## Real Number PCPs

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joint work with Martijn Baartse<br>(work supported by DFG, GZ:ME 1424/7-1)

## Outline

(1) Introduction
(2) Long transparent proofs for $\mathrm{NP}_{\mathbb{R}}$
(3) The real PCP theorem

## 1. Introduction

First two talks:

- Real number complexity with important complexity class $\mathrm{NP}_{\mathbb{R}}$
- Probabilistically checkable proofs PCPs in Turing model and PCP theorem to characterize Turing class NP

Today: PCPs in real number complexity

## Example ( uadratic olynomial ystems QPS)

Input: $n, m \in \mathbb{N}$, real polynomials in $n$ variables
$p_{1}, \ldots, p_{m} \in \mathbb{R}\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$ of degree at most 2 ; each $p_{i}$ depending on at most 3 variables;

Do the $p_{i}$ 's have a common real zero?
$N P_{\mathbb{R}}$ verification for solvability of system

$$
p_{1}(x)=0, \ldots, p_{m}(x)=0
$$

guesses solution $y^{*} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ and plugs it into all $p_{i}$ 's ; obviously all
components of $y^{*}$ have to be inspected

PCP question makes perfect sense:

Can we stabilize a verification proof, e.g., for QPS, and detect faults with high probability by inspecting constantly many (real) components only?

Real verifiers: particular probabilistic BSS machines running in polynomial time

## Definition (Real verifiers)

$r, q: \mathbb{N} \mapsto \mathbb{N}$; a real verifier $V(r, q)$ is a polynomial time probabilistic BSS machine working as follows: $V$ gets as input vectors $x \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ (the problem instance) and $y \in \mathbb{R}^{s}$ (the verification proof)
i) $V$ generates non-adaptively $r(n)$ random bits;
ii) from $x$ and the $r(n)$ random bits $V$ determines $q(n)$ many components of $y$;
iii) using $x$, the $r(n)$ random bits and the $q(n)$ components of $y$
$V$ deterministically produces its result (accept or reject)

Acceptance condition for a language $L \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{*}$ :
A real verifier $V$ accepts a language $L$ iff

- for all $x \in L$ there is a guess $y$ such that

$$
\operatorname{Pr}_{\rho \in\{0,1\}^{(n)}}\{V(x, y, \rho)=\text { 'accept' }\}=1
$$

- for all $x \notin L$ and for all $y$

$$
\operatorname{Pr}_{\rho \in\{0,1\}^{r(n)}}\{V(x, y, \rho)=\text { 'reject' }\} \geq \frac{1}{2}
$$

Important: probability aspects still refer to discrete probabilities.
Real verifiers as well produce random bits.

## Definition

$\mathcal{R}, \mathcal{Q}$ function classes.
$L \in \mathrm{PCP}_{\mathbb{R}}(\mathcal{R}, \mathcal{Q}): L$ is accepted by a real verifier $V(r, q)$ with $r \in \mathcal{R}, q \in \mathcal{Q}$

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## Example

$\mathrm{NP}_{\mathbb{R}}=\mathrm{PCP}_{\mathbb{R}}(0$, poly $)$
$\mathrm{NP}_{\mathbb{R}} \supseteq \mathrm{PCP}_{\mathbb{R}}(O(\log n), O(1))$
$\mathrm{PCP}_{\mathbb{R}}(O(\log n), 1)$ : leads to questions about zeros of univariate polynomials given by straight line program

## Goal: Characterizations of $\mathrm{NP}_{\mathbb{R}}$ via real number PCPs

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Recall the two proofs in Turing model by Arora et al. and Dinur:

- both need long transparent proofs for NP, i.e.,

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\mathrm{NP} \subseteq P C P(\text { poly }(n), O(1))
$$

- Arora et al. prove existence of short, almost transparent proofs:

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\mathrm{NP} \subseteq P C P(O(\log n), \text { poly } \log n)
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and use verifier composition to get full PCP theorem

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Here: more on first and third item

## 2. Long transparent proofs for $\mathrm{NP}_{\mathbb{R}}$

## Theorem

$\mathrm{NP}_{\mathbb{R}} \subseteq P C P_{\mathbb{R}}(O(f(n)), O(1))$, where $f$ is superpolynomial
i.e., $\mathrm{NP}_{\mathbb{R}}$ has long transparent proofs.

Note: Most important wrt application in full PCP theorem is structure of the long transparent proofs (more than parameter values)
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As by-product proof gives generalization of results by Rubinfeld \&
Sudan on self-testing and -correcting linear functions on finite subsets of $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ : property testing

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Sufficient: produce $(O(f(n)), O(1))$-verifier for $\mathrm{NP}_{\mathbb{R}^{2}}$-complete problem; we take QPS; what to use as more stable verification?

Consider QPS input $p_{1}, \ldots, p_{m}$, guess $y \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$; for $r \in\{0,1\}^{m}$ define

$$
P(y, r):=\sum_{i=1}^{m} p_{i}(y) \cdot r_{i}
$$

Observations:

- if $a \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ is a zero, then $P(a, r)=0 \forall r$;
- if $a \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ is no zero, then $\operatorname{Pr}_{r}[P(a, r)>0] \geq \frac{1}{2}$

Minor technical difference to classical setting: structure of $P$
Important: Separate dependence of $P$ on guessed zero a from that on real coefficients of $p_{i}$ 's

## Lemma

There are real linear functions $A, B$ of $n, n^{2}$ variables, respectively, depending on a only, as well as linear functions

$$
L_{A}, L_{B}:\{0,1\}^{m} \mapsto \mathbb{R}^{n}, \mathbb{R}^{n^{2}} \text { and } C:\{0,1\}^{m} \mapsto \mathbb{R}
$$

such that

$$
P(a, r)=C(r)+A \circ L_{A}(r)+B \circ L_{B}(r)
$$

Moreover, $L_{A}, L_{B}$ and $C$ depend on the coefficients of the $p_{i}$ 's.

More precisely: $A, B$ depend on a guessed zero $a \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ as follows:
$A: \mathbb{R}^{n} \mapsto \mathbb{R}, A\left(w_{1}, \ldots, w_{n}\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i} \cdot w_{i}$
$B: \mathbb{R}^{n^{2}} \mapsto \mathbb{R}, B\left(w_{11}, \ldots, w_{n n}\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{i} \cdot a_{j} \cdot w_{i j}$

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Important: In order to evaluate

$$
P(a, r)=C(r)+A \circ L_{A}(r)+B \circ L_{B}(r)
$$

one needs to know only two values, one for $A$ and one for $B$.

## Example

$$
\left.\begin{array}{ll}
p_{1}(a)=\pi+1 \cdot a_{1}+2 \cdot a_{2}, & p_{2}(a)=3 \cdot a_{1} a_{3}-1 \cdot a_{4}^{2} \\
p_{3}(a)=1+\pi a_{1}+7 a_{2} a_{3}
\end{array}\right] \quad \begin{aligned}
P(a, r):=\sum_{i=1}^{3} p_{i} \cdot r_{i}= & \pi r_{1}+1 \cdot r_{3}+ \\
& +a_{1} \cdot\left(1 \cdot r_{1}+\pi r_{3}\right)+a_{2} \cdot 2 r_{1}+ \\
& +a_{1} a_{3} \cdot 3 r_{2}+a_{4}^{2} \cdot 1 \cdot r_{2}+a_{2} \cdot a_{3} \cdot 7 r_{3}
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { results in } \\
& C(r)=(\pi, 0,1) \cdot\left(\begin{array}{c}
r_{1} \\
r_{2} \\
r_{3}
\end{array}\right), L_{A}(r)=\left(\begin{array}{lll}
1 & 0 & \pi \\
2 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0
\end{array}\right) \cdot\left(\begin{array}{l}
r_{1} \\
r_{2} \\
r_{3}
\end{array}\right), ~
\end{aligned}
$$

Similarly for $L_{B}$ !

Idea to stabilize verification proofs (classical): Instead of potential zero a guess function tables for $A, B$

Then probabilistically check that with high probability

- functions are linear (linearity test)
- functions do result from the same a (consistency test)
- this $a$ is a zero (satisfiability test)


## Problems with this idea

Main problems occur because of new domains to be considered:

Turing model:
domains where to guess
function values obvious: $\mathbb{Z}_{2}^{n}$
each evaluation like
$A(a+b), a, b \in \mathbb{Z}_{2}^{n}$ remains
in $\mathbb{Z}_{2}^{n}$;

BSS model:
domains for $A, B$ not obvious: $L_{A}, L_{B}$ give real values for each $r \in \mathbb{Z}_{2}^{n}$ (and different ones for each new input); evaluations like $A \circ$ $L_{A}\left(r_{1}+r_{2}\right)$ once more enlarge domain
uniform distribution over $\mathbb{Z}_{2}^{n}$
invariant under shifts;
uniform distribution on potential domains far from invariant, domains not even closed under shifting;
uniform distribution over $\mathbb{Z}_{2}^{n}$ invariant under shifts;
uniform distribution on potential domains far from invariant, domains not even closed under shifting;
arbitrary reals as constants, so linearity check also requires $\quad A(\lambda \cdot x)=\lambda \cdot A(x)$.

Again: what domain for $\lambda$ 's?

Sketch of what verifier will do:
i) Expect verification proof to contain function tables for $A, B$ on appropriate domains; tables will have an double exponential size
ii) Check: both functions linear on their domains with high probability;
iii) Check: both functions arise from same $a \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ with high probability;
iv) Check: $a$ is a zero of input polynomials with high probability.

## Appropriate domain for map $A$ (I)

Outline of construction:
test domain: $\mathcal{X}_{1}$, proof should provide $A(x)$ for all $x \in \mathcal{X}_{1} \oplus \mathcal{X}_{1}$ safe domain: $\mathcal{X}_{0} \subset \mathcal{X}_{1}$ and $\Lambda$; if all tests succeed function $A$ is almost surely linear on $\mathcal{X}_{0}$ with scalar factors from $\Lambda$

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Goal for defining domains: obtain as far as possible shift-invariance

- for fixed $x \in \mathcal{X}_{0}$ it is $\operatorname{Pr}_{y \in \mathcal{X}_{1}}\left(x+y \in \mathcal{X}_{1}\right) \geq 1-\epsilon$
- for fixed $\lambda \in \Lambda$ it is $\operatorname{Pr}_{y \in \mathcal{X}_{1}}\left(\lambda y \in \mathcal{X}_{1}\right) \geq 1-\epsilon$


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- for fixed $\lambda \in \Lambda$ it is $\operatorname{Pr}_{y \in \mathcal{X}_{1}}\left(\lambda y \in \mathcal{X}_{1}\right) \geq 1-\epsilon$

Clear: $\mathcal{X}_{0}$ must contain $L_{A}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{2}^{m}\right)$

Appropriate domain for map $A$ (II)
$\Lambda:=\left\{\lambda_{1}, \ldots, \lambda_{K}\right\} \subset \mathbb{R}$ multiset of entries in $L_{A}, K:=O(n)$
(w.l.o.g. $m=O(n)$ ) and as safe domain
$\mathcal{X}_{0}:=\left\{\sum_{i=1}^{K} s_{i} \cdot \lambda_{i} \mid s_{i} \in\{0,1\}\right\}^{n}$.
Then

- $\mathbb{Z}_{2}^{n} \subseteq \mathcal{X}_{0}$ (i.e., a basis of $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ ) and
- $L_{A}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{2}^{m}\right) \subseteq \mathcal{X}_{0}$


## Appropriate domain for map $A$ (III)

The test domain then is

$$
\mathcal{X}_{1}:=\left\{\left.\frac{1}{\alpha} \sum_{\beta \in M^{+}} s_{\beta} \cdot \beta \right\rvert\, s_{\beta} \in\left\{0, \ldots, n^{3}\right\}, \alpha \in M\right\}^{n},
$$

where $M:=\left\{\prod_{i=1}^{K} \lambda_{i}^{t_{i}} \mid t_{i} \in\left\{0, \ldots, n^{2}\right\}\right\}$, and
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## Lemma

$\mathcal{X}_{1}$ is almost invariant under additive shifts with fixed $x \in \mathcal{X}_{0}$ and multiplicative shifts with fixed $\lambda \in \Lambda$. It has doubly exponential cardinality in $n$.

## Testing linearity

## Test Linearity

Choose $k \in \mathbb{N}$ large enough; perform $k$ rounds of the following:

- uniformly and independently choose random $x, y$ from $\mathcal{X}_{1}$ and random $\alpha, \beta$ from $M$;
- check if $A(x+y)=\frac{1}{\alpha} A(\alpha x)+\frac{1}{\beta} A(\beta y)$ ?

If all $k$ checks were correct accept, otherwise reject.

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In $k$ rounds linearity test requires to read $3 k$ proof components.

## Theorem

If $A$ passes $k$ rounds of linearity test for large enough $k$, then there is a function $f_{A}$ such that
a) $f_{A}$ is defined via

$$
\left.f_{A}(x):=\text { majority }_{y \in \mathcal{X}_{1}, \alpha \in M} \frac{1}{\alpha} \cdot(A(\alpha(x+y))-A(\alpha x))\right\}
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and is linear on $\mathcal{X}_{0}$ wrt scalars from $\wedge$;

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b) $f_{A}$ is the unique linear function close to $A$, i.e., both differ in at most a given arbitarily small fraction $0<\epsilon<\frac{1}{2}$ of points from $\mathcal{X}_{1}$;
c) A can be self-corrected, i.e., for any $x \in \mathcal{X}_{0}$ the correct value $f_{A}(x)$ can be computed with high probability from finitely many entries in the table for $A$.

## Consistency, solvability

Do the above as well for function table $B$ and $f_{B}$;
suppose both functions are linear with high probability, then:

- Check consistency, i.e., whether $f_{A}, f_{B}$ result from a single assignment $a$; uses self-correction and easy test to check whether coefficient vector $\left\{b_{i j}\right\}$ of $f_{B}$ satisfies $b_{i j}=a_{i} \cdot a_{j}$;
- check solvability: see beginning of talk

Theorem (Existence of long transparent proofs)
$\mathrm{NP}_{\mathbb{R}} \subseteq \mathrm{PCP}_{\mathbb{R}}(f(n), O(1))$, where $f=n^{O(n)}$.
The same holds for BSS model over complex numbers.

## Proof.

Tests use constantly many values stored in doubly exponentially large tables.

All arguments the same over $\mathbb{C}$.

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IMPORTANT: The theorem is applied in the full PCP theorem in a situation where $n$ is constant; so size of $f(n)$ does not matter; more crucial: structure of verification proof!

## 3. The PCP theorem over $\mathbb{R}$

Goal: Adaption of Dinur's proof to show real PCP theorem
Changed viewpoint of QPS problem

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$\operatorname{QPS}(m, k, q, s)$ : system with $m$ constraints, each consisting of $k$ polynomial equations of degree 2; polynomials depend on at most
$q$ variable arrays having $s$ components, i.e., ranging over $\mathbb{R}^{s}$

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## Example

Way we considered QPS instances so far, i.e., $m$ single equations of quadratic polynomials, each with at most 3 variables, can be changed easily to

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Below we always try to work with $q=2$ arrays per constraint in order to define constraint graphs between arrays: edge between two arrays represents constraint depending on those arrays.

## Example

$p_{1}\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}\right)=0, p_{2}\left(x_{2}, x_{3}, x_{4}\right)=0, p_{3}\left(x_{4}, x_{5}\right)=0$

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Variable arrays of dimension 3:
$\chi^{(1)}=\left(z_{1}, z_{2}, z_{3}\right), \chi^{(2)}=\left(z_{4}, z_{5}, z_{6}\right), \chi^{(3)}=\left(z_{7}, z_{8}\right)$

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Old constraints depending on a single array:

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Old constraints depending on a single array:
$p_{1}\left(\chi^{(1)}\right)=0, p_{2}\left(\chi^{(2)}\right)=0, p_{3}\left(\chi^{(3)}\right)=0$
Consistency constraints depending on two arrays:

$$
\left.\begin{array}{l}
z_{2}-z_{4}=0 \\
z_{3}-z_{5}=0 \\
z_{6}-z_{7}=0 \text { consistency constraint for }\left(\chi^{(2)}, \chi^{(3)}\right)
\end{array}\right\} \text { consistency constraint for }\left(\chi^{(1)}, \chi^{(2)}\right)
$$

Crucial: gap-reduction between QPS-instances, i.e., polynomial time transformation of $\operatorname{QPS}(m, k, q, s)$-instance $\phi$ into
$\operatorname{QPS}\left(m^{\prime}, k^{\prime}, q, s\right)$-instance $\psi$ such that:

- if $\phi$ is satisfiable so is $\psi$;

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- if $\phi$ is satisfiable so is $\psi$;
- if $\phi$ is unsatisfiable, then at least a fraction of $\epsilon>0$ constraints in $\psi$ is violated by each assignment.

Here $\epsilon$ is fixed constant

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If a gap-reduction exists, then $\mathrm{NP}_{\mathbb{R}}=P C P_{\mathbb{R}}(O(\log n), O(1))$.

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Verifier for instance $\phi$ computes reduction result $\psi$ and expects proof to provide satisfying assignment for $\psi$. Randomly choose a constraint in $\psi$ and evaluate.

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Proof．
Verifier for instance $\phi$ computes reduction result $\psi$ and expects proof to provide satisfying assignment for $\psi$ ．Randomly choose a constraint in $\psi$ and evaluate．If $\phi$ is unsatisfiable the chosen constraint is violated with probability $\geq \epsilon$ ．Verifier reads qs proof components．Finitely many repetitions increase probability sufficiently．

Thus the goal is to design a gap-reduction as follows:

1. Preprocessing puts QPS-instances into highly structured form; constraints depend on $q=2$ many arrays of fixed dimension $s$ and constraint graph is particular $d$-regular expander graph

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1. Preprocessing puts QPS-instances into highly structured form; constraints depend on $q=2$ many arrays of fixed dimension $s$ and constraint graph is particular $d$-regular expander graph
2. Amplification step increases unsatisfiability ratio of an instance by a constant factor $>1$; disadvantage: parameters $q, s$ get too large if applied several times, i.e., query complexity too large;
3. Dimension reduction scales parameters $q$ and $s$ down again at price of small lost in unsatisfiability ratio.

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Basic idea is to transform $\operatorname{QPS}(m, k, 2, s)$-instance to new one such that violated constraints in old instance occur in significantly more constraints of new instance and violate it;

Step 1: Preprocessing, technical, no major difficulties
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Basic idea is to transform $\operatorname{QPS}(m, k, 2, s)$-instance to new one such that violated constraints in old instance occur in significantly more constraints of new instance and violate it; this is achieved using random walks of constant length $t$ on constraint graph; new constraints are made of paths in old graph; due to expander structure violated constraints $=$ edges occur in many paths.


Old constraint graph and variable arrays $x^{(i)} \in \mathbb{R}^{s}$


New constraint for each path of length $2 t, t$ constant; new variable arrays $y \in \mathbb{R}^{s(t)}$ with $s(t) \leq d^{t+\sqrt{t}+1} \cdot s$


New arrays $y$ claim values on old arrays in $t$-neighborhood

similarly for $y^{\prime}$

## Theorem

There exists a polynomial time algorithm that maps a (preprocessed) $\operatorname{QPS}(m, k, 2, s)$ instance $\psi$ to a $\operatorname{QPS}\left(d^{2 t} m, 2 \sqrt{t} k+(2 \sqrt{t}+1) s, 2, d^{t+\sqrt{t}+1} s\right)$-instance $\psi^{t}$ and has the following properties:

- If $\psi$ is satisfiable, then $\psi^{t}$ is satisfiable.
- If $\psi$ is not satisfiable and $\operatorname{UNSAT}(\psi)<\frac{1}{d \sqrt{t}}$, then

$$
\operatorname{UNSAT}\left(\psi^{t}\right) \geq \frac{\sqrt{t}}{3520 d} \cdot \operatorname{UNSAT}(\psi)
$$

We choose $t, d$ such that $\frac{\sqrt{t}}{3520 d} \geq 2$.

Note: if initially $\psi$ has $m$ constraints, then $\operatorname{UNSAT}(\psi) \geq \frac{1}{m}$, thus $O(\log m)$ rounds of amplification increase gap to a constant.

Why not done?

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Why not done?

Problem: array size will not be constant any longer, and so will either query complexity

## Step 3: Dimension reduction

use long transparent proofs for $\mathrm{NP}_{\mathbb{R}}$ to reduce array dimension while not decreasing gap too much;

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$C$ depends on two arrays $u, v \in \mathbb{R}^{s(t)}$; checking whether $C$ is satisfied by concrete assignment for ( $u, v$ ) can be expressed by algebraic circuit of size poly $(s(t))$, i.e., constant size use long transparent proofs to replace $C$ by $\operatorname{QPS}(\widehat{m}(t), K, Q, 1)$-instance, where $K$ is constant and $Q$ is the constant query complexity of a long transparent proof

## Transformation works as follows:

new constraints express what verifier expects from long transparent proof to show that circuit for $C$ accepts assignment ( $u, v$ );

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Reduction in gap factor is harmless!

## Theorem (Baartse \& M.)

The PCP theorem holds for the real Blum-Shub-Smale model, i.e.,

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\mathrm{NP}_{\mathbb{R}}=P C P_{\mathbb{R}}(O(\log n), O(1))
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The same is true for the complex BSS model:

$$
N P_{\mathbb{C}}=P C P_{\mathbb{C}}(O(\log n), O(1))
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## Final remarks

Theorem implies non-approximability result for following optimization problem:

Given a system of polynomial equations over $\mathbb{R}$, find the maximum number of equations that commonly can be satisfied.

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Given a system of polynomial equations over $\mathbb{R}$, find the maximum number of equations that commonly can be satisfied.

Existence of gap-reduction implies:
Unless $\mathrm{P}_{\mathbb{R}}=\mathrm{NP}_{\mathbb{R}}$ there is no polynomial time algorithm (in the system's size) which, given the system and an $\epsilon>0$, approximates the above maximum within a factor $1+\epsilon$.

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Currently not clear; a weaker version can be shown using
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## Theorem (M.)

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Classical proof constructs final verifier by composing long transparent proofs with low-degree proofs; needs better structure than the one sufficient to show above theorem; existence over $\mathbb{R}$ unclear.

## Thanks for your audience and

thanks again to L.M. Pardo and P. Montaña!

