Learning Half spaces Definitions

$$C_{n,3} = \{x \in \{0, 1, -1\}^n \mid |\{i \mid x_i \neq 0\}| \leq 3\}$$

$$\mathcal{H}_{n,3} = \{h_{w,b} : C_{n,3} \mapsto \{\pm 1\} \mid h_{w,b}(x) = sign(\langle w, x \rangle + b), w \in R^n, b \in R\}$$

$$Err_D(h) = Pr_{(x,y) \sim D}(h(x) \neq y)$$

$$Err_D(\mathcal{H}) = \min_{b \in \mathcal{H}} Err_D(h)$$

Learning algorithm (for half-spaces):

A learning algoritm L maps samples to hypothesis. In the context of this paper the learning algorithm L, maps training sets/samples as follows:

$$L: (C_{n,3} \times \{\pm 1\})^m \mapsto \mathcal{H}_{n,3}$$

Notice that the output L(S) of the learning algorithm is a hypothesis $\mathcal{H}_{n,3}$, i.e:

$$L(S) \in \mathcal{H}_{n,3}$$

We say L learns $\mathcal{H}_{n,3}$ if for every distribution D on $C_{n,3} \times \{\pm 1\}$ and samples S of more than $m(n,\epsilon)$ i.i.d. examples from from D:

$$Pr_S[Err_D(L(S) > Err_D(\mathcal{H}_{n,3}) + \epsilon] < \frac{1}{10}$$

We say that the learning algorithm is efficient if L returns a hypothesis in $poly(m(n, \epsilon))$ and the hypothesis can be evaluated in polynomial time.

A n-variable 3CNF clause is a boolean formula of the form:

$$C(x) = (-1)^{j_1} x_{i_1} \vee (-1)^{j_2} x_{i_2} \vee (-1)^{j_3} x_{i_3}$$

A 3CNF formula is a boolean formula of the form:

$$\phi(x) = \wedge_{i=1}^{m} C_i(x)$$

To denote this we use $3CNF_{n,m}$ when it has n variables and m clauses.

Let $Val(\phi)$ denote the maximal fraction of clauses that can be simultaneously satisfied.

If $Val(\phi) = 1$ then we say that ϕ is satisfiable.

Boolean formulas can be trivially transformed to formulas with $\{\pm\}$ instead of $\{0,1\}$ and majority operations. First the majority function defined as follows:

$$\forall (x_1, x_2, x_3) \in \{\pm 1\}^3, MAJ(x_1, x_2, x_3) := sign(x_1 + x_2 + x_3)$$

An n-variable 3CNF clauses C can be mapped to 3 majority (3MAJ) clauses using the formula:

$$C(x) = MAJ((-1)^{j_1}x_{i_1}, (-1)^{j_2}x_{i_2}, (-1)^{j_3}x_{i_3})$$

An n-variable 3CNF formulas ϕ can be equivalently be expressed using 3MAJ formulas as follow:

$$\phi(x) = \bigwedge_{i=1}^{m} C_i(x) = \prod_{i=1}^{m} C_i(x)$$

To denote this we use $3MAJ_{n,m}$ when it has n variables and m clauses.

Conjecture 2.2: $(\mu$ -R3SAT hardness assumption) $\forall \epsilon > 0, \forall \Delta > \Delta_o(\epsilon)$, there exists no efficient algorithm that ϵ -refutes random 3CNF with ratio $\Delta \cdot n^{\mu}$.

Theorem 3.1: Let $0 \le \mu \le 0.5$. If the μ -R3SAT hardness assumption (conjecture 2.2) is true, then there exists no efficient learning algorithm that learns the class $\mathcal{H}_{n,3}$ using $O\left(\frac{n^{1+\mu}}{\epsilon^2}\right)$ examples. To prove theorem 3.1 we will prove a stronger version of it. For that we

will need to define:

$$\mathcal{H}_{n,m}^d = \{ h_{w,0} : C_{n,3} \mapsto \{\pm 1\} \mid h_{w,0}(x) = \langle w, x \rangle, w \in \mathbb{R}^n, b = 0 \}$$

Notice $\mathcal{H}_{n,m}^d \subset \mathcal{H}_{n,m}$, this fact is what makes theorem 3.2 stronger (and hence imply theorem 3.1):

Theorem 3.2: Under μ -R3SAT hardness assumption, it is impossible to efficiently learn this subclass $\mathcal{H}_{n,m}^d$, using only $O\left(\frac{n^{1+\mu}}{\epsilon^2}\right)$.

Proof Sketch:

To show that its impossible to learn $\mathcal{H}_{n,m}^d$ (using only $O\left(\frac{n^{1+\mu}}{\epsilon^2}\right)$), we will reduce the problem of ϵ -refuting 3MAJ formulas to the problem of learning $\mathcal{H}_{n,m}^d$ with $O\left(\frac{n^{1+\mu}}{\epsilon^2}\right)$. With this reduction, we will be able to show that if such a learning algorithm L existed, then we could learn $\mathcal{H}_{n,m}^d$ and hence, construct an algorithm that is able to ϵ -refute 3MAJ formulas efficiently.

For this reduction to work we will need the following steps:

step1) For this reduction, we will map every 3MAJ clause to two examples in $C_{n,3} \times \{\pm 1\}$. Since 3MAJ are just linear combinations of boolen values, we will just indicate the coefficients in the $x_k \in C_{n,3}$ vector. More precisely, for every clause 3MAJ clause $C(x) = MAJ((-1)^{j_1}x_{i_1}, (-1)^{j_2}x_{i_2}, (-1)^{j_3}x_{i_3})$ one can map it to an example $(x_k, y_k) \in C_{n,3} \times \{\pm 1\}$ by choosing $b \in \{\pm 1\}$ (at random) and letting:

$$(x_k, y_k) = b(\sum_{l=1}^{3} (-1)^{j_l} e_{i_l}, 1) \in (C_{n,3} \times \{\pm 1\})$$

where e_i are the usual standard basis vectors. Conceptually, we are simply using the indices of the boolean vector take part of the current 3MAJ formula to denote the non-zero relevant entries in the vector x_k . The vector y_k is intended to indicate if the current clause is satisfied or not.

step2) Apart from mapping each clause C(x) we will also map every possible $w \in \mathcal{H}_{n,m}^d$ to a possible (boolean) assignment ψ to the 3MAJ formula $\phi(x)$. To do this we will take advantage that $w \in \{\pm 1\}^n$ and that there is a bijection with vectors $w \in \{\pm 1\}^n$ to hyperplanes in $\mathcal{H}_{n,m}^d$.

For this proof to work the following fact is crucial:

step3 Claim: If $\psi \in \{\pm 1\}^n$ and its corresponding hypothesis are $h_{\psi,0}(x) = sign(\langle \psi, x \rangle)$, then $h_{\psi,0}(x_k) = y_k$ if and only if ψ satisfies C_k .

Sketch proof:

This fact is nearly immediate because we constructed x_k to be the "coefficients" of the majority formula but without the actual boolean values x. Therefore one can appreciate that the inner product $\langle \psi, x \rangle$ simply linearly combines the coefficients of 3MAJ (encoded in x_k) and with the satisfying assigning $\psi \in \{\pm 1\}^n$. Since y_k is always flipped depending whether b is 1 or -1, y_k matches $\langle \psi, x \rangle$ if and only if C(x) is satisfied.

step4 Given $\phi \in 3MAJ_{n,\Delta n^{1+\mu}}$ (and for large enough Δ) consisting of 3MAJ clauses $C_1, ..., C_{\Delta n^{1+\mu}}$ we will create a sample set S consisting of $\Delta n^{1+\mu}$ examples (x_k, y_k) for each clause C_k as described in step 2. Now given these samples we will choose a random subset S_1 of size $O(\frac{n^{1+\mu}}{\epsilon})$. Let the empirical distribution induced by choosing $(C_{n,3} \times \{\pm 1\})$ from ϕ be D. Let the learned hypothesis be denoted by L(S).

Now with these ingredients we can use the learned hypothesis L(S) to, to see what fraction of clauses are actually satisfiable or not (i.e. which are random). This is equivalent to constructing an algorithm A that reliable refutes ϕ formulas.

If ϕ is nearly satisfiable, i.e. $Val(\phi) \geq 1-\epsilon$, then, most of the clauses that were mapped to (x_k, y_k) will have a vector x_k that is satisfiable and hence, matches y_k . If this is the case then L(S) will get most of its predictions correct (with high probability, since our learning algorithm is PAC learnable and only learns successfully with high probability). Therefore $Err_D(L(S))$ will be small w.h.p. If this is the case our algorithm will return "exceptional" (and its likely to be satisfiable).

On the other hand, if ϕ is random, then no algorithm can learn ϕ . Why? Well, if ϕ is random then for every (x_k, y_k) , y_k will be a Bernoulli r.v. with parameter $\frac{1}{2}$ m independent of x_k .