

---

# On the Computational Complexity of Inverting Generative Models

---

Anonymous Author(s)

Affiliation

Address

email

## Abstract

1 The objective of generative model inversion is to identify a size- $n$  latent vector that  
2 produces a generative model output that closely matches a given target. This operation  
3 is a core computational primitive in numerous modern applications involving  
4 computer vision and NLP. However, the problem is known to be computationally  
5 challenging and NP-hard in the worst case. This paper aims to provide a fine-  
6 grained view of the landscape of computational hardness for this problem. We  
7 establish several new hardness lower bounds for both exact and approximate model  
8 inversion. In exact inversion, the goal is to determine whether a target is contained  
9 within the range of a given generative model. Under the strong exponential time  
10 hypothesis (SETH), we demonstrate that the computational complexity of exact  
11 inversion is lower bounded by  $\Omega(2^n)$  via a reduction from  $k$ -SAT; this is a strengthening  
12 of known results. For the more practically relevant problem of approximate  
13 inversion, the goal is to determine whether a point in the model range is close  
14 to a given target with respect to the  $\ell_p$ -norm. When  $p$  is a positive odd integer,  
15 under SETH, we provide an  $\Omega(2^n)$  complexity lower bound via a reduction from  
16 the closest vectors problem (CVP). Finally, when  $p$  is even, under the exponential  
17 time hypothesis (ETH), we provide a lower bound of  $2^{\Omega(n)}$  via a reduction from  
18 Half-Clique and Vertex-Cover.

## 19 1 Introduction

### 20 1.1 Generative model Inversion

21 In the last 30 years, recovery of latent vectors generating a target has gained attention. The focus has  
22 shifted away from “linear” generative models such as sparse models (1; 2; 3) and towards nonlinear  
23 generative models such as convolutional neural networks (4; 5), pre-trained generative priors (6),  
24 or untrained deep image priors (7; 8; 9). While there has been significant practical progress in  
25 compressed sensing with generative models, theoretical progress has been more modest. The seminal  
26 work of (6) established the first statistical upper bounds for this field, and (10) showed these bounds  
27 are nearly optimal, but only restrictive cases have provable algorithmic upper bounds for generative  
28 inversion. The paper (11) proves the convergence of projected gradient descent for compressed  
29 sensing with generative priors, but only under the assumption that the range of the generative model  
30 admits a polynomial-time projection oracle.

31 Several works establish upper bounds. The paper (12) proves the convergence of gradient descent for  
32 shallow generative priors whose weights obey a distributional assumption. (13) shows the correctness  
33 of a layer-wise inversion algorithm for sufficiently expansive networks, and establishes NP-hardness  
34 lower bounds for exact calculation. (14) and (15) show that under certain structural assumptions  
35 on  $G$ , some methods converge to a neighborhood of true solution. However, these assumptions are  
36 somewhat hard to verify in practice. Recent work has proposed using invertible generative models

37 for image sampling (16; 17), using non-volume preserving transformations and being compared to  
 38 a different approach proposed by (18). Our focus is on more general families of generative neural  
 39 networks with ReLU activations, which are not necessarily invertible.

40 **Problem Statement.** A 1-layer ReLU network  $G_1 : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{m_1}$  can be defined as  $G_1(z) =$   
 41  $\text{ReLU}(W_1 z + b_1)$  with weight matrix  $W_1 \in \mathbb{R}^{m_1 \times n}$  and bias  $b_1 \in \mathbb{R}^{m_1}$ , where  $m_1$  is the number of  
 42 hidden neurons. An  $L$ -layer neural network  $G := G_L$  can be expressed with the following recurrence  
 43 relation:  $G_l(z) = \text{ReLU}(W_l G_{l-1}(z) + b_l)$  for  $l \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ ,  $l = 2, 3, \dots, L$ , where  $W_l \in \mathbb{R}^{m_l \times m_{l-1}}$   
 44 are the layer-wise weight matrices, and  $b_l \in \mathbb{R}^{m_l}$  are layer-wise bias vectors. We assume that the  
 45 network width,  $\max_l m_l$ , is bounded as  $O(n)$  unless otherwise specified.

46 In the generative inversion problem, we are given a ReLU network  $G$  and an observation  $x$ . Then, the  
 47 purpose is to determine the closest point of the range of the neural network to the input  $x$ . In other  
 48 words, we want to find  $z^*$  that satisfies the following under a given norm:  $z^* = \arg \min_z \|G(z) - x\|$ .

49 Stated as a decision problem, the goal of exact recovery is to distinguish between two cases: either  
 50 there exists a  $z^*$  such that  $G(z^*) = x$ , or for all  $z$  we have  $G(z) \neq x$ . On the other hand, in many  
 51 practical cases finding a close enough point suffices. Therefore, we investigate the hardness of the  
 52 decision problem where the goal is to distinguish between the two cases for a parameter  $\delta > 0$ : there  
 53 exists a point  $z^*$  such that  $\|G(z^*) - x\| < \delta$ , or for all  $z$  we have  $\|G(z) - x\| \geq \delta$ . We prove several  
 54 new hardness results when  $\|\cdot\|$  corresponds to  $\ell_p$ -norm depending on the parity of  $p$ .

## 55 1.2 Fine-grained complexity.

56 Classical complexity theory has attempted to delineate the boundary between problems that admit  
 57 efficient (polynomial-time) algorithms and problems that do not. A fine(r) grained picture of the  
 58 landscape of polynomial-time has begun to emerge over the last decade. In particular, the focus  
 59 has shifted towards pinning down the exponent,  $c$ , of a problem that can be solved in polynomial  
 60 time  $\tilde{O}(n^c)$ . Most of these newer results are conditional and rely on reductions from popular (but  
 61 plausible) conjectures such as the Strong Exponential Time Hypothesis (SETH) (19), (20). See the  
 62 relevant surveys (21), (22), (23), and (24) for comprehensive overviews of this emerging area. This  
 63 approach provides conditional lower bounds on well-known problems such as edit distance (25),  
 64 Frechet distance (26), dynamic time warping (27), longest common subsequence (LCS) (28), and  
 65 string matching (29). In the context of machine learning, reductions from SETH applied to clustering  
 66 (30), kernel PCA (31), sparse linear regression (32), Gaussian kernel density estimation (33), and  
 67 approximate nearest neighbors (34) problems. In recent work, this approach has also been shown to  
 68 imply an  $\Omega(n^2)$ -lower bound for transformer models with input size  $n$  (35).

69 **(Strong) Exponential Time Hypothesis and  $k$ -SAT.** The  $k$ -SAT problem involves a given SAT  
 70 formula on  $n$  variables, with each clause of size  $k$ , and requires us to determine whether the formula  
 71 is satisfiable or not. Despite decades of effort, no one has invented a faster-than-exponential ( $O(2^n)$ )  
 72 time algorithm for this problem. Unless  $P = NP$ , no polynomial-time algorithm exists. The Strong  
 73 Exponential Time Hypothesis (SETH) is a strengthening of this statement (19): for every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there  
 74 is no algorithm that solves  $k$ -SAT in  $2^{(1-\varepsilon)n}$  time. The Exponential Time Hypothesis (ETH) is a  
 75 (slightly) weaker conjecture: there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that 3-SAT cannot be solved in time  $2^{\delta n}$ .

76 **Closest Vector Problem.** We leverage SETH-hardness of the closest vector problem (CVP), defined  
 77 as follows: Consider a lattice  $\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{B}) = \{\mathbf{B}z \mid z \in \mathbb{Z}^n\}$ , where  $B = (\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n)$  and  
 78 all the vectors  $\mathbf{v}_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$ . Given a target vector  $\mathbf{t}$ , define  $\text{dist}_p(\mathcal{L}, \mathbf{t}) = \min_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{B})} \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{t}\|_p$ . The  
 79 goal of the  $\text{CVP}_p$  problem is to distinguish between two cases: YES ( $\text{dist}_p(\mathcal{L}, \mathbf{t}) \leq r$ ) and NO  
 80 ( $\text{dist}_p(\mathcal{L}, \mathbf{t}) > r$ ). A result of (36) states that assuming SETH, then  $\text{CVP}_p$  cannot be solved in  
 81  $O(2^{(1-\varepsilon)n})$  time for odd integers  $p \geq 1$ ,  $p \neq 2\mathbb{Z}$ . As follow-up work, (37) proved the same hardness  
 82 for the so-called (0,1)- $\text{CVP}_p$  problem: for any  $1 \leq p \leq \infty$ , distinguish between the two cases: YES  
 83 ( $\|By^* - \mathbf{t}\| \leq r$  for some  $y^* \in \{0, 1\}^n$ ) and NO ( $\|By - \mathbf{t}\| > r$  for all  $y \in \mathbb{Z}$ ).

84 **Half-Clique and Vertex Cover.** We also consider two graph optimization problems: Vertex Cover  
 85 and Half-Clique. The goal of Vertex Cover is to find a set of vertices of the minimum size that  
 86 touch every edge in a given graph; the decision version is to decide whether or not a vertex cover  
 87 of a given size exists. The Half-Clique problem is a special case of the  $k$ -CLIQUE problem (for  
 88  $k = n/2$ ), where the goal is to decide whether or not there exists a clique with  $k$ -vertices. Both  
 89 decision problems are classical, NP-complete, and ETH-hard (22).

90 **2 Hardness Results**

91 The constructions of the reductions from the problems whose hardness is known under some hypothe-  
 92 ses are given in this part. For the sake of brevity, we leave the analysis to the full version.

93 **2.1 Hardness of Exact Inversion**

94 The work (13) shows the NP-hardness of the exact inversion problem. We strengthen this to show  
 95 SETH-hardness below in 1. First, we provide hardness results when  $z \in \{1, -1\}^n$ , and we generalize  
 96 these results for  $z \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

97 **Theorem 1.** *Suppose SETH holds. Then for any  $\epsilon > 0$  there is a 2-layer,  $O(n)$ -width ReLU network,  
 98  $G_2(z)$  and a target  $x$  for which no  $O(2^{(1-\epsilon)n})$  time algorithm can demonstrate the existence of  
 99  $z \in \{1, -1\}^n$  that satisfies  $G_2(z) = x$ .*

100 *Reduction.* The reduction is from  $k$ -SAT, with  $m$ -clauses,  $n$ -literals. Let  $z = [z_1, z_2, \dots, z_n]^T \in$   
 101  $\{1, -1\}^n$  where  $z_i$  represents the assignment of  $i^{\text{th}}$  literal, 1 for TRUE and  $-1$  for FALSE. We  
 102 construct the first-layer weight matrix  $W_1 \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  as, if  $i^{\text{th}}$  literal appears positively or negatively  
 103 (or does not appear) in  $j^{\text{th}}$  clause then  $(W_1)_{ji} = -1$  or  $1$  (or  $0$ ). Also, the first layer bias vector  
 104  $b_1 \in \mathbb{R}^m$  is constructed that all entries are  $-(k-1)$ . For the second layer,  $W_2 \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times m}$  is all 1  
 105 matrix, while  $b_2 = 0$ . Lastly, the given observation  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  is 0. It can be shown that determining  
 106 whether there is a  $z$  for which  $G_2(z) = x$  can be reduced from  $k$ -SAT by this construction.

107 **Theorem 2.** *Suppose SETH holds. Then for any  $\epsilon > 0$ , there is a 4-layer,  $O(n)$ -width ReLU network  
 108  $G_4$  and an observation  $x$  such that there is no  $O(2^{(1-\epsilon)n})$  time algorithm to determine whether there  
 109 exists  $z \in \mathbb{R}^n$  satisfying  $G_4(z) = x$ .*

110 *Reduction.* The reduction from  $k$ -SAT. The input is  $z = [z_1, z_2, \dots, z_n]^T \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . The first 2 layers  
 111 are used to map all the values into  $[-1, 1]$ . The first layer output is  $\max\{z_i, -1\}$  for all  $i \in [n]$ ,  
 112 and the second layer output is  $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$  such that  $v_i = \min\{\max\{z_i, -1\}, 1\}$  for all  $i \in [n]$ . The  
 113 third layer output is  $u \in \mathbb{R}^{m+2}$  where first  $m$  nodes will be defined as the first layer of Theorem 1  
 114 with same weight and bias, and we will add 2 more nodes  $u_{m+1} = \sum_{i=1}^n \max\{v_i, 0\}$  and  $u_{m+2} =$   
 115  $\sum_{i=1}^n -\min\{v_i, 0\}$ . The last layer has 2 output nodes, the first output node  $G_4(z)_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n u_i$ , and  
 116 the second output node  $G_4(z)_2 = u_{m+1} + u_{m+2}$ . Also, the given observation  $x = [0, n]^T \in \mathbb{R}^2$ .

117 **2.2 Hardness of Approximate Inversion**

118 We first lower bound the complexity of the inverse generative model under the  $\ell_p$ -norm for positive  
 119 odd numbers  $p$  by reducing it from  $\text{CVP}_p$ . This gives a lower bound of  $O(2^n)$  by assuming SETH.  
 120 For positive even numbers  $p$ , we reduce from the Half-Clique and Vertex Cover Problems. This gives  
 121 a lower bound of  $2^{\Omega(n)}$  by assuming ETH.

122 **2.2.1 Reduction from CVP**

123 In Theorem 3, we present hardness results on the input  $z \in \{0, 1\}^n$ , which are derived by applying  
 124 a reduction from  $(0, 1)$ - $\text{CVP}_p$ . Our results are inspired by the proofs of the hardness of the sparse  
 125 linear regression problem established in (32). We further extend our findings by proving that the  
 126 results also hold for  $z \in \mathbb{R}^n$  in Theorem 4, with a reduction from the binary case.

127 **Theorem 3.** *Assume SETH. Then for any  $\epsilon > 0$ , there is a 1-layer,  $O(n)$ -width ReLU network  $G_1$   
 128 and an observation  $x$  such that there is no  $O(2^{(1-\epsilon)n})$  time algorithm to determine whether there  
 129 exists  $z \in \{0, 1\}^n$  that satisfies  $\|G_1(z) - x\|_p < \delta$  for a given  $\delta > 0$  and any positive odd number  $p$ .*

130 *Reduction.* The reduction is from  $(0, 1)$ - $\text{CVP}_p$ . The first layer weight and bias are constructed as

131  $W_1 = \begin{bmatrix} \overline{W}_1 \\ -\overline{W}_1 \end{bmatrix}$  and  $b_1 = \begin{bmatrix} \overline{b}_1 \\ -\overline{b}_1 \end{bmatrix}$  where for some positive real number  $\alpha > \delta = r$ ,

$$\overline{W}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{v}_1 & \vec{0} & \mathbf{v}_2 & \vec{0} & \dots & \mathbf{v}_n & \vec{0} \\ \alpha & \alpha & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \alpha & \alpha & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & \alpha & \alpha \end{bmatrix}, \overline{b}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} -\mathbf{t} \\ -\alpha \\ -\alpha \\ -\alpha \end{bmatrix}$$

132 Also, the given observation  $x$  is the all-zeros vector.

133 **Theorem 4.** Assume *SETH*. Then for any  $\epsilon > 0$ , there is a 5-layer ReLU network  $G_5$  and an  
 134 observation  $x$  such that there is no  $O(2^{(1-\epsilon)n})$  time algorithm to determine whether there exists  
 135  $z \in \mathbb{R}^n$  that satisfies  $\|G_5(z) - x\|_p < \delta$  for a given  $\delta > 0$  and any positive odd number  $p$ .

136 In the case of exact inversion, the transition from  $\{0, 1\}^n$  to  $\mathbb{R}^n$  was accomplished by adding two  
 137 extra layers. When we try the same trick in the approximate case, instead of having exact binary  
 138 values  $\{0, 1\}$ , we result in points clustered in a small interval around 0 or around 1. To overcome this  
 139 issue, we introduce two additional layers that map the points around 0 to 0 and those around 1 to 1.  
 140 The following construction is for  $\delta < 1/4$ . It can be done with slight changes for any  $\delta > 0$ .

141 *Reduction.* The first 2 layers are designed to make the entries  $z$  in  $[0, 1]$ , so  $z_i$  is mapped to  
 142  $v_i = \min\{\max\{z_i, 0\}, 1\}$  for all  $i \in [n]$ . In the  $3^{rd}$  layer, the first  $n$  nodes are defined by  $u_{[n]} =$   
 143  $\text{ReLU}(W_3 v + b_3)$  where  $W_3 = -I_n$  and  $b_3 = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \vec{1} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Also, introduce 2 more nodes that  
 144  $u_{n+1} = \sum_{i=1}^n \max\{v_i, 1/2\}$  and  $u_{n+2} = \sum_{i=1}^n -\min\{v_i, 1/2\}$ . In the  $4^{th}$  layer, the first  $n$  nodes  
 145 are defined by  $t_{[n]} = \text{ReLU}(W_4 u_{[n]} + b_4)$  where  $W_4 = -4 \cdot I_n$ , and  $b_4 = \vec{1} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Also, we add  
 146 another node  $t_{n+1} = u_{n+1} + u_{n+2} = \sum_{i=1}^n \max\{v_i, 1/2\} + \sum_{i=1}^n -\min\{v_i, 1/2\}$ . In the last  
 147 layer, construction is similar to Theorem 3 with an addition of one more node given by  $s_{m+1} = t_{n+1}$   
 148 so that the output is  $s \in \mathbb{R}^{m+1}$ . And, the given output  $x$  is  $x = [\vec{0}, n/2] \in \mathbb{R}^{m+1}$ .

## 149 2.2.2 Reduction from Half-Clique

150 To handle the case of even  $p$ , we cannot reduce from CVP in (37). Instead, we achieve this through  
 151 two reductions: to the binary case from the Half-Clique and from the Vertex Cover problem. To  
 152 transition from binary to real numbers, the same approach used in Theorem 4 can be followed. Both  
 153 of these approaches enable us to show ETH hardness (22). We demonstrate a  $2^{\Omega(n)}$  lower bound for  
 154 binary inputs via a reduction from Half-Clique and Vertex Cover.

155 **Theorem 5.** Assume *ETH*. There is a 1-layer,  $O(n^2)$ -width ReLU network  $G_1$  and an observation  $x$   
 156 such that computational complexity to determine whether there exists a  $z \in \{0, 1\}^n$  with  $\|G_1(z) -$   
 157  $x\|_p \leq \delta$  is  $2^{\Omega(n)}$  for a given  $\delta > 0$  and any positive even number  $p$ .

158 *Reduction.* The reduction is from the Half-Clique problem on a positive edge-weighted graph  
 159  $G(V, E)$  where  $|V| = n$ . The Half-Clique problem is to determine if a half-clique with a total  
 160 weight less than  $M$  exists. We use the same trick  $G_1(z) = \text{ReLU}(W_1 z + b_1)$  where  $W_1 = \begin{bmatrix} w \\ -w \end{bmatrix}$   
 161 and  $b_1 = \begin{bmatrix} b \\ -b \end{bmatrix}$ . And, we consider the problem definition to be  $\|Wz + b\|_p \leq \delta$  when the target  
 162 is  $x = \vec{0}$ . Firstly, label the vertices by  $1, \dots, n$ . Construct the matrix  $C \in \mathbb{R}^{\binom{n}{2} \times n}$  and the vector  
 163  $c \in \mathbb{R}^{\binom{n}{2}}$  as follows. For an edge  $e(i, j) \in E$  with edge weight  $w_e$ ,  $C_{ek} = 2\sqrt[2]{w_e}$  if  $k \in \{i, j\}$ ,  
 164  $C_{ek} = 0$  otherwise, and  $c_e = -\sqrt[2]{w_e}$ . For a non-edge  $e(i, j) \notin E$ ,  $C_{ek} = 2\alpha$  if  $k \in \{i, j\}$ ,  $C_{ek} = 0$   
 165 otherwise, and  $c_e = -\alpha$ , here  $\alpha$  is a large constant. The matrix  $W \in \mathbb{R}^{(\binom{n}{2}+1) \times n}$  is constructed  
 166 as the concatenation of  $C$  and  $\beta \cdot \vec{1} \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times n}$ , and vector  $b \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$  is defined by  $b_{[n]} = c$  and  
 167  $b_{n+1} = -(n/2)\beta$ , here  $\beta$  is a large constant. Let  $Z$  be the number of non-edges, and the given value  
 168  $\delta = \sqrt[p]{\sum_{e \in E} w_e + \alpha^p Z + (3^p - 1)M}$ .

## 169 2.2.3 Reduction from Vertex Cover

170 Here, we give the following construction for Theorem 5 by reduction from Vertex Cover.

171 *Reduction.* The Vertex Cover problem asks if  $G(V, E)$  has a vertex cover of size  $q$ . Let  $Z$  denote  
 172 the number of edges. Construct a matrix  $C \in \mathbb{R}^{\binom{n}{2} \times n}$  and a vector  $c \in \mathbb{R}^{\binom{n}{2}}$  as follows: For  
 173 an edge  $e(i, j) \in E$ ,  $C_{ei} = C_{ej} = 2\alpha$ , and  $c_e = -\alpha$ . All the other entries are 0 in  $C$ . Matrix  
 174  $W \in \mathbb{R}^{(\binom{n}{2}+1) \times n}$  is constructed as the concatenation of  $C$  and  $\beta \cdot \vec{1} \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times n}$ , and vector  $b \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$   
 175 is defined by  $b_{[n]} = c \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $b_{n+1} = -(n - q)\beta$ , here  $\beta$  is a large constant. Let the given value  
 176  $\delta = \sqrt[p]{Z\alpha^p}$ .

## References

- 177
- 178 [1] S. Chen, D. Donoho, and M. Saunders, “Atomic decomposition by basis pursuit,” *SIAM review*, vol. 43,  
179 no. 1, pp. 129–159, 2001.
- 180 [2] D. Needell and J. Tropp, “Cosamp: Iterative signal recovery from incomplete and inaccurate samples,”  
181 *Applied and Computational Harmonic Analysis*, vol. 26, no. 3, pp. 301–321, 2009.
- 182 [3] R. Baraniuk, V. Cevher, M. Duarte, and C. Hegde, “Model-based compressive sensing,” *IEEE Transactions*  
183 *on Information Theory*, vol. 56, pp. 1982–2001, 2010.
- 184 [4] J. Chang, C. Li, B. Póczos, B. Kumar, and A. Sankaranarayanan, “One network to solve them all—solving  
185 linear inverse problems using deep projection models,” in *International Conference on Computer Vision*  
186 *(ICCV)*. IEEE, 2017, pp. 5889–5898.
- 187 [5] A. Mousavi and R. Baraniuk, “Learning to invert: Signal recovery via deep convolutional networks,” in  
188 *International Conference on Acoustics, Speech and Signal Processing (ICASSP)*, 2017, pp. 2272–2276.
- 189 [6] A. Bora, A. Jalal, E. Price, and A. Dimakis, “Compressed sensing using generative models,” in *International*  
190 *Conference on Machine Learning (ICML)*, 2017, pp. 537–546.
- 191 [7] D. Ulyanov, A. Vedaldi, and V. Lempitsky, “Deep image prior,” in *IEEE Conference on Computer Vision*  
192 *and Pattern Recognition (CVPR)*, 2018, pp. 9446–9454.
- 193 [8] G. Jagatap and C. Hegde, “Algorithmic guarantees for inverse imaging with untrained network priors,” in  
194 *Neural Information Processing Systems (NeurIPS)*, 2019.
- 195 [9] T. L. Y. Wu, M. Rosca, “Deep compressed sensing,” in *International Conference on Machine Learning*  
196 *(ICML)*, 2019.
- 197 [10] Z. Liu and J. Scarlett, “Information-theoretic lower bounds for compressive sensing with generative models,”  
198 *IEEE Journal on Selected Areas in Information Theory*, 2020.
- 199 [11] V. Shah and C. Hegde, “Solving linear inverse problems using gan priors: An algorithm with provable  
200 guarantees,” in *2018 IEEE International Conference on Acoustics, Speech and Signal Processing (ICASSP)*.  
201 IEEE, 2018, pp. 4609–4613.
- 202 [12] P. Hand and V. Voroninski, “Global guarantees for enforcing deep generative priors by empirical risk,”  
203 *IEEE Transactions on Information Theory*, vol. 66, no. 1, pp. 401–418, 2019.
- 204 [13] Q. Lei, A. Jalal, I. S. Dhillon, and A. G. Dimakis, “Inverting deep generative models, one layer at a time,”  
205 in *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 2019, pp. 13 910–13 919.
- 206 [14] F. Latorre, A. Eftekhari, and V. Cevher, “Fast and provable admm for learning with generative priors,” in  
207 *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 2019, pp. 12 004–12 016.
- 208 [15] T. Nguyen, G. Jagatap, and C. Hegde, “Provable compressed sensing with generative priors via langevin  
209 dynamics,” *ArXiv preprint arXiv:2102.12643*, 2021.
- 210 [16] J. Whang, Q. Lei, and A. Dimakis, “Compressed sensing with invertible generative models and dependent  
211 noise,” *arXiv preprint arXiv:2003.08089*, 2020.
- 212 [17] M. Asim, A. Ahmed, and P. Hand, “Invertible generative models for inverse problems: mitigating represen-  
213 tation error and dataset bias,” in *International Conference on Machine Learning (ICML)*, 2020.
- 214 [18] E. M. Lindgren, J. Whang, and A. G. Dimakis, “Conditional sampling from invertible generative models  
215 with applications to inverse problems,” *arXiv preprint arXiv:2002.11743*, 2020.
- 216 [19] R. Impagliazzo and R. Paturi, “On the complexity of k-sat,” *Journal of Computer and System Sciences*,  
217 vol. 62, no. 2, pp. 367–375, 2001.
- 218 [20] R. Impagliazzo, R. Paturi, and F. Zane, “Which problems have strongly exponential complexity?” *Journal*  
219 *of Computer and System Sciences*, vol. 63, no. 4, p. 512–530, 2001.
- 220 [21] P. Indyk, “Beyond p vs. np: quadratic-time hardness for big data problems,” in *Proceedings of the 29th*  
221 *ACM Symposium on Parallelism in Algorithms and Architectures*, 2017, pp. 1–1.
- 222 [22] D. Lokshtanov, D. Marx, S. Saurabh *et al.*, “Lower bounds based on the exponential time hypothesis,”  
223 *Bulletin of EATCS*, vol. 3, no. 105, 2013.

- 224 [23] A. Rubinfeld and V. V. Williams, “Seth vs approximation,” *ACM SIGACT News*, vol. 50, no. 4, pp. 57–76,  
225 2019.
- 226 [24] K. Bringmann, “Fine-grained complexity theory: Conditional lower bounds for computational geometry,”  
227 in *Conference on Computability in Europe*. Springer, 2021, pp. 60–70.
- 228 [25] A. Backurs and P. Indyk, “Edit distance cannot be computed in strongly subquadratic time (unless seth is  
229 false),” in *Proceedings of the forty-seventh annual ACM symposium on Theory of computing*, 2015, pp.  
230 51–58.
- 231 [26] K. Bringmann, “Why walking the dog takes time: Frechet distance has no strongly subquadratic algorithms  
232 unless seth fails,” in *2014 IEEE 55th Annual Symposium on Foundations of Computer Science*. IEEE,  
233 2014, pp. 661–670.
- 234 [27] K. Bringmann and M. Künnemann, “Quadratic conditional lower bounds for string problems and dynamic  
235 time warping,” in *2015 IEEE 56th Annual Symposium on Foundations of Computer Science*. IEEE, 2015,  
236 pp. 79–97.
- 237 [28] A. Abboud, A. Backurs, and V. V. Williams, “Tight hardness results for lcs and other sequence similarity  
238 measures,” in *2015 IEEE 56th Annual Symposium on Foundations of Computer Science*. IEEE, 2015, pp.  
239 59–78.
- 240 [29] ———, “If the current clique algorithms are optimal, so is valiant’s parser,” *SIAM Journal on Computing*,  
241 vol. 47, no. 6, pp. 2527–2555, 2018.
- 242 [30] A. Abboud, V. Cohen-Addad, and H. Houdrougé, “Subquadratic high-dimensional hierarchical clustering,”  
243 *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, vol. 32, 2019.
- 244 [31] A. Backurs, P. Indyk, and L. Schmidt, “On the fine-grained complexity of empirical risk minimization:  
245 Kernel methods and neural networks,” *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, vol. 30, 2017.
- 246 [32] A. Gupte and V. Vaikuntanathan, “The fine-grained hardness of sparse linear regression,” *arXiv preprint*  
247 *arXiv:2106.03131*, 2021.
- 248 [33] A. Aggarwal and J. Alman, “Optimal-degree polynomial approximations for exponentials and gaussian  
249 kernel density estimation,” in *Proceedings of the 37th Computational Complexity Conference*, 2022, pp.  
250 1–23.
- 251 [34] A. Rubinfeld, “Hardness of approximate nearest neighbor search,” in *Proceedings of the 50th annual*  
252 *ACM SIGACT symposium on theory of computing*, 2018, pp. 1260–1268.
- 253 [35] F. D. Keles, P. M. Wijewardena, and C. Hegde, “On the computational complexity of self-attention,” in  
254 *International Conference on Algorithmic Learning Theory*. PMLR, 2023, pp. 597–619.
- 255 [36] H. Bennett, A. Golovnev, and N. Stephens-Davidowitz, “On the quantitative hardness of cvp,” in *2017*  
256 *IEEE 58th Annual Symposium on Foundations of Computer Science (FOCS)*. IEEE, 2017, pp. 13–24.
- 257 [37] D. Aggarwal, H. Bennett, A. Golovnev, and N. Stephens-Davidowitz, “Fine-grained hardness of cvp  
258 (p)—everything that we can prove (and nothing else),” in *Proceedings of the 2021 ACM-SIAM Symposium*  
259 *on Discrete Algorithms (SODA)*. SIAM, 2021, pp. 1816–1835.