

# Positive-definite Functions, Exponential Sums and the Greedy Algorithm: a Curious Phenomenon

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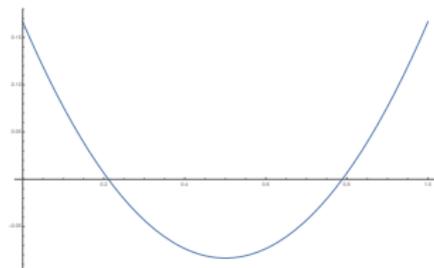


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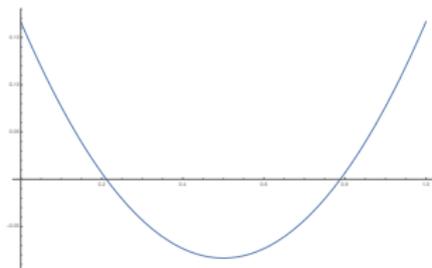


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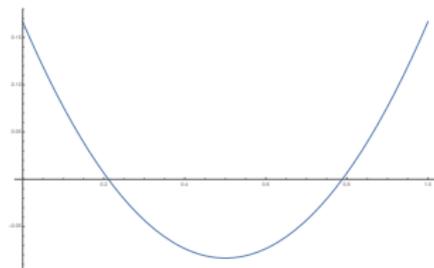


Figure:  $f(x)$

We define a sequence of points by starting with an arbitrary initial set  $\{x_1, \dots, x_m\} \subset [0, 1]$  and then greedily setting

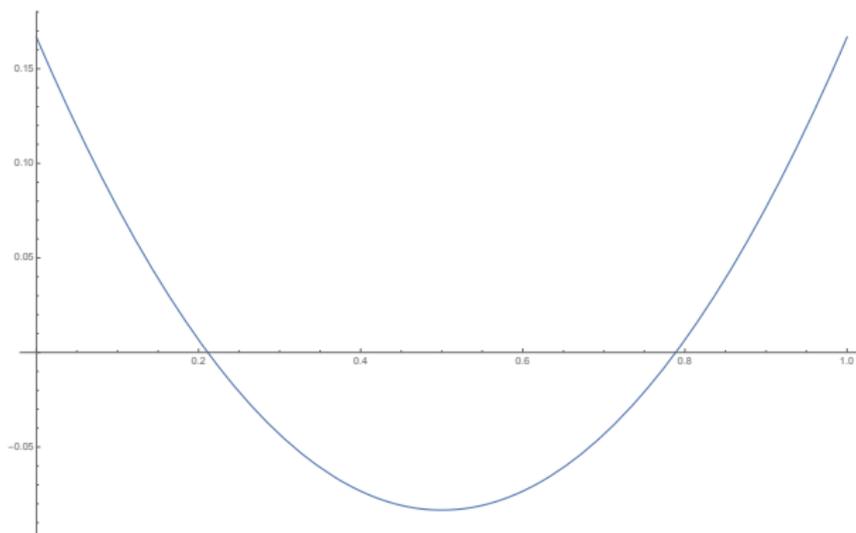
$$x_n = \arg \min_{x \in \mathbb{T}} \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} f(x - x_k).$$

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Figure:  $f(x)$

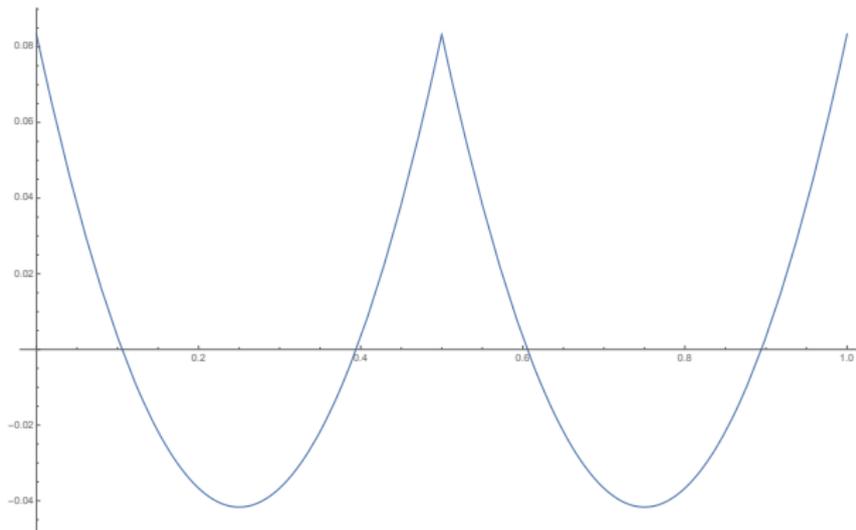


0

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Figure:  $f(x) + f(x - .5)$

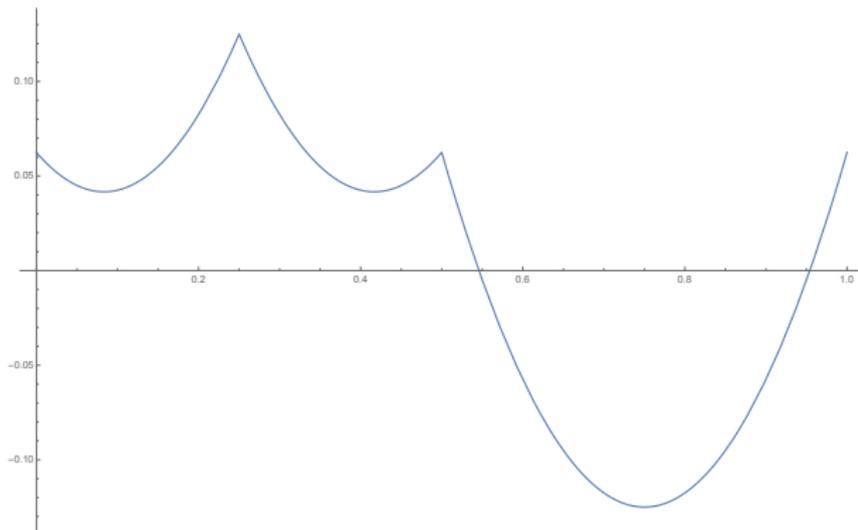


0, .5

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Figure:  $f(x) + f(x - .5) + f(x - .25)$

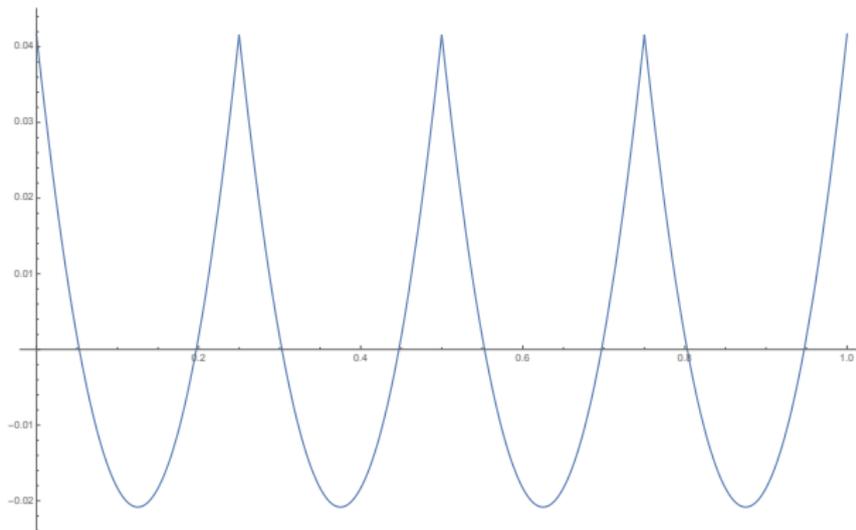


0, .5, .25

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What happens if we start with  $\{0\}$ ?

Figure:  $f(x) + f(x - .5) + f(x - .25) + f(x - .75)$

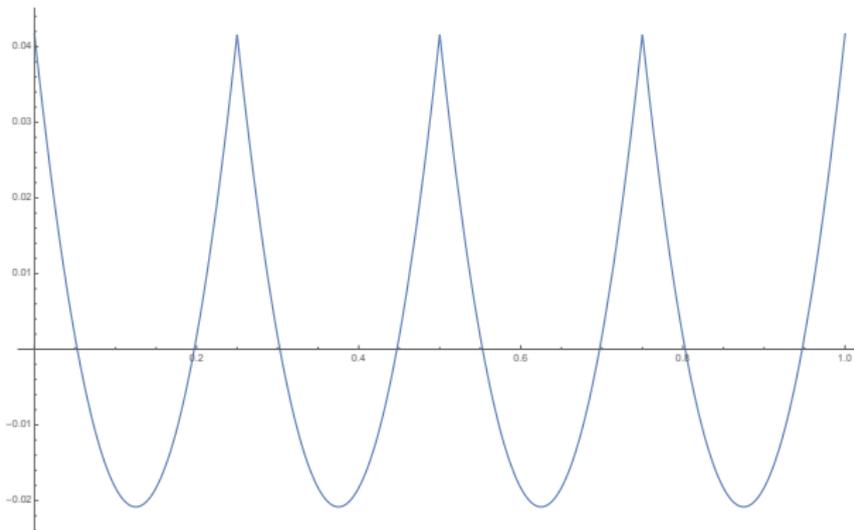


0, .5, .25, .75, ...

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What happens if we start with  $\{0\}$ ?

Figure:  $f(x) + f(x - .5) + f(x - .25) + f(x - .75)$



$0, .5, .25, .75, \dots$

We see that this produces an **extremely** regular sequence.

## ① Two Friendly Sequences

# Talk Structure

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These two sequences were both cooked up to be optimally regular, but they are very differently built—let's take a closer look.

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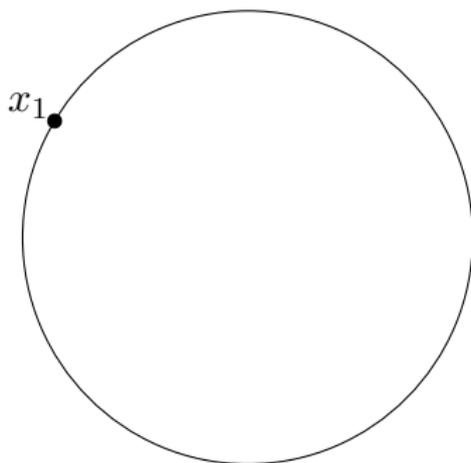


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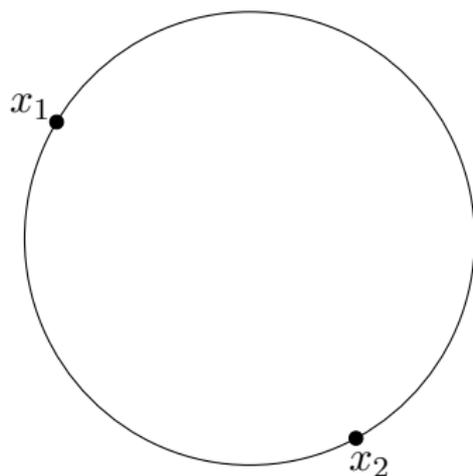


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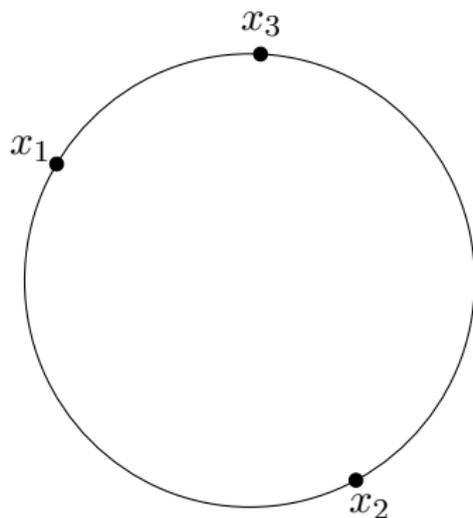


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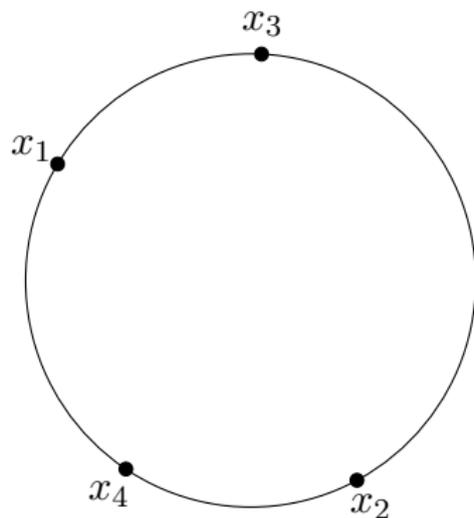


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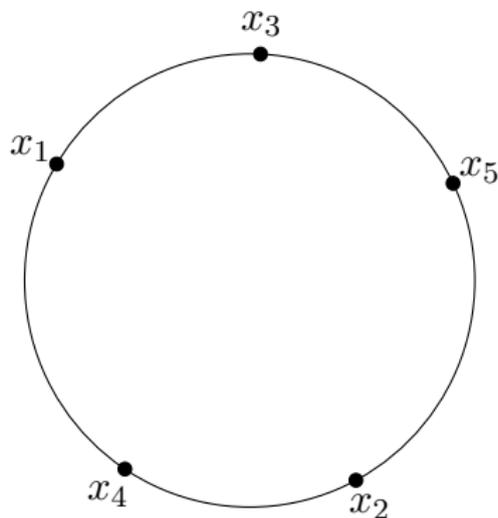


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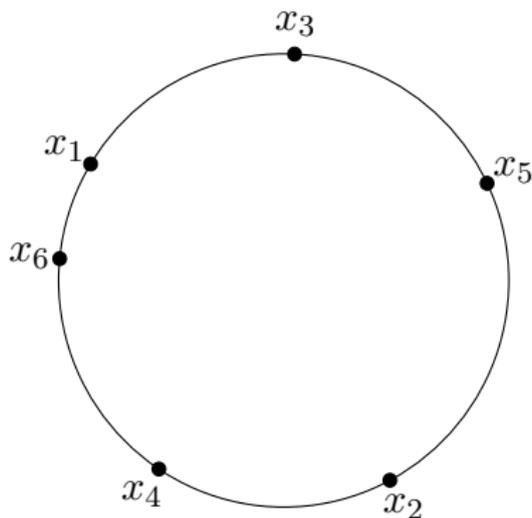


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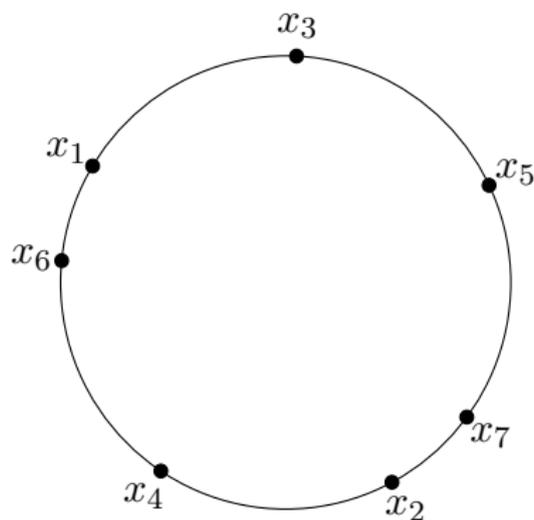


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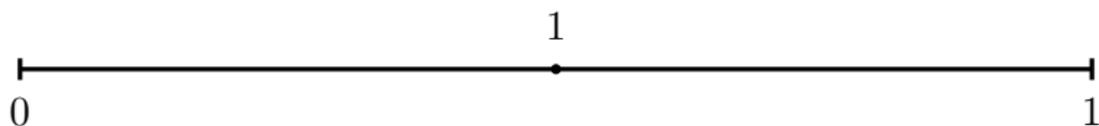


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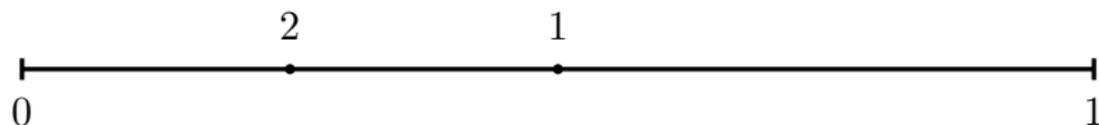


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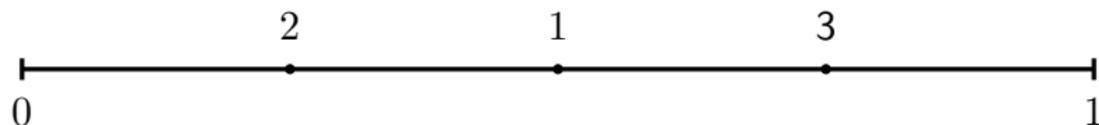


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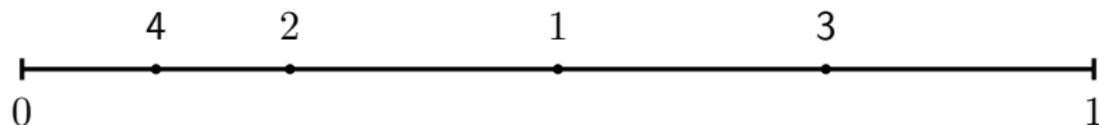


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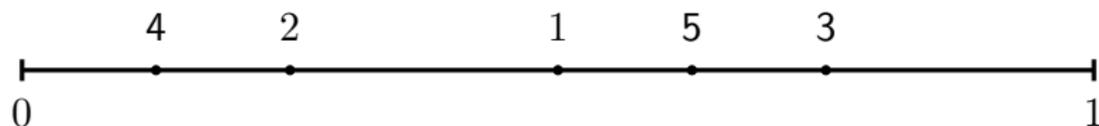


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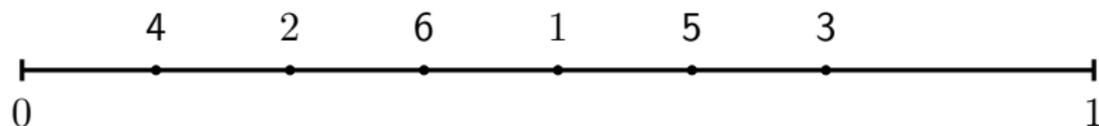


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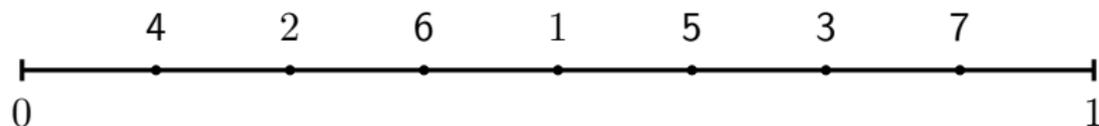


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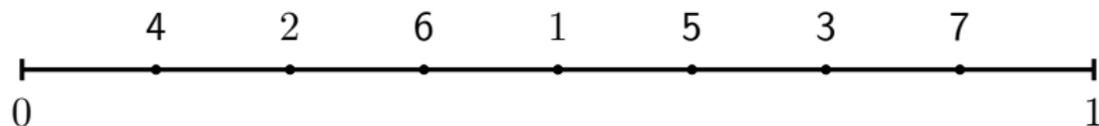


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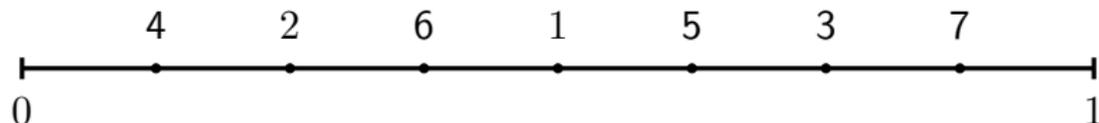


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The van der Corput sequence uses the regularity of binary expansions of numbers to produce uniformity. Note that it greedily “fills in the gaps”—at each step, it places a point at the midpoint of the longest empty interval. We’ll come back to this...

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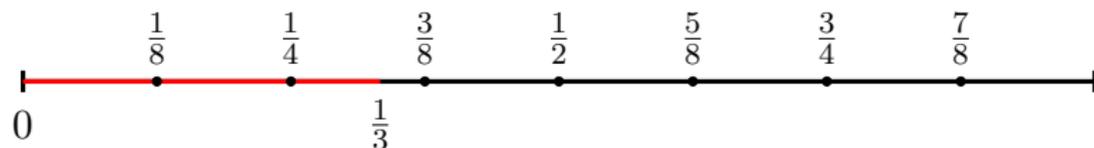


Figure: 7 terms of the van der Corput sequence; 2 lie in  $(0, 1/3)$ .

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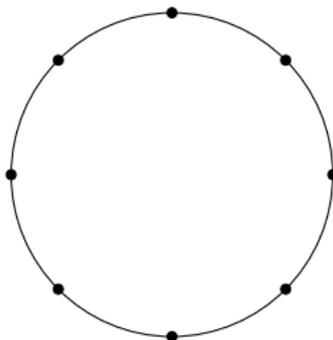
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If we use  $f(x) = x$  and the first 7 terms of the van der Corput sequence, we have

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integrating  $f$  over the unit interval exactly.

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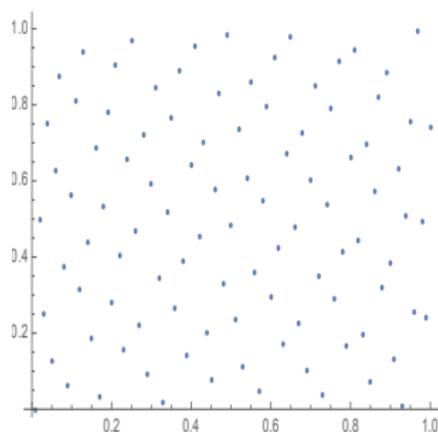


Figure: The first 100 terms of the van der Corput sequence

# Discrepancy

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## Theorem (Schmidt '72)

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Up to constants, the Kronecker and van der Corput sequences achieve this lower bound.

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$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n |x - x_i|^{-1}.$$

# A Fun Game

We can imagine a shifted  $1/|x|$  function placed over each point:

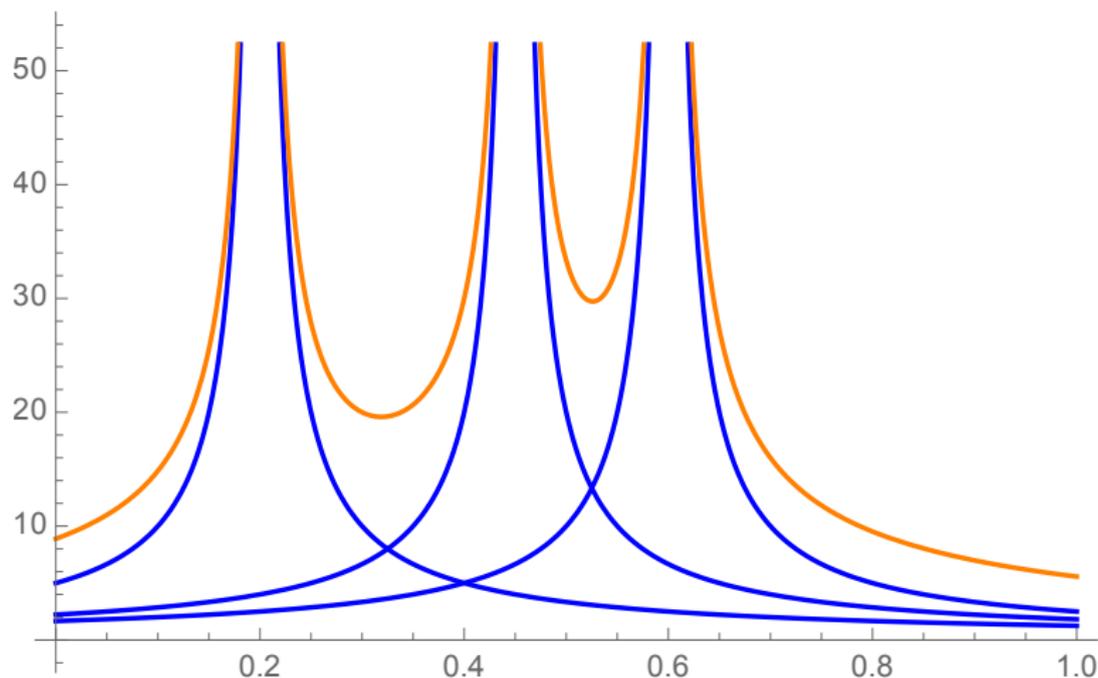


Figure: The potential of a point when charges are placed at  $.2$ ,  $.6$ , and  $.45$

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The resulting sequence has remarkable distribution properties!

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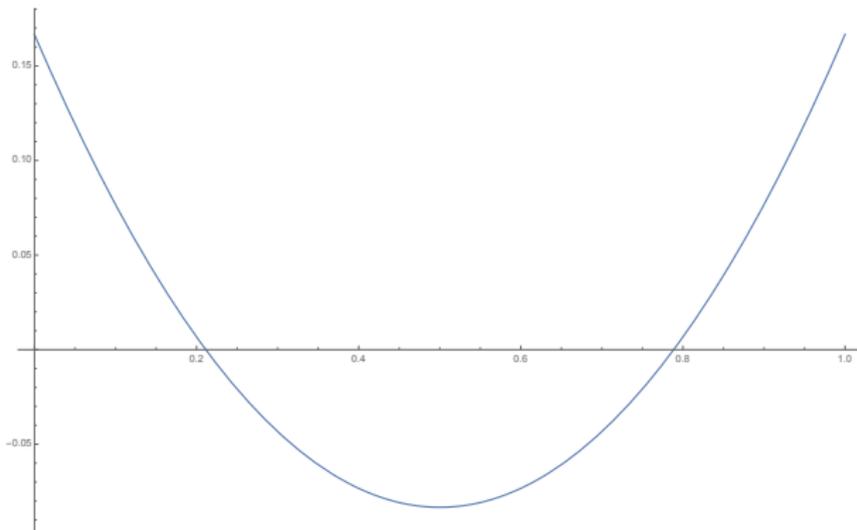
which “fills in the gaps.” That is, by picking the argmin to shift by next, we add a function  $f(x - x_{n+1})$  that will push up the value at the lowest point, and smooth out the aggregate. Let's look at our example again.

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Figure:  $f(x)$

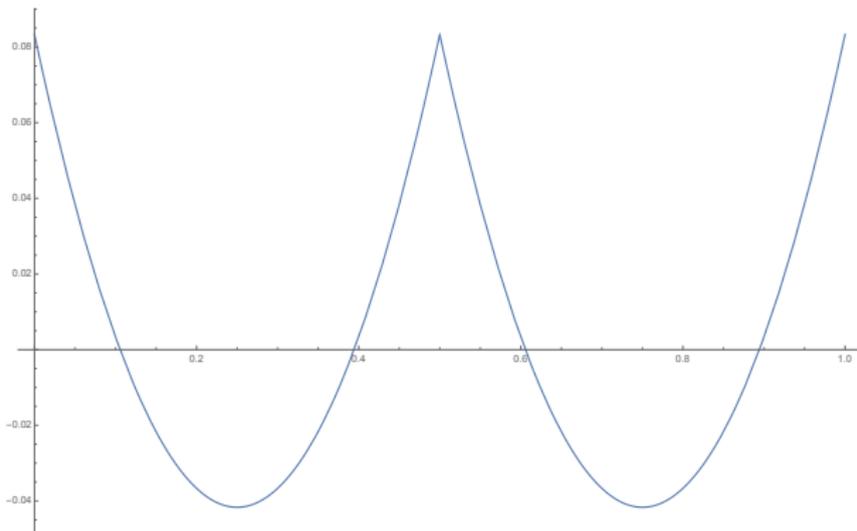


0

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Figure:  $f(x) + f(x - .5)$

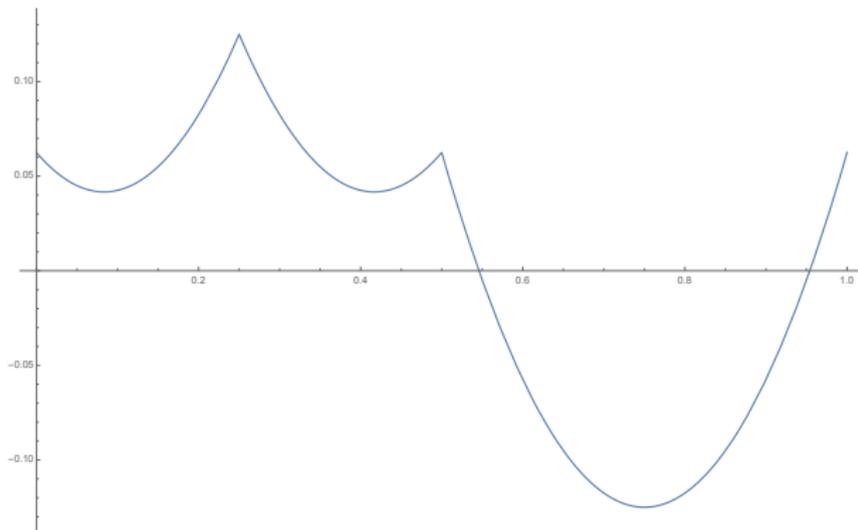


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Figure:  $f(x) + f(x - .5) + f(x - .25)$

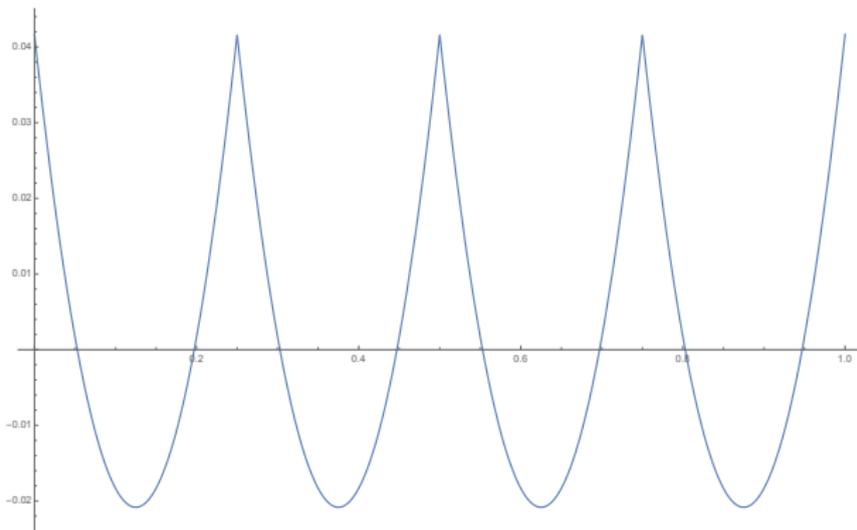


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Figure:  $f(x) + f(x - .5) + f(x - .25) + f(x - .75)$



0, .5, .25, .75, ...

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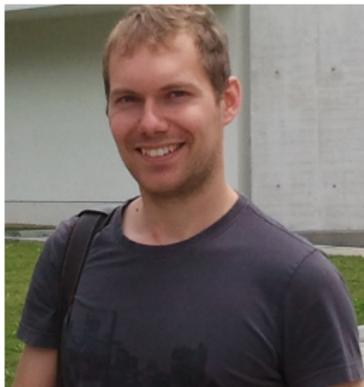


Figure: Florian Pausinger

Theorem (Pausinger '20)



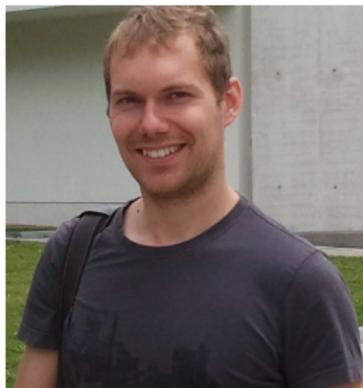


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Let  $f : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a function satisfying

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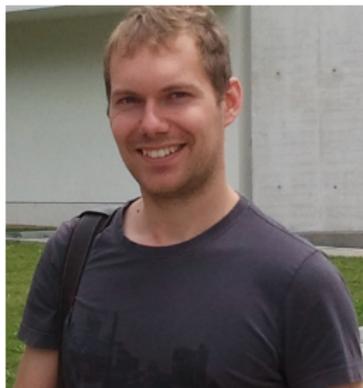


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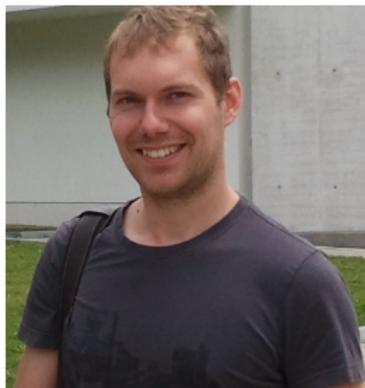


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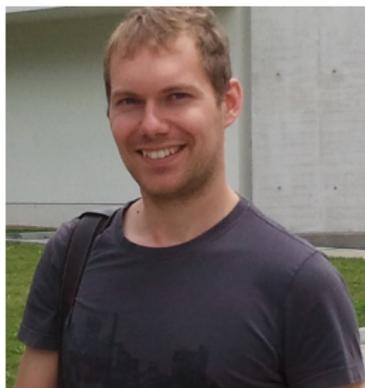


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Then the greedy algorithm running on  $f$  and the initial set  $\{0\}$  yields a van der Corput sequence.

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$$D_N \leq \frac{\tilde{c}}{N^{1/3}}$$

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Later in the talk, we will present the (very slick!) proof.

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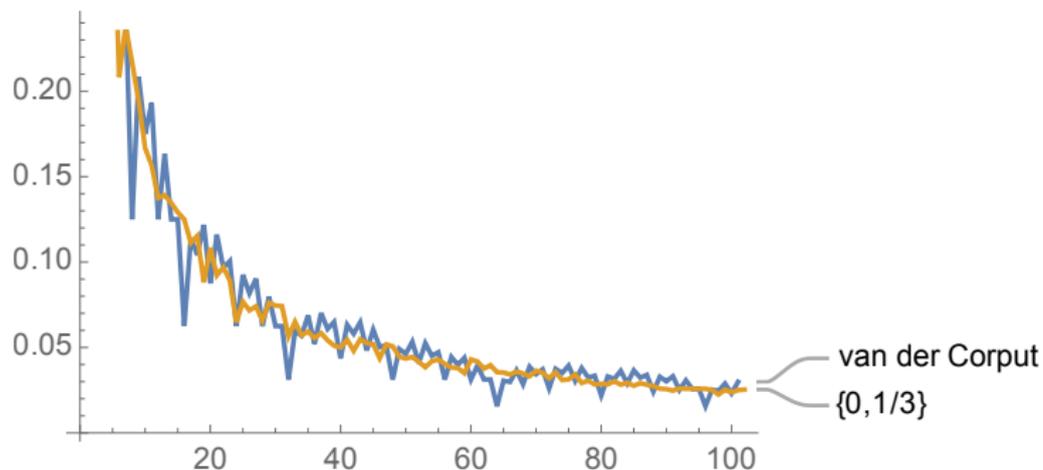


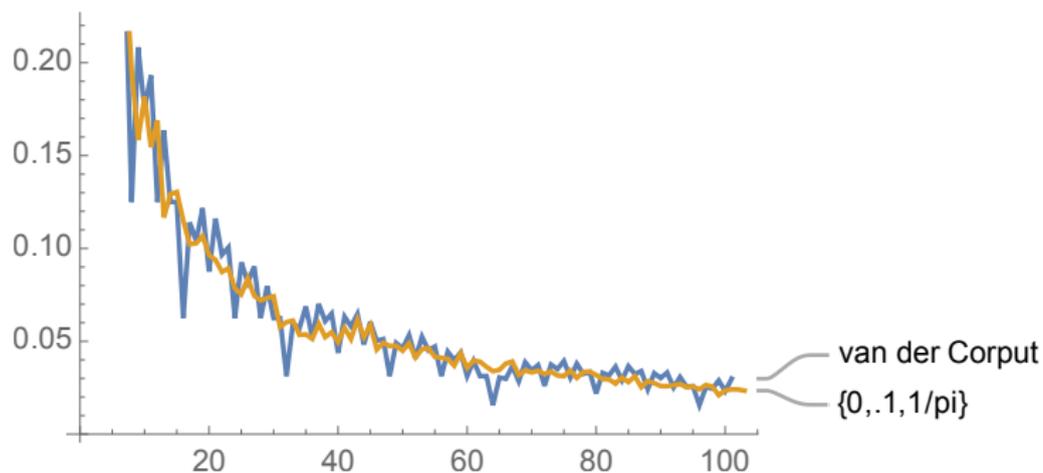
Figure: Discrepancy of van der Corput vs Algorithm running on  $\{0, 1/3\}$

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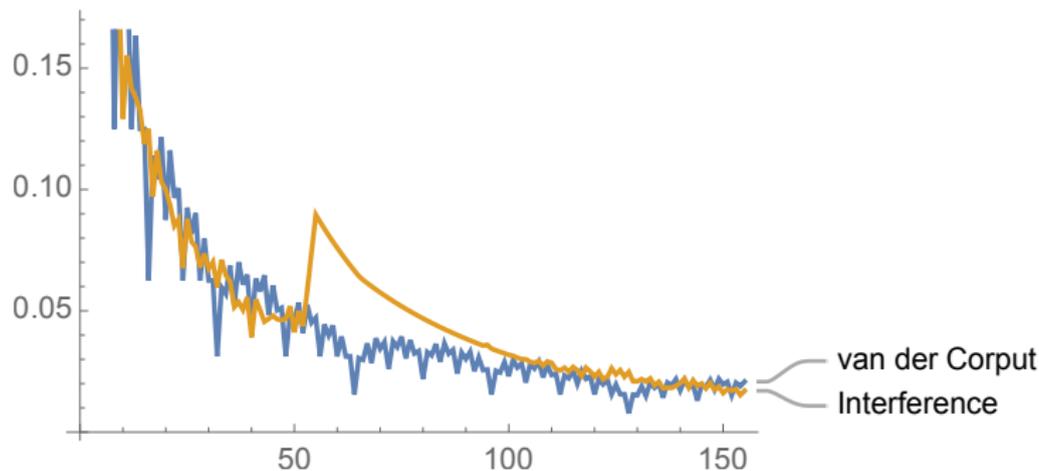
**Figure:** Discrepancy of van der Corput vs Algorithm running on  $\{0, 1/10, 1/\pi\}$

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Maybe we can mess it up in the middle?

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**Figure:** Discrepancy of van der Corput vs Algorithm running on  $\{0, .6\}$  for 50 points, then add  $\{.5, .51, .52\}$  to the sequence and run for another 100

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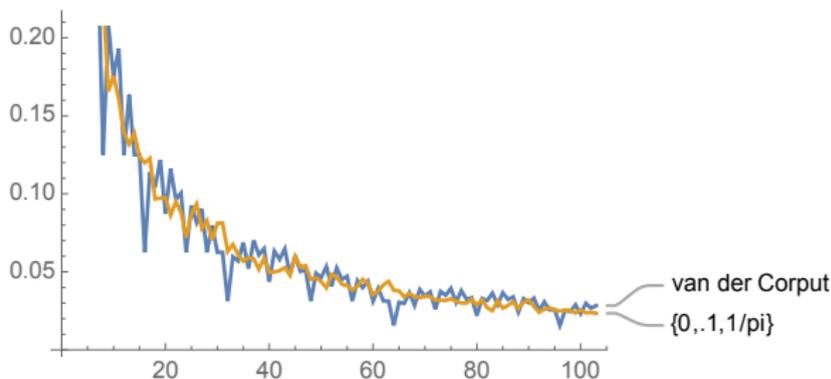
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**Figure:** Discrepancy of van der Corput vs Algorithm running on  $\{0, .1, 1/\pi\}$

**Conjecture 1** For all initial sets  $\{x_1, \dots, x_m\}$ , and all even  $f$  such that  $\hat{f}(k) > ck^{-2}$  for all  $k \neq 0$ , the greedy algorithm

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(Proinov showed that this is optimal, no sequence can do better.)

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We really suspect both these to be true based on the numerics, but the results we can prove are much looser bounds.

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$V(f)$  is a constant (only depends on  $f$ , not the set of points).

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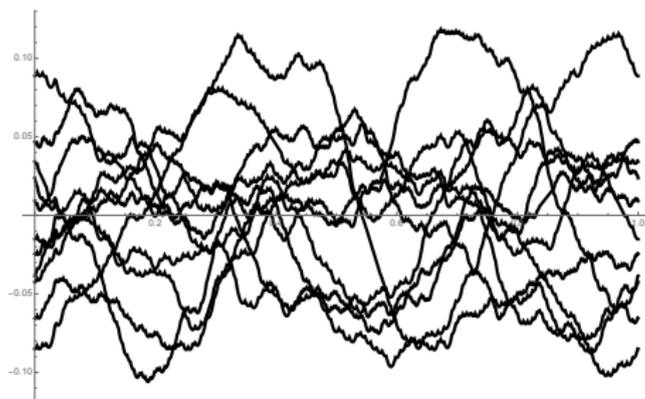


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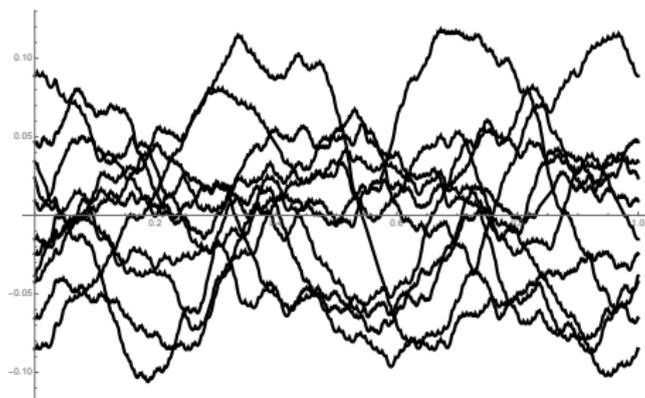


Figure: The functions  $f_{100}, f_{110}, f_{120}, \dots, f_{200}$ .

Somehow, all the shifted functions  $f$  balance out extremely nicely in such a way that the energy of the system stays low.

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In fact, the sequences defined via the algorithm appear, empirically, to be competitive with van der Corput and Kronecker sequences (which are known to be optimal) on all of the regularity measures discussed at the beginning: Combinatorially, Analytically, Numerically, and Geometrically. However, a proof is evasive, and it is an open question whether or not they truly are.

# Zinterhof's Diaphony

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people in number theory/combinatorics think of this as “diaphony”, whereas the Sobolev norm is more analytical and shows up in PDEs.

# Proof of Pausinger's Theorem

We now present a proof of Pausinger's Theorem:

## Theorem (Pausinger '20)

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Thus

$$\sum_{m,\ell=1}^n f(x_m - x_\ell) \leq nf(0). \quad (\diamond)$$

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On the other hand, we have

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{m,\ell=1}^n f(x_m - x_\ell) &= \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} \widehat{f}(k) \sum_{m,\ell=1}^n e^{2\pi i k(x_m - x_\ell)} \\ &= \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} \widehat{f}(k) \left( \sum_{m=1}^n e^{2\pi i k x_m} \right) \left( \sum_{m=1}^n e^{2\pi i k(-x_m)} \right) \\ &= \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} \widehat{f}(k) \left( \sum_{m=1}^n e^{2\pi i k x_m} \right) \overline{\left( \sum_{m=1}^n e^{2\pi i k x_m} \right)} \\ &= \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} \widehat{f}(k) \left| \sum_{m=1}^n e^{2\pi i k x_m} \right|^2.\end{aligned}$$

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Thus, combining with  $\diamond$  from the previous slide,

$$\sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} \widehat{f}(k) \left| \sum_{m=1}^n e^{2\pi i k x_m} \right|^2 \leq n f(0).$$

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so  $\|\mu_n\|_{\dot{H}^{-1}} \lesssim n^{-1/2}$ . Finally, by LeVeque's Inequality, we can bound the discrepancy as

$$D_n \lesssim \|\mu_n\|_{\dot{H}^{-1}}^{2/3} \lesssim n^{-1/3}$$

and we have the desired result.  $\square$

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It is known that minimizers of the Riesz potential are optimal with respect to the  $\dot{H}^{-d/2}$  norm [Marzo, Mas '19] and uniformly distributed with respect to the Hausdorff measure (Poppy-seed bagel Theorem, [Hardin, Saff '04]).

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Minimizing energy on a higher dimensional manifold is much harder. The setup is the same as before: we want to place point charges such that the total energy is minimized (i.e. each charge is far from the others, this is a regularization procedure). A common energy function to use is the *Riesz kernel*:

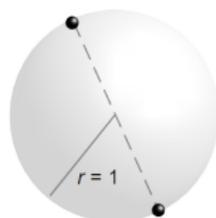
$$k_s(x, y) = \begin{cases} -\log|x - y| & s = 0 \\ |x - y|^{-s} & s > 0 \end{cases}.$$

It is known that minimizers of the Riesz potential are optimal with respect to the  $\dot{H}^{-d/2}$  norm [Marzo, Mas '19] and uniformly distributed with respect to the Hausdorff measure (Poppy-seed bagel Theorem, [Hardin, Saff '04]). It is also known that minimizers of the Green's kernel are asymptotically uniformly distributed [Beltràn, Corral, Criado del Ray '17].

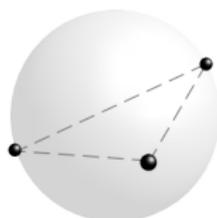
# Higher Dimensions

The problem on the sphere with Riesz kernel  $|x - y|^{-1}$  dates back to physicist J.J. Thomson in 1904, yet, to this day, only a handful of cases are known:

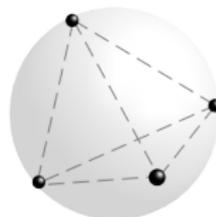
Solutions of the Thomson Problem



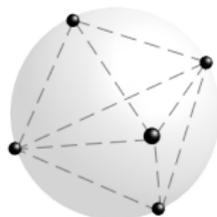
$N = 2$  electrons  
(Digon)



$N = 3$  electrons  
(Equilateral Triangle)



$N = 4$  electrons  
(Tetrahedron)



$N = 5$  electrons  
(Triangular Dipyramid)

Figure: From Wikipedia



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The scaling of the proof is fundamentally different in higher dimensions, and yields stronger bounds!

# Wasserstein Distance

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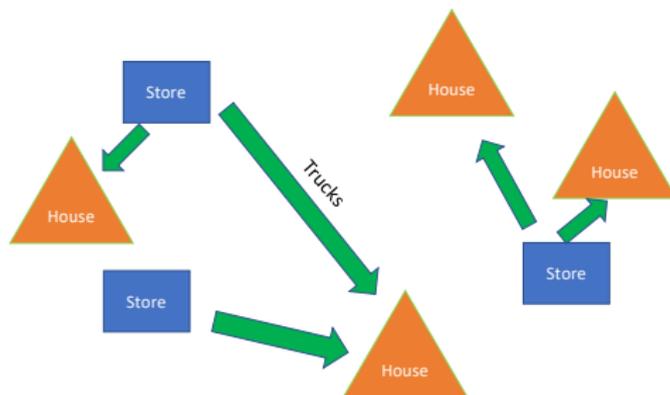
**Figure:** Transporting a point mass of weight  $M$  by distance  $\epsilon$  incurs a cost of  $M \cdot \epsilon$ .



**Figure:** The Wasserstein distance between the blue and red point distributions which each have 2 point masses of weight  $1/2$  is  $\frac{1}{2}(.1) + \frac{1}{2}(.5) = .3$

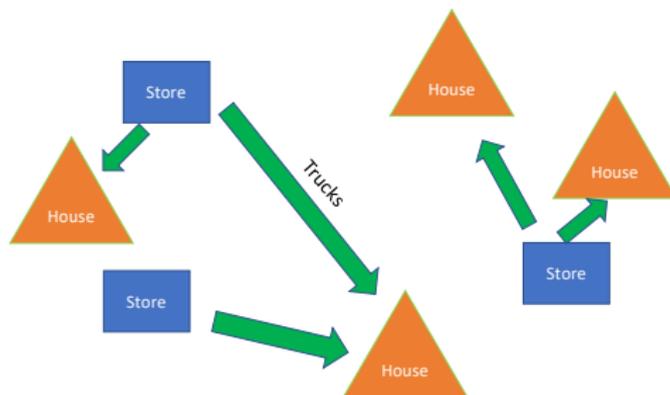
# Wasserstein Distance

Figure: Transporting between a point distribution on stores and houses



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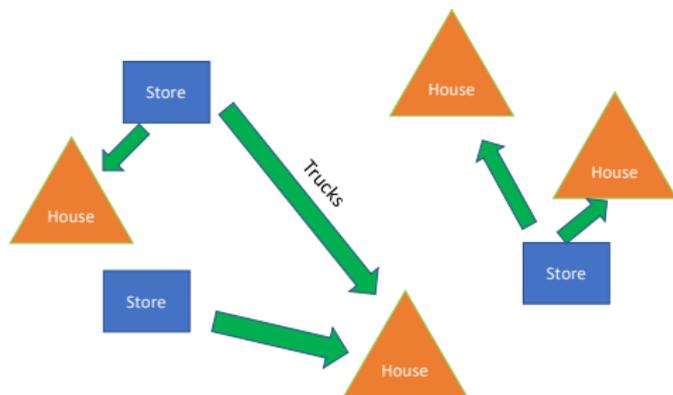
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# Wasserstein Distance

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In our setting, every point on the unit interval has a “house”: We are interested in measuring the Wasserstein distance between the point measure  $\mu_N$  from our sequence and the uniform distribution  $dx$ .

# Wasserstein Distance

Here's the van der Corput sequence mapped to  $[0, 1]^2$  by  $(\frac{i}{100}, x_i)$ :

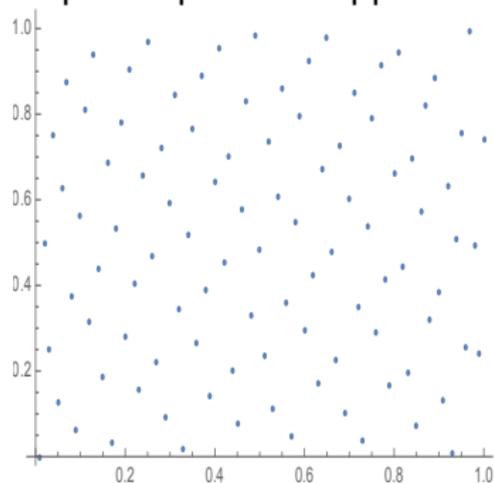
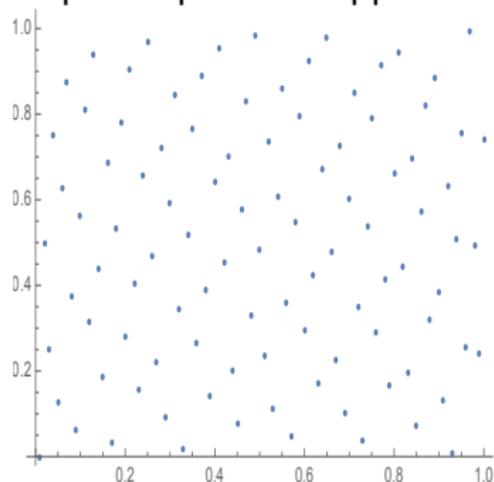


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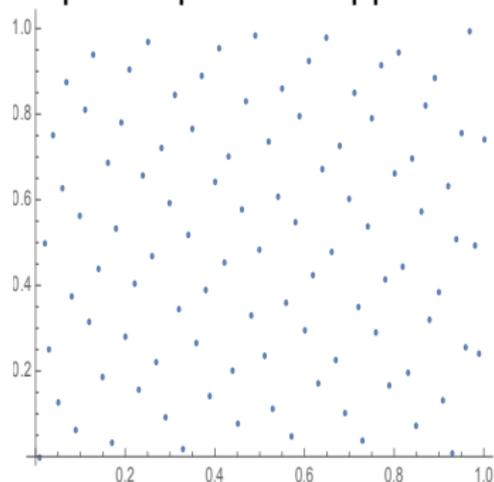


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We can imagine taking the Wasserstein distance between the (normalized) sum of Dirac measures on the points and the uniform distribution on the unit square: we would need to “smudge” each point to transport its mass continuously over nearby points, and  $W_1$  measures how much smudging we need.

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Formally, the  $p$ -Wasserstein distance between two measures  $\mu$  and  $\nu$  is defined as

$$W_p(\mu, \nu) = \left( \inf_{\gamma \in \Gamma(\mu, \nu)} \int_{M \times M} |x - y|^p d\gamma(x, y) \right)^{1/p}$$

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In 1-d, we have

$$W_2(\mu, dx) \lesssim \|\mu\|_{\dot{H}^{-1}},$$

so  $W_2$  seems like a good generalization of diaphony to higher dimensions.

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For any  $d$ -dimensional manifold  $M$ , there is a constant  $c > 0$  such that, for any set of  $N$  points  $\{x_1, \dots, x_N\}$  on  $M$ , we have

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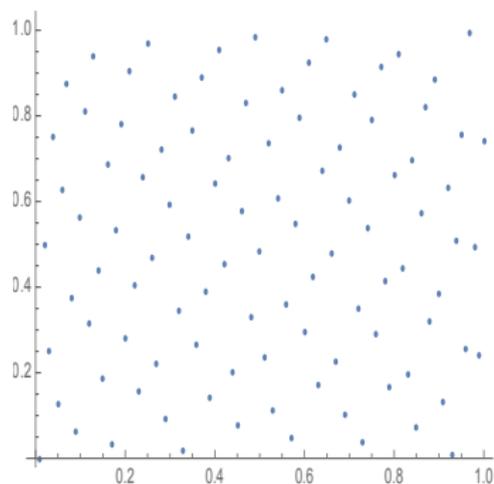


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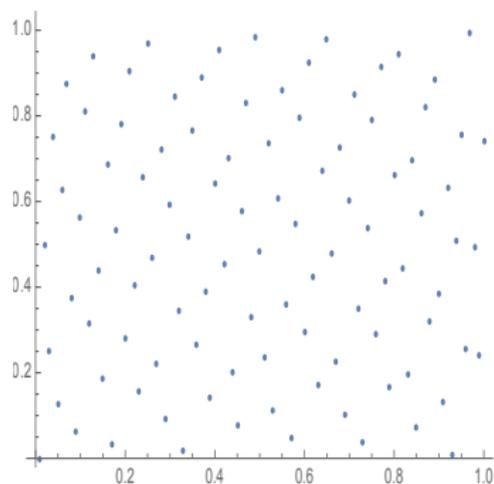


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We may imagine that each point on the plot is actually a very small disc, and we see that the vast majority of the area is outside these discs; thus, we would need to carry most of the point mass by (much) more than the radius of the discs.

## Theorem (B & Steinerberger '20)

Let  $x_n$  be a sequence obtained on a  $d$ -dimensional compact manifold, by starting with an arbitrary set  $\{x_1, \dots, x_m\}$  and greedily setting

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This result is optimal in  $d \geq 3$ , but nobody knows what the best discrepancy is (or if this implies that these sequences obtain it)!

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Thank you!