(\mu)=4 /(\mu \sqrt{k})$. Hence, $\mu \cdot \lambda(\mu) \leqslant 4 / \sqrt{k}$. The latter is at most $\delta \epsilon^{\prime 2} / 128$ for $\delta \geqslant 512 / \epsilon^{\prime 2} \sqrt{k}$. Lemma 2.9 says that the graph $G$ is $\left(\delta / 16, \epsilon^{\prime} / 2\right)$-sampler for $\delta \geqslant 128 q^{2} /\left(\epsilon^{\prime} \sqrt{k}\right)$. Thus, to satisfy the conditions of Theorem 3.2, we can set $\left.\delta \leqslant 512 q^{2} /\left(\epsilon^{\prime 2} \sqrt{k}\right)\right)$, which is $O\left(1 /\left(\epsilon^{\prime 2} k^{1 / 4}\right)\right)$ for $q \leqslant k^{1 / 8}$.

By Remark 3.3, we get in both cases a required deterministic circuit ( $1-\delta$ )-computing $f$.

[^3]
### 3.1 Why $C_{A, v}$ works

Here we describe the conditions on our auxiliary graphs (inclusion, $\mathcal{S}$ - and $\mathcal{T}$-graphs) and an edge $(A, B)$ of the inclusion graph, which are sufficient for the circuit $C_{A, v}$ described above to satisfy the conclusion of Theorem 3.2. Intuitively, we are using $(A, v)$ as a consistency check to see whether to believe $C^{\prime}\left(B^{\prime}\right)$. To be useful as a consistency check, we should have:

- $v=f(A)$, so if $C^{\prime}\left(B^{\prime}\right)$ is correct, it will always be consistent with $v$ on $A$.
- There are many $B^{\prime}$ for $A$ where $C^{\prime}\left(B^{\prime}\right)$ is correct.
- On average over $B^{\prime}$ where $C^{\prime}\left(B^{\prime}\right)$ is consistent with $A, C^{\prime}\left(B^{\prime}\right)$ is correct for most $x \in B^{\prime} \backslash A$.

We show that these conditions suffice, and that many such sets $A$ exist.
We need the following definitions. For a set $B \in \mathcal{T}$, let $\operatorname{Err}(B)$ denote the subset of those $x$ 's in $B$ where $C^{\prime}(B)$ disagrees with $f^{k}(B)$, and let $\operatorname{err}(B)=|\operatorname{Err}(B)| /|B|$. A set $B \in \mathcal{T}$ is called correct if $\operatorname{err}(B)=0$. A set $B \in \mathcal{T}$ is called $\alpha$-incorrect if $\operatorname{err}(B) \geqslant \alpha$. For the inclusion graph $I(\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{T})$, we call an edge $(A, B)$ correct if $B$ is correct. As before, we set $\epsilon^{\prime}=\epsilon / 2$. Call an edge $(A, B)$ good if it is correct and at least $\epsilon^{\prime}$-fraction of all edges $\left(A, B^{\prime}\right)$ incident to $A$ are correct. An edge $(A, B)$ of the inclusion graph is called $\alpha$-excellent if it is good, and moreover,

$$
\operatorname{Exp}_{B^{\prime} \in \operatorname{Cons}}\left[\operatorname{err}\left(B^{\prime}\right)\right] \leqslant \alpha
$$

where the expectation is over uniformly random $B^{\prime}$ that are consistent with $B$.
In words, for an excellent edge $(A, B)$, we have at least $\epsilon^{\prime}$ of correct edges $\left(A, B^{\prime}\right)$ (and so these $\left.B^{\prime} \in C o n s\right)$, and at the same time, the average fraction of errors in the neighbors of $A$ that are consistent with $B$ is less than $\alpha$. So, conditioned on sampling a random $B^{\prime} \in C$ ons, we expect to get a $B^{\prime}$ such that $\left.C^{\prime}\left(B^{\prime}\right)\right|_{x}=f(x)$ for most $x \in B^{\prime}$.

Our circuit $C_{A, v}$ is defined so that it only considers random $B^{\prime} \in C o n s$. This circuit will agree with $f$ well on average, assuming that $A, v$ came from some excellent edge $(A, B)$, and assuming that the $\mathcal{T}$-graph is a sampler.

Lemma 3.4. Let an edge $(A, B)$ of the inclusion graph $I$ be $\alpha$-excellent, and let the $\mathcal{T}$-graph $G(U \backslash A, N(A))$ be a $(\beta, \lambda)$-sampler. Suppose that $\lambda \leqslant \epsilon^{\prime} / 2, \alpha \leqslant \beta / 2$, and $\beta \leqslant \delta / 16$. Then $\operatorname{Pr}\left[C_{A, v}\right.$ computes $\left.f\right] \geqslant 1-\delta / 4$, where the probability is over uniform $x$ 's and the internal randomness of $C_{A, v}$.

To prove Lemma 3.4, we consider two cases. First we consider the set $F \subseteq U \backslash A$ of $x$ 's that have too few edges $\left(x, B^{\prime}\right)$ with $B^{\prime} \in C o n s$ in the $\mathcal{T}$-graph $G(U \backslash A, N(A))$. These are the $x$ 's for which $C_{A, v}$ is unlikely to produce any answer and hence fails. Secondly, we bound the average conditional probability of $C_{A, v}$ producing an incorrect answer given that the circuit produces some answer. Note that for every $x \in U \backslash A$ this conditional probability is the same for all sampling steps of $C_{A, v}$. So, we can just analyze this conditional probability for one sampling step.

First, we bound the size of $F$.
Lemma 3.5. Suppose an edge $(A, B)$ of $I$ is good, and the $\mathcal{T}$-graph $G(U \backslash A, N(A))$ is a $(\beta, \lambda)$ sampler. Let $F$ be the subset of $U \backslash A$ with less than $\mu$ fraction of their edges into Cons, where $\mu=\left(\epsilon^{\prime}-\lambda\right) / 2$. Then the measure of $F$ is at most $\beta$.

Proof. Suppose that $F$ has density at least $\beta$. Let $F^{\prime} \subseteq F$ be of density exactly $\beta$. By the assumption of the lemma, we have that $\mathbf{P r}_{x \in U \backslash A, y \in N(x)}\left[x \in F^{\prime} \& y \in C o n s\right]<\beta \mu=\beta\left(\epsilon^{\prime}-\lambda\right) / 2$.

On the other hand, we know that Cons has density at least $\epsilon^{\prime}$ (by the definition of goodness of $(A, B)$ ). By Lemma 2.10, the fraction of edges in $G$ that go between $F$ and Cons is at least $\beta\left(\epsilon^{\prime}-\lambda\right) / 2$, which contradicts our earlier upper bound.

For a given $x \in U \backslash A$, let $h(x)$ denote the conditional probability that $C_{A, v}$ produces an incorrect answer, given that it produces some answer. We will show that the $\operatorname{expectation}^{\operatorname{Exp}_{x \in U} \backslash A}{ }^{[h(x)]}$ is small.

Lemma 3.6. Suppose $(A, B)$ is $\alpha$-excellent, and the $\mathcal{T}$-graph $G$ is a $(\beta, \lambda)$-sampler. Further suppose that $\alpha \leqslant \beta / 2$ and $\lambda \leqslant \epsilon^{\prime} / 2$. Then $\operatorname{Exp}_{x \in U \backslash A}[h(x)] \leqslant \beta$.
Proof. Since $C_{A, v}$ produces an answer on a given input $x$ only if it samples a consistent neighbor $B^{\prime}$ of $x$ in the $\mathcal{T}$-graph $G(U \backslash A, N(A))$, we can view $h(x)$ as follows. Let $G^{\prime}=G(U \backslash A, C o n s)$ be the induced subgraph of $G$ where we remove all inconsistent vertices from $N(A)$. For each edge $\left(x, B^{\prime}\right)$ of $G^{\prime}$, we color it red if $x \in \operatorname{Err}\left(B^{\prime}\right)$, and color it green otherwise. Then $h(x)$ is the fraction of red edges incident to $x$ in the graph $G^{\prime}$.

Let $\rho$ be the measure of Cons in $G$. We know that $\rho \geqslant \epsilon^{\prime}$. Let $D=|B|$ be the right degree of the $\mathcal{T}$-graph $G$ (and hence also of $G^{\prime}$ ). The total number of red edges in $G^{\prime}$ is at most $\alpha D \mid$ Cons $\mid$, by the definition of $\alpha$-excellence.

By Lemma 2.11, we conclude that $\mathbf{P r}_{x \in U \backslash A, B^{\prime} \in N_{G^{\prime}}(x)}\left[x \in \operatorname{Err}\left(B^{\prime}\right)\right] \leqslant \max \{2 \alpha /(1-\lambda / \rho), \beta\}$. By assumptions, $1-\lambda / \rho \geqslant 1-\lambda / \epsilon^{\prime} \geqslant 1 / 2$, and so $\alpha /\left(1-\lambda / \epsilon^{\prime}\right) \leqslant 2 \alpha \leqslant \beta$.

Now we can finish the proof of Lemma 3.4.
Proof of Lemma 3.4. Lemma 3.5 implies for every $x \in U \backslash(A \cup F)$, where $F$ is of measure at most $\beta$, there are at least $\epsilon^{\prime} / 4$ fraction of edges into Cons. Hence the probability of $C_{A, v}$ not producing any answer in $t=d(\log 1 / \delta) / \epsilon^{\prime}$ sampling steps for such an $x$ is at most $\delta / 8$ for some constant $d$, e.g., $d=100$. For each such $x$, the probability that $C_{A, v}$ is wrong, given that $C_{A, v}$ produces an answer, is $h(x)$. Hence, the overall probability (over random $x$ and internal randomness) that $C_{A, v}$ is wrong is at most $\beta+\delta / 8+\operatorname{Exp}_{x \in U \backslash A}[h(x)]$. By Lemma 3.6, the last summand is at most $\beta$, and so the total is at most $2 \beta+\delta / 8 \leqslant \delta / 4$ (since $\beta \leqslant \delta / 16$ ).

### 3.2 Choosing an excellent edge $(A, B)$

Here we show that if the inclusion graph $I$ is bi-regular and if the $\mathcal{S}$-graph $H$ is a sampler, then a random edge $(A, B)$ of $I$ will be excellent with probability $\Omega(\epsilon)$.

Lemma 3.7. Suppose the inclusion graph $I$ is bi-regular, and the $\mathcal{S}$-graph $H$ is an $(\mu, \nu(\mu))$ sampler ${ }^{4}$. Moreover, assume that $0 \leqslant \alpha \leqslant 1$ is such that, for every $\alpha / 2<\mu \leqslant 1$, we have $\mu \cdot \nu(\mu) \leqslant \alpha \epsilon^{\prime 2} / 4$. Then a random edge $(A, B)$ of $I$ is $\alpha$-excellent with probability at least $\epsilon^{\prime} / 2$.

First, we argue the following.
Lemma 3.8. A random edge $(A, B)$ of a bi-regular inclusion graph $I$ is good with probability at least $\epsilon^{\prime}$.

[^4]Proof. Choosing a random edge $(A, B)$ of the inclusion graph $I$ is equivalent to choosing a random $B \in \mathcal{T}$ and then choosing a random $A \in N(B)$. By the assumption on $C^{\prime}$, a random $B \in \mathcal{T}$ is correct with probability at least $\epsilon$. Thus we have $\operatorname{Pr}_{A \in \mathcal{S}, B \in N(A)}[(A, B)$ is correct $] \geqslant \epsilon$.

For $A \in \mathcal{S}$, let $P(A)$ be the event (over a random choice of $A \in \mathcal{S}$ ) that $\operatorname{Pr}_{B^{\prime} \in N(A)}\left[B^{\prime}\right.$ is correct $]<$ $\epsilon / 2$. Observe that, conditioned on $A \in \mathcal{S}$ such that $P(A)$, we get

$$
\operatorname{Pr}_{A \in \mathcal{S}, B \in N(A)}[(A, B) \text { is correct } \mid P(A)]<\epsilon / 2
$$

and so,

$$
\mathbf{P r}_{A \in \mathcal{S}, B \in N(A)}[((A, B) \text { is correct }) \& P(A)]<\epsilon / 2
$$

Finally, the probability that a random edge $(A, B)$ is good is equal to

$$
\operatorname{Pr}_{A, B}[(A, B) \text { is correct }]-\mathbf{P r}_{A, B}[((A, B) \text { is correct }) \& P(A)]>\epsilon-\epsilon / 2=\epsilon / 2
$$

which is equal to $\epsilon^{\prime}$, as required.
Now we can prove Lemma 3.7.
Proof of Lemma 3.7. To show that an edge $(A, B)$ is $\alpha$-excellent, it suffices to argue that

$$
\sum_{B^{\prime} \in \text { Cons: } \operatorname{err}\left(B^{\prime}\right)>\alpha / 2} \operatorname{err}\left(B^{\prime}\right) \leqslant(\alpha / 2) \mid \text { Cons } \mid,
$$

where Cons is the set of all $B^{\prime} \in N(A)$ that are consistent with $B$. This expression can be equivalently rewritten as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{P r}_{B^{\prime} \in C o n s, x \in B^{\prime}}\left[\operatorname{err}\left(B^{\prime}\right)>\alpha / 2 \& x \in \operatorname{Err}\left(B^{\prime}\right)\right] \leqslant \alpha / 2 \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

For independent random $A \in \mathcal{S}$ and $B \in N(A)$, let $E_{1}(A, B)$ be the event that $(A, B)$ is good, but the inequality (3) does not hold (i.e., the probability in (3) is greater than $\alpha / 2$ ).

For independent random $A \in \mathcal{S}, B \in N(A), B^{\prime} \in N(A)$, and $x \in B^{\prime}$, let $E\left(A, B, B^{\prime}, x\right)$ be the event that

$$
(A, B) \text { is correct } \& B^{\prime} \in C o n s \& \operatorname{err}\left(B^{\prime}\right)>\alpha / 2 \& x \in \operatorname{Err}\left(B^{\prime}\right)
$$

The probability of $E$ is the average over all $B^{\prime} \in \mathcal{T}$ of the conditional probabilities of $E$ given $B^{\prime}$. Consider any fixed $B^{\prime}$ with $\operatorname{err}\left(B^{\prime}\right)>\alpha / 2$. For each such $B^{\prime}$, the set $A$ is a uniform element of $N\left(B^{\prime}\right)$ in the inclusion graph. By the sampling property of the $\mathcal{S}$-graph $H\left(B^{\prime}, N\left(B^{\prime}\right)\right)$, the probability that a random $A \in N\left(B^{\prime}\right)$ completely misses the subset $\operatorname{Err}\left(B^{\prime}\right)$ is at most $\nu\left(\operatorname{err}\left(B^{\prime}\right)\right)$. If $A$ has nonempty intersection with $\operatorname{Err}\left(B^{\prime}\right)$, then it cannot be the case that both $(A, B)$ is correct and $B^{\prime} \in$ Cons. Hence, given $B^{\prime}$, the conditional probability of the event $E$ is at most $\nu\left(\operatorname{err}\left(B^{\prime}\right)\right) \cdot \operatorname{err}\left(B^{\prime}\right)$, and so,

$$
\operatorname{Pr}[E] \leqslant \frac{1}{|\mathcal{T}|} \sum_{B^{\prime} \in \mathcal{T}: \operatorname{err}\left(B^{\prime}\right)>\alpha / 2} \operatorname{err}\left(B^{\prime}\right) \cdot \nu\left(\operatorname{err}\left(B^{\prime}\right)\right)
$$

which is at most $\alpha \epsilon^{\prime 2} / 4$ by the assumption of the lemma.
We have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Pr}\left[E \mid E_{1}\right]>(\alpha / 2) \mathbf{P r}_{B^{\prime} \in \mathcal{T}}\left[B^{\prime} \in \text { Cons } \mid E_{1}\right] \geqslant \alpha \epsilon^{\prime} / 2 \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the first inequality is by the definition of the event $E_{1}$, and the second inequality by the definition of goodness of $(A, B)$. On the other hand, $\operatorname{Pr}\left[E \mid E_{1}\right]=\operatorname{Pr}\left[E \& E_{1}\right] / \operatorname{Pr}\left[E_{1}\right] \leqslant \operatorname{Pr}[E] / \operatorname{Pr}\left[E_{1}\right]$. Combined with (4), this implies that $\operatorname{Pr}\left[E_{1}\right] \leqslant \operatorname{Pr}[E] \cdot 2 /\left(\alpha \epsilon^{\prime}\right) \leqslant \epsilon^{\prime} / 2$.

Clearly, $\operatorname{Pr}_{A \in \mathcal{S}, B \in N(A)}[(A, B)$ is $\alpha$-excellent $]$ is at least

$$
\mathbf{P r}_{A \in \mathcal{S}, B \in N(A)}[(A, B) \text { is good }]-\mathbf{P r}_{A \in \mathcal{S}, B \in N(A)}\left[E_{1}\right] .
$$

By Lemma 3.8, the first probability in the difference above is at least $\epsilon^{\prime}$, and, by what we showed earlier, the second probability is at most $\epsilon^{\prime} / 2$. The lemma follows.

Proof of Theorem 3.2. The proof follows easily from Lemmas 3.4 and 3.7. We simply set $\beta=\delta / 16$, $\lambda=\epsilon^{\prime} / 2, \alpha=\beta / 2=\delta / 32$, and $\nu(\mu)=\alpha \epsilon^{\prime 2} /(4 \mu)=\delta \epsilon^{\prime 2} /(128 \mu)$.

## 4 Extensions

### 4.1 Approximate version of the Uniform Direct-Product Theorem

In this section, we prove Theorem 1.4. The proof is along the same lines as that of Theorem 1.3 given in the previous section. We just need to make the following modifications in our definitions. Before, if $C^{\prime}(B)$ was correct, it was correct on the subset $A$. Here, we need to bound the chance that, even if $C^{\prime}(B)$ is almost correct, its number of mistakes on $A$ is disproportionately high. We include this in the definition of "correct edge", so that two correct edges for $A$ will be (mostly) consistent on $A$. Second, before, we had the correct values for $A$, and any deviation from these values could be used to rule out $C^{\prime}\left(B^{\prime}\right)$ as inconsistent. Now, our values for even good $A$ and $B^{\prime}$ are somewhat faulty, and so could be somewhat inconsistent. We need to redefine consistency to allow a small number of contradictory values, and then show that any very incorrect $C^{\prime}\left(B^{\prime}\right)$ will have too many inconsistent values with high probability.

Recall that for $B \in \mathcal{T}, \operatorname{Err}(B)$ is the set of those $x \in B$ where $\left.C^{\prime}(B)\right|_{x} \neq f(x)$, and $\operatorname{err}(B)=$ $\left|\operatorname{Err}(B) /|B|\right.$. We say that a set $B \in \mathcal{T}$ is $\delta^{\prime}$-correct if $\operatorname{err}(B) \leqslant \delta^{\prime}$ (i.e., $C^{\prime}(B)$ and $f^{k}(B)$ disagree on at most $\delta^{\prime}$ fraction of elements of $B$ ). An edge $(A, B)$ of the inclusion graph $I$ is called $\delta^{\prime}$-correct if $B$ is $\delta^{\prime}$-correct and $|A \cap \operatorname{Err}(B)| \leqslant 2 \delta^{\prime}|A|$.

For this section, we set $\epsilon^{\prime}=\epsilon / 4$. Call an edge $(A, B)$ of $I$ good if it is $\delta^{\prime}$-correct and at least $\epsilon^{\prime}$-fraction of all neighbors $B^{\prime}$ of $A$ are $\delta^{\prime}$-correct.

The definition of consistency changes as follows. Two neighbors $B, B^{\prime}$ of $A$ are called consistent if $\left.C^{\prime}(B)\right|_{A}$ and $\left.C^{\prime}\left(B^{\prime}\right)\right|_{A}$ disagree on at most $4 \delta^{\prime}$ fraction of elements in $A$. Note that for any two $\delta^{\prime}$-correct edges $(A, B)$ and $\left(A, B^{\prime}\right)$, we have that $B$ and $B^{\prime}$ are consistent. As before, for a given edge $(A, B)$, we denote by Cons the set of all $B^{\prime}$ that are consistent with $B$. Finally, the definition of an excellent edge is as before: An edge $(A, B)$ is $\alpha$-excellent if it is good, and moreover, $\operatorname{Exp}_{B^{\prime} \in C o n s}\left[\operatorname{err}\left(B^{\prime}\right)\right] \leqslant \alpha$.

Next we need to verify that with these modifications in the definitions, all lemmas of the previous section go through. It is straightforward to check that all lemmas in Section 3.1 continue to hold (with the same proofs) with respect to these new definitions.

For lemmas of Section 3.2, we need to argue that a random edge $(A, B)$ is excellent with probability $\Omega(\epsilon)$. For this, we need an analogue of Lemma 3.8.

Lemma 4.1. Suppose the inclusion graph $I$ is bi-regular, and the $\mathcal{S}$-graph $H$ is $\left(\delta^{\prime}, 1 / 2\right)$-sampler. Then a random edge $(A, B)$ of the inclusion graph $I$ is good with probability at least $\epsilon^{\prime}$.

Proof. We choose a random edge $(A, B)$ of $I$ by choosing a random $B \in \mathcal{T}$ first, and choosing a random $A \in N(B)$. By the assumption on the circuit $C^{\prime}$, the probability that a random $B \in T$ is $\delta^{\prime}$-correct is at least $\epsilon$. For every fixed $\delta^{\prime}$-correct set $B$, the sampling property of the $\mathcal{S}$-graph implies that $\operatorname{Pr}_{A \in N(B)}\left[|A \cap \operatorname{Err}(B)|>2 \delta^{\prime}|A|\right] \leqslant 1 / 2$. It follows that a random edge $(A, B)$ is $\delta^{\prime}$-correct with probability at least $\epsilon / 2$.

Similarly to the proof of Lemma 3.8, let $P(A)$ be the event that $\mathbf{P r}_{B^{\prime} \in N(A)}\left[\left(A, B^{\prime}\right)\right.$ is $\delta^{\prime}$-correct $]<$ $\epsilon / 4$. We get that

$$
\operatorname{Pr}_{A \in \mathcal{S}, B \in N(A)}\left[\left((A, B) \text { is } \delta^{\prime} \text {-correct }\right) \& P(A)\right]<\epsilon / 4 .
$$

Finally, the probability that $(A, B)$ is good is equal to the probability that it is $\delta^{\prime}$-correct, minus the probability that it is $\delta^{\prime}$-correct and the event $P(A)$ happens. The former is $\epsilon / 2$, and the latter is is less than $\epsilon / 4$. Thus $(A, B)$ is good with probability at least $\epsilon / 4$, as required.

We have the following analogue of Lemma 3.7.
Lemma 4.2. Suppose the inclusion graph I is bi-regular, and the $\mathcal{S}$-graph $H$ is $(\mu, \nu(\mu))$-sampler. Assume that $1 \geqslant \alpha \geqslant 24 \delta^{\prime}$ is such that for every $1 \geqslant \mu>\alpha / 2, \mu \cdot \nu(\mu)<\alpha \epsilon^{\prime 2} / 4$. Then a random edge $(A, B)$ of $I$ is $\alpha$-excellent with probability at least $\epsilon^{\prime} / 2$.

Proof sketch. Compared with the proof of Lemma 3.7, the only change is in the argument to upperbound $\operatorname{Pr}\left[E\left(A, B, B^{\prime}, x\right)\right]$. This is modified as follows. Condition on any set $B^{\prime} \in \mathcal{T}$ that is $\mu$-incorrect, for $\mu>\alpha / 2$. By the sampling property of the $\mathcal{S}$-graph, the probability that a random neighbor $A \in N\left(B^{\prime}\right)$ has less than $\mu / 2$ fraction of elements from $\operatorname{Err}\left(B^{\prime}\right)$ is at most $\nu(\mu)$. Consider any fixed $A$ that has more than $\mu / 2$ fraction of elements from $\operatorname{Err}\left(B^{\prime}\right)$. For any neighbor $B$ of $A$ such that $B$ is consistent with $B^{\prime}$, we have that $A$ contains more than $\left(\mu / 2-4 \delta^{\prime}\right)|A|$ elements from $\operatorname{Err}(B)$, which is more than $2 \delta^{\prime}|A|$ for $\mu>\alpha / 2 \geqslant 12 \delta^{\prime}$, and so the edge $(A, B)$ is not $\delta^{\prime}$-correct. This implies that the conditional probability $\operatorname{Pr}\left[E\left(A, B, B^{\prime}, x\right) \mid B^{\prime}\right] \leqslant \mu \cdot \nu(\mu)$. The rest of the proof is exactly the same as that of Lemma 3.7.

With the lemmas above, we get the proof of Theorem 1.4 in the same way as the proof of Theorem 1.3, for $\delta^{\prime} \geqslant \Omega(\delta)$.

### 4.2 Derandomized Direct-Product Theorems

Here we will prove Theorem 1.5. For $K=\operatorname{poly}(1 / \epsilon)$ and $k=O(\log 1 / \epsilon)$, let $\mathcal{K}$ denote the collection of all $k$-subsets of $\{1, \ldots, K\}$. We need to analyze the function $h: \mathcal{T} \times \mathcal{K} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{k}$ mapping $\left(T, i_{1}, \ldots, i_{k}\right)$ to $\left.g(T)\right|_{i_{1}, \ldots, i_{k}}$, where $\mathcal{T}$ is a collection of affine $d$-dimensional subspaces of $\mathbb{F}_{q}^{m}$.

First we analyze the input size of $h$. It consists of $O(n)$ bits to describe a constant-dimensional affine subspace $T$, plus $k \log K=O\left((\log 1 / \epsilon) \delta^{-1} \cdot(\log 1 / \epsilon+\log 1 / \delta)\right)=O\left((\log 1 / \epsilon)^{2}\right)$ bits to specify the $k$-subset of $\{1, \ldots, K\}$, for constant $\delta$. For $\epsilon \geq e^{-\Omega(\sqrt{n})}$, we get that the total input size is $O(n)$.

Suppose $h$ is $\epsilon$-computable in $\operatorname{BPTIME}\left(t^{1 / c}\right) / /(1 / c) \log t$. Given a circuit $\epsilon$-computing $h$, we will show how to efficiently compute a list of circuits one of which $(1-\delta)$-computes $f$. This will imply that $f$ is $(1-\delta)$-computable in $\operatorname{BPTIME}(t) / / \log t$, contrary to the assumption of the theorem.

Our argument follows along the lines of a standard analysis of code concatenation (see, e.g., [STV01]). Suppose we have a circuit $C^{\prime}$ that $\epsilon$-computes $h$. By averaging, we get that for at least $\epsilon / 2$ fraction of $T \in \mathcal{T}$, the equality $C^{\prime}(T, \kappa)=\left.g(T)\right|_{\kappa}$ holds for at least $\epsilon / 2$ fraction of $k$-subsets $\kappa \in \mathcal{K}$. Call $\mathcal{T}_{\text {good }}$ the set of such good $T \mathrm{~s}$.

By Theorem 1.3, we know that the Independent intersection code is $\delta^{\prime}$-approximately $(\epsilon / 2, O(1 / \epsilon))$ list decodable. So, for every $T \in \mathcal{T}_{\text {good }}$, we can efficiently recover a list of $\ell=O(1 / \epsilon)$ length- $K$ strings, one of which $\left(1-\delta^{\prime}\right)$-agrees with $g(T)$.

For each $T \in \mathcal{T}$, let us order the strings returned by our approximate list-decoding algorithm on input $C^{\prime}(T, \cdot)$. Define a list of $\ell$ circuits $C_{1}^{\prime \prime}, \ldots, C_{\ell}^{\prime \prime}$ for $g(T)$, where $C_{i}^{\prime \prime}(T)$ outputs the $i$ th $K$-bit string on the list corresponding to $T$. By averaging, there is some $1 \leqslant i \leqslant \ell$ such that $C_{i}^{\prime \prime}(T)$ will $\left(1-\delta^{\prime}\right)$-agree with $g(T)$ for at least $1 / \ell$ fraction of inputs $T \in \mathcal{T}_{\text {good }}$, which is at least $\Omega\left(\epsilon^{2}\right)$ fraction of all inputs $T$ to $g$. Let us call such a circuit $C_{i}^{\prime \prime}$ approximately good for $g$.

By Theorem 1.4, the Subspaces intersection code is $\left(\delta, \delta^{\prime}\right)$-approximately $\left(\Omega\left(\epsilon^{2}\right), O\left(1 / \epsilon^{2}\right)\right.$ )-listdecodable. Thus, for each of our $\ell$ circuits $C_{1}^{\prime \prime}, \ldots, C_{\ell}^{\prime \prime}$, we efficiently get $O\left(1 / \epsilon^{2}\right)$ new circuits such that, if $C_{i}^{\prime \prime}$ is an approximately good circuit for $g$, then the list of circuits obtained from that $C_{i}^{\prime \prime}$ will have a circuit ( $1-\delta$ )-computing $f$. Overall, we efficiently construct a list of $O\left(\ell / \epsilon^{2}\right)=O\left(1 / \epsilon^{3}\right)$ circuits for $f$, one which will $(1-\delta)$-compute $f$. Hence, $f$ is not $\delta$-hard for $\operatorname{BPTIME}(t) / / \log t$. A contradiction.

### 4.3 Hardness condensing

In this subsection, we reinterpret the results of the previous section to give a version of hardness condensing for the semi-uniform model, proving Theorem 1.6.

Imagine the sets $B$ before as being exponentially large but succinctly representable (as in the subspace construction for large values of $\left.k=q^{d}\right)$. The idea is that, instead of $C^{\prime}(B)$ explicitly giving the values of $f$ on $B$, we could replace $C^{\prime}(B)$ with a meta-algorithm that produces a circuit that computes $\left.f\right|_{B}$. We could still estimate the agreement of two such circuits on $A$. Thus, if $f$ is hard, the restricted function $\left.f\right|_{B}$ is hard for almost all $B$.

To get a precise statement of this idea, consider a family of functions $f_{h}(x)=F(h, x)$ where $h \in \mathcal{H}$ and $x \in U=\{0,1\}^{n}$. Call the family $f_{h}(1-\epsilon)$-hard to $\delta$-compute in semi-uniform time $t$ if, for any time $t(|h|+n)$ probabilistic algorithm $A(h, r)$ which produces a circuit $C_{h, r}$ on $n$ bit inputs $x$, we have $\mathbf{P r}_{h, r}\left[C_{h, r} \delta\right.$-computes $\left.f_{h}\right] \leq \epsilon .{ }^{5}$

Assume $\mathcal{S}$ and $\mathcal{T}$ meet the conditions of Theorem 3.2, and that furthermore, we can describe $B \in \mathcal{T}$ and $A \in \mathcal{S}$ as strings of length $n_{1}$, and sample uniformly from either, using at most $n_{2}$ random bits, in time polynomial in $n_{1}+n_{2}$. For $x$ of length $n_{2}$, let $f_{B}(x)$ be $f$ applied to the random element of $B$ obtained by using string $x$ in the sampling algorithm. (For example, in the case $B$ is a $d$-dimensional affine subspace of $\left(\mathbb{F}_{q}\right)^{m}$, we can represent $B$ by its basis and skew vectors $b_{1}, \ldots, b_{d}, v$, with $n_{1}=(d+1) m \log q$ bits. Then with $n_{2}=d \log q$ bits, we can sample from $B$ by picking random $\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{d}$ and letting $y=\alpha_{1} b_{1}+\cdots+\alpha_{d} b_{d}+v$. Then $f_{b_{1}, \ldots, b_{d}, v}\left(\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{d}\right)=f\left(\alpha_{1} b_{1}+\cdots+\alpha_{d} b_{d}+v\right)$.)

Then by altering the previous proof of Theorem 1.4 as specified above, we have:
Theorem 4.3. Let $\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{T}, \delta, \epsilon$ meet the conditions of Theorem 3.2, and be efficiently describable and sampleable as above. There is a constant $c$ so that if $f$ is $\delta$-hard for $\operatorname{BPTIME}(t(n)) / / \log t(n)$, and $\epsilon>t(n)^{-1 / c}$, then the family $f_{B}$ is $(1-\epsilon)$-hard to $(1-\Omega(\delta))$-compute in semi-uniform time $t(n)^{1 / c}$.

The only difference is that the algorithm $C^{\prime}$, on set $B$, generates a circuit $V_{B}$ rather than values $v$. The advice becomes $\left(A, V_{B}\right)$, and when we generate $B^{\prime}$ with $A \cup x \subseteq B^{\prime}$, we use the algorithm

[^5]to compute the circuit $V_{B^{\prime}}$, and then estimate consistency by randomly sampling $O\left((\log 1 / \epsilon) / \delta^{2}\right)$ elements $a \in A$ and seeing for how many $V_{B}(a) \neq V_{B^{\prime}}(a)$.

Theorem 1.6 is equivalent to the following corollary of Theorem 4.3.
Corollary 4.4. Let $\mathcal{T}$ be the family of random affine subspaces of dimension $d$ of $\mathbb{F}_{q}^{m}$, where $d \geq 8$. For some absolute constant $c$, if $f$ is $\delta$-hard for $\operatorname{BPTIME}(t(n)) / / \log t(n)$ then the family $\left.f\right|_{B}$ for $B \in$ $\mathcal{T}$ is $(1-\epsilon)$-hard to $(1-\Omega(\delta))$-compute in semi-uniform time $t(n)^{1 / c}$, for $\epsilon=\max \left\{q^{-d / 16}, t(n)^{-1 / c}\right\}$. Moreover, each $\left.f\right|_{B}$ is equivalent to a function on $d \log q$ bit inputs.

Finally, we observe that Corollary 4.4 can be used to prove the following derandomized hardness amplification result.

Theorem 4.5. Let $\delta>0,2^{\sqrt{n}+1} \geq q \geq 2^{\sqrt{n}}$, and let $\mathcal{T}$ be the family of random affine subspaces of dimension $d=8$ of $\mathbb{F}_{q}^{m}$, let $k(n)=O(\sqrt{n} / \delta)$, and let $t(n) \leq 2^{\sqrt{n}}$. For some absolute constant $c$, if $f$ is $\delta$-hard for $\operatorname{BPTIME}(t(n)) / / \log t(n)$ then the function $g\left(B, y_{1}, \ldots, y_{k}\right)=\left(\left.f\right|_{B}\right)^{k}\left(y_{1}, \ldots, y_{k}\right)$ for $B \in \mathcal{S}$ and $y_{1}, \ldots, y_{k} \in B$, is $1-t(n)^{-1 / c}$ hard for $\operatorname{BPTIME}\left(t(n)^{1 / c}\right) / /(1 / c) \log t(n)$. Moreover, $g$ is equivalent to a function on $O(n)$ bits.

Proof. Assume we have an algorithm that with probability $\epsilon>t(n)^{1 / c}>e^{-k(n) \delta / c}$ produces a circuit that $\epsilon$-computes $g=\left(\left.f\right|_{B}\right)^{k}$ in time $t^{\prime}(n)=t(n)^{1 / c}$. Then for each of the $\epsilon / 2 B$ 's where the conditional probability of success for the circuit is at least $\epsilon / 2$, we can use the list decoder for our Independent code to get a circuit $1-\Omega(\delta)$ computing $f_{B}$ in time $t^{\prime}(n) / \operatorname{poly}(\epsilon)$. In other words, the family $\left.f\right|_{B}$ has a semi-uniform algorithm that $1-\Omega(\delta)$ computes it with probability poly $(\epsilon)$. By Theorem 4.3, $f$ has a semi-uniform time $t^{\prime}(n) / \operatorname{poly}(\epsilon)$ algorithm that $(1-\delta)$-computes $f$ with poly $(\epsilon)$ success, a contradiction to the assumed hardness.

## $5 \quad k$-XOR code

Here we prove Theorem 1.7. We first list-decode a code which is a concatenation of our Independent code and the standard Hadamard code.

Let $I n d_{k}$ be Independent $k$-wise direct-product code. Let $H a d_{k}$ be the Hadamard code on messages of size $k$, i.e., for every message $m s g \in\{0,1\}^{k}$, the encoding $\operatorname{Had}_{k}(m s g)$ is a function mapping a string $r \in\{0,1\}^{k}$ to the inner product $\langle m s g, r\rangle$ over the binary field $\mathbb{F}_{2}$. Define Code ${ }_{k}$ to be the concatenation of $\operatorname{Ind} d_{k}$ and $\operatorname{Had}_{k}$, i.e., $\operatorname{Code}_{k}(f)$ is a function mapping $\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k} ; r\right)$ to $\sum_{i=1}^{k} f\left(x_{i}\right) \cdot r_{i} \bmod 2$, for $x_{i} \in\{0,1\}^{n}$ and $r \in\{0,1\}^{k}$.

We will list-decode this code, using the algorithm of [GL89] for the Hadamard code, and our algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ for the Independent code. First we state the result of Goldreich and Levin.

Theorem 5.1 ([GL89]). There is a probabilistic algorithm $A$ with the following property. Let $h \in\{0,1\}^{k}$ be any string, and let $B:\{0,1\}^{k} \rightarrow\{0,1\}$ be any predicate such that $\mid \operatorname{Pr}_{r \in\{0,1\}^{n}}[B(r)=$ $\langle h, r\rangle]-1 / 2 \mid \geqslant \gamma$, for some $\gamma>0$. Then, given oracle access to $B$ and given $\gamma$, the algorithm $A$ runs in time poly $(k, 1 / \gamma)$, and outputs a list of size $l=O\left(1 / \gamma^{2}\right)$ such that with high probability the string $h$ is on this list.

Using this GL algorithm of Theorem 5.1, we will show the following.
Theorem 5.2. The code Code ${ }_{k}$ is efficiently, locally, $\delta$-approximately $\left(1 / 2+\epsilon, O\left(1 / \epsilon^{2}\right)\right.$ )-list decodable, for $\delta=O(\log 1 / \epsilon / k)$.

Proof. Let $C^{\prime}$ be the circuit which $(1 / 2+\epsilon)$-computes $\operatorname{Code}_{k}(f)$. For a given $k$ subset $\bar{x}=$ $\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right)$, define $\gamma_{\bar{x}}=\operatorname{Pr}_{r}\left[\left\langle f^{k}(\bar{x}), r\right\rangle=C^{\prime}(\bar{x} ; r)\right]-1 / 2$. Clearly, we have $\operatorname{Exp}_{\bar{x}}\left[\gamma_{\bar{x}}\right] \geqslant \epsilon$ (since $C^{\prime}$ $(1 / 2+\epsilon)$-computes $\left.\operatorname{Code}_{k}(f)\right)$.

For a given $\bar{x}=\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right)$, we set $h=f^{k}(\bar{x})$ and $B(r)=C^{\prime}(\bar{x} ; r)$, and run the GL algorithm with $\gamma=\epsilon / 2$. For every $\bar{x}$ with $\left|\gamma_{\bar{x}}\right| \geqslant \epsilon / 2$, the GL algorithm will return a list $h_{1}, \ldots, h_{l}$ of size $l=O\left(1 / \epsilon^{2}\right)$ that, with high probability, contains $h$.

For each $h_{i}$ on the list, define $\gamma_{\bar{x}, i}=\operatorname{Pr}_{r}\left[\left\langle h_{i}, r\right\rangle=C^{\prime}(\bar{x} ; r)\right]-1 / 2$. By random sampling, we can efficiently estimate each $\gamma_{\bar{x}, i}$ to within a constant factor, with high probability. Let $\tilde{\gamma}_{\bar{x}, i}$ denote the corresponding approximation. We will choose string $h_{i}$ with probability proportionate to $\left(\tilde{\gamma}_{\bar{x}, i}\right)^{2}$, i.e., with probability $\left(\tilde{\gamma}_{\bar{x}, i}\right)^{2} / \sum_{j=1}^{l}\left(\tilde{\gamma}_{\bar{x}, j}\right)^{2}$.

For the analysis, first observe that $2 \gamma_{\bar{x}, i}$ is the discrete Fourier coefficient at $h_{i}$ of the Boolean function $C^{\prime}(\bar{x}, \cdot)$. By Parseval's identity, we have $\sum_{j=1}^{l} 4 \cdot \gamma_{\bar{x}, i}^{2} \leqslant 1$. Assuming that we have constantfactor approximations of all $\gamma_{\bar{x}, i}$ 's and that $h$ was on the list, we conclude that the described algorithm outputs $h$ with probability $\Omega\left(\gamma_{\bar{x}}^{2}\right)$. Since the assumed two events happen with high probability, we get that the probability of producing $h$ is at least $\alpha \cdot \gamma_{\bar{x}}^{2}$ for some absolute constant $\alpha>0$.

Denote by $X$ the set of all inputs $\bar{x}$, and by $G$ the set of those $\bar{x}$ where $\left|\gamma_{\bar{x}}\right| \geqslant \epsilon / 2$. The probability (over a random $\bar{x}$ and internal randomness) that the described algorithm outputs the correct string $f^{k}(\bar{x})$ is

$$
(1 /|X|) \sum_{\bar{x} \in G} \alpha \cdot \gamma_{\bar{x}}^{2} \geqslant(1 /|X|)\left(\sum_{\bar{x} \in X} \alpha \cdot \gamma_{\bar{x}}^{2}-\sum_{\bar{x} \in X \backslash G} \alpha \cdot \gamma_{\bar{x}}^{2}\right)
$$

The first term is $\alpha$ times $\operatorname{Exp}_{\bar{x}}\left[\gamma_{\bar{x}}^{2}\right] \geqslant\left(\operatorname{Exp}_{\bar{x}}\left[\gamma_{\bar{x}}\right]\right)^{2} \geqslant \epsilon^{2}$, by Cauchy-Schwarz and the lower bound $\operatorname{Exp}_{\bar{x}}\left[\gamma_{\bar{x}}\right] \geqslant \epsilon$. The second term is at most $\alpha \cdot \epsilon^{2} / 4$ by the definition of $G$. So the overall success probability of the described algorithm at computing $f^{k}$ is at least $\Omega\left(\epsilon^{2}\right)$.

Finally, we apply Theorem 1.3 to the described algorithm for $f^{k}$, concluding that the code $C o d e_{k}$ is efficiently, locally, $\delta$-approximately $\left(1 / 2+\epsilon, O\left(1 / \epsilon^{2}\right)\right)$-list decodable, for $\delta=O((\log 1 / \epsilon) / k)$.

To prove Theorem 1.7, we will show how to list-decode the code obtained by concatenating $\operatorname{Ind}_{2 k}$ with the truncated Hadamard code $H a d_{2 k, k}$ where the given $2 k$-bit message $m s g$ is encoded by the string of inner products $\langle m s g, r\rangle \bmod 2$, over all $2 k$-bit strings $r$ of Hamming weight exactly $k$. More precisely, we consider the following code $\operatorname{Code}\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{2 k} ; r\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{2 k} f\left(x_{i}\right) r_{i} \bmod 2$, where $r \in\{0,1\}^{2 k}$ have Hamming weight exactly $k$.

First we observe that given a circuit $C$ which $(1 / 2+\epsilon)$-computes the $k$-XOR encoding of $f$, the following circuit $C^{\prime}$ will $(1 / 2+\epsilon)$-compute the encoding Code defined above: "Given $\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{2 k} ; r\right)$, for $x_{i} \in\{0,1\}^{n}$ and $r \in\{0,1\}^{2 k}$ of Hamming weight $k$, let $y_{1}, \ldots, y_{k}$ be the subset of $\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{2 k}\right)$ corresponding to the $k$ positions $i$ where $r_{i}=1$. Output the value $C\left(y_{1}, \ldots, y_{k}\right)$."

Indeed, for uniformly random $2 k$-subsets $\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{2 k}\right)$ and a random string $r \in\{0,1\}^{2 k}$ conditioned on having Hamming weight exactly $k$, our circuit $C^{\prime}$ runs the circuit $C$ on a uniformly random $k$-subset $\left(y_{1}, \ldots, y_{k}\right)$, and hence outputs the value $\oplus_{i=1}^{k} f\left(y_{i}\right)=\operatorname{Code}_{2 k}(f)\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{2 k} ; r\right)$ with probability at least $1 / 2+\epsilon$.

We can also get a circuit $C^{\prime \prime}$ that $(1 / 2+\Omega(\epsilon / \sqrt{k}))$-computes the code Code ${ }_{k}$ defined earlier: Given $\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{2 k} ; r\right)$, for $x_{i} \in\{0,1\}^{n}$ and $r \in\{0,1\}^{2 k}$, output a random bit if the Hamming weight of $r$ is not $k$. Otherwise, let $y_{1}, \ldots, y_{k}$ be the subset of $\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{2 k}\right)$ corresponding to the
$k$ positions $i$ where $r_{i}=1$. Output the value $C\left(y_{1}, \ldots, y_{k}\right)$." For the analysis, simply observe that a random $2 k$-bit string will have Hamming weight $k$ with probability $\Omega(1 / \sqrt{k})$. Conditioned on $r$ being of weight $k$, we get a correct answer with probability $1 / 2+\epsilon$; otherwise, we are correct with probability $1 / 2$.

Applying Theorem 5.2 to the circuit $C^{\prime \prime}$ will yield a list of $O\left(k / \epsilon^{2}\right)$ circuits, one of which $(1-\delta)$-computes $f$.

To get the optimal $O\left(1 / \epsilon^{2}\right)$ list size, we will approximately list-decode the inner, truncated Hadamard code in Code. The idea is as follows. We will mimic the proof of Theorem 5.2 to argue that with probability $\Omega\left(\epsilon^{2}\right)$ over random $2 k$-tuples $\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{2 k}\right)$ and internal randomness, one can produce a $2 k$-tuple of bits $\left(b_{1}, \ldots, b_{2 k}\right)$ such that for all but $O(\delta)$ fraction of indices $i \in[2 k]$, we have $f\left(x_{i}\right)=b_{i}$. Running the approximate list-decoder of Theorem 1.4, we then get a list of $O\left(1 / \epsilon^{2}\right)$ algorithms, one of which $(1-\delta)$-computes $f$.

We need the following.
Lemma 5.3. Let $a=\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{2 k}\right)$ be any $2 k$-bit string, and let $B$ be a function mapping $2 k$-bits strings $r$ of Hamming weight $k$ to $\{0,1\}$ such that $\mathbf{P r}_{r}[\langle a, r\rangle=B(r)]=1 / 2+\eta$, for some unknown $\eta$. Suppose we are given $\gamma>0$ such that $|\eta| \geqslant \gamma$. Then there is an algorithm that, given $\gamma$ and oracle access to $B$, runs in time poly $(k, 1 / \gamma)$ and, with probability $\Omega\left(\eta^{2}\right)$, outputs a $2 k$-bit string that agrees with $a$ in all but at most $\delta^{\prime}$ fraction of positions, for $\delta^{\prime}=O((\log 1 / \gamma) / k)$.

Proof. Given $B$, we define the following randomized algorithm $B^{\prime}$ mapping $2 k$-bit strings to $\{0,1\}$ : "On a given $r$, if the Hamming weight of $r$ is $k$, output $B(r)$; otherwise, output a random bit."

It is easy to see that $B^{\prime}(r)$ will agree with the Hadamard encoding $H a d_{2 k}(a)$ at $r$ for at least $1 / 2+\Omega(\eta / \sqrt{k})$ fraction of $2 k$-bit strings $r$. Running the Goldreich-Levin list-decoding algorithm on this $B^{\prime}$ with the agreement parameter $\Omega(\gamma / \sqrt{k})$, we get with high probability a list of at most $\ell=O\left(k / \gamma^{2}\right)$ strings $h_{1}, \ldots, h_{\ell}$ which contains our string $a$. Next we describe an algorithm for producing a string approximately equal to $a$, with probability $\Omega\left(\eta^{2}\right)$.

For each $i \in[\ell]$, define $\eta_{i}=\operatorname{Pr}_{r}\left[\left\langle h_{i}, r\right\rangle=B(r)\right]-1 / 2$, where the probability is over $2 k$-bit strings $r$ of Hamming weight $k$. By random sampling, we can estimate each $\eta_{i}$ to within a constant factor, with high probability. Let $\tilde{\eta}_{i}$ denote the respective approximations.

Let us order $\left|\tilde{\eta}_{i}\right|$ 's from largest to smallest, and let us discard all those strings $h_{i}$ where $\left|\tilde{\eta}_{i}\right|<\gamma / 2$. For the remaining strings, assume w.l.o.g. that $\left|\tilde{\eta}_{1}\right| \geqslant \ldots \geqslant\left|\tilde{\eta}_{\ell^{\prime}}\right|$. We partition the strings $h_{i}$ 's into groups as follows: Let $B_{1}$ be the set of all strings of Hamming distance at most $\delta$ from $h_{1}$; we call $h_{1}$ a leader of cluster $B_{1}$. Remove all strings $B_{1}$ from our list. Let $h_{j}$ be the first remaining string (according to the order on $\tilde{\eta}_{i}$ 's). Define $B_{2}$ to be the set of all remaining strings of Hamming distance at most $\delta$ from $h_{j}$; here $h_{j}$ is a leader of $B_{2}$. Remove $B_{2}$ from the list, and continue until all strings are partitioned into disjoint clusters $B_{1}, B_{2}, \ldots, B_{t}$. For simplicity of notation, assume that the leaders of these clusters are $h_{1}, h_{2}, \ldots, h_{t}$.

Finally, output a leader $h_{i}$ with probability $\tilde{\eta}_{i}^{2} / \sum_{j=1}^{t} \tilde{\eta}_{j}^{2}$.
For the analysis, we will need the following
Claim 5.4. $\sum_{i=1}^{t} \eta_{i}^{2} \leqslant 1 / 2$.
Proof. The idea of the proof is the following. The truncated Hadamard code $H a d_{2 k, k}$ maps any two far-apart messages $m s g_{1}$ and $m s g_{2}$ to the codewords code $e_{1}$ and code 2 that are almost Hamming distance $1 / 2$ apart. Switching from the $\{0,1\}$ alphabet to the $\{1,-1\}$ alphabet, the previous
statement means that the normalized inner product $\operatorname{Exp}_{r}\left[\operatorname{code}_{1}(r) \cdot \operatorname{code}_{2}(r)\right]$ of the vectors code $e_{1}$ and code $_{2}$ is close to 0 , where the expectation is over $2 k$-bit strings of weight $k$.

Thus the encodings $y_{1}, \ldots, y_{t}$ of the leaders $h_{1}, \ldots, h_{t}$, respectively, are pairwise almost orthogonal. It is also easy to see that $2 \eta_{i}=\operatorname{Exp}_{r}\left[y_{i}(r) \cdot B(r)\right]$, and so $\eta_{i}$ 's are the projections of the vector $B$ onto vector $y_{i}$. If the $y_{i}$ 's were pairwise orthogonal, we would get that $B=\sum_{i=1}^{t}\left(2 \eta_{i}\right) \cdot y_{i}+B^{\perp}$, where $B^{\perp}$ is orthogonal to every $y_{i}$, for $i \in[t]$. Taking the normalized inner product of $B$ with itself, we would get $\operatorname{Exp}_{r}\left[(B(r))^{2}\right]=\sum_{i=1}^{t}\left(2 \eta_{i}\right)^{2}+\operatorname{Exp}_{r}\left[\left(B^{\perp}(r)\right)^{2}\right]$. Since $(B(r))^{2}=1$ for every $r$, we conclude that $\sum_{i=1}^{t}\left(2 \eta_{i}\right)^{2} \leqslant 1$.

In reality, the vectors $y_{i}$ 's are pairwise almost orthogonal, and so the calculations will be slightly more complicated, but will follow the same idea. For notational convenience, denote $\alpha_{i}=2 \eta_{i}$. Let us write the vector $B=\left(\sum_{i=1}^{t} \alpha_{i} \cdot y_{i}\right)+\left(B-\sum_{i=1}^{t} \alpha_{i} \cdot y_{i}\right)$. Also for notational convenience in the rest of the proof, let us denote by $\left\langle B, y_{i}\right\rangle$ the normalized inner product $\operatorname{Exp}_{r}\left[B(r) \cdot y_{i}(r)\right]$. We have

$$
1=\langle B, B\rangle=\sum_{i, j} \alpha_{i} \alpha_{j} \cdot\left\langle y_{i}, y_{j}\right\rangle+2\left\langle\sum_{i=1}^{t} \alpha_{i} \cdot y_{i}, B-\sum_{i=1}^{t} \alpha_{i} \cdot y_{i}\right\rangle+\left\langle B-\sum_{i=1}^{t} \alpha_{i} \cdot y_{i}, B-\sum_{i=1}^{t} \alpha_{i} \cdot y_{i}\right\rangle
$$

The last term on the right-hand side is nonnegative, and after dropping it we get the following:

$$
1 \geqslant 2 \sum_{i} \alpha_{i}^{2}-\sum_{i, j} \alpha_{i} \alpha_{j} \cdot\left\langle y_{i}, y_{j}\right\rangle=\sum_{i} \alpha_{i}^{2}-\sum_{i \neq j} \alpha_{i} \alpha_{j} \cdot\left\langle y_{i}, y_{j}\right\rangle
$$

Hence, $\sum_{i} \alpha_{i}^{2} \leqslant 1+\sum_{i \neq j} \alpha_{i} \alpha_{j} \cdot\left\langle y_{i}, y_{j}\right\rangle$. Since $\left|\alpha_{i}\right| \leqslant 1$ for all $i$, the latter is at most $1+t^{2}$. $\max _{i \neq j}\left\{\left\langle y_{i}, y_{j}\right\rangle\right\}$.

To finish the proof, we need to upperbound $t$ and $\max _{i \neq j}\left\{\left\langle y_{i}, y_{j}\right\rangle\right\}$. We start with the latter. Consider any two $2 k$-bit messages $m s g_{1}$ and $m s g_{2}$ that differ in at least $\delta^{\prime}$ fraction of positions. Then the normalized inner product of their respective encodings (in the $\{1,-1\}$ alphabet) will be $\operatorname{Exp}_{r}\left[(-1)^{\left\langle m s g_{1} \oplus m s g_{2}, r\right\rangle}\right]$, where $r$ ranges over all $2 k$-bits strings of Hamming weight $k$. Using the Chernoff-Hoeffding bounds, this expectation can be upperbounded by $e^{-\Omega\left(\delta^{\prime} k\right)}$.

The bound on $t$ can be obtained by the Johnson bound: if $y_{1}, \ldots, y_{t}$ have pairwise inner products at most $e^{-\Omega\left(\delta^{\prime} k\right)}$ in absolute value, and each $\left|\left\langle y_{i}, B\right\rangle\right| \geqslant \gamma$, for $i \in[t]$, then $t \leqslant 1 /\left(\gamma^{2}-\right.$ $e^{-\Omega\left(\delta^{\prime} k\right)}$ ) (see,e.g., [IJK06]). For $\delta^{\prime}=d(\log 1 / \gamma) / k$ for a large enough constant $d$, we get that $t^{2} \cdot \max _{i \neq j}\left\{\left\langle y_{i}, y_{j}\right\rangle\right\} \leqslant 1$. The claim follows.

Suppose that our string $a$ was put in a cluster with a leader $h_{i}$. This means that the (approximation of the) agreement of the truncated Hadamard encoding of $h_{i}$ with $B(r)$ is at least as big as that of $a$ with $B(r)$ (in absolute values), and that $a$ and $h_{i}$ are at most $\delta^{\prime}$ Hamming distance apart. We get by the claim above that $h_{i}$ is output with probability $\Omega\left(\eta^{2}\right)$, as required.

Proof of Theorem 1.7. Let Code be the concatenation of $I n d_{2 k}$ and the truncated Hadamard $H a d_{2 k, k}$. As explained earlier, from a circuit $C(1 / 2+\epsilon)$-computing $f^{\oplus k}$, we can get $C^{\prime}$ that $(1 / 2+\epsilon)$ computes Code. For each $2 k$-subset $\bar{x}=\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{2 k}\right)$, let $\epsilon_{\bar{x}}=\operatorname{Pr}_{r}\left[\left\langle f^{k}(\bar{x}), r\right\rangle=C^{\prime}(\bar{x}, r)\right]-1 / 2$. Clearly, $\operatorname{Exp}_{\bar{x}}\left[\epsilon_{\bar{x}}\right] \geqslant \epsilon$.

For a given $\bar{x}$, let $a=f^{2 k}(\bar{x})$ and let $B(r)=C^{\prime}(\bar{x}, r)$. Run the algorithm of Lemma 5.3 on this $B(r)$, with the parameter $\gamma=\epsilon / 2$. If $\left|\epsilon_{\bar{x}}\right| \geqslant \gamma$, then we will get with probability $\Omega\left(\epsilon_{\bar{x}}^{2}\right)$ a $2 k$-bit string that agrees with $a$ in all but at most $\delta^{\prime}$ positions, for $\delta^{\prime}=O((\log 1 / \epsilon) / k)$.

As in the proof of Theorem 5.2 above, we then obtain a randomized algorithm for $I n d_{2 k}$ that with probability at least $\Omega\left(\epsilon^{2}\right)$ (where the probability is over $\bar{x}$ and the internal randomness of the
algorithm) outputs a string that is at most $\delta^{\prime}$ distance away from $f^{2 k}(\bar{x})$. Running the approximate list-decoding algorithm for $I n d_{2 k}$ from Theorem 1.4, we obtain a list of $O\left(1 / \epsilon^{2}\right)$ circuits, one of which $(1-\delta)$-computes $f$, for $\delta \leqslant O\left(\delta^{\prime}\right)$.

## 6 Conclusions

We gave an efficient, approximate, local list-decoding algorithm for the direct-product code, with information-theoretically optimal parameters (to within constant factors). Our new decoding algorithm is also very efficient (is in uniform randomized $\mathrm{AC}^{0}$ ), and has a simple analysis. We also defined a natural generalization of direct-product codes, intersection codes, for families of subsets $(\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{T})$, and gave the conditions on $(\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{T})$ that suffice for efficient (approximate, local) list-decoding of these generalized codes. Finally, we gave a derandomized version of the direct-product code with an efficient decoding algorithm.

An interesting remaining open question is to get a derandomized uniform direct-product theorem with better parameters (pushing the error $\epsilon$ to $e^{-\Omega(n)}$, while keeping the new input size linear in the original input size). Another question is to improve the parameters of our approximate version of the uniform direct-product theorem (Theorem 1.4), ideally achieving a uniform version of the "Chernoff-type" direct-product theorem in the spirit of [IJK07]. Finally, it is interesting to see if the ideas from our new list-decoding algorithm can help in improving the known uniform hardness amplification results for NP of [Tre05].

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[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ This is slightly different from the usual definition of $k$-wise direct product where one allows as inputs to $f^{k}$ all $k$-tuples $\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right)$ rather than $k$-sets; the case of $k$-tuples can be easily deduced from the case of $k$-sets.

[^2]:    ${ }^{2}$ This yields a much simpler construction of non-binary codes, locally list-decodable in uniform randomized $\mathrm{AC}^{0}$, than the one given by $\left[\mathrm{GGH}^{+} 07\right]$.

[^3]:    ${ }^{3}$ In fact, if a circuit $C^{\prime} \epsilon$-computes $f^{k}$ for $\epsilon \geqslant 0.9$, then for $k>1 / \delta$, there is a single algorithm that ( $1-\delta$ )-computes $f$ : "Given input $x$, sample $O(\log 1 / \delta)$ random $k$-sets $B$ containing $x$, and output the majority answer of $\left.C^{\prime}(B)\right|_{x}$." For the analysis, it suffices to show that for each but $\delta / 2$ fraction of inputs $x$, there are at least $2 / 3$ sets $B$ containing $x$ such that $C^{\prime}(B)=f^{k}(B)$, which is easy to argue.

[^4]:    ${ }^{4}$ Here we only need that, for any measure $\mu$ subset $F$ of left vertices of $H$, the fraction of right vertices with no incident edges into $F$ is at most $\nu$.

[^5]:    ${ }^{5}$ Note that this definitions is a generalization of hardness of a single function in the semi-random model: $f$ being $\delta$-hard for $\operatorname{BPTIME}(t(n)) / / l(n)$ is the same as the function family with single member $f$ being $\left(1-1 / 2^{l(n)}\right)$-hard to $(1-\delta)$-compute in semi-uniform time $t(n)$.

