# A Noise Resilient Transformation for Streaming Algorithms 

Meghal Gupta * Rachel Yun Zhang ${ }^{\dagger}$<br>UC Berkeley<br>MIT

July 14, 2023


#### Abstract

In a streaming algorithm, Bob receives an input $x \in\{0,1\}^{n}$ via a stream and must compute a function $f$ in low space. However, this function may be fragile to errors in the input stream. In this work, we investigate what happens when the input stream is corrupted. Our main result is an encoding of the incoming stream so that Bob is still able to compute any such function $f$ in low space when a constant fraction of the stream is corrupted.

More precisely, we describe an encoding function enc $(x)$ of length poly $(n)$ so that for any streaming algorithm $A$ that on input $x$ computes $f(x)$ in space $s$, there is an explicit streaming algorithm $B$ that computes $f(x)$ in space $s \cdot \operatorname{poly} \log (n)$ as long as there were not more than $\frac{1}{4}-\varepsilon$ fraction of (adversarial) errors in the input stream enc $(x)$.


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## 1 Introduction

In a streaming algorithm, Bob witnesses a stream of bits $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$, and he wishes to compute a function $f\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)$. The goal is to do this in space significantly less than that necessary to store the entire stream.

However, streaming algorithms are very rigid when it comes to errors in the stream. For instance, corruption of even one bit of the stream can change the value of the parity function, an index function, or the result of a decision tree. In this work, we study what happens when the stream itself is corrupted. In particular, we ask if it's possible to convert a given streaming algorithm into one that is robust to errors in the stream.

In order to protect the output against corruption to the stream, the sender, Alice, encodes her message as enc $(x)$ and sends Bob enc $(x)$ bit-by-bit. Then, using the stream enc $(x)$, Bob has to compute $f(x)$ in low space.

Of course, if Alice knows the function $f$ that Bob wishes to compute, this all is very simple: she can simply compute $f(x) \in\{0,1\}$ and send Bob $f(x)$ using e.g. the repetition code. ${ }^{1}$ What we actually desire is for the encoding enc $(x)$ to be agnostic to the function that Bob wishes to compute: the encoding enc $(x)$ must work for a broad class of functions.

As an example, consider the case where $f(x)=f_{y}(x)=x \cdot y \bmod 2$ for some $y \in\{0,1\}^{n}$. In the noiseless setting, Alice can simply send $x$ bit by bit to Bob, and after receiving each bit Bob adds $x_{i} \cdot y_{i}$ to a running sum. Bob only needs to track $i$ and the running sum modulo 2 , which is in total $\log n+1$ bits of space.

However, when there are any errors in the input stream $x$, the value $f_{y}(x)$ Bob computes may be wrong. If Alice instead uses a generic large distance error-correcting code to encode $x$, the stream's information is now protected against error but the issue is that Bob must receive and store all of the received word in order to decode, which is far too much space. Even if Alice sends a locally decodable code, which has the property that to determine a single bit of $x$ one only needs to track a few random bits of the codeword, it is not clear how Bob can decode all $n$ bits without $\Omega(n)$ storage.

In this work, we investigate whether such an encoding enc $(x)$ exists that allows Bob to compute $f(x)$ in low space, regardless of which function $f$ Bob wishes to compute.

Our main result is a scheme that protects any streaming algorithm against noise in the incoming stream. More precisely, we give an encoding enc $(x)$ of length $O\left(n^{4+\delta}\right)$ such that any streaming algorithm running in $s$ space on the noiseless stream can be converted to one running in $s \cdot \operatorname{polylog}(n)$ space on the encoded stream. It is correct with high probability whenever at most $\frac{1}{4}-\varepsilon$ of the stream was corrupted. In the specific case where Bob's function is a linear function such as dot product, our encoding can be made to have length $O\left(n^{2+\delta}\right)$.

### 1.1 Our Results

Our main result is a noise-resilient conversion for deterministic streaming algorithms.
Theorem 1.1. Fix $\varepsilon, \delta>0$. There is a function enc : $X \subseteq\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{m}$ where $m=O_{\varepsilon}\left(n^{4+\delta}\right)$ and an explicit transformation $B$ such that the following holds: For any deterministic algorithm $A$ that takes as input $x \in X \subseteq\{0,1\}^{n}$ as a stream, runs in space $s$ and time $t$, and outputs $A(x)$, the algorithm $B_{A}=B(A)$ takes as input $z \in\{0,1\}^{m}$ as a stream, runs in space s. $O_{\varepsilon}\left((\log n)^{O(1 / \delta)}\right)$ and

[^1]time $m \cdot O_{\varepsilon, \delta}\left(1+\frac{t}{n^{2}}\right)$, and satisfies that whenever $\Delta(z, \operatorname{enc}(x))<\left(\frac{1}{4}-\varepsilon\right) \cdot m$ then $B_{A}(z)$ outputs $A(x)$ with probability $\geq 1-2^{O_{\varepsilon}\left(\log ^{2} n\right)}$.

In other words, given an algorithm $A$ that accepts a stream of length $n$ and uses $s$ space, we demonstrate a noise resilient algorithm $B(A)$ computing $A$ that uses $s \cdot \operatorname{polylog}(n)$ space. The transformation enc of the stream $x$ from the sender is independent of $A$ and has length $O\left(n^{4+\delta}\right)$.

A priori, it is not obvious that there is any low-memory noise resilient transformation of the algorithm $A$ even with an arbitrary blow-up in communication. For example, if the sender were to encode their message using an arbitrary error-correcting code, the receiver would need to store the entire message in memory in order to decode it before applying the algorithm $A$. Our result shows that not only does this low-memory transformation exist, but that it can be done efficiently (both with respect to communication complexity and computational complexity).

Linear Streaming Algorithms. In the above transformation, the length of the resulting stream is $O\left(n^{4+\delta}\right)$ for any $\delta>0$. In the specific case where the streaming algorithm is linear, we construct a scheme where the stream length is only quadratic, namely $O\left(n^{2+\delta}\right)$. The key property of linear streaming algorithms that we will be leveraging is that they can be computed in pieces in any order, and later computations do not depend on the results of previous ones.

Definition 1.2. [Linear Streaming Algorithms] A linear streaming algorithm $A:\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_{q}$ is described by a list of functions $g_{i}:\{0,1\} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_{q}$ for $i \in[n]$, and computes the value $A(x)=$ $g_{1}\left(x_{1}\right)+\ldots+g_{n}\left(x_{n}\right)$ (where addition is over $\mathbb{F}_{q}$ ) by tracking the partial sum $g_{1}\left(x_{1}\right)+\ldots+g_{i}\left(x_{i}\right)$ upon receiving the $i$ 'th bit.

Note, for example, that every linear function on codomain $\{0,1\}^{n}$ admits a linear streaming algorithm. We note that linear streaming algorithms capture a large class of interesting functions, including linear sketching algorithms (see for example [CM05, CCFC04, AGM12, JL84]). For linear streaming algorithms, we show the following result.

Theorem 1.3. Fix $\varepsilon, \delta>0$. There is a function enc : $X \subseteq\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{m}$ where $m=O_{\varepsilon}\left(n^{2+\delta}\right)$ and an explicit transformation $B$ such that the following holds: For any linear streaming algorithm A that takes as input $x \in X \subseteq\{0,1\}^{n}$ as a stream, runs in space $s$ and time $t$, and outputs $A(x)$, the algorithm $B_{A}=B(A)$ takes as input $z \in\{0,1\}^{m}$ as a stream, runs in space s. $O_{\varepsilon}\left((\log n)^{O(1 / \delta)}\right)$ and time $m \cdot O_{\varepsilon, \delta}\left(1+\frac{t}{n^{2}}\right)$, and satisfies that whenever $\Delta(z, \operatorname{enc}(x))<\left(\frac{1}{4}-\varepsilon\right) \cdot m$ then $B_{A}(z)$ outputs $A(x)$ with probability $\geq 1-2^{O_{\varepsilon}\left(\log ^{2} n\right)}$.

Randomized Algorithms. We remark that our transformations in Theorems 1.1 and 1.3 are only for deterministic algorithms. However, this easily implies the result for algorithms $A$ that presample all of their randomness (that is, algorithms that fix their randomness before receiving any bits of $x$, at which point they are deterministic for the remainder of the algorithm). Such algorithms can be viewed as sampling from a distribution over deterministic algorithms. Our transformation can then be applied to the ensuing deterministic algorithm, thus correctly computing the function $A$ with high probability while being resilient to noise.

We remark that this notion of randomized algorithms whose only access to randomness is presampled at the start of computation is quite general: randomized algorithms that sample its randomness online can often be converted to protocols where the randomness is pre-sampled, see e.g. [Nis90].

Non-Binary Input Alphabets. Our main theorems are stated for the setting where the input stream is binary. We remark that this assumption is without loss of generality: a larger alphabet stream can be converted to a binary one by assigning each alphabet symbol to a unique binary string.

### 1.2 Open Questions

Our work opens up many interesting questions. We list a few below.
First, in the case of linear streaming algorithms, Theorem 1.3 gives a scheme where the input stream is length $O\left(n^{2+\delta}\right)$. We conjecture that even in the simple case where $A$ is a linear function over $\mathbb{F}_{2}$, a communication complexity of at least $\tilde{\Omega}\left(n^{2}\right)$ is necessary to make the computation noise resilient and still low-memory. This would imply that Theorem 1.3 is essentially tight.

Open Question 1.1. Does there exist $\varepsilon>0$ and a function enc : $\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{m}$ with $m=$ $O\left(n^{2-\delta}\right)$ for some $\delta>0$ such that the following holds? For any linear function $f:\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow\{0,1\}$, there exists an algorithm $B$ that uses polylog(n) bits of space with the guarantee that for every input $z \in\{0,1\}^{m}$ with $\Delta(z, \operatorname{enc}(x))<\varepsilon, B$ outputs $f(z)$ with probability $>\frac{2}{3}$.

It would be interesting to disprove even the existence of a positive rate $(O(n)$ length ) encoding enc that admits a noise resilient transformation for all streaming algorithms with polylog $(n)$ space overhead. More specifically, we ask what the optimal length of such an encoding is (recall that our transformation for general algorithms requires a quartic encoding length).

Open Question 1.2. What is the optimal exponent $\beta$ such that there exists an encoding enc $(x)$ : $\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{m}$ and $\varepsilon>0$ where $m=O\left(n^{\beta}\right)$, such that for any streaming algorith $m$ that runs in space $s$, there exists a streaming algorithm $B$ that reads $z \in\{0,1\}^{m}$ and runs in space $s \cdot \operatorname{polylog}(n)$, with the property that whenever $\Delta(z, \operatorname{enc}(x))<\varepsilon, B$ outputs $A(x)$ with probability $>\frac{2}{3}$ ?

Finally, we present an open question about the space blow-up incurred by our algorithm. The space blow-up of the algorithms in our paper is $\operatorname{poly} \log (n)$. Most deterministic algorithms require at least logarithmic space (for example, even to just count the number of bits in the input), so a polylog $(n)$ blow-up is not that large. However, some algorithms avoid this. For example, consider the following streaming problem.
Definition 1.4 (Index Problem). The stream is the list of pairs in order $\left(i, y_{i}\right)$ for some hidden string $y \in\{0,1\}^{n}$. The solver has a target index $j$ and wants to output $y_{j}$.

There is a deterministic algorithm that accomplishes this task in $O(\log \log (n))$ bits of space. ${ }^{2}$ However, our transformation would increase the space to polylog $(n)$, which is an exponential blowup in the space complexity. We ask whether this blow-up is necessary.

Open Question 1.3. Does there exist $\varepsilon>0$, a function enc : $\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{m}$, and a list of algorithms $B_{1} \ldots B_{n}$ such that the following holds? For all $i \in[n]$ and for every input $z \in\{0,1\}^{m}$ with $\Delta(z, \operatorname{enc}(y))<\varepsilon$, the algorithm $B_{i}$ runs in space polyloglog $(n)$ and outputs $y_{i}$ with probability $>\frac{2}{3}$. ${ }^{3}$

[^2]
### 1.3 Related Works

Streaming Algorithms. The study of streaming algorithms began with the work Morris [Mor78] on approximate counting; a rigorous analysis was given later in [Fla85]. Later works introduced other classic problems in streaming, including heavy hitters [CCFC02], $\ell_{p}$ approximation [AMS96, MW10, IW05], and finding a nonzero entry in a vector (for turnstile algorithms) [MW10].

Many works, for example [GKLR21, CZ16, MWOC21], consider the problem of processing noisy data sets using streaming algorithms. [GKLR21] shows a memory lower bound for learning a parity function with noisy samples of random linear equations.

However, this type of noise is quite different from our treatment. In these problems, noise is inherent in the way samples are generated, whereas we are investigating noise that occurs in the communication process.

Error Correcting Codes. Our result can be viewed through the lens of low-space noise resilient one-way communication.

Noise resilient one-way communication, in other words, error correction [Sha48, Ham50], is one of the most well-studied problems in computer science. One specific line of works related to our result is that of locally decodable codes. Locally decodable codes [ $\left.\mathrm{Y}^{+} 12\right]$ can be viewed as a low-time and low-space version of error-correcting codes, where the goal is to learn a single bit of the original message. By constrast, for us, the decoder must be able to piece together any function of the input that is noiselessly computable in low space, with the tradeoff that the decoder accesses the entire encoding via a stream rather than via query access. Local decodable codes have been constructed in a variety of different parameter regimes, including constant query [Efr09, DGY11] and near 1 rate [KSY14]. In our work, we will use Reed-Muller codes [Mul54, Ree54] that achieve polylog(n) query complexity and slightly super-linear block length.

Another line of works related to ours is that of streaming algorithms for local testing of codes [RU10, MRU11]. However, this direction was rendered moot by the recent discovery of locally testable codes with constant rate, distance, and locality [DEL $\left.{ }^{+} 22\right]$.

Coding for Interactive Communication. The analogue of noise resilient one-way communication in the interactive setting, where Alice and Bob have inputs $x, y$ and engage in a protocol to compute some $f(x, y)$ while being resilient to error, comprises the study of coding for interactive communication. Interactive coding was studied starting with the seminal works of Schulman [Sch92, Sch93, Sch96] and continuing in a prolific sequence of followup works, including [BR11, Bra12, BK12, BN13, Hae14, BE14, DHM ${ }^{+} 15$, GHK ${ }^{+}$16, GH17, EGH16, GH13, GI18, EKS20, GZ22a, GZ22b]. We refer the reader to an excellent survey by Gelles [Gel17] for an extensive list of related work.

The recent work of $\left[\mathrm{EHK}^{+} 23\right]$ studies the space complexity of interactive coding schemes. Their main result is an interactive coding scheme that preserves the space complexity of the original noiseless protocol up to a $\log (n)$ factor, where $n$ is the length of the protocol. Their result can be viewed as the interactive analogue of ours, where their noiseless and noise resilient protocols are both interactive. We remark that their techniques are quite different than ours and do not apply to our setting, however, since their approach crucially relies on the communication of feedback from Bob to Alice.

## 2 Overview of Techniques

Consider the task of computing a linear function $f(x)=\sum_{i \in[n]} g_{i}\left(x_{i}\right)$. In a noiseless setting, one can compute $f(x)$ by tracking the partial sum $\sum_{1 \leq i \leq n^{\prime}} g_{i}\left(x_{i}\right)$ and updating it with $g_{n^{\prime}+1}\left(x_{n^{\prime}+1}\right)$ upon receiving the $\left(n^{\prime}+1\right)^{\prime}$ th bit of $x$.

As a first attempt to create a noise resilient version of this algorithm, one might consider the input stream enc $(x)=\operatorname{LDC}(x)$, where LDC is a locally decodable code. In short, a locally decodable code is a noise resilient encoding of $x$ such that in order to decode any specific bit of $x$, say $x_{i}$, the decoder simply has to read $\operatorname{polylog}(n)$ (randomized) bits of $\operatorname{LDC}(x)$. In a streaming setting, the decoder can record only these polylog $(n)$ bits into memory, then run the decoding algorithm to determine $x_{i}$ after all such query bits have been seen.

However, it's not clear that this local decoding property extends to arbitrary linear functions. ${ }^{4}$ If we attempt to simultaneously decode all bits $x_{i}$ from $\operatorname{LDC}(x)$ using a separate query set $Q_{i}$ for each index, the issue is that we will need to track $\Omega(n)$ queries simultaneously since we cannot ensure that the local decoding for any index finishes before another: the query sets $Q_{i}$ are typically randomized so that any bit of the codeword is equally likely to belong to the query set for any particular index.

A second attempt is to send $\operatorname{LDC}(x) n$ times, with the intent that Bob locally decodes $x_{i}$ in the $i^{\prime}$ th $\operatorname{LDC}(x)$ and computes $f(x)$ by tracking the partial sum $\sum_{1 \leq i \leq n^{\prime}} g_{i}\left(x_{i}\right)$ at the end of the $i^{\prime}$ 'th chunk. Now, the only space requirements are the space required to store this partial sum and the space required to locally decode $x_{i}$ in each $\operatorname{LDC}(x)$, which is polylog $(n)$. However, the adversary can simply corrupt the first $\operatorname{LDC}(x)$ so that Bob mis-decodes $x_{1}$, thereby corrupting his final output, and ultimately, this approach is not so different from just sending the bits $x_{1} \ldots x_{n}$ in order.

What Bob would like to do is randomize which $x_{i}$ he is computing from a given copy of $\operatorname{LDC}(x)$ so that the adversary does not know. This crucially uses the property that LDC's allow Bob to decode any $x_{i}$ not known to the encoder or adversary. Then, if he computes each $x_{i}$ many times and takes the majority, he will learn $x_{i}$ correctly with high probability, regardless of the adversary's corruption process. Since the adversary does not know in advance which chunks Bob is computing $x_{i}$ in, she cannot target corruptions towards a specific $x_{i}$. However, this runs into an issue with the amount of space Bob requires. Since he computes each $x_{i}$ many times throughout the protocol and only takes the majority when he has finished these computations, he needs to track his current guess for its value through (almost) the entire protocol. When each $x_{i}$ was computed only once, Bob could just add $g_{i}\left(x_{i}\right)$ to the running sum, but now he needs to track each $x_{i}$ individually between the first and last time he queries it, for a total of $\Omega(n)$ bits of space.

The crux of our construction is an organized system for aggregating decoding attempts in space much smaller than storing all $n$ attempts simultaneously.

A recursive computation. Let $r=\operatorname{polylog}(n)$. Suppose that we already know how to compute linear functions on inputs of size $n / r$ in space $s_{n / r}$, that is resilient to $\varepsilon_{n / r}$ fraction of errors in the stream of $M_{n / r}$ copies of $\operatorname{LDC}(x)$. We will use this to build a scheme for computing linear functions on inputs of size $n$. Note that the base case is given by computing linear functions on a single bit, which can be done by local decoding on a single LDC $(x)$.

[^3]To compute $f(x)=\sum_{i \in[n]} g_{i}\left(x_{i}\right)$, we just need to compute $f_{1}(x)=\sum_{i \in[n / r]} g_{i}\left(x_{i}\right), f_{2}(x)=$ $\sum_{i \in[n / r+1,2 n / r]} g_{i}\left(x_{i}\right), \ldots, f_{r}(x)=\sum_{i \in[n-n / r+1, n]} g_{i}\left(x_{i}\right)$. Each sub-computation can individually be done with the guarantee that if $<\varepsilon_{n / r}$ fraction of the stream is corrupted, then the function is computed correctly.

Consider a stream consisting of $\ell \cdot r \cdot M_{n / r}$ copies of $\operatorname{LDC}(x)$ (you can think of $\ell=\log ^{2} n$ ). We split up this stream into $\ell$ chunks each consisting of $r$ blocks of $M_{n / r} \operatorname{LDC}(x)$ 's. In each of the $\ell$ chunks, we will assign the $r$ blocks of $M_{n / r}$ LDC's to the computation of a random permutation of $f_{1}(x), \ldots, f_{r}(x)$. Throughout the algorithm, we will keep track of all the outputs from each of the $\ell$ sub-computations for each of $f_{1}(x), \ldots, f_{r}(x)$. At the end, we can take a majority vote for each of the $f_{j}(x)$. We illustrate the recursion process in Figure 1.


Figure 1: In our transformation, each sub-function is computed $\ell$ times instead of 1 , and in each of the $\ell$ chunks, the sub-functions $f_{i}$ are computed in according to a random permutation $\pi$.

Because of the way we've randomly assigned blocks to $f_{1}, \ldots, f_{r}$, the adversary cannot concentrate her attack on the computation of any specific $f_{i}$. More precisely, we can show that the amount of error present in the blocks corresponding to the computation of $f_{k}$ is (roughly) proportional to the total error present. Then, as long as at least half the blocks corresponding to $f_{k}$ have $<\varepsilon_{n / r}$ fraction of errors, we have that the majority vote for each of $f_{1}, \ldots, f_{r}$ will be correct. In total, this means that our algorithm for computing $f(x)$ is resilient to $\frac{\varepsilon_{n / r}}{2}$ fraction of errors.

Unfortunately, this factor of 2 loss in the error resilience in each iteration of the recursion will prove to be problematic, as we can no longer guarantee a positive error resilience when $n$ gets large.

Decoding with confidences. In the above analysis, our worst case error distribution was that where just under one-half of the chunks have $\varepsilon_{n / r}$ error while the rest are error-free. In this case, the chunks with $\varepsilon_{n / r}$ error will produce a wrong output, while the error-free ones will produce a correct output.

However, we notice that in certain local decoding constructions (for us, we will use a Reed-Muller code), one can actually obtain an estimate of how much error there was in the codeword based on the inconsistency of the queries. In particular, in chunks where there were $\varepsilon_{n / r}$ errors, even though we will obtain a wrong answer, we can also see that there were a lot of errors in the codeword, and thereby be less sure of the obtained answer.

This motivates our definition of local decoding with confidences: in addition to outputting an answer, the decoding algorithm should also output a confidence $c \in[0,1]$ indicating how confident it is that the answer is correct. A confidence of 0 indicates that it's not sure at all: the fraction of errors seen was near the threshold $\varepsilon_{1}$; whereas a confidence of 1 indicates that it's quite sure: either
the answer is right and no errors occurred, or at least $2 \varepsilon_{1}$ errors were required to obtain a wrong answer with confidence 1. Another way to view the confidence is as an estimate of how much error was present in the total codeword (how far the actual error is from $\varepsilon_{1}$ ).

Now, when we perform the recursive step to obtain a noise resilient algorithm for $f$ from $f_{1}, \ldots, f_{r}$, in addition to recording the outputted answer from each chunk, we will also record the associated confidence. Suppose that the $\ell$ answers and confidences obtained for $f_{k}$ were $\left(\hat{q}^{(1)}, \hat{c}^{(1)}\right), \ldots,\left(\hat{q}^{(\ell)}, \hat{c}^{(\ell)}\right)$. Then, the weighted majority vote of these answers is defined to be the $\hat{q}$ with the largest total confidence. We can show that as long as the cumulative fractional error $c_{n}$ is at most $c_{n / r}$, we're guaranteed that the correct answer has more the highest total confidence.

We remark that one does not have to store all $\ell$ pairs $\left(\hat{q}^{(j)}, \hat{c}^{(j)}\right)$. Rather, we can keep track of a most likely $q$ and associated confidence $c$. To update $(q, c)$ with a new pair $(\hat{q}, \hat{c})$, one can update $c$ by $\pm \hat{c}(+\hat{c}$ if $\hat{q}=q$, and $-\hat{c}$ otherwise). If the resulting confidence $c$ is less than 0 , then it means that the answer $\hat{q}$ is supported by less overall error, so we set our most likely $q$ to be $\hat{q}$ and flip the sign of $c$.

Now, we analyze the space and communication complexity of the resulting algorithm. The space required is simply $s_{n / r}$, the space required to do a size $n / r$ sub-computation, plus the space required to store a pair $(q, c)$ for each of $f_{1}, \ldots, f_{r}$. Overall, this means that for each layer of the recursion, we are only gaining an additive factor of $r \cdot(|q|+|c|)$ space overhead, so the total space overhead is at most polylogarithmic in $n$. As for the size of the resulting stream, we see that the number of $\operatorname{LDC}(x)$ 's is $\approx(r \cdot \ell)^{\log _{r} n},{ }^{5}$ which is polynomial in $n$.

Computing non-linear functions. Our algorithm so far has only captured functions $f$ that are splittable into $r$ sub-computations whose computations do not depend on each other. However, for a general function, this may not be the case. Indeed, for many functions, the computations must be done sequentially, where later computations can only be done once earlier computations have finished. We may split a general function $f$ into $r$ sub-functions where $q_{1}:=f_{1}(x[1: n / r], \emptyset)$ is the state of the algorithm after $n / r$ bits of the stream, $q_{2}:=f_{2}\left(x[n / r+1: 2 n / r], q_{1}\right)$ is the state of the algorithm after receiving the next $n / r$ bits of the stream, and so on. The difference from the linear function case is that to compute $f_{j}$, we must have the correct output of $f_{j-1}$.

In order to handle such sequential computations, we modify our above algorithm as follows. In the recursive layer computing $f$ from functions $f_{1}, \ldots, f_{r}$, we always compute $f_{j}$ from the starting state $q_{j-1}$ which is our current best guess for the output of $f_{j-1}$. This value of $q_{j-1}$ may not always be correct, in which case the computation done for $f_{j}$ will be doomed.

As with our algorithm for linear functions, after every chunk, we update the most likely state $q_{j}$ and confidence $c_{j}$ for the sub-function that was computed in that chunk. However, when a state $q_{j}$ changes, this also means that computations done for $f_{j+1} \ldots f_{n}$ were based on wrong information. In the case of linear functions, the computations are independent so this does not matter, but for sequential functions, we have to discard the guesses $q_{j+1} \ldots q_{n}$. Formally, we set these states to $\emptyset$ and set the corresponding confidences all to 0 .

Because each sub-function $q_{j}$ is only computed usefully when $q_{j-1}$ is correct and also the value of $q_{j}$ is frequently discarded, it is less clear that over many iterations the $q_{j}$ 's will converge to the correct values. Nevertheless, we prove in Section 6 that over enough iterations, the guesses $q_{j}$ will eventually all be correct as long as there are not too many errors in the stream.

[^4]Outline. The rest of this paper is organized as follows. In Section 3, we start with some preliminary theorems about error-correcting codes. In Section 4, we define our notion of local decoding with confidences and prove that Reed-Muller codes satisfy this property. Then, in Sections 5 and 6, we present our noise resilient streaming algorithms for linear and general (sequential) functions, respectively.

## 3 Preliminaries

## Notation.

- The function $\log$ is in base 2 unless otherwise specified.
- The set $[n]$ denotes the integers $1 \ldots n$.
- We use $x[i: j]$ to denote the $i$ 'th to $j$ 'th bits of $x$ inclusive. We use $x(i: j]$ to refer to the $(i+1)$ 'th to $j$ 'th bit inclusive.
- We use $e$ as a variable rather than the universal constant $e$.


### 3.1 Error-Correcting Codes

We begin with some results about error-correcting codes. The first is the existence of a relative distance $\frac{1}{2}$ binary code.

Theorem 3.1. [GS00] For all $\epsilon>0$, there exists an explicit error-correcting code $\mathrm{ECC}_{\epsilon}=\left\{\mathrm{ECC}_{\epsilon, n}\right.$ : $\left.\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{m}\right\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ with relative distance $\frac{1}{2}-\epsilon$ and $m=O_{\epsilon}(n)$, and a poly $(n)$-time decoding algorithm $\operatorname{DEC}_{\epsilon}:\{0,1\}^{m} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{n}$, such that for any $x \in\{0,1\}^{n}$ and $w \in\{0,1\}^{m}$ satisfying $\Delta\left(\operatorname{ECC}_{\varepsilon}(x), w\right)<\left(\frac{1}{4}-\frac{\varepsilon}{4}\right) \cdot m$, it holds that $x=\operatorname{DEC}_{\varepsilon}(w)$.

Our second theorem is about the efficient decoding of Reed-Solomon codes [RS60].
Theorem 3.2 (Berlekamp-Welch; see e.g. [GS92]). Given a collection of tuples $\left(\alpha_{1}, v_{1}\right), \ldots,\left(\alpha_{n}, v_{n}\right)$ where $\alpha_{i}, v_{i} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}$ and a parameter $d \leq n$, there is an algorithm running in poly $(n, \log q)$ time that outputs a polynomial $g(\alpha) \in \mathbb{F}_{q}[\alpha]$ of degree at most $d-1$ such that $\Delta\left(\left(g\left(\alpha_{i}\right)\right)_{i \in[n]},\left(v_{i}\right)_{i \in[n]}\right)<\frac{n-d+1}{2}$.

Finally, we recall generalized minimum distance decoding, which allows us to decode concatenated codes efficiently.

Theorem 3.3 (GMD Decoding [For66, Gur06]). Given two codes, $N_{\text {outer }}:\{0,1\}^{k} \rightarrow \Sigma^{n}$ of distance $1-\varepsilon_{\text {outer }}$ with decoding time $T_{\text {outer }}$, and $N_{\text {inner }}: \Sigma \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{m}$ of distance $\frac{1}{2}-\varepsilon_{\text {inner }}$ with decoding time $D_{\text {inner }}$, there is an algorithm running in time poly $\left(D_{\text {inner }}, D_{\text {inner }}\right)$ that on input $w \in\{0,1\}^{n \cdot m}$ outputs $x \in\{0,1\}^{k}$ such that $\Delta\left(w, N_{\text {outer }} \circ N_{\text {inner }}(x)\right)<\frac{\left(1-\varepsilon_{\text {outer }}\right)\left(\frac{1}{2}-\varepsilon_{\text {inner }}\right)}{2}$.

## 4 Locally Decoding with Confidences

We now recall the definition of locally decodable codes. For us, besides just correctness of local decoding when the distance to a codeword is small, we require that the decoder output a confidence indicating how much error it witnessed (less error means higher confidence).

Theorem 4.1. (Locally Decodable Code) For any $\varepsilon>0$ and $d=d(n)=\log ^{1 / \delta} n$, there is a code LDC : $\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{N(n)}$ where $N(n)=O_{\varepsilon}\left(n^{1+\delta}\right)$ that satisfies the following properties:

- Distance: For any $x \neq y \in\{0,1\}^{n}$, it holds that $\Delta(\operatorname{LDC}(x), \operatorname{LDC}(y)) \geq\left(\frac{1}{2}-\varepsilon\right) \cdot N$.
- Locally Decoding with Confidence: For any index $i \in[n]$ and any word $w \in\{0,1\}^{N}$, there exists a randomized algorithm $\mathcal{D}_{i}$ that reads $Q=O_{\varepsilon}\left(\log ^{2 / \delta} n\right)$ bits of $w$, runs in $O_{\varepsilon}\left(n^{O(1 / \delta)}\right)$ time, and outputs a bit $\hat{x}_{i}$ along with confidence conf $\in[0,1]$, satisfying that
- For any $x \in\{0,1\}^{n}$ such that $\Delta(w, \operatorname{LDC}(x))=\left(\frac{1}{4}-2 \varepsilon-e\right) \cdot N$ where $e \geq 0$, it holds that

$$
\hat{x}_{i}=x_{i} \quad \text { and } \quad \text { conf }>e
$$

with probability at least $1-\exp \left(-\log ^{2} n\right)$.

- For any $x \in\{0,1\}^{n}$ such that $\Delta(w, \operatorname{LDC}(x))=\left(\frac{1}{4}-2 \varepsilon+e\right) \cdot N$ where $e>0$, it holds that

$$
\hat{x}_{i}=x_{i} \quad \text { or } \quad \text { conf }<e
$$

with probability at least $1-\exp \left(-\log ^{2} n\right)$.
Furthermore, the confidence conf can be represented as a rational number with denominator $4 Q$.

Proof. The locally decodable code that we will be using is the concatenation of two codes. The outer code $C_{\text {outer }}$ is a Reed-Muller code of $m=\log _{d} n$-variate polynomials over $\mathbb{F}=\mathbb{F}_{q}$ of degree $d-1$ where $q \in[2 d / \varepsilon, 4 d / \varepsilon]$ is a power of 2 . $C_{\text {outer }}$ has dimension $d^{m}=n$ and block length $N_{\text {outer }}=$ $q^{m}<(4 d / \varepsilon)^{m}=n \cdot\left(\frac{4}{\varepsilon}\right)^{m}=n^{1+\delta \cdot \log (4 / \varepsilon) / \log \log n}=O_{\varepsilon}\left(n^{1+\delta / 2}\right)$. The inner code $C_{\text {inner }}$ is a binary code of relative distance $\frac{1}{2}-\frac{\varepsilon}{2}$ (see Theorem 3.1) with block length $N_{\text {inner }}=O_{\varepsilon}(\log q)=o_{\varepsilon}\left(n^{\delta / 2}\right)$. Thus, the block length of the concatenated code $C$ is $N=N_{\text {outer }} \cdot N_{\text {inner }}=O_{\varepsilon}\left(n^{1+\delta}\right)$. We will index the bits of the concatenated code by pairs $(v, j)$ where $v \in \mathbb{F}^{m}$ and $j \in\left[N_{\text {inner }}\right]$. We remark that the outer code $C_{\text {outer }}$ is systematic.

By the Schwartz-Zippel lemma [Sch80, Zip79], the distance of the outer code is $\geq(q-d+1)$. $q^{m-1} \geq\left(1-\frac{\varepsilon}{2}\right) \cdot N_{\text {outer }}$. So the relative distance of the concatenated code is $\geq\left(1-\frac{\varepsilon}{2}\right) \cdot\left(\frac{1}{2}-\frac{\varepsilon}{2}\right) \geq$ $\frac{1}{2}-\varepsilon$.

The decoding algorithm is as follows. Suppose we want the $i$ 'th index of $x$ which is located at $v_{0} \in \mathbb{F}^{m}$ in the outer code. Then, we do the following $k=10 \log ^{2} n / \epsilon^{2}$ times: Pick a random degree2 polynomial $p(\lambda)=v_{0}+v_{1} \lambda+v_{2} \lambda^{2}$ by sampling $v_{1}, v_{2} \leftarrow \mathbb{F}^{m}$. Then, we query all bits of $w$ located at $(p(\lambda), j)$ for $\lambda \in \mathbb{F} \backslash\{0\}, j \in\left[N_{\text {inner }}\right]$ (we denote these collection of values by $\left.w\right|_{p}$ ). This means that $Q=k \cdot(q-1)=O_{\varepsilon}\left(\log ^{2 / \varepsilon}\right)$. By Theorem 3.3 (combined with Theorems 3.1 and 3.2), one can in poly $(q \log q)=O_{\varepsilon}\left(n^{O(1 / \delta)}\right)$ time find the unique degree $2 d-2$ polynomial $h \in \mathbb{F}[\lambda]$ such that the distance between $\left.w\right|_{p}$ and the $C_{\text {inner }}$ encodings of $h(\lambda)$ is at most $(q-2 d+1) \cdot\left(\frac{1}{2}-\frac{\varepsilon}{2}\right) \cdot N_{\text {inner }} / 2 \geq$ $\left(\frac{1}{2}-\varepsilon\right) \cdot \frac{Q}{k}$. Then, the decoding algorithm outputs $\hat{x}_{i}$ set to be the majority of all the values of $h(0)$ among the $k$ iterations (where if such a polynomial $h$ of distance $(q-2 d+1) \cdot\left(\frac{1}{2}-\frac{\varepsilon}{2}\right) \cdot N_{\text {inner }} / 2$ doesn't exist, we say that $h(0)$ evaluates to 0 ).

The confidence conf is calculated as follows. For each of the $k$ polynomials $p$, we let $\Delta_{p}^{h}$ be the distance of the queried bits from the $C_{\text {inner }}$ encodings of $h(\lambda)$. If $h(0)=\hat{x}_{i}$, we set $\Delta_{p}=\Delta_{p}^{h}$, and otherwise we set $\left.\Delta_{p}=(q-2 d+1) \cdot \frac{1}{2}-\frac{\varepsilon}{2}\right) \cdot N_{\text {inner }} / 2-\Delta_{p}^{h}$. This gives us an estimate $\Delta_{p}$ of the
amount of error present in $w$ conditioned on the output guess $\hat{x}_{i}$ being the actual value of $p(0)$. In particular, $\Delta_{p} \leq \Delta\left(\left.w\right|_{p},\left.\operatorname{LDC}(x)\right|_{p}\right)$. Then, we set conf $:=\frac{1}{4}-\sum_{p} \Delta_{p} / Q$.

We now discuss why the local decoding properties hold. First, suppose $x \in\{0,1\}^{n}$ satisfies that $\Delta(w, \mathrm{LDC}(x)) \leq\left(\frac{1}{4}-2 \varepsilon\right) \cdot N$. Then,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{Pr}\left[\hat{x}_{i} \neq x_{i} \text { or conf } \leq \frac{1}{4}-2 \varepsilon-\frac{\Delta(w, \operatorname{LDC}(x))}{N}\right] \\
& \quad \leq \operatorname{Pr}\left[\hat{x}_{i} \neq x_{i}\right]+\operatorname{Pr}\left[\left.\sum_{p} \Delta_{p} \geq\left(\frac{\Delta(w, \operatorname{LDC}(x))}{N}+2 \varepsilon\right) \cdot Q \right\rvert\, \hat{x}_{i}=x_{i}\right] \\
& \quad \leq e^{-\varepsilon^{2} k / 10},
\end{aligned}
$$

where we've used the following two inequalities:

- By Proposition 2.7 in [Yek12], the probability that for any of the $k$ polynomials $p$ it holds that $p(0) \neq x_{i}$ is

$$
\leq \frac{4\left(\Delta-\Delta^{2}\right)}{(q-1) \cdot\left((1-\varepsilon) \cdot\left(\frac{1}{2}-\frac{\varepsilon}{2}\right)-2 \Delta\right)^{2}} \leq \frac{1}{\varepsilon(q-1)} \leq \frac{1}{\log ^{1 / \delta} n}
$$

when $\Delta:=\frac{\Delta(c, \operatorname{LDC}(x))}{N} \leq \frac{1}{4}-2 \varepsilon$. Then, by the Chernoff bound,

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left[\hat{x}_{i} \neq x_{i}\right] \leq \operatorname{Pr}\left[\#\left[p: p(0) \neq x_{i}\right] \geq \frac{k}{2}\right] \leq e^{-k / 10}
$$

- Given that $\hat{x}_{i}=x_{i}$, we have that $\Delta_{p} \leq \Delta\left(\left.w\right|_{p},\left.\operatorname{LDC}(x)\right|_{p}\right)$, so that $\mathbb{E}\left[\Delta_{p}\right] \leq \frac{\Delta(w, \operatorname{LDC}(x))}{N} \cdot \frac{Q}{k}$. By Hoeffding's inequality,

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left[\sum_{p} \Delta_{p} \geq\left(\frac{\Delta(w, \operatorname{LDC}(x))}{N}+2 \varepsilon\right) \cdot Q\right]<e^{-8 \varepsilon^{2} \cdot k}
$$

Second, suppose $x \in\{0,1\}^{n}$ satisfies that $\Delta(w, \operatorname{LDC}(x))>\left(\frac{1}{4}-2 \varepsilon\right) \cdot N$. Then,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{Pr}\left[\hat{x}_{i} \neq x_{i} \text { and conf } \leq \frac{\Delta(w, \operatorname{LDC}(x))}{N}-\left(\frac{1}{4}-2 \varepsilon\right)\right] \\
& \quad \leq \operatorname{Pr}\left[\left.\operatorname{conf} \leq \frac{\Delta(w, \operatorname{LDC}(x))}{N}-\left(\frac{1}{4}-2 \varepsilon\right) \right\rvert\, \hat{x}_{i} \neq x_{i}\right] \\
& \quad=\operatorname{Pr}\left[\left.\sum_{p} \Delta_{p} \geq\left(\frac{1}{2}-2 \varepsilon-\frac{\Delta(w, \operatorname{LDC}(x))}{N}\right) \cdot Q \right\rvert\, \hat{x}_{i} \neq x_{i}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

Note that since $\hat{x}_{i} \neq x_{i}$, and the restriction of $\left.\mathrm{LDC}(x)\right|_{p}$ to any polynomial $p$ is a code of distance $\geq(q-2 d+1) \cdot\left(\frac{1}{2}-\frac{\varepsilon}{2}\right) \cdot N_{\text {inner }} \geq\left(\frac{1}{2}-\varepsilon\right) \cdot \frac{Q}{k}$. Thus, if $\Gamma_{p}$ denotes the actual amount of corruptions to the points of $\left.\operatorname{LDC}(x)\right|_{p}$, then $\Gamma_{p}+\Delta_{p} \geq\left(\frac{1}{2}-\varepsilon\right) \cdot \frac{Q}{k}$. The above inequality is then

$$
\leq \operatorname{Pr}\left[\sum_{p} \Gamma_{p} \geq\left(\frac{\Delta(w, \operatorname{LDC}(x))}{N}+\varepsilon\right) \cdot Q\right]
$$

Since $\mathbb{E}\left[\Gamma_{p}\right]=\frac{\Delta(w, \operatorname{LDC}(x))}{N} \cdot \frac{Q}{k}$, by Hoeffding's Inequality,

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left[\sum_{p} \Gamma_{p} \geq\left(\frac{\Delta(w, \operatorname{LDC}(x))}{N}+\varepsilon\right) \cdot Q\right] \leq e^{-2 \varepsilon^{2} \cdot k} .
$$

## 5 Noise Resilient Streaming for Linear Algorithms

Our first result is a noise resilient conversion for linear streaming algorithms $A$. We begin by recalling the definition of a linear streaming algorithm.

Definition 1.2. [Linear Streaming Algorithms] A linear streaming algorithm $A:\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_{q}$ is described by a list of functions $g_{i}:\{0,1\} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_{q}$ for $i \in[n]$, and computes the value $A(x)=$ $g_{1}\left(x_{1}\right)+\ldots+g_{n}\left(x_{n}\right)$ (where addition is over $\mathbb{F}_{q}$ ) by tracking the partial sum $g_{1}\left(x_{1}\right)+\ldots+g_{i}\left(x_{i}\right)$ upon receiving the $i$ 'th bit.

For such algorithms, we describe a noise resilient conversion that incurs quadratic blow-up in communication complexity.

Theorem 1.3. Fix $\varepsilon, \delta>0$. There is a function enc : $X \subseteq\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{m}$ where $m=O_{\varepsilon}\left(n^{2+\delta}\right)$ and an explicit transformation $B$ such that the following holds: For any linear streaming algorithm A that takes as input $x \in X \subseteq\{0,1\}^{n}$ as a stream, runs in space $s$ and time $t$, and outputs $A(x)$, the algorithm $B_{A}=B(A)$ takes as input $z \in\{0,1\}^{m}$ as a stream, runs in space s. $O_{\varepsilon}\left((\log n)^{O(1 / \delta)}\right)$ and time $m \cdot O_{\varepsilon, \delta}\left(1+\frac{t}{n^{2}}\right)$, and satisfies that whenever $\Delta(z, \operatorname{enc}(x))<\left(\frac{1}{4}-\varepsilon\right) \cdot m$ then $B_{A}(z)$ outputs $A(x)$ with probability $\geq 1-2^{O_{\varepsilon}\left(\log ^{2} n\right)}$.

### 5.1 Statement of Algorithm

Let $\varepsilon>0$. Throughout the section let $r=\log ^{1 / \delta} n$ and define $\ell:=\log ^{2} n$. We also assume for simplicity that $\log _{r} n$ is an integer. We will also assume that $n>\max \{\exp (\exp (8 \delta / \varepsilon)), \exp (1 / \varepsilon)\}$ is sufficiently large, so that also $\ell<n$.

We begin by specifying the encoding enc $(x)$ that Alice sends in the stream.
Definition $5.1(\operatorname{enc}(x))$. Let $\operatorname{LDC}(x)$ be a locally decodable code with $N(n)=|\operatorname{LDC}(x)|=O_{\varepsilon}\left(n^{1+\delta}\right)$ and query complexity $Q=O_{\varepsilon}\left(\log ^{2 / \delta} n\right)$ satisfying the guarantees of Theorem 4.1 for $\varepsilon / 8$. Then Alice sends $\operatorname{enc}(x):=\operatorname{LDC}(x)^{\log ^{2} n \cdot M_{n}}$ where $M_{n}=(r \cdot \ell)^{\log _{r} n}$ (that is, enc $(n)$ is $\log ^{2} n \cdot M_{n}$ copies of $\operatorname{LDC}(x)$ ). In particular, $m=|\operatorname{enc}(x)|=(r \cdot \ell)^{\log _{r} n} \cdot \log ^{2} n \cdot N(n)=O_{\varepsilon}\left(n^{2+4 \delta}\right)$.

Throughout this section, we use the notation $A_{i, j}(x)$ to denote the quantity $g\left(x_{i+1}\right)+\ldots+g_{j}\left(x_{j}\right)$. Then, $A(x)=A_{0, n}(x)$. We define $N_{j-i}:=(r \cdot \ell)^{\log _{r}(j-i)} \cdot N(n)$ which, as we'll see in the description below, represent the number of bits read by the algorithm to approximate $A_{i, j}(x)$.

We describe Bob's streaming algorithm $B_{A}:=B(A)$. Before stating it formally, we provide a high-level description.

Description: Let $z$ be the incoming stream that Bob receives. At a high level, the algorithm $B_{A}$ runs by generating many guesses for $A(x)$ along with confidences indicating how likely that guess was correct (depending on how much error is witnessed while generating the guess). At the end, the guess that has the most cumulative confidence is outputted.

For $i, j$ where $j-i$ is an integer power of $r$, we define the algorithm est $(i, j)$ that takes in two input two indices $i, j \in[n]$. It reads $N_{j-i}$ many bits of $z$ after which it outputs a guess for $A_{i, j}(x)$ along with a confidence. In particular, est $\mathrm{A}(0, n)$ outputs a guess for $A(x)$ along with a confidence. By running est $\mathrm{A}(0, n)$ many times and aggregating the guesses weighted by the confidences, we obtain a final output.

To compute est $\mathrm{A}(i, j)$, we break down the interval $(i: j]$ into $r$ subintervals $\left(i_{0}: i_{1}\right],\left(i_{1}\right.$ : $\left.i_{2}\right], \ldots,\left(i_{r-1}: i_{r}\right]$ where $i_{a}=i+a \cdot \frac{j-i}{r}$. We then recursively formulate guesses for each $A\left(x\left(i_{a-1}: i_{a}\right]\right)$ over many iterations by calling estA $\left(i_{a-1}, i_{a}\right.$ ) each many times. The choice of $a$ in each iteration must be randomized, so that the adversary cannot attack any single choice of $a$. More specifically, we will split up the $N_{j-i}$ length input stream into $\ell$ chunks, each of length $N_{j-i} / \ell$ bits. Each chunk is split into $r$ sections, each of size $N_{j-i} /(\ell \cdot r)=N_{(j-i) / r}$. In each chunk, we pick a random permutation $\left(\pi_{1}, \pi_{2}, \ldots, \pi_{r}\right)$ of $[r]$. In the $a$ 'th section of the chunk, we will compute on the subproblem corresponding to interval $\left(i_{\pi_{a}-1}: i_{\pi_{a}}\right]$ by calling estA $\left(i_{\pi_{a}-1}, i_{\pi_{a}}\right)$.

Whenever a recursive call to estA $\left(i_{a-1}, i_{a}\right)$ is completed, outputting $(\hat{q}, \hat{c})$, then: if $q_{a}=\hat{q}$ then the confidence $c_{a}$ is increased by $\hat{c}$, and if $q_{a} \neq \hat{q}$ then the confidence $c_{a}$ is decreased by $\hat{c}$. If the confidence $c_{a}$ becomes negative, then we are more sure that the correct state is $\hat{q}$ rather than $q_{a}$ : then $q_{a}$ is replaced by $\hat{q}$ and the confidence is negated (so that it's positive).

```
Algorithm 1 Bob's Noise Resilient Algorithm \(B_{A}\)
    input \(n \in \mathbb{N}\) and stream \(z \in\{0,1\}^{m}\).
    function estA \((i, j) \quad \triangleright\) compute the state of \(A\) starting at state \(q\) between steps \(i\) and \(j\)
        if \(j=i+1\) then
            Read the next \(|\operatorname{LDC}(x)|\) bits of the stream \(y\).
            Using Theorem 4.1 compute guess \(\hat{b}\) for \(x[j]\) and confidence \(\hat{c}\) in \(O_{\varepsilon}\left((\log n)^{O(1 / \delta)}\right)\) bits of
    space.
            return \(g_{i}(\hat{b}), c\).
        else
            Let \(i_{0}=i, i_{1}=i+\frac{j-i}{r}, i_{2}=i+\frac{2(j-i)}{r}, \ldots, i_{r}=j\).
            Initialize a list of pairs \(\left(q_{1}, c_{1}\right), \ldots\left(q_{r}, c_{r}\right)\) each to \((\emptyset, 0)\). \(\triangleright c\) cumulative best guesses and
    confidences
            for \(\ell\) iterations do
                Let \(\pi_{1} \ldots \pi_{r}\) be a random permutation of \([r]\).
                    for \(a \in[r]\) do
                    Compute \((\hat{q}, \hat{c}) \leftarrow \operatorname{estA}\left(i_{\pi_{a}-1}, i_{\pi_{a}}\right)\).
                    if \(\hat{q}=q_{\pi_{a}}\) then \(\quad\) bupdate the confidence on \(\operatorname{estA}\left(i_{\pi_{a}}, i_{\pi_{j}+1}, q_{\pi_{a}-1}\right)\)
                    \(c_{\pi_{a}} \leftarrow c_{\pi_{a}}+\hat{c}\)
                    else
                        \(c_{\pi_{a}} \leftarrow c_{\pi_{a}}-\hat{c}\)
                        if \(c_{\pi_{a}}<0\) then \(\quad\) if the guess changes, flip its confidence
                        \(q_{\pi_{a}} \leftarrow \hat{q}\) and \(c_{\pi_{a}} \leftarrow-c_{\pi_{a}}\).
            return \(q_{1}+\ldots+q_{r}, \min \left(c_{1} \ldots c_{r}\right) / \ell\)
    Initialize a pair \((q, c)\) to \((\emptyset, 0)\).
    for \(\log ^{2} n\) iterations do
                                    amplification step
        Let \((\hat{q}, \hat{c}) \leftarrow \operatorname{estA}(0, n)\)
        if \(\hat{q}=q\) then
            \(c \leftarrow c+\hat{c}\)
        else
            \(c \leftarrow c-\hat{c}\)
            if \(c<0\) then
                    \(q \leftarrow \hat{q}\) and \(c \leftarrow-c\).
    output \(q\).
                        øoutput \(A(x)\)
```


### 5.2 Proof of Theorem 1.3

We begin by proving the stated claims about the communication, time, and space complexities, and then proceed to prove correctness.

### 5.2.1 Algorithmic Complexity

We've already shown by Definition 5.1 that the length of the encoding enc $(x)$ is $m=O_{\varepsilon}\left(n^{2+4 \delta}\right)$. We begin by proving the computational complexity claim.

Lemma 5.2. If $A$ runs in time $t$, Algorithm 2 runs in time $m \cdot O_{\varepsilon, \delta}\left(1+\frac{t}{n^{2}}\right)$.

Proof. Notice that each function $g_{i}\left(x_{i}\right)$ is computed exactly $\frac{\log ^{2} n \cdot M_{n}}{n}$ times throughout the protocol. (To see this, one can show inductively that $\frac{1}{j-i}$ fraction of the $\operatorname{LDC}(x)$ 's in the computation of $A(i, j)$ are used towards the decoding of each $x_{k}, k \in(i, j]$.) Other than that, one must decode of each of the $\log ^{2} n \cdot M_{n}$ copies of $\operatorname{LDC}(x)$ throughout the stream, each of which takes $N(n)+\operatorname{poly} \log (n)$ time to read and decode (see Theorem 4.1). This gives a total computation time of $\log ^{2} n \cdot M(n)$. $\left(N(n)+\operatorname{polylog}(r)+\frac{t}{n}\right)=O_{\varepsilon, \delta}\left(m \cdot\left(1+\frac{t}{n^{2}}\right)\right)$.

Next, we show that Algorithm 1 satisfies the required space guarantees. We'll first show that the confidences $c$ can be stored in $O_{\delta}(\log n)$ bits.

Lemma 5.3. For any $i, j, q$ where $j-i$ is a power of $r$, let $(\hat{q}, \hat{c}):=\operatorname{est} \mathrm{A}(i, j)$. It holds that $\hat{c}$ can be computed and stored as a fraction $\left(c_{1}, c_{2}\right)=c_{1} / c_{2}$ where $c_{1} \leq c_{2}=(j-i)^{\log _{r} \ell} \cdot 4 Q$.

Proof. We show this by induction on $j-i$ for $j-i \leq n$. For the base case where $j-i=1$, this statement holds by Theorem 4.1 since $c_{2}=4 Q$.

Assume the statement holds for all $q^{\prime}$ and $j^{\prime}-i^{\prime}<j-i$ where $j^{\prime}-i^{\prime}$ is a power of $r$. In the computation of est $\mathrm{A}(i, j)$, for $a \in r$, each value of $c_{a}$ is ultimately the sum of $\leq \ell$ values outputted by the function estA $\left(i_{a-1}, i_{a}\right)$. Since $\frac{i_{a}-i_{a-1}}{r}=\frac{j-i}{r}$, we can use the induction hypothesis to write each value as a fraction with denominator $\left(\frac{j-i}{r}\right)^{\log _{r} \ell} \cdot 4 Q$. Then, each $c_{a} / \ell$ is a fraction with denominator

$$
\left(\frac{j-i}{r}\right)^{\log _{r} \ell} \cdot 4 Q \cdot \ell=\ell^{\log _{r} \frac{j-i}{r}} \cdot 4 Q \cdot \ell=\ell^{\log _{r}(j-i)} \cdot 4 Q=(j-i)^{\log _{r} \ell} \cdot 4 Q,
$$

and so the output confidence $\min _{a \in[r]}\left\{c_{a} / \ell\right\}$ can be written with denominator $c_{2}=(j-i)^{\log _{r} \ell}$. $4 Q$.

Now, we return to showing that Algorithm 1 satisfies the required space guarantees.
Lemma 5.4. Algorithm 1 uses s $\cdot O_{\varepsilon}\left((\log n)^{O(1 / \delta)}\right)$ bits of space.
Proof. Define $\alpha=\alpha(n)=O_{\varepsilon}\left(\log ^{O(1 / \delta)} n\right)$ to be the runtime and thus an upper bound on the space required in the local decoding with confidence of $\operatorname{LDC}(x)$ as given in Theorem 4.1. We claim the computation of est $\mathrm{A}(0, n)$ takes $\alpha+s+\log _{r} n \cdot r \cdot\left(s+O_{\varepsilon, \delta}(\log n)\right)$ bits of storage. We show by induction on $j-i$ (where $j-i$ is a power of $r$ that the computation of est $\mathrm{A}(i, j)$ requires at most $\alpha+s+\log _{r}(j-i) \cdot r \cdot\left(s+O_{\varepsilon, \delta}(\log n)\right)$ bits of space.

The base case holds because when $j-i=1$ because then only $\alpha+s$ space is required.
For the inductive step, the computation of est $\mathrm{A}(i, j)$ requires $\ell$ computations of est $\mathrm{A}\left(i_{a-1}, i_{a}\right)$ for each $a \in[r]$. By the inductive hypothesis, each such computation takes $\alpha+s+\log _{r}\left(\frac{j-i}{r}\right)$. $r \cdot\left(s+O_{\varepsilon, \delta}(\log n)\right)$ bits of space. Each such computation is done in series, and between iterations only the pairs $\left\{\left(q_{a}, c_{a}\right)\right\}_{a \in[r]}$ are tracked. Each $q_{a}$ is a state of size $s$. Each $c_{a}$ is the sum of $\leq \ell$ confidences that are the output of computation estA $\left(i_{a-1}, i_{a}\right)$. By Lemma 6.3 the output confidence of $\operatorname{est} \mathrm{A}\left(i_{a-1}, i_{a}\right)$ is a fraction $\leq 1$ with denominator $\left(\frac{j-i}{r}\right)^{\log _{r} \ell} \cdot 4 Q$, so $c_{a}$ can be represented in $2 \log _{2}\left(\ell \cdot\left(\frac{j-i}{r}\right)^{\log _{r} \ell} \cdot 4 Q\right)<O_{\varepsilon, \delta}\left(\log _{2} n\right)$ bits. Moreover, in each chunk, we must compute a
permutation of $r$, which takes at most $r \log _{2} r=r \cdot o_{\delta}(\log n)$ bits. In total, this takes

$$
\begin{array}{r}
\leq\left[\alpha+s+\log _{r}\left(\frac{j-i}{r}\right) \cdot r \cdot\left(s+O_{\varepsilon, \delta}(\log n)\right)\right]+r \cdot\left(s+O_{\varepsilon, \delta}(\log n)\right) \\
=\alpha+s+\log _{r}(j-i) \cdot r \cdot\left(s+O_{\varepsilon, \delta}(\log n)\right)
\end{array}
$$

bits of space, as desired.
Finally, the amplification part of Algorithm 2 requires $\log ^{2} n$ iterations. Between iterations, we are only storing a pair $(q, c)$. This increases the number of bits required by at most $s+O_{\varepsilon, \delta}(\log n)$.

In total, the total space needed throughout the entire algorithm is

$$
<s \cdot \log ^{1 / \delta+1} n+O_{\varepsilon, \delta}\left(\log ^{1 / \delta+2} n\right)+\alpha<s \cdot O_{\varepsilon}\left((\log n)^{O(1 / \delta)}\right)
$$

bits.

### 5.2.2 Correctness

We now show correctness. Formally, correctness is shown by the following lemma.
Lemma 5.5. When at most $\frac{1}{4}-\varepsilon$ fraction of the stream $\mathrm{enc}(x)$ is corrupted, Algorithm 1 outputs $A(x)$ with probability $\geq 1-\exp \left(-\varepsilon^{2} \log ^{2} n / 32\right)$.

We prove the following statement which will easily imply Lemma 5.5. For a given $i, j$ and associated string that is read by the algorithm in the computation, let the random variable ( $q(i, j), c(i, j)$ ) denote the state and confidence after the computation est $\mathrm{A}(i, j)$. We define the signed confidence, denoted $c^{ \pm}(i, j)$, to be defined as $+c(i, j)$ if $q(i, j)=A_{i, j}(x)$ and $-c(i, j)$ otherwise. For intuition, the more positive $c^{ \pm}(i, j)$ is, the more correct with higher confidence the output $(q(i, j), c(i, j))$ is, whereas the more negative $c_{ \pm}(i, j)$ is, the more $q(i, j)$ is incorrect with high confidence. So, $c^{ \pm}(i, j)$ gives us a scaled measure of how correct the output of est $\mathrm{A}(i, j)$ is.
Lemma 5.6. For any $0 \leq i<j \leq n$ and $e \in \mathbb{R}$, given $\leq \frac{1}{4}-\frac{\varepsilon}{4}-\frac{\varepsilon}{4} \cdot \frac{\log (j-i)}{\log n}-e$ fraction of corruptions in the bits read by the computation of est $\mathrm{A}(i, j)$, we have $\mathbb{E}\left[c^{ \pm}(i, j)\right]>e$.

We defer the proof to Section 5.2.3 and return to the proof of Lemma 5.5.
Proof of Lemma 5.5. In the special case where $i=0, j=n$ and there are $\leq \frac{1}{4}-\frac{\varepsilon}{2}-e<\frac{1}{4}-\frac{\varepsilon}{4}-\frac{\varepsilon}{4}$. $\frac{\log (j-i)}{r}-e$ errors (where the inequality follows because $\log n<\varepsilon \cdot r$ ), by Lemma 5.6 we have that $\underset{\mathbb{E}}{ }\left[c^{ \pm}(0, n)\right]>e$.

Then, the final amplification step of the protocol computes the pair $(q(0, n), c(0, n))$ for $\log ^{2} n$ times, where in each chunk $i$ we denote the fraction of error to be $\left(\frac{1}{4}-\frac{\varepsilon}{2}-e_{i}\right)$, where $\sum_{i} e_{i} \geq \frac{\varepsilon \log ^{2} n}{2}$ since we assumed the total error was $\leq \frac{1}{4}-\varepsilon$. Also, the protocol outputs $A(x)$ if and only if $\sum_{i} c_{i}^{ \pm}(0, n)$ (denoting the value of $c^{ \pm}(0, n)$ in the $i^{\prime}$ 'th chunk) is positive. By Azuma's inequality,

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left[\sum_{i} c_{i}^{ \pm}(0, n)>0\right] \geq \operatorname{Pr}\left[\sum_{i}\left(c_{i}^{ \pm}(0, n)-e_{i}\right)>-\frac{\varepsilon \log ^{2} n}{2}\right] \geq 1-\exp \left(-\frac{\varepsilon^{2} \log ^{2} n}{32}\right) .
$$

Combining Lemmas 5.2, 5.4, and 5.5, this concludes the proof of Theorem 1.3.

### 5.2.3 Proof of Lemma 5.6

We prove Lemma 5.6 by induction on $j-i$. We'll show the statement assuming it holds for $j^{\prime}-i^{\prime}<j-i$ (where $j^{\prime}-i^{\prime}$ is a power of $r$ ).

We begin with the base case of $j-i=1$. In this case, the algorithm simply reads (a corrupted version of) $\operatorname{LDC}(x)$, and by Theorem 4.1, it holds that $\mathbb{E}\left[c^{ \pm}(i, j)\right]>e$ since there is at most $\left(\frac{1}{4}-\frac{\varepsilon}{4}-e\right)$ error.

We start with some useful notation. In the computation of est $\mathrm{A}(i, j)$, we say that the output of the computation of est $\mathrm{A}\left(i_{a-1}, i_{a}\right)$ in the $b^{\prime}$ th chunk is $\left(\hat{q}_{a, b}, \hat{c}_{a, b}\right)$. We define the signed confidence $\hat{c}_{a, b}^{ \pm}$to be the confidence $\hat{c}_{a, b}$ signed by whether the guess $\hat{q}_{a, b}$ is correct: that is,

$$
\hat{c}_{a, b}^{ \pm}:= \begin{cases}\hat{c}_{a, b} & \hat{q}_{a, b}=A_{i_{a-1}, i_{a}}(x) \\ -\hat{c}_{a, b} & \hat{q}_{a, b} \neq A_{i_{a-1}, i_{a}}(x) .\end{cases}
$$

The cumulative best guess and confidence for $A_{i_{a-1}, i_{a}}(x)$ after all $\ell$ chunks is denoted by $\left(q_{a}, c_{a}\right)$. We let $q_{0}=\emptyset$. We define a cumulative signed confidence $c_{a}^{ \pm}$as follows:

$$
c_{a}^{ \pm}:= \begin{cases}c_{a} & q_{a}=A_{i_{a-1}, i_{a}}(x) \\ -c_{a} & q_{a} \neq A_{i_{a-1}, i_{a}}(x) .\end{cases}
$$

We show a lower bound on the cumulative signed confidence at the end of all $\ell$ chunks $c_{a}^{ \pm}$that holds with high probability.

Lemma 5.7. Let $a \in[r]$ index the $r$ intervals $\left(i_{a-1}, i_{a}\right]$ in the computation of est $\mathrm{A}(i, j)$. Let each of the $\ell$ chunks in the computation be indexed by $b \in[\ell]$ and suppose chunk $b$ has $\left(\frac{1}{4}-\frac{\varepsilon}{4}-\frac{\varepsilon}{4} \cdot \frac{\log \frac{j-i}{r}}{\log n}-e_{b}\right)$ fraction of corruption. Then, for all $a \in[r]$, with probability $\geq 1-$ $\exp \left(-\frac{\log ^{2} n}{8}\right)$ it holds that $c_{a}^{ \pm}>\sum_{b \leq \ell} e_{b}-\frac{\ell}{\log n}$.
Proof. We first show that for all $a$, it holds that $c_{a}^{ \pm} \geq \sum_{b \leq \ell} \hat{c}_{a, b}^{ \pm}$. To see this, define $c_{a, b}^{ \pm}$to be the value of $c_{a}$ at the end of chunk $b$ if $q_{a}$ is correct at the end of chunk $b$, and otherwise, $-c_{a}$, so that $c_{a}^{ \pm}=c_{a, \ell}^{ \pm}$. Then, $c_{a, b}^{ \pm}-c_{a, b-1}^{ \pm} \geq \hat{c}_{a, b}^{ \pm}$, which implies that $c_{a}^{ \pm} \geq \sum_{b \leq \ell} \hat{c}_{a, b}^{ \pm}$.

Consider the sequence $\left\{X_{b}:=\sum_{d \leq b}\left(\hat{c}_{a, d}^{ \pm}-e_{d}\right)\right\}_{b \in[\ell]}$. Because $\mathbb{E}\left[\hat{c}_{a, b}^{ \pm}\right]>e_{b}$ by induction on induction on $j-i$, the sequence $\left\{X_{b}\right\}_{b \in[\ell]}$ is a submartingale. It also holds that $\left|\hat{c}_{a, b}^{ \pm}-e_{b}\right| \leq 2$.

Then, by Azuma's inequality, it holds that

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left[c_{a}^{ \pm}>\sum_{b \leq \ell} e_{b}-\frac{\ell}{\log n}\right] \geq \operatorname{Pr}\left[X_{\ell}>-\frac{\ell}{\log n}\right]>1-\exp \left(-\frac{\log ^{2} n}{8}\right)
$$

Now, we need a way to reconcile the values of $e$ and $e_{b}$. Recall that from the statement of Lemma 5.6 that $e$ is defined to be such that there is $\left(\frac{1}{4}-\frac{\varepsilon}{4}-\frac{\varepsilon}{4} \cdot \frac{\log j-i}{\log n}-e\right)$ fraction of error in
the bits read by estA $(i, j)$. In Lemma 5.7, chunk $b$ had $\left(\frac{1}{4}-\frac{\varepsilon}{4}-\frac{\varepsilon}{4} \cdot \frac{\log \frac{j-i}{r}}{\log n}-e_{b}\right)$ fraction of error. This means that the total fraction of error is equal to

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{1}{4}-\frac{\varepsilon}{4}-\frac{\varepsilon}{4} \cdot \frac{\log (j-i)}{\log n}-e & =\frac{1}{\ell} \sum_{b \leq \ell}\left(\frac{1}{4}-\frac{\varepsilon}{4}-\frac{\varepsilon}{4} \cdot \frac{\log \frac{j-i}{r}}{\log n}-e_{b}\right) \\
\Longrightarrow e & =\frac{1}{\ell} \cdot \sum_{b \leq \ell} e_{b}-\frac{\varepsilon}{4} \cdot \frac{\log r}{\log n} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Next, we show that the cumulative signed confidence is larger than proportional to $e$ at the end of each of the $\ell$ chunks.
Lemma 5.8. With probability at least $1-\frac{1}{n}$, it holds that for all $a \in[r]$ that $\frac{c_{a}^{ \pm}}{\ell}>e+\frac{1}{\log n}$.
Proof. Using Lemma 5.7 with a union bound, it holds with probability at least

$$
1-\sum_{1 \leq a \leq r} \exp \left(-\frac{\log ^{2} n}{8}\right) \geq 1-r \cdot \exp \left(-\frac{\log ^{2} n}{8}\right) \geq 1-\frac{1}{n}
$$

that

$$
\frac{c_{a}^{ \pm}}{\ell}>\frac{\sum_{b \leq \ell} e_{b}-\frac{\ell}{\log n}}{\ell} \geq e+\frac{\varepsilon}{4} \cdot \frac{\log r}{\log n}-\frac{1}{\log n} \geq e+\frac{1}{\log n}
$$

since for sufficiently large $n$ it holds that $\frac{\varepsilon}{4} \cdot \log r>2$.
We return to the computation of $\mathbb{E}\left[c^{ \pm}(i, j)\right]$. Note that

$$
c^{ \pm}(i, j)= \begin{cases}+\min _{a \in[r]}\left\{\frac{c_{a}}{\ell}\right\} & q(i, j)=A_{i, j}(x) \\ -\min _{a \in[r]}\left\{\frac{c_{a}}{\ell}\right\} & q(i, j) \neq A_{i, j}(x) .\end{cases}
$$

Define the event $E$ to be the event where $\frac{c_{a}^{ \pm}}{\ell}>e+\frac{1}{\log n}$ for all $a \in[r]$. By Lemma 5.8, $E$ holds with probability at least $1-\frac{1}{n}$. We split the proof of Lemma 5.6 based on whether $e+\frac{1}{\log n} \geq 0$.

If $e+\frac{1}{\log n} \geq 0$, then whenever $E$ holds we have that for all $a$ we have $c_{a}^{ \pm}>0$ and thus $q(i, j)=A_{i, j}(x)$. Therefore,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{E}\left[c^{ \pm}(i, j)\right] & \geq \mathbb{E}\left[\left.\min _{a \in[r]}\left\{\frac{c_{a}}{\ell}\right\} \right\rvert\, E\right] \cdot \operatorname{Pr}[E]+\left(\min \text { value of } c^{ \pm}(i, j)\right) \cdot(1-\operatorname{Pr}[E]) \\
& >\left(e+\frac{1}{\log n}\right)\left(1-\frac{1}{n}\right)+(-1) \cdot \frac{1}{n} \\
& =e+\frac{n-e \log n-1-\log n}{n \log n} \\
& >e
\end{aligned}
$$

If $e+\frac{1}{\log n}<0$, then if $q(i, j)=A_{i, j}(x)$, then $\mathbb{E}\left[c^{ \pm}(i, j)\right] \geq 0>e+\frac{1}{\log n} \geq e$. Otherwise, there is at least one value of $a$ for which $q_{a}$ is incorrect. Conditioned on $E$, it holds that $\frac{c_{a}^{ \pm}}{\ell}>e+\frac{1}{\log n}$. Since $q_{a}$ is incorrect it holds that $c_{a}^{ \pm}=-c_{a}$, implying that $\frac{c_{a}}{\ell}<-e-\frac{1}{\log n}$. As such,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{E}\left[c^{ \pm}(i, j)\right] & \geq \mathbb{E}\left[\left.-\min _{a \in[r]}\left\{\frac{c_{a}}{\ell}\right\} \right\rvert\, E\right] \cdot \operatorname{Pr}[E]+\left(\text { min value of } c^{ \pm}(i, j)\right) \cdot(1-\operatorname{Pr}[E]) \\
& >\left(e+\frac{1}{\log n}\right)\left(1-\frac{1}{n}\right)+(-1) \cdot \frac{1}{n} \\
& =e+\frac{n-e \log n-1-\log n}{n \log n} \\
& >e
\end{aligned}
$$

This concludes the proof of Lemma 5.6.

## 6 Noise Resilient Streaming for General Algorithms

We now consider general streaming algorithms, whose computational may be sequential in nature. Our main result is a noise resilient conversion for deterministic streaming algorithms $A$. Compared to our scheme for linear algorithms from Section 5, the length of our encoding is larger: $n^{4+\delta}$ compared to $n^{2+\delta}$.

Theorem 1.1. Fix $\varepsilon, \delta>0$. There is a function enc : $X \subseteq\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{m}$ where $m=O_{\varepsilon}\left(n^{4+\delta}\right)$ and an explicit transformation $B$ such that the following holds: For any deterministic algorithm $A$ that takes as input $x \in X \subseteq\{0,1\}^{n}$ as a stream, runs in space $s$ and time $t$, and outputs $A(x)$, the algorithm $B_{A}=B(A)$ takes as input $z \in\{0,1\}^{m}$ as a stream, runs in space s. $O_{\varepsilon}\left((\log n)^{O(1 / \delta)}\right)$ and time $m \cdot O_{\varepsilon, \delta}\left(1+\frac{t}{n^{2}}\right)$, and satisfies that whenever $\Delta(z, \operatorname{enc}(x))<\left(\frac{1}{4}-\varepsilon\right) \cdot m$ then $B_{A}(z)$ outputs $A(x)$ with probability $\geq 1-2^{O_{\varepsilon}\left(\log ^{2} n\right)}$.

Throughout this section, we use the notation

$$
A(q, \hat{x}) \in\{0,1\}^{s}
$$

to denote the state of algorithm $A$ when starting with the state $q \in\{0,1\}^{s}$ and executing on $\hat{x}$ received in a stream. By definition, there is an explicit algorithm that computes $A(q, \hat{x})$ in $s$ space. We also use the shorthand $A(\hat{x})$ to denote $A(\emptyset, \hat{x})$. Notice that $A(x)=A(\emptyset, x)$ is simply the output state of the stream.

### 6.1 Statement of Algorithm

Let $\varepsilon>0$. Throughout the section let $r=\log ^{1 / \delta} n$ and define $\ell:=r^{2} \log ^{4} n$. We also assume for simplicity that $\log _{r} n$ is an integer. We will also assume that $n>\max \{\exp (\exp (8 \delta / \varepsilon)), \exp (1 / \varepsilon)\}$ is sufficiently large, so that also $\ell<n$.

We begin by specifying the encoding enc $(x)$ that Alice sends in the stream.
Definition $6.1(\operatorname{enc}(x))$. Let $\operatorname{LDC}(x)$ be a locally decodable code with $N(n)=|\operatorname{LDC}(x)|=O_{\varepsilon}\left(n^{1+\delta}\right)$ and query complexity $Q=O_{\varepsilon}\left(\log ^{2 / \delta} n\right)$ satisfying the guarantees of Theorem 4.1 for $\varepsilon / 8$. Then Alice sends $\operatorname{enc}(x):=\operatorname{LDC}(x)^{\log ^{2} n \cdot M_{n}}$ where $M_{n}=(r \cdot \ell)^{\log _{r} n}$ (that is, enc $(n)$ is $\log ^{2} n \cdot M_{n}$ copies of $\operatorname{LDC}(x)$ ). In particular, $m=|\operatorname{enc}(x)|=(r \cdot \ell)^{\log _{r} n} \cdot \log ^{2} n \cdot N(n)=O_{\varepsilon}\left(n^{4+6 \delta}\right)$.

Next, we describe Bob's streaming algorithm $B_{A}:=B(A)$. Before stating it formally, we provide a high-level description.

Description: Let $z$ be the incoming stream that Bob receives. At a high level, the algorithm $B_{A}$ runs by generating many guesses for $A(x)$ along with confidences indicating how likely that guess was correct (depending on how much error is witnessed while generating the guess). At the end, the guess that has the most cumulative confidence is outputted.

For $i, j$ where $j-i$ is an integer power of $r$, we define the algorithm est $\mathrm{A}(i, j, q)$ that has the following syntax:

- estA $(i, j, q)$ takes as input two indices $i, j \in[n]$ along with a state $q \in\{0,1\}^{s}$ which represents a guess for the state of $A(q, x(i: j])$.
- It reads $N_{j-i}:=(r \cdot \ell)^{\log _{r}(j-i)} \cdot N(n)$ many bits of $z$ after which it outputs a guess for $A(q, x(i: j])$ along with a confidence.

In particular, est $\mathrm{A}(0, n, q)$ outputs a guess for $A(x)$ along with a confidence. By running est $\mathrm{A}(0, n, q)$ many times and aggregating the guesses weighted by the confidences, we obtain a final output.

At a high level, to compute estA $(i, j, q)$, we break down the interval $(i: j$ ] into $r$ subintervals $\left(i_{0}: i_{1}\right],\left(i_{1}: i_{2}\right], \ldots,\left(i_{r-1}: i_{r}\right]$ where $i_{a}=i+a \cdot \frac{j-i}{r}$. We then recursively formulate guesses for each $A\left(x\left(1: i_{a}\right]\right)$ over many iterations by calling estA $\left(i_{a-1}, i_{a}, q_{a-1}\right)$ for some state $q_{a-1}$. The choice of $a$ in each iteration must be randomized, so that the adversary cannot attack any single choice of $a$. More specifically, we will split up the $N_{j-i}$ length input stream into $\ell$ chunks, each of length $N_{j-i} / \ell$ bits. Each chunk is split into $r$ sections, each of size $N_{j-i} /(\ell \cdot r)=N_{(j-i) / r}$. In each chunk, we pick a random permutation $\left(\pi_{1}, \pi_{2}, \ldots, \pi_{r}\right)$ of $[r]$. In the $a$ 'th section of the chunk, we will compute on the subproblem corresponding to interval $\left(i_{\pi_{a}-1}: i_{\pi_{a}}\right]$ by calling estA $\left(i_{\pi_{a}-1}, i_{\pi_{a}}, q_{\pi_{a}-1}\right)$.

Note that as the algorithm $A$ is computed sequentially, computing a guess for $A\left(x\left[1: i_{a}\right]\right)$ requires having a starting state $q_{a-1}$ for $A\left(x\left[1: i_{a-1}\right]\right)$. Thus, throughout the entire computation, we will keep track of the best guess and associated confidence for each of the $r$ states $A\left(x\left[1: i_{a}\right]\right)$, denoted ( $q_{a}, c_{a}$ ) and all initialized to ( $\emptyset, 0$ ).

These pairs $\left(q_{a}, c_{a}\right)$ are maintained as follows. Whenever a recursive call to estA $\left(i_{a-1}, i_{a}, q_{a-1}\right)$ is completed, outputting $(\hat{q}, \hat{c})$, then: if $q_{a}=\hat{q}$ then the confidence $c_{a}$ is increased by $\hat{c}$, and if $q_{a} \neq \hat{q}$ then the confidence $c_{a}$ is decreased by $\hat{c}$. If the confidence $c_{a}$ becomes negative, then we are more sure that the correct state is $\hat{q}$ rather than $q_{a}$ : then $q_{a}$ is replaced by $\hat{q}$ and the confidence is negated (so that it's positive). In this last case where $q_{a}$ is replaced, we have no more reason to believe that further computations of $q_{a^{\prime}}, a^{\prime}>a$, are correct since they all depended on $q_{a}$, so we erase all such pairs $\left(q_{a^{\prime}}, c_{a^{\prime}}\right)$ and reset them to $(\emptyset, 0)$. A key point in our analysis is to understand why this does not cause the error probability to accumulate.

```
Algorithm 2 Bob's Noise Resilient Algorithm \(B_{A}\)
    input \(n \in \mathbb{N}\) and stream \(z \in\{0,1\}^{m}\).
    function estA \((i, j, q) \quad \triangleright\) compute the state of \(A\) starting at state \(q\) between steps \(i\) and \(j\)
        if \(j=i+1\) then
            Read the next \(|\operatorname{LDC}(x)|\) bits of the stream \(y\).
            Using Theorem 4.1 compute guess \(\hat{b}\) for \(x[j]\) and confidence \(\hat{c}\) in \(s \cdot O_{\varepsilon}\left((\log n)^{O(1 / \delta)}\right)\) bits
    of space.
            return \(A(q, \hat{b}), c\)
        else
            Let \(i_{0}=i, i_{1}=i+\frac{j-i}{r}, i_{2}=i+\frac{2(j-i)}{r}, \ldots, i_{r}=j\).
            Initialize a list of pairs \(\left(q_{1}, c_{1}\right), \ldots\left(q_{r}, c_{r}\right)\) each to \((\emptyset, 0)\). \(\triangleright\) cumulative best guesses and
    confidences
                for \(\ell\) iterations do
                    Let \(\pi_{1} \ldots \pi_{r}\) be a random permutation of \([r]\).
                    Set \(\left(q_{1}^{\prime}, c_{1}^{\prime}\right)=\left(q_{1}, c_{1}\right), \ldots\left(q_{r}^{\prime}, c_{r}^{\prime}\right)=\left(q_{r}, c_{r}\right)\).
                    for \(a \in[r]\) do
                        Compute \((\hat{q}, \hat{c}) \leftarrow \operatorname{estA}\left(i_{\pi_{a}-1}, i_{\pi_{a}}, q_{\pi_{a}-1}^{\prime}\right)\) where \(q_{0}^{\prime}:=q\).
                                if \(\hat{q}=q_{\pi_{a}}^{\prime}\) then \(\quad\) bupdate the confidence on estA \(\left(i_{\pi_{a}}, i_{\pi_{j}+1}, q_{\pi_{a}-1}\right)\)
                                    \(c_{\pi_{a}} \leftarrow c_{\pi_{a}}^{\prime}+\hat{c}\)
                                    else
                                    \(c_{\pi_{a}} \leftarrow c_{\pi_{a}}^{\prime}-\hat{c}\)
                                    if \(c_{\pi_{a}}<0\) then \(\quad\) if the guess changes, reset its confidence
                    \(q_{\pi_{a}} \leftarrow \hat{q}\) and \(c_{\pi_{a}} \leftarrow-c_{\pi_{a}}\).
                    if some \(q_{a}\) was changed from its value at the beginning of the chunk then
                                    For all \(i>a\), set \(\left(q_{i}, c_{i}\right) \leftarrow(\emptyset, 0)\). \(\triangleright\) reset state and confidence for states with \(i>a\)
                return \(q_{r}, \min \left(c_{1} \ldots c_{r}\right) / \ell\)
    Initialize a pair \((q, c)\) to \((\emptyset, 0)\).
    for \(\log ^{2} n\) iterations do
                                    ■amplification step
        Let \((\hat{q}, \hat{c}) \leftarrow \operatorname{estA}(0, n, \emptyset)\)
        if \(\hat{q}=q\) then
            \(c \leftarrow c+\hat{c}\)
        else
            \(c \leftarrow c-\hat{c}\)
            if \(c<0\) then
                        \(q \leftarrow \hat{q}\) and \(c \leftarrow-c\).
    output \(q\).

\subsection*{6.2 Proof of Theorem 1.1}

The proofs that the algorithm satisfies the required space, computational and communication guarantees are essentially the same as in Section 5, but we reproduce them for completeness. The proof of correctness is somewhat more complicated but also follows the same general outline.

\subsection*{6.2.1 Algorithmic Complexity}

We begin by proving the stated claims about communication, time, and space complexities. We've already shown by Definition 6.1 that the length of the encoding enc \((x)\) is \(m=O_{\varepsilon}\left(n^{4+6 \delta}\right)\). We thus proceed by proving the computational complexity claim.

Lemma 6.2. If \(A\) runs in time \(t\), Algorithm 2 runs in time \(m \cdot O_{\varepsilon, \delta}\left(1+\frac{t}{n^{2}}\right)\).
Proof. Notice that each step \(A\left(q_{i-1}, x[i]\right)\) is computed exactly \(\frac{\log ^{2} n \cdot M_{n}}{n}\) times throughout the protocol. (To see this, one can show inductively that \(\frac{1}{j-i}\) fraction of the \(\operatorname{LDC}(x)\) 's in the computation of \(A(i, j, q)\) are used towards the decoding of \(x_{k}\) for each \(k \in(i, j]\).) Other than that, one must decode of each of the \(\log ^{2} n \cdot M_{n}\) copies of \(\operatorname{LDC}(x)\) throughout the stream, each of which takes \(N(n)+\operatorname{polylog}(n)\) time to read and decode (see Theorem 4.1). This gives a total computation time of \(\log ^{2} n \cdot M(n) \cdot\left(N(n)+\operatorname{polylog}(r)+\frac{t}{n}\right)=O_{\varepsilon, \delta}\left(m \cdot\left(1+\frac{t}{n^{2}}\right)\right)\).

Next, we show that Algorithm 2 satisfies the required space guarantees. We'll first show that the confidences \(c\) can be stored in \(O_{\delta}(\log n)\) bits.

Lemma 6.3. For any \(i, j, q\) where \(j-i\) is a power of \(r\), let \((\hat{q}, \hat{c}):=\operatorname{est} \mathrm{A}(i, j, q)\). It holds that \(\hat{c}\) can be computed and stored as a fraction \(\left(c_{1}, c_{2}\right)=c_{1} / c_{2}\) where \(c_{1} \leq c_{2}=(j-i)^{\log _{r} \ell} \cdot 4 Q\).

Proof. We show this by induction on \(j-i\) for \(j-i \leq n\). For the base case where \(j-i=1\), this statement holds by Theorem 4.1 since \(c_{2}=4 Q\).

Assume the statement holds for all \(q^{\prime}\) and \(j^{\prime}-i^{\prime}<j-i\) where \(j^{\prime}-i^{\prime}\) is a power of \(r\). In the computation of \(\operatorname{est} \mathrm{A}(i, j, q)\), for \(a \in r\), each value of \(c_{a}\) is ultimately the sum of \(\leq \ell\) values outputted by the function estA \(\left(i_{a-1}, i_{a}\right)\). Since \(\frac{i_{a}-i_{a-1}}{r}=\frac{j-i}{r}\), we can use the induction hypothesis to write each value as a fraction with denominator \(\left(\frac{j-i}{r}\right)^{\log _{r} \ell} \cdot 4 Q\). Then, each \(c_{a} / \ell\) is a fraction with denominator
\[
\left(\frac{j-i}{r}\right)^{\log _{r} \ell} \cdot 4 Q \cdot \ell=\ell^{\log _{r} \frac{j-i}{r}} \cdot 4 Q \cdot \ell=\ell^{\log _{r}(j-i)} \cdot 4 Q=(j-i)^{\log _{r} \ell} \cdot 4 Q,
\]
and so the output confidence \(\min _{a \in[r]}\left\{c_{a} / \ell\right\}\) can be written with denominator \(c_{2}=(j-i)^{\log _{r} \ell}\). \(4 Q\).

Now, we return to showing that Algorithm 2 satisfies the required space guarantees.
Lemma 6.4. Algorithm 2 uses \(s \cdot O_{\varepsilon}\left((\log n)^{O(1 / \delta)}\right)\) bits of space.
Proof. Define \(\alpha=\alpha(n)=O_{\varepsilon}\left(\log ^{O(1 / \delta)} n\right)\) to be the runtime and thus an upper bound on the space required in the local decoding with confidence of \(\operatorname{LDC}(x)\) as given in Theorem 4.1. We claim the computation of est \((0, n, \emptyset)\) takes \(\alpha+s+\log _{r} n \cdot r \cdot\left(s+O_{\varepsilon, \delta}(\log n)\right)\) bits of storage. We show by induction on \(j-i\) (where \(j-i\) is a power of \(r\) that the computation of estA \((i, j, q)\) requires at most \(\alpha+s+\log _{r}(j-i) \cdot r \cdot\left(s+O_{\varepsilon, \delta}(\log n)\right)\) bits of space.

The base case holds because when \(j-i=1\) because then only \(\alpha+s\) space is required.
For the inductive step, the computation of \(\operatorname{est} \mathrm{A}(i, j, q)\) requires \(\ell\) computations of estA \(\left(i_{a-1}, i_{a}, q_{a-1}\right)\) for each \(a \in[r]\). By the inductive hypothesis, each such computation takes \(\alpha+s+\log _{r}\left(\frac{j-i}{r}\right) \cdot r \cdot\left(s+O_{\varepsilon, \delta}(\log n)\right)\) bits of space. Each such computation is done in series, and
between iterations only the pairs \(\left\{\left(q_{a}, c_{a}\right)\right\}_{a \in[r]}\) are tracked. Each \(q_{a}\) is a state of size \(s\). Each \(c_{a}\) is the sum of \(\leq \ell\) confidences that are the output of computation estA \(\left(i_{a-1}, i_{a}, q_{a-1}\right)\). By Lemma 6.3 the output confidence of \(\operatorname{est} \mathrm{A}\left(i_{a-1}, i_{a}, q_{a-1}\right)\) is a fraction \(\leq 1\) with denominator \(\left(\frac{j-i}{r}\right)^{\log _{r} \ell} \cdot 4 Q\), so \(c_{a}\) can be represented in \(2 \log _{2}\left(\ell \cdot\left(\frac{j-i}{r}\right)^{\log _{r} \ell} \cdot 4 Q\right)<O_{\varepsilon, \delta}\left(\log _{2} n\right)\) bits. Moreover, in each chunk, we must compute a permutation of \(r\), which takes at most \(r \log _{2} r=r \cdot o_{\delta}(\log n)\) bits. In total, this takes
\[
\begin{array}{r}
\leq\left[\alpha+s+\log _{r}\left(\frac{j-i}{r}\right) \cdot r \cdot\left(s+O_{\varepsilon, \delta}(\log n)\right)\right]+r \cdot\left(s+O_{\varepsilon, \delta}(\log n)\right) \\
=\alpha+s+\log _{r}(j-i) \cdot r \cdot\left(s+O_{\varepsilon, \delta}(\log n)\right)
\end{array}
\]
bits of space, as desired.
Finally, the amplification part of Algorithm 2 requires \(\log ^{2} n\) iterations. Between iterations, we are only storing a pair \((q, c)\). This increases the number of bits required by at most \(s+O_{\varepsilon, \delta}(\log n)\).

In total, the total space needed throughout the entire algorithm is
\[
<s \cdot \log ^{1 / \delta+1} n+O_{\varepsilon, \delta}\left(\log ^{1 / \delta+2} n\right)+\alpha<s \cdot O_{\varepsilon}\left((\log n)^{O(1 / \delta)}\right)
\]
bits.

\subsection*{6.2.2 Correctness}

Next, we show correctness. Formally, correctness is shown by the following lemma.
Lemma 6.5. When at most \(\frac{1}{4}-\varepsilon\) fraction of the stream enc \((x)\) is corrupted, Algorithm 2 outputs \(A(x)\) with probability \(\geq 1-\exp \left(-\varepsilon^{2} \log ^{2} n / 32\right)\).

We prove the following statement which will easily imply Lemma 6.5. For a given \(i, j, q\) and associated string that is read by the algorithm in the computation, let the random variable \((q(i, j, q), c(i, j, q))\) denote the state and confidence after the computation est \(\mathrm{A}(i, j, q)\). We define the signed confidence, denoted \(c^{ \pm}(i, j, q)\), to be defined as \(+c(i, j, q)\) if \(q(i, j, q)=A(q, x(i: j])\) and \(-c(i, j, q)\) otherwise. For intuition, the more positive \(c^{ \pm}(i, j, q)\) is, the more correct with higher confidence the output \((q(i, j, q), c(i, j, q))\) is, whereas the more negative \(c_{ \pm}(i, j, q)\) is, the more \(q(i, j, q)\) is incorrect with high confidence. So, \(c^{ \pm}(i, j, q)\) gives us a scaled measure of how correct the output of est \(\mathrm{A}(i, j, q)\) is.

Lemma 6.6. For any \(0 \leq i<j \leq n, q \in\{0,1\}^{s}\), and \(e \in \mathbb{R}\), given \(\leq \frac{1}{4}-\frac{\varepsilon}{4}-\frac{\varepsilon}{4} \cdot \frac{\log (j-i)}{\log n}-e\) fraction of corruptions in the bits read by the computation of est \(\mathrm{A}(i, j, q)\), we have \(\mathbb{E}\left[c^{ \pm}(i, j, q)\right]>e\).

We defer the proof to Section 6.2.3 and return to the proof of Lemma 6.5.
Proof of Lemma 6.5. In the special case where \(i=0, j=n, q=\emptyset\) and there are \(\leq \frac{1}{4}-\frac{\varepsilon}{2}-e<\) \(\frac{1}{4}-\frac{\varepsilon}{4}-\frac{\varepsilon}{4} \cdot \frac{\log (j-i)}{r}-e\) errors (where the inequality follows because \(\log n<\varepsilon \cdot r\) ), by Lemma 6.6 we have that \(\mathbb{E}\left[c^{ \pm}(0, n, \emptyset)\right]>e\).

Then, the final amplification step of the protocol computes the pair \((q(0, n, \emptyset), c(0, n, \emptyset))\) for \(\log ^{2} n\) times, where in each chunk \(i\) we denote the fraction of error to be \(\left(\frac{1}{4}-\frac{\varepsilon}{2}-e_{i}\right)\), where
\(\sum_{i} e_{i} \geq \frac{\varepsilon \log ^{2} n}{2}\) since we assumed the total error was \(\leq \frac{1}{4}-\varepsilon\). Also, the protocol outputs \(A(x)\) if and only if \(\sum_{i} c_{i}^{ \pm}(0, n, \emptyset)\) (denoting the value of \(c^{ \pm}(0, n, \emptyset)\) in the \(i\) 'th chunk) is positive. By Azuma's inequality,
\[
\operatorname{Pr}\left[\sum_{i} c_{i}^{ \pm}(0, n, \emptyset)>0\right] \geq \operatorname{Pr}\left[\sum_{i}\left(c_{i}^{ \pm}(0, n, \emptyset)-e_{i}\right)>-\frac{\varepsilon \log ^{2} n}{2}\right] \geq 1-\exp \left(-\frac{\varepsilon^{2} \log ^{2} n}{32}\right) .
\]

Combining Lemmas 6.2, 6.4, and 6.5, this concludes the proof of Theorem 1.1.

\subsection*{6.2.3 Proof of Lemma 6.6}

We remark that this section constitutes the main difference in the analysis of Algorithm 1 and Algorithm 2. In Algorithm 1, the recursive calls to estA \(\left(i_{a-1}, i_{a}\right)\) can be computed in any order, and so \(c^{ \pm}(i, j)\) is easy to analyze and converges quickly. In Algorithm 2, the recursive call to estA \(\left(i_{a-1}, i_{a}, q_{a-1}\right)\) has no hope of providing any useful information until \(q_{a-1}\) is correct, and so in this algorithm, the quantity \(c^{ \pm}(i, j, q)\) requires a more careful analysis, and ultimately converges slower.

We prove Lemma 6.6 by induction on \(j-i\). We'll show the statement for a specific value of \((i, j, q)\) where \(j-i\) is a power of \(r\) assuming it holds for any \(\left(i^{\prime}, j^{\prime}, q^{\prime}\right)\) where \(j^{\prime}-i^{\prime}<j-i\) (and \(j^{\prime}-i^{\prime}\) is a power of \(r\) ).

We begin with the base case of \(j-i=1\). In this case, the algorithm simply reads (a corrupted version of \() \operatorname{LDC}(x)\), and by Theorem 4.1, it holds that \(\mathbb{E}\left[c^{ \pm}(i, j, q)\right]>e\) since there is at most \(\left(\frac{1}{4}-\frac{\varepsilon}{4}-e\right)\) error.

Now, suppose we are in the computation of estA \((i, j, q)\). We start with some useful notation.
We say that a state \(q_{a}^{\prime}\) is correct when it is equal to the state produced by the algorithm \(A\) starting at \(q\) and executing steps \(i\) to \(i_{a}\) (as defined in Line 8 of the algorithm). That is, it is equal to \(A\left(q, x\left(i: i_{a}\right]\right)\). We note that this is different from requiring only est \(\mathrm{A}\left(i_{a-1}, i_{a}, q_{a-1}\right)\) to be done correctly from the starting state \(q_{a-1}\).

In the computation of est \(\mathrm{A}(i, j, q)\), we say that the output of the computation of est \(\mathrm{A}\left(i_{a-1}, i_{a}, q_{a-1}\right)\) in the \(b^{\prime}\) th chunk is \(\left(\hat{q}_{a, b}, \hat{c}_{a, b}\right)\). We define the signed confidence \(\hat{c}_{a, b}^{ \pm}\)to be the confidence \(\hat{c}_{a, b}\) signed by whether the guess \(\hat{q}_{a, b}\) is correct: that is,
\[
\hat{c}_{a, b}^{ \pm}:= \begin{cases}\hat{c}_{a, b} & \hat{q}_{a, b} \text { is correct } \\ -\hat{c}_{a, b} & \hat{q}_{a, b} \text { is incorrect. }\end{cases}
\]

The cumulative best guess and confidence for \(A\left(q, x\left(i: i_{a}\right]\right)\) after chunk \(b\), as initialized in Line 9 , are denoted by \(\left(q_{a, b}, c_{a, b}\right)\). We let \(q_{0, b}=\emptyset\). We can define a cumulative signed confidence \(c_{a, b}^{ \pm}\)as follows:
\[
c_{a, b}^{ \pm}:= \begin{cases}c_{a, b} & q_{a, b} \text { is correct } \\ -c_{a, b} & q_{a, b} \text { is incorrect. }\end{cases}
\]

We first show that \(c_{a, b}^{ \pm}\)is correct proportional to \(\sum_{d \leq b} e_{d}\) assuming that \(q_{a-1, b}\) is correct.
Lemma 6.7. Let \(a \in[r]\) index the \(r\) intervals \(\left(i_{a-1}, i_{a}\right]\) in the computation of est \(\mathrm{A}(i, j, q)\). Let each of the \(\ell\) chunks in the computation be indexed by \(b \in[\ell]\) and suppose chunk \(b\) has
\(\left(\frac{1}{4}-\frac{\varepsilon}{4}-\frac{\varepsilon}{4} \cdot \frac{\log \frac{j-i}{r}}{\log n}-e_{b}\right)\) fraction of corruption. Then, for all \(a \in[r]\), with probability \(\geq 1-\) \(a \ell^{2} \exp \left(-\frac{\log ^{2} n}{32}\right)\) it holds for all \(b \in[\ell]\) that either \(c_{a, b}^{ \pm}>\sum_{d \leq b} e_{d}-\frac{a \ell}{r \log n}\) or \(q_{a-1, b}\) is incorrect.

Proof. We use induction on \(a\). Let us prove the statement for \(a\) assuming it is true for \(a-1\). Our base case is \(a=0\), and it holds that \(q_{0, b}\) is correct (meaning equal to \(q\) ) for all \(b \in[\ell]\).

Fix some chunk \(b\). For \(d \leq b\), we define the altered confidence \(\hat{c}_{a, d}^{\text {alt }}\) to be the signed confidence, with a caveat for when \(q_{a-1, d-1}\) is incorrect, as follows:
\[
\hat{c}_{a, d}^{\text {alt }}:= \begin{cases}1 & q_{a-1, d-1} \text { is incorrect } \\ c_{a, b}^{ \pm} & q_{a-1, d-1} \text { is correct. }\end{cases}
\]

Then, for any \(0 \leq b^{\prime}<b\), the sequence \(\left\{X_{b^{\prime}, d}:=\sum_{b^{\prime}<d^{\prime} \leq d}\left(\hat{c}_{a, d^{\prime}}^{\text {alt }}-e_{d^{\prime}}\right)\right\}_{b^{\prime}<d \leq b}\) is a submartingale. To see this, we have that \(\mathbb{E}\left[\hat{c}_{a, d}^{\mathrm{alt}}\right] \geq \mathbb{E}\left[\hat{c}_{a, d}^{ \pm}\right]>e_{d}\), where the last inequality was by induction on induction on \(j-i\). Furthermore, \(\left|c_{a, d}^{ \pm}-e_{d}\right| \leq 2\). Then, by Azuma's inequality,
\[
\operatorname{Pr}\left[X_{b^{\prime}, b} \leq-\frac{\ell}{2 r \log n}\right] \leq \exp \left(-\frac{\ell^{2}}{32 r^{2} \log ^{2} n\left(b-b^{\prime}\right)}\right) \leq \exp \left(-\frac{\ell}{32 r^{2} \log ^{2} n}\right)=\exp \left(-\frac{\log ^{2} n}{32}\right)
\]
recalling that \(\ell=r^{2} \log ^{4} n\). By a union bound,
\[
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Pr}\left[X_{b^{\prime}, b}>-\frac{\ell}{2 r \log n} \quad \forall 0 \leq b^{\prime}<b\right] \geq 1-\ell \cdot \exp \left(-\frac{\log ^{2} n}{32}\right) . \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
\]

Now, we return to proving the lemma statement. We have to prove that the statement holds simultaneously for all \(b \in[\ell]\) with high probability.

By the inductive hypothesis, Equation (1), and a union bound, we have that with probability \(\geq 1-(a-1) \ell^{2} \cdot \exp \left(-\frac{\log ^{2} n}{32}\right)-\ell \cdot \ell \cdot \exp \left(-\frac{\log ^{2} n}{32}\right)=1-a \ell^{2} \cdot \exp \left(-\frac{\log ^{2} n}{32}\right)\), the following two conditions simultaneously hold:
1. for all \(d\) for which \(\sum_{d^{\prime} \leq d} e_{d^{\prime}} \geq \frac{(a-1) \ell}{r}\) it holds that \(c_{a-1, d}^{ \pm}>0\), or in other words \(q_{a-1, d}\) is correct, and
2. for all \(b \in[\ell]\), it holds that \(X_{b^{\prime}, b}>-\frac{\ell}{2 r \log n} \quad \forall 0 \leq b^{\prime}<b\).

Assume for now that we are not within this failure probability. For any chunk \(b\), let \(b^{*}\) be the last chunk \(\leq b\) in which \(q_{a-1, d}\) changed values. If \(q_{a-1, b^{*}}\) is incorrect, then the lemma is proven, because \(q_{a-1, b}=q_{a-1, b^{*}}\) is also incorrect. So assume that \(q_{a-1, b^{*}}\) is correct.

If \(b^{*}=b\) then \(c_{a, b}^{ \pm}=0\) since ( \(q_{a, b}, c_{a, b}\) ) was reset to \((\emptyset, 0)\). Moreover, because \(q_{a-1, b-1}\) has to be incorrect, we have that \(\sum_{d<b} e_{d}<\frac{(a-1) \ell}{r}\) by assumption 1 . Then, we have that
\[
c_{a, b}^{ \pm}=0>\frac{(a-1) \ell}{r \log n}+1-\frac{a \ell}{r \log n} \geq \sum_{d<b} e_{d}+e_{b}-\frac{a \ell}{r \log n}=\sum_{d \leq b} e_{d}-\frac{a \ell}{r \log n},
\]
as desired, where the first inequality follows because \(\ell=r^{2} \log ^{4} n>r \log n\).

Otherwise, \(b^{*}<b\). Then, since \(q_{a-1, b^{*}}\) is correct, the value of \(q_{a-1, b^{*}-1}\) in chunk \(b^{*}-1\) was incorrect, and so \(\sum_{d<b^{*}} e_{d} \leq \frac{(a-1) \ell}{r \log n}\) by assumption 1 . Since \(q_{a-1, d}\) is correct for all \(b^{*} \leq d<b\), we have that \(\hat{c}_{a, d}^{\mathrm{alt}}=\hat{c}_{a, d}^{ \pm}\)for all \(b^{*}<d \leq b\). Moreover, \(c_{a, b}^{ \pm} \geq \sum_{b^{*}<d \leq b} \hat{c}_{a, d}^{ \pm}\). To see this, notice that for all \(b\), it holds that \(c_{a, b}^{ \pm}-c_{a, b-1}^{ \pm} \geq \hat{c}_{a, b}^{ \pm}\). Then,
\[
c_{a, b}^{ \pm} \geq \sum_{b^{*}<d \leq b} \hat{c}_{a, d}^{ \pm}=\sum_{b^{*}<d \leq b} \hat{c}_{a, d}^{\mathrm{al}}=X_{b^{*}, b}+\sum_{b^{*}<d \leq b} e_{d} .
\]

Therefore, by Equation (1),
\[
\begin{aligned}
c_{a, b}^{ \pm} & =X_{b^{*}, b}+\sum_{b^{*}<d \leq b} e_{d} \\
& >-\frac{\ell}{2 r \log n}+\sum_{d \leq b} e_{d}-e_{b^{*}}-\sum_{d<b^{*}} e_{d} \\
& >-\frac{\ell}{2 r \log n}+\sum_{d \leq b} e_{d}-1-\frac{(a-1) \ell}{r \log n} \\
& >\sum_{d \leq b} e_{d}-\frac{a \ell}{r \log n} .
\end{aligned}
\]

This holds for all \(b \in[\ell]\), as desired.
We now take \(b=\ell\) in Lemma 6.7. First, we need a way to reconcile the values of \(e\) and \(e_{b}\). Recall that from the statement of Lemma 6.6 that \(e\) is defined to be such that there is \(\left(\frac{1}{4}-\frac{\varepsilon}{4}-\frac{\varepsilon}{4} \cdot \frac{\log j-i}{\log n}-e\right)\) fraction of error in the bits read by estA \((i, j, q)\). In Lemma 6.7, chunk \(b\) had \(\left(\frac{1}{4}-\frac{\varepsilon}{4}-\frac{\varepsilon}{4} \cdot \frac{\log \frac{j-i}{r}}{\log n}-e_{b}\right)\) fraction of error. This means that the total fraction of error is equal to
\[
\begin{gathered}
\frac{1}{4}-\frac{\varepsilon}{4}-\frac{\varepsilon}{4} \cdot \frac{\log (j-i)}{\log n}-e=\frac{1}{\ell} \sum_{b \leq \ell}\left(\frac{1}{4}-\frac{\varepsilon}{4}-\frac{\varepsilon}{4} \cdot \frac{\log \frac{j-i}{r}}{\log n}-e_{b}\right) \\
\Longrightarrow e=\frac{1}{\ell} \cdot \sum_{b \leq \ell} e_{b}-\frac{\varepsilon}{4} \cdot \frac{\log r}{\log n}
\end{gathered}
\]

Lemma 6.8. With probability at least \(1-\frac{1}{n}\), it holds that for all \(a \in[r]\) where \(q_{a-1, \ell}\) is correct that \(\frac{c_{a, \ell}^{ \pm}}{\ell}>e+\frac{1}{\log n}\).
Proof. By Lemma 6.7, using a union bound, it holds with probability at least
\[
\begin{aligned}
1-\sum_{1 \leq a \leq r} a \ell^{2} \exp \left(-\frac{\log ^{2} n}{32}\right) & \geq 1-r^{2} \ell^{2} \exp \left(-\frac{\log ^{2} n}{32}\right) \\
& \geq 1-\ell^{3} \exp \left(-\frac{\log ^{2} n}{32}\right) \\
& \geq 1-\frac{1}{n}
\end{aligned}
\]
(because \(\ell<n\) ) that for all values of \(a\) where \(q_{a-1, \ell}\) is correct, we have
\[
\begin{aligned}
\frac{c_{a, \ell}^{ \pm}}{\ell} & >\frac{\sum_{d \leq \ell} e_{d}-\frac{a \ell}{r \log n}}{\ell} \\
& \geq e+\frac{\varepsilon}{4} \cdot \frac{\log r}{\log n}-\frac{1}{\log n} \\
& \geq e+\frac{1}{\log n}
\end{aligned}
\]
since for sufficiently large \(n\), we have that \(\frac{\varepsilon}{4} \cdot \log r>2\).
We return to the computation of \(\mathbb{E}\left[c^{ \pm}(i, j, q)\right]\). Note that
\[
c^{ \pm}(i, j, q)= \begin{cases}+\min _{a \in[r]}\left\{\frac{c_{a, \ell}}{\ell}\right\} & q_{r} \text { is correct } \\ \left.-\min _{a \in[r]} \frac{\left\{\frac{a_{a}, \ell}{\ell}\right\}}{}\right\} & q_{r} \text { is incorrect. }\end{cases}
\]

We split the proof of Lemma 6.6 based on whether \(e+\frac{1}{\log n} \geq 0\).
If \(e+\frac{1}{\log n} \geq 0\), define the event \(E\) to be the event where \(\frac{c_{a, \ell}^{ \pm}}{\ell}>e+\frac{1}{\log n}\) for all \(a \in[r]\). We show that \(E\) holds with probability at least \(1-\frac{1}{n}\). This is due to Lemma 6.8 , which says that with probability \(\geq 1-\frac{1}{n}\), simultaneously for all \(a \in[r]\) if \(q_{a-1, \ell}\) is correct then \(\frac{c_{a, \ell}^{ \pm}}{\ell}>e+\frac{1}{n} \geq 0\). Let \(E\) be the event that this holds. Then, since \(q_{0, \ell}=q\) is correct by definition, it follows that \(q_{a, \ell}\) is correct for all \(a \in[r]\). Since \(q_{a-1, \ell}\) is correct for all \(a \in[r]\), it holds that \(\frac{c_{a, \ell}^{ \pm}}{\ell}>e+\frac{1}{n}\) also. Therefore,
\[
\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{E}\left[c^{ \pm}(i, j, q)\right] & \geq \mathbb{E}\left[\left.\min _{a \in[r]}\left\{\frac{c_{a, \ell}}{\ell}\right\} \right\rvert\, E\right] \cdot \operatorname{Pr}[E]+\left(\text { min value of } c^{ \pm}(i, j, q)\right) \cdot(1-\operatorname{Pr}[E]) \\
& >\left(e+\frac{1}{\log n}\right)\left(1-\frac{1}{n}\right)+(-1) \cdot \frac{1}{n} \\
& =e+\frac{n-e \log n-1-\log n}{n \log n} \\
& >e
\end{aligned}
\]

If \(e+\frac{1}{\log n}<0\), then if \(q_{r, \ell}\) is correct, then \(\mathbb{E}\left[c^{ \pm}(i, j, q)\right] \geq 0>e+\frac{1}{\log n} \geq e\). Otherwise, \(q_{r, \ell}\) is incorrect. By Lemma 6.8, with probability \(\geq 1-\frac{1}{n}\), it holds that \(\frac{c_{a, \ell}^{ \pm}}{\ell}>e+\frac{1}{\log n}\) for all \(a\) as long as \(q_{a-1, \ell}\) is correct. Let the event this occurs be \(E\). If \(q_{r, \ell}\) is incorrect, there is a smallest \(a>0\) such that \(q_{a, \ell}\) is incorrect (note that \(q_{0, \ell}=0\) is always correct), for which it holds that \(\frac{c_{a, \ell}^{ \pm}}{\ell}>e+\frac{1}{\log n}\) given \(E\). Since \(q_{a, \ell}\) is incorrect it holds that \(c_{a, \ell}^{ \pm}=-c_{a, \ell}\), implying that \(\frac{c_{a, \ell}}{\ell}<-e-\frac{1}{\log n}\). As such,
\[
\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{E}\left[c^{ \pm}(i, j, q)\right] & \geq \mathbb{E}\left[\left.-\min _{a \in[r]}\left\{\frac{c_{a, \ell}}{\ell}\right\} \right\rvert\, E\right] \cdot \operatorname{Pr}[E]+\left(\text { min value of } c^{ \pm}(i, j, q)\right) \cdot(1-\operatorname{Pr}[E]) \\
& >\left(e+\frac{1}{\log n}\right)\left(1-\frac{1}{n}\right)+(-1) \cdot \frac{1}{n} \\
& =e+\frac{n-e \log n-1-\log n}{n \log n} \\
& >e
\end{aligned}
\]

This concludes the proof of Lemma 6.6.

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[^0]:    *E-mail:meghal@berkeley.edu. This author was supported by an UC Berkeley Chancellor's fellowship.
    ${ }^{\dagger}$ E-mail:rachelyz@mit.edu. This research was supported in part by DARPA under Agreement No. HR00112020023, an NSF grant CNS-2154149, and NSF Graduate Research Fellowship 2141064.

[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ In fact, she could have just sent Bob $f(x)$ instead of $x$ in the noiseless version as well.

[^2]:    ${ }^{2}$ The algorithm to do this is as follows. Upon receiving the pair $\left(i, y_{i}\right)$ in a stream, Bob checks if $i=j$ in $\log \log n$ bits of space (by checking if each bit in the binary representation of $i$ and $j$ are equal), which can be done because both $i$ and $j$ are length $\log n$. Then, if $i=j$, he outputs $y_{i}$.
    ${ }^{3}$ We remark that in the noiseless protocol, the stream itself is not the target vector $y$; it is $x(y):=\left(1, y_{1}\right) \ldots\left(n, y_{n}\right)$. In the previous discussion, we had been describing enc as a function of the noiseless stream $x$, but here it is simpler to think of it as a function of the target vector $y$ (although either definition is fine).

[^3]:    ${ }^{4}$ The smallest local decodable code we know of that supports local decoding to any arbitrary linear function is an extension of the Hadamard code, which has block length exponential in $n$. This will not be a satisfactory solution for us because (a) we would like encodings that are efficiently computable, and (b) keeping track of which bit of the stream one is receiving takes $n$ memory.

[^4]:    ${ }^{5}$ In our actual protocol, we will repeat the procedure $\log ^{2} n$ times and take a final majority vote, so the number of $\operatorname{LDC}(x)$ 's used will be $(r \cdot \ell)^{\log _{r} n} \cdot \log ^{2} n$.

