

The PCP theorem

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Outline

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Verifiers and PCP classes
- 3 The PCP theorem
- 4 PCPs and Approximation
- 5 Dinur's proof

1. Introduction

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Yes, if thesis is written according to the **PCP-theorem**

(and for some students also without it ...)

Probabilistically Checkable Proofs give a new surprising characterization of class NP

One of the most important results in Theoretical Computer Science in last 20 years

important as well for questions about approximation algorithms

Arora & Safra 1992 / 1998

Arora & Lund & Motwani & Sudan & Szegedy 1992 / 1998

Dinur 2005

Example (NP-verification for NP-complete problem 3-SAT)

Given $\phi(x_1, \dots, x_n) = C_1 \wedge \dots \wedge C_m$ formula in **Conjunctive Normal Form**, each C_i with at most 3 literals, is there a satisfying assignment $y \in \{0, 1\}^n$ for ϕ ? $(C_i = x_1 \vee \bar{x}_2 \vee x_4)$

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NP-verification algorithm requires

- polynomial running time in $size(\phi)$ on input (ϕ, y)
- for each satisfiable ϕ there is a **guess** y^* such that algorithm accepts (ϕ, y^*)
- for all unsatisfiable ϕ and all guesses y algorithm rejects

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Easy: Guess assignment y^* , check by plugging into ϕ

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Can we design other verification algorithms that have to inspect **less many** parts of a potential proof, may be **paying** something for it?

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Can we design other verification algorithms that have to inspect **less many** parts of a potential proof, may be **paying** something for it?

Surprising result: **Less many** above turns out to be **constantly** many only; we pay by including **randomization**, i.e., false proofs might be accepted with very small probability.

Proofs must code assignments completely differently

Example

Suppose as part of a verification proof you want to check whether two vectors $a, b \in \{0, 1\}^n$ are the same.

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1. Easy way: Write down a, b and compare componentwise; each component has to be read
2. A bit more tricky: Expect proof to contain **all results** $a^t \cdot r$ and $b^t \cdot r$; pick randomly an $r \in \{0, 1\}^n$ and read only the two corresponding results in your proof.



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With probability $\frac{1}{2}$ test detects if $a \neq b$.

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Disadvantage: Table of values the proof expects is exponentially large

2. Verifiers and PCP classes

Let $r, q : \mathbb{N} \mapsto \mathbb{N}$ be integer (resource) functions

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An $(r(n), q(n))$ -verifier V is a polynomial time randomized Turing machine that works in three phases on an input x of size n and a potential proof y for showing that x has a desired property:

Phase 1 generate $r(n)$ random bits

Phase 2 use x and the random bits to determine $q(n)$ many positions in y which the verifier wants to inspect

Phase 3 use x , the $r(n)$ random bits and the $q(n)$ chosen components from y to compute $V(x, y, r) \in \{0, 1\}$

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Question: Which language does a verifier accept?

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- i) For all $x \in L$ there is a y such that $Pr_r(V(x, y, r) = 1) = 1$; there is a proof which the verifier accepts with probability 1.
- ii) For all $x \notin L$ and for all y it is $Pr_r(V(x, y, r) = 1) \leq \frac{1}{4}$; the verifier accepts a false proof with probability at most $\frac{1}{4}$.

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b) Let \mathcal{F}, \mathcal{G} be function classes; a language L belongs to class $PCP(\mathcal{F}, \mathcal{G})$ if there is a (r, q) -verifier accepting L where $r \in \mathcal{F}, q \in \mathcal{G}$.

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The definition says nothing about wrong proofs if $x \in L$; this makes sense since such a proof could be false in a single position only. Below the goal is to rewrite proofs such that errors in false proofs in case $x \notin L$ will spread all over the proof.

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4. $\text{PCP}(\log n, 2) = \text{P}$; similarly: simulating V on all random choices leads to a 2-SAT formula determining a potential proof; reading 3 components likely leaves P .

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Theorem (PCP theorem)

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An NP verification for L works as follows: Guess proof y and simulate V deterministically for all (polynomially many) random strings r . Accept iff all these results $V(x, y, r) = 1$.

If $x \in L$ and y is the correct proof for V it is as well correct for above NP verification; if $x \notin L$ then for each y and $\frac{3}{4}$ of the strings r V rejects and so does the NP verification. Thus $L \in NP$.

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Steps towards the proof by [Arora et al.](#):

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Theorem

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A satisfying assignment a of a given formula ϕ is coded as follows:

- i) arithmetization of formula together with randomization leads to polynomial P_r of degree 2 such that
- if $a \in \{0, 1\}^n$ satisfies ϕ , then $P_r(a) = 0$
 - if a is not satisfying, then $P_r(a) = 0$ only with small probability w.r.t. r

ii) P_r can be decomposed as

$$P_r(a) = f_0(r) + A_a(f_1(r)) + B_a(f_2(r))$$

where $A_a : \{0, 1\}^n \mapsto \{0, 1\}$, $B_a : \{0, 1\}^{n^2} \mapsto \{0, 1\}$ are linear functions canonically attached to a and

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Thus evaluating $P_r(a)$ for given r requires only to look up one function value of A_a and B_a

The proof the verifier expects thus contains the function values of A_a and B_a ; it has exponential size.

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3. Even if the tables for A_a and B_a represent linear functions are they coming from the same a :

consistency

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For the proof a satisfying assignment is coded via a **low-degree polynomial**

Develop similar - though much harder - techniques for self-testing and self-correcting such polynomials

Step 3: Instead of constructing better and better verifiers the final step uses a **composition** of the verifiers obtained in Steps 1 and 2 to obtain the one proving the PCP theorem.

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Example (MAX-3-SAT)

Input: m clauses C_1, C_2, \dots, C_m each with at most 3 literals over variables x_1, \dots, x_n

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Clear: computing exact maximum is NP-hard

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$$\frac{\text{optimal value}}{\text{Algorithm's result}} \leq 2$$

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Question: Can we reduce the error arbitrarily, i.e., is there an algorithm which given ϕ and $\epsilon > 0$ computes an assignment with relative error $\leq 1 + \epsilon$?

Running time polynomial in $\text{size}(\phi)$, arbitrary in ϵ^{-1} ;
defines complexity class **PTAS**

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The question whether $\text{MAX-3-SAT} \in \text{PTAS}$ could only be answered after the PCP-theorem was proven

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GAP creating reduction: reduce efficiently instance ϕ for 3-SAT decision problem to instance $\psi(\phi)$ for MAX-3-SAT such that

- if ϕ is satisfiable, then all clauses $\psi(\phi)$ are satisfiable in common
- if ϕ is not satisfiable, then **at most** $1 - c$ of the clauses of $\psi(\phi)$ are commonly satisfiable, where $0 < c < 1$ is a **constant** independent of ϕ .

Relation to non-existence of PTAS algorithms:

Lemma

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Proof.

Suppose \mathcal{A} is a PTAS algorithm for MAX-3-SAT; given instance ϕ for 3-SAT we can decide satisfiability efficiently as follows:
compute the reduction and apply \mathcal{A} to the resulting MAX-3-SAT instance $\psi(\phi)$ and ϵ sufficiently small such that $(1 - c) \cdot (1 + \epsilon) < 1$
Now approximating $\psi(\phi)$ within relative error $\leq 1 + \epsilon$ results in deciding satisfiability of ϕ .

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"if-part": Suppose the reduction ψ exists; construct an $(O(\log n), O(1))$ -verifier for 3-SAT: Given 3-SAT formula ϕ the verifier V first computes 3-SAT formula $\psi(\phi)$; V expects as proof a satisfying assignment for $\psi(\phi)$; it randomly guesses one of the clauses in $\psi(\phi)$; there are polynomially many in $size(\phi)$, thus $O(\log size(\phi))$ random bits are needed;

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if ϕ is satisfiable so is $\psi(\phi)$ and V accepts a satisfying assignment as proof with probability 1;

if ϕ is not satisfiable, then V chooses only with probability $< 1 - c$ a clause that is satisfied by the given assignment; repeating the procedure constantly many times this probability can be reduced to $< \frac{1}{4}$.

Proof.

“only-if part”: Let V be a $(c \cdot \log n, q)$ -verifier for 3-SAT, q a constant, ϕ a 3-SAT instance. We show how to obtain a gap creating reduction to MAX-3-SAT

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Step 0: The verifier has at most n^c different runs and wants to inspect at most $N := q \cdot n^c$ components of a proof. Let y_1, \dots, y_N be Boolean variables. An assignment to them corresponds to a proof.

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Step 1: For random string ρ define $A_\rho \subseteq \{0, 1\}^q$ as those w such that V **rejects** (ϕ, y, ρ) if the components read from y constitute w .

Proof.

all A_ρ are **efficiently** computable and of constant cardinality!

Let $C_1 \wedge \dots \wedge C_{|A_\rho|}$ be a set of clauses in **q** variables such that for each $w \notin A_\rho$ precisely one C_i is false. Note that number s of clauses is a constant depending on q only.

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Step 2: Next consider for each random string ρ that V generates the variant $C_1^\rho \wedge \dots \wedge C_{|A_\rho|}^\rho$ of clauses, where the variables are replaced by those q many components of y_1, \dots, y_N the verifier wants to see.

Proof.

Conjunction of all those clauses we obtain by trying all ρ gives a SAT-formula with $s \cdot n^c$ many clauses. If a proof $y \in \{0,1\}^{n^c}$ is satisfying for the verifier it satisfies all above clauses;

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Above proof easily extends to obtain a 3-SAT formula by usual reduction.

5. Dinur's proof: Short remark

In 2005 Dinur gave an alternative proof of the PCP theorem

Main idea: construct a gap creating reduction directly for another problem called **Constraint Satisfiability Problem**; problem defined (and needed) over **arbitrary finite alphabets**.

5. Dinur's proof: Short remark

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Main idea: construct a gap creating reduction directly for another problem called **Constraint Satisfiability Problem**; problem defined (and needed) over **arbitrary finite alphabets**.

Starting from a small gap depending on $\frac{1}{\text{input size}}$ a tricky **gap amplification** construction is invoked $O(\log n)$ times to increase the gap to be constant.

Amplification **increases** size of underlying finite alphabets; second step performs **alphabet reduction** by using long transparent proofs.

Today: focus on ideas for first proof of PCP theorem

Next talk: PCPs for real number model, in particular

- long transparent proofs for $\text{NP}_{\mathbb{R}}$
- ideas for proving real $\text{PCP}_{\mathbb{R}}$ theorem along Dinur's lines

References

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Definition of class RP: there is a randomized polynomial time machine M which accepts each $x \in L$ with probability at least $\frac{2}{3}$ and rejects all $x \notin L$.