On the diameter of the set of satisfying assignments in random satisfiable $k$-CNF formulas

Uriel Feige∗ Abraham D. Flaxman† Dan Vilenchik‡

February 11, 2009

Abstract

It is known that random $k$-CNF formulas have a so-called satisfiability threshold at a density (namely, clause-variable ratio) of roughly $2^k \ln 2$: at densities slightly below this threshold almost all $k$-CNF formulas are satisfiable whereas slightly above this threshold almost no $k$-CNF formula is satisfiable. In the current work we consider satisfiable random formulas, and inspect another parameter – the diameter of the solution space (that is the maximal Hamming distance between a pair of satisfying assignments). It was previously shown that for all densities up to a density slightly below the satisfiability threshold the diameter is almost surely at least roughly $n/2$ (and $n$ at much lower densities). At densities very much higher than the satisfiability threshold, the diameter is almost surely zero (a very dense satisfiable formula is expected to have only one satisfying assignment). In this paper we show that for all densities above a density that is slightly above the satisfiability threshold (more precisely at ratio $(1 + \varepsilon)2^k \ln 2$, $\varepsilon = \varepsilon(k)$ tending to 0 as $k$ grows) the diameter is almost surely $O(k^{2-k}n)$. This shows that a relatively small change in the density around the satisfiability threshold (a multiplicative $(1 + \varepsilon)$ factor), makes a dramatic change in the diameter. This drop in the diameter cannot be attributed to the fact that a larger fraction of the formulas is not satisfiable (and hence have diameter 0), because the non-satisfiable formulas are excluded from consideration by our conditioning that the formula is satisfiable.

∗The Weizmann Institute. E-mail: uriel.feige@weizmann.ac.il.
†UW Institute for Health Metrics and Evaluation. E-mail: abie@u.washington.edu.
‡UC Berkeley. E-mail: vilench@eecs.berkeley.edu.
1 Introduction

The computational complexity of Boolean formula satisfiability has been the focus of intensive research for decades. Recently, a promising approach to understanding the algorithmic difficulty of \(k\)-SAT has emerged, in the form of rigorous analysis of the structural properties of formulas drawn at random from certain distributions. For example, a natural distribution which has been studied extensively is the uniform distribution over \(k\)-CNF formulas with exactly \(m\) clauses over \(n\) variables. We denote this distribution by \(F_{n,m,k}\). Despite its simple description, many fundamental properties of this model are yet to be understood. For example, the computational complexity of deciding if a random formula is satisfiable and of finding a satisfying assignment are both major open problems \([15, 22]\).

The clause to variable ratio \(m/n\) of a formula is referred to as the density of the formula. The random model \(F_{n,m,k}\) exhibits a “phase transition” in satisfiability, where sparse formulas are likely to be satisfiable whereas dense formulas are unlikely to be satisfiable. Moreover, this phase transition happens at a very short density interval. There exists a satisfiability threshold \(d_k = d_k(n)\) such that \(k\)-CNF formulas with density \(m/n > d_k\) are not satisfiable \(whp\) while formulas with \(m/n < d_k\) are satisfiable \(whp\) \([18]\). A first-moment-method calculation provides an upper-bound of \(d_k \leq 2^k \ln 2\), and the threshold is conjectured to be within a constant distance of this upper-bound (for all values of \(k\)). A lower-bound of \(2^k \ln 2 - \Omega(k)\) was established rigorously using a weighted second-moment-method in \([3]\).

For a satisfiable \(k\)-CNF formula \(F\), let \(r_{\max}(F)\) be the maximal Hamming distance between a pair of satisfying assignments of \(F\). In this paper we study the behavior of \(r_{\max}(F)\) as a function of the density. Specifically, we will consider random satisfiable formulas, and ask what the typical value of \(r_{\max}\) is likely to be at various densities. Observe that as one adds more clauses to a formula, the set of satisfying assignments can only decrease, and hence also \(r_{\max}\) can only decrease. This indicates that the typical value of \(r_{\max}\) should decrease as the density increases. However, when the formula becomes unsatisfiable, the formula is discarded from consideration. Since the formulas of lowest diameter (diameter 0) are those discarded from consideration, and their proportion increases as the density increases, this may conceivably lead to a situation in which as the density increases the expected diameter increases rather than decreases. In particular, there does not seem to be an a-priori reason why the threshold for satisfiability should correspond to a threshold behavior also with respect to the diameter of satisfiable formulas.

Let us review what is known about \(r_{\max}(F)\) at densities below the satisfiability threshold. For \(m/n \leq 2^{k-1} \ln 2\) we know that all but \(o(1)\)-fraction of the formulas satisfy \(r_{\max}(F) = n\) (this is because they are satisfied as NAE-\(k\)-SAT instances \([2]\)). The results in \([4]\) imply that for \(m/n = (1 - \delta)2^k \ln 2\), \(\delta \in (0, 1/3)\), for all but \(o(1)\)-fraction of satisfiable \(k\)-CNF formulas \(r_{\max}(F)\) is at least \(\left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{\delta^{1/3}}{\delta} - \frac{2}{k}\right)n\) (this is true for \(k \geq k_0\), \(k_0 = k_0(\delta)\)). This large diameter is due to the existence of many small clusters of satisfying assignments, which are “spread” in the space of all \(2^n\) possible assignments. Physicists conjecture that this picture persists up to the so-called condensation point at \(2^k \ln 2 - c_k\), for some constant \(c_k\), at which point the number of remaining clusters drops to polynomial and then maybe to constant. True or not, this conjecture does not imply that \(r_{\max}(F)\) becomes small, because it can remain of value roughly \(n/2\) even when there are only two clusters. For densities much higher than the satisfiability threshold (by a factor of roughly \(\log n\)), the typical value of \(r_{\max}(F)\) is 0, because such formulas, if satisfiable, are likely to have only one satisfying assignment (see for example \([5]\) for the case of 3-CNF). This shows that the diameter

\[1\] We say a sequence of events holds \textit{with high probability} (whp) to mean with probability tending to 1 as \(n\) tends to infinity.
of random satisfiable formulas does undergo a phase transition as the density increases (starting at \( n \), and eventually reaching 1), but it is not clear whether there is any density that serves as a threshold around which there is a sharp drop in diameter.

In this paper we show that:

**Theorem 1.** For all \( k \geq 20 \) and \( m/n \geq (1 + 0.99^k)2^k \ln 2 \), all but a \( o(1) \)-fraction of satisfiable \( k \)-CNF formulas \( F \) with \( m \) clauses over \( n \) variables satisfy

\[
r_{\text{max}}(F) \leq 50k2^{-k}n.
\]

Our result proves that there occurs a transition from a typical structure of satisfying assignments which are wide-spread in the \( n \)-dimensional binary cube, to a structure where all satisfying assignments are typically contained in a ball of small diameter. The window in which this phase transition occurs is contained in \([ (1 - \varepsilon_1)2^k \ln 2, (1 + \varepsilon_2)2^k \ln 2] \), where both \( \varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2 \) tend to 0 as \( k \) grows.

Here are a few interesting observations regarding this phase transition.

1. The threshold phenomenon in \( r_{\text{max}} \) occurs at a window of densities that lies around \( 2^k \ln 2 \), and whose width is a low-order term w.r.t. \( 2^k \). Since we are considering only satisfiable \( k \)-CNF formulas (below or above the threshold), there is no a-priori reason for this threshold to be found in the vicinity of the satisfiability threshold (as the latter is irrelevant for such formulas). Still, as our result shows, this is the case.

2. Since we are looking at satisfiable formulas, this is not a product distribution. Therefore some methods for establishing threshold behaviors (such as [IS]) are not applicable.

3. Consider the property of having a diameter of at least \( r \). This is not necessarily a monotone property of the density (at least we are not aware of an easy proof that it is). Again, this shows that some approaches to prove the existence of such threshold (such as [IS]) may not be applicable.

4. Typically \( r_{\text{max}} = n \) for \( m/n < 2^k \ln 2/2 \). This is because at those ratios most formulas are satisfiable as \( \text{NAE-k-SAT} \) formulas [2] (in which case for every satisfying assignment in the \( \text{NAE} \) manner, also its complement at distance \( n \) is satisfying). Numerical calculations using tools from statistical physics predict that at \( 2^k \ln k/k \) there is a phase transition from a typical structure of a big connected ball of satisfying assignments into many small balls of satisfying assignments (which are called clusters). Observe that \( 2^k \ln k/k < 2^k \ln 2/2 \) for all \( k \geq 3 \), therefore while there is a major change in the structure of the solution space, \( r_{\text{max}} \) is not affected.

Let us briefly discuss what happens for \( k < 20 \). Our approach assumes that \((2 \cdot 0.99)^k \) is a low-order term compared with \( 2^k \). This is however not true (or not relevant) when \( k \) is small. Also, the fact that we have a constant like 50 in the bound on \( r_{\text{max}} \) makes the result trivial for small values of \( k \). On the other hand, for fixed \( k \) (say \( k = 3 \)) one can numerically estimate the value of \( r_{\text{max}} \) (via the same methods used in the proof of Theorem [1] just figuring out the exact numerics instead of a rigorous, less tight, estimation that we perform). For example, for \( k = 3 \) the numerics show that typically \( r_{\text{max}} < 0.2n \) for density \( m/n = 7.625 \) (which is \( \sim 1.375 \cdot 2^k \ln 2 \) for \( k = 3 \)).

Questions regarding the structure of the solution space guided the development of algorithms in similar contexts in the past (two such examples are algorithms that were developed for 3CNF formulas with a planted solution, and the intuition that served the development of the Survey
Propagation algorithm). In this paper we limit our study to some structural properties of the solution space and do not address algorithmic aspects, though hopefully our new insights can serve the algorithmic perspective at some point as well.

More precisely, while the algorithmic and structural understanding of below-threshold random formulas and above-threshold (for sufficiently large, yet constant, density) is rather thorough (a short list for the below threshold regime could be \[10, 11, 13, 23, 4, 1\] and \[21, 8, 17, 14, 7\] for the above threshold), there is no rigorous algorithmic result for clause-variable ratio \(c > 2^k \ln 2\) when \(c\) is some constant above the satisfiability threshold, but not “sufficiently large”. (For the special case of \(k = 3\) there are some experimental results in \[7\].)

1.1 Techniques

One reasonable approach to prove Theorem 1 is to consider the uniform distribution over satisfiable \(k\)-CNF formulas with \(m\) clauses over \(n\) variables, and study \(r_{\max}(F)\) of a random instance in that distribution. Throughout \(U_{n,m,k}\) denotes the uniform distribution. More specifically, we consider a random formula \(F\) from \(U_{n,m,k}\) and estimate the expected number of pairs of satisfying assignments at distance \(xn\) from each other. A similar approach was used for example in \[3, 23, 4\] for random formulas in the below-threshold regime.

The major additional challenge that we face in this present work is the fact that the uniform distribution \(U_{n,m,k}\) is not a product space, clause appearances are dependent, and it is unclear how to quantify this dependence. On the other hand, in the below-threshold regime, since whp a random \(k\)-CNF formula is satisfiable, one can study random \(k\)-CNF formulas instead of satisfiable ones. This distribution, which we denoted above by \(F_{n,m,k}\), is very “close” to a product space (compare with the distribution where every clause is chosen independently at random with probability \(p = m/\left(2^k \binom{n}{k}\right)\), which is already a product space).

One demonstration of this technical challenge is the difficulty of answering the following question: given a fixed assignment \(\psi\), what is the probability that it satisfies a random \(F\)? If \(F\) is drawn from \(F_{n,m,k}\) then the answer is simple, \(\Pr[\psi \models F] = (1 - 2^{-k})^m\). If \(F\) is drawn from \(U_{n,m,k}\) then giving an explicit expression (as a function of \(m, n, k\)) for \(\Pr[\psi \models F]\) is still an open question.

We will show that for \(x \geq 50k2^{-k}\) the expected number of pairs of satisfying assignments at distance \(xn\) from each other is much smaller than \(1/n\). Since there are at most \(n\) possible ways to choose \(x\), we can use the union bound to prove that whp \(F\) has the desired properties (since \(U_{n,m,k}\) is the uniform distribution, showing that the property holds whp translates immediately to a deterministic statement about all but a vanishing fraction of satisfiable formulas).

To derive our estimate on the expected number of pairs of satisfying assignments at distance \(xn\) we first analyze a different distribution which is commonly called the planted distribution, and we shall denote it by \(P_{n,m,k}\). To generate a formula according to \(P_{n,m,k}\), fix an assignment uniformly at random, then includes \(m\) clauses uniformly at random out of \(\binom{2^k - 1}{n}\) clauses that are consistent with the “planted” assignment.

When working with \(P_{n,m,k}\), the clauses are nearly independent and calculation is much easier. We then relate the planted model and the uniform model to obtain the desired result. The idea of translating bounds from the planted to the uniform model was used in \[1, 4, 23\] for the below-threshold regime, and also in \[12, 14\] but in a different context.

The reader may wonder at this point what happens when \(m/n < (1+0.99^k)k \ln 2\)? Do typically all satisfying assignments lie in a low-diameter Hamming ball all the way down to the satisfiability threshold (or even below it)? Numerical and rigorous (tedious) calculations that we did, whose details we omit here, suggest that Theorem 1 can be extended (maybe with some changes in the upper bound on \(r_{\max}\)) down to \(m/n = 2^k \ln 2 + O(k)\) (which is an \(O(k)\)-additive term from the
satisfiability threshold). This extension is done using the same technique of going through the planted distribution. However, when \( m/n = 2^k \ln 2 + O(k) \) this technique breaks. In Section 5 we discuss this issue and suggest another technique that may prove useful when our first technique fails. This discussion is part of a more general discussion about the width of the window in which the phase transition in the values of \( r_{max} \) occurs.

2 Relating the uniform and the planted distributions

Let \( u_x \) be a random variable counting the number of pairs of satisfying assignments at distance \( xn \) from each other that a random formula in \( U_{n,m,k} \) has. Let \( T \) to denote the expected number of satisfying assignments that a random formula in \( U_{n,m,k} \) has (that is \( T = \sum x E[u_x] \)), and \( f_x \) a random variables which denotes the number of satisfying assignments at distance \( xn \) from the planted assignment, had \( F \) belonged to \( P_{n,m,k} \). The following proposition allows us to upper bound \( E[u_x] \) via the more accessible quantity \( E[f_x] \).

**Proposition 2.** Let \( F \) be a random formula sampled according to \( U_{n,m,k} \), then

\[
E[u_x] = T \cdot E[f_x]/2.
\]

(A similar approach of relating the uniform and the planted distribution can be found in [23], though in that case the uniform distribution was the non-conditioned one).

**Proof.** For two satisfying assignments \( \phi_i, \phi_j \) we use \( \delta(\phi_i, \phi_j) \) to denote their Hamming distance. Consider some ordering on the \( 2^n \) possible assignments, and let \( A_i \) be an indicator variable which is 1 if \( \phi_i \) satisfies \( F \). Using this terminology,

\[
u_x = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j: \delta(\phi_i, \phi_j) = xn} A_i \cdot A_j.
\]

Linearity of expectation gives

\[
E[u_x] = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j: \delta(\phi_i, \phi_j) = xn} Pr[A_i \wedge A_j] = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{\delta(\phi_i, \phi_j) = xn} Pr[A_i|A_j]Pr[A_j].
\]

By symmetry, the latter equals

\[
2^n \cdot \frac{Pr[A_j]}{2} \cdot \sum_{i: \delta(\phi_i, \phi_j) = xn} Pr[A_i|A_j].
\]

It remains to estimate \( Pr[A_i|A_j] \). Conditioning on the event \( A_j \) means conditioning on the fixed assignment \( \phi_j \) to be satisfying. In turn, \( U_{n,m,k} \) conditioned on \( \phi_j \) being a satisfying assignment means that only clauses which are satisfied by \( \phi_j \) can be included, and by symmetry, every set of \( t \) clauses satisfied by \( \phi_j \) has the same probability of being included. Observe that for \( t = m \) this is exactly the definition of the planted distribution \( P_{n,m,k} \). Therefore \( \sum_i Pr[A_i|A_j] = E[f_x] \), when summing over all assignments \( \phi_i \) at distance \( xn \) from \( \phi_j \). Furthermore, \( T = \sum_j Pr[A_j] \) (now we are summing over all \( 2^n \) assignments), and hence \( Pr[A_j] = T/2^n \). Putting everything together we derive

\[
E[u_x] = T \cdot E[f_x]/2.
\]

In [23] this sort of proposition was already enough to estimate $E[u_x]$ since $T$ can be easily calculated when $m/n$ is below the satisfiability threshold. However in $U_{n,m,k}$, $m/n$ above the satisfiability threshold, it is not clear how to calculate $T$. The following lemma is then useful (the proof can also be found in [14], and is given here for completeness).

**Lemma 3.** Let $W$ be the expected number of satisfying assignments of a random $P_{n,m,k}$ instance. Then always $T \leq W$.

**Proof.** Let $t_i$ be the number of formulas on $n$ variables and $m$ clauses which have exactly $i$ satisfying assignments. Let $p_i$ be the probability that a formula with exactly $i$ satisfying assignments is sampled from $U_{n,m,k}$, and let $q_i$ be defined similarly for $P_{n,m,k}$. Observe that due to symmetry, sampling a formula from $P_{n,m,k}$ is exactly equivalent to sampling a pair $(\varphi, F)$ uniformly at random from all pairs such that $\varphi$ is an assignment and $F$ is a formula satisfied by $\varphi$. Hence:

$$p_i = \frac{t_i}{\sum_{j=1}^{2^n} t_j}, \quad q_i = \frac{i \cdot t_i}{\sum_{i=1}^{2^n} i \cdot t_i}.$$

and

$$T = \sum_{i=1}^{2^n} i \cdot p_i = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{2^n} i \cdot t_i}{\sum_{i=1}^{2^n} t_i},$$

$$W = \sum_{i=1}^{2^n} i \cdot q_i = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{2^n} i^2 \cdot t_i}{\sum_{i=1}^{2^n} i \cdot t_i}.$$

Therefore to prove $T \leq W$, it suffices to show

$$\left( \sum_{i=1}^{2^n} i \cdot t_i \right)^2 \leq \left( \sum_{i=1}^{2^n} t_i \right) \cdot \left( \sum_{i=1}^{2^n} i^2 \cdot t_i \right).$$

This is just Cauchy-Schwartz, $(\sum a_i \cdot b_i)^2 \leq (\sum a_i^2) \cdot (\sum b_i^2)$, with $a_i = \sqrt{t_i}$ and $b_i = i \cdot \sqrt{t_i}$. □

### 3 The Planted Setting

In this section we analyze $W$ and $E[f_x]$. Recall that we use $W$ to denote the expected number of satisfying assignments that a random formula in $P_{n,m,k}$ has, and $f_x$ counts the number of satisfying assignments at distance $xn$ from the planted assignment, had $F$ belonged to $P_{n,m,k}$.

Our analysis of $E[f_x]$ is composed of two regimes. The first is the case $x \in [0, 1/k]$. In this regime we know that $E[f_x]$ changes from $\omega(1)$ to $o(1)$. This phenomenon is depicted in Figure 4. The $y$-axis in the plot is $f^*(x)$ such that $E[f_x] = e^{f^*(x)n}$, the $x$-axis is the Hamming distance from the planted. Therefore the transition from $E[f_x] = \omega(1)$ to $E[f_x] = o(1)$ corresponds to $f^*(x)$ changing from positive to negative.

To translate our results to the uniform setting, it turns out that we need to have a more precise control on the rate in which $E[f_x]$ decreases once changing to $o(1)$. Therefore the analysis of that regime is more careful (Proposition 4). Then we analyze the case $x \in [1/k, 1]$. In this regime, for a suitable choice of $\varepsilon$ (recall $m/n = (1+\varepsilon)4^k \ln 2$), $E[f_x]$ is constantly $o(1)$ (in fact, exponentially small in $n$). Therefore a more crude analysis will suffice (Proposition 5). This corresponds in Figure 4 to the fact that the curve is bounded away below the $x$-axis in that range.
In this section we consider a slight modification of $\mathcal{P}_{n,m,k}$. Instead of choosing $m$ clauses u.a.r., we choose $m$ clauses with repetitions. However, for $m/n = \mathcal{O}(1)$, the expected number of pairs of identical clauses in $F$ (in the modified model) is $\mathcal{O}(m^2/n^k)$. Thus, for $k \geq 3$ this quantity is $o(1)$. Therefore, as standard calculations show, every property that holds with probability $q$ in the modified model holds with probability $q(1 + \mathcal{O}(1))$ in $\mathcal{P}_{n,m,k}$. Somewhat abusing notation, we will denote the modification also by $\mathcal{P}_{n,m,k}$.

Let us start with formulating $E[f_x]$ in a way which is convenient to work with.

**Lemma 4.**

$$E[f_x] \leq \left( \frac{n}{xn} \right) \cdot \left( 1 - \frac{1 - (1-x)^k}{2^k - 1} \right)^m.$$

**Proof.** Fix an assignment $\psi$ at distance $xn$ from the planted assignment $\varphi$. The probability that $\psi$ also satisfies $F$ can be calculated in the following manner. Let $A$ be the set of variables on which both $\psi$ and $\varphi$ agree. $|A| = (1-x)n$. Consider a random clause $C$ satisfied by $\varphi$; if all $k$ variables in that clause fall in $A$, then $C$ is surely satisfied by $\psi$. The probability for that is $q = \left( \frac{(1-x)n}{k} \right)$. If at least one variable falls out of $A$, which happens with probability $1-q$, then the clause is satisfied only with probability $\frac{2^k - 2}{2^k - 1}$. This is because there is one way to complement the variables which is not consistent with $\psi$ but is consistent with $\varphi$. There are $\binom{n}{xn}$ ways to fix $\psi$, and therefore

$$E[f_x] = \left( \frac{n}{xn} \right) \left( q \cdot 1 + (1-q) \cdot \frac{2^k - 2}{2^k - 1} \right)^m = \left( \frac{n}{xn} \right) \left( \frac{2^k - 2 + q}{2^k - 1} \right)^m = \left( \frac{n}{xn} \right) \left( 1 - \frac{1 - q}{2^k - 1} \right)^m.$$

Finally, observing that $q \leq (1-x)^k$ proves the lemma.

It will be more convenient to work with the following quantity:

$$f^*(x) \equiv \frac{\ln E[f_x]}{n}. \quad (3.1)$$
One can verify that
\[ f^*(x) \leq H(x) \ln 2 + c \ln \left( 1 - \frac{1 - (1-x)^k}{2^k - 1} \right), \]  
(3.2)
where \( H(x) \) denotes the binary entropy measure,
\[ H(x) = -(1-x) \log_2(1-x) - x \log_2 x, \]
and \( c = m/n = (1+\varepsilon)2^k \ln 2. \)

To make use of Proposition \ref{prop:2} we need to obtain tight bounds on \( W \) and \( E[f_x] \). In terms of \( f^*(x) \), \( E[f_x] = e^{f^*(x)} n \), therefore to prove \( E[f_x] = o(1) \) it suffices to prove \( f^*(x) < 0 \). This is exactly what the following two propositions formally establish.

**Proposition 5.** For any \( k \geq 20, \varepsilon \geq 0.99^k \) and \( x \in [1/k, 1] \),
\[ f^*(x) \leq -50k2^{-k} \]

**Proof.** Throughout, we use the following useful upper bound on \( \ln(1-x) \).
\[ \ln(1-x) \leq -x. \]
We break the interval \([1/k, 1]\) into two subintervals. Let us first consider \( x \in [0.3, 1] \). Always \( H(x) \ln 2 \leq \ln 2 \), and on the other hand, using \( \log(1-x) \leq -x \),
\[ c \ln \left( 1 - \frac{1 - (1-x)^k}{2^k - 1} \right) \leq -\frac{(1+\varepsilon)2^k \ln 2}{2^k - 1} (1 - (1-x)^k). \]
Therefore it suffices to prove that \( (1+\varepsilon)(1 - (1-x)^k) \geq 1 + (50k2^{-k}/\ln 2) \) for every \( x \in [0.3, 1] \). Indeed,
\[ (1 - (1-x)^k) \geq (1 - 0.7^k), \quad (1+\varepsilon) \geq (1 + 0.99^k). \]
One can verify that for \( k \geq 20 \), multiplying these two quantities is always greater than \( 1 + (50k2^{-k}/\ln 2) \).

Let us now move the the case \( x \in [1/k, 0.3] \). \( H(x) \) is monotonically increasing until \( x = 0.5 \), therefore it takes its maximal value in this interval at \( x = 0.3 \), which gives \( H(0.3) \leq 0.266 \). On the other hand \( (1 - (1-x)^k) \) takes its minimal value at \( 1/k \). Observe that \( (1-1/k)^k \leq e^{-1} \), and therefore
\[ (1 - (1-x)^k) \geq 1 - 1/e \geq 0.6 > 0.266 > H(0.3). \]
In this case we have \( f^*(x) \leq 0.266 - 0.6 \leq -0.3 < 50k2^{-k} \) for every \( k \geq 20 \). \( \blacksquare \)

**Proposition 6.** For any \( k \geq 20, \varepsilon \geq 0 \) and \( \lambda \in [20, 2^k/k] \), if \( x = \lambda 2^{-k} \) then \( f^*(x) \leq -\lambda 2^{-k} \).

**Proof.** For any \( x \), we have
\[ \ln(1-x) \leq -x, \]
and, for \( 0 \leq x \leq 1 \),
\[ 1 - (1-x)^k \geq kx - \frac{k^2x^2}{2}. \]
Thus,
\[
H(x) \ln 2 + c \ln \left(1 - \frac{1 - (1 - x)^k}{2^k - 1}\right)
\]
\[
= -x \ln x - (1 - x) \ln(1 - x) + (1 + \varepsilon)2^k(\ln 2) \ln \left(1 - \frac{1 - (1 - x)^k}{2^k - 1}\right)
\]
\[
\leq -x \ln x + x(1 - x) - (1 + \varepsilon)2^k(\ln 2) \left(\frac{1 - (1 - x)^k}{2^k - 1}\right)
\]
\[
\leq -x \ln x + x - (1 + \varepsilon)(\ln 2) \left(kx - \frac{k^2x^2}{2}\right).
\]
Substituting $\lambda 2^{-k}$ for $x$, this upper-bound becomes
\[
- x \ln x + x - (1 + \varepsilon)(\ln 2) \left(kx - \frac{k^2x^2}{2}\right)
\]
\[
= \lambda 2^{-k} \left((\ln 2) - \ln \lambda\right) + \lambda 2^{-k} - (1 + \varepsilon)(\ln 2) \left(k\lambda 2^{-k} - k^2\lambda^2 2^{-2k-1}\right)
\]
\[
= -\left((\ln \lambda)2^{-k} + \lambda 2^{-k} - \varepsilon(\ln 2) \left(k\lambda 2^{-k} - k^2\lambda^2 2^{-2k-1}\right) + (\ln 2)k^2\lambda^2 2^{-2k-1}\right)
\]
\[
= -\lambda 2^{-k} \left((\ln \lambda) - 1 + \varepsilon(\ln 2) \left(k - k^2\lambda 2^{-k-1}\right) - (\ln 2)k^2\lambda 2^{-k-1}\right)
\]
\[
= -\lambda 2^{-k} \left((\ln \lambda) \left(1 - (\ln 2)k^2\frac{\lambda}{\ln \lambda} 2^{-k-1}\right) - 1 + \varepsilon(\ln 2) \left(k - k^2\lambda 2^{-k-1}\right)\right).
\]
Observe that $\lambda \leq 2^k/k$ and thus,
\[
k - k^2\lambda 2^{-k-1} \geq 0,
\]
and since $\varepsilon \geq 0$ it suffices to prove that
\[
(\ln \lambda) \left(1 - (\ln 2)k^2\frac{\lambda}{\ln \lambda} 2^{-k-1}\right) - 1 \geq 1.
\]
Since $\lambda \leq 2^k/k$, and $k \geq 5$, we have
\[
(\ln 2)k^2\frac{\lambda}{\ln \lambda} 2^{-k-1} \leq (\ln 2)k^2\frac{2^k/k}{k(\ln 2) - \ln k} 2^{-k-1} = (\ln 2)\frac{1}{2((\ln 2) - (\ln k)/k)} \leq 0.65,
\]
and so it suffices to verify that
\[
\ln \lambda \geq 2/(1 - 0.65),
\]
which is always true for $\lambda \in [20, 2^k/k]$ (for $k \geq 20$, $2^k/k \gg 20$).

4 Proof of Theorem

Recall Proposition\[prop:2] and Lemma\[lem:3] which establish together
\[
E[u_x] \leq W \cdot E[f_x]/2.
\]
$W$ is the expected number of satisfying assignment is the planted model, $W = \sum_x E[f_x]$. 

9
The idea of the proof is to use Propositions 5 and 6 to upper bound $W$ by looking at the largest $x$ s.t. $E[f_x]$ contributes to $W$ (that is, $E[f_x]$ is not vanishing with $n$). We shall use $x_0$ to denote this number (regardless, observe that $x_0$ is an upper bound on the diameter of the cluster region in the planted setting). Then, to beat $W$, we take $x_1 > x_0$, so that for every $x \geq x_1$, $E[f_x] \cdot W \ll 1$. Respectively, $x_1$ upper bounds the diameter of the cluster region in the uniform setting. It turns out that $x_1/x_0 = O(k)$, and since $x_0$ scales down with $2^{-k}$, this additional factor is manageable.

Formally, propositions 5 and 6 assert that only $x \leq 20 \cdot 2^{-k}$ may contribute to the value of $W$. Indeed, take $x_0 = 20 \cdot 2^{-k}$, then $E[f_x] = o(n^{-1})$ for every $x \geq x_0$. For $x \leq x_0$, the total number of possible assignments (which obviously bounds the expected number of satisfying assignments) at distance $xn$ from the planted is

$$
\binom{n}{xn} \leq (\frac{en}{xn})^{xn} \leq e^{(1-\ln x)xn}.
$$

This quantity is maximized for $x \leq x_0$ at $x_0$, which gives $e^{(k \ln 2+1)2^{-k}n}$. Therefore, for sufficiently large $n$,

$$
W \leq o(1) + \sum_{x \leq x_0} \binom{n}{xn} \leq ne^{(k \ln 2+1)20 \cdot 2^{-k}n} \leq e^{40k2^{-k}n}.
$$

Now take $x_1 = 50k2^{-k}$ (for $k \geq 20$, $50k \leq 2^k/k$, which is the maximal $\lambda$ allowed), applying Propositions 5 and 6 once more gives that for $x \geq x_1$,

$$
E[f_x] \leq e^{-50k2^{-k}n}.
$$

In turn, for $x \geq x_1$

$$
E[u_x] \leq W \cdot E[f_x]/2 \leq e^{40k2^{-k}n} \cdot e^{-50k2^{-k}n} = e^{-10k2^{-k}n}.
$$

Using Markov’s inequality, for $x \geq x_1$,

$$
Pr[u_x > 0] \leq e^{-10k2^{-k}n}.
$$

Applying the union bound,

$$
Pr[\exists x \geq 50k2^{-k}, u_x > 0] \leq n \cdot e^{-10k2^{-k}n} = o(1).
$$

5 Moving even closer to the threshold

In the previous sections we showed that when $m/n \geq (1 + 0.99k)2^k \ln 2$, for $k \geq 20$, whp there are no pairs of satisfying assignments at distance greater than $50k2^{-k}$ from each other (Theorem 1). Our approach was to consider the planted distribution and estimate $E[f_x]$ – the expected number of satisfying assignments at distance $xn$ from the planted assignment. Then we used Proposition 2 to relate this quantity to $E[u_x]$ – the expected number of pairs of satisfying assignments at distance $xn$ from each other (in the uniform setting). The relation we established was given (in Proposition 2) by

$$
E[u_x] \leq W \cdot E[f_x].
$$

$W$ is the expected number of satisfying assignments in $P_{n,m,k}$.

Observe that $W$ is always at least 1, and therefore using this relation to show that $E[u_x] = o(1)$ makes sense only when $E[f_x] = o(1)$. However, using (rather tedious) calculations one can show

10
that when \( m/n = 2^k \ln 2 + O(k) \) there exists \( x \in [0.5 - O(2^{-k}), 0.5] \) such that \( E[f_x] \) is exponentially large in \( n \) (details omitted). This phenomenon is depicted in Figure 2. Therefore from this density downwards our method breaks (observe that \( E[f_x] \) is monotonically decreasing and continuous in \( m/n \)). This phenomenon is demonstrated in Figures 2 vs. 1.

Compare the plots in those figures. Both depict on the y-axis \( f^*(x) \equiv \ln E[f_x]/n \), and the distance from the planted assignment on the x-axis. To generate the plots we used the estimate on \( E[f_x] \) given in Lemma 4. Although Lemma 4 establishes an upper bound on \( E[f_x] \), in fact for \( x \) bounded away from 0 equality holds (up to a \( o(1) \) additive factor inside the parenthesis). Since \( E[f_x] \) is monotonically decreasing in \( m/n \) and continuous, as \( m/n \) gets smaller, the “hunchback” around \( x = 1/2 \) gets closer to the x-axis, and at some ratio crosses it to become positive. This ratio occurs at \( m/n = 2^k \ln 2 + O(k) \). As \( k \) grows, the hunchback (regardless if above or below the x-axis) becomes narrower, and in general is concentrated in an interval of width \( O(2^{-k}) \) around 1/2, with the maximum occurring at \( 1/2 - O(2^{-k}) \). We have validated these claims using a combination of numerical and rigorous calculations (details omitted here).

In this section we suggest a new technique which refines the one we used. Using our refined technique we can prove for example that at some settings, even though \( E[f_x] \geq 1 \) (which means that our original technique fails), in fact whp \( f_x = 0 \). Hopefully this refinement can benefit the uniform distribution as well. We do not discuss this point in the present paper.

The key to the refinement is to replace \( f_x \) with another quantity which counts maximal satisfying assignments at distance \( xn \) from the planted assignment – \( f_x^{\text{max}} \). This notion is similar to the notion of minimal satisfying assignments used in [20].

To demonstrate the power of this new technique we describe a setting where \( E[f_x] \geq 1 \) (which means that our original technique fails) for some \( x \in [0.3, 0.6] \), but \( E[f_x^{\text{max}}] = o(1) \) for all \( x \in [0.3, 0.6] \), and in that setting this will imply that whp \( f_x = 0 \). Formally, we prove that:

**Proposition 7.** There exists a non-empty interval \((\varepsilon_2, \varepsilon_1)\) in which for every \( \varepsilon \in (\varepsilon_2, \varepsilon_1) \) and \( F \) distributed according to \( P_{n,m,k} \), \( m = (1+\varepsilon)2^k \ln 2 \), there exists \( x \in [0.3, 0.6] \) so that \( E[f_x] \geq 1 \) while whp \( f_x = 0 \) for every \( x \) in that interval.
We choose the value $\varepsilon_2$ carefully (we will shortly describe how), and for that $\varepsilon_2$ we can verify numerically that

**Assumption 8.** Let $F$ be distributed according to $\mathcal{P}_{n,m,k}$. If $m/n \geq (1 + \varepsilon_2)2^k \ln 2$ then whp $F$ has no satisfying assignments at distance $xn$ from the planted assignment for $0.2 \leq x \leq 0.3$ or $0.6 \leq x \leq 1.0$.

Since we are only interested in demonstrating the power of this technique, we do not care in the context of this present paper about turning it into a rigorous claim.

Let us now formally define the notion of maximal satisfying assignments.

**Definition 9.** Given a planted instance $F$ with a planted assignment $\varphi$, we say that a satisfying assignment $\varphi'$ of $F$ is maximal if every assignment $\psi$ that disagrees with both $\varphi'$ and $\varphi$ on some variable $x_i$ does not satisfy $F$.

In that sense $\varphi'$ is in a maximal Hamming distance from $\varphi$. For example, if the complement of the planted also satisfies $F$, then it is maximal (in a vacant way). It is easily proven that $F$ has a satisfying assignment if and only if $F$ has a maximal satisfying assignment.

Let $\varepsilon_1$ be the maximal value such that for $m/n = (1 + \varepsilon_1)2^k \ln 2$ and some $x \in [0.3, 0.6]$,

$$E[f_x] \geq 1.$$

Let $\varepsilon_2$ be the minimal value such that for $m/n = (1 + \varepsilon_2)2^k \ln 2$ and every $x \in [0.3, 0.6]$

$$E[f_x^{\text{max}}] \leq n^{-2}.$$

The proof of Propositions 5 and 6 show that $\varepsilon_2$ always exists, and we have verified the existence of $\varepsilon_1$ numerically. The condition $E[f_x^{\text{max}}] \leq n^{-2}$ for $x \in [0.3, 0.6]$ easily translates to the following claim: whp there are no maximal satisfying assignments at distance $xn$ for $x \in [0.3, 0.6]$. This follows from Markov’s inequality, which gives an upper bound of $n^{-2}$ on the probability that $f_x^{\text{max}} > 0$ (for a fixed $x$). Now take the union bound over at most $n$ possible values of $x$.

Before proving Proposition 7, we still need to show that the interval $(\varepsilon_2, \varepsilon_1)$ is not empty.

**Proposition 10.** $\varepsilon_2 < \varepsilon_1$

**Proof.** Fix $x \in [0.3, 0.6]$, and consider a random formula $F$ from $\mathcal{P}_{n,m,k}$. Let $M_i$ be the event that $\varphi_i$ at distance $xn$ from the planted assignment $\varphi$ is maximal, and $A_i$ the event that $\varphi_i$ satisfies $F$.

Using this terminology:

$$E[f_x^{\text{max}}] = \sum_{i : \delta(\varphi_i) = xn} Pr[A_i \land M_i] = \sum_i Pr[M_i|A_i]Pr[A_i] = Pr[M_i]Pr[A_i]E[f_x].$$

(5.1)

In the last step we used the fact that $Pr[M_i|A_i]$ is the same for every $\varphi_i$ by symmetry, and therefore we can pull it out in front of the summation. It remains to estimate $Pr[M_i|A_i]$. Conditioning on the event $A_i$ in the planted model means conditioning on the fixed assignment $\varphi_i$ to be satisfying in addition to the planted assignment. In other words this means that only clauses which are satisfied by both $\varphi_i$ and $\varphi$ can be included. By symmetry, every set of $t$ clauses satisfied by both has the same probability of being included. Observe that for $t = m$ this is exactly the definition of the doubly-planted distribution (the distribution where to begin with two planted assignments are respected).
A standard approach is to consider the following variation of the doubly-planted model: pick every clause satisfied by both \( \varphi_i \) and \( \varphi \) w.p. \( p \), where \( p \) satisfies \( p = m/|S| \), \( S \) being the set of clauses which are satisfied by both \( \varphi_i, \varphi \). For the properties that interest us, it is straightforward to translate results between these two models. It is also easy to see that \( |S| \geq (2^k - 2)^{\binom{n}{k}} \).

Now consider a variable \( s \) in \( \varphi_i \) whose assignment agrees with \( \varphi \), and w.l.o.g. assume it is TRUE. We call a clause \( C \) \textit{s-qualifying} for \( \varphi_i \) if it takes the form \( (s \lor \ell_{y_1} \lor \ell_{y_2} \lor \ldots \lor \ell_{y_{k-1}}) \), where \( \ell_{y_j} \) is a FALSE literal (over the variable \( y_j \)) under \( \varphi_i \). If \( \varphi_i \) is maximal then at least one of the \( \binom{n}{k-1} \) \textit{s}-qualifying clauses had to be included. The probability that at least one such clause is included is at most

\[
1 - (1 - p)^{\binom{n}{k-1}} \leq 1 - e^{-km/(n(2^k - 2))}.
\]

Next we observe that \( \varphi_i \) has at least \( (1 - x)n \) variables which are assigned according to \( \varphi \). Also observe that the set of \( s \)-qualifying clauses is disjoint from the set of \( q \)-qualifying clauses. Finally, for \( \varphi_i \) to be maximal there must be at least one \( s \)-qualifying clause in \( F \) for every variable \( s \). The probability for that is at most

\[
Pr[M_i|A_i] \leq \left(1 - e^{-km/(n(2^k - 2))}\right)^{(1-x)n} \leq \left(1 - (1 - x)e^{-km/(n(2^k - 2))}\right)^n \equiv a^n,
\]

for some \( a = a(k) < 1 \) (here we assumed that \( x \in [0.3, 0.6] \) and therefore \( (1 - x) \in [0.4, 0.7] \)). Combining Equations (5.1) and (5.2) we derive

\[
E[f_x^{\text{max}}] \leq E[f_x] \cdot a^n.
\]

We claim that this implies \( \varepsilon_1 - \varepsilon_2 \geq h \) for some \( h = h(k) > 0 \) (\( h \) actually depends on \( a \), but \( a \) depends only on \( k \)). Fix some \( b = b(k) > 1 \) s.t. \( b \cdot a < 1 \) (since \( a = a(k) < 1 \), such \( b \) exists). Since \( E[f_x] \) is continuous and decreasing in \( m/n \), and by the maximality of \( \varepsilon_1 \), we can find \( h = h(k) > 0 \) s.t. \( E[f_x] \leq b^n \) for all \( x \in [0.3, 0.6] \) when \( m/n \leq (1 + \varepsilon_1 - h)2^k \ln 2 \). On the other hand, as Equation (5.3) implies, \( E[f_x^{\text{max}}] \leq b^n \cdot a^n = (ab)^n \leq n^{-2} \) (for sufficiently large \( n \)) for all \( x \in [0.3, 0.6] \). By the minimality of \( \varepsilon_2 \) this in particular implies that \( \varepsilon_2 \leq \varepsilon_1 - h \).

**Proof.** (Proposition 7) Fix some \( \varepsilon \in (\varepsilon_2, \varepsilon_1) \) and consider a random formula \( F \) in \( P_{n,m,k} \) so that \( m/n = (1 + \varepsilon)2^k \ln 2 \). By the choice of \( \varepsilon > \varepsilon_2 \), it holds that \( \text{w.h.p} F \) has no maximal satisfying assignments at distance \( xn \) from the planted assignment for \( x \in [0.3, 0.6] \). Assume that indeed this is the case, and also assume that Assumption 8 holds.

By the choice of \( \varepsilon < \varepsilon_1 \) and the maximality of \( \varepsilon_1 \), for some \( x_1 \in [0.3, 0.6] \) indeed \( E[f_{x_1}] \geq 1 \). We shall now show that \( f_x = 0 \) for all \( x \in [0.3, 0.6] \). Assume by contradiction that \( f_x > 0 \) for some \( x \in [0.3, 0.6] \). Namely, there exists a satisfying assignment \( \psi \) at distance \( xn \) from the planted assignment, \( \varphi \). Construct the assignment \( \psi' \) in the following manner: while possible, flip the assignment of a variable that agrees with \( \varphi \) that leaves the assignment satisfying. By construction it is clear that \( \psi' \) is maximal. The crucial observation now is that at each iteration of the process we increase the distance between the current assignment and the planted by exactly one. Specifically, we start the procedure with an assignment at distance \( xn \) for \( x \in [0.3, 0.6] \), and keep increasing the distance. If the final distance \( yn \) is s.t. \( y \notin [0.3, 0.6] \) then at some point we’ve reached a satisfying assignments at distance \( \geq 0.6n + 1 \). This contradicts Assumption 8. Therefore we have that \( \psi' \), a maximal satisfying assignment already, is at distance \( yn \) for \( y \in [0.3, 0.6] \). This however contradicts our assumption that no maximal satisfying assignments exist at that range.

**Acknowledgements**

Large parts of this work were performed in Microsoft Research, Redmond, Washington.
References

[1] D. Achlioptas and A. Coja-Oghlan. Algorithmic barriers from phase transitions. preprint.

[2] D. Achlioptas and C. Moore. Almost all graphs with average degree 4 are 3-colorable. In Proc. 34th ACM Symp. on Theory of Computing, pages 199–208, 2002.

[3] D. Achlioptas and Y. Peres. The threshold for random $k$-SAT is $2^k \log 2 - O(k)$. Journal of the AMS, 17(4):947–973, 2004.

[4] D. Achlioptas and F. Ricci-Tersenghi. On the solution-space geometry of random constraint satisfaction problems. In Proc. 38th ACM Symp. on Theory of Computing, pages 130–139, 2006.

[5] N. Alon and N. Kahale. A spectral technique for coloring random 3-colorable graphs. SIAM J. on Comput., 26(6):1733–1748, 1997.

[6] N. Alon, M. Krivelevich, and B. Sudakov. Finding a large hidden clique in a random graph. Random Structures and Algorithms, 13(3-4):457–466, 1998.

[7] E. Amir and Y. Skvortsov. Pushing random walk beyond golden ratio. In Computer Science - Theory and Applications, Second International Symposium on Computer Science in Russia, pages 44–55, 2007.

[8] E. Ben-Sasson, Y. Bilu, and D. Gutfreund. Finding a randomly planted assignment in a random $3CNF$. manuscript, 2002.

[9] A. Blum and J. Spencer. Coloring random and semi-random $k$-colorable graphs. J. of Algorithms, 19(2):204–234, 1995.

[10] A. Z. Broder, A. M. Frieze, and E. Upfal. On the satisfiability and maximum satisfiability of random 3-CNF formulas. In Proc. 4th ACM-SIAM Symp. on Discrete Algorithms, pages 322–330, 1993.

[11] M. Chao and J. Franco. Probabilistic analysis of a generalization of the unit clause selection heuristic for the $k$-satisfiability problem. Information Sciences, 51:289–314, 1990.

[12] H. Chen. An algorithm for sat above the threshold. In 6th International Conference on Theory and Applications of Satisfiability Testing, pages 14–24, 2003.

[13] V. Chvátal and B. Reed. Mick gets some (the odds are on his side). In Proc. 33rd IEEE Symp. on Found. of Comp. Science, pages 620–627, 1992.

[14] A. Coja-Oghlan, M. Krivelevich, and D. Vilenchik. Why almost all satifiable $k$-CNF formulas are easy. In 13th conference on Analysis of Algorithms, DMTCS proceedings, pages 89–102, 2007.

[15] U. Feige. Relations between average case complexity and approximation complexity. In Proc. 34th ACM Symp. on Theory of Computing, pages 534–543, 2002.

[16] U. Feige and R. Krauthgamer. Finding and certifying a large hidden clique in a semirandom graph. Random Structures and Algorithms, 16(2):195–208, 2000.
[17] A. Flaxman. A spectral technique for random satisfiable 3CNF formulas. In Proc. 14th ACM-SIAM Symp. on Discrete Algorithms, pages 357–363, 2003.

[18] E. Friedgut. Sharp thresholds of graph properties, and the $k$-sat problem. J. Amer. Math. Soc., 12(4):1017–1054, 1999.

[19] C. Hui and A. M. Frieze. Coloring bipartite hypergraphs. In Proceedings of the 5th International Conference on Integer Programming and Combinatorial Optimization, pages 345–358, 1996.

[20] L. Kirousis, E. Kranakis, D. Krizanc, and Y. Stamatiou. Approximating the unsatisfiability threshold of random formulas. Random Structures and Algorithms, 12(3):253–269, 1998.

[21] E. Koutsoupias and C. H. Papadimitriou. On the greedy algorithm for satisfiability. Info. Process. Letters, 43(1):53–55, 1992.

[22] L. Levin. Average case complete problems. SIAM J. Comput., 15(1):285–286, 1986.

[23] M. Mezard, T. Mora, and R. Zecchina. Clustering of solutions in the random satisfiability problem. Physical Review Letters, 94:197–205, 2005.