## Problem 3.41

- (a) The low-degree algorithm is this:  $\forall S \subseteq [n]$  such that |S| < k, use FOURIER(S) to estimate  $\hat{f}(S)$  up to accuracy  $\epsilon$  with confidence  $\delta$  and then output  $\operatorname{sign}\left(\sum_{S:|S| < k} \widehat{\hat{f}(S)} X_S(x)\right)$ . FOURIER(S) samples  $O\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon_1^2} \cdot \log\left(\frac{1}{\delta_1}\right)\right)$  each time, where  $\epsilon_1^2 = \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon}{2 \cdot \binom{n}{\epsilon_k}}}$  and  $\delta_1 = \frac{1}{3} \cdot \frac{1}{\binom{n}{\epsilon_k}}$ . So,  $O\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon_1^2} \cdot \log\left(\frac{1}{\delta_1}\right)\right) = O\left(\frac{2n^k}{\epsilon} \cdot 3n^k\right) = poly\left(n^k, \frac{1}{\epsilon}\right)$ . We can just use the same  $poly\left(n^k, \frac{1}{\epsilon}\right)$  examples each time (call it the batch  $\mathfrak{E}$ ).
- (b) The final hypothesis is

$$h(y) = \operatorname{sign}\left(\sum_{S:|S| < k} \widetilde{\widehat{f}(S)} X_S(y)\right) = \operatorname{sign}\left(\sum_{S:|S| < k} \left(\frac{1}{|\mathfrak{E}|} \sum_{(x,f(x)) \in \mathfrak{E}}^r f(x) X_S(x)\right) X_S(y)\right)$$

where

$$r = poly\left(n^k, \frac{1}{\epsilon}\right)$$

Because  $\frac{1}{r}$  is always positive, it has no effect on the sign of the expression and thus can be eliminated.

$$h(y) = \operatorname{sign}\left(\sum_{S:|S| < k} \left(\sum_{(x,f(x)) \in \mathfrak{C}}^{r} f(x)X_{S}(x)\right) X_{S}(y)\right)$$
$$= \operatorname{sign}\left(\sum_{(x,f(x)) \in \mathfrak{C}} f(x) \sum_{S \subseteq [n]} X_{S}(x)X_{S}(y)\right)$$

I don't really see how each example's weight only depends on its Hamming distance from y because it also depends on k, as shown in this expression. It does include the Hamming distance, however, because when |S|=1,  $\sum_{S\subseteq [n]} \sum_{s:t:|S|=1} X_s(x) X_s(y) = n-2h$ , where h is the Hamming distance between x and y.

## Problem 4.4

(a) A DNF of width  $\log(s)$  can be computed by a depth  $\log(s)$  decision tree. Using Exercise 3.30, it becomes  $\widehat{\|f\|_\infty} \ge \frac{1}{2^{\log(s)}} = \frac{1}{s}$ , as |b| = 1 because our function can only output either -1 or 1. So,  $\widehat{\|f\|_\infty}$  is  $\Omega(1/s)$ . Then using proposition 4.9, we get that our function is computable by a DNF of width  $\log(s) - \log(\epsilon)$  due to the law of logs, which then is  $\log(s) + O(1)$  because  $\log(\epsilon)$  is a constant. We prove the claim by putting these two together using the fact that  $|\widehat{f}(S)| \ge \widehat{\|f\|_\infty}$ .

(b) We learned in class that if function f is computable by a size s DNF, then f is  $\epsilon$ -concentrated to degree  $k = O\left(\log\left(\frac{s}{\epsilon}\right) \cdot \log\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon}\right)\right)$ . In this case,  $\epsilon = \frac{1}{2} - \Omega\left(\frac{1}{s}\right)$ . The Low-Degree algorithm says for all f in a concept class F such that f is  $\frac{\epsilon}{2}$  concentrated up to degree k, F can be learned in time  $poly(n^k, 1/\epsilon)$  with error  $\epsilon$ .

In our case,  $n^k=n^{\log\left(\frac{s}{\frac{1}{2}-\Omega\left(\frac{1}{s}\right)}\right)\cdot\log\left(\frac{1}{\frac{1}{2}-\Omega\left(\frac{1}{s}\right)}\right)}$ . We know that by big Omega notation,  $\frac{1}{2}-\Omega\left(\frac{1}{s}\right)<\frac{1}{2}$ , and s is constant for a fixed function f, so  $n^k$  becomes  $\operatorname{poly}(n)$ . Similarly,  $\frac{1}{\epsilon}$  is  $\frac{1}{\frac{1}{2}-\Omega\left(\frac{1}{s}\right)}$ , which becomes  $\operatorname{poly}(s)$ . Together, F is learnable in time  $\operatorname{poly}(n,s)$  with error  $\frac{1}{2}-\Omega\left(\frac{1}{s}\right)$ .

## Problem 4.19

- (a) By "doesn't falsify  $T_i$ ", I'm taking this to mean "making sure  $T_i$  is not constantly false". We already know  $(T_i)_{J|Z}$  is not constant, which means there's no false restricted variables in  $T_i$  because otherwise,  $T_i$  will just always be false, as it's a conjunction. To make sure  $(T_i)_{R'}$  is not always false, all you have to do is, if it's  $x_j$  in  $T_i$ , set  $x_j = \text{true}$ ; if it's  $\overline{x_j}$ , set  $x_j = \text{false}$ .
- (b) For a restriction to be bad, at least one  $T_i$  has to be neither constantly true nor constantly false, and for that  $T_i$  to be "bad" (i.e. neither constantly true or false), at least one variable in it has to be free. A restriction R' could be arrived at from different initial Rs if the Rs' j-th bit as defined by part (a) is a restricted bit in R' and everything else matches R'. R' can be arrived at from a maximum of w original restrictions because the most literals a clause can have is w. This situation happens like this, where c is a restricted variable:

$$(x_1 \wedge c \wedge c \wedge c) \vee (...) \vee ...$$

$$(c \wedge \overline{x_2} \wedge c \wedge c) \vee (...) \vee ...$$

$$(c \wedge c \wedge x_3 \wedge c) \vee (...) \vee ...$$

(c) 
$$\mathbb{P}[(\boldsymbol{J}|\boldsymbol{z}) = R] = \delta^{|J|} \cdot \left(\frac{1-\delta}{2}\right)^{n-|J|}$$

$$\mathbb{P}[(\boldsymbol{J}|\boldsymbol{z}) = R'] = \delta^{|J|-1} \cdot \left(\frac{1-\delta}{2}\right)^{n-|J|+1}$$

$$\frac{\mathbb{P}[(\boldsymbol{J}|\boldsymbol{z}) = R]}{\mathbb{P}[(\boldsymbol{J}|\boldsymbol{z}) = R']} = \frac{\delta^{|J|} \cdot \left(\frac{1-\delta}{2}\right)^{n-|J|}}{\delta^{|J|-1} \cdot \left(\frac{1-\delta}{2}\right)^{n-|J|+1}} = \frac{2\delta}{1-\delta}$$

(d) For  $\delta \in [0, \frac{1}{3}]$ ,  $\frac{2\delta}{1-\delta} \leq 3\delta$ . And since you can arrive at a R' from at most w bad restrictions,  $\mathbb{P}[(\boldsymbol{J}|\mathbf{z}) \text{ is bad}] \leq 3\delta w$ .