

Higher-Order Fourier Analysis: Applications to Algebraic Property Testing

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Decision Problems

- Function $f : \mathbb{F}_2^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$.
- Function property \mathcal{P} .
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Property testing

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$f : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ is ϵ -far from \mathcal{P} if,

$$d_{\mathcal{P}}(f) := \min_{g \in \mathcal{P}} \frac{\#\{x \in \{0, 1\}^n \mid f(x) \neq g(x)\}}{2^n} \geq \epsilon.$$

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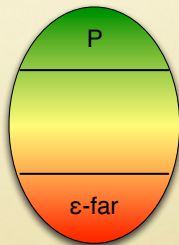
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A *tester* for a property \mathcal{P} :

Given

- $f : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$
as a query access.
- proximity parameter $\epsilon > 0$.



Accept w.p. 2/3

Reject w.p. 2/3

Testing $f \equiv 1$

Input: a function $f : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ and $\epsilon > 0$.

Goal: $f(x) = 1$ for every $x \in \{0, 1\}^n$?

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- Query complexity is $O(1/\epsilon) \Rightarrow$ *constant!*

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Property testing was introduced by [RS96] for program checking.

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Q. Why do we study property testing?

A. Interested in

- ultra-efficient algorithms.
- connections to inapproximability, locally testable codes, and learning.
- the relation between local view and global property.

Local testability of affine-Invariant properties

Definition

\mathcal{P} is *affine-invariant* if a function $f : \mathbb{F}_2^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ satisfies \mathcal{P} , then $f \circ A$ satisfies \mathcal{P} for any bijective affine transformation $A : \mathbb{F}_2^n \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_2^n$.

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Definition

\mathcal{P} is *(locally) testable* if there is a tester for \mathcal{P} with $q(\epsilon)$ queries.

Local testability of affine-Invariant properties

Some specific locally testable affine-invariant properties:

- Degree- d polynomials [AKK⁺05, BKS⁺10]
- Fourier sparsity [GOS⁺11]
- Odd-cycle-freeness: There exist no $x_1, \dots, x_{2k+1} \in \mathbb{F}_2^n$ such that $f(x_1) = \dots = f(x_{2k+1}) = 1$ and $x_1 + \dots + x_{2k+1} \equiv 0$ [BGRS12].

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In this talk, we review how we have attacked this question.

- One-sided error testable \approx Affine-subspace hereditary
- Testable \Leftrightarrow Estimable
- Two-sided error testable \Leftrightarrow Regular-reducible

Higher order Fourier analysis has played a crucial role!

Fourier analysis

For $S \subseteq [n]$, define $\chi_S : \mathbb{F}_2^n \rightarrow \{-1, 1\}$ as $\chi_S(x) = (-1)^{\sum_{i \in S} x_i}$.
 $\{\chi_S\}$ forms an orthonormal basis for functions: $\mathbb{F}_2^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$:

$$\mathbf{E}_x[\chi_S(x)\chi_T(x)] = \mathbf{E}_x[(-1)^{\sum_{i \in S \Delta T} x_i}] = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } S = T, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

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\Rightarrow A function $f : \mathbb{F}_2^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ can be uniquely decomposed as

$$f(x) = \sum_{S \subseteq [n]} \hat{f}(S)\chi_S(x),$$

where $\hat{f}(S) = \mathbf{E}_x[f(x)\chi_S(x)]$ measures the correlation of f with χ_S .
(*Fourier coefficients*)

Linearity testing

Input: a function $f : \mathbb{F}_2^n \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_2$ and $\epsilon > 0$.

Goal: $f(x) + f(y) \equiv f(x + y) \pmod{2}$ for every $x, y \in \mathbb{F}_2^n$?

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Theorem ([BLR93])

- If f is linear, always accepts. (one-sided error)
- If f is ϵ -far, rejects with probability at least $2/3$.
- Query complexity is $O(1/\epsilon)$

Observation

For any $S \subseteq [n]$, we have

$$\begin{aligned}\epsilon &\leq d_{\text{LIN}}(f) = \Pr[f(x) \neq \sum_{i \in S} x_i] = \Pr[(-1)^{f(x)} \neq \chi_S(x)] \\ &= \mathbf{E} \left[\frac{1 - (-1)^{f(x)} \chi_S(x)}{2} \right] = \frac{1 - \widehat{g}(S)}{2} \quad (g := (-1)^f).\end{aligned}$$

This fact can be used to analyze the rejection probability.

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Fourier analysis is

- powerful enough to study specific properties.
- not powerful enough to obtain general results.

Higher order Fourier analysis

We look at correlations with polynomials instead of linear functions.

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Main technical tools:

- *Decomposition theorem*
A function can be decomposed into a structured part + pseudorandom part (with respect to low-degree polynomials)
- *Equidistribution theorem*
“generic” polynomials look independently distributed.

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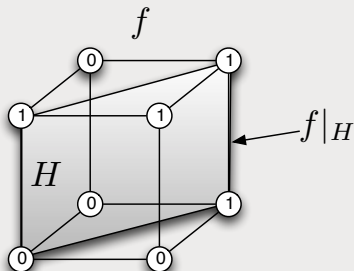
Caveat: In this talk, we do not touch most of technical foundations such as Gowers norm, rank, and bias.

Oblivious tester

Definition

An *oblivious tester* works as follows:

- Take a restriction $f|_H$.
 - H : random affine subspace of dimension $h(\epsilon)$.
- Output based only on $f|_H$.



Motivation: avoid “unnatural” properties such as $f \in \mathcal{P} \Leftrightarrow n$ is even. For natural properties, \exists a tester $\Rightarrow \exists$ an oblivious tester [BGS10].

Decomposition theorem

$\mu_{f,h}$: the distribution of $f|_H$.

Observation

A tester cannot distinguish f from g if $\mu_{f,h} \approx \mu_{g,h}$.

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Theorem (Decomposition theorem)

Any function can be *decomposed* as $f = f_1 + f_2 + f_3$ for $d = d(\epsilon, h)$:

- $f_1 = \Gamma(P_1, \dots, P_C)$ for “generic” degree- d polynomials $\{P_i\}$.
- f_2 : small L_2 norm.
- f_3 : uncorrelated with degree- d polynomials.

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The *pseudorandom parts* f_2 and f_3 do not affect $\mu_{f,h}$ much.

\Rightarrow we can focus on the *structured part* f_1 .

Decomposition theorem for Fourier analysis

Any function $f : \mathbb{F}_2 \rightarrow \{-1, 1\}$ can be decomposed as:

$$f = \sum_{S \subseteq [n]: |\hat{f}(S)| > \epsilon} \hat{f}(S) \chi_S(x) + \sum_{S \subseteq [n]: |\hat{f}(S)| \leq \epsilon} \hat{f}(S) \chi_S(x).$$

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 \Rightarrow the former depends only on $O(1/\epsilon^2)$ many linear functions.
- The latter has negligible Fourier coefficients.

One-sided error testable \approx
Affine-subspace hereditary

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Definition

A property \mathcal{P} is *affine-subspace hereditary* if $f \in \mathcal{P} \Rightarrow f|_H \in \mathcal{P}$ for any affine subspace H .

Ex.:

- degree- d polynomials, Fourier sparsity, odd-cycle-freeness
- $f = gh$ for some polynomials g, h of degree $\leq d - 1$.
- $f = g^2$ for some polynomial g of degree $\leq d - 1$.

Characterization of one-sided error testability

Conjecture ([BGS10])

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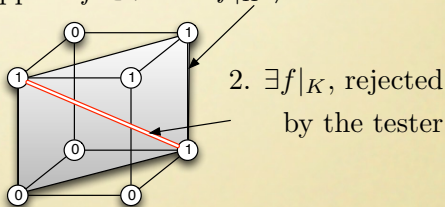
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Proof sketch:

1. Suppose $f \in \mathcal{P}$ and $f|_H \notin \mathcal{P}$



3. f is also rejected w.p. > 0 , contradiction.

Alternative formulation via linear forms

Think of *affine-triangle-freeness*:

No $x, y_1, y_2 \in \mathbb{F}_2^n$ s.t. $f(x + y_1) = f(x + y_2) = f(x + y_1 + y_2) = 1$.

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We call this $(A = (L_1, L_2, L_3), \sigma = (\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \sigma_3))$ -freeness.

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- A is called an *affine* system of *linear forms*.
 \Rightarrow well studied in higher order Fourier analysis.

Testability of subspace hereditary properties

Observation

The following are equivalent:

- \mathcal{P} is affine-subspace hereditary.
- There exists a (possibly infinite) collection $\{(A^1, \sigma^1), \dots\}$ s.t. $f \in \mathcal{P} \Leftrightarrow f$ is (A^i, σ^i) -free for each i .

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Theorem ([BFH⁺13])

*If each (A^i, σ^i) has **bounded complexity**, then the property is testable with one-sided error.*

Proof idea

Let's focus on the case $f = \Gamma(P_1, \dots, P_C)$ and $\mathcal{P} = \text{affine } \Delta\text{-freeness}$.

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$$\begin{aligned} & \Pr_{x, y_1, y_2} [f(x + y_1) = f(x + y_2) = f(x + y_1 + y_2) = 1] \\ & \geq \Pr_{x, y_1, y_2} [P_i(L_j(x, y_1, y_2)) = P_i(L_j(x^*, y_1^*, y_2^*)) \forall i \in [C], j \in [3]], \end{aligned}$$

which is non-negligibly high from the *equidistribution theorem*.

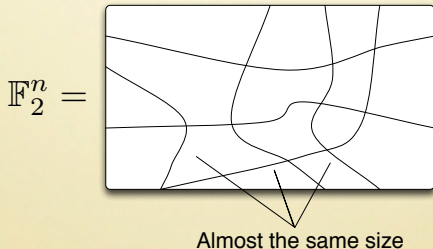
\Rightarrow Random sampling works.

Equidistribution theorem

The space \mathbb{F}_2^n can be divided according to $\{P_i(L_j(x))\}_{i \in [C], j \in [3]}$.

Theorem (Equidistribution theorem)

If each P_i is “generic” enough, then each cell has almost the same size.



Equidistribution theorem for Fourier analysis

Let $P_1, \dots, P_C : \mathbb{F}_2^n \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_2$ be linear functions. If $P_i(x)$ is of the form $\sum_{j \in S_i} x_j$, and $\mathbf{1}_{S_1}, \dots, \mathbf{1}_{S_C}$ are linearly independent, then for any $\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_C$,

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr_x[P_i(x) = \sigma_i \forall i \in [C]] &= \frac{\#\{x \in \mathbb{F}_2^n \mid \sum_{j \in S_i} x_j = \sigma_i \forall i \in [C]\}}{2^n} \\ &= 2^{-|C|}. \end{aligned}$$

\Rightarrow Equidistributed.

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Theorem ([HL13])

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Algorithm:

- 1: $H \leftarrow$ a random affine subspace of a constant dimension.
- 2: **return** Output $d_{\mathcal{P}}(f|_H)$.

Intuition behind the proof

Why can we hope $d_{\mathcal{P}}(f) \approx d_{\mathcal{P}}(f|_H)$?

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Why can we hope $d_{\mathcal{P}}(f) \approx d_{\mathcal{P}}(f|_H)$?

(Oversimplified argument)

- Since \mathcal{P} is testable, $d_{\mathcal{P}}(f)$ is determined by the distribution $\mu_{f,h}$.

Intuition behind the proof

Why can we hope $d_{\mathcal{P}}(f) \approx d_{\mathcal{P}}(f|_H)$?

(Oversimplified argument)

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- $f = \Gamma(P_1, \dots, P_C)$ and $f_H = \Gamma(P_1|_H, \dots, P_C|_H)$ share the same Γ and degrees.
 - $\Rightarrow \mu_{f,h} \approx \mu_{f|_H,h}$.
 - $\Rightarrow d_{\mathcal{P}}(f) \approx d_{\mathcal{P}}(f|_H)$.

Two-sided error testability \Leftrightarrow
Regular-reducibility

Structured part

Recall that, for $f = \Gamma(P_1, \dots, P_C) + f_2 + f_3$,

$\mu_{f,h}$ is determined by Γ and degrees of P_i 's.

Let's use them as a (constant-size) sketch of f .

Regularity-instance (simplified)

Definition

A *regularity-instance* I is a tuple of

- a structure function $\Gamma : \mathbb{F}_2^C \rightarrow [0, 1]$,
- a complexity parameter $C \in \mathbb{N}$,
- a degree-bound parameter $d \in \mathbb{N}$,
- a degree parameter $\mathbf{d} = (d_1, \dots, d_C) \in \mathbb{N}^C$ with $d_i < d$,

Satisfying a regularity-instance

Definition

Let $I = (\gamma, \Gamma, C, d, \mathbf{d})$ be a regularity-instance.
 f *satisfies* I if it is of the form

$$f(x) = \Gamma(P_1(x), \dots, P_C(x)) + \Upsilon(x),$$

where

- P_i is a polynomial of degree d_i ,
- P_1, \dots, P_C are “generic” enough.
- Υ is uncorrelated with degree- $(d - 1)$ polynomials.

Testing regularity-instances

Theorem ([Yos14a])

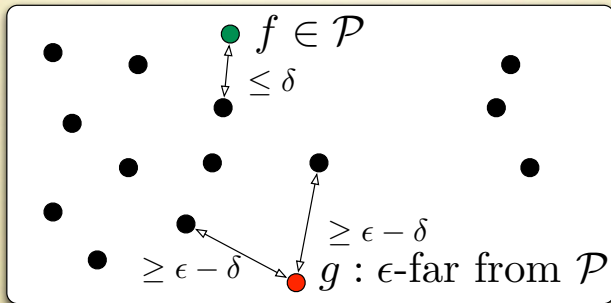
For any regularity-instance I , there is a tester for the property of satisfying I .

Algorithm:

- 1: $H \leftarrow$ a random affine subspace of a constant dimension.
- 2: **if** $f|_H$ is close to satisfying I **then** accept.
- 3: **else** reject.

Regular-reducibility

A property \mathcal{P} is *regular-reducible* if for any $\delta > 0$, there exists a set \mathcal{R} of constant number of regularity-instances such that:



Characterization of two-sided error testability

Theorem

An affine-invariant property \mathcal{P} is testable



\mathcal{P} is regular-reducible.

Characterization of two-sided error testability

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\mathcal{P} is regular-reducible.

Proof sketch:

- Regular-reducible \Rightarrow testable
Regularity-instances are testable, and testability implies estimability [HL13]. Hence, we can estimate the distance to \mathcal{R} .
- Testable \Rightarrow regular-reducible
The behavior of a tester depends only on $\mu_{f,h}$. Since Γ and \mathbf{d} determines the distribution, we can find \mathcal{R} using the tester.

Notes

- We need to deal with “non-classical” polynomials instead of polynomials.
- Another characterization of testability was shown by introducing “functions limits” [Yos14b].
- Applications of the characterizations:
 - Low-degree polynomials.
 - Having a low spectral norm $\sum_S |\hat{f}(S)|$.

Summary

Higher order Fourier analysis is useful for studying property testing as

- we care about the distribution $\mu_{f,h}$ for $h = O(1)$,
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Summary

Higher order Fourier analysis is useful for studying property testing as

- we care about the distribution $\mu_{f,h}$ for $h = O(1)$,
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We are almost done, *qualitatively*.

- one-sided error testability \approx affine-subspace hereditary (of bounded complexity)
- two-sided error testability \Leftrightarrow regular-reducibility.

Future direction

Property Testing

- Other groups:
 - Abelian \Rightarrow higher order Fourier analysis exists [Sze12].
 - Non-Abelian \Rightarrow representation theory? [OY16]
- Why is affine invariance easier to deal with than permutation invariance?

Other applications of higher order Fourier analysis.

- Coding theory [BG16, BL15a].
- Learning theory [BHT15].
- Complexity theory [BL15b].
- Algorithms for polynomials [Bha14].