1. Chapter 1: Introduction

Overview of number partitioning problem.

Application: randomized control trials.

Other applications.

Circuit design, etc.

Importance as a basic NP-complete problem.

Two questions of interest:

- 1. What is optimal solution.
- 2. How to find optimal solution.

1.1. Physical Interpretations

1.2. Statistical-to-Computational Gap

2. Number Packing Problem

Let N be the dimensionality, and $\Sigma_N := \{\pm 1\}$ be the binary cube. Suppose we're given $g \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I_N)$. We want to find $x \in \Sigma_N$ such that we minimize $|\langle x, g \rangle|$.

Definition 2.1. Let $\delta > 0$. The solution set $S(\delta; g)$ is the set of all $x \in \Sigma_N$ that are δ -optimal, satisfying

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}}|\langle g, x \rangle| \le 2^{-\delta N}. \tag{2.1}$$

(2.1) Hi

2.1. Existing Results

- 1. $X_i, 1 \le i \le n$ i.i.d. uniform from $\{1, 2, ..., M := 2^m\}$, with $\kappa := \frac{m}{n}$, then phase transition going from $\kappa < 1$ to $\kappa > 1$.
- 2. Average case, X_i i.i.d. standard Normal.
- 3. Karmarkar [KKLO86] NPP value is $\Theta(\sqrt{N}2^{-N})$ whp as $N \to \infty$ (doesn't need Normality).
- 4. Best polynomial-time algorithm: Karmarkar-Karp [KK82] Discrepancy $O(N^{-\alpha \log N})$ = $2^{-\Theta(\log^2 N)}$ whp as $N \to \infty$
- 5. PDM (paired differencing) heuristic fails for i.i.d. uniform inputs with objective $\Theta(n^{-1})$
- 6. LDM (largest differencing) heuristic works for i.i.d. Uniforms, with $n^{-\Theta(\log n)}$ (Yakir, with constant $\alpha = \frac{1}{2 \ln 2}$ calculated non-rigorously by Boettcher and Mertens). 7. Krieger - $O(n^{-2})$ for balanced partition.
- 8. Hoberg [HHRY17] computational hardness for worst-case discrepancy, as poly-time oracle that can get discrepancy to within $O(2^{\sqrt{n}})$ would be oracle for Minkowski problem.
- 9. Gamarnik-Kizildag: Information-theoretic guarantee $E_n = n$, best computational guarantee $E_n = \Theta(\log^2 n).$

- 10. Existence of m-OGP for m = O(1) and $E_n = \Theta(n)$.
- 11. Absence for $\omega(1) \le E_n = o(n)$
- 12. Existence for $\omega(\sqrt{n\log_2 n}) \le E_n \le o(n)$ for $m = \omega_{n(1)}$ (with changing η, β)

 1. While OGP not ruled out for $E_n \le \omega(\sqrt{n\log_2 n})$, argued that it is tight.

 13. For $\varepsilon \in \left(0, \frac{1}{5}\right)$, no stable algorithm can solve $\omega\left(n\log^{-\frac{1}{5}+\varepsilon}n\right) \le E_n \le o(n)$ 14. Possible to strengthen to $E_n = \Theta(n)$ (as $2^{-\Theta(n)} \le 2^{-o(n)}$)

3. Glossary and conventions

Conventions:

- 1. \log means \log in base 2, exp is exp base 2 natural \log /exponent is \ln/e^x .
- 2.

Glossary:

- 1. "instance"/"disorder" g, instance of the NPP problem
- 2. "discrepancy" for a given g, value of $\min_{x \in \Sigma_N} \lvert \langle g, x \rangle \rvert$
- 3. "energy" negative exponent of discrepancy, i.e. if discrepancy is 2^{-E} , then energy is E. Lower energy indicates "worse" discrepancy.
- 4. "near-ground state"/"approximate solution"

4. Literature Review

[AC08]

[AR06]

[Add+17]

[Ali+05]

[AFG96]

[Asp+20]

[APZ19]

[BPW18]

[Ban10]

[Bar+16]

[BFM04]

[BGT13]

[BR13]

[BM08]

[BCP01]

[BB19]

[BBH19]

[CV13]

[Che+19]

[CGJ78]

[CL91]

[CE15]

[COY19]

[DM15]

[DKS17]

[Fel+16]

[FF98]

[GK21a]

[Gam+22]

[GK21b]

[GJW22]

[GZ19a]

[GZ19b]

[GS13]

[GJ19]

[Gam21]

[GJS21]

[GS17]

[GZ19c]

[GJ79]

[GW98]

[GW00]

[Har+23]

[HTF09]

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[HLS14]

[Hob+16]

[Hop+17]

[Hop18]

[HSS15]

[HS25]

[Jer92]

[Joh+89]

[Joh+91]

[Kar+86]

[KK83]

[Kea98]

[K1z23]

[Koj10]

[Kor95]

[Kor98]

[Kor09]

[Kot+17]

[KKS14]

[KAK19]

[KWB19]

[LW07]

[LRR17]

[LM12]

[Lue87]

[MPW15]

[MH78]

[Mer03]

[MerO1]

[MMZ05]

[Mic+03]

[O'D21]

[RSS19]

[RV17]

[Rot16]

[SBD21]

[SFD96]

[Tsa92]

[TMR20]

[Wai19]

[Wei20]

[Wen+23]

[Yak96]

[ZK16]

5. Low-Degree Algorithms

What are algorithms of interest

For our purposes, an algorithm is a function which takes as input

Why study low-degree algorithms (poly time heuristic + simple)

Different notions of degree.

Overview of section

- Efron-Stein notion
- Hermite notion
- Algorithms and Stability Bounds

5.1. Efron-Stein Polynomials (TODO)

Definition 5.1. Let π be a probability distribution on \mathbf{R} . The L^2 space $L^2(\mathbf{R}^N, \pi^{\otimes N})$ is the space of functions $f: \mathbf{R}^N \to \mathbf{R}$ with finite L^2 norm.

$$\mathbf{E}[f^2] \coloneqq \int_{x=(x_1,\dots,x_n)\in\mathbf{R}^N} f(x)^2 \,\mathrm{d}\pi^{\otimes N}(x) < \infty.$$

Alternatively, this is the space of L^2 functions of N i.i.d. random variables x_i distributed as π .

Motivation for studying decompositions of functions by projecting onto coordinates.

Want to decompose

$$f = \sum_{S \subseteq [n]} f^{=S} \tag{5.1}$$

Want $f^{=S}$ to only depend on the coordinates in S.

If $T \nsubseteq S$ and g depends only on the coordinates in T, then $\langle f^{=S}, g \rangle = 0$.

Definition 5.2. Let $f \in L^2(\mathbf{R}^N, \pi^{\otimes N})$ and $J \subseteq [n]$, with $\overline{J} = [n] \setminus J$. The projection of f onto J is the function $f^{\subseteq J} : \mathbf{R}^N \to \mathbf{R}$ given by

$$f^{\subseteq J}(x) = \mathbf{E}[f(x_1, ..., x_n) \mid x_i, i \in J].$$

This is f with the \overline{J} coordinates re-randomized, so $f^{\subseteq J}$ only depends on x_J .

In particular, we should have that

$$f^{\subseteq J} = \sum_{S \subseteq J} f^{=S} \tag{5.2}$$

First, we consider the case $J=\emptyset$. It is clear that $f^{=\emptyset}=f^{\subseteq\emptyset}$, which is the constant function $\mathbf{E}[f]$. Next, if $J=\{j\}$ is a singleton, (5.2) gives

$$f^{\subseteq \{j\}} = f^{=\emptyset} + f^{=\{j\}},$$

and as $f^{\subseteq \{j\}}(x) = \mathbf{E}[f \mid x_j]$, we get

$$f^{=\{j\}} = \mathbf{E}[f \mid x_i] - \mathbf{E}[f].$$

This function only depends on x_j ; all other coordinates are averaged over. It measures what difference in expectation of f is given x_i .

Continuing on to sets of two coordinates, some brief manipulation gives, for $J = \{i, j\}$,

$$\begin{split} f^{\subseteq \{i,j\}} &= f^{=\varnothing} + f^{=\{i\}} + f^{=\{j\}} + f^{=\{i,j\}} \\ &= f^{\subseteq\varnothing} + \left(f^{\subseteq \{i\}} - f^{\subseteq\varnothing} \right) + \left(f^{\subseteq \{j\}} - f^{\subseteq\varnothing} \right) + f^{=\{i,j\}} \\ &\therefore f^{=\{i,j\}} = f^{\subseteq \{i,j\}} - f^{\subseteq \{i\}} - f^{\subseteq \{j\}} + f^{\subseteq\varnothing}. \end{split}$$

Inductively, all the $f^{=\!J}$ can be defined via the principle of inclusion-exclusion.

To see that these functions are indeed orthogonal, we need the following computation:

Lemma 5.3. Let $f, g \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^N, \pi^{\otimes N})$ and $I, J \subseteq [n]$ be subsets of coordinates. Assume that f only depends on coordinates in I and likewise for g and J. Then $\langle f, g \rangle = \langle f^{\subseteq I \cap J}, g^{\subseteq I \cap J} \rangle$.

Proof: Assume without loss of generality that $I \cup J = [n]$. Then, given $x \in \mathbf{R}^N$, we can split it into $(x_{I \cap J}, x_{I \setminus J}, x_{J \setminus I})$. Abusing notation slightly to only include the coordinates a function actually depends on, we have

$$\begin{split} \langle f,g \rangle &= \mathbf{E}_{x_{I \cap J},x_{I \setminus J},x_{J \setminus I}} \big[f\big(x_{I \cap J},x_{I \setminus J}\big) \cdot g\big(x_{I \cap J},x_{J \setminus I}\big) \big] \\ &= \mathbf{E}_{x_{I \cap J}} \Big[\mathbf{E}_{x_{I \setminus J}} \big[f\big(x_{I \cap J},x_{I \setminus J}\big) \big] \cdot \mathbf{E}_{x_{J \setminus I}} \big[g\big(x_{I \cap J},x_{J \setminus I}\big) \big] \Big] \\ &= \mathbf{E}_{x_{I \cap J}} \big[f^{\subset I \cap J}(x_{I \cap J}) \cdot g^{\subset I \cap J}(x_{I \cap J}) \big] \\ &= \langle f^{\subseteq I \cap J},g^{\subseteq I \cap J} \rangle. \end{split}$$

The first line follows from Adam's law and independence of $x_{I\setminus J}$ and $x_{J\setminus I}$, while the second follows from definition of $f^{\subset I\cap J}$ and $g^{\subset I\cap J}$.

Theorem 5.4 (O'Donnell, Theorem 8.35). Let $f \in L^2(\mathbf{R}^N, \pi^{\otimes N})$. Then f has a unique decomposition as

$$f = \sum_{S \subseteq [n]} f^{=S}$$

where the functions $f^{=S} \in L^2(\mathbf{R}^N, \pi^{\otimes N})$ satisfy

- 1. $f^{=S}$ depends only on the coordinates in S;
- 2. if $T \subseteq S$ and $g \in L^2(\mathbf{R}^N, \pi^{\otimes N})$ only depends on coordinates in T, then $\langle f^{=S}, g \rangle = 0$.

In addition, this decomposition has the following properties:

- 3. Condition 2. holds whenever $S \nsubseteq T$.
- 4. The decomposition is orthogonal: $\langle f^{=S}, f^{=T} \rangle = 0$ for $S \neq T$.
- $5. \ \sum_{S \subseteq T} f^{=\hat{S}} = f^{\subseteq T}.$
- 6. For each $S \subseteq [n]$, $f \mapsto f^{=S}$ is a linear operator.

Definition 5.5. The *Efron-Stein degree* of a function $f \in L^2(\mathbf{R}^N, \pi^{\otimes N})$ is

$$\deg_{\mathrm{ES}}(f) = \max_{S \subseteq [n] \text{ s.t. } f^{=S} \neq 0} |S|.$$

If $f = (f_1, ..., f_M) : \mathbf{R}^N \to \mathbf{R}^M$ is a multivariate function, then the Efron-Stein degree of f is the maximum degree of the f_i .

Intuitively, the Efron-Stein degree is the maximum size of multiway interactions that f accounts for.

Motivation for "noise operator" - see how function behaves for small change in input parameters.

Definition 5.6. For $p \in [0,1]$, and $x \in \mathbb{R}^N$, we say $y \in \mathbb{R}^N$ is *p-resampled from x* if y is chosen as follows: for each $i \in [n]$, independently,

$$y_i = \begin{cases} x_i & \text{with probability } p \\ \text{drawn from } \pi & \text{with probability } 1 - p \end{cases}$$

We say (x, y) is a p-resampled pair.

Def. noise operator.

Definition 5.7. For $p \in [0,1]$, the *noise operator* is the linear operator T_p on $L^2(\mathbf{R}^N, \pi^{\otimes N})$, defined by, for y p-resampled from x

$$T_p f(x) = \mathbf{E}_{y \text{ p-resampled from } x}[f(y)]$$

In particular, $\langle f, T_p f \rangle = \mathbf{E}_{(x,y) \ p\text{-resampled}}[f(x) \cdot f(y)].$

Lemma 5.8. Let $p \in [0,1]$ and $f \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^N, \pi^{\otimes N})$ have Efron-Stein decomposition $f = \sum_{S \subseteq [n]} f^{=S}$.

$$T_p f(x) = \sum_{S \subseteq [n]} p^{|S|} f^{=S}.$$

Proof: Let J denote a p-random subset of [n], i.e. with J formed by including each $i \in [n]$ independently with probability p. By definition, $T_p f(x) = \mathbf{E}_J [f^{\subseteq J}(x)]$ (i.e. pick a random subset of coordinates to fix, and re-randomize the rest). We know by Theorem 5.4 that $f^{\subseteq J} = \sum_{S \subseteq J} f^{=S}$, so

$$T_p f(x) = \mathbf{E}_J \left[\sum_{S \subseteq J} f^{=S} \right] = \sum_{S \subseteq [n]} \mathbf{E}_J [I(S \subseteq J)] \cdot f^{=S} = \sum_{S \subseteq [n]} p^{|S|} f^{=S},$$

since for a fixed $S \subseteq [n]$, the probability that $S \subseteq J$ is $p^{|S|}$.

Lem. Noise operator formula in E-S decomposition. (Ex. 8.18)

Thrm. Function stability for degree D functions

Theorem 5.9. Let $p \in [0,1]$ and let $f = (f_1,...,f_M): \mathbf{R}^N \to \mathbf{R}^M$ be a multivariate function with Efron-Stein degree D and each $f_i \in L^2(\mathbf{R}^N, \pi^{\otimes N})$. Suppose that (x,y) are a p-resampled pair under $\pi^{\otimes N}$, and $\mathbf{E} \|f(x)\|^2 = 1$. Then

$$\mathbf{E}||f(x) - f(y)||^2 \le 2(1 - p^D) \le 2(1 - p)D \tag{5.3}$$

Proof: Observe that

$$\mathbf{E}\|f(x) - f(y)\|^{2} = \mathbf{E}\|f(x)\|^{2} + \mathbf{E}\|f(y)\|^{2} - 2\mathbf{E}\langle f(x), f(y)\rangle$$

$$= 2 - 2\left(\sum_{i} \mathbf{E}[f_{i}(x)f_{i}(y)]\right)$$

$$= 2 - 2\left(\sum_{i}\langle f_{i}, T_{p}f_{i}\rangle\right).$$
(5.4)

Here, we have for each $i \in [n]$ that

$$\langle f_i, T_p f_i \rangle = \left\langle \sum_{S \subseteq [n]} f_i^{=S}, \sum_{S \subseteq [n]} p^{|S|} f_i^{=S} \right\rangle = \sum_{S \subseteq [n]} p^{|S|} \left\| f_i^{=S} \right\|^2,$$

by Lemma 5.8 and orthogonality. Now, as each f_i has Efron-Stein degree at most D, the sum above can be taken only over $S \subseteq [n]$ with $0 \le |S| \le D$, giving the bound

$$p^{D}\mathbf{E}[f_{i}(x)^{2}] \leq \langle f_{i}, T_{p}f_{i} \rangle = \mathbf{E}[f_{i}(x) \cdot T_{p}f_{i}(x)] \leq \mathbf{E}[f_{i}(x)^{2}].$$

Summing up over *i*, and using that $\mathbf{E}||f(x)||^2 = 1$, gives

$$p^{D} \le \sum_{i} \langle f_{i}, T_{p} f_{i} \rangle = \mathbf{E} \langle f(x), f(y) \rangle \le 1.$$

Finally, we can substitute into (5.4) to get

$$\mathbf{E} \|f(x) - f(y)\|^2 \le 2 - 2p^D = 2(1 - p^D) \le 2(1 - p)D,$$

as desired.

5.2. Hermite Polynomials (TODO)

Disclaimer of "this theory is much more classical, see (ref) for details."

Def. Gaussian space

Definition 5.10. Let γ_N be the N-dimensional standard Normal measure on \mathbf{R}^N . Then the N-dimensional Gaussian space is the space $L^2(\mathbf{R}^N, \gamma^N)$ of L^2 functions of N i.i.d. standard Normal random variables.

Note that under the usual L^2 inner product, $\langle f, g \rangle = \mathbf{E}[f \cdot g]$, Gaussian space is a separable Hilbert space.

To us, the interesting functions in this space are those given by degree D multivariate polynomials (here "degree" is used in the traditional sense.)

Thrm. monomials form basis of 1D Gaussian space (cite)

It is a well-known fact that the monomials $1, z, z^2, \ldots$ form a complete basis for $L^2(\mathbf{R}, \gamma)$ (O'Donnell 11.22). However, these are far from an orthonormal "Fourier" basis; for instance, we know $\mathbf{E}[z^2]=1$ for $z\sim \mathcal{N}(0,1)$. By the Gram-Schmidt process, these monomials can be converted into the polynomials h_j for $j\geq 0$, given as

$$h_0(z) = 1,$$
 $h_1(z) = z,$ $h_2(z) = \frac{z^2 - 1}{\sqrt{2}},$ $h_3(z) = \frac{z^3 - 3z}{\sqrt{6}},$... (5.5)

Note here that each h_i is a degree j polynomial.

nd thus the collection of $(h_j)_{0 \le j \le k}$

¹This follows from the identity $(1-p^D)=(1-p)(1+p+p^2+...p^{D-1})$; the bound is tight for $p\approx 1$.

These formulas require knowledge of the moments of a standard Normal random variable, so a more convenient way to derive them is by analyzing the standard Normal moment generating function. Recall that for $z \sim \mathcal{N}(0,1)$, we have

$$\mathbf{E}[\exp(tz)] = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{\mathbf{R}} e^{tz - \frac{1}{2}z^2} dz = e^{\frac{1}{2}t^2} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{\mathbf{R}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(z-t)^2} dz = \exp\left(\frac{1}{2}t^2\right).$$

Theorem 5.11 (O'Donnell, meow). The Hermite polynomials $(h_j)_{j\geq 0}$ form a complete orthonormal basis for $L^2(\mathbf{R}, \gamma)$.

To extend this to $L^2(\mathbf{R}^N, \gamma^N)$, we can take products. For a multi-index $\alpha \in \mathbb{N}^N$, we define the multivariate Hermite polynomial $h_\alpha : \mathbf{R}^N \to \mathbf{R}$ as

$$h_{\alpha}(z) := \prod_{j=1}^{N} h_{\alpha_j}(z_j).$$

The degree of h_{α} is clearly $|\alpha| = \sum_{i} \alpha_{j}$.

Theorem 5.12. The Hermite polynomials $(h_{\alpha})_{\alpha \in \mathbb{N}^N}$ form a complete orthonormal basis for $L^2(\mathbf{R}^N, \gamma^N)$. In particular, every $f \in L^2(\mathbf{R}^N, \gamma^N)$ has a unique expansion in L^2 norm as

$$f(z) = \sum_{\alpha \in \mathbb{N}^N} \hat{f}(\alpha) h_{\alpha}(z).$$

As a consequence of the uniqueness of the expansion in , we see that polynomials are their own Hermite expansion. Namely, let $H^{\leq k} \subseteq L^2(\mathbf{R}^N, \gamma^N)$ be the subset of multivariate polynomials of degree at most k. Then, any $f \in H^{\leq k}$ can be Hermite expanded as

$$f(z) = \sum_{\alpha \in \mathbb{N}^N} \hat{f}(\alpha) h_{\alpha}(z) = \sum_{|\alpha| \le k} \hat{f}(\alpha) h_{\alpha}(z).$$

Thus, $H^{\leq k}$ is the closed linear span of the set $\{h_\alpha: |\alpha| \leq k\}$.

Def. noise operator/Ornstein-Uhlenbeck operator

Compute effect of noise operator on Hermite polys

Thrm. Hermite polys form basis for 1D Gaussian space

Thrm. Products of Hermite polys form basis for N-dim Gaussian space

Noise operator on arbitrary function with given Hermite expansion

Definition 5.13. Let (g, g') be N-dimensional standard Normal vectors. We say (g, g') are p-correlated if (g_i, g'_i) are p-correlated for each $i \in [n]$, and these pairs are mutually independent.

In a similar way to the Efron-Stein case, we can consider the resulting "noise operator," as a way of measuring a the effect on a function of a small change in the input.

Definition 5.14. For $p \in [0, 1]$, the *Gaussian noise operator* T_p is the linear operator on $L^2(\mathbf{R}^N, \gamma^N)$, given by

$$T_p f(x) = \mathbf{E}_{y \text{ p-correlated to } x} [f(y)] = \mathbf{E}_{y \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I_N)} \Big[f\Big(px + \sqrt{1 - p^2}y\Big) \Big]$$

In particular, a straightforward computation with the Normal moment generating function gives

Remark that degree D function can be expressed in terms of degree D and lower Hermite polynomials - gives a Hilbert basis which reflects the natural algebraic grading.

Thrm. Function stability for degree D polynomials.

5.3. Algorithms

Def. Randomized algorithm

Def. degree of algorithm is degree as multivariate function.

Discussion of how low-degree algs are approximate for class of Lipschitz algorithms?

Need for rounding function to land on Σ_N

Construction of randomized rounding function.

Constr. rounded algorithm.

Lemma. stability of rounding

Thrm. Stability of randomized algorithms (part 1 of Prop 1.9)

Show that Markov gives a useful bound on

Lemma 5.15. Let $f: \mathbb{R}^N \to \mathbb{R}^N$, $p \in [0,1]$, and X,Y marginally N-dimensional standard Normal vectors. Suppose that $\mathbb{E}||f(X)||_2^2 = 1$ and either of the following cases hold:

I. (X, Y) are a p-resampled pair, and f is a degree-D function.

II. (X, Y) are p-correlated, and f is a degree-D polynomial.

Then

$$\mathbf{E} \| f(X) - f(Y) \|_{2}^{2} \le 2(1 - p^{D}).$$

5.4. Algorithms

Definition 5.16. A randomized algorithm is a measurable function $\mathcal{A}^{\circ}:(g,\omega)\mapsto x\in \mathbb{R}^{N}$, where $\omega\in\Omega_{N}$ is an independent random variable in some Polish space. Such an \mathcal{A}° is deterministic if it does not depend on ω .

Example. Let $U = (U_1, ..., U_N)$ be i.i.d. Unif([-1,1]). Then, we define the random coordinatewise function

$$round_{U}(\mathbf{x}) = (round_{U_1}(x_1), ..., round_{U_N}(x_N)),$$

where we define

$$round_U(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & x \ge U \\ -1 & x < U \end{cases}$$

Example. Given a real-valued algorithm \mathcal{A}° , we can convert it into a Σ_N -valued algorithm \mathcal{A} via

$$\mathcal{A}(g,\omega,\mathbf{U}) \coloneqq \text{round}_{\mathbf{U}}(\mathcal{A}^{\circ}(g,\omega)).$$

Definition 5.17. Algorithm \mathcal{A} is $(\varepsilon, \eta, p_{\text{unstable}})$ -stable if, for g, g' $(1 - \varepsilon)$ -correlated/resampled, we have

$$\mathbf{P}(\|\mathcal{A}(g) - \mathcal{A}(g')\| \le \eta \sqrt{N}) \ge 1 - p_{\text{unstable}}.$$

By the will of God (i.e. writeup pending), we have the following:

Lemma 5.18. Algorithm \mathcal{A} with degree $\leq D$ and norm $\mathbf{E} \|\mathcal{A}(g)\|^2 \leq CN$ has

$$\mathbf{E} \|\mathcal{A}(\mathbf{g}) - \mathcal{A}(\mathbf{g}')\|^2 \le 2CN\varepsilon D,$$

and (because of randomized rounding)

$$\mathbf{E}\|\mathcal{A}(\mathbf{g}) - \mathcal{A}(\mathbf{g}')\|^4 \le 16CN^2\varepsilon D.$$

Thus,

$$\mathbf{P}\Big(\|\mathcal{A}(g)-\mathcal{A}(g')\| \geq \eta \sqrt{N}\Big) \leq \frac{16CN^2\varepsilon D}{\eta^4N^2} \asymp \frac{\varepsilon D}{\eta^4}.$$

As a consequence, a degree D algorithm $\mathcal A$ has $p_{\mathrm{unstable}} = o_{N(1)}$ for $\eta^4 \gg \varepsilon D$.

[O'D21]

[Kor98]

6. Summary of Parameters

Parameter	Meaning	Desired Direction	Intuition
N	Dimension	Large	Showing hardness asymptotically, want "bad behavior" to pop up in low dimensions.
δ	Solution tightness; want to find x such that $ \langle g, x \rangle \le 2^{-\delta N}$	Small	Smaller δ implies weaker solutions, e.g. $\delta=0$ is just finding solutions ≤ 1 . Want to show even weak solutions are hard to find.
E	Solution tightness; "energy level"; want to find x such that $ \langle g, x \rangle \leq 2^{-E}$	Small	Smaller E implies weaker solutions, and can consider full range of $1 \ll E \ll N$. Know that $E > (\log^2 N)$ by Karmarkar-Karp
D	Algorithm degree (in either Efron-Stein sense or usual polynomial sense.)	Large	Higher degree means more complexity. Want to show even complex algorithms fail.
ε	Complement of correlation/resample probability; (g,g') are $(1 - \varepsilon)$ -correlated.	Small	ε is "distance" between g,g' . Want to show that small changes in disorder lead to "breaking" of landscape.
η	Algorithm instability; \mathcal{A} is stable if $\ \mathcal{A}(g) - \mathcal{A}(g')\ \le \eta \sqrt{N}$, for $(g, g') (1 - \varepsilon)$ -correlated.	Large	Large η indicates a more unstable algorithm; want to show that even weakly stable algorithms fail.

Table 1: Explanation of Parameters

7. Conditional Landscape Obstruction

Explain what the obstruction is.

We start with a bound on the geometry of the binary hypercube.

Lemma 7.1. Suppose that $K \le N/2$, and let $h(x) = -x \log(x) - (1-x) \log(x)$ be the binary entropy function. Then, for p := K/N,

$$\sum_{k \le K} \binom{N}{k} \le \exp(Nh(p)) \le \exp\left(2Np\log\left(\frac{1}{p}\right)\right).$$

Proof: Consider a Bin(N, p) random variable S. Summing its PMF from 0 to K, we have

$$1 \ge \mathbf{P}(S \le K) = \sum_{k \le K} {N \choose k} p^k (1-p)^{N-k} \ge \sum_{k \le K} {N \choose k} p^K (1-p)^{N-K}.$$

Here, the last inequality follows from the fact that $p \leq (1-p)$, and we multiply each term by $\left(\frac{p}{1-p}\right)^{K-k} < 1$. Now rearrange to get

$$\sum_{k \le K} {N \choose k} \le p^{-K} (1-p)^{-(N-K)}$$

$$= \exp(-K \log(p) - (N-K) \log(1-p))$$

$$= \exp\left(N \cdot \left(-\frac{K}{N} \log(p) - \left(\frac{N-K}{N}\right) \log(1-p)\right)\right)$$

$$= \exp(N(-p \log(p) - (1-p) \log(p))) = \exp(Nh(p)).$$

The final equality then follows from the bound $h(p) \le 2p \log(1/p)$ for $p \le \frac{1}{2}$.

Lemma 7.2 (Hypercube Neighborhood Size). Fix $x \in \Sigma_N$, and let $\eta \leq \frac{1}{2}$. Then the number of x' within distance $2\sqrt{\eta N}$ of x is

$$\left|\left\{x' \in \Sigma_N \mid \|x - x'\| \le 2\eta\sqrt{N}\right\}\right| \le \exp_2(2\eta \log(1/\eta)N)$$

Proof: Let k be the number of coordinates which differ between x and x' (i.e. the Hamming distance). We have $\|x - x'\|^2 = 4k$, so $\|x - x'\| \le 2\sqrt{\eta N}$ iff $k \le N\eta$. Moreover, for $\eta \le \frac{1}{2}$, $k \le \frac{N}{2}$. Thus, by Lemma 7.1, we get

$$\sum_{k \le N\eta} {N \choose k} \le \exp_2(Nh(\eta)) \le \exp_2\left(2\eta \log\left(\frac{1}{\eta}\right)N\right)$$

Next, we can consider what this probability is in the case of correlated Normals.

Lemma 7.3. Suppose (g, g') are $(1 - \varepsilon)$ -correlated Normal vectors, and let $x \in \Sigma_N$. Then

$$\mathbf{P}(|\langle g', x \rangle| \le 2^{-E} \mid g) \le 2^{-E + O(\log_2 \varepsilon N)}.$$

Proof: Let \tilde{g} be an independent Normal vector to g, and observe that g' can be represented as $g' = pg + \sqrt{1-p^2}\tilde{g}$, for $p=1-\varepsilon$. Thus, $\langle g',x\rangle = p\langle g,x\rangle + \sqrt{1-p^2}\langle \tilde{g},x\rangle$. Observe $\langle g,x\rangle$ is constant given g, and $\langle \tilde{g},x\rangle$ is a Normal r.v. with mean 0 and variance N, so $\langle g',x\rangle \sim \mathcal{N}\big(p\langle g,x\rangle, \big(1-p^2\big)N\big)$. This random variable is nondegenerate for $(1-p^2)N>0$, with density bounded above as

$$\varphi_g(z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi(1-p^2)N}} e^{-\frac{(z-p\langle g,x\rangle)^2}{2(1-p^2)N}} \le \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi(1-p^2)N}}$$
$$\le \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\varepsilon N}} = \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\log(\varepsilon) + O(\log N)\right)$$

Following the remainder of the proof of Lemma 7.4, we conclude that

$$\mathbf{P}\big(|\langle g', x \rangle| \le 2^{-E} \mid g\big) = \int_{|z| \le -2^{-E}} \varphi_{g, |S|}(z) \, \mathrm{d}z \le \exp\bigg(-E - \frac{1}{2} \log(\varepsilon) + O(\log N)\bigg).$$

Note for instance that here ε can be exponentially small in E (i.e. $\varepsilon = \exp_2(-E/10)$), which for the case $E = \Theta(N)$ implies ε can be exponentially small in N.

First, we consider the probability of a solution being optimal for a resampled instance.

Lemma 7.4. Suppose (g, g') are $(1 - \varepsilon)$ -resampled Normal vectors, and let $x \in \Sigma_N$. Then,

$$\mathbf{P}(|\langle g', x \rangle| \le 2^{-E} \mid g, g \ne g') \le 2^{-M + O(1)}.$$

Proof: Let $S = \{i \in [N] : g_i \neq g_i'\}$ be the set of indices where g and g' differ. We can express

$$\langle g', x' \rangle = \sum_{i \in [N]} g'_i x_i = \sum_{i \notin S} g_i x_i + \sum_{i \in S} g_{i'} x_i \sim \mathcal{N} \left(\sum_{i \notin S} g_i x_i, |S| \right).$$

Let $\mu \coloneqq \sum_{i \notin S} g_i x_i$. The conditional distribution of interest can now be expressed as $\mathbf{P}(|\langle g', x' \rangle| \le 2^{-E} \mid g, |S| \ge 1)$. Given $|S| \ge 1$, the quantity $\langle g', x' \rangle$ is a nondegenerate random variable, with density bounded above as

$$\varphi_{g,|S|}(z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi|S|}} e^{-\frac{(z-\mu)^2}{2|S|}} \le \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi|S|}} \le \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}.$$

Hence, the quantity of interest can be bounded as

$$\mathbf{P} \big(|\langle g', x \rangle| \leq 2^{-E} \mid g, g \neq g' \big) \leq \int_{|z| \leq -2^{-E}} \varphi_{g, |S|}(z) \, \mathrm{d}z \leq \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} 2^{-E} = 2^{-E + O(1)}.$$

In this case, we can compute the probability that g = g' as

$$\mathbf{P}(g = g') = \prod_{i=1}^{N} \mathbf{P}(g_i = g_{i'}) = (1 - \varepsilon)^N,$$

which for $\varepsilon \ll 1$ is approximately $1 - N\varepsilon$. Thus, for $\varepsilon \gg \omega \left(\frac{1}{N}\right)$, we have

$$\mathbf{P}(|\langle g', x \rangle| \le 2^{-E} \mid g) \le 2^{-E + O(1)}$$

8. Proof of Low-Degree Hardness in Linear Energy Regime.

8.1. Hermite Case

Let E be a sequence of energy levels depending on N.

Assume for sake of contradiction that $p_{\text{solve}} \ge \Omega(1)$. Let g, g' be $(1 - \varepsilon)$ -correlated instances. We define the following events:

$$\begin{split} S_{\text{solve}} &= \{ \mathcal{A}(g) \in S(E;g), \mathcal{A}(g') \in S(E;g') \} \\ S_{\text{stable}} &= \left\{ \| \mathcal{A}(g) - \mathcal{A}(g') \| \leq 2\eta \sqrt{N} \right\} \\ S_{\text{ogp}} &= \left\{ \text{for } x \text{ depending only on } g, \exists x' \in S(\delta;g') \text{ such that } \| x - x' \| \leq \eta \sqrt{N} \right\} \\ S_{\text{brittle}} &= \left\{ \nexists x' \in S(E;g') \text{ such that } \right\} \\ \| x - x' \| \leq 2\sqrt{\eta N} \end{split}$$

To set the remaining parameters, choose $\varepsilon = \omega\Big(\frac{1}{N}\Big)$ such that $\varepsilon D = o(1)$. Then, choose η such that $\Big(h^{-1}(\delta)\Big)^2 \gg \eta^4 \gg \varepsilon D$. With this, the previous landscape obstructions give the following.

Lemma 8.1. For any $\omega(\log^2 N) \le E \le \Theta(N)$, there exist choices of ε , η (depending on N, E) such that $\mathbf{P}(S_{\text{ogp}}) = o(1)$.

Proof: Observe that

$$\mathbf{P}(S_{\text{ogn}}) = \mathbf{E}[\mathbf{P}(S_{\text{ogn}} \mid g)]. \tag{8.1}$$

Conditional on g, we can compute $\mathbf{P}(S_{\text{ogp}} \mid g) = \mathbf{P}(\exists x' \in S(E; g'), \|x - x'\| \leq 2\eta \sqrt{N})$ by setting $x = \mathcal{A}(g)$ (so x only depends on g), and union bounding Lemma 7.4 over the x' within $2\eta \sqrt{N}$ of x, as per Lemma 7.2:

$$\mathbf{P}(S_{\text{ogp}} \mid g) \le \exp_2(-E + N\eta^2 \log_2(1/\eta^2) + O(1)).$$

We want to choose η such that

$$-E + N\eta^2 \log_2(1/\eta^2) = -\Omega(N)$$
$$\frac{E}{N} > \eta^2 \log(1/\eta^2)$$

Using the fact that $\sqrt{2x} \ge -x \log_2 x$, it suffices to pick η^2 with

$$\frac{E}{N} > 2\eta$$
,

so $\eta^2 \coloneqq \frac{E^2}{2N^2}$ is a valid choice.

By the choice of $\eta^2 \ll (h^{-1})(\delta) \asymp 1$, this bound gives $\mathbf{P}(S_{\mathrm{ogp}}|g) \leq \exp_2(-O(N)) = o(1)$. Integrating over g gives the overall bound.

When $CD\varepsilon N^2 = \omega_{N(1)}$ (i.e. goes to infinity),

$$\mathbf{P}(S_{\text{stable}}) \le \frac{16CD\varepsilon N^2}{16\eta^4 N^2}$$
$$= \frac{CD\varepsilon}{\eta^4} = \frac{4CD\varepsilon N^4}{E^4}$$

 $D\varepsilon \to 0$ same as $D = o(\frac{1}{\varepsilon}) = o(N)$.

Lemma 8.2. $P(S_{\text{solve}}, S_{\text{stable}}) \leq P(S_{\text{ogp}}) = o(1).$

Proof: The first inequality follows from definition, with $x = \mathcal{A}(g)$ and $x' = \mathcal{A}(g')$. For the second, observe that

$$\mathbf{P}(S_{\text{ogp}}) = \mathbf{E}[\mathbf{P}(S_{\text{ogp}} \mid g)].$$

Now, let $M = \delta N$, we can compute $\mathbf{P}(S_{\text{ogp}} \mid g) = \mathbf{P}(\exists x' \in S(\delta; g'), \|x - x'\| \leq \eta \sqrt{N})$ by setting $x = \mathcal{A}(g)$ (so x only depends on g), and union bounding Lemma 7.4 over the x' within $\eta \sqrt{N}$ of x, as per Lemma 7.2:

$$\mathbf{P}(S_{\text{ogp}} \mid g) \le \exp_2\left(-\delta N + Nh\left(\frac{\eta^2}{4}\right) + O(\log_2 N)\right).$$

By the choice of $\eta^2 \ll (h^{-1})(\delta) \asymp 1$, this bound gives $\mathbf{P}(S_{\mathrm{ogp}}|g) \leq \exp_2(-O(N)) = o(1)$. Integrating over g gives the overall bound.

However, by the choice of parameters above, we also have

$$\mathbf{P}(S_{\text{solve}}, S_{\text{stable}}) \ge \mathbf{P}(S_{\text{solve}}) + \mathbf{P}(S_{\text{stable}}) - 1$$

$$\ge p_{\text{solve}}^4 + p_{\text{unstable}} \ge \Omega(1) - o(1) = \Omega(1),$$
(8.2)

which is a contradiction.

9. Randomized Rounding Things

Claim: no two adjacent points on Σ_N (or pairs within k=O(1) distance) which are both good solutions to the same problem. The reason is that this would require a subset of k signed coordinates $\pm g_{\{i_1\}}, ..., \pm g_{\{i_k\}}$ to have small sum, and there are only 2^k binom $\{N\}\{k\}l=O(N^k)$ possibilities, each of which is centered Gaussian with variance at least 1, so the smallest is typically of order $\Omega(N^{\{-k\}})$.

Thus, rounding would destroy the solution.

- Say we're in the case where rounding changes the solution. (i.e. rounding moves x to point that
 is not the closest point x**, whp.)
- Let $p_1, ..., p_N$ be the probabilities of disagreeing with x_* on each coordinate.

• We know that $\sum p_i$ diverges (this is equivalent to the statement that rounding will changes the solution whp).

- Reason: for each coord, chance of staying at that coordinate is $e^{-\Theta(p_i)}$.
- For each i, flip coin with heads prob $2p_i$, and keep all the heads.
 - By Borel-Cantelli type argument, typical number of heads will be $\omega(1)$.
- For every coin with a head, change coord with prob 50%, if tails, keep coord.
 - Randomized rounding in artificially difficult way. (I.e. this multistage procedure accomplishes the same thing as randomized rounding.)
- Now, randomized rounding is done by choosing a random set of $\omega(1)$ coordinates, and making those iid Uniform in $\{-1, 1\}$.
- Pick a large constant (e.g. 100), and only randomize the first 100 heads, and condition on the others (i.e. choose the others arbitrarily). Note that since $100l = \omega(1)$, there are at least 100 heads whp.
- Now rounded point is random point in 100 dimensional subcube, but at most one of them is a good solution by the claim at the top of the page.
- Combining, the probability for rounding to give a good solution is at most $o(1) + 2^{\{-100\}}$. Since 100 is arbitrary, this is o(1) by sending parameters to 0 and/or infinity in the right order.

[O'D21]

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