Characterizing the Sample Complexity of Pure Private Learners*

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Abstract

Kasiviswanathan et al. (FOCS 2008) defined *private learning* as a combination of PAC learning and differential privacy. Informally, a private learner is applied to a collection of labeled individual information and outputs a hypothesis while preserving the privacy of each individual. Kasiviswanathan et al. left open the question of characterizing the sample complexity of private learners.

We give a combinatorial characterization of the sample size sufficient and necessary to learn a class of concepts under pure differential privacy. This characterization is analogous to the well known characterization of the sample complexity of non-private learning in terms of the VC dimension of the concept class. We introduce the notion of *probabilistic representation* of a concept class, and our new complexity measure RepDim corresponds to the size of the smallest probabilistic representation of the concept class.

We show that any private learning algorithm for a concept class \mathcal{C} with sample complexity m implies $\operatorname{RepDim}(\mathcal{C}) = O(m)$, and that there exists a private learning algorithm with sample complexity $m = O(\operatorname{RepDim}(\mathcal{C}))$. We further demonstrate that a similar characterization holds for the database size needed for computing a large class of optimization problems under pure differential privacy, and also for the well studied problem of private data release.

Keywords: Differential privacy, PAC learning, Sample complexity

1. Introduction

Motivated by the observation that learning generalizes many of the analyses applied to large collections of data, Kasiviswanathan et al. (2011) defined *private learning* as a combination of probably approximately correct (PAC) learning (Valiant, 1984) and differential privacy (Dwork et al., 2006). A PAC learner is given a collection of labeled examples (sampled according to an unknown probability distribution and labeled according to an unknown

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^{*.} A preliminary version of this paper appeared in ITCS'13 under the title "Characterizing the Sample Complexity of Private Learners". Subsequent works showed that the sample complexity of private learning can be quite different under approximate differential privacy, and we chose to change the title in order to reflect the fact that our characterization only applies to learners satisfying pure differential privacy. See discussion in Section 1.4

concept) and generalizes the labeled examples into a hypothesis h that should predict with high accuracy the labeling of fresh examples.

The privacy requirement is that the choice of h preserves differential privacy of sample points. Intuitively this means that this choice should not be significantly affected by any particular sample. Differential privacy is increasingly accepted as a standard for rigorous privacy, and recent research has shown that differentially private variants exists to many analyses. We refer the reader to the excellent surveys by Dwork and Roth (2014) and Vadhan (2016).

A natural problem is to characterize the *sample complexity* – the minimum number of examples necessary in order to identify a good hypothesis – as a function of the target class \mathcal{C} . This important measure determines the amount of data that must be collected before starting the analysis. Without privacy, it is well-known that the sample complexity of PAC learning is proportional to the Vapnik–Chervonenkis (VC) dimension of the class \mathcal{C} (Vapnik and Chervonenkis, 1971; Blumer et al., 1989; Ehrenfeucht et al., 1989).

In analogy to this characterization of the sample complexity of non-private PAC learners via the VC-dimension, we give a combinatorial characterization of the sample size sufficient and necessary for PAC learners satisfying pure differential privacy. Towards obtaining this characterization, we introduce the notion of *probabilistic representation* of a concept class. We note that our characterization, as the VC-dimension characterization, ignores the computation required by the learner. Some of our algorithms are, however, computationally efficient.

1.1. Related Work

In the initial work on private learning, Kasiviswanathan et al. (2011) proved that a private learner exists for every *finite* concept class. Their construction of is based on the exponential mechanism of McSherry and Talwar (2007), and exhibits a sample complexity logarithmic in $|\mathcal{C}|$. The VC dimension of a concept class \mathcal{C} is always at most $\log |\mathcal{C}|$, but is significantly lower for many interesting classes. Hence, the results of Kasiviswanathan et al. (2011) left open the possibility that the sample complexity of private learning may be significantly higher than that of non-private learning.

Consider the task of properly learning a concept class \mathcal{C} where, after consulting its sample, the learner outputs a hypothesis that is by itself in \mathcal{C} . While non-privately this restriction has no effect on the sample complexity, Beimel et al. (2014) showed that it can have a big impact for pure differentially private learners. Specifically, Beimel et al. proved lower bounds on the sample complexity of properly learning the class of point functions under pure differential privacy, implying that the VC dimension of a class does not characterize the sample complexity of pure private proper learning. On the other hand, they observed that the sample complexity can be improved for improper private learners whenever there exists a smaller hypothesis class \mathcal{H} that represents \mathcal{C} in the sense that for every concept $c \in \mathcal{C}$ and for every distribution on the examples, there is a hypothesis $h \in \mathcal{H}$ that is close to c. Using the exponential mechanism to choose among the hypotheses in \mathcal{H} instead of \mathcal{C} , the sample complexity is reduced to $\ln |\mathcal{H}|$ (this is why the size of the representation \mathcal{H} is defined to be $\ln |\mathcal{H}|$). For some classes this can dramatically improve the sample complexity, e.g., for the class of point functions, the sample complexity is improved from $O(\ln |\mathcal{C}|)$ to

 $O(\ln \ln |\mathcal{C}|)$. Using other techniques, Beimel et al. showed that the sample complexity of learning point functions can be reduced even further to O(1), hence showing the largest possible gap between proper and non proper private learning. Such a gap does not exists for non-private learning.

1.2. Our Results

Beimel et al. (2014) showed how to use a representation of a class to privately learn it. We make an additional step in improving the sample complexity by considering a probabilistic representation of a concept class \mathcal{C} . Instead of one collection \mathcal{H} representing \mathcal{C} , we consider a list of collections $\mathcal{H}_1, \ldots, \mathcal{H}_r$ such that for every $c \in \mathcal{C}$ and every distribution on the examples, if we sample a collection \mathcal{H}_i from the list, then with high probability there is a hypothesis $h \in \mathcal{H}_i$ that is close to c. To privately learn \mathcal{C} , the learning algorithm first samples $i \in \{1, \ldots, r\}$ and then uses the exponential mechanism to select a hypothesis from \mathcal{H}_i . This reduces the sample complexity to $O(\max_i \ln |\mathcal{H}_i|)$; the size of the probabilistic representation is hence defined to be $\max_i \ln |\mathcal{H}_i|$. We define the representation dimension (RepDim) of a class \mathcal{C} as the size of its smallest such probabilistic representation.

We show that for point functions there exists a probabilistic representation of size O(1). This results in a private learning algorithm with sample complexity O(1), matching a different algorithm of Beimel et al. (2014). Our new algorithm offers some improvement in the sample complexity compared to the algorithm of Beimel et al. (2014) when considering the learning and privacy parameters. Furthermore, our algorithm can be made computationally efficient without making any computational hardness assumptions, while the efficient version of Beimel et al. (2014) assumes the existence of one-way functions. Finally, it is conceptually simpler.

One can ask if there are private learning algorithms with smaller sample complexity than the size of the smallest probabilistic representation. We show that under pure differential privacy the answer is no — the size of the smallest probabilistic representation is a lower bound on the sample complexity. Thus, the size of the smallest probabilistic representation of a class \mathcal{C} , which we call the representation dimension and denote by RepDim(\mathcal{C}), characterizes (up to constants) the sample size necessary and sufficient for learning the class \mathcal{C} under pure differential privacy.

The notion of probabilistic representation applies not only to private learning, but also to optimization problems. We consider a scenario where there is a domain X, a database S of m records, each taken from the domain X, a set of solutions \mathcal{F} , and a quality function $q:X^*\times\mathcal{F}\to[0,1]$ that we wish to maximize. If the exponential mechanism is used for (approximately) solving the problem, then the size of the database should be $\Omega(\ln |\mathcal{F}|)$ in order to achieve a reasonable approximation. Using our notions of a representation of \mathcal{F} and of a probabilistic representation of \mathcal{F} , one can reduce the size of the minimal database without paying too much in the quality of the solution. Interestingly, a similar notion to representation, called "solution list algorithms", was considered by Beimel et al. (2008) for constructing secure protocols for search problems while leaking only a few bits on the input. Curiously, their notion of leakage is very different from that of differential privacy.

We give two examples of such optimization problems. First, an example inspired by Beimel et al. (2008): each record in the database is a clause with exactly 3 literals and we

want to find an assignment satisfying at least 7/8 fraction of the clauses while protecting the privacy of the clauses. A construction of Beimel et al. (2008) yields a deterministic representation for this problem where the size of the database can be much smaller. Using a probabilistic representation, we can give a good assignment even for databases of constant size. This example is a simple instance of a scenario, where each individual has a preference on the solution and we want to choose a solution maximizing the number of individuals whose preferences are met, while protecting the privacy of the preference. Another example of optimization is sanitization, where given a database we want to publish a synthetic database, which gives a similar utility as the original database while protecting the privacy of the individual records of the database. Using our techniques, we study the minimal database size for which sanitization gives reasonable performance with respect to a given family of queries.

1.3. Subsequent Work: Private Learning and Communication Complexity

Following our work, Feldman and Xiao (2015) showed an equivalence between RepDim(\mathcal{C}) and the randomized one-way communication complexity of the evaluation problem for concepts from \mathcal{C} . Using this equivalence, they separated the sample complexity of pure private learners from that of non-private ones, and showed that the sample complexity of pure private learners (proper or improper) can generally be much higher than what is required for non-private learning.

We next present a high level overview of the ideas of Feldman and Xiao (2015). Let \mathcal{C} be a concept class over a domain X, and consider the following communication problem: Alice holds a function $c \in \mathcal{C}$ and Bob holds an input $x \in X$. Together they want to compute c(x), where we can assume that the function c and the input x are sampled from some distribution μ (known to both Alice and Bob). The randomized one-way communication complexity of this problem is the length of the shortest message that Alice needs to send Bob to allow him to compute c(x) correctly (w.h.p. over the choice of c and x and over the shared randomness in the protocol).

To see how RepDim(\mathcal{C}) upper bounds the communication complexity, consider a list of collections $\mathcal{H}_1, \ldots, \mathcal{H}_r$ that probabilistically represents \mathcal{C} where RepDim(\mathcal{C}) = max_i ln $|\mathcal{H}_i|$. We can now use $\mathcal{H}_1, \ldots, \mathcal{H}_r$ to design a protocol as follows. Alice and Bob begin by using their shared randomness in order to sample a collection \mathcal{H}_i from the list. By the definition of probabilistic representation, with high probability there is a hypothesis $h \in \mathcal{H}_i$ that is close to the function c that Alice holds, in the sense that h(x') = c(x') w.h.p. over $x' \sim \mu | c$. Alice now identifies such a hypothesis h, and sends it to Bob, who computes h(x). Observe that specifying h requires sending $\log |\mathcal{H}_i| \leq \text{RepDim}(\mathcal{C})$ bits.

In the case of threshold functions over a domain X, computing c(x) is exactly the well-known "greater than" communication problem (where Alice holds $a \in X$ and Bob holds $b \in X$, and together they want to learn if a > b), for which a lower bound of $\Omega(\log |X|)$ is known (Miltersen et al., 1998). Hence, as RepDim characterizes the sample complexity of pure private learners, the sample complexity of every pure private (proper or improper) learner for the class of threshold functions over a domain X is at least $\Omega(\log |X|)$. This is a strong separation from the non-private sample complexity, which is O(1) as the VC dimension of this class is constant.

1.4. Subsequent Work: Sample Complexity of Approximate Private Learners

Beimel et al. (2013) showed that relaxing the privacy requirement from pure to approximate differential privacy can drastically reduce the sample complexity of private learners. In particular, they showed that threshold functions can be learned with approximate privacy using $2^{O(\log^*|X|)}$ examples, a dramatic improvement over the $\Omega(\log|X|)$ lower bound on the sample complexity of every pure private learner for this class (Feldman and Xiao, 2015). For point functions, they constructed an approximate private *proper* learner with constant sample complexity, again circumventing the lower bound of $\Omega(\log|X|)$ for pure private *proper* learners.

In light of these positive results on the sample complexity of approximate private learners, one might hope that the sample complexity of such learners is actually characterized by the VC dimension and is of the same order as that of non-private learning. However, this is not the case. First, Bun et al. (2015) showed that any approximate private proper learner for threshold functions over X must have sample complexity $\Omega(\log^*|X|)$. This result separated the sample complexity of approximate private proper learners from that of non-private ones, but left open the question of understanding the sample complexity of approximate private improper learners.

Recently, Alon et al. (2018) showed that a similar lower bound holds also for *improper* learners. This means that learning threshold functions over an infinite domain is impossible with approximate privacy. In fact, the negative result of Alon et al. (2018) holds for any concept class C with infinite Littlestone Dimension (Littlestone, 1987). Informally, the Littlestone Dimension of a concept class \mathcal{C} over a domain X, denoted $\operatorname{Ldim}(\mathcal{C})$, is the maximal depth of a complete binary tree such that each root-to-leaf path in the tree can be "explained" by some concept $c \in \mathcal{C}$. In more details, consider a complete binary tree T in which each node is labeled by a domain element $x \in X$. Every concept $c \in \mathcal{C}$ realizes a root-to-leaf path in the tree T, where from a node that is labeled by an element x we proceed to the left child if c(x) = 0 and proceed to the right child if c(x) = 1. The Littlestone Dimension of \mathcal{C} is the depth of the largest complete tree T such that every rootto-leaf path in T is realized by some concept $c \in \mathcal{C}$. Alon et al. (2018) showed that any approximate private learner (proper or improper) for a class \mathcal{C} must have sample complexity $\Omega(\log^*(\mathrm{Ldim}(\mathcal{C})))$. In particular, the class of thresholds over a domain X has Littlestone Dimension $\log |X|$, and hence, every approximate private learner for it requires $\Omega(\log^* |X|)$ examples.

We remark that the connection between the Littlestone Dimension and the sample complexity of private learners was first identified by Feldman and Xiao (2015) in the context of *pure* private learners. They showed that every *pure* private learner (proper or improper) for a class C must have sample complexity $\Omega(\operatorname{Ldim}(\mathcal{C}))$. Tables 1 summarizes the currently known bounds on the sample complexity of private learners.

1.5. Other Related Work

Chaudhuri and Hsu (2011) studied learning algorithms that are only required to protect the privacy of the labels (and do not necessarily protect the privacy of the examples themselves). They proved upper and lower bounds on the sample complexity of such algorithms. In particular, they proved a lower bound on the sample complexity using the doubling di-

| | Pure privacy | Approximate privacy |
|-------------------------------------|--|--|
| Generic bounds for properly | $O(\log \mathcal{C})$ | $O(\log \mathcal{C})$ |
| learning a class \mathcal{C} | $\Omega(\operatorname{Ldim}(\mathcal{C}))$ | $\Omega(\log^*(\operatorname{Ldim}(\mathcal{C})))$ |
| Generic bounds for improperly | $\Theta(\operatorname{RepDim}(\mathcal{C}))$ | $O(\operatorname{RepDim}(\mathcal{C}))$ |
| learning a class \mathcal{C} | $\Omega(\operatorname{Ldim}(\mathcal{C}))$ | $\Omega(\log^*(\mathrm{Ldim}(\mathcal{C})))$ |
| Properly Learning Points | $\Theta(\log X)$ | $\Theta(1)$ |
| over domain X | | |
| Improperly Learning Points | $\Theta(1)$ | $\Theta(1)$ |
| over domain X | | |
| Learning Thresholds over domain X | $\Theta(\log X)$ | $2^{O(\log^* X)}$ |
| (properly or improperly) | | $\Omega(\log^* X)$ |

Table 1: Bounds on the sample complexity of private learning.

mension of the disagreement metric of the hypothesis class with respect to the unlabeled data distribution. Following their results, Beimel et al. (2013) showed that the sample complexity of such learners is actually fully characterized by the VC dimension, and is of the same order as that of non-private learners.

Beimel et al. (2015) studied the labeled sample complexity of *semi-supervised* private learners, and showed that the sample complexity of such learners is also characterized by the VC dimension.

A line of research (started by Schapire (1990)) that is very relevant to our paper is boosting learning algorithms, that is, taking learning algorithms that have a big classification error and producing a learning algorithm with small error. Dwork et al. (2010) show how to privately boost accuracy, that is, given a *private* learning algorithms that have a big classification error, they produce a *private* learning algorithm with small error. In Lemma 18, we show how to boost the accuracy α for probabilistic representations. This gives an alternative private boosting, whose proof is simpler. However, as it uses the exponential mechanism, it is (generally) not computationally efficient.

1.6. Open Questions

Our understanding of the sample complexity of learning under approximate (ϵ, δ) -differential privacy is still very limited. On the one hand, there are currently no generic upper bounds on the sample complexity of approximate private learners that achieve a better sample complexity than the generic constructions for pure private learners. On the other hand, the only currently known lower bounds are the above mentioned bounds that scale with $\Omega(\log^*|X|)$. While $\log^*|X|$ is super constant, we would like to know whether there are cases in which the gap in the sample complexity (compared to the non-private sample complexity) is larger, say $\Omega(\log|X|)$. In addition, we consider the task of characterizing the sample complexity of approximate private learners to be an important question for future work.

2. Preliminaries

Notation. We use $O_{\gamma}(g(n))$ as a shorthand for $O(h(\gamma) \cdot g(n))$ for some non-negative function h. Given a set \mathcal{B} of cardinality r, and a distribution \mathcal{P} on $\{1, 2, \ldots, r\}$, we use the notation $b \in_{\mathcal{P}} \mathcal{B}$ to denote a random element of \mathcal{B} chosen according to \mathcal{P} .

2.1. Preliminaries from Privacy

A database is a vector $S = (z_1, \ldots, z_m)$ over a domain X, where each entry $z_i \in S$ represents information contributed by one individual. Databases S_1 and S_2 are called *neighboring* if they differ in exactly one entry. An algorithm preserves differential privacy if neighboring databases induce nearby outcome distributions. Formally,

Definition 1 (Dwork et al. (2006)) A randomized algorithm A is (ϵ, δ) -differentially private if for all neighboring databases S_1, S_2 , and for all sets \mathcal{F} of outputs,

$$\Pr[A(S_1) \in \mathcal{F}] \le \exp(\epsilon) \cdot \Pr[A(S_2) \in \mathcal{F}] + \delta.$$
 (1)

The probability is taken over the random coins of A. When $\delta = 0$ we omit it and say that A preserves ϵ -differential privacy.

We use the term *pure* differential privacy when $\delta = 0$ and the term *approximate* differential privacy when $\delta > 0$, in which case δ is typically a negligible function of the database size. The focus of this work is on pure differential privacy.

An immediate consequence of the definition of pure differential privacy is that for any two databases $S_1, S_2 \in X^m$, and for all sets \mathcal{F} of outputs,

$$\Pr[A(S_1) \in \mathcal{F}] \ge \exp(-\epsilon m) \cdot \Pr[A(S_2) \in \mathcal{F}].$$

2.2. Preliminaries from Learning Theory

Let $X_d = \{0,1\}^d$. A concept $c: X_d \to \{0,1\}$ is a function that labels examples taken from the domain X_d by either 0 or 1. A concept class \mathcal{C} over X_d is a class of concepts mapping X_d to $\{0,1\}$.

PAC learning algorithms are given examples sampled according to an unknown probability distribution \mathcal{D} over X_d , and labeled according to an unknown target concept $c \in \mathcal{C}$. The generalization error of a hypothesis $h: X_d \to \{0,1\}$ is defined as

$$\operatorname{error}_{\mathcal{D}}(c,h) = \Pr_{x \in_{\mathcal{D}} X_d}[h(x) \neq c(x)].$$

For a labeled sample $S = (x_i, y_i)_{i=1}^m$, the empirical error of h is

$$\operatorname{error}_{S}(h) = \frac{1}{m} |\{i : h(x_i) \neq y_i\}|.$$

Definition 2 An α -good hypothesis for c and \mathcal{D} is a hypothesis h such that $\operatorname{error}_{\mathcal{D}}(c,h) \leq \alpha$.

Definition 3 (Valiant (1984)) Algorithm A is an (α, β) -PAC learner for a concept class C over X_d using hypothesis class H and sample size m if for all concepts $c \in C$, all distributions D on X_d , given an input of m samples $S = (z_1, \ldots, z_m)$, where $z_i = (x_i, c(x_i))$ and x_i are drawn i.i.d. from D, algorithm A outputs a hypothesis $h \in H$ satisfying

$$\Pr[\operatorname{error}_{\mathcal{D}}(c,h) \leq \alpha] \geq 1 - \beta.$$

The probability is taken over the random choice of the examples in S according to \mathcal{D} and the coin tosses of the learner A.

Definition 4 An algorithm satisfying Definition 3 with $\mathcal{H} \subseteq \mathcal{C}$ is called a proper PAC learner; otherwise it is called an improper PAC learner.

2.3. Private Learning

As a private learner is a PAC learner, its outcome hypothesis should also be a good predictor of labels. Hence, the privacy requirement from a private learner is not that an application of the hypothesis h on a new sample (pertaining to an individual) should leak no information about the sample.

Definition 5 (Kasiviswanathan et al. (2011)) Let A be an algorithm that gets an input $S = (z_1, \ldots, z_m)$. Algorithm A is an $(\alpha, \beta, \epsilon)$ -PPAC learner for a concept class C over X_d using hypothesis class \mathcal{H} and sample size m if

PRIVACY. Algorithm A is ϵ -differentially private (as formulated in Definition 1);

UTILITY. Algorithm A is an (α, β) -PAC learner for C using \mathcal{H} and sample size m (as formulated in Definition 3).

2.4. The Exponential Mechanism

We next describe the exponential mechanism of McSherry and Talwar (2007). We present its private learning variant; however, it can be used in more general scenarios. The goal here is to choose a hypothesis $h \in \mathcal{H}$ approximately minimizing the empirical error. The choice is probabilistic, where the probability mass that is assigned to each hypothesis decreases exponentially with its empirical error.

Inputs: a privacy parameter ϵ , a hypothesis class \mathcal{H} , and m labeled samples $S = (x_i, y_i)_{i=1}^m$.

- 1. $\forall h \in \mathcal{H}$ define $q(S, h) = |\{i : h(x_i) = y_i\}|$.
- 2. Randomly choose $h \in \mathcal{H}$ with probability

$$\frac{\exp\left(\epsilon \cdot q(S,h)/2\right)}{\sum_{f \in \mathcal{H}} \exp\left(\epsilon \cdot q(S,f)/2\right)}.$$

Proposition 6 Denote $\hat{e} \triangleq \min_{f \in \mathcal{H}} \{ \operatorname{error}_S(f) \}$. The probability that the exponential mechanism outputs a hypothesis h such that $\operatorname{error}_S(h) > \hat{e} + \Delta$ is at most $|\mathcal{H}| \cdot \exp(-\epsilon \Delta m/2)$. Moreover, the exponential mechanism is ϵ differentially private.

2.5. Concentration Bounds

Let X_1, \ldots, X_n be independent random variables where $\Pr[X_i = 1] = p$ and $\Pr[X_i = 0] = 1 - p$ for some $0 . Clearly, <math>\mathbb{E}[\sum_i X_i] = pn$. Chernoff and Hoeffding bounds show that the sum is concentrated around this expected value:

$$\Pr\left[\sum_{i} X_{i} > (1+\delta)pn\right] \leq \exp\left(-pn\delta^{2}/3\right) \quad \text{for } \delta > 0,$$

$$\Pr\left[\sum_{i} X_{i} < (1-\delta)pn\right] \leq \exp\left(-pn\delta^{2}/2\right) \quad \text{for } 0 < \delta < 1,$$

$$\Pr\left[\left|\sum_{i} X_{i} - pn\right| > \delta\right] \leq 2\exp\left(-2\delta^{2}/n\right) \quad \text{for } \delta \geq 0.$$

The first two inequalities are known as the multiplicative Chernoff bounds (Chernoff, 1952), and the last inequality is known as the Hoeffding bound (Hoeffding, 1963).

3. The Representation Dimension

In this section we present a combinatorial measure of a concept class \mathcal{C} that characterizes the sample complexity necessary and sufficient for learning \mathcal{C} under pure differential privacy. The measure is a *probabilistic representation* of the class \mathcal{C} . We start with the notation of deterministic representation of Beimel et al. (2014).

Definition 7 (Beimel et al. (2014)) A hypothesis class \mathcal{H} is an α -representation for a class \mathcal{C} if for every $c \in \mathcal{C}$ and every distribution \mathcal{D} on X_d there exists a hypothesis $h \in \mathcal{H}$ such that $\operatorname{error}_{\mathcal{D}}(c,h) < \alpha$.

Example 1 (POINT_d) For $j \in X_d$, define $c_j : X_d \to \{0,1\}$ as $c_j(x) = 1$ if x = j, and $c_j(x) = 0$ otherwise. Define POINT_d = $\{c_j\}_{j \in X_d}$. Beimel et al. (2014) showed that for $\alpha < 1/2$, every α -representation for POINT_d must be of cardinality at least d, and that an α -representation \mathcal{H}_d for POINT_d exists where $|\mathcal{H}_d| = O(d/\alpha^2)$.

The above representation can be used for non-private learning, by taking a big enough sample and finding a hypothesis $h \in \mathcal{H}_d$ minimizing the empirical error. For *private* learning, Beimel et al. (2014) showed that a sample of size $O_{\alpha,\beta,\epsilon}(\log |\mathcal{H}_d|)$ suffices, with a learner that employs the exponential mechanism to choose a hypothesis from \mathcal{H}_d .

Definition 8 For a hypothesis class \mathcal{H} we denote $\operatorname{size}(\mathcal{H}) = \ln |\mathcal{H}|$. We define the Deterministic Representation Dimension of a concept class \mathcal{C} as

$$DRepDim(\mathcal{C}) = \min \Big\{ size(\mathcal{H}) : \mathcal{H} \text{ is a } \frac{1}{4}\text{-representation for } \mathcal{C} \Big\}.$$

Remark 9 Choosing $\frac{1}{4}$ is arbitrary; we could have chosen any (smaller than $\frac{1}{2}$) constant.

Example 2 By the results of Beimel et al. (2014), stated in the previous example, $DRepDim(POINT_d) = \theta(\ln(d))$.

We are now ready to present the notion of a probabilistic representation. The idea behind this notion is that we have a list of hypothesis classes, such that for every concept c and distribution \mathcal{D} , if we sample a hypothesis class from the list, then with high probability it contains a hypothesis that is close to c.

Definition 10 Let \mathcal{P} be a distribution over $\{1, 2, ..., r\}$, and let $\mathcal{H} = \{\mathcal{H}_1, \mathcal{H}_2, ..., \mathcal{H}_r\}$ be a family of hypothesis classes (every $\mathcal{H}_i \in \mathcal{H}$ is a set of boolean functions). We say that $(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{P})$ is an (α, β) -probabilistic representation for a class \mathcal{C} if for every $c \in \mathcal{C}$ and every distribution \mathcal{D} on X_d :

$$\Pr_{\mathcal{P}} \left[\exists h \in \mathcal{H}_i \ s.t. \ \text{error}_{\mathcal{D}}(c, h) \le \alpha \right] \ge 1 - \beta.$$

The probability is over randomly choosing a set $\mathcal{H}_i \in_{\mathcal{P}} \mathscr{H}$.

Remark 11 As we will see in Section 4, the existence of such a probabilistic representation $(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{P})$ for a concept class \mathcal{C} implies the existence of a private learning algorithm for \mathcal{C} with sample complexity that depends on the cardinality of the hypothesis classes $\mathcal{H}_i \in \mathcal{H}$. The sample complexity will not depend on $r = |\mathcal{H}|$. Nevertheless, there always exists a probabilistic representation in which r is bounded (see Appendix 7 for more details).

Example 3 (POINT_d) In Section 7 we construct for every α and every β a pair $(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{P})$ that (α, β) -probabilistically represents the class POINT_d, where \mathcal{H} contains all the sets of at most $\frac{4}{\alpha} \ln(1/\beta)$ boolean functions.

Definition 12 Let $\mathcal{H} = \{\mathcal{H}_1, \mathcal{H}_2, \dots, \mathcal{H}_r\}$ be a family of hypothesis classes. We denote $|\mathcal{H}| = r$, and $\operatorname{size}(\mathcal{H}) = \max\{\ln |\mathcal{H}_i| : \mathcal{H}_i \in \mathcal{H}\}$. We define the Representation Dimension of a concept class \mathcal{C} as

$$\operatorname{RepDim}(\mathcal{C}) = \min \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \exists \mathcal{P} \ s.t. \ (\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{P}) \ is \ a \\ \operatorname{size}(\mathcal{H}) \ : \ \left(\frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4}\right) \text{-} probabilistic} \\ representation \ for \ \mathcal{C} \end{array} \right\}.$$

Remark 13 Choosing $\alpha = \beta = \frac{1}{4}$ is arbitrary; we could have chosen any constants $0 < \alpha < \frac{1}{2}$ and $0 < \beta < 1$.

Example 4 (POINT_d) The size of the probabilistic representation mentioned in Example 3 is $\ln(\frac{4}{\alpha}\ln(1/\beta))$. Placing $\alpha = \beta = \frac{1}{4}$, we see that the Representation Dimension of POINT_d is constant.

4. Equivalence of Probabilistic Representation and Private Learning

We now show that $\operatorname{RepDim}(\mathcal{C})$ characterizes the sample complexity of private learners. We start by showing in Lemma 14 that an (α, β) -probabilistic representation of \mathcal{C} implies a private learning algorithm whose sample complexity is the size of the representation. We then show in Lemma 16 that if there is a private learning algorithm with sample complexity m, then there is probabilistic representation of \mathcal{C} of size O(m); this lemma implies that $\operatorname{RepDim}(\mathcal{C})$ is a lower bound on the sample complexity. Recall that $\operatorname{RepDim}(\mathcal{C})$ is the size

of the smallest probabilistic representation for $\alpha = \beta = 1/4$. Thus, to complete the proof we show in Lemma 18 that a probabilistic representation with $\alpha = \beta = 1/4$ implies a probabilistic representation for arbitrary α and β .

Lemma 14 If there a exists pair $(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{P})$ that (α, β) -probabilistically represents a class \mathcal{C} , then for every ϵ there exists an algorithm A that $(6\alpha, 4\beta, \epsilon)$ -PPAC learns \mathcal{C} with a sample size $m = O\left(\frac{1}{\alpha\epsilon}(\operatorname{size}(\mathcal{H}) + \ln(\frac{1}{\beta}))\right)$.

Proof Let $(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{P})$ be an (α, β) -probabilistic representation for the class \mathcal{C} , and consider the following algorithm A:

Inputs: $S = (x_i, y_i)_{i=1}^m$, and a privacy parameter ϵ .

- 1. Randomly choose $\mathcal{H}_i \in_{\mathcal{P}} \mathcal{H}$.
- 2. Choose $h \in \mathcal{H}_i$ using the exp. mechanism with ϵ .

By the properties of the exponential mechanism, A is ϵ -differentially private. We will show that with sample size $m = O\left(\frac{1}{\alpha\epsilon}(\operatorname{size}(\mathscr{H}) + \ln(\frac{1}{\beta}))\right)$, algorithm A is a $(6\alpha, 4\beta)$ -PAC learner for \mathcal{C} . Fix some $c \in \mathcal{C}$ and \mathcal{D} , and define the following 3 good events:

 E_1 \mathcal{H}_i chosen in step 1 contains at least one hypothesis h s.t. $\operatorname{error}_S(h) \leq 2\alpha$.

 E_2 For every $h \in \mathcal{H}_i$ s.t. $\operatorname{error}_S(h) \leq 3\alpha$, it holds that $\operatorname{error}_{\mathcal{D}}(c,h) \leq 6\alpha$

 E_3 The exponential mechanism chooses an h such that $\operatorname{error}_S(h) \leq \alpha + \min_{f \in \mathcal{H}_i} \{\operatorname{error}_S(f)\}.$

We first show that if those 3 good events happen, algorithm A returns a 6α -good hypothesis. Event E_1 ensures the existence of a hypothesis $f \in \mathcal{H}_i$ s.t. $\operatorname{error}_S(f) \leq 2\alpha$. Thus, event $E_1 \cap E_3$ ensures algorithm A chooses (using the exponential mechanism) a hypothesis $h \in \mathcal{H}_i$ s.t. $\operatorname{error}_S(h) \leq 3\alpha$. Event E_2 ensures therefore that this h obeys $\operatorname{error}_{\mathcal{D}}(c,h) \leq 6\alpha$.

We will now show that those 3 events happen with high probability. As $(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{P})$ is an (α, β) -probabilistic representation for the class \mathcal{C} , the chosen \mathcal{H}_i contains a hypothesis h s.t. $\operatorname{error}_{\mathcal{D}}(c,h) \leq \alpha$ with probability at least $1-\beta$; by the Chernoff bound with probability at least $1-\exp(-m\alpha/3)$ this hypothesis has empirical error at most 2α . Event E_1 happens with probability at least $(1-\beta)(1-\exp(-m\alpha/3)) > 1-(\beta+\exp(-m\alpha/3))$, which is at least $(1-2\beta)$ for $m \geq \frac{3}{\alpha}\ln(1/\beta)$.

Using the Chernoff bound, the probability that a hypothesis h s.t. $\operatorname{error}_{\mathcal{D}}(c,h) > 6\alpha$ has empirical error $\leq 3\alpha$ is less than $\exp(-m\alpha 3/4)$. Using the union bound, the probability that there is such a hypothesis in \mathcal{H}_i is at most $|\mathcal{H}_i| \cdot \exp(-m\alpha 3/4)$. Therefore, $\Pr[E_2] \geq 1 - |\mathcal{H}_i| \cdot \exp(-m\alpha 3/4)$. For $m \geq \frac{4}{3\alpha}(\ln(\frac{|\mathcal{H}_i|}{\beta}))$, this probability is at least $(1 - \beta)$.

The exponential mechanism ensures that the probability of event E_3 is at least $1 - |\mathcal{H}_i| \cdot \exp(-\epsilon \alpha m/2)$ (see Section 2.4), which is at least $(1 - \beta)$ for $m \ge \frac{2}{\alpha \epsilon} \ln(\frac{|\mathcal{H}_i|}{\beta})$.

All in all, by setting $m = \frac{3}{\alpha \epsilon} (\operatorname{size}(\mathcal{H}) + \ln(\frac{1}{\beta}))$ we ensure that the probability of A failing to output a 6α -good hypothesis is at most 4β .

We will demonstrate the above lemma with two examples:

Example 5 (Efficient learner for POINT_d) As described in Example 3, there exists an $(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{P})$ that $(\alpha/6, \beta/4)$ -probabilistically represents the class POINT_d, where size $(\mathcal{H}) = O_{\alpha,\beta,\epsilon}(1)$. By Lemma 14, there exists an algorithm that $(\alpha, \beta, \epsilon)$ -PPAC learns \mathcal{C} with sample size $m = O_{\alpha,\beta,\epsilon}(1)$.

The existence of an algorithm with sample complexity O(1) was already proven by Beimel et al. (2014). Moreover, assuming the existence of oneway functions, their learner is efficient. Our constructions yields an efficient learner, without assumptions. To see this, consider again algorithm A presented in the above proof, and note that as $\operatorname{size}(\mathcal{H})$ is constant, step 2 could be done in constant time. Step 1 can be done efficiently as we can efficiently sample a set $\mathcal{H}_i \in_{\mathcal{P}} \mathcal{H}$. In Claim 35 we initially construct a probabilistic representation in which the description of every hypothesis is exponential in d. The representation is then revised using pairwise independence to yield a representation in which every hypothesis h has a short description, and given x the value h(x) can be computed efficiently.

Example 6 (POINT_N) Consider the class POINT_N, which is exactly like POINT_d, only over the natural numbers. By results of Chaudhuri and Hsu (2011) and Beimel et al. (2014), it is impossible to properly PPAC learn the class POINT_N. Our construction can yield an (inefficient) improper private learner for POINT_N with $O_{\alpha,\beta,\epsilon}(1)$ samples. The details are deferred to Section 7.

The next lemma shows that a private learning algorithm implies a probabilistic representation. This lemma can be used to lower bound the sample complexity of private learners.

Lemma 15 If there exists an algorithm A that $(\alpha, \frac{1}{2}, \epsilon)$ -PPAC learns a concept class C with a sample size m, then there exists a pair $(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{P})$ that $(\alpha, 1/4)$ -probabilistically represents the class C such that $\operatorname{size}(\mathcal{H}) = O(m\epsilon)$.

Proof Let A be an $(\alpha, \frac{1}{2}, \epsilon)$ -PPAC learner for a class \mathcal{C} using hypothesis class \mathcal{F} whose sample size is m. For a target concept $c \in \mathcal{C}$ and a distribution \mathcal{D} on X_d , we define G as the set of all hypotheses $h \in \mathcal{F}$ such that $\operatorname{error}_{\mathcal{D}}(c,h) \leq \alpha$. Fix some $c \in \mathcal{C}$ and a distribution \mathcal{D} on X_d . As A is an $(\alpha, \frac{1}{2})$ -PAC learner, $\operatorname{Pr}_{\mathcal{D},A}[A(S) \in G] \geq \frac{1}{2}$, where the probability is over A's randomness and over sampling the examples in S (according to \mathcal{D}). Therefore, there exists a database S of m samples such that $\operatorname{Pr}_A[A(S) \in G] \geq \frac{1}{2}$, where the probability is only over the randomness of A. As A is ϵ -differentially private, $\operatorname{Pr}_A[A(\vec{0}) \in G] \geq e^{-m\epsilon} \cdot \operatorname{Pr}_A[A(S) \in G] \geq \frac{1}{2}e^{-m\epsilon}$, where $\vec{0}$ is a database with m zeros. That is, $\operatorname{Pr}_A[A(\vec{0}) \notin G] \leq 1 - \frac{1}{2}e^{-m\epsilon}$. Now, consider a set \mathcal{H} containing the outcomes of $2\ln(4)e^{m\epsilon}$ executions of $A(\vec{0})$. The probability that \mathcal{H} does not contain an α -good hypothesis is at most $(1 - \frac{1}{2}e^{-m\epsilon})^{2\ln(4)e^{m\epsilon}} \leq \frac{1}{4}$. Thus, $\mathcal{H} = \{\mathcal{H} \subseteq \mathcal{F} : |\mathcal{H}| \leq 2\ln(4)e^{m\epsilon}\}$, and \mathcal{P} , the distribution induced by $A(\vec{0})$, are an $(\alpha, 1/4)$ -probabilistic representation for class \mathcal{C} . It follows that $\operatorname{size}(\mathcal{H}) = \max\{\ln |\mathcal{H}| : \mathcal{H} \in \mathcal{H}\} = \ln(2\ln(4)) + m\epsilon$.

^{1.} Choosing $\vec{0}$ is arbitrary; we could have chosen any database.

The above lemma yields a lower bound of $\Omega\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon}\operatorname{RepDim}(\mathcal{C})\right)$ on the sample complexity of private learners for a concept class \mathcal{C} . To see this, fix $\alpha \leq \frac{1}{4}$ and let A be an $(\alpha, \frac{1}{2}, \epsilon)$ -PPAC learner for \mathcal{C} with sample size m. By the above lemma, there exists a pair $(\mathscr{H}, \mathcal{P})$ that $(\alpha, 1/4)$ -probabilistically represents \mathcal{C} s.t. $\operatorname{size}(\mathscr{H}) = \ln(2\ln(4)) + m\epsilon$. Therefore, by definition, $\operatorname{RepDim}(\mathcal{C}) \leq \ln(2\ln(4)) + m\epsilon$. Thus, $m \geq \frac{1}{\epsilon}(\operatorname{RepDim}(\mathcal{C}) - \ln(2\ln(4))) = \Omega\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon}\operatorname{RepDim}(\mathcal{C})\right)$.

In order to refine this lower bound (and incorporate α in it), we will need a somewhat stronger version of this lemma:

Lemma 16 Let $\alpha \leq 1/4$. If there exists an algorithm A that $(\alpha, \frac{1}{2}, \epsilon)$ -PPAC learns a concept class C with a sample size m, then there exists a pair $(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{P})$ that (1/4, 1/4)-probabilistically represents the class C such that $\operatorname{size}(\mathcal{H}) = O(m\epsilon\alpha)$.

Proof Let A be an $(\alpha, \frac{1}{2}, \epsilon)$ -PPAC learner for the class \mathcal{C} using hypothesis class \mathcal{F} whose sample size is m. Without loss of generality, we can assume that $m \geq \frac{3\ln(4)}{4\alpha}$ (since A can ignore part of the sample). For a target concept $c \in \mathcal{C}$ and a distribution \mathcal{D} on X_d , we define

$$G_{\mathcal{D}}^{\alpha} = \{ h \in \mathcal{F} : \operatorname{error}_{\mathcal{D}}(c, h) \leq \alpha \}.$$

Fix some $c \in \mathcal{C}$ and a distribution \mathcal{D} on X_d , and define the following distribution $\widetilde{\mathcal{D}}$ on X_d :

$$\Pr_{\widetilde{\mathcal{D}}}[x] = \begin{cases} 1 - 4\alpha + 4\alpha \cdot \Pr_{\mathcal{D}}[x], & x = 0^d. \\ 4\alpha \cdot \Pr_{\mathcal{D}}[x], & x \neq 0^d. \end{cases}$$

Note that for every $x \in X_d$,

$$\Pr_{\widetilde{\mathcal{D}}}[x] \ge 4\alpha \cdot \Pr_{\mathcal{D}}[x]. \tag{2}$$

As A is an $(\alpha, \frac{1}{2})$ -PAC learner, it holds that

$$\Pr_{\widetilde{\mathcal{D}}, A} \left[A(S) \in G_{\widetilde{\mathcal{D}}}^{\alpha} \right] \ge \frac{1}{2},$$

where the probability is over A's randomness and over sampling the examples in S (according to $\widetilde{\mathcal{D}}$). In addition, by inequality (2), every hypothesis h with $\operatorname{error}_{\mathcal{D}}(c,h) > 1/4$ has error strictly greater than α under $\widetilde{\mathcal{D}}$:

$$\operatorname{error}_{\widetilde{\mathcal{D}}}(c,h) \ge 4\alpha \cdot \operatorname{error}_{\mathcal{D}}(c,h) > \alpha.$$

So, every α -good hypothesis for c and $\widetilde{\mathcal{D}}$ is a $\frac{1}{4}$ -good hypothesis for c and \mathcal{D} . That is, $G^{\alpha}_{\widetilde{\mathcal{D}}} \subseteq G^{1/4}_{\mathcal{D}}$. Therefore, $\Pr_{\widetilde{\mathcal{D}},A}\left[A(S) \in G^{1/4}_{\mathcal{D}}\right] \ge \frac{1}{2}$.

We say that a database S of m labeled examples is good if the unlabeled example 0^d appears in S at least $(1 - 8\alpha)m$ times. Let S be a database constructed by taking m i.i.d. samples from $\widetilde{\mathcal{D}}$, labeled by c. By the Chernoff bound, S is good with probability at least $1 - \exp(-4\alpha m/3)$. Hence,

$$\Pr_{\widetilde{\mathcal{D}},A}\left[\left(A(S)\in G_{\mathcal{D}}^{1/4}\right)\wedge\left(S\text{ is good}\right)\right]\geq \frac{1}{2}-\exp(-4\alpha m/3)\geq \frac{1}{4}.$$

Therefore, there exists a database $S_{\rm good}$ of m samples that contains the unlabeled sample 0^d at least $(1-8\alpha)m$ times, and $\Pr_A\left[A(S_{\rm good})\in G_{\mathcal D}^{1/4}\right]\geq \frac{1}{4}$, where the probability is only over the randomness of A. All of the examples in $S_{\rm good}$ (including the example 0^d) are labeled by c.

For $\sigma \in \{0,1\}$, denote by $\vec{0}_{\sigma}$ a database containing m copies of the example 0^d labeled as σ . As A is ϵ -differentially private, and as the target concept c labels the example 0^d by either 0 or 1, for at least one $\sigma \in \{0,1\}$ it holds that

$$\Pr_{A}[A(\vec{0}_{\sigma}) \in G_{\mathcal{D}}^{1/4}] \ge \exp(-8\alpha\epsilon m) \cdot \Pr_{A}\left[A(S_{\text{good}}) \in G_{\mathcal{D}}^{1/4}\right]
\ge \exp(-8\alpha\epsilon m) \cdot 1/4.$$
(3)

That is, $\Pr_A[A(\vec{0}_\sigma) \notin G_D^{1/4}] \leq 1 - \frac{1}{4}e^{-8\alpha\epsilon m}$. Now, consider a set \mathcal{H} containing the outcomes of $4\ln(4)e^{8\alpha\epsilon m}$ executions of $A(\vec{0}_0)$, and the outcomes of $4\ln(4)e^{8\alpha\epsilon m}$ executions of $A(\vec{0}_1)$. The probability that \mathcal{H} does not contain a $\frac{1}{4}$ -good hypothesis for c and \mathcal{D} is at most $(1 - \frac{1}{4}e^{-8\alpha\epsilon m})^{4\ln(4)e^{8\alpha\epsilon m}} \leq \frac{1}{4}$. Thus, $\mathscr{H} = \{\mathcal{H} \subseteq \mathcal{F} : |\mathcal{H}| \leq 2 \cdot 4\ln(4)e^{8\alpha\epsilon m}\}$, and \mathcal{P} , the distribution induced by $A(\vec{0}_0)$ and $A(\vec{0}_1)$, are a (1/4, 1/4)-probabilistic representation for the class \mathcal{C} . Note that the value $c(0^d)$ is unknown, and can be either 0 or 1. Therefore the construction uses the two possible values (one of them correct).

It holds that
$$\operatorname{size}(\mathcal{H}) = \max\{\ln |\mathcal{H}| : \mathcal{H} \in \mathcal{H}\} = \ln(8\ln(4)) + 8\alpha\epsilon m = O(m\epsilon\alpha).$$

Lemma 18 shows how to construct a probabilistic representation for an arbitrary α and β from a probabilistic representation with $\alpha = \beta = 1/4$; in other words we boost α and β . The proof of this lemma is combinatorial. It allows us to start with a private learning algorithm with constant α and β , move to a representation, use the combinatorial boosting, and move back to a private algorithm with small α and β . This should be contrasted with the private boosting of Dwork et al. (2010) which is algorithmic and more complicated (however, the algorithm of Dwork et al. (2010) is computationally efficient).

We first show how to construct a probabilistic representation for arbitrary β from a probabilistic representation with $\beta = 1/4$.

Claim 17 For every concept class C and for every β , there exists a pair $(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{P})$ that $(1/4, \beta)$ -probabilistically represents C where $\operatorname{size}(\mathcal{H}) \leq \operatorname{RepDim}(C) + \ln \ln(1/\beta)$.

Proof Let $\beta < 1/4$, and let $(\mathcal{H}^0, \mathcal{P}^0)$ be a $(\frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4})$ - probabilistic representation for \mathcal{C} with $\operatorname{size}(\mathcal{H}^0) = \operatorname{RepDim}(\mathcal{C}) \triangleq k_0$ (that is, for every $\mathcal{H}_i^0 \in \mathcal{H}^0$ it holds that $|\mathcal{H}_i^0| \leq e^{k_0}$). Denote $\mathcal{H}^0 = \{\mathcal{H}_1^0, \mathcal{H}_2^0, \dots, \mathcal{H}_r^0\}$, and consider the following family of hypothesis classes:

$$\mathscr{H}^1 = \left\{ \mathcal{H}^0_{i_1} \cup \dots \cup \mathcal{H}^0_{i_{\ln(1/\beta)}} : 1 \le i_1 \le \dots \le i_{\ln(1/\beta)} \le r \right\}.$$

Note that for every $\mathcal{H}_i^1 \in \mathscr{H}^1$ it holds that $|\mathcal{H}_i^1| \leq \ln(1/\beta)e^{k_0}$ and so $\operatorname{size}(\mathscr{H}^1) \triangleq k_1 \leq k_0 + \ln\ln(1/\beta)$. We will now show an appropriate distribution \mathcal{P}^1 on \mathscr{H}^1 s.t. $(\mathscr{H}^1, \mathcal{P}^1)$ is

a $(\frac{1}{4}, \beta)$ -probabilistic representation for \mathcal{C} . To this end, consider the following process for randomly choosing an $\mathcal{H}^1 \in \mathcal{H}^1$:

1. Denote $M = \ln(1/\beta)$ 2. For i = 1, ..., M: Randomly choose $\mathcal{H}_i^0 \in_{\mathcal{P}_0} \mathscr{H}^0$. 3. Return $\mathcal{H}^1 = \bigcup_{i=1}^M \mathcal{H}_i^0$.

The above process induces a distribution on \mathcal{H}^1 , denoted as \mathcal{P}^1 . As \mathcal{H}^0 is a $(\frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4})$ -probabilistic representation for \mathcal{C} , we have that

$$\Pr_{\mathcal{P}^1} \left[\nexists h \in \mathcal{H}^1 \ s.t. \ \operatorname{error}_{\mathcal{D}}(c, h) \le 1/4 \right] =$$

$$= \prod_{i=1}^M \Pr_{\mathcal{P}^0} \left[\nexists h \in \mathcal{H}^0_i \ s.t. \ \operatorname{error}_{\mathcal{D}}(c, h) \le 1/4 \right] \le$$

$$\le \left(\frac{1}{4} \right)^M \le \beta.$$

Lemma 18 For every concept class C, every α , and every β , there exists $(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{P})$ that (α, β) -probabilistically represents C where

$$\operatorname{size}(\mathcal{H}) = O\left(\ln(\frac{1}{\alpha}) \cdot \left(\operatorname{RepDim}(\mathcal{C}) + \ln\ln\ln(\frac{1}{\alpha}) + \ln\ln(\frac{1}{\beta})\right)\right).$$

Lemma 18 corresponds to standard accuracy amplification arguments. We defer the proof to Appendix 7. The next theorem states the main result of this section – RepDim characterizes the sample complexity of private learning.

Theorem 19 Let C be a concept class. $\widetilde{\Theta}_{\beta}\left(\frac{\operatorname{RepDim}(C)}{\alpha\epsilon}\right)$ samples are necessary and sufficient for the private learning of the class C.

Proof Fix some $\alpha \leq 1/4, \beta \leq 1/2$, and ϵ . By Lemma 18, there exists a pair $(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{P})$ that $(\frac{\alpha}{6}, \frac{\beta}{4})$ -represent class \mathcal{C} , where $\operatorname{size}(\mathcal{H}) = O\left(\ln(1/\alpha) \cdot \left(\operatorname{RepDim}(\mathcal{C}) + \ln\ln\ln(1/\alpha) + \ln\ln(1/\beta)\right)\right)$. Therefore, by Lemma 14, there exists an algorithm A that $(\alpha, \beta, \epsilon)$ -PPAC learns the class \mathcal{C} with a sample size

$$m = O_{\beta} \left(\frac{1}{\alpha \epsilon} \ln(\frac{1}{\alpha}) \cdot \left(\text{RepDim}(\mathcal{C}) + \ln \ln \ln(\frac{1}{\alpha}) \right) \right).$$

For the lower bound, let A be an $(\alpha, \beta, \epsilon)$ -PPAC learner for the class \mathcal{C} with a sample size m, where $\alpha \leq 1/4$ and $\beta \leq 1/2$. By Lemma 16, there exists an $(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{P})$ that $(\frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4})$ -

probabilistically represents the class C and $\operatorname{size}(\mathcal{H}) = \ln(8) + \ln\ln(4) + 8\alpha\epsilon m$. Therefore, by definition, $\operatorname{RepDim}(C) \leq \ln(8\ln(4)) + 8\alpha\epsilon m$. Thus,

$$m \ge \frac{1}{8\alpha\epsilon} \cdot \left(\operatorname{RepDim}(\mathcal{C}) - \ln(8\ln(4)) \right) = \Omega\left(\frac{\operatorname{RepDim}(\mathcal{C})}{\alpha\epsilon} \right).$$

5. Probabilistic Representation for Privately Solving Optimization Problems

The notion of probabilistic representation applies not only to private learning, but also to a broader task of optimization problems. We consider the following scenario:

Definition 20 An optimization problem OPT over a universe X and a set of solutions \mathcal{F} is defined by a quality function $q: X^* \times \mathcal{F} \to [0,1]$. Given a database S, the task is to choose a solution $f \in \mathcal{F}$ such that q(S,f) is maximized.

Notation. We will refer to the optimization problem defined by a quality function q as OPT_q .

Definition 21 An α -good solution for a database S is a solution s such that $q(S,s) \ge \max_{f \in \mathcal{F}} \{q(S,f)\} - \alpha$.

Given an optimization problem OPT_q , one can use the exponential mechanism to choose a solution $s \in \mathcal{F}$. In general, this method achieves a reasonable solution only for databases of size $\Omega(\log |\mathcal{F}|/\epsilon)$. To see this, consider a case where there exists a database S of m records such that exactly one solution $t \in \mathcal{F}$ has a quality of q(S,t)=1, and every other $f \in \mathcal{F}$ has a quality of q(S,t)=1/2. The probability of the exponential mechanism choosing t is:

$$\Pr[t \text{ is chosen}] = \frac{\exp(\epsilon m/2)}{(|\mathcal{F}| - 1) \cdot \exp(\epsilon m/4) + \exp(\epsilon m/2)}.$$

Unless

$$m \ge \frac{4}{\epsilon} \ln(|\mathcal{F}| - 1) = \Omega(\frac{1}{\epsilon} \ln |\mathcal{F}|),$$
 (4)

the above probability is strictly less than 1/2. Using our notations of probabilistic representation, it might be possible to reduce the necessary database size.

Consider using the exponential mechanism for choosing a solution s, not out of \mathcal{F} , but rather from a smaller set of solutions \mathcal{B} . Roughly speaking, the factor of $\ln |\mathcal{F}|$ in requirement (4) will now be replaced with $\ln |\mathcal{B}|$, which corresponds to size of the representation. Therefore, the database size m should be at least $\ln |\mathcal{B}|/\epsilon$. So m needs to be bigger than the size of the representation by at least a factor of $1/\epsilon$.

In the following analysis we will denote this required gap, i.e., $m/\ln |\mathcal{B}|$, as Δ . We will see that the existence of a private approximation algorithm implies a probabilistic representation with $1 < \Delta \approx \frac{1}{\epsilon}$, and that a probabilistic representation with $\Delta > 1$ implies a private approximation algorithm. Bigger Δ corresponds to better privacy; however, it might be harder to achieve.

Definition 22 Let OPT_q be an optimization problem over a universe X and a set of solutions \mathcal{F} . Let \mathcal{B} be a set of solutions, and denote $\operatorname{size}(\mathcal{B}) = \ln |\mathcal{B}|$. We say that \mathcal{B} is an α -deterministic representation of OPT_q for databases of m elements if for every $S \in X^m$ there exists a solution $s \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $q(S, s) \geq \max_{f \in \mathcal{F}} \{q(S, f)\} - \alpha$.

Definition 23 Let \mathcal{B} be an α -deterministic representation of OPT_q for databases of m elements. Denote $\Delta \triangleq \frac{m}{\mathrm{size}(\mathcal{B})}$. If $\Delta > 1$, then we say that the ratio of \mathcal{B} is Δ .

An α -deterministic representation \mathcal{B} with ratio Δ is required to support all the databases of $m = \Delta \cdot \text{size}(\mathcal{B})$ elements. That is, for every $S \in X^m$, the set \mathcal{B} is required to contain at least one α -good solution.

Fix $S \in X^m$. Intuitively, Δ controls the ratio between m and number of bits needed to represent an α -good solution for S. As \mathcal{B} contains an α -good solution for S, and assuming \mathcal{B} is publicly known, this solution could be represented with $\ln |\mathcal{B}| = \text{size}(\mathcal{B}) = m/\Delta$ bits.

Definition 24 Let OPT_q be an optimization problem over a universe X and a set of solutions \mathcal{F} . Let \mathcal{P} be a distribution over $\{1, 2, \ldots, r\}$, and let $\mathscr{B} = \{\mathcal{B}_1, \mathcal{B}_2, \ldots, \mathcal{B}_r\}$ be a family of solution sets for OPT_q . We denote $\operatorname{size}(\mathscr{B}) = \max\{ \ln |\mathcal{B}_i| : \mathcal{B}_i \in \mathscr{B} \}$. We say that $(\mathscr{B}, \mathcal{P})$ is an (α, β) -probabilistic representation of OPT_q for databases of m elements if for every $S \in X^m$:

$$\Pr_{\mathcal{P}}\left[\exists s \in \mathcal{B}_i \ s.t. \ q(S,s) \ge \max_{f \in \mathcal{F}} \{q(S,f)\} - \alpha\right] \ge 1 - \beta.$$

Definition 25 Let $(\mathcal{B}, \mathcal{P})$ be an (α, β) -probabilistic representation of OPT_q for databases of m elements. Denote $\Delta \triangleq \frac{m}{\mathrm{size}(\mathcal{B})}$. If $\Delta > 1$, then we say that the ratio of the representation is Δ .

Definition 26 An optimization problem OPT_q is bounded if $\left| |S_1| \cdot q(S_1, f) - |S_2| \cdot q(S_2, f) \right| \le 1$ for every solution f and every two neighboring databases S_1, S_2 .

We are interested in approximating bounded optimization problems, while guaranteeing differential privacy:

Definition 27 Let OPT_q be a bounded optimization problem over a universe X and a set of solutions \mathcal{F} . An algorithm A is an $(\alpha, \beta, \epsilon)$ -private approximation algorithm for OPT_q with a database of m records if:

- 1. Algorithm A is ϵ -differentially private (as formulated in Definition 1);
- 2. For every $S \in X^m$, algorithm A outputs with probability at least (1β) a solution s such that $q(S, s) \ge \max_{f \in \mathcal{F}} \{q(S, f)\} \alpha$.

Example 7 (Sanitization) Consider a class of predicates C over X. A database S contains points taken from X. A predicate query Q_c for $c \in C$ is defined as $Q_c(S) = \frac{1}{|S|} \cdot |\{x_i \in S : c(x_i) = 1\}|$. Blum et al. (2008) defined a sanitizer (or data release mechanism) as a differentially private algorithm that, on input a database S, outputs another database S

with entries taken from X. A sanitizer A is (α, β) -useful for predicates in the class C if for every database S it holds that

$$\Pr_{A} \left[\forall c \in C \ \left| Q_c(S) - Q_c(\hat{S}) \right| \le \alpha \right] \ge 1 - \beta.$$

This scenario can be viewed as a bounded optimization problem: The solutions are sanitized databases. For an input database S and and a sanitized database \hat{S} , the quality function is

$$q(S, \hat{S}) = 1 - \max_{c \in C} \{|Q_c(S) - Q_c(\hat{S})|\}.$$

To see that this optimization problem is bounded, note that for every two neighboring databases S_1, S_2 of m elements, and every $c \in C$ it holds that $|Q_c(S_1) - Q_c(S_2)| \leq \frac{1}{m}$. Therefore, for every sanitized database f,

$$m \cdot |q(S_1, f) - q(S_2, f)| = m \cdot \left| \max_{c \in C} \{ |Q_c(S_1) - Q_c(f)| \} - \max_{c \in C} \{ |Q_c(S_2) - Q_c(f)| \} \right| \le 1$$

Example 8 (Center points) Let $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$ be a finite domain. Given a database $S \in X^m$, consider the task of privately identifying a point $x \in \mathbb{R}$ that is "deep inside" the convexhull of S. This problem was shown to be closely related to (privately) learning halfspaces (Beimel et al., 2019). In this context, "deep inside" is quantified using the notion of Tukey depth (Tukey, 1975). Specifically, the Tukey depth of a point $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ w.r.t. the database S, denoted $\operatorname{td}(S, x)$, is the minimum number of points that need to be removed from S such that x is not in the convex-hull of the remaining points.

The task of identifying a point with high Tukey depth can also be viewed as a bounded optimization problem, where the solutions are points in some subset $Y \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$. For an input database $S \in X^m$ and a solution $y \in Y$, the quality function is $q(S, y) = \operatorname{td}(S, y)/|S|$.

The next two lemmas establish an equivalence between a private approximation algorithm and a probabilistic representation for a bounded optimization problem.

Lemma 28 Let OPT_q be a bounded optimization problem over a universe X. If there exists a pair $(\mathcal{B}, \mathcal{P})$ that (α, β) -probabilistically represents OPT_q for databases of m elements, s.t. the ratio of $(\mathcal{B}, \mathcal{P})$ is $\Delta > 1$, then for every $\hat{\alpha}, \hat{\beta}, \epsilon$ satisfying

$$\Delta \ge \frac{2}{\epsilon \hat{\alpha}} \left(1 + \frac{\ln(1/\hat{\beta})}{\text{size}(\mathscr{B})} \right),$$

there exists an $((\alpha + \hat{\alpha}), (\beta + \hat{\beta}), \epsilon)$ -approximation algorithm for OPT_q with a database of size m.

Proof Consider the following algorithm A:

Inputs: a database $S \in X^m$, and a privacy parameter ϵ .

- 1. Randomly choose $\mathcal{B}_i \in_{\mathcal{P}} \mathscr{B}$.
- 2. Choose $s \in \mathcal{B}_i$ using the exponential mechanism, that is, with probability

$$\frac{\exp(\epsilon \cdot m \cdot q(S,s)/2)}{\sum_{f \in \mathcal{B}_i} \exp(\epsilon \cdot m \cdot q(S,f)/2)}.$$

By the properties of the exponential mechanism, A is ϵ -differentially private. Fix a database $S \in X^m$, and define the following 2 bad events:

 E_1 The set \mathcal{B}_i chosen in step 1 does not contain a solution s s.t. $q(S,s) \ge \max_{f \in \mathcal{F}} \{q(S,f)\} - \alpha$.

 E_2 The solution s chosen in step 2 is such that $q(S,s) < \max_{t \in \mathcal{B}_i} q(S,t) - \hat{\alpha}$.

Note that if those two bad events do not occur, algorithm A outputs a solution s such that $q(S,s) \ge \max_{f \in \mathcal{F}} \{q(S,f)\} - \alpha - \hat{\alpha}$. As $(\mathcal{B},\mathcal{P})$ is an (α,β) -probabilistic representation of OPT_q for databases of size m, event E_1 happens with probability at most β . By the properties of the exponential mechanism, the probability of event E_2 is bounded by $|\mathcal{B}_i| \cdot \exp(-\epsilon m \hat{\alpha}/2)$. As $m = \Delta \operatorname{size}(\mathcal{B})$, this probability is at most

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[E_2] &\leq \operatorname{size}(\mathscr{B}) \cdot \exp(-\epsilon m \hat{\alpha}/2) \\ &= \operatorname{size}(\mathscr{B}) \cdot \exp(-\epsilon \Delta \operatorname{size}(\mathscr{B}) \hat{\alpha}/2) \\ &\leq \operatorname{size}(\mathscr{B}) \cdot \exp\left(-\left(1 + \frac{\ln(1/\hat{\beta})}{\operatorname{size}(\mathscr{B})}\right) \operatorname{size}(\mathscr{B})\right) \\ &= \operatorname{size}(\mathscr{B}) \cdot \exp(-\operatorname{size}(\mathscr{B}) - \ln(1/\hat{\beta})) = \hat{\beta}. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, algorithm A outputs an $(\alpha + \hat{\alpha})$ -good solution with probability at least $(1 - \beta - \hat{\beta})$.

Lemma 29 Let OPT_q be an optimization problem. If there exists an $(\alpha, \beta, \epsilon)$ -private approximation algorithm for OPT_q with a database of m records, then for every $\hat{\beta}$ satisfying

$$\Delta \triangleq \frac{m}{\ln(\frac{1}{1-\beta}) + \ln\ln(\frac{1}{\hat{\beta}}) + m \cdot \epsilon} > 1,$$

there exists a pair $(\mathcal{B}, \mathcal{P})$ that $(\alpha, \hat{\beta})$ -probabilistically represents OPT_q for databases of m elements, where the ratio of the representation is Δ .

Proof Let A be an $(\alpha, \beta, \epsilon)$ -private approximation algorithm for OPT_q , with a sample size m. Fix an arbitrary input database $S \in X^m$. Define G as the set of all solutions s, possibly outputted by A, such that $q(S, s) \geq \max_{f \in \mathcal{F}} \{q(S, f)\} - \alpha$. As A is an $(\alpha, \beta, \epsilon)$ -approximation algorithm, $\mathrm{Pr}_A[A(S) \in G] \geq 1 - \beta$. As A is ϵ -differentially private, $\mathrm{Pr}_A[A(\vec{0}) \in G] \geq 1 - \beta$.

 $(1-\beta)e^{-m\epsilon}$, where $\vec{0}$ is a database with m zeros. That is, $\Pr_A\left[A(\vec{0}) \notin G\right] \leq 1-(1-\beta)e^{-m\epsilon}$. Now, consider a set \mathcal{B} containing the outcomes of $\Gamma \triangleq \frac{1}{1-\beta}\ln(\frac{1}{\hat{\beta}})e^{m\epsilon}$ executions of $A(\vec{0})$. The probability that \mathcal{B} does not contain a solutions $s \in G$ is at most $(1-(1-\beta)e^{-m\epsilon})^{\Gamma} \leq \hat{\beta}$. Thus, $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathcal{B} \subseteq support(A) : |\mathcal{B}| \leq \Gamma\}$, and \mathcal{P} , the distribution induced by $A(\vec{0})$, are an $(\alpha, \hat{\beta})$ -probabilistic representation of OPT_q for databases with m elements. Moreover, the ratio of the representation is

$$\frac{m}{\operatorname{size}(\mathscr{B})} = \frac{m}{\max\{\ln |\mathcal{B}| : \mathcal{B} \in \mathscr{B}\}}$$
$$= \frac{m}{\ln(\frac{1}{1-\beta}) + \ln \ln(\frac{1}{\hat{\beta}}) + m\epsilon} = \Delta.$$

5.1. Exact 3SAT

Consider the following bounded optimization problem, denoted as OPT_{E3SAT}: The universe X is the set of all possible clauses with exactly 3 different literals over n variables, and the set of solutions \mathcal{F} is the set of all possible 2^n assignments. Given a database $S = (\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \ldots, \sigma_m)$ containing m E3CNF clauses, the quality of an assignment $a \in \mathcal{F}$ is

$$q(S, a) = \frac{|\{i : a(\sigma_i) = 1\}|}{m}.$$

Aiming at the (very different) objective of secure protocols for search problems, Beimel et al. (2008) defined the notation of solution-list algorithms, which corresponds to our notation of deterministic representation. We next rephrase their results using our notations.

- R1 For every $\alpha > 0$ and every $\Delta > 1$, there exists a set \mathcal{B} that $(\alpha + 1/8)$ -deterministically represents $\text{OPT}_{\text{E3SAT}}$ for databases of size $m = O(\Delta(\ln \ln(n) + \ln(1/\alpha)))$, and a ratio of Δ .
- R2 Let $\alpha < 1/2$ and $\Delta > 1$. For every set \mathcal{B} that α deterministically represents OPT_{E3SAT} for databases of size m with a ratio of Δ , it holds that $m = \Omega(\ln \ln(n))$.

Using (R1) and a deterministic version of Lemma 28, for every $\alpha, \beta, \epsilon > 0$, there exists an $((1/8 + \alpha), \beta, \epsilon)$ - approximation algorithm for OPT_{E3SAT} with a database of $m = O_{\alpha,\beta,\epsilon}(\ln \ln(n))$ clauses. By (R2), this is the best possible using a deterministic representation.

We can reduce the necessary database size, using a probabilistic representation. Fix a clause with three different literals. If we pick an assignment at random, then with probability at least 7/8 it satisfies the clause. Now, fix any exact 3CNF formula. If we pick an assignment at random, then the expected fraction of satisfied clauses is at least 7/8. Moreover, for every $0 < \alpha < 7/8$, the fraction of satisfied clauses is at least $(7/8 - \alpha)$ with

probability at least $\frac{\alpha}{\alpha+1/8}$. So, if we pick $t=\frac{\ln(1/\beta)}{\ln(\alpha+1/8)+\ln(1/\alpha)}$ random assignments, the probability that none of them will satisfy at least $(7/8-\alpha)m$ clauses is at most $\left(\frac{\alpha}{\alpha+1/8}\right)^t=\beta$. So, for every $\Delta>1$,

$$\mathscr{B} = \{\mathcal{B} : \mathcal{B} \text{ is a set of at most } t \text{ assignments}\},$$

and \mathcal{P} , the distribution induced on \mathscr{B} by randomly picking t assignments, are an $((1/8 + \alpha), \beta)$ -probabilistic representation of OPT_{E3SAT} for databases of size $\Delta \cdot \ln(t)$ and a ratio of Δ . By Lemma 28, for every ϵ there exists an $((1/8 + \alpha), \beta, \epsilon)$ -approximation algorithm for OPT_{E3SAT} with a database of $m = O_{\alpha,\beta,\epsilon}(1)$ clauses.

6. Extensions

6.1. (ϵ, δ) -Differential Privacy

Recall the definition of (ϵ, δ) -differential privacy:

$$\Pr[A(S_1) \in \mathcal{F}] \le \exp(\epsilon) \cdot \Pr[A(S_2) \in \mathcal{F}] + \delta.$$

The proof of Lemma 16 remains valid even if algorithm A is only (ϵ, δ) -differential private for

$$\delta \le \frac{1}{8}e^{-8\alpha\epsilon m}(1 - e^{-\epsilon}). \tag{5}$$

To see this, note that inequality (3) changes to

$$\begin{aligned} &\Pr_{A} \left[A(\vec{0}) \in G \right] \geq \\ &\geq \left(\left(\left(\Pr_{A} \left[A(S) \in G \right] \cdot e^{-\epsilon} - \delta \right) e^{-\epsilon} - \delta \right) \cdots \right) e^{-\epsilon} - \delta \right. \\ &\geq \frac{1}{4} e^{-8\alpha\epsilon m} - \delta \left(\sum_{i=0}^{8\alpha m-1} e^{-i\epsilon} \right) \\ &\geq \frac{1}{4} e^{-8\alpha\epsilon m} - \delta \left(\frac{1}{1 - e^{-\epsilon}} \right) \geq \frac{1}{8} e^{-8\alpha\epsilon m}. \end{aligned}$$

The rest of the proof remains almost intact (only minor changes in the constants). With that in mind, we see that the lower bound showed in Theorem 19 for ϵ -differentially private (that is, with $\delta = 0$) learners also applies for (ϵ, δ) -differentially private learners satisfying inequality (5). That is, every such learner for a class \mathcal{C} must use $\Omega\left(\frac{\text{RepDim}(\mathcal{C})}{\alpha\epsilon}\right)$ samples.

When using (ϵ, δ) -differential privacy, it is desirable for δ to be negligible in the security parameter, e.g., in d – the representation length of elements in X_d . In such a case, using (ϵ, δ) -differential privacy instead of ϵ -differential privacy cannot reduce the sample complexity for PPAC learning a concept class \mathcal{C} whenever RepDim $(\mathcal{C}) = O(\log(d))$.

6.2. Probabilistic Representation Using a Hypothesis Class

We will now consider a generalization of our representation notations that can be useful when considering PPAC learners that use a specific hypothesis class. In particular, those notation can be useful when considering proper PPAC learners, that is, a learner that learns a class \mathcal{C} using a hypothesis class $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathcal{C}$.

Definition 30 We define the α -Deterministic Representation Dimension of a concept class \mathcal{C} using a hypothesis class \mathcal{B} as

$$\mathrm{DRepDim}_{\alpha}(\mathcal{C},\mathcal{B}) = \min \left\{ \begin{aligned} &\mathcal{H} \subseteq \mathcal{B} \ \textit{is an} \\ \mathrm{size}(\mathcal{H}) : \ \alpha \textit{-representation} \\ &\textit{for class } \mathcal{C} \end{aligned} \right\}.$$

Note that $DRepDim_{\frac{1}{4}}(\mathcal{C}, 2^{X_d}) = DRepDim(\mathcal{C})$. The dependency on α in the above definition is necessary: if \mathcal{C} is not contained in \mathcal{B} then for every small enough α , the hypothesis class \mathcal{B} itself does not α -represents \mathcal{C} (and therefore no subset $\mathcal{H} \subseteq \mathcal{B}$ can α -represent \mathcal{C}). Moreover, when considering the notations of representation using a hypothesis class, our boosting technique for α does not work (as the boosting uses more complex hypotheses).

Example 9 Beimel et al. (2014) showed that for every $\alpha < 1$, every subset $\mathcal{H} \subsetneq \mathtt{POINT}_d$ does not α -represent the class \mathtt{POINT}_d . Therefore, $\mathtt{DRepDim}_{\alpha}(\mathtt{POINT}_d,\mathtt{POINT}_d) = \theta(d)$ for every $\alpha < 1$.

Definition 31 A pair $(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{P})$ is an (α, β) -probabilistic representation for a concept class C using a hypothesis class \mathcal{B} if:

- 1. $(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{P})$ is an (α, β) -probabilistic representation for the class C, as formulated in Definition 10.
- 2. Every $\mathcal{H}_i \in \mathscr{H}$ is a subset of \mathcal{B} .

Note that whenever $\mathcal{B} = 2^{X_d}$, this definition is identical to Definition 10. Using this general notation, we can restate Lemma 14 and Lemma 16 as follows:

Lemma 32 If there exists a pair $(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{P})$ that (α, β) - probabilistically represents a class \mathcal{C} using a hypothesis class \mathcal{B} , then for every ϵ and every γ there exists an algorithm A that $(\alpha + \gamma, 3\beta, \epsilon)$ -PPAC learns \mathcal{C} using \mathcal{B} and a sample size $m = O((\operatorname{size}(\mathcal{H}) + \ln(\frac{1}{\beta})) \max\{\frac{1}{\gamma\epsilon}, \frac{1}{\gamma^2}\})$.

Note that in the above lemma the resulting algorithm A has accuracy $(\alpha + \gamma)$ as opposed to 6α in lemma 14, where γ is arbitrary. While in section 3 we did not mind the multiplicative factor of 6 in the accuracy parameter (as we could boost it back), replacing it with an additive factor of γ might be of value in this section as our boosting technique for the accuracy parameter does not work here. As an example, consider a representation with $\alpha = \frac{1}{10}$. Without boosting capabilities, this change makes the difference between the ability to generate an algorithm with $\alpha = \frac{6}{10}$, or an algorithm with $\alpha = \frac{1}{10} + \frac{1}{1000}$.

Proof Let $(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{P})$ be an (α, β) -probabilistic representation for class \mathcal{C} using a hypothesis class \mathcal{B} , and consider the following algorithm A:

Inputs: $S = (x_i, y_i)_{i=1}^m$, and a privacy parameter ϵ .

- 1. Randomly choose $\mathcal{H}_i \in_{\mathcal{P}} \mathcal{H}$.
- 2. Choose $h \in \mathcal{H}_i$ using the exp. mechanism with ϵ .

First note that the support of A is indeed (a subset of) \mathcal{B} . By the properties of the exponential mechanism, A is ϵ -differentially private. Fix some $c \in \mathcal{C}$ and \mathcal{D} , and define the following 3 good events:

 E_1 \mathcal{H}_i chosen in step 1 contains at least one hypothesis h s.t. $\operatorname{error}_{\mathcal{D}}(h) \leq \alpha$.

 E_2 For every $h \in \mathcal{H}_i$ it holds that $|\operatorname{error}_S(h) - \operatorname{error}_{\mathcal{D}}(c,h)| \leq \frac{\gamma}{3}$.

 E_3 The exponential mechanism chooses an h such that $\operatorname{error}_S(h) \leq \frac{\gamma}{3} + \min_{f \in \mathcal{H}_i} \{\operatorname{error}_S(f)\}.$

Note that if those 3 good events happen, algorithm A returns an $(\alpha + \gamma)$ -good hypothesis. We will now show that those 3 events happen with high probability.

As $(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{P})$ is an (α, β) -probabilistic representation for the class \mathcal{C} , event E_1 happens with probability at least $1 - \beta$.

Using the Hoeffding bound, event E_2 happens with probability at leat $1-2|\mathcal{H}_i|\exp(-\frac{2}{9}\gamma^2m)$. For $m \geq \frac{9}{2\gamma^2}\ln(\frac{2|\mathcal{H}_i|}{\beta})$, this probability is at leat $1-\beta$.

The exponential mechanism ensures that the probability of event E_3 is at least $1 - |\mathcal{H}_i| \cdot \exp(-\epsilon \gamma m/6)$ (see Section 2.4), which is at least $(1 - \beta)$ for $m \ge \frac{6}{\gamma \epsilon} \ln(\frac{|\mathcal{H}_i|}{\beta})$.

All in all, by setting $m = 6(\operatorname{size}(\mathscr{H}) + \ln(\frac{2}{\beta})) \max\{\frac{1}{\gamma^2}, \frac{1}{\gamma\epsilon}\}$ we ensure that the probability of A failing to output an $(\alpha + \gamma)$ -good hypothesis is at most 3β .

Lemma 33 If there exists an algorithm A that $(\alpha, \frac{1}{2}, \epsilon)$ -PPAC learns a concept class C using a hypothesis class B and a sample size m, then there exists a pair $(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{P})$ that $(\alpha, 1/4)$ -probabilistically represents the class C using the hypothesis class B where $\operatorname{size}(\mathcal{H}) = O(m\epsilon)$.

The proof of Lemma 33 is identical to the proof of Lemma 15.

Definition 34 We define the α -Probabilistic Representation Dimension of a concept class \mathcal{C} using a hypothesis class \mathcal{B} as

$$\operatorname{RepDim}_{\alpha}(\mathcal{C},\mathcal{B}) = \min \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \exists \mathcal{P} \ s.t. \ (\mathcal{H},\mathcal{P}) \\ is \ an \ (\alpha,\frac{1}{4})\text{-}prob. \\ representation \\ for \ \mathcal{C} \ using \ \mathcal{B} \end{array} \right\}.$$

Example 10 Beimel et al. (2014) showed that for every $\alpha < 1$, every proper PPAC learner for POINT_d requires $\Omega((d + \log(1/\beta))/(\epsilon \alpha))$ labled examples. Using Lemma 32, we get that $\operatorname{RepDim}_{\alpha}(\operatorname{POINT}_d, \operatorname{POINT}_d) = \Omega(d)$.

The above example shows a strong separation between the VC dimension of the class $POINT_d$ and $RepDim_{\alpha}(POINT_d, POINT_d)$.

7. A Probabilistic Representation for Points

Example 3 states the existence of a constant size probabilistic representation for the class $POINT_d$. We now give the construction. Similar ideas were used by Feldman (2009) who studied the smilingly unrelated *model of evolvability* of Valiant (2009) (a theoretical model for quantifying how complex mechanisms, such as those found in living cells, can evolve as result of a random search guided by selection).

Claim 35 There exists an (α, β) -probabilistic representation for POINT_d of size $\ln(4/\alpha) + \ln \ln(1/\beta)$. Furthermore, each hypothesis h in each \mathcal{H}_i has a short description and given x, the value h(x) can be computed efficiently.

Proof Consider the following set of hypothesis classes

$$\mathscr{H} = \left\{ \mathcal{H} \subseteq 2^{X_d} : |\mathcal{H}| \le \frac{4}{\alpha} \ln(\frac{1}{\beta}) \right\}.$$

That is, $\mathcal{H} \in \mathscr{H}$ if \mathcal{H} contains at most $\frac{4}{\alpha} \ln(\frac{1}{\beta})$ boolean functions. We will show an appropriate distribution \mathcal{P} s.t. $(\mathscr{H}, \mathcal{P})$ is an (α, β) -probabilistic representation of the class POINT_d . To this end, fix a target concept $c_j \in \mathsf{POINT}_d$ and a distribution \mathcal{D} on X_d (remember that j is the unique point on which $c_j(j) = 1$). We need to show how to randomly choose an $\mathcal{H} \in \mathscr{H}$ such that with probability at least $(1 - \beta)$ over the choice of \mathcal{H} , there will be at least one $h \in \mathcal{H}$ such that $\mathsf{error}_{\mathcal{D}}(c_j, h) \leq \alpha$. Consider the following process for randomly choosing an $\mathcal{H} \in \mathscr{H}$:

Denote M = ⁴/_α ln(¹/_β)
 For i = 1,..., M construct hypothesis h_i as follows:
 For each x ∈ X_d (independently):
 Let h_i(x) = 1 with probability α/2,
 and h_i(x) = 0 otherwise.
 Return H = {h₁, h₂,..., h_M}.

The above process induces a distribution on \mathcal{H} , denoted as \mathcal{P} . We will next analyze the probability that the returned \mathcal{H} does not contain an α -good hypothesis. We start by fixing some i and analyzing the expected error of h_i , conditioned on the event that $h_i(j) = 1$. The probability is taken over the random coins used to construct h_i .

$$\mathbb{E}_{h_i} \left[\operatorname{error}_{\mathcal{D}}(c_j, h_i) \mid h_i(j) = 1 \right] =$$

$$= \mathbb{E}_{h_i} \left[\mathbb{E}_{x \in \mathcal{D}} \left[\left| c_j(x) - h_i(x) \right| \right] \mid h_i(j) = 1 \right]$$

$$= \mathbb{E}_{x \in \mathcal{D}} \left[\mathbb{E}_{h_i} \left[\left| c_j(x) - h_i(x) \right| \mid h_i(j) = 1 \right] \right] \leq \frac{\alpha}{2}.$$

Using Markov's Inequality,

$$\Pr_{h_i} \left[\operatorname{error}_{\mathcal{D}}(c_j, h_i) \ge \alpha \; \middle| \; h_i(j) = 1 \right] \le \frac{1}{2}.$$

So, the probability that h_i is α -good for c_i and \mathcal{D} is:

$$\Pr_{h_i} \left[\operatorname{error}_{\mathcal{D}}(c_j, h_i) \leq \alpha \right] \geq$$

$$\geq \Pr_{h_i} \left[h_i(j) = 1 \right] \cdot \Pr_{h_i} \left[\operatorname{error}_{\mathcal{D}}(c_j, h_i) \leq \alpha \mid h_i(j) = 1 \right]$$

$$\geq \frac{\alpha}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2} = \frac{\alpha}{4}.$$

Thus, the probability that \mathcal{H} fails to contain an α -good hypothesis is at most $\left(1-\frac{\alpha}{4}\right)^{M}$, which is less than β for our choice of M. This concludes the proof that $(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{P})$ is an (α, β) -probabilistic representation for \mathtt{POINT}_d .

When a hypothesis $h_i()$ was constructed in the above random process, the value of $h_i(x)$ was independently drawn for every $x \in X_d$. This results in a hypothesis whose description size is $O(2^d)$, which in turn, will result in a non efficient learning algorithm. We next construct hypotheses whose description is short. To achieve this goal, we note that in the above analysis we only care about the probability that $h_i(x) = 0$ given that $h_i(j) = 1$. Thus, we can choose the values of h_i in a pairwise independent way, e.g., using a random polynomial of degree 2. The size of the description in this case is O(d).

Consider the class $\mathtt{POINT}_{\mathbb{N}}$, defined in Example 6. The above construction can be adjusted to yield an (inefficient) improper private learner for $\mathtt{POINT}_{\mathbb{N}}$ with $O_{\alpha,\beta,\epsilon}(1)$ samples. The only adjustments necessary are in the construction of the (α,β) -probabilistic representation. Specifically, we need to specify how to randomly draw a boolean function h over the natural numbers, such that for every $x \in \mathbb{N}$ the probability of h(x) = 1 is $\alpha/2$, and the values of h on every two distinct points in \mathbb{N} are independent. This can be done assuming that the learner is allowed to output a real number, as a random real number could be interpreted as a random function over \mathbb{N} . Note however, that this means that the learner outputs a hypothesis with infinite description. As was shown by Bun et al. (2015), this barrier is unavoidable, and every pure private (proper or improper) learner for $\mathtt{POINT}_{\mathbb{N}}$ must output a hypothesis with infinite description.

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Appendix A.

In this section we prove Lemma 18.

Proof Let \mathcal{C} be a concept class, and let $(\mathcal{H}^1, \mathcal{P}^1)$ be a $(\frac{1}{4}, \beta/T)$ -probabilistic representation for \mathcal{C} (where T will be set later). By Claim 17, such a representation exists with $\operatorname{size}(\mathcal{H}^1) \triangleq k_1 \leq \operatorname{RepDim}(\mathcal{C}) + \ln \ln(T/\beta)$. We use \mathcal{H}^1 and \mathcal{P}^1 to create an (α, β) - probabilistic representation for \mathcal{C} . We begin with two notations:

- 1. For T hypotheses h_1, \ldots, h_T we denote by $\operatorname{maj}_{h_1, \ldots, h_T}$ the majority hypothesis. That is, $\operatorname{maj}_{h_1, \ldots, h_T}(x) = 1$ if and only if $|\{h_i : h_i(x) = 1\}| \geq T/2$.
- 2. For T hypothesis classes $\mathcal{H}_1, \dots, \mathcal{H}_T$ we denote $\mathrm{MAJ}(\mathcal{H}_1, \dots, \mathcal{H}_T) = \Big\{ \mathrm{maj}_{h_1, \dots, h_T} : \forall_{1 \leq i \leq T} \ h_i \in \mathcal{H}_i \Big\}.$

Consider the following family of hypothesis classes:

$$\mathscr{H} = \left\{ MAJ(\mathcal{H}_{i_1}, \dots, \mathcal{H}_{i_T}) : \mathcal{H}_{i_1}, \dots, \mathcal{H}_{i_T} \in \mathscr{H}^1 \right\}.$$

Moreover, denote the distribution on \mathcal{H} induced by the following random process as \mathcal{P} :

For
$$j = 1, ..., T$$
:
Randomly choose $\mathcal{H}_{i_j} \in_{\mathcal{P}^1} \mathscr{H}^1$
Return $\mathrm{MAJ}(\mathcal{H}_{i_1}, ..., \mathcal{H}_{i_T})$.

Next we show that $(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{P})$ is an (α, β) -probabilistic representation for \mathcal{C} : For a fixed pair of a target concept c and a distribution \mathcal{D} , randomly choose $\mathcal{H}_{i_1}, \ldots, \mathcal{H}_{i_T} \in_{\mathcal{P}^1} \mathcal{H}^1$. We now show that with probability at least $(1 - \beta)$ the set $MAJ(\mathcal{H}_{i_1}, \ldots, \mathcal{H}_{i_T})$ contains at least one α -good hypothesis for c, \mathcal{D} .

To this end, denote $\mathcal{D}_1 = \mathcal{D}$ and consider the following thought experiment, inspired by the Adaboost Algorithm of Freund and Schapire (1997):

For
$$t = 1, \ldots, T$$
:

- 1. Fail if \mathcal{H}_{i_t} does not contain a $\frac{1}{4}$ -good hypothesis for c, \mathcal{D}_t .
- 2. Denote by $h_t \in \mathcal{H}_{i_t}$ a $\frac{1}{4}$ -good hypothesis for c, \mathcal{D}_t .

3.
$$\mathcal{D}_{t+1}(x) = \begin{cases} 2\mathcal{D}_t(x), & \text{if } h_t(x) \neq c(x). \\ \left(1 - \frac{\text{error}_{\mathcal{D}_t}(c, h_t)}{1 - \text{error}_{\mathcal{D}_t}(c, h_t)}\right) \mathcal{D}_t(x), & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Note that as \mathcal{D}_1 is a probability distribution on X_d ; the same is true for $\mathcal{D}_2, \mathcal{D}_3, \dots, \mathcal{D}_T$. As $(\mathcal{H}^1, \mathcal{P}^1)$ is a $(\frac{1}{4}, \beta/T)$ -probabilistic representation for \mathcal{C} , the failure probability of every iteration is at most β/T . Thus (using the union bound), with probability at least $(1 - \beta)$ the whole thought experiment will succeed, and in this case we show that the error of $h_{\text{fin}} = \text{maj}_{h_1,\dots,h_T}$ is at most α .

Consider the set $R = \{x : h_{fin}(x) \neq c(x)\} \subseteq X_d$. This is the set of points on which at least T/2 of h_1, \ldots, h_T err. Next consider the partition of R to the following sets:

$$R_t = \left\{ x \in R : \left(h_t(x) \neq c(x) \right) \land \left(\forall_{i>t} h_i(x) = c(x) \right) \right\}.$$

That is, R_t contains the points $x \in R$ on which h_t is last to err. Clearly $\mathcal{D}_t(R_t) \leq 1/4$, as R_t is a subset of the set of points on which h_t errs. Moreover,

$$\mathcal{D}_{t}(R_{t}) \geq \mathcal{D}_{1}(R_{t}) \cdot 2^{T/2} \cdot \left(1 - \frac{\operatorname{error}_{\mathcal{D}_{t}}(c, h_{t})}{1 - \operatorname{error}_{\mathcal{D}_{t}}(c, h_{t})}\right)^{t-T/2}$$

$$\geq \mathcal{D}_{1}(R_{t}) \cdot 2^{T/2} \cdot \left(1 - \frac{1/4}{1 - 1/4}\right)^{t-T/2}$$

$$\geq \mathcal{D}_{1}(R_{t}) \cdot 2^{T/2} \cdot \left(1 - \frac{1/4}{1 - 1/4}\right)^{T/2}$$

$$= \mathcal{D}(R_{t}) \cdot \left(\frac{4}{3}\right)^{T/2},$$

so,

$$\mathcal{D}(R_t) \le \mathcal{D}_t(R_t) \cdot \left(\frac{4}{3}\right)^{-T/2} \le \frac{1}{4} \cdot \left(\frac{4}{3}\right)^{-T/2}.$$

Finally,

$$\operatorname{error}_{\mathcal{D}}(c, h_{\text{fin}}) = \mathcal{D}(R) = \sum_{t=T/2}^{T} \mathcal{D}(R_t) \le$$

$$\le \frac{T}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{4} \cdot \left(\frac{4}{3}\right)^{-T/2} = \frac{T}{8} \cdot \left(\frac{4}{3}\right)^{-T/2}.$$

Choosing $T = 14 \ln(\frac{2}{\alpha})$, we get that $\operatorname{error}_{\mathcal{D}}(c, h_{\operatorname{fin}}) \leq \alpha$. Hence, $(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{P})$ is an (α, β) -probabilistic representation for \mathcal{C} . Moreover, for every $\mathcal{H}_i \in \mathcal{H}$ we have that $|\mathcal{H}_i| \leq (e^{k_1})^T$, and so

$$size(\mathcal{H}) \leq k_1 \cdot T \leq \left(\operatorname{RepDim}(\mathcal{C}) + \ln \ln(T/\beta) \right) T$$
$$= O\left(\ln(\frac{1}{\alpha}) \cdot \left(\operatorname{RepDim}(\mathcal{C}) + \ln \ln \ln(\frac{1}{\alpha}) + \ln \ln(\frac{1}{\beta}) \right) \right).$$

Appendix B.

As we mentioned in the introduction (Section 1.3), Feldman and Xiao (2015) showed an equivalence between RepDim(\mathcal{C}) and the randomized one-way communication complexity of the evaluation problem for concepts from \mathcal{C} (in the public coin model). A similar argument shows that the private-coin model is equivalent to DRepDim(\mathcal{C}). Thus, a relationship of DRepDim(\mathcal{C}) = $O(\text{RepDim}(\mathcal{C}) + \ln(d))$ follows from the classical result of Newman (1991) on the difference in communication complexity between the public and private coin models. In this section we present a direct proof for this relationship, essentially following the same strategy as the proof of Newman.

Observation 36 Let $(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{P})$ be an (α, β) -probabilistic representation for a concept class \mathcal{C} . Then, $\mathcal{B} = \bigcup_{\mathcal{H}_i \in \mathscr{H}} \mathcal{H}_i$ is an α -representation of \mathcal{C} .

Proof As $(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{P})$ is an (α, β) -probabilistic representation for \mathcal{C} , for every c and every \mathcal{D}

$$\Pr_{\mathcal{D}}[\exists h \in \mathcal{H}_i \ s.t \ \operatorname{error}_{\mathcal{D}}(c,h) \leq \alpha] \geq 1 - \beta > 0.$$

The probability is over choosing a set $\mathcal{H}_i \in_{\mathcal{P}} \mathcal{H}$. In particular, for every c and every \mathcal{D} there exists an $\mathcal{H}_i \in \mathcal{H}$ that contains an α -good hypothesis.

The simple construction in Observation 36 may result in a very large deterministic representation. For example, in Claim 35 we show an $(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{P})$ that (α, β) -probabilistically represents the class POINT_d, where \mathscr{H} contains all the sets of at most $\frac{4}{\alpha}\ln(\frac{1}{\beta})$ boolean functions. While $\bigcup_{\mathcal{H}_i \in \mathscr{H}} \mathcal{H}_i = 2^{X_d}$ is indeed an α -representation for \mathtt{POINT}_d , it is extremely over-sized.

We will show that it is not necessary to take the union of all the \mathcal{H}_i 's in \mathcal{H} in order to get an α -representation for \mathcal{C} . As $(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{P})$ is an (α, β) -probabilistic representation, for every c and every \mathcal{D} , with probability at least $1-\beta$ a randomly chosen $\mathcal{H}_i \in_{\mathcal{P}} \mathcal{H}$ contains an α -good hypothesis. The straight forward strategy here is to first boost β as in Claim 17, and then use the union bound over all possible $c \in \mathcal{C}$ and over all possible distributions \mathcal{D} on X_d . Unfortunately, there are infinitely many such distributions, and the proof will be somewhat more complicated.

Definition 37 Let $\mathcal{H} = \{\mathcal{H}_1, \mathcal{H}_2, \dots, \mathcal{H}_r\}$ be a family of hypothesis classes, and \mathcal{P} be a distribution over $\{1, \ldots, r\}$. We will denote the following non private algorithm as $Learner(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{P}, m, \gamma)$:

Input: a sample $S = (x_i, y_i)_{i=1}^m$. 1. Randomly choose $\mathcal{H}_i \in_{\mathcal{P}} \mathcal{H}$. 2. If for every $h \in \mathcal{H}_i \operatorname{error}_S(h) > \gamma$, then fail.

- Return $h \in \mathcal{H}_i$ minimizing error_S(h).

We will say that Learner $(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{P}, m, \gamma)$ is β -successful for a class \mathcal{C} over X_d , if for every $c \in \mathcal{C}$ and every distribution \mathcal{D} on X_d , given an input sample drawn i.i.d. according to \mathcal{D} and labeled by c, algorithm Learner fails with probability at most β .

Claim 38 If $(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{P})$ is an (α, β) -probabilistic representation for a class \mathcal{C} , then, for $m \geq 1$ $\frac{3}{\alpha}\ln(1/\beta)$, algorithm Learner $(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{P}, m, 2\alpha)$ is 2β -successful for \mathcal{C} .

Proof We will show that with probability at least $1-2\beta$, the set \mathcal{H}_i (chosen in Step 1) contains at least one hypothesis h s.t. $\operatorname{error}_S(h) \leq 2\alpha$. As $(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{P})$ is an (α, β) -probabilistic representation for class \mathcal{C} , the chosen \mathcal{H}_i will contain a hypothesis h s.t. $\operatorname{error}_{\mathcal{D}}(c,h) \leq \alpha$ with probability at least $1-\beta$; by the Chernoff bound with probability at least $1-\exp(-m\alpha/3)$ this hypothesis has empirical error at most 2α . The set \mathcal{H}_i contains a hypothesis h s.t. $\operatorname{error}_{S}(h) \leq 2\alpha$ with probability at least $(1-\beta)(1-\exp(-m\alpha/3)) > 1-(\beta+\exp(-m\alpha/3))$, which is at least $(1-2\beta)$ for $m \ge \frac{3}{\alpha} \ln(1/\beta)$.

Claim 39 Let \mathscr{H} be a family of hypothesis classes, and \mathscr{P} a distribution on it. Let γ, β and m be such that $m \geq \frac{4}{\gamma}(\operatorname{size}(\mathscr{H}) + \ln(\frac{1}{\beta}))$. If Learner $(\mathscr{H}, \mathscr{P}, m, \gamma)$ is β -successful for a class \mathscr{C} over X_d , then there exists $\widehat{\mathscr{H}} \subseteq \mathscr{H}$ and a distribution $\widehat{\mathscr{P}}$ on it, s.t. Learner $(\widehat{\mathscr{H}}, \widehat{\mathscr{P}}, m, \gamma)$ is a $(2\gamma, 3\beta)$ -PAC learner for \mathscr{C} and $|\widehat{\mathscr{H}}| = \frac{d \cdot m}{\beta^2}$.

Proof For every input $S = (x_i, y_i)_{i=1}^m$, denote by p_S the probability of $Learner(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{P}, m, \gamma)$ failing on step 2 (the probability is only over the choice of $\mathcal{H}_i \in_{\mathcal{P}} \mathcal{H}$ in the first step). As $Learner(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{P}, m, \gamma)$ is β -successful,

$$\Pr_{\mathcal{P},\mathcal{D}}\left[Learner(\mathcal{H},\mathcal{P},m,\gamma) \text{ fails}\right] = \sum_{S} \Pr_{\mathcal{D}}[S] \cdot p_S \leq \beta.$$

Consider the following process, denoted by Proc, for randomly choosing a multiset $\widetilde{\mathcal{H}}$ of size t (t will be set later):

For
$$i = 1, ..., t$$
:
Randomly choose $\mathcal{H}_i \in_{\mathcal{P}} \mathcal{H}$
Return $\widetilde{\mathcal{H}} = (\mathcal{H}_1, \mathcal{H}_2, ..., \mathcal{H}_t)$.

Denote by \mathcal{U}_t the uniform distribution on $\{1, 2, ..., t\}$. As before, for every input $S = (x_i, y_i)_{i=1}^m$, denote by $\widetilde{p_S}$ the probability of $Learner(\widetilde{\mathcal{H}}, \mathcal{U}_t, m, \gamma)$ failing on its second step (again, the probability is only over the choice of $\mathcal{H}_i \in \mathcal{U}_t$ $\widetilde{\mathcal{H}}$ in the first step). Using those notations:

$$\Pr_{\mathcal{U}_t, \mathcal{D}} \left[Learner(\widetilde{\mathcal{H}}, \mathcal{U}_t, m, \gamma) \text{ fails} \right] = \sum_{S} \Pr_{\mathcal{D}}[S] \cdot \widetilde{p_S}.$$

Fix a sample S. As the choice of $\mathcal{H}_i \in_{\mathcal{U}_t} \widetilde{\mathscr{H}}$ is uniform,

$$\widetilde{p_S} = \frac{\left| \left\{ \mathcal{H}_i \in \widetilde{\mathscr{H}} : \forall h \in \mathcal{H}_i \operatorname{error}_S(h) > \gamma \right\} \right|}{\left| \widetilde{\mathscr{H}} \right|}.$$

Using the Hoeffding bound,

$$\Pr_{Proc}\left[|\widetilde{p_S} - p_S| \ge \beta\right] \le 2e^{-2t\beta^2}.$$

The probability is over choosing the multiset $\widetilde{\mathcal{H}}$. There are at most $2^{m(d+1)}$ samples of size m (as every entry in the sample is an element of X_d , concatenated with a label bit). Using the union bound over all possible samples S,

$$\Pr_{Proc} \left[\exists S \ s.t. \ |\widetilde{p_S} - p_S| \ge \beta \right] \le 2^{m(d+1)} \cdot 2 \cdot e^{-2t\beta^2}.$$

For $t \geq \frac{m \cdot d}{\beta^2}$ the above probability is strictly less than 1. This means that for $t = \frac{m \cdot d}{\beta^2}$ there exists a multiset $\widehat{\mathcal{H}}$ such that $|\widehat{p_S} - p_S| \leq \beta$ for every sample S. We will show that for this $\widehat{\mathcal{H}}$, $Learner(\widehat{\mathcal{H}}, \mathcal{U}_t, m, \gamma)$ is a $(2\gamma, 3\beta)$ -PAC learner. Fix a target concept $c \in \mathcal{C}$ and a distribution \mathcal{D} on X_d . Define the following two good events:

 E_1 Learner $(\widehat{\mathcal{H}}, \mathcal{U}_t, m, \gamma)$ outputs a hypothesis h such that $\operatorname{error}_S(h) \leq \gamma$.

 E_2 For every $h \in \mathcal{H}_i$ s.t. $\operatorname{error}_S(h) \leq \gamma$, it holds that $\operatorname{error}_{\mathcal{D}}(c,h) \leq 2\gamma$.

Note that if those two events happen, $Learner(\widehat{\mathcal{H}}, \mathcal{U}_t, m, \gamma)$ returns a 2γ -good hypothesis for c and \mathcal{D} . We will show that those two events happen with high probability. We start by bounding the failure probability of $Learner(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{U}_t, m, \gamma)$.

$$\Pr_{\mathcal{U}_{t},\mathcal{D}} \left[Learner(\widehat{\mathcal{H}}, \mathcal{U}_{t}, m, \gamma) \text{ fails} \right] \\
= \sum_{S} \Pr_{\mathcal{D}}[S] \cdot \widehat{p_{S}} \\
\leq \sum_{S} \Pr_{\mathcal{D}}[S] \cdot (p_{S} + \beta) \\
= \Pr_{\mathcal{P},\mathcal{D}} \left[Learner(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{P}, m, \gamma) \text{ fails} \right] + \beta \leq 2\beta.$$

When $Learner(\widehat{\mathcal{H}}, \mathcal{U}_t, m, \gamma)$ does not fail, it returns a hypothesis h with empirical error at most γ . Thus, $\Pr[E_1] \geq 1 - 2\beta$.

Using the Chernoff bound, the probability that a hypothesis h with $\operatorname{error}_{\mathcal{D}}(c,h) > 2\gamma$ has empirical error $\leq \gamma$ is less than $\exp(-m\gamma/4)$. Using the union bound, the probability that there is such a hypothesis in \mathcal{H}_i is at most $|\mathcal{H}_i| \cdot \exp(-m\gamma/4)$. Therefore, $\Pr[E_2] \geq$ $1 - |\mathcal{H}_i| \cdot \exp(-m\gamma/4)$. For $m \ge \frac{4}{\gamma} \ln(\frac{|\mathcal{H}_i|}{\beta})$, this probability is at least $(1 - \beta)$. All in all, the probability of $Learner(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{P}, m, \gamma)$ failing to output a 2γ -good hypothesis

is at most 3β .

Theorem 40 If there exists a pair $(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{P})$ that (α, β) -probabilistically represents a class \mathcal{C} over X_d (where $|\mathcal{H}|$ might be very big), then there exists a pair $(\widehat{\mathcal{H}},\widehat{\mathcal{P}})$ that $(4\alpha,6\beta)$ probabilistically represents C, where $\widehat{\mathscr{H}} \subseteq \mathscr{H}$, and

$$\left|\widehat{\mathscr{H}}\right| = \frac{3d}{4\alpha\beta^2} \left(\operatorname{size}(\mathscr{H}) + \ln(\frac{1}{\beta}) \right).$$

Proof Let $(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{P})$ be an (α, β) -probabilistic representation for a class \mathcal{C} . Set m = $\frac{3}{\alpha}(\operatorname{size}(\mathcal{H}) + \ln(\frac{1}{\beta}))$. By Claim 38, $\operatorname{Learner}(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{P}, m, 2\alpha)$ is 2β -successful for class \mathcal{C} . By Claim 39, there exists an $\widehat{\mathscr{H}} \subseteq \mathscr{H}$ and a distribution $\widehat{\mathcal{P}}$ on it, such that $Learner(\widehat{\mathscr{H}},\widehat{\mathcal{P}},m,2\alpha)$ is a $(4\alpha, 6\beta)$ -PAC learner for \mathcal{C} and $\left|\widehat{\mathscr{H}}\right| = \frac{d \cdot m}{4\beta^2} = \frac{3d}{4\alpha\beta^2}(\operatorname{size}(\mathscr{H}) + \ln(\frac{1}{\beta}))$.

Assume towards contradiction that $(\widehat{\mathcal{H}},\widehat{\mathcal{P}})$ does not $(4\alpha,6\beta)$ -represent \mathcal{C} . So, there exist a concept $c \in \mathcal{C}$ and a distribution \mathcal{D} s.t., with probability strictly greater than 6β , a randomly chosen $\mathcal{H}_i \in_{\widehat{\mathcal{D}}} \widehat{\mathcal{H}}$ does not contain a 4α -good hypothesis for c, \mathcal{D} . Therefore, for those c and \mathcal{D} , Learner $(\widehat{\mathcal{H}}, \widehat{\mathcal{P}}, m, 2\alpha)$ will fail to return a 4α -good hypothesis with probability strictly greater than 6β .

Theorem 41 For every class C over X_d there exists a $\frac{1}{4}$ -representation \mathcal{B} such that $\operatorname{size}(\mathcal{B}) = O(\ln(d) + \operatorname{RepDim}(C))$.

Proof By Lemma 18, there exists a pair $(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{P})$ that $(\frac{1}{16}, \frac{1}{12})$ -probabilistically represents \mathcal{C} such that $\operatorname{size}(\mathcal{H}) = O(\operatorname{RepDim}(\mathcal{C}))$. Using Theorem 40, there exists a pair $(\widehat{\mathcal{H}}, \widehat{\mathcal{P}})$ that $(\frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{2})$ -probabilistically represents \mathcal{C} , such that $\operatorname{size}(\widehat{\mathcal{H}}) = \operatorname{size}(\mathcal{H})$ and

$$\left|\widehat{\mathscr{H}}\right| = O\left(d \cdot \operatorname{size}(\mathscr{H})\right).$$

We can now use Observation 36 and construct the set $\mathcal{B} = \bigcup_{\mathcal{H}_i \in \mathscr{H}} \mathcal{H}_i$ which is a $\frac{1}{4}$ -representation for the class \mathcal{C} . In addition,

$$|\mathcal{B}| = O\left(\left|\widehat{\mathcal{H}}\right| \cdot e^{\operatorname{size}(\mathcal{H})}\right) = O\left(d \cdot \operatorname{size}(\mathcal{H}) \cdot e^{\operatorname{size}(\mathcal{H})}\right).$$

Thus, $\operatorname{size}(\mathcal{B}) = \ln |\mathcal{B}| = O(\ln(d) + \operatorname{RepDim}(\mathcal{C})).$

Corollary 42 For every concept class C over X_d , $DRepDim(C) = O(\ln(d) + RepDim(C))$.

Corollary 43 There exists a constant N s.t. for every concept class C over X_d where $\mathsf{DRepDim}(\mathcal{C}) \geq N \log(d)$, the sample complexity that is necessary and sufficient for privately learning \mathcal{C} is $\Theta_{\alpha,\beta}(\mathsf{DRepDim}(\mathcal{C}))$.

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