# On $\varepsilon$-Biased Generators in $\mathbf{N C}^{0}$ 

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#### Abstract

Cryan and Miltersen [7] recently considered the question of whether there can be a pseudorandom generator in $N C^{0}$, that is, a pseudorandom generator that maps $n$ bits strings to $m$ bits strings and such that every bit of the output depends on a constant number $k$ of bits of the seed.

They show that for $k=3$, if $m \geq 4 n+1$, there is a distinguisher; in fact,they show that in this case it is possible to break the generator with a linear test, that is, there is a subset of bits of the output whose XOR has a noticeable bias.

They leave the question open for $k \geq 4$. In fact they ask whether every $N C^{0}$ generator can be broken by a statistical test that simply XORs some bits of the input. Equivalently, is it the case that no $N C^{0}$ generator can sample an $\varepsilon$-biased space with negligible $\varepsilon$ ?

We give a generator for $k=5$ that maps $n$ bits into $c n$ bits, so that every bit of the output depends on 5 bits of the seed, and the XOR of every subset of the bits of the output has bias $2^{-\Omega\left(n / c^{4}\right)}$. For large values of $k$, we construct generators that map $n$ bits to $n^{\Omega(\sqrt{k})}$ bits and such that every XOR of outputs has bias $2^{-\frac{1}{2 \sqrt{k}}}$.

We also present a polynomial-time distinguisher for $k=$ $4, m \geq 24 n$ having constant distinguishing probability. For large values of $k$ we show that a linear distinguisher with a constant distinguishing probability exists once $m \geq$ $\Omega\left(2^{k} n^{\lceil k / 2\rceil}\right)$.

Finally, we consider a variant of the problem where each of the output bits is a degree $k$ polynomial in the inputs. We show there exists a degree $k=2$ pseudo random generator for which the XOR of every subset of the outputs has bias $2^{-\Omega(n)}$ and which map $n$ bits to $\Omega\left(n^{2}\right)$ bits.


[^0]
## 1 Introduction

A pseudorandom generator is an efficient deterministic procedure that maps a shorter random input into a longer output that is indistinguishable from the uniform distribution by resource-bounded observers.

A standard formalization of the above informal definition is to consider polynomial-time procedures $G$ mapping $n$ bits into $m(n)>n$ bits such that for every property $P$ computable by a family of polynomial-size circuits we have that the quantity

$$
\left|\underset{z \in\{0,1\}^{(n)}}{\mathbf{P r}^{(n)}}[P(z)=1]-\operatorname{Pr}_{x \in\{0,1\}^{n}}[P(G(x))]\right|
$$

goes to zero faster than any inverse polynomial in $n$. The existence of such a procedure $G$ is equivalent to the existence of one-way functions [13], pseudorandom functions [9] and pseudorandom permutations [20].

What are the minimal computational requirements needed to compute a pseudorandom generator? Linial et al. [17] prove that pseudorandom functions cannot be computed in $\mathrm{AC}^{0}$ (constant-depth circuits with NOT gates and unbounded fan-in AND and OR gates), ${ }^{1}$ but their result does not rule out the possibility that pseudorandom generators could be computed in $\mathrm{AC}^{0}$, since the transformation of pseudorandom generators into pseudorandom functions does not preserve bounded-depth.

Impagliazzo and Naor [15], in fact, present a candidate pseudorandom generator in $\mathrm{AC}^{0}$. Goldreich [10] suggests a candidate one-way function in $\mathrm{NC}^{0}$. Recall that $\mathrm{NC}^{0}$ is the class of functions computed by bounded-depth circuits with NOT gates and bounded fan-in AND and OR gates. In an $\mathrm{NC}^{0}$ function, every bit of the output depends on a constant number of bits of the inputs. While it is easy to see that there can be no one-way function such that every bit of the output depends on only two bits of the input, ${ }^{2}$ it still remains open

[^1]whether there can be a one-way function such that every bit of the output depends on only three bits of the input.

Cryan and Miltersen [7] consider the question of whether there can be pseudorandom generators in $\mathrm{NC}^{0}$, that is, whether there can be a pseudorandom generator such that every bit of the output depends only on some a constant $k$ number of bits of the input.

They present a distinguisher in the case $k=3, m>4 n$, and they observe that their distinguisher is a linear distinguisher, that is, it simply XORs a subset of the bits of the output. Cryan and Miltersen ask if there is no pseudorandom generator in $\mathrm{NC}^{0}$ when $m$ is superlinear in $n$. Specifically, they ask if it is the case that for every constant $k$ if $m$ is super-linear in $n$ then for every generator such that every bit of the output depends on $k$ bits of the input, a linear distinguisher exist.

In order to formulate an equivalent version of this problem, we introduce the notion of a $\varepsilon$-biased distribution. For $\varepsilon>0$, we say that a random variable $X=\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{m}\right)$ ranging over $\{0,1\}^{m}$ is $\varepsilon$-biased if for every subset $S \subseteq[m]$ we have $1 / 2-\varepsilon \leq \operatorname{Pr}\left[\bigoplus_{i \in S} X_{i}=0\right] \leq 1 / 2+\varepsilon$. It is known [23, 2] that an $\varepsilon$-biased distribution can be sampled by using only $O(\log (m / \varepsilon))$ random bits, which is tight up to the constant in the big-Oh.

The problem of [7] can be therefore formulated as asking if there is no $\varepsilon$-biased generator in $\mathrm{NC}^{0}$ that samples an $m$ bit $\varepsilon$-biased distribution starting from, say, $o(m)$ random bits and with a negligible $\varepsilon$.

## Our Results

We first extend the result of Cryan and Miltersen by giving a (non linear) distinguisher for the case $k=4, m \geq$ $24 n$. Our distinguisher has a constant distinguishing probability, which we show to be impossible to achieve with linear distinguishers. Our distinguisher uses semidefinite programming and uses an idea similar to the "correlation attacks" used in practice against stream cyphers.

For all $k$, it is trivial that a distinguisher exists for $m \geq$ $2^{2^{k}}\binom{n}{k}$, and it easy to see that a distinguisher exist when $m \geq k\binom{n}{k}$. We show using a duality lemma proven in [22] that in fact, a distinguisher with a constant distinguishing probability exists once $m \geq \Omega\left(2^{k} n^{\lceil k / 2\rceil}\right)$.

Then we present an $\varepsilon$-biased generator mapping $n$ bits into $c n$ bits such that $\varepsilon=1 / 2^{\Omega\left(n / c^{4}\right)}$ and every bit of the output depends only on $k=5$ bits of the seed. The parameter $c$ can be chosen arbitrarily, and may depend on $n$. The constant in the $\Omega()$ notation does not depend on $c$.

The main idea in the construction is to develop a generator with $k=3$ that handles well linear tests that XOR a small number of bits, and then develop a generator with $k=2$ that handles well linear tests that XOR a large number of bits. The final generator outputs the bitwise XOR of
the outputs of the two generators, on two independent seeds.
The generator uses a kind of unique-neighbor expander graphs that are shown to exist using the probabilistic method, but that are not known to be efficiently constructable, so the generator is in $\mathrm{NC}^{0}$ but not in uniform $\mathrm{NC}^{0}$ 。

Later we present similar constructions for large values of $k$ which output $n^{\lfloor\sqrt{k}\rfloor \cdot\left(\frac{1}{2}-o(1)\right)}$ bits whose bias is at most $\exp \left(-|\mathrm{n}|^{\frac{1-\mathrm{o}(1)}{2\lfloor\sqrt{\mathrm{k}}\rfloor}}\right)$.

Note the gap for large values of $k$ between our constructions that output $n^{(\sqrt{k} / 2)(1-o(1))}$ bits, and the bounds showing a distinguisher exists for generators that output $n^{(k / 2)(1+o(1))}$ bits.

Finally, we begin a study of the question of whether there are pseudorandom generators with superlinear stretch such that each bit of the output is a function of the seed expressible as a degree- $k$ polynomial over $G F(2)$, where $k$ is a constant. This is a generalization of the main question addressed in this paper, since a function depending on only $k$ inputs can always be expressed as a degree- $k$ polynomial. Furthermore, low-degree polynomials are a standard class of "low complexity" functions from an algebraic perspective. In our $N C_{5}^{0}$ construction of an $\varepsilon$-biased generator with exponentially small $\varepsilon$ and superlinear stretch, every bit of the output is a degree- 2 polynomial. We show that, for degree- 2 polynomials, the stretch can be improved to quadratic, which is optimal up to a constant factor.

## Organization

In section 2 we review the analysis for the case $k=3$ of [7]. In section 3 we give a distinguisher for the case $k=4$. In section 4 we prove an upper bound on the length of the output of an $\varepsilon$-bias generator in $\mathrm{NC}_{k}^{0}$.

In section 5 we construct $\varepsilon$-bias generator for the cases $k=4,5$. The results for larger $k$ are discussed in section 6. In section 7 we explicitly construct an $\varepsilon$-bias generator such that every bit of the output is a polynomial of degree 2. Finally we give some open problems in section 8.

## 2 Review of the Case $k=3$

In this section we summarize the main result of [7]. We also generalize some of the arguments of [7] that are needed for our results.

### 2.1 Preliminaries

We say that a function $g:\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow\{0,1\}$ is balanced if $\operatorname{Pr}_{x}[g(x)=1]=1 / 2$. We say that a function $g:\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow\{0,1\}$ is unbiased towards a function $f:\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow\{0,1\}$ if $\operatorname{Pr}_{x}[g(x)=f(x)]=1 / 2$.

A function $g:\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow\{0,1\}$ is affine if there are values $a_{0}, \ldots, a_{n} \in\{0,1\}$ such that $g\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)=$ $a_{0} \oplus a_{1} x_{1} \oplus \ldots \oplus a_{n} x_{n}$.

The following lemma was proved by case analysis for $k=3$ in [7], and the case $k=4$ could also be derived from a case analysis appearing in [7] (but it is not explicitly stated). The proof of the general case follows using the Fourier representation of boolean functions and is omitted here.

Lemma 1 Let $g:\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow\{0,1\}$ be a non-affine function that depends on only $k$ variables. Then

- There exist an affine function on at most $k-2$ variables that is correlated with $g$.
- Let l be the affine function that is biased towards $g$ and that depends on a minimal number of variables. That is, for some d, l depends on d variables, $\operatorname{Pr}_{x}[g(x)=$ $l(x)]>1 / 2$, and $g$ is unbiased towards affine functions that depend on less than $d$ variables.
Then $\underset{x}{\mathbf{P r}^{2}}[g(x)=l(x)] \geq 1 / 2+2^{d-k}$.
For example, for $k=3$, a non-affine function $g$ is either unbalanced, or it is biased towards one of its inputs; in the latter case it agrees with an input bit (or with its complement) with probability at least $3 / 4$.

For $k=4$, a function $g$ either is affine, or it is unbalanced, or it has agreement at least $5 / 8$ with an affine function that depends on only one input bit, or it has agreement at least $3 / 4$ with an affine functions that depends on only two input bits.

### 2.2 The Case $k=3$

Let $G:\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{m}$ be a generator and let $g_{i}:\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow\{0,1\}$ be the $i$-th bit of the output of the generator. Suppose each $g_{i}$ depends on only three bits of the input.

Suppose that one of the $g_{i}$ is not a balanced function. Then we immediately have a distinguisher.

Suppose that more than $n$ of the $g_{i}$ are affine. Then one of them is linearly dependent of the others, and we also have a distinguisher.

It remains to consider the case where at least $m-n$ of the functions $g_{i}$ are balanced and not affine. Let $I$ be the set of $i$ for which $g_{i}$ is as above. Then, by lemma 1 , for each such $g_{i}$ there is a affine function $l_{i}$ that depends on only one bit, such that $g_{i}$ agrees with $l_{i}$ on a $3 / 4$ fraction of the inputs. By replacing $g_{i}$ with $g_{i} \oplus 1$ when needed, we may assume that each such $g_{i}$ has high correlation with one of the bits of its input.

By the pigeonhole principle, there is a bit $x_{j}$ of the seed, and a set $C,|C| \geq 1+(m-n-1) / n$, such that the output of $g_{i}\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)$ is correlated to $x_{j}$ for every $i \in C$.

Lemma 2 For every $\delta>0$ there are constant $c_{\delta}=$ $O\left(1 / \delta^{2}\right)$ and $\varepsilon_{\delta}=O\left(1 / \delta^{2}\right)$ such that the following holds. Let $G:\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{m}$, and let $G(x)=$ $\left(g_{1}(x), \ldots, g_{m}(x)\right)$. Let $L$ be a set of functions and suppose that each function $g_{i}(x)$ agrees with an element of $L$ or with its complement with probability at least $1 / 2+\delta$, and that $m \geq 1+c_{\delta}|L|$; then there are $i \neq j$ such that $g_{i} \oplus g_{j}$ has bias at least $\varepsilon_{\delta}$.

In order to prove the lemma let $g_{1}, \ldots, g_{c}$ have correlation at least $1 / 2+\delta$ with the same bit $x_{i}$. Note that the avergae of $Z(x)=\mid\left\{\# i \in C: g_{i}(x)=0\right\}-\{\# i \in$ $\left.C: g_{i}(x)=1\right\} \mid$ is at least $2 c \delta$. For $c=O\left(\delta^{-2}\right)$ is a sufficiently large constant, then the restriction of the generator to $C$ has constant statistical distance from the uniform distribution over $c$ bits, for which that average value of $Z$ is $O(\sqrt{c})$. By the Vazirani XOR lemma [27], it also follows that the XOR of some subset of the bits of $C$ has bias $\Omega\left(2^{-|C|}\right)=\Omega\left(2^{-\delta^{-2}}\right)$.

Alternitively, we note that $Z^{2}=\sum_{i, j} Z_{i, j}$, where $Z_{i, j}=$ $1_{g_{i}=g_{j}}-1_{g_{i} \neq g_{j}}$. Therefor truly random bits, $\mathbf{E}\left[Z^{2}\right]=c$, while for the pseudo random generator, $\mathbf{E}\left[Z^{2}\right] \geq \mathbf{E}[|Z|]^{2} \geq$ $4 c^{2} \delta^{2}$. So for $c=O\left(\delta^{-2}\right)$ sufficiently large constant, there must be $i \neq j$ such that $g_{i} \oplus g_{j}$ has a $O\left(\delta^{2}\right)$ bias.

While the above analysis uses the same ideas as in [7], it is slightly better because we achieve constant bias instead of inverse polynomial bias.

In particular, we can compute that when we flip 4 random coins, the average of the maximum between the number of zeroes and ones is $2.75<\frac{3}{4} \cdot 4$, so we can set $c_{1 / 4}=3$. In particular, we obtain a constant distinguishing probability once $m \geq 4 n+1$.

For the next section, it is useful to note that when we flip 10 random coins, the average of the maximum between the number of zeroes and ones is $6.23<\frac{5}{8} \cdot 10$, so we can set $c_{1 / 8}=9$.

## 3 Distinguisher for the Case $k=4$

In this section we construct a distinguisher for $k=4$.
Theorem 3 Let $G=\left(g_{1}, \ldots, g_{m}\right):\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{m}$ be a map such that each $g_{i}$ depends on at most 4 coordinates of the input and $m \geq 24 n$. Then there exists a polynomial time algorithm which distinguish between $G$ and a random string with constant distinguishing probability. More precisely, the algorithm will output "yes" for the output of the generator $G$ with probability $\Omega(1)$, and for a random string with probability $e^{-\Omega(m)}$.

Note that it is easy to construct a distinguisher if any of the $g_{i}$ is unbalanced, or if more than $n$ of the $g_{i}$ are linear.

If one of the $g_{i}$ is biased towards one of the bits of its input, then it follows from lemma 1 that it must agree with that bit or its complement with probability at least $5 / 8$.

Thus, if more than $c_{1 / 8} n=9 n$ of the functions $g_{i}$ have bias towards one bit, then we can obtain a distinguisher from lemma 2.

It remains to consider the case where at least $m-10 n$ of the functions are balanced, non-linear, and unbiased towards single bits. Following [7], we call such functions problematic. It follows from lemma 1 that for each problematic $g$ there is an affine function $l$ of two variables that agrees with $g$ on a $3 / 4$ fraction of the inputs. Again, by replacing $g_{i}$ by $g_{i} \oplus 1$, when needed, we may assume that all the $g_{i}^{\prime} s$ in $P$ have 3/4 agreement probability with some linear function.

Let $P$ be the set of $i$ such that $g_{i}$ is problematic. For each such $i$ we denote by $l_{i}$ the linear function of two inputs that agrees with $g_{i}$ on a $3 / 4$ fraction of the inputs. In the next section we show how if $p=|P| \geq 14 n$, one can "break" the generator using correlation attack. Correlation attacks are often used in practice to break pseudo random generators. The distinguisher below is a an interesting example where one can actually prove that correlation attack results in a polynomial time distinguisher.

### 3.1 The Distinguisher Based on Semidefinite Programming

Given a string $r_{1}, \ldots, r_{p} \in\{0,1\}^{p}$, consider the following linear system over $G F(2)$ with two variables per equation.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\forall i \in P \quad l_{i}(x)=r_{i} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

We will argue that the largest fraction of satisfying assignments in the system (1) is distributed differently if $r_{1}, \ldots, r_{p}$ is uniform or if it is the output of $G$. By Markov inequality it follows that,

Lemma 4 If $r_{1}, \ldots, r_{p}$ are the output of $g_{1}, \ldots, g_{p}$, respectively, then, for every $\varepsilon>0$, there is a probability at least $\varepsilon$ that at least $3 / 4-\varepsilon$ fraction of the equations in (1) are satisfiable. More formally

$$
\operatorname{Pr}_{z \in\{0,1\}^{p}}\left[\#\left\{i \mid g_{i}(z)=\ell_{i}(z)\right\} \geq \frac{3}{4}-\varepsilon\right] \geq \varepsilon
$$

Lemma 5 If $r_{1}, \ldots, r_{p}$ is chosen uniformly at random from $\{0,1\}^{p}$, and $|P|>\left(1 / 2 \delta^{2}\right)(\ln 2)(n+c)$, then the probability that there is an assignment that satisfies more than a $1 / 2+\delta$ fraction of the equations of (1) is at most $2^{-c}$.

Proof: Fix an assignment $z$; then the probability that a fraction at least $1 / 2+\delta$ of the $r_{i}$ agree with $l_{i}(z)$ is at most $e^{-2 \delta^{2} p} \leq 2^{-c-n}$. By a union bound, there is at most a probability $2^{-c}$ that such a $z$ exists.

Given a system of linear equations over $G F(2)$ with two variables per equation, it is NP-hard to determine the
largest number of equations that can be satisfied, but the problem can be approximated to within a .878 factor using semidefinite programming [11]. We now prove theorem 3

Proof of Theorem 3: Fix $\varepsilon$ and $\delta$ small enough so that $.878(3 / 4-\varepsilon)>1 / 2+\delta$. Using semidefinite programming [11] we get a polynomial time algorithm that is successful if a fraction $3 / 4-\varepsilon$ of the equations is holds, and fails if no more than $0.878(3 / 4-\varepsilon)$ of the equations hold. Fixing $\delta=$ .158 and $\varepsilon=10^{-4}$, we obtain the statement of theorem, where $p=14 n$.

### 3.2 Correlation Attacks

In this section we discuss how our distinguisher for the case $k=4$ can be seen as a "correlation attack."

Correlation attacks are a class of attacks that are often attempted in practice against candidate pseudorandom generators, ${ }^{3}$ see e.g. the introduction of [16] for an overview.

The basic idea is as follows. Given a candidate generator $G:\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{m}$, where $G(x)=g_{1}(x), \ldots, g_{m}(x)$, we first try and find linear relations between input bits and output bits that are satisfied with non-trivial probability. For example, suppose we find coefficients $a_{i, j}, b_{i, j}$ and $c_{j}$ such that each of the equations

$$
\begin{align*}
& \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i, 1} x_{i}+\sum_{i=1}^{m} b_{i, 1} g_{i}(x)=c_{1} \quad(\bmod 2)  \tag{2}\\
& \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i, 2} x_{i}+\sum_{i=1}^{m} b_{i, 2} g_{i}(x)=c_{2} \quad(\bmod 2) \\
& \cdots \\
& \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i, t} x_{i}+\sum_{i=1}^{m} b_{i, t} g_{i}(x)=c_{t} \quad(\bmod 2)
\end{align*}
$$

is satisfied with probability bounded away from $1 / 2$.
Now we want to use this system of equations in order to build a distinguisher. The distinguisher is given a sample $\mathbf{z}=\left(z_{1}, \ldots, z_{m}\right)$ and has to decide whether $\mathbf{z}$ is uniform or is the output of $G$. The distinguisher substitutes $z_{i}$ in place of $g_{i}(x)$ in (2) and then tries to find an $\mathbf{x}$ that maximizes the number of satisfied equations. The hope is that, if $\mathbf{z}=$ $G(\mathbf{x})$, then we will find $\mathbf{x}$ as a solution of the optimization problem.

Unfortunately, maximizing the number of satisfied equations in a linear system over $G F(2)$ is an NP-hard problem, and, in fact, it is NP-hard to achieve an approximation factor better than $1 / 2$ [12]. In practice, one uses belief-propagation algorithms that often work, although the method is typically not amenable to a formal analysis.

In Section 3, we were able to derive a formal analysis of a related method because we ended up with a system of equations having only two variables per equation, a class of instances for which good approximation algorithms are known. Furthermore, we did not try to argue that, when

[^2]the method is applied to the output of the generator, we are likely to recover the seed; instead, we argued that just being able to approximate the largest fraction of satisfiable equations gives a way to distinguish samples of the generators from random strings.

## $4 O\left(n^{k / 2}\right)$ upper bound

In this section we state the following theorem which gives an upper bound on the maximal stretch of an $\varepsilon$-bias generator in $\mathrm{NC}_{k}^{0}$.

Theorem 6 There exists a constant $c$ such that for every integer $0<k$ and any $0<\varepsilon<2^{-2 k}$, if $G=\left(g_{1}, \ldots, g_{m}\right)$ is an $\varepsilon$ biased pseudo random generator, where each of the $g_{i}$ 's depend on at most $k$ bits, then $m \leq c 2^{k} n^{\lceil k / 2\rceil}$.

The proof uses the following lemma from [22].
Lemma 7 ([22]) Let $f:\{0,1\}^{k} \rightarrow\{0,1\}$ then for all $r$

- Either $f$ is a polynomial of degree at most $r$ over $F_{2}$, or
- $f$ is biased towards an affine function of at most $k-r$ variables.

Proof of Theorem 6: Set $r=\lfloor k / 2\rfloor, s=k-r$ and for $0 \leq t \leq n, B(t)=\sum_{i=0}^{t}\binom{n}{i}$. Note that there exists a constant $\tilde{c}$ such that $B(r) \leq B(s) \leq \tilde{c} n^{\lceil k / 2\rceil}$, and $B(s-$ $1) \leq \tilde{c} n^{k / 2-1}$. By lemma 7 every $g_{i}$ is either a degree $\leq r$ polynomial, or is biased towards an affine function of at most $s$ variables. Let $p$ be the number of degree $\leq r$ polynomials among the $g_{i}$ 's, $b_{s}$ be the number of $g_{i}$ 's biased towards an affine function of exactly $s$ variables (but not towards less than $s$ variables), and $b_{<s}$ be the number of $g_{i}$ 's biased towards an affine function of at most $s-1$ variables. Clearly, $m \leq p+b_{s}+b_{<s}$.

Note that the $B(r)$ monomials of degree $\leq r$ on the variables $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$ form a basis to the vector space of all degree $\leq r$ polynomials in $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$. Therefore if $p>B(r)$, there is a linear dependency between the $g_{i}^{\prime} s$. We therefore conclude that

$$
\begin{equation*}
p \leq B(r) \leq \tilde{c} n^{\lceil k / 2\rceil} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

On the other hand, note that by lemma 1 , if $g$ is biased towards an affine function of $d \leq s$ variables, then there exist an affine function $\ell$ of at most $d$ variables such that $\operatorname{Pr}[f=\ell] \geq 1 / 2+2^{d-k}$. Moreover, there are exactly $B(s-1)$ linear functions on at most $s-1$ variables, and $\binom{n}{s}$ linear functions on exactly $s$ variables.

Now lemma 2 implies that there exists a constant $c^{\prime}$ such that if $b_{s} \geq c^{\prime}\binom{n}{s} 2^{k}$, or $b_{<s} \geq c^{\prime} B(s-1) 4^{k}$ then there is
a $\oplus$ of two of the $g_{i}$ 's that has an $O\left(2^{-k}\right)$ bias or $O\left(2^{-2 k}\right)$ bias respectively. It therefore follows that

$$
\begin{equation*}
b_{s}+b_{<s} \leq c^{\prime}\left(2^{k}\binom{n}{s}+4^{k} B(s-1)\right) \leq \hat{c} 2^{k} n^{\lceil k / 2\rceil} \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\hat{c}$ is some constant, and $n$ is large enough.
Combining (4) and (3) we obtain that

$$
m \leq p+b_{s}+b_{<s} \leq c 2^{k} n^{\lceil k / 2\rceil}
$$

for some constant $c$ as needed.

## 5 Constructions for $k=5$ and $k=4$

### 5.1 Preliminaries

We will construct a generator mapping $2 n$ bits into $c n$ bits. It is helpful to think of $c$ as a large constant, although the results hold also if $c$ is a function of $n$.

We will construct two generators: one will be good against linear tests that involve a small number of output bits (we call them small tests), and another is good against linear tests that involve a large number of output bits (we call them large tests). The final generator will be obtained by computing the two generators on independent seeds, and then XOR-ing their output bit by bit. In this way, we fool every possible test.

The generator that is good against large tests is such that every bit of the output is just the product of two bits of the seed. We argue that the sum (modulo 2) of $t$ output bits of the generator has bias exponentially small in $t / c^{2}$, where $c$, as above, is the stretch of the generator.

Then we describe a generator that completely fools linear tests of size up to about $n / c^{2}$, and such that every bit of the output is the sum of three bits of the seed. Combined with the generator for large tests, we get a generator in $\mathrm{NC}_{5}^{0}$ such that every linear test has bias $2^{-O\left(n / c^{4}\right)}$.

### 5.2 The Generator for Large Tests

Let us call the bits of the seed $y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n}$.
Let $K$ be an undirected graph formed by $n /(2 c+1)$ disjoint cliques each with $2 c+1$ vertices. $K$ has $n$ vertices that we identify with the elements of $[n] . K$ has and $c n=m$ edges. Fix some ordering of the edges of $K$, and let $\left(a_{j}, b_{j}\right)$ be the $j$-th edge of $K$. Define the functions $q_{1}, \ldots, q_{m}$ as $q_{j}\left(y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n}\right)=y_{a_{j}} y_{b_{j}}$.
Claim 8 For every subset $S \subset[m]$, the function $q_{S}(\mathbf{y})=$ $\sum_{j \in S} q_{j}(\mathbf{y})$ is such that

$$
\left|\mathbf{P r}_{\mathbf{y}}\left[q_{S}(\mathbf{y})=0\right]-\frac{1}{2}\right| \leq\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{1+|S| /\left(2 c^{2}+c\right)}
$$

The proof relies on the following two standard lemmas. The first one from [7] is a special case of the SchwartzZippel lemma [25, 28].

Lemma 9 ([7]) Let p be a non-constant degree-2 multilinear polynomial over $G F(2)$. Then $1 / 4 \leq \operatorname{Pr}[p(x)=0] \leq$ $3 / 4$.

Lemma 10 Let $X_{1}, \ldots, X_{t}$ be independent $0 / 1$ random variables, and suppose that for every $i$ we have $\delta \leq$ $\operatorname{Pr}\left[X_{i}=0\right] \leq 1-\delta$. Then

$$
\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{2}(1-2 \delta)^{t} \leq \operatorname{Pr}\left[\bigoplus_{i} X_{i}=0\right] \leq \frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{2}(1-2 \delta)^{t}
$$

We can now prove claim 8 .
Proof of Claim 8. We can see $S$ as a subset of the edges of $K$. Each connected component of $K$ has $2 c^{2}+c$ edges, so $S$ contains edges coming from at least $|S| /\left(2 c^{2}+c\right)$ different connected components. Let $t$ be the number of connected components. If we decompose the summation $\sum_{j \in S} q_{j}\left(y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n}\right)$ into terms depending on each of the connected components, then each term is a non-trivial degree- 2 polynomial, and the $t$ terms are independent random variables when $y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n}$ are picked at random. We can then apply lemma 10 , where the $X_{i}$ are the values taken by each of the $t$ terms in the summation, $\delta=1 / 4$, and $t \geq|S| /\left(2 c^{2}+c\right)$.

### 5.3 The Generator for Small Tests

Let $A \in\{0,1\}^{n \times m}$ be a matrix such that every row is a vector in $\{0,1\}^{n}$ with exactly three non-zero entries, and let also $A$ be such that every subset of $\sigma$ rows are linearly independent. Let $A_{1}, \ldots, A_{m}$ be the rows of $A$. We define the linear functions $l_{1}, \ldots, l_{m}$ as $l_{i}(\mathbf{x})=A_{i} \cdot \mathbf{x}$. Note that each of these linear functions depends on only three bits of the input.

Claim 11 For every subset $S \subseteq[m],|S|<\sigma$, the function $l_{S}(\mathbf{x})=\sum_{j \in S} l_{j}(\mathbf{x})$ is balanced .
Proof: We have $l_{S}(\mathbf{x})=\left(\sum_{j \in S} A_{j}\right) \cdot \mathbf{x}$, and since $\sum_{j \in S} A_{j}$ is a non-zero element of $\{0,1\}^{n}$, it follows that $l_{S}()$ is a non-trivial linear function, and therefore it is balanced.

Lemma 12 For every $c=c(n)=o\left(\sqrt{n} /(\log n)^{3 / 4}\right)$ and for sufficiently large $n$ there is a $0 / 1$ matrix $A$ with cn rows and $n$ columns such that every row has exactly three nonzero entries and such that every subset of $\sigma=n /\left(4 e^{2} c^{2}(n)\right)$ rows are linearly independent.

This is a standard probabilistic construction similar to $[3,5,4]$. The proof is omitted.

### 5.4 Putting Everything Together

In order to obtain the generator, we take $G_{1}:\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow$ $\{0,1\}^{m}$ to be a generator satisfying claim 8 , and $G_{2}$ : $\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{m}$ to satisfy lemma 12 . Then we take $G:$ $\{0,1\}^{2 n} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{m}$ defined by $G(x, y)=G_{1}(x) \oplus G_{2}(y)$ to fool both small tests and large tests. We thus obtain

Theorem 13 For every $c$ and sufficiently large $n$, there is a generator in $\mathrm{NC}_{5}^{0}$ mapping $n$ bits into cn bits and sampling an $\varepsilon$-biased distribution, where $\varepsilon=2^{-n / O\left(c^{4}\right)}$.

### 5.5 Generator for $k=4$

When $k=4$ we want to replace the generator for small sets by a generator which depends only on two bits. The construction is essentially the one in [7].

The generator is obtained by taking a graph $H$ on cn edges, with girth $\Omega(\log n / \log c)$ and letting $x_{i} \oplus x_{j}$ be an output bit, if $(i, j)$ is an edge of the graph.

Let $H$ be an undirected graph with $n$ vertices, that we identify with $[n]$, having cn edges and girth $\gamma$. Fix some ordering of the edges of $H$, and let $\left(a_{j}, b_{j}\right)$ be the $j$-th edge of $H$. We define the linear functions $l_{1}, \ldots, l_{m}$ as $l_{i}\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)=x_{a_{j}}+x_{b_{j}}$.
Claim 14 For every subset $S \subseteq[m],|S|<\gamma$, the function $l_{S}(\mathbf{x})=\sum_{j \in S} l_{j}(\mathbf{x})$ is balanced.
Proof: Since $|S|<g$, the subgraph of $H$ induced by the edges of $S$ is a forest. Therefore $l_{S}(\mathbf{x})$ is non-zero linear function.

Lemma 15 ([18]) For every $c$ and for sufficiently large $n$ there are explicitly constructible graphs $H$ with $n$ vertices, cn edges, and girth $\Omega((\log n) /(\log c))$.

We thus obtain.
Theorem 16 For every $c$ and sufficiently large $n$, there is a generator in uniform $\mathrm{NC}_{4}^{0}$ mapping $n$ bits into cn bits and sampling an $\varepsilon$-biased distribution, where $\varepsilon=$ $n^{-1 / O\left(c^{2} \log c\right)}$.

## $6 \varepsilon$-biased generator for large $k$

In this section we construct an $\varepsilon$-biased generator in $\mathrm{NC}_{k}^{0}$, for large $k$, which outputs $n^{\Omega(\sqrt{k})}$ bits. More precisely,

Theorem 17 Let $k$ be a positive integer. There exist an $\varepsilon$ bias generator in $\mathrm{NC}_{k}^{0}$ from $n$ bits to $n^{\lfloor\sqrt{k}\rfloor \cdot\left(\frac{1}{2}-o(1)\right)}$ bits whose bias $\varepsilon$ is at most

$$
\varepsilon=\exp \left(-|\mathrm{n}|^{\frac{1-\mathrm{o}(1)}{2\lfloor\sqrt{k}\rfloor}}\right)
$$

### 6.1 The Generator for Large Tests

We will assume through this sub-section that $n=p^{2}$.
Consider the following bi-partite graph $G=(L, R, E)$ where $|L|=p,|R|=\binom{p}{d}$. Identify the vertices of $L$ with the numbers $1, \ldots, p$ and the vertices of $R$ with $\binom{[p]}{d}$, the set of all subsets of $[p]$ of size $d$. The edges of $G$ are all pairs $(i, S)$ such that $i \in[p], S \in\binom{[p]}{d}$ and $i \in S$.

For a set of vertices, $V$, we denote with $N(V)$ the set of neighbors of $V$. For a vertex $i$ let $\operatorname{deg}(\mathrm{i})=|\mathrm{N}(\{\mathrm{i}\})|$.

Claim 18 For any set of right vertices $V \subset R$ we have that $|N(V)| \geq \frac{d|V|^{\frac{1}{d}}}{e}$.

Proof: Any set of $t$ left vertices has $\binom{t}{d}$ right neighbors. The result follows from the inequality

$$
|V| \leq\binom{|N(V)|}{d} \leq\left(\frac{e|N(V)|}{d}\right)^{d}
$$

Our construction will assign a monomial of degree $d$, in the input variables, to each edge. We think about the vertices of $L$ as representing disjoint subsets of the input variables and each edge leaving such input set corresponds to a monomial in its variables. The right vertices, $R$, correspond to the output bits. Each output is the sum of monomials that label the edges that fan into it. We now give the formal construction.

Let $X=\bigsqcup_{i=1}^{p} X_{i}$ be a partition of $X=\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\}$ to $p$ disjoint sets each of size $p$.

We assign the set $X_{i}$ to the $i$ 'th vertex of $L$. Let $M_{i}$ be the set of all multilinear monomials of degree $d$ in the variables of $X_{i}$. We have that

$$
\left|M_{i}\right|=\binom{p}{d}>\binom{p-1}{d-1}=\operatorname{deg}(\mathrm{i})
$$

Therefor we can assign to each edge leaving $i$ a different monomial from $M_{i}$.

Each right vertex corresponds to an output bit. For a right vertex $j$ the $j$ 'th output is the sum of all monomials that were assigned to the edges adjacent to $j$. Thus each output is the sum of $d$ monomials each of degree $d$. Hence each output depends on $d^{2}$ input variables. Denote with $f_{j}$ the $j$ 'th output. We now show that any large linear combination has a small bias.

Lemma 19 In the notations above any linear combination (over $G F(2)) f=\sum_{j \in J} f_{j}$ has bias at most

$$
\exp \left(\frac{-|\mathrm{J}|^{\frac{1}{\mathrm{~d}}}}{2^{\mathrm{d}}}\right)
$$

Proof: The proof is essentially the same as the proof of claim 8 and follows from the following easy claims.

Claim $20 f$ can be written as the sum of at least $N(J)$ polynomials of degree d, each in a different set of variables.

Proof: The set of outputs $J$, has $N(J)$ left neighbors. The edges connecting the set $J$ to a neighbor $i \in N(J)$ are labeled with polynomials of degree $d$ in $X_{i}$.

From the Schwartz-Zippel lemma $[25,28]$ we get
Claim 21 The bias of any polynomial of degree $d$ is bounded above by $\frac{1}{2^{d}}$.

Thus according to lemma 10 we get that the bias of $f$ is at most

$$
\frac{1}{2}\left(1-\frac{2}{2^{d}}\right)^{N(J)} \leq \frac{1}{2} \cdot \exp \left(\frac{-2 \mathrm{~N}(\mathrm{~J})}{2^{\mathrm{d}}}\right) \leq \exp \left(\frac{-|\mathrm{J}|^{\frac{1}{\mathrm{~d}}}}{2^{\mathrm{d}}}\right)
$$

This finishes the proof of lemma 19
This finishes the construction of the generator for large tests. We now describe the generator for small tests.

### 6.2 The Generator for Small Tests

Similar to the $k=4,5$ cases this generator will output only linear functions. We will have the property that any small set of these linear functions is linearly independent. This is now a standard construction that follows from unique neighbor property of expanding graphs. We omit the proof of the following lemma.

Lemma 22 Let t be positive integer t and $\Delta=10 t$. There exist a mapping from $n$ bits to $n^{t}$ bits such that every output depends on $\Delta$ input variables, and such that any linear combination of at most $\sqrt{n}$ outputs is linearly independent.

### 6.3 Putting things together

We now prove theorem 17.
Proof: Let $k^{\prime}=(\lfloor\sqrt{k}\rfloor-5)^{2}, n^{\prime}=\left\lfloor\sqrt{\frac{n}{2}}\right\rfloor^{2}$. We have that

$$
k>k^{\prime}+10 \sqrt{k^{\prime}}, \quad k^{\prime}>k-12 \sqrt{k}, \quad \frac{n}{2} \geq n^{\prime}>\frac{n}{2}-\sqrt{2 n}
$$

Let $X=\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n^{\prime}}\right\}, \quad Y=\left\{y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n}^{\prime}\right\}$. Let $f_{1}(X), \ldots, f_{\binom{p}{d}}(X)$ be the outputs of the generator against long tests with the parameters $p=\sqrt{n^{\prime}}, d=\sqrt{k^{\prime}}$. Let $h_{1}(Y), \ldots, h_{n^{\prime} k^{\prime}}(Y)$ be the outputs of the generator for small tests on $Y$, given the parameter $t=\sqrt{k^{\prime}}$. Note that

$$
n^{\prime k^{\prime}}>\binom{\sqrt{n^{\prime}}}{\sqrt{k^{\prime}}}=\binom{p}{d}
$$

Our generator $G$ will output the functions

$$
\forall 1 \leq i \leq\binom{ p}{d} \quad g_{i}(X, Y)=f_{i}(X)+h_{i}(Y)
$$

Notice that as we have more $h_{i}$ 's than $f_{i}$ 's we don't use most of the $h_{i}$ 's. Clearly, each output of the generator depends on $k^{\prime}+10 \sqrt{k^{\prime}}<k$ input variables.

From lemma 19,22 we get that the bias of any non trivial linear combination of the outputs is at most

$$
\exp \left(\frac{-\left|\mathrm{n}^{\prime}\right|^{\frac{1}{2 \mathrm{~d}}}}{2^{\mathrm{d}}}\right)
$$

Thus our generator takes $2 n^{\prime} \leq n$ inputs and outputs

$$
\binom{p}{d} \geq\left(\frac{e^{2} n^{\prime}}{k^{\prime}}\right)^{\frac{\sqrt{k}}{2}}=n^{\lfloor\sqrt{k}\rfloor \cdot\left(\frac{1}{2}-o(1)\right)}
$$

and has an exponentially small bias.

## 7 A degree 2 generator

In this section we consider a variant of the problem presented in the paper. Suppose that we require that every output bit is a degree $k$ polynomial in the input bits. It is clear that if we want the output to be $\varepsilon$-biased, then the number of output bits $m$ is at most the dimension of degree $k$ polynomials in $n$ variables $\sum_{i=k}^{s}\binom{n}{i}=O\left(n^{k}\right)$.

Clearly this is a relaxation of the problem described above. In particular any upper bound here will imply an upper bound for $\mathrm{NC}_{k}^{0}$. The problem is also of independent interest, as low degree generators are "simple" in an intuitive sense.

In this section we construct a generator of $\varepsilon$-biased set such that every output is a polynomial of degree 2 in the input variables. We show that unlike the $k=2$ case we can output $\Omega\left(n^{2}\right)$ bits. In particular we prove

Theorem $23 \forall 1 \leq m \leq n$ there exists an $\varepsilon$-bias generator $G=\left(g_{1}, \ldots, g_{t}\right):\{0,1\}^{n} \mapsto\{0,1\}^{t}, t=\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor \cdot m$, such that $g_{i}$ is a degree 2 polynomial, and the bias of any non trivial linear combination of the $g_{i}$ 's is at most $2^{\frac{n-2 m}{4}}$.

We begin by studying the bias of a degree 2 polynomial, over $G F(2)$.

### 7.1 The Bias of Degree 2 polynomials

Let $P\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)$ be a degree 2 polynomial. $P$ is also called a quadratic form over $G F(2)$. We say that a matrix $A$ represents $P$ with respect to a basis of $G F(2)^{n},\left\{v_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{n}$, if for every vector $v=\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i} \cdot v_{i}$ we have that $P(v)=$
$x^{t} A x\left(x=\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)\right)$. Notice that we can always find an upper triangular matrix that represents $P$; let

$$
P\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)=\sum_{1 \leq i \leq j \leq n} \alpha_{i, j} a_{i} a_{j}
$$

Define

$$
A(P)_{i, j}= \begin{cases}\alpha_{i, j} & i \leq j \\ 0 & i>j\end{cases}
$$

Clearly $P\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} e_{i} \cdot x_{i}\right)=x^{t} A(P) x$ and $A(P)$ represents $P$ with respect to the standard basis.

The bias of a quadratic form is bounded by the rank of the matrix representing it as follows.

Theorem 24 The bias of a degree 2 polynomial $P$ is at most

$$
2^{-\left(1+\frac{\operatorname{rank}\left(\mathbf{A}+\mathrm{A}^{\mathrm{t}}\right)}{4}\right)}
$$

for any matrix $A$ that represents $P$.
Theorem 24 shows that in order to output $m$ polynomials of degree 2 , such that any non trivial linear combination of them is almost unbiased it suffices to find matrices $A_{1}, \ldots, A_{m}$ such that for any non trivial combination of them, $B=\sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha_{i} A_{i}\left(\alpha_{i} \in G F(2)\right)$, we have that $\operatorname{rank}\left(B+B^{t}\right)$ is high.

### 7.2 Proof of theorem 24

The following claim is trivial.
Claim $25 P \equiv 0$ iff there exist a symmetric matrix that represents $P$ w.r.t. some basis iff any matrix that represents $P$ is symmetric.

The proof of theorem 24 will follow from the following claims.

Claim 26 For any quadratic form $P$ on $n$ variables, there exist a basis of $G F(2)^{n} e_{i}, f_{i} i=1, \ldots, r$ and $g_{j} j=1, \ldots, s$ such that $2 r+s=n$ and $n$ elements in $G F(2), a_{i}, b_{i} i=$ $1, \ldots, r, c_{j} j=1, \ldots, s$, such that for

$$
v=\sum_{i=1}^{r} x_{i} e_{i}+\sum_{i=1}^{r} x_{r+i} f_{i}+\sum_{j=1}^{s} x_{2 r+j} g_{j}
$$

we have

$$
P(v)=\sum_{i=1}^{r}\left(a_{i} x_{i}{ }^{2}+x_{i} x_{r+i}+b_{i} x_{r+i}{ }^{2}\right)+\sum_{j=1}^{s} c_{j} x_{2 r+j}^{2}
$$

Such a basis is called "a canonical basis for $P$ ".
PROOF: See the proof of theorem 5.1.7 in [14].

Claim 27 Let $P$ be a quadratic form on $n$ variables. Let $A$ represent $P$ with respect to the standard basis and $D$ represent $P$ with respect to the canonical basis. Then

$$
\operatorname{rank}(\mathrm{D}) \geq \frac{\operatorname{rank}\left(\mathrm{A}+\mathrm{A}^{\mathrm{t}}\right)}{2}
$$

Proof: Let $B$ be the matrix whose columns are $e_{1}, \ldots, e_{r}, f_{1}, \ldots, f_{r}, g_{1}, \ldots, g_{s}$ written w.r.t. the standard basis. We have that

$$
\forall x \in G F(2)^{n} \quad x^{t} D x=x^{t} B^{t} A B x
$$

In other words

$$
\forall x \in G F(2)^{n} x^{t}\left(D-B^{t} A B\right) x=0
$$

Therefor there exist a symmetric matrix $S$ such that

$$
D-B^{t} A B=S
$$

or

$$
D=B^{t}\left(A+\left(B^{-1}\right)^{t} S\left(B^{-1}\right)\right) B
$$

As $\left(B^{-1}\right)^{t} S\left(B^{-1}\right)$ is a symmetric matrix we get by the next claim (claim 28) that

$$
\operatorname{rank}(\mathrm{D})=\operatorname{rank}\left(\mathrm{A}+\left(\mathrm{B}^{-1}\right)^{\mathrm{t}} \mathrm{~S}\left(\mathrm{~B}^{-1}\right)\right) \geq \frac{\operatorname{rank}\left(\mathrm{A}+\mathrm{A}^{\mathrm{t}}\right)}{2}
$$

Claim 28 For upper diagonal matrix $A$ with zeros on the diagonal, and any symmetric matrix $S$ we have that

$$
\operatorname{rank}(\mathrm{A}+\mathrm{S}) \geq \frac{\operatorname{rank}\left(\mathrm{A}+\mathrm{A}^{\mathrm{t}}\right)}{2}
$$

where $A^{t}$ is the transpose of $A$.
Proof: Let $r=\operatorname{rank}(\mathrm{A}+\mathrm{S})=\operatorname{rank}\left(\mathrm{A}^{\mathrm{t}}+\mathrm{S}\right)$. Then

$$
\operatorname{rank}\left(\mathrm{A}+\mathrm{A}^{\mathrm{t}}\right) \leq \operatorname{rank}(\mathrm{A}+\mathrm{S})+\operatorname{rank}\left(\mathrm{A}^{\mathrm{t}}+\mathrm{S}\right)=2 \mathrm{r}
$$

Proof of theorem 24. Clearly the bias of $P$ does not change if we calculate it w.r.t. to a canonical basis, $\left\{v_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{n}$, for $P$. In such a basis, for $v=\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i} \cdot v_{i}$, we have that

$$
P(v)=\sum_{i=1}^{r}\left(a_{i} x_{i}{ }^{2}+x_{i} x_{r+i}+b_{i} x_{r+i}{ }^{2}\right)+\sum_{j=1}^{s} c_{j} x_{2 r+j}{ }^{2}
$$

First notice that if for some $1 \leq j \leq s c_{j} \neq 0$ then $P$ is unbiased. Otherwise, we note that for every $i$ the bias of $\left(a_{i} x_{i}^{2}+x_{i} x_{r+i}+b_{i} x_{r+i}^{2}\right)$ is at most $\frac{1}{4}$. Therefore according to lemma 10 we get the bias of $P$ is at most $\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{r+1}$. As we assume that $\forall j \quad c_{j}=0$ we see that

$$
r \geq \frac{\operatorname{rank}(\mathrm{D})}{2}
$$

The theorem now follows from claim 27.

### 7.3 The generator

In this subsection we give a construction of a linear space of matrices with the property that for every non zero matrix in the space, $A$, we have that $\operatorname{rank}\left(\mathrm{A}+\mathrm{A}^{\mathrm{t}}\right)$ is high.

Such a construction was first given by Roth [24], and later simplified by Meshulam [21] (see also [26]).

Theorem 29 For any positive natural numbers $n \geq m$ there exist $t=\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor \cdot m$ matrices $A_{1}, \ldots, A_{t} \in M_{n}(G F(2)$ such that for every non trivial combination of them $B=$ $\sum_{i=1}^{t} \alpha_{i} A_{i}$ we have that

$$
\operatorname{rank}\left(\mathrm{B}+\mathrm{B}^{\mathrm{t}}\right) \geq \mathrm{n}-2 \mathrm{~m}
$$

We now prove theorem 23.
Proof: Let $A_{1}, \ldots, A_{t}$ be the matrices guaranteed by theorem 29. Define $g_{i}(x)=x^{t} A_{i} x$. Consider any non trivial linear combination

$$
g(x)=\sum_{i=1}^{t} \alpha_{i} g_{i}(x)=x^{t}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} A_{i}\right) x
$$

According to theorem 29, we have that $\operatorname{rank}(g) \geq n-2 m$. Theorem 24 shows that the bias of $g$ is at most $2^{\frac{n-2 m}{4}}$.

## 8 Conclusions

Several questions remain open.
Even for the case $k=3$, we only know how to break the generator assuming that the output length is a sufficiently large constant multiple than the seed length. It is not clear whether there is a linear test, or even a polynomial time algorithm, that breaks the case $k=3$ when, say, $m=n+1$.

It is still open whether there can be an $\varepsilon$-biased generator with negligible $\varepsilon$ in the case $k=4$. We conjecture that this is not the case for sufficiently large linear stretch, but we do not have a strong feeling about what happens for very small stretch.

The main open question is whether our generator for the case $k=5$ can be broken by a polynomial time algorithm and, in general, whether polynomial time algorithms can break all $\mathrm{NC}^{0}$ generators.

Another important open problem which may be more accesible it to understand the right asymptotics for $\varepsilon$-biased generators for large $k$. It is tempting to conjecture that either the upper bound $n^{O(k)}$ or the lower bound $n^{\Omega(\sqrt{k})}$ are actually tight.

## Acknowledgements

We wish to thank David Wagner for suggesting the relevance of correlation attacks. A.S. would also like to thank Avi Wigderson for helpful discussions.

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[^0]:    *Supported by a Miller fellowship
    ${ }^{\dagger}$ Supported by National Security Agency (NSA) and Advanced Research and Development Activity (ARDA) under Research Office (ARO) contract no. DAAD19-01-1-0506.

[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ To be precise, the results in [17] only rule out security against adversaries running in time $O\left(n^{(\log n)^{O(1)}}\right)$.
    ${ }^{2}$ Finding an inverse can be formulated as a 2 SAT problem.

[^2]:    ${ }^{3}$ Pseudorandom generators are called "stream ciphers" in the applied cryptography literature.

