Haystack Hunting Hints and Locker Room Communication

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— Abstract —

We want to efficiently find a specific object in a large unstructured set, which we model by a *random n-permutation*, and we have to do it by revealing just a single element. Clearly, without any help this task is hopeless and the best one can do is to select the element at random, and achieve the success probability $\frac{1}{n}$. Can we do better with some small amount of advice about the permutation, even without knowing the object sought? We show that by providing advice of just one integer in $\{0, 1, \ldots, n-1\}$, one can improve the success probability considerably, by a $\Theta(\frac{\log n}{\log \log n})$ factor.

We study this and related problems, and show asymptotically matching upper and lower bounds for their optimal probability of success. Our analysis relies on a close relationship of such problems to some intrinsic properties of random permutations related to the rencontres number.

1 Introduction

Understanding basic properties of random permutations is an important concern in modern data science. For example, a preliminary step in the analysis of a very large data set presented in an unstructured way is often to model it assuming the data is presented in a random order. Understanding properties of random permutations would guide the processing of this data and its analysis. In this paper, we consider a very natural problem in this setting. You are given a set of n objects ($[n-1]$, say[1]) stored in locations $x_0, \ldots, x_{n-1}$ according to a random permutation σ of $[n-1]$. This is the *haystack*, and you want to find one specific object, not surprisingly called the *needle*, by drawing from just one location.

Clearly, the probability of finding the right object in a single draw is always $\frac{1}{n}$ (whichever location you choose, since the permutation σ is random, the probability that your object is there is exactly $\frac{1}{n}$). But can I give you any advice or *hint* about σ — *without knowing which object you are seeking* — to improve the chance of you finding the specific object? If I could tell you the entire σ (which can be encoded with $\log(n!) = \Theta(n \log n)$ bits) then this

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[1] Throughout the paper we use the standard notation $[n-1] := \{0, \ldots, n-1\}$, and we write log for $\log_2$.

task is trivial and you would know the location of the object sought. But what if I give you just a small hint (on the basis of σ), one number $\mathfrak{h}$ from $[n{-}1]$ (or equivalently, one $\log n$-bit sequence) — even when I know nothing about the object sought?

Formally, the goal is to design a strategy to choose a *hint* $\mathfrak{h} = \mathfrak{h}(\sigma)$ and an *index* $\mathfrak{i} = \mathfrak{i}(\mathfrak{h}, \mathfrak{s})$, with both $\mathfrak{h}, \mathfrak{i} \in [n{-}1]$, such that for a given $\mathfrak{s} \in [n{-}1]$, $\mathbf{Pr}[\sigma(\mathfrak{i}) = \mathfrak{s}]$ is maximized, where the probability is over the random choice of σ and over the randomness in the choice of the strategy (since $\mathfrak{h} = \mathfrak{h}(\sigma)$ and $\mathfrak{i} = \mathfrak{i}(\mathfrak{h}, \mathfrak{s})$ may be randomized functions), see also Section 2.2.

1.1   Related puzzle: *communication in the locker room*

The *needle in a haystack* problem is closely related to the following *locker room* problem (see Figure 1): The locker room has n lockers, numbered $0, \ldots, n{-}1$. A set of n cards, numbered $0, \ldots, n{-}1$, is inserted in the lockers according to a uniformly random permutation σ. Alice and Bob are a team with a task. Alice enters the locker room, opens all the lockers and can swap the cards between just two lockers, or may choose to leave them unchanged. She closes all the lockers and leaves the room. Bob is given a number $\mathfrak{s} \in [n{-}1]$ and his task is to find card $\mathfrak{s}$. He can open at most two lockers. Before the game begins, Alice and Bob may communicate to decide on a strategy. What is their optimal strategy, and how efficient is it?

As in the *needle in a haystack* problem, without help from Alice, Bob can do no better than open lockers at random. If he opens one locker his probability of success is $\frac{1}{n}$ and if he opens two lockers this probability is $\frac{2}{n}$. With the help of Alice, he can do better when opening one locker. E.g., their strategy could be that Bob will open locker $\mathfrak{s}$, where $\mathfrak{s}$ is his given number. Alice would then try to increase the number of fixed points in the permutation above the expected number of 1. If there is a transposition she can reverse it, increasing the number of fixed points by two, and if not she can produce one more fixed point (unless the permutation is the identity). This strategy succeeds with probability just under $\frac{12}{5n}$. When Bob can open two lockers, the challenge is to increase the success probability to $\omega(\frac{1}{n})$.

The answer involves viewing Bob's first locker opening in a different way: not as looking for his card but as receiving a communication from Alice. The interest is in finding what kind of information Alice can send about the permutation which could help Bob in his search.

Now, we invite the reader to stop for a moment: to think about this puzzle, to find any strategy that could ensure the success probability would be $\omega(\frac{1}{n})$.
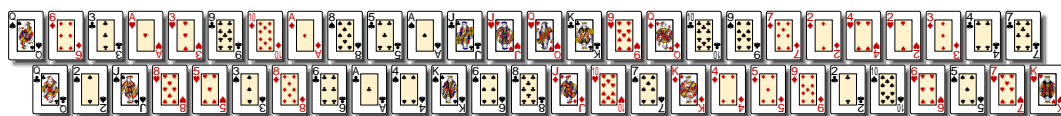
Figure 1 Consider the following randomly shuffled deck, one card per locker. What advice should Alice give to Bob — just by swapping the locations of at most one pair of cards — to increase the probability that Bob will find his randomly chosen card by opening at most two lockers?

It is easy to see that a solution to the *needle in a haystack* search problem immediately yields a solution to the *locker room* problem: Alice just takes the card corresponding to the advice and swaps it into the first locker. For example, the shuffled deck from Figure 1 corresponds to the following permutation σ of 52 numbers:

$$\sigma(0, 1, \ldots, 51) = \langle 49, 17, 1, 38, 27, 7, 21, 25, 45, 3, 51, 9, 35, 36, 11, 33, 23,$$
$$8, 46, 18, 13, 28, 26, 14, 2, 5, 10, 39, 48, 32, 29, 40, 19, 4,$$
$$50, 43, 6, 22, 34, 44, 24, 15, 16, 20, 0, 47, 30, 42, 31, 37 \rangle$$

with mapping: ♣: 0–12 (in order *2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,J,Q,K,A*), ◇: 13–25, ♡: 26–38, ♠: 39–51.
We see, for example, that ♠Q, card number 49 is in locker 0. If in the *needle in a haystack*
search problem the advice is a number $\mathfrak{h} \in [n-1]$, then Alice swaps the contents of locker 0
and the locker containing the card corresponding to number $\mathfrak{h}$. This way, Bob gets the advice
$\mathfrak{h}$ by opening locker 0.

For the strategy we propose in Theorem 5, Alice would swap ♠Q and ♡5. But can we do
better?

1.2 Results for the *needle in a haystack* and *locker room* problems

We present a tight analysis of the *needle in a haystack* search problem. While some basic
examples suggest that it is difficult to ensure success probability $\omega(\frac{1}{n})$, we will show that
one can improve this probability considerably. Our main results are tight (up to lower order
terms) lower and upper bounds for the maximum probability that with a single number hint
one can find the object sought. First, we will show that for any strategy, the probability
that one can find the sought object is at most $\frac{(1+o(1))\log n}{n \log\log n}$ (Theorem 5). Next, as the main
result of this paper, we will complement this by designing a simple strategy that with a hint
ensures that the sought object is found with probability at least $\frac{(1+o(1))\log n}{n \log\log n}$ (Theorem 6).

Further, we demonstrate essentially the same results for the *locker room* problem. Theorem 6 for the *needle in a haystack* search problem immediately implies that there is a simple
strategy for Alice and Bob which ensures that Bob finds his card with probability at least
$\frac{(1+o(1))\log n}{n \log\log n}$. We will complement this claim and extend in Theorem 21 the result from
Theorem 5 for the *needle in a haystack* search problem to prove that for any strategy for
Alice and Bob, the probability that Bob finds the required card is at most $O\left(\frac{\log n}{n \log\log n}\right)$.

Techniques. Our analysis exploits properties of random permutations to ensure that some
short advice can reveal information about the input permutation, which can be used to
increase the success probability substantially. Our approach relies on a close relationship
between the *needle in a haystack* search problem and some intrinsic properties of random
permutations related to the *rencontres number*, the number of n-permutations with a given
number of fixed points. The two parts of our analysis for the *needle in a haystack* problem, the
upper bound and the lower bound for the success probability, use quite different techniques.

To show the upper bound for the success probability (Theorem 5), we first observe that
every deterministic strategy corresponds to a unique partition of $\mathbb{S}_n$ (set of all permutations
of $[n-1]$) into n parts, with part $\mathfrak{h}$ containing exactly those permutations that cause the
choice of hint $\mathfrak{h}$. By a careful analysis of the properties of this partition, we devise a metric for
the best possible accuracy of the prediction counting instances in each part of the partition
in which a permutation maps a given choice $\mathfrak{i}$ to $\mathfrak{s}$. By combining these estimation with
the bounds for the rencontres number, we prove the desired upper bound for the success
probability in the *needle in a haystack* search problem. An application of Yao's principle
shows that our results are also valid for randomized strategies.

To show the lower bound for the success probability (Theorem 6), we first present
a simple *shift strategy*, and then provide a non-trivial analysis of random permutations
that demonstrates desirable properties of this strategy. The analysis here is related to
the maximum load problem for balls and bins, where one allocates n balls into n bins,
chosen independently and uniformly at random (*i.u.r.*). However, the dependencies between
locations of distinct elements in the random permutations make this analysis more complex
(cf. Remark 11 for more detailed discussion).

Finally, while a solution to the *needle in a haystack* search problem immediately yields a solution to the *locker room* problem with the same success probability, we complement our analysis by showing (Theorem 21) that no strategy of Alice and Bob can do much better. We show that Alice can do little more than just to send a few numbers to Bob, which is essentially the setup of the *needle in a haystack* search problem.

1.3 Background: Permutations, puzzles, and locker rooms

Our *locker room* problem follows a long line of the study of combinatorial puzzles involving the analysis of properties of permutations. One such example is the following locker problem involving prisoners and lockers: There are n lockers into which a random permutation of n cards are inserted. Then n prisoners enter the locker room one at a time and are allowed to open half of the lockers in an attempt to find their own card. The team of prisoners wins if every one of them is successful. The surprising result is that there is a strategy which wins with probability about $1 - \ln 2$. This problem was initially considered by Peter Bro Miltersen and appeared in his paper with Anna Gál [7], which won a best paper award at ICALP 2003. In that paper they refer to a powerful strategy approach suggested by Sven Skyum but it was left to the readers to find it for themselves. This is the idea of using the number contained in each locker as a pointer to another locker. Thus using a sequence of such steps corresponds to following a cycle in the permutation. Solutions to these problems are of a *combinatorial and probabilistic flavor* and involve an *analysis of the cycle structure of random permutations*. The original paper [7] stimulated many subsequent papers considering different variants (see, e.g., [4, 8]), including a matching upper bound provided in [5]. An early version giving the problem where each prisoner can open half of the lockers was published by [14] (see also [15, p. 18]). If each prisoner begins with the locker corresponding to the number they seek then they will all succeed provided that there is no cycle in the permutation which is longer than $\frac{n}{2}$. It is easy to show that a helpful prison warder, Alice, can always find an appropriate transposition of the contents of two lockers so that the resulting permutation has no cycle longer than $\frac{n}{2}$. We were told of this observation recently by Kazuo Iwama and this stimulated the current paper, in which we subvert the locker problem tradition with a problem which has little to do with the cycle structure of permutations and is more concerned with some basic communication complexity and rather different properties of permutations.

Various results about permutations have found diverse applications in computer science, especially for sorting algorithms (for example, see [10, Chapter 5]). In this paper, we are particularly interested in two such questions. Firstly, to apply known results concerning the asymptotic growth of the rencontres numbers, in order to approximate the optimal success probabilities in both the *needle in a haystack* problem and the *locker room* problem. Secondly, to use the concept of the rencontres numbers to examine the way in which the sizes of "shift sets" (sets of elements which a permutation displaces by the same number of positions "to the right") are distributed in permutations of $\mathbb{S}_n$ for a fixed natural number n. In particular, to determine the mean size of the largest shift set of a permutation chosen uniformly at random from $\mathbb{S}_n$, as well as to show that it is typical, i.e., that the variance of the size of the largest shift set is small. These results are useful for providing a concrete optimal strategy for both of the titular search problems.

2 Preliminaries

In this section, we prepare a framework for the study of strategies to prove an upper bound for the success probability for the *needle in a haystack* search problem (cf. Section 3). For

the simplicity of the analysis, we will consider (in Sections 2, 3, and 6) the setting when $\mathfrak{s}$ is chosen i.u.r. from $[n-1]$; see Section 2.2 for justification that this can be done without loss of generality. First, let us rephrase the original problem in a form of an equivalent communication game between Alice and Bob: Bob, the *seeker*, has as his input a (random) number $\mathfrak{s} \in [n-1]$. Alice, the *adviser*, sees a permutation σ chosen i.u.r. from $\mathbb{S}_n$, and uses σ to send advice to Bob in the form of a number $\mathfrak{h} \in [n-1]$. Bob does not know σ, but on the basis of $\mathfrak{s}$ and $\mathfrak{h}$, he picks some $\mathfrak{i} \in [n-1]$ trying to maximize the probability that $\sigma(\mathfrak{i}) = \mathfrak{s}$.

First we will consider *deterministic strategies* (we will later argue separately that randomized strategies cannot help much here). Since we consider deterministic strategies, the advice sent is a function $\mathbb{S}_n \to [n-1]$, which can be defined by a partition of $\mathbb{S}_n$ into n sets. This naturally leads to the following definition of a *strategy*.

▶ **Definition 1.** *A **strategy** $\mathbb{C}$ for $\mathbb{S}_n$ is a partition of $\mathbb{S}_n$ into n sets $C_0, C_1, \ldots, C_{n-1}$. Such a strategy $\mathbb{C}$ is denoted by $\mathbb{C} = \langle C_0, C_1, \ldots, C_{n-1} \rangle$.*

Given a specific strategy $\mathbb{C}$, we examine the success probability. Let $\mathcal{V}$ be the event that the sought number is found, $\mathcal{A}_{\mathfrak{h}}$ the event that $\mathfrak{h}$ is the received advice, and $\mathcal{B}_{\mathfrak{s}}$ the event that $\mathfrak{s}$ is the sought number. Notice that for every $\mathfrak{h} \in [n-1]$ we have $\mathbf{Pr}[\mathcal{A}_{\mathfrak{h}}] = \frac{|C_{\mathfrak{h}}|}{n!}$ and for every $\mathfrak{s} \in [n-1]$ we have $\mathbf{Pr}[\mathcal{B}_{\mathfrak{s}}] = \frac{1}{n}$. Therefore, since the events $\mathcal{A}_{\mathfrak{h}}$ and $\mathcal{B}_{\mathfrak{s}}$ are independent,

$$\mathbf{Pr}[\mathcal{V}] = \sum_{\mathfrak{s}=0}^{n-1} \sum_{\mathfrak{h}=0}^{n-1} \mathbf{Pr}[\mathcal{V}|\mathcal{A}_{\mathfrak{h}} \cap \mathcal{B}_{\mathfrak{s}}] \cdot \mathbf{Pr}[\mathcal{A}_{\mathfrak{h}} \cap \mathcal{B}_{\mathfrak{s}}] = \sum_{\mathfrak{s}=0}^{n-1} \sum_{\mathfrak{h}=0}^{n-1} \mathbf{Pr}[\mathcal{V}|\mathcal{A}_{\mathfrak{h}} \cap \mathcal{B}_{\mathfrak{s}}] \cdot \mathbf{Pr}[\mathcal{A}_{\mathfrak{h}}] \cdot \mathbf{Pr}[\mathcal{B}_{\mathfrak{s}}]$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{\mathfrak{h}=0}^{n-1} \frac{|C_{\mathfrak{h}}|}{n!} \cdot \sum_{\mathfrak{s}=0}^{n-1} \mathbf{Pr}[\mathcal{V}|\mathcal{A}_{\mathfrak{h}} \cap \mathcal{B}_{\mathfrak{s}}] \ . \tag{1}$$

▶ **Definition 2.** *Let $\mathbb{C} = \langle C_0, C_1, \ldots, C_{n-1} \rangle$ be a strategy. The **magneticity** of an element i for an element k in the class C_j is defined as $\mathsf{mag}(C_j, i, k) = |\{\sigma \in C_j : \sigma(i) = k\}|$.*

*The element with the greatest magneticity for k in the class C_j is called the **magnet in C_j of** k and is denoted $\mathsf{max\text{-}mag}(C_j, k)$; ties are broken arbitrarily. The magneticity of $\mathsf{max\text{-}mag}(C_j, k)$ is called the **intensity of** k **in** C_j, denoted by $\mathsf{int}(C_j, k)$; that is, $\mathsf{int}(C_j, k) = \max_{i \in [n-1]}\{\mathsf{mag}(C_j, i, k)\}$.*

This can be extended in a natural way to any $C = \langle A_0, A_1, \ldots, A_{n-1} \rangle$ of n subsets of $\mathbb{S}_n$.

Let us discuss the intuitions. Firstly, the *magneticity* in the class C_j of an element i for an element k, $\mathsf{mag}(C_j, i, k)$, denotes the number of permutations in C_j with k in position i. Therefore, the *magnet* in C_j of k is an index $i \in [n-1]$ such that among all permutations in C_j, k is most likely to be in position i. The *intensity* in C_j of k denotes just the number of times (among all permutations in C_j) that k appears in the position of the magnet i.

In the *needle in a haystack* search problem, Alice sends to Bob a message $\mathfrak{h}$ which points to a class $C_{\mathfrak{h}}$ of their agreed strategy $\mathbb{C}$, and Bob has to choose a number $\mathfrak{i}$ in order to find whether $\sigma(\mathfrak{i})$ is the number $\mathfrak{s} \in [n-1]$ which he seeks. The maximum probability that they succeed is $\frac{\mathsf{int}(C_{\mathfrak{h}}, \mathfrak{s})}{|C_{\mathfrak{h}}|}$, realized if Bob opts for the magnet of $\mathfrak{s}$ in $C_{\mathfrak{h}}$. Thus, by (1), we obtain

$$\mathbf{Pr}[\mathcal{V}] \leq \frac{1}{n} \cdot \frac{1}{n!} \sum_{\mathfrak{s}, \mathfrak{h} \in [n-1]} \mathsf{int}(C_{\mathfrak{h}}, \mathfrak{s}) \ .$$

▶ **Definition 3.** *Let the **field** of $\mathbb{S}_n$ be $F(n) = \max_{\mathbb{C} = \langle C_0, C_1, \ldots, C_{n-1} \rangle} \sum_{\mathfrak{s}, \mathfrak{h} \in [n-1]} \mathsf{int}(C_{\mathfrak{h}}, \mathfrak{s})$.*

With this definition, a strategy which yields the field of $\mathbb{S}_n$ is called *optimal*, and

$$\mathbf{Pr}[\mathcal{V}] \leq \frac{1}{n} \cdot \frac{1}{n!} \sum_{\mathfrak{s}, \mathfrak{h} \in [n-1]} \mathsf{int}(C_{\mathfrak{h}}, \mathfrak{s}) \leq \frac{1}{n} \cdot \frac{F(n)}{n!} \ . \tag{2}$$

We will use this bound to prove Theorem 5 in Section 3, that whatever the strategy, we always have $\mathbf{Pr}[\mathcal{V}] \le \frac{(1+o(1)) \cdot \log n}{n \log \log n}$.

2.1   Derangements

We use properties of random permutations related to derangements and rencontres numbers.

▶ **Definition 4.** *A permutation $\sigma \in \mathbb{S}_n$ with no fixed points is called a **derangement**. The number of derangements in $\mathbb{S}_n$ is denoted D_n. A permutation $\sigma \in \mathbb{S}_n$ with exactly r fixed points is called an r-**partial derangement**. The number of r-partial derangements in $\mathbb{S}_n$ (also known as the* rencontres number*) is denoted $D_{n,r}$.*

Definition 4 yields $D_{n,0} = D_n$ and it is easy to see that $D_{n,r} = \binom{n}{r} \cdot D_{n-r}$. It is also known (see, e.g., [9, p. 195]) that $D_n = \lfloor \frac{n!}{e} + \frac{1}{2} \rfloor$, and hence one can easily show $D_{n,r} \le \frac{n!}{r!}$.

2.2   Formal framework and justification about worst-case vs. random $\mathfrak{s}$

We consider the problem with two inputs: a number $\mathfrak{s} \in [n-1]$ and a permutation $\sigma \in \mathbb{S}_n$. We are assuming that σ is a random permutation in $\mathbb{S}_n$; no assumption is made about $\mathfrak{s}$.

For the *needle in a haystack* search problem (a similar framework can be easily set up for the *locker room* problem), a *strategy* (or an *algorithm*) is defined by a pair of (possibly randomized) functions, $\mathfrak{h} = \mathfrak{h}(\sigma)$ and $\mathfrak{i} = \mathfrak{i}(\mathfrak{h}, \mathfrak{s})$, with both $\mathfrak{h}, \mathfrak{i} \in [n-1]$.

For a fixed strategy, let $\mathfrak{p}(\mathfrak{s})$ be the success probability for a given $\mathfrak{s}$ and for a randomly chosen $\sigma \in \mathbb{S}_n$. That is,

$$\mathfrak{p}(\mathfrak{s}) = \mathbf{Pr}[\sigma(\mathfrak{i}) = \mathfrak{s}] \ ,$$

where the probability is over σ taken i.u.r. from $\mathbb{S}_n$, and over the randomness in the choice of the strategy (since both $\mathfrak{h} = \mathfrak{h}(\sigma)$ and $\mathfrak{i} = \mathfrak{i}(\mathfrak{h}, \mathfrak{s})$ may be randomized functions).

The goal is to design an algorithm (find a strategy) that will achieve some success probability for every $\mathfrak{s} \in [n-1]$. That is, we want to have a strategy which maximizes

$$\mathbf{Pr}[\mathcal{V}] = \min_{\mathfrak{s} \in [n-1]} \{\mathfrak{p}(\mathfrak{s})\} \ .$$

In our analysis for the upper bounds in Sections 2 and 3 (Theorem 5) and Section 6 (Theorem 21), for simplicity, we will be making the assumption that $\mathfrak{s}$, the input to the *needle in a haystack* search problem and to the *locker room* problem, is random, that is, is chosen i.u.r. from $[n-1]$. (We do not make such assumption in the lower bound in Section 4 (Theorem 6), where the analysis is done explicitly for arbitrary $\mathfrak{s}$.) Then the main claim (Theorem 5) is that if we choose $\mathfrak{s}$ i.u.r. then $\mathfrak{p}(\mathfrak{s}) \le \frac{(1+o(1)) \log n}{n \log \log n}$, though in fact, one can read this claim as that $\sum_{\mathfrak{s} \in [n-1]} \frac{\mathfrak{p}(\mathfrak{s})}{n} \le \frac{(1+o(1)) \log n}{n \log \log n}$. However, notice that this trivially yields

$$\mathbf{Pr}[\mathcal{V}] = \min_{\mathfrak{s} \in [n-1]} \{\mathfrak{p}(\mathfrak{s})\} \le \sum_{\mathfrak{s} \in [n-1]} \frac{\mathfrak{p}(\mathfrak{s})}{n} \ ,$$

and therefore Theorem 5 yields $\mathbf{Pr}[\mathcal{V}] \le \frac{(1+o(1)) \log n}{n \log \log n}$, as required.

Observe that such arguments hold only for the upper bound. Indeed, since $\min_{\mathfrak{s} \in [n-1]} \{\mathfrak{p}(\mathfrak{s})\}$ may be much smaller than $\sum_{\mathfrak{s} \in [n-1]} \frac{\mathfrak{p}(\mathfrak{s})}{n}$, in order to give a lower bound for the success probability, Theorem 6 proves that there is a strategy that ensures that $\mathfrak{p}(\mathfrak{s}) \ge \frac{(1+o(1)) \log n}{n \log \log n}$ for every $\mathfrak{s} \in [n-1]$; this clearly yields $\mathbf{Pr}[\mathcal{V}] \ge \frac{(1+o(1)) \log n}{n \log \log n}$, as required.

3 Upper bound for the success probability for needle in a haystack

We will use the framework set up in the previous section, in particular the tools in Definition 2 and inequality (2) and that $\mathfrak{s}$ is chosen i.u.r. from $[n{-}1]$, to bound from above the best possible success probability in the *needle in a haystack* search problem.

▶ **Theorem 5.** *For any strategy in the* needle in a haystack *problem, the success probability is*

$$\mathbf{Pr}[\mathcal{V}] \leq \frac{(1 + o(1)) \cdot \log n}{n \log \log n} \quad .$$

Proof. We will first consider only *deterministic* strategies and, only at the end, we will argue that this extends to randomized strategies.

Consider an optimal strategy $\mathbb{C} = \langle C_0, \ldots, C_{n-1} \rangle$. First, we will modify sets $C_0, \ldots, C_{n-1}$ to ensure that each C_j has n distinct magnets.

Fix $j \in [n{-}1]$. Suppose that there are two elements $k_1 < k_2 \in [n{-}1]$ with the same magnet i_1 in C_j. Since there are exactly n elements and n possible magnets, there is some $i_2 \in [n{-}1]$ which is not a magnet in C_j of any element. For every $\sigma \in C_j$ with $\sigma(i_1) = k_2$, calculate $\sigma' = \sigma(i_1 i_2)$ (that is, σ' is the same as σ, except that the images of i_1 and i_2 are exchanged). Now, if $\sigma' \notin C_j$, then remove σ from C_j and add σ' to C_j. We notice the following properties of the resulting set C'_j in the case that some σ is replaced by σ':

(i) $|C'_j| = |C_j|$.

(ii) i_2 can be chosen as the new magnet of k_2. Indeed, for every $i \neq i_1, i_2$, we have

$$\mathsf{mag}(C'_j, i_2, k_2) > \mathsf{mag}(C_j, i_1, k_2) = \mathsf{int}(C_j, k_2) \geq \mathsf{mag}(C_j, i, k_2) = \mathsf{mag}(C'_j, i, k_2), \text{ so}$$
$$\mathsf{mag}(C'_j, i_2, k_2) = \mathsf{int}(C'_j, k_2) > \mathsf{int}(C_j, k_2) \quad .$$

(iii) None of the intensities decreases. Indeed the only differences are due to changes to permutations $\sigma \in C_j$ with $\sigma(i_1) = k_2$. Such a permutation where $\sigma(i_2) = k_3$, say, is replaced by σ', where $\sigma'(i_2) = k_2$ and $\sigma'(i_1) = k_3$, if σ' is not already in C_j. As shown in (ii), the intensity of k_2 increases. For k_3, only $\mathsf{mag}(C_j, i_2, k_3)$ decreases, but since i_2 was not a magnet in C_j, the magnet in C'_j of k_3, and hence $\mathsf{int}(C_j, k_3)$, is unchanged.

We repeat this operation for every remaining pair of elements which share a magnet in C_j until we arrive at a set of permutations which has n distinct magnets. Then, we perform the same process for every other class in $\mathbb{C}$.

To see that this algorithm indeed terminates, (ii) shows that if in any iteration the magnet of an element i changes, then $\mathsf{int}(C'_j, i) > \mathsf{int}(C_j, i)$. As the maximum intensity of any element within a class C_j is $|C_j|$ and the minimum is 1, the algorithm terminates after $n \cdot n!$ iterations.

Let us consider the collection $C = \langle A_0, \ldots, A_{n-1} \rangle$ obtained. From (i), we see that the sets of C contain a total of $n!$ permutations of $\mathbb{S}_n$. Permutations belonging to the same set A_j are necessarily distinct, but two different sets of C may have non-trivial intersection. Hence, C may not be a strategy. Every A_j has n distinct magnets, one for each element of $[n{-}1]$. Most importantly, by (iii), we have

$$\sum_{i,j \in [n-1]} \mathsf{int}(A_j, i) \geq \sum_{i,j \in [n-1]} \mathsf{int}(C_j, i) = F(n) \quad .$$

Hence, calculating an upper bound for $\sum_{i,j \in [n-1]} \mathsf{int}(A_j, i)$ yields an upper bound for $F(n)$.

The set A_j has exactly n magnets, one for each element of $[n{-}1]$. For a permutation $\sigma \in A_j$ to contribute r to $\sum_{i \in [n-1]} \mathsf{int}(A_j, i)$, σ^{-1} must map exactly r elements to their

magnets in A_j. Hence, (cf. Definition 4) there are at most $D_{n,r}$ permutations in A_j which contribute exactly r to $\sum_{i \in [n-1]} \mathsf{int}(A_j, i)$. Recall that $D_{n,r} \leq \frac{n!}{r!}$ and thus for any natural ℓ,

$$\sum_{i \in [n-1]} \mathsf{int}(A_j, i) \leq \ell \cdot |A_j| + \sum_{r=\ell+1}^{n} r \cdot D_{n,r} = \ell \cdot |A_j| + \sum_{r=\ell+1}^{n} \frac{n!}{(r-1)!} \leq \ell \cdot |A_j| + \frac{en!}{\ell!} \quad .$$

We will choose some $\ell = \frac{(1+o(1))\log n}{\log \log n}$ to ensure that $\ell! = \omega(n)$, giving

$$F(n) \leq \sum_{i,j \in [n-1]} \mathsf{int}(A_j, i) \leq \sum_{j \in [n-1]} (\ell \cdot |A_j| + o((n-1)!)) = (\ell + o(1))n! = \frac{(1+o(1))\log n}{\log \log n} n! \quad (3)$$

We can combine (2) and (3) to obtain the following,

$$\mathbf{Pr}[\mathcal{V}] \leq \frac{1}{n} \cdot \frac{F(n)}{n!} \leq \frac{(1+o(1))\log n}{n \log \log n} \quad .$$

The upper bound of $\frac{(1+o(1))\log n}{n \log \log n}$ is valid not only for deterministic strategies, but also for *randomized strategies*. Let $c(\mathbb{C}, (\sigma, i))$ be the indicator function of the event that the strategy $\mathbb{C}$ fails to guess the image of i under the permutation σ. Let us consider a probability measure P over the set D of all deterministic strategies, and the distribution $U = (U_{\mathbb{S}_n}, U_{[n-1]})$ over $\mathbb{S}_n \times [n-1]$, where U_S denotes the uniform probability measure over the set S. Let S be a random strategy chosen according to P, and let X be a random set-up chosen according to U. Then, by Yao's principle, $\max_{(\sigma,i) \in \mathbb{S}_n \times [n-1]} \mathbf{E}[c(S, (\sigma, i))] \geq \min_{\mathbb{C} \in D} \mathbf{E}[c(\mathbb{C}, X)]$. That is, the probability that a randomized strategy fails for the worst-case input exceeds the probability that an optimal deterministic strategy fails. Hence, the worst-case probability that a randomized strategy succeeds is also bounded above by $\frac{(1+o(1))\log n}{n \log \log n}$. ◄

4   Lower bound: solution for the needle in a haystack search problem

In Theorem 5, we showed that whatever strategy we use in the *needle in a haystack* problem, the best success probability we can hope for is $\frac{(1+o(1))\log n}{n \log \log n}$. In this section we will show that such success probability is achievable by a simple strategy, which we call the *shift strategy*.

> - Let $\mathfrak{h} \in [n-1]$ maximize $|\{\ell \in [n-1] : \ell = \sigma(\ell + \mathfrak{h} \pmod n)\}|$.
> - In order to find number $\mathfrak{s} \in [n-1]$ in σ, check $\sigma(\mathfrak{s} + \mathfrak{h} \pmod n)$.

(Our choice of $\mathfrak{h}$ is equivalent to maximizing $|\{\ell \in [n-1] : (\ell - \mathfrak{h} \pmod n) = \sigma(\ell)\}|$.)

We will prove that the shift strategy ensures a success probability of at least $\frac{(1+o(1))\log n}{n \log \log n}$. Notice that this is equivalent to saying that $\mathbf{Pr}[\sigma(\mathfrak{s} + \mathfrak{h} \pmod n)) = \mathfrak{s}] \geq \frac{(1+o(1))\log n}{n \log \log n}$, and hence, by the definition of $\mathfrak{h}$, that with probability $1 - o(1)$,

$$\max_{s \in [n-1]} \left\{ \left| \{\ell \in [n-1] : \ell - \sigma(\ell) = s \pmod n\} \right| \right\} \geq \frac{(1+o(1))\log n}{\log \log n} \quad .$$

This also implies, by Theorem 5 in Section 3, that the shift strategy is asymptotically optimal.

▶ **Theorem 6.** *For any $\mathfrak{s} \in [n-1]$, the shift strategy satisfies $\mathbf{Pr}[\mathcal{V}] \geq \frac{(1+o(1))\log n}{n \log \log n}$.*

In order to prove Theorem 6, we introduce some notation. For every $i \in [n-1]$, let $v(i) = i - \sigma(i) \pmod n$. Since σ is random, $v(i)$ has uniform distribution over $[n-1]$.

Let $S_\ell = |\{i \in [n-1] : v(i) = \ell\}|$. Notice that in the shift strategy $\mathbb{C} = \langle C_0, C_1, \ldots, C_{n-1} \rangle$, if $\sigma \in C_\mathfrak{h}$ then $S_\mathfrak{h} = \max_{\ell \in [n-1]} \{S_\ell\}$. Therefore, our goal is to study basic properties of the distribution of $S_\mathfrak{h}$, and in particular, to estimate the largest value of S_j over all $j \in [n-1]$.

▶ **Example 7.** Using the example presented in Figure 1 with

$$\sigma(0, 1, \ldots, 51) = \langle 49, 17, 1, 38, 27, 7, 21, 25, 45, 3, 51, 9, 35, 36, 11, 33, 23, 8, 46, 18, 13, 28, 26,$$
$$14, 2, 5, 10, 39, 48, 32, 29, 40, 19, 4, 12, 41, 50, 43, 6, 22, 34, 44, 24, 15, 16, 20, 0, 47, 30, 42, 31, 37 \rangle,$$

we have

$$v(0, 1, \ldots, 51) = \langle 3, 36, 1, 17, 29, 50, 37, 34, 15, 6, 11, 2, 29, 29, 3, 34, 45, 9, 24, 1, 7, 45, 48, 9,$$
$$22, 20, 16, 40, 32, 49, 1, 43, 13, 29, 22, 46, 38, 46, 32, 17, 6, 49, 18, 28, 28, 25, 46, 0, 18, 7, 19, 14 \rangle.$$

Then

$$S_{0,1,2,\ldots,50,51} = \langle 1, 3, 1, 2, 0, 0, 2, 2, 0, 2, 0, 1, 0, 1, 1, 1, 1, 2, 2, 1, 1, 0, 2, 0, 1, 1,$$
$$0, 0, 2, 4, 0, 0, 2, 0, 2, 0, 1, 1, 1, 0, 1, 0, 0, 1, 0, 2, 3, 0, 1, 2, 1, 0 \rangle,$$

so $\mathfrak{h} = 29$ and $S_{\mathfrak{h}} = 4$. Alice delivers this hint to Bob by exchanging cards ♡5 and ♠Q. Then, over all $\mathfrak{s} \in [n{-}1]$, $\mathbf{Pr}[\sigma(\mathfrak{s} + 29 \pmod{52}) = \mathfrak{s}] = \frac{4}{52}$. ⊠

Let us first notice the following simple auxiliary lemma which should give the *intuition* behind our approach (see the end of this section for a standard and elementary proof).

▶ **Lemma 8.** *The expected number of values $j \in [n{-}1]$ with $S_j \geq \frac{(1+o(1))\cdot\log n}{\log\log n}$ is at least one.*

Lemma 8 tells us that in expectation, there is at least one value j such that $S_j \geq \frac{(1+o(1))\log n}{\log\log n}$. Notice however that in principle, we could have that the expectation is high but only because with small probability the random variable takes a very high value. Therefore the bound in Lemma 8 is fairly weak. We will now prove, using the second moment method, that with high probability there is some j such that $S_j \geq \frac{(1+o(1))\log n}{\log\log n}$. This yields Theorem 6.

▶ **Lemma 9.** *With probability $1 - o(1)$ there is some $j \in [n{-}1]$ such that $S_j \geq \frac{(1+o(1))\log n}{\log\log n}$.*

Proof. Let Z_j^t be the indicator random variable that $S_j = t$. Let $R_t = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} Z_j^t$. With this notation, our goal is to show that $R_t = 0$ is unlikely for our choice of some $t = \frac{(1+o(1))\log n}{\log\log n}$ (since if $R_t > 0$ then $\max_{j \in [n-1]} S_j \geq t$, and hence $\mathbf{Pr}\big[\max_{j \in [n-1]} S_j \geq t\big] \geq \mathbf{Pr}[R_t > 0]$). We use the second moment method relying on a standard implication of Chebyshev's inequality,

$$\mathbf{Pr}\big[\max_{j \in [n-1]} S_j < t\big] \leq \mathbf{Pr}\big[R_t = 0\big] \leq \frac{\mathbf{Var}[R_t]}{\mathbf{E}[R_t]^2} \ . \tag{4}$$

Let us recall that

$$\mathbf{Var}[R_t] = \mathbf{Var}[\sum_{j=0}^{n-1} Z_j^t] = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \mathbf{Var}[Z_j^t] + \sum_{i,j \in [n-1], i \neq j} \mathbf{Cov}[Z_i^t, Z_j^t] \ . \tag{5}$$

Next, since every Z_j^t is a 0-1 random variable, we obtain the following,

$$\mathbf{Var}[Z_j^t] = \mathbf{Pr}[Z_j^t = 1] \cdot \mathbf{Pr}[Z_j^t = 0] \leq \mathbf{Pr}[Z_j^t = 1] = \mathbf{E}[Z_j^t] \ . \tag{6}$$

Our main technical claim is that the covariance of random variables Z_j^t, Z_i^t is small. Although the proof of Lemma 10 is the *main technical contribution* of this section, for the clarity of the presentation, we defer its proof to Section 5.

▶ **Lemma 10.** *Let $t \leq O(\log n)$. Then, the following holds for any $i \neq j$, $i, j \in [n-1]$:*

$$\mathbf{Cov}[Z_i^t, Z_j^t] = \mathbf{E}\big[Z_i^t \cdot Z_j^t\big] - \mathbf{E}\big[Z_i^t\big] \cdot \mathbf{E}\big[Z_j^t\big] \leq o(1) \cdot \mathbf{E}\big[Z_i^t\big] \cdot \mathbf{E}[Z_j^t] \ . \tag{7}$$

Therefore, if we combine (6) and Lemma 10 in identity (5), then (assuming $t \leq O(\log n)$)

$$\mathbf{Var}[R_t] = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \mathbf{Var}[Z_j^t] + \sum_{i,j\in[n-1],i\neq j} \mathbf{Cov}[Z_i^t, Z_j^t] \leq \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \mathbf{E}[Z_j^t] + o(1) \sum_{i,j\in[n-1],i\neq j} \mathbf{E}\big[Z_i^t\big]\mathbf{E}[Z_j^t]$$
$$= \mathbf{E}[R_t] + o(1) \cdot \mathbf{E}[R_t]^2 \ .$$

If we plug this in (4), then we will get the following (assuming $t \leq O(\log n)$),

$$\mathbf{Pr}\big[R_t = 0\big] \leq \frac{\mathbf{Var}[R_t]}{\mathbf{E}[R_t]^2} \leq \frac{1}{\mathbf{E}[R_t]} + o(1) \ . \tag{8}$$

Therefore, if for some $\varsigma > 0$ we have $\mathbf{E}[R_t] \geq \varsigma$ (with $t \leq O(\log n)$) then the bound above yields $\mathbf{Pr}\big[\max_{i\in[n-1]} S_i < t\big] \leq \frac{1}{\varsigma} + o(1)$. Hence we can combine this with (9) to obtain $\mathbf{E}[R_t] = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \mathbf{E}[Z_j^t] = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \mathbf{Pr}[S_j = t] > \frac{n}{2et!}$, which is $\omega(1)$ for any t such that $t! = o(n)$. This in particular holds for some $t = \frac{(1+o(1))\log n}{\log\log n}$, and thus concludes Lemma 9. ◀

▶ Remark 11. A reader may notice a close similarity of the problem of estimating $\max_{i\in[n-1]} S_i$ to the maximum load problem for balls and bins, where one allocates n balls into n bins i.u.r. Indeed, random variables $S_0, \ldots, S_{n-1}$ have similar distribution to the random variables $B_0, \ldots, B_{n-1}$, where B_i represents the number of balls allocated to bin i. However, the standard approaches used in the analysis of balls-and-bins processes seem to be more complicated in our setting. The main reason is that while every single random variable S_i has approximately Poisson distribution with mean 1, as has B_i too, the analysis of $\max_{i\in[n-1]} S_i$ is more complicated than the analysis of $\max_{i\in[n-1]} B_i$ because of the intricate *correlation* of random variables $S_0, \ldots, S_{n-1}$. For example, one standard approach to show that $\max_{i\in[n-1]} B_i \geq \frac{(1+o(1))\log n}{\log\log n}$ with high probability relies on the fact that the load of a set of bins B_i with $i \in I$ decreases if we increase the load of bins B_j with $j \in J$, $I \cap I = \emptyset$. However, the same property holds only *approximately* for $S_0, \ldots, S_{n-1}$ (and in fact, the $o(1)$ error term in Lemma 10 corresponds to this notion of "approximately"; for balls and bins the covariance is known to be always non-positive). To see the difficulty (see also the classic reference for permutations [13, Chapters 7–8]), notice that, for example, if $\sigma(i) = i + \ell$ then we cannot have $\sigma(i+1) = i+\ell$, meaning that there is a special correlation between S_ℓ (which counts i with $\sigma(i) = i + \ell$) and $S_{\ell-1}$ (which counts i with $\sigma(i+1) = i + \ell$). In particular, from what we can see, random variables $S_0, \ldots, S_{n-1}$ are not negatively associated [6]. In a similar way, we do not expect the Poisson approximation framework from [1] (see also [11, Chapter 5.4]) to work here. Our approach is therefore closer to the standard second moment method, see, e.g., [2, Chapter 3] and [12].

Elementary proof of Lemma 8. Let us recall Definition 4 for derangements and r-partial derangements. The probability that a random permutation in $\mathbb{S}_n$ is a derangement is $D_n/n! = \lfloor \frac{n!}{e} + \frac{1}{2}\rfloor/n! \sim \frac{1}{e}$. Let $u(n) = \lfloor \frac{n!}{e} + \frac{1}{2}\rfloor/\frac{n!}{e}$ and note that $D_n = u(n)\,n!/e$, that $u(n) = 1 + o(1)$, and $u(n) > 0.9$ for all $n > 1$. Since the permutation $\sigma \in \mathbb{S}_n$ is chosen i.u.r.,

$$\mathbf{Pr}[S_0 = k] = \frac{D_{n,k}}{n!} = \frac{\binom{n}{k}D_{n-k}}{n!} = \frac{\binom{n}{k}\frac{(n-k)!}{e}u(n-k)}{n!} = \frac{u(n-k)}{ek!} \ .$$

The same bound can be obtained for S_j for every $j \geq 0$. For any permutation $\sigma \in \mathbb{S}_n$ and any integer $\ell \in [n-1]$, define permutation $\sigma_\ell \in \mathbb{S}_n$ such that $\sigma_\ell(i) = \sigma(i) + \ell \pmod{n}$. For any permutation $\sigma \in \mathbb{S}_n$ and any ℓ, the operator $\sigma \mapsto \sigma_\ell$ is a bijection from $\mathbb{S}_n$ to $\mathbb{S}_n$, and a permutation $\sigma \in \mathbb{S}_n$ with $\ell \in [n-1]$ has exactly k fixed points if and only if permutation σ_ℓ has exactly k points with $\sigma_\ell(i) = i + \ell \pmod{n}$. Hence for every $j, j' \in [n-1]$ and $k \in [n]$, we have $\mathbf{Pr}[S_j = k] = \mathbf{Pr}[S_{j'} = k]$. Therefore, for any integers $j \in [n-1]$ and $k \in [n-2]$,

$$\mathbf{Pr}[S_j = k] = \frac{u(n-k)}{ek!} > \frac{1}{2ek!} \ . \tag{9}$$

Let $k(n)$ be the largest k such that $2ek! \leq n$. Then $\mathbf{Pr}[S_j = k(n)] > 1/n$. Hence, if we let Q_j be the indicator random variable that $S_j = k(n)$, then $\mathbf{Pr}[Q_j = 1] > 1/n$, and hence $\mathbf{E}[\sum_{j=0}^{n-1} Q_j] = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \mathbf{E}[Q_j] = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \mathbf{Pr}[Q_j = 1] > 1$. Therefore, in expectation, there is at least one value j such that $S_j = k(n)$. It is easy to show that $k(n) = \frac{\log n}{\log \log n}(1 + o(1))$. ◄

5   Proof of Lemma 10: bounding the covariance of Z_i^t and Z_j^t

The main technical part of the analysis of the lower bound for the *needle in a haystack* search problem in Section 4 (cf. Theorem 6) relies on the proof Lemma 9. This proof, in turn, is quite simple except for one central claim, Lemma 10, bounding the covariance of Z_i^t and Z_j^t. The proof of Lemma 10 is rather lengthly, and because of space considerations, some proofs are deferred to the full version of the paper (cf. https://arxiv.org/abs/2008.11448).

Let Z_j^t be the indicator random variable that $S_j = t$. Since Z_i^t and Z_j^t are 0-1 random variables, we have $\mathbf{E}[Z_i^t \cdot Z_j^t] = \mathbf{Pr}[S_i = t, S_j = t]$, $\mathbf{E}[Z_i^t] = \mathbf{Pr}[S_i = t]$ and $\mathbf{E}[Z_j^t] = \mathbf{Pr}[S_j = t]$. Since $\mathbf{Pr}[S_i = t] = \mathbf{Pr}[S_j = t] = \frac{u(n-t)}{et!} = \frac{1+o(1)}{et!}$ by (9), to complete the proof of Lemma 10, we only have to show that, for $i \neq j$,

$$\mathbf{Pr}[S_i = t, S_j = t] \leq (1 + o(1)) \cdot \frac{1}{(et!)^2} \ . \tag{10}$$

We will prove this claim in Lemma 19 in Section 5.2.4 below.

5.1   Notation and key intuitions

For any set $I \subseteq [n-1]$ and any integer $\ell \in [n-1]$, let $\mathcal{F}_{I,\ell} = \{\sigma \in \mathbb{S}_n : \sigma(i) = i + \ell \pmod{n}$ iff $i \in I\}$ and $\mathcal{F}_{I,\ell}^* = \{\sigma \in \mathbb{S}_n : \forall_{i \in I} \ \sigma(i) = i + \ell \pmod{n}\}$. Notice that $\mathcal{F}_{I,\ell} \subseteq \mathcal{F}_{I,\ell}^*$. Further, $|\mathcal{F}_{I,\ell}| = D_{n-t,0}$ where $t = |I|$, and

$$\mathbf{Pr}[S_i = t] = \frac{|\bigcup_{I \subseteq [n-1],|I|=t} \mathcal{F}_{I,i}|}{n!} = \frac{\sum_{I \subseteq [n-1],|I|=t} |\mathcal{F}_{I,i}|}{n!} = \frac{\binom{n}{t} \cdot D_{n-t,0}}{n!} \ .$$

Next, with this notation and for $i \neq j$, we also have

$$\mathbf{Pr}[S_i = t, S_j = t] = \frac{1}{n!} \left| \bigcup_{I,J \subseteq [n-1],|I|=|J|=t} \mathcal{F}_{I,i} \cap \mathcal{F}_{J,j} \right| = \frac{1}{n!} \sum_{I,J \subseteq [n-1],|I|=|J|=t} |\mathcal{F}_{I,i} \cap \mathcal{F}_{J,j}| \ .$$

Notice that in the sum above one can restrict attention only to $I \cap J = \emptyset$, since $\mathcal{F}_{I,i} \cap \mathcal{F}_{J,j} = \emptyset$ otherwise. In view of this, our goal is to estimate $|\mathcal{F}_{I,i} \cap \mathcal{F}_{J,j}|$ for disjoint sets $I, J \subseteq [n-1]$.

In what follows, we will consider sets S_i and S_j with $i = 0$ and $j = s$ for some $s \in [n-1] \setminus \{0\}$. By symmetry, we can consider the first shift to be 0 without loss of generality; s is an arbitrary non-zero value. As required in our analysis (cf. Lemma 10), we will consider $t \leq O(\log n)$.

Our approach now is to focus on a typical pair I and J, and consider some atypical pairs separately. We will show in Lemma 13 that almost all pairs of disjoint sets I and J are so-called *compatible for shift s*. As a result, the contribution of pairs I and J that are not compatible for s is negligible, and so we will focus solely on pairs compatible for s. Then, for the pair of indices I and J we will estimate $|\mathcal{F}_{I,i} \cap \mathcal{F}_{J,j}|$ using the Principle of Inclusion-Exclusion. For that, we will have to consider the contributions of all possible sets $K \subseteq [n{-}1] \setminus (I \cup J)$ to the set of permutations in $\mathcal{F}^*_{I,i} \cap \mathcal{F}^*_{J,j}$. As before, contributions of some sets are difficult to be captured and so we will show in Lemma 15 that almost all sets $K \subseteq [n{-}1] \setminus (I \cup J)$ are so-called *feasible for I, J, and s*. As a result, the contribution of sets K that are not feasible for I, J, and s is negligible, and so we will focus on sets that are feasible for I, J, and s. The final simplification follows from the fact that we do not have to consider all such sets K, but only small sets K, of size $O(\log n)$. Once we have prepared our framework, we will be able to use the Principle of Inclusion-Exclusion to estimate $|\bigcup_{I,J \subseteq [n-1], |I|=|J|=t} \mathcal{F}_{I,i} \cap \mathcal{F}_{J,j}|$ in Lemmas 18 and 19.

5.2 The analysis

For any integer ℓ and any subset $L \subseteq [n{-}1]$ we write $L + \ell$ to denote the set of elements in L shifted by ℓ, in the arithmetic modulo n, that is, $L + \ell = \{i + \ell \pmod{n} : i \in L\}$. Similarly, $L - \ell = \{i - \ell \pmod{n} : i \in L\}$.

Let $\Phi_{0,s}(I,J) = \mathcal{F}_{I,0} \cap \mathcal{F}_{J,s} = \{\sigma \in \mathbb{S}_n : \sigma(i) = i \text{ iff } i \in I \text{ and } \sigma(j) = j+s \pmod{n} \text{ iff } j \in J\}$. Let $\Phi^*_{0,s}(I,J) = \mathcal{F}^*_{I,0} \cap \mathcal{F}^*_{J,s} = \{\sigma \in \mathbb{S}_n : \forall_{i \in I}\ \sigma(i) = i \text{ and } \forall_{j \in J}\ \sigma(j) = j + s \pmod{n}\}$.

It is easy to compute the size of $\Phi^*_{0,s}(I,J)$. Notice first that if $I \cap J \neq \emptyset$ or $I \cap (J+s) \neq \emptyset$, then $\Phi^*_{0,s}(I,J) = \Phi_{0,s}(I,J) = \emptyset$. Otherwise, if $I \cap J = \emptyset$ and $I \cap (J + s) = \emptyset$, then $|\Phi^*_{0,s}(I,J)| = (n - |I \cup J|)!$ (see also Lemma 12).

However, our main goal, that of computing the size of $\Phi_{0,s}(I,J)$, is significantly more complicated, because this quantity cannot be reduced to an intersection test and a simple formula over n, $|I|$, $|J|$, and s.

5.2.1 Disjoint sets $I \subseteq [n{-}1]$ and $J \subseteq [n{-}1] \setminus I$ compatible for shift s

Let I and J be two arbitrary subsets of $[n{-}1]$ of size t each. We say *I and J are compatible for shift s* if the four sets I, J, $I - s$, and $J + s$ are all pairwise disjoint. With this notation, we have the following lemma.

▶ **Lemma 12.** *If I and J are compatible for shift s then $\Phi_{0,s}(I,J) \neq \emptyset$ and $|\Phi^*_{0,s}(I,J)| = (n - |I \cup J|)!$.*

Proof. If I and J are compatible for shift s then any permutation $\sigma \in \mathbb{S}_n$ with $\sigma(i) = i$ for all $i \in I$, $\sigma(j) = j + s \pmod{n}$ for all $j \in J$ and complemented by an arbitrary permutation $[n{-}1] \setminus (I \cup J)$ is in $\Phi^*_{0,s}(I,J)$. Hence the claim follows from the fact that since I, J, and $J + s$ are pairwise disjoint, such permutations always exist. ◀

The following lemma shows that almost all pairs of disjoint sets of size $t \leq O(\log n)$ are compatible.

▶ **Lemma 13.** *Let s be an arbitrary non-zero integer in $[n{-}1]$. If we choose two disjoint sets $I, J \subseteq [n{-}1]$ of size t i.u.r., then the probability that I and J are compatible for shift s is at least $\left(1 - \frac{4t}{(n-2t)}\right)^{2t}$. In particular, if $t \leq O(\log n)$, then this probability is at least $1 - O\left(\frac{\log^2 n}{n}\right)$.*

Because of Lemma 13, our goal will be to compute the sizes of sets $\Phi_{0,s}(I, J)$ only for compatible sets I and J. Next, for given disjoint sets I and J compatible for shift s, we will consider all sets $K \subseteq [n-1] \setminus (I \cup J)$ and argue about their contributions to $|\Phi_{0,s}^*(I, J)|$ using the Principle of Inclusion-Exclusion.

5.2.2 Properties of sets $K \subseteq [n-1]$ feasible for I, J, and s

Define $\mathcal{P}_{I,J,0,s}(K) = \{\sigma \in \Phi_{0,s}^*(I, J) :$ for every $\ell \in K$ it holds that: $\sigma(\ell) \in \{\ell, \ell + s$ (mod $n)\}\}$. While it is difficult to study $\mathcal{P}_{I,J,0,s}(K)$ for all sets $K \subseteq [n-1] \setminus (I \cup J)$, we will want to focus our attention only on subsets with some good properties. We call a *set $K \subseteq [n-1]$ feasible for I, J, and s*, if I and J are compatible for shift s, $K \cap (K + s) = \emptyset$, and $K \cap (I \cup J \cup (I - s) \cup (J + s)) = \emptyset$.

To justify the definition of feasible sets, we begin with the following simple lemma.

▶ **Lemma 14.** *If $K \subseteq [n-1]$ is feasible for I, J, and s, then $|\mathcal{P}_{I,J,0,s}(K)| = 2^{|K|} \cdot (n - |I \cup J \cup K|)!$.*

Next, similarly to Lemma 13, we argue that almost all suitably small sets are feasible for pairs of disjoint small sets.

▶ **Lemma 15.** *Let s be an arbitrary non-zero integer in $[n-1]$. Let I and J be a pair of compatible sets for s with $|I| = |J| = t$. Let k be a positive integer with $2k \leq n - 4t$. If we choose set $K \subseteq [n-1] \setminus (I \cup J)$ of size k i.u.r., then the probability that K is feasible for I, J, and s is at least $\left(1 - \frac{2t+k}{n-2t-k}\right)^k$. In particular, if $t, k \leq O(\log n)$, then this probability is at least $1 - O\left(\frac{\log^2 n}{n}\right)$.*

5.2.3 Approximating $|\Phi_{0,s}(I, J)|$ for compatible sets I, J for s

In this section we will complete our analysis to provide a tight bound for the size of $\Phi_{0,s}(I, J)$ for any pair I and J of compatible sets for shift s with $|I| = |J| \leq O(\log n)$. Our analysis relies on properties of sets feasible for I, J, and s, as proven in Lemmas 14 and 15.

We begin with the two auxiliary claims. For both, let r be the smallest integer such that $2r \geq \log n$ and let $t = |I| = |J| \leq O(\log n)$.

▷ Claim 16.

$$\sum_{k=1}^{2r} (-1)^{k+1} \sum_{\substack{K \subseteq [n-1] \setminus (I \cup J), |K| = k \\ K \text{ feasible for } I, J, \text{ and } s}} |\mathcal{P}_{I,J,0,s}(K)| \geq \left(1 - O\left(\frac{\log^2 n}{n}\right)\right) \cdot (n - 2t)! \cdot (1 - e^{-2}) \ . \quad (11)$$

▷ Claim 17.

$$\sum_{k=1}^{2r} (-1)^{k+1} \sum_{\substack{K \subseteq [n-1] \setminus (I \cup J), |K| = k \\ K \text{ not feasible for } I, J, \text{ and } s}} |\mathcal{P}_{I,J,0,s}(K)| \geq -O\left(\frac{\log^2 n}{n}\right) \cdot (n - 2t)! \ .$$

In order to approximate the size of $\Phi_{0,s}(I, J)$ for compatible sets I and J for shift s, let us first notice that

$$\Phi_{0,s}(I, J) = \Phi_{0,s}^*(I, J) \setminus \bigcup_{\ell \in [n-1] \setminus (I \cup J)} \mathcal{P}_{I,J,0,s}(\{\ell\}) \ . \quad (12)$$

Therefore, since we know that $|\Phi_{0,s}^*(I,J)| = (n-(|I|+|J|))!$ by Lemma 12, we only have to approximate $|\bigcup_{\ell\in[n-1]\setminus(I\cup J)}\mathcal{P}_{I,J,0,s}(\{\ell\})|$; we need a good lower bound.

We compute $|\bigcup_{\ell\in[n-1]\setminus(I\cup J)}\mathcal{P}_{I,J,0,s}(\{\ell\})|$ using the Principle of Inclusion-Exclusion,

$$
\begin{aligned}
|\bigcup_{\ell\in[n-1]\setminus(I\cup J)}\mathcal{P}_{I,J,0,s}(\{\ell\})| &= \sum_{K\subseteq[n-1]\setminus(I\cup J),K\neq\emptyset}(-1)^{|K|+1}|\bigcap_{\ell\in K}\mathcal{P}_{I,J,0,s}(\{\ell\})| \\
&= \sum_{K\subseteq[n-1]\setminus(I\cup J),K\neq\emptyset}(-1)^{|K|+1}|\mathcal{P}_{I,J,0,s}(K)| \\
&= \sum_{k=1}^{n-(|I|+|J|)}(-1)^{k+1}\sum_{K\subseteq[n-1]\setminus(I\cup J),|K|=k}|\mathcal{P}_{I,J,0,s}(K)| \ .
\end{aligned}
$$

We will make further simplifications; since computing $|\mathcal{P}_{I,J,0,s}(K)|$ for arbitrary non-empty sets $K\subseteq[n-1]\setminus(I\cup J)$ is difficult, we restrict our attention only to *small* sets K which are *feasible for I, J, and s*. For that, we will need to show that by restricting only to small sets K feasible for I, J, and s, we will not make too big errors in the calculations.

Let r be the smallest integer such that $2r\geq\log n$. We can use the Bonferroni inequality [3] to obtain the following,

$$
\begin{aligned}
|\bigcup_{\ell\in[n-1]\setminus(I\cup J)}\mathcal{P}_{I,J,0,s}(\{\ell\})| &\geq \sum_{k=1}^{2r}(-1)^{k+1}\sum_{K\subseteq[n-1]\setminus(I\cup J),|K|=k}|\mathcal{P}_{I,J,0,s}(K)| \\
&= \sum_{k=1}^{2r}(-1)^{k+1}\left(\sum_{\substack{K\subseteq[n-1]\setminus(I\cup J),|K|=k\\ K\text{ feasible for }I,J,\text{ and }s}}|\mathcal{P}_{I,J,0,s}(K)| + \sum_{\substack{K\subseteq[n-1]\setminus(I\cup J),|K|=k\\ K\text{ }not\text{ feasible for }I,J,\text{ and }s}}|\mathcal{P}_{I,J,0,s}(K)|\right) \\
&\geq -O\left(\frac{\log^2 n}{n}\right)(n-2t)! + \left(1-O\left(\frac{\log^2 n}{n}\right)\right)(n-2t)!\cdot(1-e^{-2}) \\
&= \left(1-O\left(\frac{\log^2 n}{n}\right)\right)(n-2t)!\cdot(1-e^{-2}) \ , \tag{13}
\end{aligned}
$$

where the last inequality follows from the auxiliary Claims 16 and 17.

If we combine (12) and (13), then we get the following lemma.

▶ **Lemma 18.** *If I and J are compatible for shift s and $|I|=|J|=t=O(\log n)$, then*

$$
|\Phi_{0,s}(I,J)| = |\Phi_{0,s}^*(I,J)| - |\bigcup_{\ell\in[n-1]\setminus(I\cup J)}\mathcal{P}_{I,J,0,s}(\{\ell\})| \leq \frac{(n-2t)!}{e^2}\left(1+O\left(\frac{\log^2 n}{n}\right)\right) \ .
$$

Proof. Indeed, by (12), we have

$$
|\Phi_{0,s}(I,J)| = |\Phi_{0,s}^*(I,J)| - |\bigcup_{\ell\in[n-1]\setminus(I\cup J)}\mathcal{P}_{I,J,0,s}(\{\ell\})| \ ,
$$

by Lemma 12 we get

$$
|\Phi_{0,s}^*(I,J)| = (n-(|I|+|J|))! \ ,
$$

and by (13) we have

$$
|\bigcup_{\ell\in[n-1]\setminus(I\cup J)}\mathcal{P}_{I,J,0,s}(\{\ell\})| \geq \left(1-O\left(\frac{\log^2 n}{n}\right)\right)\cdot(n-2t)!\cdot(1-e^{-2}) \ .
$$

Putting these three bounds together yields the promised bound.   ◀

5.2.4   Completing the proof of inequality (10)

Now, with Lemma 18 at hand, we are ready to complete our analysis in the following lemma.

▶ **Lemma 19.** *For any $i, j \in [n-1]$, $i \neq j$, and for $t \leq O(\log n)$, we have,*

$$\mathbf{Pr}[S_i = t, S_j = t] \leq \left(1 + O\left(\frac{\log^2 n}{n}\right)\right) \frac{1}{(et!)^2} \ .$$

Proof. Without loss of generality we assume that $i = 0$ and $j \in [n-1] \setminus \{0\}$.

First, let us recall the following

$$\sum_{I,J \subseteq [n-1], |I|=|J|=t, I \cap J=\emptyset} |\mathcal{F}_{I,0} \cap \mathcal{F}_{J,j}| = \sum_{I,J \subseteq [n-1], |I|=|J|=t, I \cap J=\emptyset} |\Phi_{0,j}(I,J)|$$

$$= \sum_{\substack{I,J \subseteq [n-1], |I|=|J|=t, I \cap J=\emptyset \\ I \text{ and } J \text{ } not \text{ compatible for } j}} |\Phi_{0,j}(I,J)| \ + \sum_{\substack{I,J \subseteq [n-1], |I|=|J|=t \\ I \text{ and } J \text{ compatible for } j}} |\Phi_{0,j}(I,J)| \ .$$

Next, let us notice that if I and J are *not* compatible for shift j and $I \cap J = \emptyset$, then we clearly have $|\Phi_{0,s}(I,J)| \leq (n - 2t)!$ (since once we have fixed $2t$ positions, we can generate at most $(n-2t)!$ distinct n-permutations). Further, by Lemma 18, we know that if I and J are compatible for shift j, then $|\Phi_{0,s}(I,J)| \leq \frac{(n-2t)!}{e^2} \cdot \left(1 + O\left(\frac{\log^2 n}{n}\right)\right)$. Next, we notice that by Lemma 13, we have,

$$|\{I, J \subseteq [n-1] : |I| = |J| = t, I \cap J = \emptyset \text{ and } I, J \text{ } not \text{ compatible for } j\}|$$

$$= O\left(\frac{\log^2 n}{n}\right) |\{I, J \subseteq [n-1] : |I| = |J| = t, I \cap J = \emptyset\}| = O\left(\frac{\log^2 n}{n}\right) \binom{n}{t}\binom{n-t}{t} \ .$$

This immediately gives,

$$\sum_{\substack{I,J \subseteq [n-1], |I|=|J|=t, I \cap J=\emptyset \\ I \text{ and } J \text{ } not \text{ compatible for } j}} |\Phi_{0,j}(I,J)| \leq O\left(\frac{\log^2 n}{n}\right) \binom{n}{t}\binom{n-t}{t}(n-2t)! = O\left(\frac{\log^2 n}{n}\right) \frac{n!}{(t!)^2}$$

and

$$\sum_{\substack{I,J \subseteq [n-1], |I|=|J|=t \\ I \text{ and } J \text{ compatible for } j}} \Phi_{0,j}(I,J)| \leq \binom{n}{t}\binom{n-t}{t}\frac{(n-2t)!}{e^2}\left(1 + O\left(\frac{\log^2 n}{n}\right)\right)$$

$$= \left(1 + O\left(\frac{\log^2 n}{n}\right)\right) \frac{n!}{(et!)^2} \ .$$

Therefore,

$$\sum_{\substack{I,J \subseteq [n-1], I \cap J=\emptyset \\ |I|=|J|=t}} |\mathcal{F}_{I,0} \cap \mathcal{F}_{J,j}| = \sum_{\substack{I,J \subseteq [n-1], |I|=|J|=t, I \cap J=\emptyset \\ I \text{ and } J \text{ } not \text{ compatible for } j}} |\Phi_{0,j}(I,J)| \ + \sum_{\substack{I,J \subseteq [n-1], |I|=|J|=t \\ I \text{ and } J \text{ compatible for } j}} |\Phi_{0,j}(I,J)|$$

$$\leq \left(1 + O\left(\frac{\log^2 n}{n}\right)\right) \frac{n!}{(et!)^2} \ .$$

Hence, we can conclude that for $i \neq j$ we have,

$$\mathbf{Pr}[S_i = t, S_j = t] = \frac{1}{n!} \sum_{\substack{I,J \subseteq [n-1], I \cap J=\emptyset \\ |I|=|J|=t}} |\mathcal{F}_{I,i} \cap \mathcal{F}_{J,j}| \leq \left(1 + O\left(\frac{\log^2 n}{n}\right)\right) \cdot \frac{1}{(et!)^2} \ .$$

◀

6   Analysis of the *communication in the locker room* setting

A lower bound for the success probability in the *locker room* problem is provided by a straightforward adaptation of the *shift strategy*: Alice enters her message relaying the most common shift $\mathfrak{h}$ to locker 0, and Bob opens locker 0 and uses Alice's message to check location $(\mathfrak{s} + \mathfrak{h}) \mod n$ for his card. This strategy ensures a success probability of $\frac{(1+o(1))\log n}{n \log \log n}$.

As in Sections 2 and 3, we will consider the case when $\mathfrak{s}$ is chosen i.u.r. from $[n{-}1]$(cf. Section 2.2). In order to obtain an upper bound for the success chance in the *locker room* problem, we shall introduce some intermediate settings, or "protocols". In the *CLR* protocol Alice views the contents of all the lockers, interchanges the contents of two lockers, then Bob is given a number and can open two lockers in search of it (i.e., the *CLR* protocol is the set of rules which govern the *locker room* problem). In the *NH* protocol Alice views the contents of all the lockers, communicates a message of length $\log n$ to Bob, then Bob is given a number and can open one locker in search of it (i.e., the *NH* protocol is the set of rules which govern the *needle in a haystack* game). Moreover, we can append the modifier "-with-r-bits" to NH, which substitutes r for $\log n$ in the above description.

We write $\mathbf{Pr}[\mathcal{V}(\mathcal{P})]$ for the optimal probability of success in protocol $\mathcal{P}$ and $\mathbf{Pr}[\mathcal{V}(\mathbb{C}, \mathcal{P})]$ for the probability of success for strategy $\mathbb{C}$ in protocol $\mathcal{P}$. For example, we have already shown that $\mathbf{Pr}[\mathcal{V}(NH)] = \frac{(1+o(1))\log n}{n \log \log n}$.

▶ **Lemma 20.** $\mathbf{Pr}[\mathcal{V}(CLR)] \leq \mathbf{Pr}[\mathcal{V}(NH\text{-}with\text{-}4\log n\text{-}bits)]$.

Proof. We will interpolate between CLR and NH-with-$4 \log n$-bits with two other protocols.

In the protocol *CLR0*, Alice views the contents of all the lockers, interchanges the contents of two lockers, then Bob is given a number and can open two lockers in search of it, and he can recognize upon seeing the content of the first locker whether it has been altered by Alice.

In the protocol *CLR1*, Alice views the contents of all the lockers, interchanges the contents of two lockers, leaves these two lockers open with their contents visible to Bob, then Bob is given a number and can open one locker in search of it.

Also, let *Sim* be the strategy in *NH-with-$4 \log n$-bits* in which Alice uses her message to communicate to Bob the cards whose positions she would exchange, and the positions of these cards, if she encountered the permutation σ while working in the *CLR1* protocol, simulating an optimal strategy $\mathbb{C}$ in *CLR1*. Since this is an ordered quadruple in $[n{-}1]^4$, it can indeed be communicated in at most $4 \log n$ bits.

The proof is in four parts:
 (i) $\mathbf{Pr}[\mathcal{V}(CLR)] \leq \mathbf{Pr}[\mathcal{V}(CLR0)]$,
 (ii) $\mathbf{Pr}[\mathcal{V}(CLR0)] \leq \mathbf{Pr}[\mathcal{V}(CLR1)] + O(\frac{1}{n})$,
 (iii) $\mathbf{Pr}[\mathcal{V}(CLR1)] \leq \mathbf{Pr}[\mathcal{V}(Sim, NH\text{-}with\text{-}4logn\text{-}bits)]$,
 (iv) $\mathbf{Pr}[\mathcal{V}(Sim, NH\text{-}with\text{-}4logn\text{-}bits)] \leq \mathbf{Pr}[\mathcal{V}(NH\text{-}with\text{-}4logn\text{-}bits)]$.

(i), (iii), (iv) are straightforward and so we only have to show (ii). Let p_t be the maximum probability that Bob finds his sought number in the tth locker that he opens, $t \in \{1, 2\}$.

Firstly, we bound p_1. Suppose that Alice and Bob have settled on a specific strategy. Let $e_{x,w}$ be the probability that σ is such that Alice's transposition sends the locker w to card x. Evidently, $0 \leq e_{x,w} \leq \frac{n-1}{n}$ for all $x, w \in [n{-}1]$ and $\sum_{x,w \in [n-1]} e_{x,w} \leq 2$.

Having received his number $\mathfrak{s}$, Bob has to open a specific locker, let us say $b = b(\mathfrak{s})$. The probability that Bob happens upon the card $\mathfrak{s}$ in the locker b is at most $e_{\mathfrak{s}, b(\mathfrak{s})} + \frac{1}{n}$ (either Alice substitutes the content of $b(\mathfrak{s})$ for $\mathfrak{s}$, or the content of $b(\mathfrak{s})$ is initially $\mathfrak{s}$ and Alice does not interfere). Thus, choosing $\mathfrak{s}$ i.u.r. from $[n{-}1]$, the probability that Bob finds $\mathfrak{s}$ at his first try is at most $\frac{1}{n}(\sum_{\mathfrak{s}, b \in [n-1]} e_{\mathfrak{s}, b(\mathfrak{s})} + \frac{1}{n}) < \frac{3}{n} = O(\frac{1}{n})$.

Then, we bound p_2. If Bob opens first one of the lockers whose contents have been altered by Alice, then there is one remaining locker for him to open, and he has at most as much information as in the *CLR0* protocol. Hence, in this case, $p_2 \leq \mathbf{Pr}[\mathcal{V}(CLR0)]$.

Alternatively, Bob first opens one of the lockers whose contents have not been altered by Alice. This requires a more detailed analysis of the *CLR0* protocol.

Alice's choice of a transposition is informed solely by the initial permutation σ of the cards inside the lockers. Hence, there should be a function $a : \mathbb{S}_n \to \binom{[n-1]}{2}$ which directs Alice to a pair of lockers. Then, Bob's choice of a first locker to open is informed only by his sought number. Thus, there should be a function $b : [n-1] \to [n-1]$ which directs Bob to his first locker. Finally, Bob chooses his second locker by considering his sought number and the content of the first locker, so there should be a function $b' : \{0,1\} \times [n-1]^2 \to [n-1]$ which directs Bob to his second locker (the binary factor distinguishes whether Bob's first locker has had its content altered by Alice or not). The strategy which Alice and Bob employ in the *CLR0* protocol can therefore be identified with a triple $[a, b, b']$.

Let $E_{u,v} = a^{-1}(\{u,v\})$ be the event that Alice transposes the contents of the uth and v^{th} lockers, and let $F_w = b^{-1}(w)$ be the event that Bob opens the wth locker first. Let $s(y,w) \subseteq \mathbb{S}_n$ be the permutations which map w to y, and let G_y be the event that the initial content of Bob's first locker is y. Notice that $\mathbf{Pr}[E_{u,v}|F_w \cap G_y] = \frac{|a^{-1}(\{u,v\}) \cap s(y,w)|}{(n-1)!}$, $\mathbf{Pr}[F_w] = \frac{|b^{-1}(w)|}{n}$, and $\mathbf{Pr}[G_y] = \frac{1}{n}$. Then, the probability that Bob finds his sought number in his second attempt given that his first locker was not altered by Alice is

$$p_2 \leq \sum_{\substack{u,v,w,y\in[n-1]\\u,v,w \text{ distinct}}} \mathbf{Pr}[E_{u,v}|F_w \cap G_y] \cdot \mathbf{Pr}[F_w] \cdot \mathbf{Pr}[G_y] \cdot \mathbf{Pr}[\mathcal{V}(CLR0)|E_{u,v} \cap F_w \cap G_y] \ .$$

Observe that

$$\mathbf{Pr}[\mathcal{V}(CLR0)|E_{u,v} \cap F_w \cap G_y] \leq \frac{(n-2)!}{\left|\left(\mathbb{S}_n \setminus \bigcup_{\ell\in[n-1]} a^{-1}(\{w,\ell\})\right) \cap s(y,w)\right|} + \frac{2}{n} \ .$$

This holds because, barring the $\frac{2}{n}$ probability for Bob's sought card to be in a locker whose content was changed by Alice, Bob is only going to find his sought card in his second locker if the permutation σ maps both w to y and Bob's second locker to his sought card. There are exactly $(n-2)!$ such permutations, which yields the numerator. For the denominator, when Bob opens the locker w and views the card inside, he sees that its content is y and that it has not been touched by Alice, so he knows that σ is a permutation which maps w to y and which does not prompt Alice to transpose y with some other card, and there are exactly $\left|\left(\mathbb{S}_n \setminus \bigcup_{\ell\in[n-1]} a^{-1}(\{w,\ell\})\right) \cap s(y,w)\right|$ such permutations.

Also, note that

$$\bigcup_{\substack{u,v\in[n-1]\\u,v,w \text{ distinct}}} (a^{-1}(\{u,v\}) \cap s(y,w)) = (\mathbb{S}_n \setminus \bigcup_{\ell\in[n-1]} a^{-1}(\{w,\ell\})) \cap s(y,w) \Rightarrow$$

$$\sum_{\substack{u,v\in[n-1]\\u,v,w \text{ distinct}}} |a^{-1}(\{u,v\}) \cap s(y,w)| = |(\mathbb{S}_n \setminus \bigcup_{\ell\in[n-1]} a^{-1}(\{w,\ell\})) \cap s(y,w)| \ .$$

Combining the above, we obtain that

$$p_2 \leq \sum_{\substack{u,v,w,y\in[n-1]\\u,v,w \text{ distinct}}} \frac{1}{n} \cdot \frac{|a^{-1}(\{u,v\}) \cap s(y,w)|}{(n-1)!} \cdot \frac{|b^{-1}(w)|}{n} \cdot \left(\mathbf{Pr}[\mathcal{V}(CLR0)|E_{u,v} \cap F_w \cap G_y] + \frac{2}{n}\right)$$

$$\leq \sum_{w,y \in [n-1]} \frac{1}{n} \cdot \frac{1}{n-1} \cdot \frac{|b^{-1}(w)|}{n} + \frac{2}{n} = \frac{1}{n-1} + \frac{2}{n} \ .$$

Thus, in this case, $p_2 \leq \frac{4}{n}$.

Ultimately, $p_2 \leq \mathbf{Pr}[\mathcal{V}(CLR1)] + \frac{4}{n}$, and hence $\mathbf{Pr}[\mathcal{V}(CLR0)] \leq p_1 + p_2 \leq \mathbf{Pr}[\mathcal{V}(CLR1)] + O(\frac{1}{n})$, concluding the proof.   ◀

▶ **Theorem 21.** $\mathbf{Pr}[\mathcal{V}(CLR)] \leq \frac{(4+o(1))\log n}{n \log \log n}$.

Proof. We use Lemma 20 along with the fact that $\mathbf{Pr}[\mathcal{V}(NH\text{-}with\text{-}4logn\text{-}bits)] \leq \frac{(4+o(1))\log n}{n \log \log n}$, which can be immediately derived from Theorem 22 in Section 7.1 by setting $m = n^4$.   ◀

7   Conclusions and generalizations

In this paper we presented a new search problem and provided a comprehensive analysis of its optimal strategy. The core of our analysis is a novel study of properties of random permutations with a given number of fixed points.

There are several natural generalizations of the problem studied in this paper and related questions about properties of random permutations, which we will discuss in the full version of the paper (cf. `https://arxiv.org/abs/2008.11448`). Here we discuss a couple of them.

7.1   Simple generalization: longer message

In the *needle in a haystack* problem, when Alice sends the message $\mathfrak{h}$ to Bob, there is no reason why she must choose a number in $[n-1]$; instead, she could transmit a number $\mathfrak{h} \in [m-1]$ for an arbitrary integer m. One can easily generalize the analysis from Theorems 5 and 6 in this setting for a large range of m.

Let us denote the maximum attainable sum of intensities received from partitioning $\mathbb{S}_n$ to m parts the *m-field* of $\mathbb{S}_n$, and denote it by $F(n,m)$. Fields are simply diagonal m-fields (fields of the form $F(n,n)$).

We have $F(n,1) = n!$ (yielding a success probability of $\frac{1}{n}$, corresponding to not receiving advice) and $F(n,m) = n \cdot n!$ for every $m \geq n!$ (yielding a success probability of 1, corresponding to obtaining full information). For other values of m we can follow the approach used in Theorem 5. First, notice that there is $\ell = \frac{(1+o(1))\log m}{\log \log m}$, such that $\frac{m}{\ell!} = o(1)$. Then, using the techniques from the proof of Theorem 5, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned}
F(n,m) &\leq \sum_{i \in [n-1], j \in [m-1]} \mathsf{int}(A_j, i) \leq \sum_{j \in [m-1]} \left(\ell \cdot |A_j| + \sum_{r=\ell+1}^{n} r \cdot D_{n,r} \right) \\
&\leq \sum_{j \in [m-1]} \left(\ell \cdot |A_j| + \frac{(1+o(1))n!}{\ell!} \right) \leq n! \cdot \left(\ell + \frac{(1+o(1))m}{\ell!} \right) \\
&\leq \ell \cdot n! \cdot (1+o(1)) = \frac{(1+o(1))\log m}{\log \log m} \cdot n! \ .r
\end{aligned}$$

By (2), this yields the success probability of $\frac{(1+o(1))\log m}{n \log \log m}$, giving the following theorem.

▶ **Theorem 22.** *If Alice can choose a number $\mathfrak{h} \in [m]$, then the maximum attainable success probability is at most $\frac{(1+o(1))\log m}{n \log \log m}$. In particular, if $m = poly(n)$, then the maximum attainable success probability is at most $O\left(\frac{\log n}{n \log \log n} \right)$.*

Observe that Theorem 22 implies that since for the algorithm presented in Theorem 6, that is, one using the shift strategy with hint $\mathfrak{h} \in [n]$, the success probability is already $\Omega\left(\frac{\log n}{n \log \log n}\right)$, the shift strategy is asymptotically optimal to within a constant factor for any hint $\mathfrak{h}$ polynomial in n. A similar conclusion holds also for the communication in the locker room setting: even if Alice leaves Bob a message by altering the contents of a constant number c of lockers rather than just one, this message is $c \log n$ bits long, and hence the success probability is still at most $O(\frac{\log n}{n \log \log n})$.

Asymptotic results for several other interesting domains of m could be found in a similar way. However, for super-polynomial domains, the upper bound derived in the above manner is far away from the lower bound that we currently can provide in Theorem 6. Determining some properties of the rate of growth of $F(n, m)$ for fixed n would be a good step towards determining its values. With this in mind, we have the following natural conjecture.

▶ **Conjecture 23.** *For any fixed n, the function $f(m) = F(n, m)$ is concave.*

7.2 Optimal strategies

Although we have successfully calculated the maximum field and the maximum success probability for the *needle in a haystack* problem, the problem of determining a characterization of, or at least some major properties for, optimal strategies remains. Indeed, the only optimal strategy that we have explicitly described so far is the shift strategy (which is in fact a set of different strategies, since, for permutations which have several $S_\mathfrak{h}$'s of maximum size, there are multiple legitimate options for their class). A natural generalization of shift strategies are *latin strategies*; in these, Alice and Bob decide on a $n \times n$ latin square S, and Alice's message indicates the row of S which coincides with σ at the maximum number of places.

We present a couple of interesting questions concerning the optimal strategies for $\mathbb{S}_n$ in *needle in a haystack*.

▶ **Conjecture 24.** *For every natural number n, there is an optimal strategy for $\mathbb{S}_n$ whose parts all contain exactly $(n-1)!$ permutations.*

▶ **Conjecture 25.** *Optimal strategies are exactly latin strategies.*

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