

Lectures on Learning Theory

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1 PAC Learning

The model of *learning from random, uniform examples* is as follows: Given the *example oracle* $\text{Ex}(f)$ of a function f , pick m i.i.d. random variables x_1, \dots, x_m uniformly (or from some distribution \mathcal{D} , which might not be known to the learner in general), and call $\text{Ex}(f)$ to obtain m random labeled examples $(x_1, f(x_1)), \dots, (x_m, f(x_m))$; after seeing these examples, the learner outputs a hypothesis h of the function f .

Should we require $h = f$? This is probably too much to ask. However, we can at least require $\text{dist}(h, f) := \mathbb{P}_{x \sim \mathcal{D}}(h(x) \neq f(x)) \leq \varepsilon$, where $\text{dist}(h, f)$ is also called $\text{error}_{\mathcal{D}}(h)$ with respect to f .

Definition 1. A *uniform distribution learning algorithm* for a concept class \mathcal{C} is an algorithm \mathcal{A} that, given $\varepsilon > 0$, $\delta > 0$ and access to $\text{Ex}(f)$ for $f \in \mathcal{C}$, outputs a function h such that with probability at least $1 - \delta$, $\text{error}(h)$ with respect to f is at most ε . This is called *probably approximately correct (PAC) learning*.

We are interested in the following parameters:

- m , the *sample complexity*;
- ε , the *accuracy* parameter;
- δ , the *confidence* parameter;
- the running time, which we hope to be $\text{poly}(\log(\text{domain size}), 1/\varepsilon, 1/\delta)$;
- the *description* of h , which at least should be compact (i.e., $O(\log |\mathcal{C}|)$) and efficient to evaluate; it require $h \in \mathcal{C}$, then this is called *proper learning*.

Note that the uniform case is a special case of the PAC model. The more general PAC model is given $\text{Ex}_{\mathcal{D}}(f)$ and bounds $\text{error}_{\mathcal{D}}(h)$ with respect to f .

2 Learning Conjunctions

Let \mathcal{C} be the class of conjunctions (i.e., 1-term DNF) over $\{0, 1\}^n$. We cannot hope for 0-error from a sub-exponential number of random samples; to see this, note that it is hard to distinguish $f(x) = x_1 \cdots x_n$ and $f(x) = \mathbf{F}$. Algorithm 1 gives a polynomial time sampling algorithm for conjunction learning, where “?” indicates a parameter to be determined.

For x_i in the conjunction, it must be set in the same way in each positive example, so $i \in V$. For x_i not in the conjunction,

$$\mathbb{P}[i \in V] = \mathbb{P}[x_i \text{ is set in the same way in each of the } k \text{ positive examples}] = \frac{1}{2^{k-1}}.$$

By the union bound,

$$\mathbb{P}[\text{any } x_i \text{ not in the conjunction survives}] \leq \frac{n}{2^{k-1}} \leq \delta,$$

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1 draw  $\text{poly}(1/\varepsilon)$  samples
2 estimate  $\mathbb{P}[f(x) = 1]$  to additive error at most  $\pm\varepsilon/4$  and confidence at least  $1 - \delta/2$ 
3 if estimate is less than  $\varepsilon/2$  then
4   return  $h(x) = 0$ 
5 (estimate is at least  $\varepsilon/2$ ; see a new positive example every  $O(1/\varepsilon)$  samples)
6 collect  $\frac{1}{\varepsilon}$  more positive examples
7  $V \leftarrow$  set of indices of variables that are set in the same way in each positive example
8 return  $h(x) = \bigwedge_{i \in V} x_i^{b_i}$ , where each  $b_i$  indicates if  $x_i$  is complemented or not

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Algorithm 1: A polynomial time sampling algorithm for conjunction learning.

if we pick $k = \log(n/\delta)$. Therefore, if we need $\Omega(\log(n/\delta))$ positive examples, or $\Omega((1/\varepsilon) \log(n/\delta))$ total examples to rule out every x_i not in the conjunction.

3 Occam's Razor

In a high level, *Occam's Razor* claims the following:

- If we ignore the running time, then learning is easy (with a polynomial number of samples).
- The shortest explanation is the best.

To see the first claim, we consider the brute-force algorithm in Algorithm 2.

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1 draw  $M = (1/\varepsilon)(\ln |\mathcal{C}| + \ln |1/\delta|)$ 
2 search over all  $h \in \mathcal{C}$  until find one consistent with the samples
3 return  $h$ 

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Algorithm 2: A brute-force learning algorithm that demonstrates Occam's Razor.

We say that a function h is *bad* if $\text{error}(h)$ with respect to f is at least ε . For a bad function h ,

$$\mathbb{P}[h \text{ is consistent with the samples}] \leq (1 - \varepsilon)^M.$$

By the union bound,

$$\mathbb{P}[\text{any bad function } h \text{ is consistent with the samples}] \leq |\mathcal{C}|(1 - \varepsilon)^M = |\mathcal{C}|(1 - \varepsilon)^{\frac{1}{\varepsilon}(\ln |\mathcal{C}| + \ln |1/\delta|)} = \delta.$$

Hence, it is unlikely to output a bad hypothesis h . For example, for conjunction learning, this analysis requires $O((1/\varepsilon)(n + 1/\delta))$ samples, where Algorithm 1 has a better sample complexity. On the other hand, if we have a *good* hypothesis h ,

- (i) we can *predict* values of f on new random inputs according to distribution \mathcal{D} , since

$$\mathbb{P}_{x \sim \mathcal{D}}[f(x) = h(x)] \geq 1 - \delta;$$

- (ii) we can *compress* the description of samples $(x_1, f(x_1)), (x_2, f(x_2)), \dots, (x_m, f(x_m))$ from the naïve description which takes $m(\log |D| + \log |R|)$ bits, where D and R are the domain and the range of f , respectively, to the form “ x_1, \dots, x_m plus the description of h ” which requires $m \log |D| + \log |\mathcal{C}|$ bits only.

4 Learning via Fourier Representations

In this section, we study learning algorithms that are based on estimating the Fourier representation of a function f .

4.1 Approximating One Fourier Coefficient

Lemma 2. *For any $S \subset [n]$, one can approximate $\hat{f}(S)$ to within additive error γ (i.e., $|\text{output} - \hat{f}(S)| \leq \gamma$) with probability at least $1 - \delta$ in $O(1/\gamma^2 \log 1/\delta)$ samples.*

Proof. Recall that $\hat{f}(S) = 2\mathbb{P}_{x \in \{0,1\}^n}[f(x) \neq \chi_S(x)] - 1$. Hence, we can approximate $\hat{f}(S)$ by estimating $\mathbb{P}_{x \in \{0,1\}^n}[f(x) \neq \chi_S(x)]$ and applying the Chernoff bound. \square

4.2 Fourier Concentration and the Low Degree Algorithm

Definition 3. For all $\varepsilon \in (0, 1)$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we say that a function $f : \{\pm 1\}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ has $\alpha(\varepsilon, n)$ -Fourier concentration (f.c.) if

$$\sum_{\substack{S \subset [n] \\ |S| > \alpha(\varepsilon, n)}} \hat{f}(S)^2 \leq \varepsilon.$$

For a Boolean function $f : \{\pm 1\}^n \rightarrow \{\pm 1\}$, Parseval's identity gives $\sum_{S \subset [n]} \hat{f}(S)^2 = 1$, so having $\alpha(\varepsilon, n)$ -Fourier concentration implies that

$$\sum_{\substack{S \subset [n] \\ |S| \leq \alpha(\varepsilon, n)}} \hat{f}(S)^2 \geq 1 - \varepsilon.$$

The *low degree algorithm*, given in Algorithm 3, approximates a Boolean function with d -Fourier concentration, where $d = \alpha(\varepsilon, n)$.

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1 take  $m = O((n^d/\tau) \log(n^d/\delta))$  samples
2 foreach  $S \subset [n]$  such that  $|S| \leq d$  do
3    $C_S \leftarrow$  estimate of  $\hat{f}(S)$ 
4 let  $h : \{\pm 1\}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be defined by  $h(x) = \sum_{S \subset [n]: |S| \leq d} C_S \chi_S(x)$ 
5 return  $\text{sign} \circ h$  as hypothesis

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Algorithm 3: The low degree algorithm given degree d , accuracy τ and confidence δ .

Proposition 4. *If f has d -Fourier concentration with $d = \alpha(\varepsilon, n)$, then $\mathbb{E}_{x \in \{0,1\}^n}[(f(x) - h(x))^2] \leq \varepsilon + \tau$ with probability at least $1 - \delta$.*

Proof. First, we claim that each low degree Fourier Coefficient is well approximated, i.e., with probability at least $1 - \delta$, we have $|C_S - \hat{f}(S)| \leq \gamma$ for all $S \subset [n]$ with $|S| \leq d$, where $\gamma = \sqrt{\tau/n^d}$. This can be proved using the Chernoff bound and the union bound.

Second, we show that if all low degree Fourier coefficients are well approximated, then h has a low ℓ_2 -error. Suppose $|C_S - \hat{f}(S)| \leq \gamma$ for all $S \subset [n]$ such that $|S| \leq d$. Let $g : \{\pm 1\}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be defined by

$$g(x) = f(x) - h(x).$$

By the linearity of the Fourier transform, for all $S \subset [n]$,

$$\hat{g}(S) = \hat{f}(S) - \hat{h}(S).$$

For all $S \subset [n]$ with $|S| > d$, we have $\hat{h}(S) = 0$, so $\hat{g}(S) = \hat{f}(S)$. For all $S \subset [n]$ with $|S| \leq d$, we have $|\hat{g}(S)| \leq \gamma$, so $\hat{g}(S)^2 \leq \gamma^2$. Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}_{x \in \{\pm 1\}^n} [(f(x) - h(x))^2] &= \mathbb{E} [g(x)^2] = \sum_{S \subset [n]} \hat{g}(S)^2 && \text{(Parseval's identity)} \\ &= \sum_{\substack{S \subset [n] \\ |S| \leq d}} \hat{g}(S)^2 + \sum_{\substack{S \subset [n] \\ |S| > d}} \hat{g}(S)^2 \\ &\leq \sum_{\substack{S \subset [n] \\ |S| \leq d}} \gamma^2 + \sum_{\substack{S \subset [n] \\ |S| > d}} \hat{f}(S)^2 \\ &\leq \binom{n}{d} \cdot \gamma^2 + \varepsilon && \text{(by Fourier concentration)} \\ &\leq \tau + \varepsilon. \end{aligned}$$

This completes the proof. \square

Proposition 5. *Let $f : \{\pm 1\}^n \rightarrow \{\pm 1\}$. Let $h : \{\pm 1\}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Then*

$$\mathbb{P}_{x \in \{\pm 1\}^n} [f(x) \neq \text{sign}(h(x))] \leq \mathbb{E}_{x \in \{\pm 1\}^n} [(f(x) - h(x))^2]$$

Proof. Recall that

$$\mathbb{E}_{x \in \{\pm 1\}^n} [(f(x) - h(x))^2] = \frac{1}{2^n} \sum_{x \in \{\pm 1\}^n} (f(x) - h(x))^2, \quad (1)$$

$$\mathbb{P}_{x \in \{\pm 1\}^n} [f(x) \neq \text{sign}(h(x))] = \frac{1}{2^n} \sum_{x \in \{\pm 1\}^n} \mathbb{1}_{f(x) \neq \text{sign}(h(x))}. \quad (2)$$

We compare (1) and (2) term by term. Let $x \in \{\pm 1\}^n$. If $f(x) = \text{sign}(h(x))$, then $\mathbb{1}_{f(x) \neq \text{sign}(h(x))} = 0 \leq (f(x) - h(x))^2$. If $f(x) \neq \text{sign}(h(x))$, then $\mathbb{1}_{f(x) \neq \text{sign}(h(x))} = 1 \leq (f(x) - h(x))^2$; see Figure 1 for an illustration.

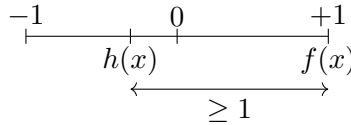


Figure 1: Illustrating the proof of Proposition 5. \square

Theorem 6. *If a concept class \mathcal{C} has Fourier concentration $d = \alpha(\varepsilon, n)$, then there exists a uniform distribution learning algorithm for \mathcal{C} with $q = O((n^d/\varepsilon) \log(n^d/\delta))$ samples; i.e., this algorithm gets q samples and with probability at least $1 - \delta$ outputs a hypothesis h' such that*

$$\mathbb{P}_{x \in \{\pm 1\}^n} [f(x) \neq h'(x)] \leq 2\varepsilon.$$

Proof. Run the low degree algorithm with $\tau = \varepsilon$. By Proposition 4, we get a hypothesis h such that $\mathbb{E}_{x \in \{\pm 1\}^n} [(f(x) - h(x))^2] \leq \varepsilon + \varepsilon = 2\varepsilon$. Let $h' = \text{sign} \circ h$. By Proposition 5, h' has error at most 2ε with respect to f . This completes the proof. \square

Following are examples of functions that have $\alpha(\varepsilon, n)$ -Fourier concentration.

- (i) Any function $f : \{\pm 1\}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ that depends on at most k variables has

$$\sum_{\substack{S \subset [n] \\ |S| > k}} \hat{f}(S)^2 = 0.$$

- (ii) Let $T = \{i_1, \dots, i_k\} \subset [n]$ be such that $|T| = k$. Let $\text{AND} : \{\pm 1\}^n \rightarrow \{\pm 1\}$ be defined by

$$\text{AND}(x) = \begin{cases} -1, & \text{if } x_i = -1 \text{ for all } i \in T, \\ 1, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

We claim that AND has $\log(4/\varepsilon)$ -Fourier concentration. Note $\widehat{\text{AND}}(S) = 0$ for all $S \subset [n]$ with $|S| > |T|$. If $|T| \leq \log(4/\varepsilon)$, then we are done by definition. If $|T| > \log(4/\varepsilon)$, then

$$\widehat{\text{AND}}(\emptyset)^2 = (1 - 2\mathbb{P}[f(x) \neq \chi_{\emptyset}(x)])^2 = \left(1 - 2 \cdot \frac{1}{2^{|T|}}\right)^2 > 1 - \varepsilon.$$

Therefore, AND has 0-Fourier concentration.

- (iii) Let $T = \{i_1, \dots, i_k\} \subset [n]$ be such that $|T| = k$. Let $\overline{\text{AND}} : \{\pm 1\}^n \rightarrow \{\pm 1\}$ be defined by

$$\overline{\text{AND}}(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } x_i = -1 \text{ for all } i \in T, \\ -1, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Let $f : \{\pm 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ be defined by

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } x_i = -1 \text{ for all } i \in T, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases} \\ &= \frac{1 - x_{i_1}}{2} \cdot \frac{1 - x_{i_2}}{2} \cdots \frac{1 - x_{i_k}}{2} \\ &= \frac{1}{2^k} \sum_{S \subset T} (-1)^{|S|} \chi_S(x). \end{aligned}$$

Note that all Fourier coefficients $\hat{f}(S)$ for $S \not\subset T$ are 0. Then

$$\overline{\text{AND}}(x) = 2f(x) - 1 = -1 + \frac{2}{2^k} + \sum_{\substack{S \subset T \\ S \neq \emptyset}} \frac{(-1)^{|S|}}{2^k} \chi_S(x).$$

- (iv) **Decision trees.** Consider a decision tree T , e.g., Figure 2. For each leaf ℓ of T , let V_ℓ denote the set of indices of variables visited on the path from the root to leaf ℓ , and let $f_\ell : \{\pm 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ be defined by

$$f_\ell(x) = \prod_{i \in V_\ell} \frac{1 \pm x_i}{2} \quad (\text{"}\pm\text{" denotes a left turn or a right turn})$$

$$= \frac{1}{2^{|V_\ell|}} \sum_{S \subset V_\ell} (-1)^{\# \text{ left turns taken in } S} \chi_S.$$

Let $f : \{\pm 1\}^n \rightarrow \{\pm 1\}$ be defined by

$$f(x) = \sum_{\ell: \text{ leaf of } T} f_\ell(x) \text{val}(\ell).$$

Note that for each $x \in \{\pm 1\}^n$, exactly one of the values $f_\ell(x)$ is 1 for leaves ℓ of T , and all others are 0. Moreover, for each leaf ℓ of T , the number of variables on which f_ℓ depends is at most the depth of ℓ . By the linearity of the Fourier transform,

$$\hat{f}(S) = \sum_{\ell: \text{ leaf of } T} \hat{f}_\ell(S) \text{val}(\ell).$$

Therefore, $\hat{f}(S) = 0$ for all $S \subset [n]$ such that $|S|$ is greater than the depth of T .

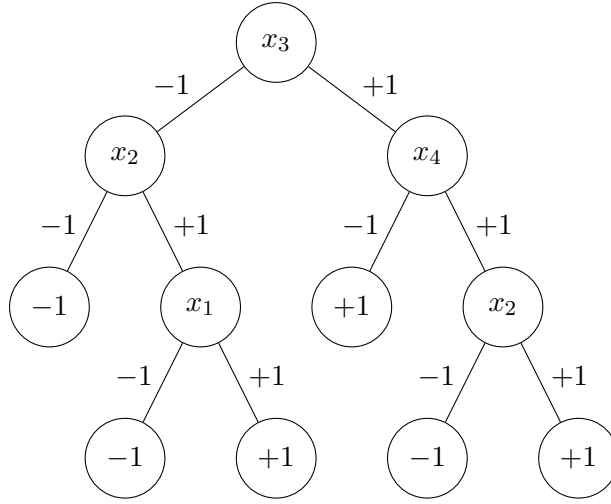


Figure 2: A decision tree.

- (v) **Constant depth circuits.** Recall that a Boolean circuit is a DAG whose vertices are gates which represent operations (e.g., \wedge, \vee, \neg), constants $(1, 0)$ and variables (x_1, \dots, x_n) . We allow each operation to have an unbounded number of inputs; the \neg gate can have only one input. Can we compute the parity (XOR) of n bits in a constant depth with a polynomial-size input for each operation? The answer is “no,” which follows from the switching lemma by Furst, Saxe and Sipser.

Theorem 7 (Hastad, Linial, Mansour and Nisan). *For any function f computable via a size- s depth- d circuit,*

$$\sum_{\substack{S \subset [n] \\ |S| > t}} \hat{f}(S)^2 \leq \alpha,$$

where $t = O(\log(s/\alpha))^{d-1}$.

Taking $s = \text{poly}(n)$, $d = O(1)$ and $\alpha = O(\varepsilon)$ implies $t = O(\log^d(n/\varepsilon))$. Therefore, the low degree algorithm gives an $n^{O(\log^d(n/\varepsilon))}$ sample algorithm for learning.

(vi) **Learning half-spaces.**

Definition 8. For $w \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$, the function $h : \{\pm 1\}^n \rightarrow \{\pm 1\}$ defined by $h(x) = \text{sign}(w \cdot x - \theta)$ is called a *half-space function*.

Theorem 9. A half-space function $h : \{\pm 1\}^n \rightarrow \{\pm 1\}$ has Fourier concentration $\alpha(\varepsilon) = c/\varepsilon^2$ for some constant c .

Corollary 10. The low degree algorithm learns half-spaces with $n^{O(1/\varepsilon^2)}$ samples.

4.3 Noise Sensitivity

Definition 11. For $\varepsilon \in (0, 1/2)$, the *noise operator* $N_\varepsilon(x)$ randomly flips each bit of x with probability ε , given $x \in \{\pm 1\}^n$.

Definition 12. The *noise sensitivity* of a Boolean function $f : \{\pm 1\}^n \rightarrow \{\pm 1\}$ is defined to be

$$\text{NS}_\varepsilon(f) = \mathbb{P}_{\substack{x \in \{\pm 1\}^n \\ \text{noise}}} [f(x) \neq f(N_\varepsilon(x))].$$

Following are examples of the noise sensitivity of a Boolean function.

- (i) If $f(x) = x_1$, then $\text{NS}_\varepsilon(f) = \varepsilon$.
- (ii) If $f(x) = x_1 \cdots x_k$, then

$$\begin{aligned} \text{NS}_\varepsilon(f) &= \mathbb{P}[f(x) = \text{F}, f(N_\varepsilon(x)) = \text{T}] + \mathbb{P}[f(x) = \text{T}, f(N_\varepsilon(x)) = \text{F}] \\ &= 2 \mathbb{P}[f(x) = \text{T}, f(N_\varepsilon(x)) = \text{F}] \\ &= 2 \cdot \frac{1}{2^k} \cdot (1 - (1 - \varepsilon)^k). \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, if $\varepsilon \ll 1/k$, then $\text{NS}_\varepsilon(f) \approx \varepsilon k / 2^{k-1}$; if $\varepsilon \gg 1/k$, then $\text{NS}_\varepsilon(f) \approx (1 - e^{-\varepsilon k}) / 2^{k-1}$.

- (iii) If $f(x) = \text{Maj}(x_1, \dots, x_n)$, then $\text{NS}_\varepsilon(f) = O(\sqrt{\varepsilon})$.

To see this, note that $\text{Maj}(x)$ corresponds to a random walk on a line starting at 0, and that the location corresponds to the sum of the x_i 's so far.

Fact 13. If $X_1, \dots, X_n \in \{\pm 1\}$ are i.i.d random variables, then $\mathbb{E}[|X_1 + \dots + X_n|] = \sqrt{n}$, and (informally) $|X_1 + \dots + X_n|$ is likely to be close to \sqrt{n} .

Therefore, $N_\varepsilon(x)$ corresponds to a random walk on εn bits, where each flip displaces by ± 2 . By Fact 13, the expected displacement is $2\sqrt{\varepsilon n}$.

Given $x \in \{\pm 1\}^n$, we consider the following process:

1. Talk a walk specified by x .
2. Continue the walk according to $2N_\varepsilon(x)$.

Pretend that the first walk leaves us at \sqrt{n} . By Markov's inequality,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P}[\text{the second walk takes us across 0}] &= \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{P}[\text{the second displacement is greater than } \sqrt{n}] \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{\mathbb{E}[\text{the second displacement}]}{\sqrt{n}} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{2\sqrt{\varepsilon n}}{\sqrt{n}} = \sqrt{\varepsilon}. \end{aligned}$$

(iv) **Linear threshold functions (half-spaces).**

Theorem 14. *If f is a linear threshold function (i.e., a half-space), then $\text{NS}_\varepsilon(f) < 8.8\sqrt{\varepsilon}$.*

(v) **Parity functions.**

Proposition 15. *Let $S \subset [n]$ be such that $|S| = k$. Then*

$$\text{NS}_\varepsilon(\chi_S) = \frac{1 - (1 - 2\varepsilon)^k}{2}.$$

(vi) **Any function.**

Theorem 16. *For any $f : \{\pm 1\}^n \rightarrow \{\pm 1\}$,*

$$\text{NS}_\varepsilon(f) = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{S \subset [n]} (1 - 2\varepsilon)^{|S|} \hat{f}(S)^2.$$

The proof of Theorem 16 is in homework.

Next, we show the relation between noise sensitivity and Fourier concentration.

Theorem 17. *For any $f : \{\pm 1\}^n \rightarrow \{\pm 1\}$ and $\gamma \in (0, 1/2)$,*

$$\sum_{\substack{S \subset [n] \\ |S| \geq \frac{1}{\gamma}}} \hat{f}(S)^2 < 2.32 \text{NS}_\gamma(f).$$

Proof. We have

$$\begin{aligned} 2 \text{NS}_\gamma(f) &= 1 - \sum_{S \subset [n]} (1 - 2\gamma)^{|S|} \hat{f}(S)^2 && \text{(Theorem 16)} \\ &= \sum_{S \subset [n]} \left(\hat{f}(S)^2 - (1 - 2\gamma)^{|S|} \hat{f}(S)^2 \right) && \text{(Boolean Parseval's identity)} \\ &= \sum_{S \subset [n]} \left(1 - (1 - 2\gamma)^{|S|} \right) \hat{f}(S)^2 \\ &\geq \sum_{\substack{S \subset [n] \\ |S| \geq \frac{1}{\gamma}}} \left(1 - (1 - 2\gamma)^{\frac{1}{\gamma}} \right) \hat{f}(S)^2 \\ &> \sum_{\substack{S \subset [n] \\ |S| \geq \frac{1}{\gamma}}} (1 - e^{-2}) \hat{f}(S)^2. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\sum_{\substack{S \subset [n] \\ |S| \geq \frac{1}{\gamma}}} \hat{f}(S)^2 \leq \text{NS}_\gamma(f) \left(\frac{1}{1 - e^{-2}} \right) < 2.32 \text{NS}_\gamma(f).$$

This completes the proof. □

Corollary 18. For any half-space $h : \{\pm 1\}^n \rightarrow \{\pm 1\}$,

$$\sum_{\substack{S \subset [n] \\ |S| \geq O(1/\varepsilon^2)}} \hat{f}(S)^2 \leq \varepsilon.$$

Therefore, one can learn any half-space from $n^{O(1/\varepsilon^2)}$ random examples.

Corollary 19. Any function of k half-spaces can be learned with $n^{O(k^2/\varepsilon^2)}$ samples.

4.4 Learning Heavy Fourier Coefficients

Given $\theta > 0$ and black box access to $f : \{\pm 1\}^n \rightarrow \{\pm 1\}$, we want to

- (i) output all coefficients $S \subset [n]$ such that $|\hat{f}(S)| \geq \theta$;
- (ii) only output coefficients $S \subset [n]$ such that $|\hat{f}(S)| \geq \theta/2$.

The main idea is *exhaustive search with good pruning*. The search tree consists of n levels, each representing a variable x_i for $i \in [n]$. For each level $i \in [n]$, going left means $x_i \in S$, and going right means $x_i \notin S$. Informally, we only go down paths with lots of “weights,” and we output leaves reached at the bottom level.

Fix $k \in \{0, \dots, n\}$ representing the current level of search. Fix $S_1 \subset [k]$ representing the current node of search. Let $f_{k,S_1} : \{\pm 1\}^{n-k} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be defined by

$$f_{k,S_1}(x) = \sum_{T \subset \{k+1, \dots, n\}} \hat{f}(S_1 \cup T) \chi_T(x).$$

Note that we could replace χ_{T_2} with $\chi_{S_1 \cup T_2} = \chi_{S_1} \cdot \chi_{T_2}$, but χ_{S_1} remains the same. If $k = 0$, then

$$f_{0,\emptyset}(x) = \sum_{T_2 \subset [n]} \hat{f}(T_2) \chi_{T_2}(x) = f(x).$$

On the other hand, if $k = n$, then for any $S_1 \subset [n]$,

$$f(n, S_1)(x) = \sum_{T_2 \subset \emptyset} \hat{f}(S_1 \cup T_2) \chi_{T_2}(x) = \hat{f}(S_1).$$

The plan is to only go down paths with $\mathbb{E}[f_{k,S_1}(x)^2] \geq \theta^2$. There are several questions to answer:

- (i) Can we compute it?
- (ii) Does it bring us to right leaves? In other words, do we get to all heavy leaves, and do we get to junks (i.e., light leaves)?
- (iii) How many paths do we take? In other words, are there a lot of dead ends, and is the running time good?

First, we show that there are not too many paths.

Lemma 20. Let $f : \{\pm 1\}^n \rightarrow \{\pm 1\}$.

- (i) At most $1/\theta^2$ sets $S \subset [n]$ satisfy $|\hat{f}(S)| \geq \theta$.
- (ii) For all $k \in \{0, \dots, n\}$, at most $1/\theta^2$ functions f_{k,S_1} have $\mathbb{E}_{x \in \{\pm 1\}^{n-k}}[f_{k,S_1}(x)^2] \geq \theta^2$.

Lemma 20 implies that our algorithm explores at most $O(1/\theta^2)$ nodes of the search tree.

Proof. (i) By the Boolean Parseval's identity,

$$1 = \mathbb{E}_{x \in \{\pm 1\}^n} [f(x)^2] = \sum_{S \subset [n]} \hat{f}(S)^2.$$

Therefore, if more than $1/\theta^2$ sets $S \subset [n]$ had $|\hat{f}(S)| \geq \theta$, then

$$\sum_{S \subset [n]} \hat{f}(S)^2 > \frac{1}{\theta} \cdot \theta^2 = 1,$$

a contradiction.

(ii) Let $k \in \{0, \dots, n\}$. First, we claim that for all $S_1 \subset [k]$,

$$\mathbb{E}_{x \in \{\pm 1\}^{n-k}} [f_{k,S_1}(x)^2] = \sum_{T_2 \subset \{k+1, \dots, n\}} \hat{f}(S_1 \cup T_2)^2.$$

To see this, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}_{x \in \{\pm 1\}^{n-k}} [f_{k,S_1}(x)^2] &= \mathbb{E}_{x \in \{\pm 1\}^{n-k}} \left[\left(\sum_{T_2 \subset \{k+1, \dots, n\}} \hat{f}(S_1 \cup T_2) \chi_{T_2}(x) \right)^2 \right] \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{x \in \{\pm 1\}^{n-k}} \left[\sum_{T_2, T'_2 \subset \{k+1, \dots, n\}} \hat{f}(S_1 \cup T_2) \hat{f}(S_1 \cup T'_2) \chi_{T_2}(x) \chi_{T'_2}(x) \right] \\ &= \sum_{T_2, T'_2 \subset \{k+1, \dots, n\}} \hat{f}(S_1 \cup T_2) \hat{f}(S_1 \cup T'_2) \mathbb{E}_{x \in \{\pm 1\}^{n-k}} [\chi_{T_2}(x) \chi_{T'_2}(x)]. \end{aligned}$$

Note that

$$\mathbb{E}_{x \in \{\pm 1\}^{n-k}} [\chi_{T_2}(x) \chi_{T'_2}(x)] = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } T_2 \neq T'_2, \\ 1, & \text{if } T_2 = T'_2. \end{cases}$$

Therefore,

$$\mathbb{E}_{x \in \{\pm 1\}^{n-k}} [f_{k,S_1}(x)^2] = \sum_{T_2 \subset \{k+1, \dots, n\}} \hat{f}(S_1 \cup T_2)^2.$$

This proves the claim.

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} 1 &= \sum_{S \subset [n]} \hat{f}(S)^2 && \text{(Boolean Parseval's identity)} \\ &= \sum_{S_1 \subset [k]} \sum_{T_2 \subset \{k+1, \dots, n\}} \hat{f}(S_1 \cup T_2)^2 \\ &= \sum_{S_1 \subset [k]} \mathbb{E}_{x \in \{\pm 1\}^{n-k}} [f_{k,S_1}(x)^2] && \text{(above claim)} \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, at most $1/\theta^2$ sets $S_1 \subset [k]$ have $\mathbb{E}_{x \in \{\pm 1\}^{n-k}} [f_{k,S_1}(x)^2] \geq \theta^2$. □