## Lecture 26: Influences and Decision Trees

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## 1 Main Theorem

In this lecture, we will show an inequality relating decision tree complexity and influences. We work in the setting of the $p$-biased product distribution on $\{-1,1\}$. Recall:
Fact 1.1 Let $f:\{-1,1\}_{(p)}^{n} \rightarrow\{-1,1\}$. Then

$$
\operatorname{Var}[f]=\mathbf{E}\left[f^{2}\right]-\mathbf{E}[f]^{2}=4 \operatorname{Pr}[f=-1] \operatorname{Pr}[f=1]=2 \underset{\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \text { indep. }}{\operatorname{Pr}}[f(\boldsymbol{x}) \neq f(\boldsymbol{y})],
$$

which is 1 if $f$ is "balanced" under the p-biased distribution. Also,

$$
\operatorname{Inf}_{i}(f)=\underset{\boldsymbol{x}}{\mathbf{E}}\left[\operatorname{Var}_{\boldsymbol{x}_{i}}[f]\right]=2 \operatorname{Pr}_{\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x}^{(\sim i)}}\left[f(\boldsymbol{x}) \neq f\left(\boldsymbol{x}^{(\sim i)}\right)\right],
$$

where $\boldsymbol{x}^{(\sim i)}$ denotes $\boldsymbol{x}$ with the ith coordinate rerandomized (according to the p-biased distribution).

Since we've been considering random inputs throughout the course, let's see what this means for decisions trees.

Observation 1.2 ("The Decision Tree Observation") Let T be a deterministic decision tree (henceforth $D D T)$. The following method constructs a random input $\boldsymbol{x}$ distributed according to $\{-1,1\}_{(p)}^{n}$ :

1. Start at the root of T; say it queries coordinate $i_{1}$. Choose $\boldsymbol{x}_{i_{1}} \in\{-1,1\}_{(p)}$, and follow the branch according to this choice.
2. Suppose one is now at a node labeled $i_{2}$. Choose $\boldsymbol{x}_{i_{2}} \in\{-1,1\}_{(p)}$, and follow the branch according to this choice.
3. Repeat, until one comes to a leaf. At this point, some $\boldsymbol{x}_{i_{1}}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{x}_{i_{t}}$ have been fixed. Now choose values independently and randomly from $\{-1,1\}_{(p)}$ for all unfixed coordinates.
NB: As always, we assume that DDTs never query the same coordinate more than once on any path.
Definition 1.3 Let $T$ be a DDT. We define:

$$
\delta_{i}^{(p)}(T)=\operatorname{Pr}_{p \text {-biased }}[T \text { queries ith coord. }]
$$

$$
\Delta^{(p)}(T)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \delta_{i}=\underset{p \text {-biased }}{\mathbf{E}}[\# \text { of coords queried }]=\underset{p \text {-biased }}{\mathbf{E}}[\text { depth of path } T \text { follows }] .
$$

The following is a nice exercise:
Proposition 1.4 $\Delta^{(p)}(T) \leq\left(\log _{2} \operatorname{size}(T)\right) / H(p)$, where $H(p)$ denotes the binary entropy of $p$ (which is 1 if $p=1 / 2$ ).

Definition 1.5 The $p$-biased average-case DT complexity of $f$ is

$$
\Delta^{(p)}(f)=\min \left\{\Delta^{(p)}(T): T \text { is a DDT computing } f\right\} .
$$

Note that

$$
\Delta^{(p)}(f) \leq R(f) \leq D(f),
$$

where

$$
\begin{aligned}
D(f) & =\min \{\operatorname{depth}(T): T \text { is a DDT computing } f\}, \\
R(f) & =\min \{\operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{T}): T \text { is an } R D T \text { computing } f\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Here an RDT (randomized decision tree) $\mathcal{T}$ computing $f$ is a probability distribution over DDTs computing $f$ (i.e., a "zero-error" randomized DT), and

$$
\operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{T})=\max _{x \in\{-1,1\}^{n}} \underset{\mathcal{T} \text { 's s randomness }}{\operatorname{avg}}[\# \text { coords queried }] .
$$

The main theorem for this lecture is:
Theorem 1.6 Let $f:\{-1,1\}_{(p)}^{n} \rightarrow\{-1,1\}$ and let $T$ be a DDT computing $f$. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Var}[f] \leq \sum_{i=1}^{n} \delta_{i}^{(p)}(T) \cdot \operatorname{Inf}_{i}(f) \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

In words: "The expected sum of influences experienced along a random path is at least the variance."

## 2 Interpretations

1. Functions with efficient decision trees have influential variables. We have

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{n} \delta_{i}^{(p)}(T) \cdot \operatorname{Inf}_{i}(f) \leq\left(\max _{i} \operatorname{Inf}_{i}(f)\right) \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{n} \delta_{i}^{(p)}(T)=\left(\max _{i} \operatorname{Inf}_{i}(f)\right) \cdot \Delta^{(p)}(T)
$$

Hence:

## Corollary 2.1

$$
\begin{equation*}
\exists i \text { s.t. } \operatorname{Inf}_{i}(f) \geq \operatorname{Var}[f] / \Delta^{(p)}(f) \quad(\geq \operatorname{Var}[f] / R(f) \geq \operatorname{Var}[f] / D(f)) . \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

E.g., if $f$ is balanced and has a DDT of depth $d$, then there exists $i$ with $\operatorname{Inf}_{i}(f) \geq 1 / d$.

In particular, (2) is better than KKL for any function $f$ with average-case DT complexity $o\left(\frac{n}{\log n}\right)$.

This interpretation may be of interest for learning theory. Many popular, practical machine learning algorithms ("CART", "C4.5") try to build a DT hypothesis as follows: (a) Identify a "very relevant" or "very influential" variable. (b) Put this at the root of a DDT. (c) Recurse on the two possible restrictions. There isn't a lot of theoretical justification for this, and indeed most PACstyle learning algorithms for DTs don't do this. This result at least shows that the idea is not completely broken: If there is, say, a depth- $d$ DDT computing the function $f$, then there will at least exist some variable with influence at least $\operatorname{Var}[f] / d$.

This interpretation is also of interest for the study of threshold phenomena:
Corollary 2.2 Let $f:\{-1,1\}^{n} \rightarrow\{-1,1\}$ be any nonconstant transitive (weakly symmetric) monotone function (e.g., a monotone graph property). Let $p_{c}$ be the critical probability for $f$. Then:

$$
\mathbb{I}^{\left(p_{c}\right)}(f) \geq n / \Delta^{\left(p_{c}\right)}(f) ;
$$

hence $f$ has a sharp threshold if its $p_{c}$-biased average DT complexity is $o(n)$.
Proof: By definition, $\operatorname{Var}[f]=1$ at the critical probability; also, since $f$ is transitive all its influences are the same, $\mathbb{I}^{\left(p_{c}\right)}(f) / n$.
2. Functions with all influence small require complex decision trees. There is a lot of work in complexity theory on proving lower bounds for randomized decision trees. We will talk about this later in Section 5.

## 3 Proof of Theorem 1.6

Actually, the proof requires no Fourier analysis! It only requires probabilistic reasoning.
Let $f:\{-1,1\}_{(p)}^{n} \rightarrow\{-1,1\}$, and let $T$ be a DDT for $f$.
Let $\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}$ be independent random inputs. Think of $\boldsymbol{x}$ as being chosen via The Decision Tree Observation, but think of $\boldsymbol{y}$ as just a bank of random $p$-biased bits.

Let $\boldsymbol{i}_{1}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{i}_{\boldsymbol{d}}$ be the coordinates $T$ queries on $\boldsymbol{x}$, in order. Note that here $\boldsymbol{d}$ is also a random variable. For all $j>\boldsymbol{d}$, define $\boldsymbol{i}_{j}=\perp$.

For $0 \leq t \leq d$, define the hybrid input $\boldsymbol{z}_{t}$ to be the input that is mostly $\boldsymbol{y}$, except that coordinates $\boldsymbol{i}_{t+1}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{i}_{\boldsymbol{d}}$ have $\boldsymbol{x}$ 's values substituted in.

We have that $\boldsymbol{z}_{0}$ is the string that agrees with $\boldsymbol{x}$ on the bits in the path $T$ follows on $\boldsymbol{x}$, but agrees with $\boldsymbol{y}$ on the remaining bits "chosen after $T$ completes its path on $\boldsymbol{x}$ ". We have that $f\left(\boldsymbol{z}_{0}\right)=f(\boldsymbol{x})$, since $T$ computes $f$.

Also, we have $\boldsymbol{z}_{\boldsymbol{d}}=\boldsymbol{y}$, and hence $f\left(\boldsymbol{z}_{\boldsymbol{d}}\right)=f(\boldsymbol{y})$.

Thus:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Var}[f]=2 \underset{\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}}{\operatorname{Pr}}[f(\boldsymbol{x}) \neq f(\boldsymbol{y})] & =\underset{\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}}{\mathbf{E}}[|f(\boldsymbol{x})-f(\boldsymbol{y})|] \\
& =\mathbf{E}\left[\left|f\left(\boldsymbol{z}_{0}\right)-f\left(\boldsymbol{z}_{\boldsymbol{d}}\right)\right|\right] \\
& \leq \mathbf{E}\left[\sum_{t \geq 1}\left|f\left(\boldsymbol{z}_{t-1}\right)-f\left(\boldsymbol{z}_{t}\right)\right|\right] \quad \text { (for } t \geq \boldsymbol{d}, \text { the summand is } 0 \text { ) } \\
& =\sum_{t \geq 1} \mathbf{E}\left[\left|f\left(\boldsymbol{z}_{t-1}\right)-f\left(\boldsymbol{z}_{t}\right)\right|\right] .
\end{aligned}
$$

For each $t$, we condition on the value of $\boldsymbol{i}_{t}$. This can be one of $n+1$ values: $1,2, \ldots, n, \perp$. However,

$$
\boldsymbol{i}_{t}=\perp \quad \Rightarrow \quad t>\boldsymbol{d} \Rightarrow \boldsymbol{z}_{t-1}=\boldsymbol{z}_{t}=\boldsymbol{y} \quad \Rightarrow \quad\left|f\left(\boldsymbol{z}_{t-1}\right)-f\left(\boldsymbol{z}_{t}\right)\right|=0
$$

Thus we may disregard the $\boldsymbol{i}_{t}=\perp$ possibility and write

$$
\sum_{t \geq 1} \mathbf{E}\left[\left|f\left(\boldsymbol{z}_{t-1}\right)-f\left(\boldsymbol{z}_{t}\right)\right|\right]=\sum_{t \geq 1} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \operatorname{Pr}\left[\boldsymbol{i}_{t}=j\right] \mathbf{E}\left[\left|f\left(\boldsymbol{z}_{t-1}\right)-f\left(\boldsymbol{z}_{t}\right)\right| \mid \boldsymbol{i}_{t}=j\right] .
$$

We now come to the only subtle point in the proof:
Claim 3.1 Fix $t \geq 1$ and $j \in[n]$. Conditioned on $\boldsymbol{i}_{t}=j$, the distribution $\left(\boldsymbol{z}_{t-1}, \boldsymbol{z}_{t}\right)$ is the same as the distribution $\left(\boldsymbol{w}, \boldsymbol{w}^{(\sim i)}\right)$, where $\boldsymbol{w}$ is random and $\boldsymbol{w}^{(\sim i)}$ is $\boldsymbol{w}$ with the jth coordinate rerandomized.

Proof: Certainly conditioning $\boldsymbol{i}_{t}=j$ imposes constraints on $\boldsymbol{x}_{\boldsymbol{i}_{1}}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{x}_{\boldsymbol{i}_{t-1}}$. But all values $\boldsymbol{x}_{\boldsymbol{i}_{t}}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{x}_{\boldsymbol{i}_{d}}$ are independent of these. And in $\boldsymbol{z}_{t-1}$, we have completely independent random bits for the non- $\boldsymbol{i}$ variables, and we also have completely independent random bits for coordinates $\boldsymbol{i}_{1}, \ldots \boldsymbol{i}_{t-1}$. Hence $\boldsymbol{z}_{t-1}$ is just distributed like a totally random string $\boldsymbol{w}$. And then $\boldsymbol{z}_{t}$ is formed just by rerandomizing the $\boldsymbol{i}_{t}$ coordinate; i.e., the $j$ coordinate.

We now conclude:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \sum_{t \geq 1} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \operatorname{Pr}\left[\boldsymbol{i}_{t}=j\right] \mathbf{E}\left[\left|f\left(\boldsymbol{z}_{t-1}\right)-f\left(\boldsymbol{z}_{t}\right)\right| \mid \boldsymbol{i}_{t}=j\right] \\
= & \sum_{t \geq 1} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \operatorname{Pr}\left[\boldsymbol{i}_{t}=j\right] \mathbf{E}\left[\left|f(\boldsymbol{w})-f\left(\boldsymbol{w}^{(\sim i)}\right)\right|\right] \\
= & \sum_{t \geq 1} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \operatorname{Pr}\left[\boldsymbol{i}_{t}=j\right] \cdot 2 \operatorname{Pr}\left[f(\boldsymbol{w}) \neq f\left(\boldsymbol{w}^{(\sim i)}\right)\right] \\
= & \sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{t \geq 1} \operatorname{Pr}\left[\boldsymbol{i}_{t}=j\right] \cdot \operatorname{Inf}_{j}(f) \\
= & \sum_{j=1}^{n} \operatorname{Inf}_{j}(f) \cdot \sum_{t \geq 1} \operatorname{Pr}\left[\boldsymbol{i}_{t}=j\right] \\
= & \sum_{j=1}^{n} \operatorname{Inf}_{j}(f) \delta_{j}^{(p)}(f)
\end{aligned}
$$

## 4 Tightness

The inequality can often be tight. To see some cases, note first that the entire proof has equalities, except at one point:

$$
\left|f\left(\boldsymbol{z}_{0}\right)-f\left(\boldsymbol{z}_{\boldsymbol{d}}\right)\right| \leq \sum_{t \geq 1}\left|f\left(\boldsymbol{z}_{t-1}\right)-f\left(\boldsymbol{z}_{t}\right)\right| .
$$

One case in which this inequality is tight is if the tree $T$ is read-once. This means that every coordinate in every node in $T$ is different. In this case, consider the smallest $t$ for which $f\left(\boldsymbol{z}_{t-1}\right) \neq$ $f\left(\boldsymbol{z}_{t}\right)$. First, this means that $\boldsymbol{y}_{\boldsymbol{i}_{t}} \neq \boldsymbol{x}_{\boldsymbol{i}_{t}}$. But now since $T$ is read-once, further changing the values on coordinates $\boldsymbol{i}_{t+1}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{i}_{\boldsymbol{d}}$ won't change the value of $f$, because these coordinates are not queried on the newly followed path.

Examples of read-once $T$ 's include the natural DDTs for AND, OR, and

$$
\operatorname{SEL}\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}\right)= \begin{cases}x_{2} & \text { if } \boldsymbol{x}_{1}=-1 \\ x_{3} & \text { if } x_{1}=1\end{cases}
$$

E.g., for SEL the main inequality reads $1 \leq 1 \cdot \frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2}$.

Once can also check that the inequality becomes tight for recursively read-once DDTs. Without making a formal definition, suppose that $f$ and $g$ have read-once DDT. Then there is a natural DDT for $f \otimes g$, which is not (in general) read-once, but which we call recursively read-once. Then the inequality becomes tight for $f \otimes g$ with that tree.

For example, the equality is tight for the function Tribes, with any one of the "natural" DDTs computing it.

## 5 Randomized Decision Tree lower bounds

On Homework \#4 (Problem \#6) we saw an upper bound on the sum of degree-1 Fourier coefficients in terms of decision tree complexity:
Theorem 5.1 Let $f:\{-1,1\}^{n} \rightarrow\{-1,1\}$ be computed by a depth-d DDT. Then $\sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{f}(i) \leq$ $\left(\sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}}+o(1)\right) \sqrt{d}$.
A nice exercise is to improve this to depend on $\Delta(f)$ rather than $D(f)$ (hint: use Cauchy-Schwarz on $\left.\mathbf{E}_{\boldsymbol{P}}\left[f(\boldsymbol{P}) \cdot\left(\sum_{i \in \boldsymbol{I}} x_{i}^{\boldsymbol{I}}\right)\right]\right)$ :

Theorem 5.2 Let $f:\{-1,1\}^{n} \rightarrow\{-1,1\}$. Then $\sum_{i=1}^{n} \tilde{f}(i) \leq \sqrt{\Delta(f)}$.
This is easily generalized to the $p$-biased case:
Theorem 5.3 Let $f:\{-1,1\}_{(p)}^{n} \rightarrow\{-1,1\}$. Then $\sum_{i=1}^{n} \tilde{f}(i) \leq \sqrt{\Delta^{(p)}(f)}$.
In particular, if $f$ is monotone, then we know that $\tilde{f}(i)=\operatorname{Inf}_{i}(f) /(2 \sqrt{p q})$. Hence:
Corollary 5.4 Let $f:\{-1,1\}_{(p)}^{n} \rightarrow\{-1,1\}$ be a monotone function. Then $\mathbb{I}^{(p)}(f) \leq 2 \sqrt{p q} \sqrt{\Delta^{(p)}(f)}$.
But we can now combine this with Corollary 2.2:

$$
n / \Delta^{\left(p_{c}\right)}(f) \leq \mathbb{I}^{\left(p_{c}\right)}(f) \leq 2 \sqrt{p q} \sqrt{\Delta^{\left(p_{c}\right)}(f)}
$$

and we get
Theorem 5.5 Let $f:\{-1,1\}^{n} \rightarrow\{-1,1\}$ be any nonconstant transitive (weakly symmetric) monotone function. Let $p_{c}$ be the critical probability for $f$. Then:

$$
\Delta^{\left(p_{c}\right)}(f) \geq \frac{n^{2 / 3}}{(4 p q)^{1 / 3}} .
$$

This is known to be essentially best possible:
Theorem 5.6 (Benjamini-Schramm-Wilson '05) There is a $\frac{1}{2}$-critical monotone transitive $f$ with $\Delta(f) \leq O\left(n^{2 / 3} \log n\right)$.

When $f$ is a monotone graph property on $v$ vertices, the situation is very interesting. First:
Conjecture 5.7 (Aanderaa-Karp-Rosenberg Conjecture '73) If $f$ is a monotone graph property on $v$ vertices, then $D(f)=\binom{v}{2}$.
Results:
$\geq v^{2} / 16$, by Rivest-Vuillemin-' 75 .
$\geq v^{2} / 9$, by Kleitman-Kwiatowski-' 80 .
$\geq\binom{ v}{2} / 2$ and $=\binom{v}{2}$ if $v$ is a prime power, by Kahn-Saks-Sturtevant-' 84 (uses topology and group theory!)
$=n$ in the bipartite case, by Yao-' 88 .

Conjecture 5.8 (Yao Conjecture '77) If $f$ is a monotone graph property on $v$ vertices, then $R(f) \geq$ $\Omega\left(v^{2}\right)$.

Results:
$\geq \Omega(v)$, by Yao-' 77 .
$\geq \Omega\left(v \log ^{1 / 12} v\right)$, by Yao-' 87 using "graph packing".
$\geq \Omega\left(v^{5 / 4}\right)$, by King-' 88 using more elaborate graph packing.
$\geq \Omega\left(v^{4 / 3}\right)=\Omega\left(n^{2 / 3}\right)$, by Hajnal-' 91 using more elaborate graph packing.
$\geq \Omega\left(v^{4 / 3} \log ^{1 / 3} v\right)$, by Chakrabarti-Khot-' 01 using more elaborate graph packing.
$\geq \min \left\{\Omega(v / p q), \Omega\left(v^{2} / \log v\right)\right\}$ by Friedgut-Wigderson-'02 using less elaborate graph packing and more probabilistic reasoning.
$\geq \Omega\left(v^{4 / 3} /(p q)^{1 / 3}\right)$ by our results from today, using no graph packing!
The last three results are all incomparable.
It is very strange that all of the graph packing arguments get stuck at roughly the same point: $n^{2 / 3}$ - the very point that you cannot beat if you only have a transitive function and not a graph property.

