## PCP and Hardness of Approximation

Aman Bansal Adwait Godbole

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## Trajectory

- Relaxations of Hard Problems
  - Approximate Problems
  - Gap Problem
  - Connection between Approximation and Gap
- A New Proof System
  - Probabilistically Checkable Proof Systems
  - Some Preliminaries
  - Proof of the PCP Theorem
- 3 Hardness of Approximation

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### Approximate Problems

Given an instance  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}$  of an NP-hard optimization problem with objective function  $Obj: \mathcal{Y} \to \mathbb{R}$  (which is to be maximized<sup>1</sup>), a solution  $\mathbf{y}$  is said to be an  $\alpha$ -approximate (for  $\alpha \leq 1$ ) solution to the instance if

$$\alpha \cdot Obj(\mathbf{y}^*) \leq Obj(\mathbf{y}) \leq Obj(\mathbf{y}^*)$$

where  $\mathbf{y}^*$  is the true (not approximated) solution to the problem instance.

<sup>1</sup>If the problem is a minimization problem then we have a slightly different definition.

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## Approximate Problems

#### $\alpha$ -approximate algorithms

An algorithm **A** is an  $\alpha$ -approximate algorithm if for all **x** in the instance space  $\mathcal{X}$ , it returns an  $\alpha$ -approximate solution **y**.

#### $\alpha$ -approximate problems

Problems that render (poly-time)  $\alpha$ -approximate algorithms are called  $\alpha$ -approximate problems.

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#### Promise Problem

A *promise* problem  $\Pi$  is specified by a pair of sets (YES, NO) such that YES, NO  $\subseteq \mathcal{X}$  and YES  $\cap$  NO  $= \Phi$ .

Any algorithm **A** solving  $\Pi$ , on input **x**, should output 'yes' if  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathsf{YES}$ , 'no' if  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathsf{NO}$  and any output if **x** is a don't care instance

Recollect the PromiseΠ problem from the midsem.

## Gap Problems

A gap problem is a promise problem parametrized by  $\alpha$  (< 1). Let P be an NP-hard optimization problem with objective function  $Obj: \mathcal{Y} \to \mathbb{R}$  (which is to be maximized), the corresponding gap problem  $gap_{\alpha}$ -P is a promise problem with (YES, NO) sets as given below:

$$YES = \{ \langle \mathbf{x}, k \rangle \mid \exists \mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{Y} \text{ such that } Obj(\mathbf{y}) \geq k \}$$
$$NO = \{ \langle \mathbf{x}, k \rangle \mid \forall \mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{Y}, Obj(\mathbf{y}) < \alpha k \}$$

Intuitively, the 'gap' refers to the interval  $(\alpha k, k)$ .

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#### Intuition

Intuitively, it seems that approximate problems and gap problems are similar.

 $\alpha\text{-approximation}$  is a relaxed variant of a search problem

 $\mathit{gap}_{\alpha}$  is a relaxed variant of a decision problem

Indeed, this notion can be formalized.



### $\alpha$ -approximate o $gap_{\alpha}$

### Connnection between $\alpha$ -approximation and $gap_{\alpha}$

For any problem P and  $0 < \alpha < 1$ ,  $\alpha$ -approximating P is at least as hard as solving  $gap_{\alpha}$ -P.

#### Proof:

Let A be an  $\alpha$ -approximate algorithm for P. The following algorithm solves  $gap_{\alpha}$ -P:

On input  $(\phi, k)$ :

- 1. Let  $k' = A(\phi)$
- 2. Accept iff  $k' \geq \alpha k$

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## Probabilistically Checkable Proof System

### (r, q, m, t)-restricted Verifier

Let  $r,q,m,t:\mathbb{N}\to\mathbb{N}$ . A language  $\mathsf{L}\in PCP_{c,s}[r,q,m,t]$  if  $\mathsf{L}$  has an (r,q,m,t) restricted verifier V such that

$$\forall x \in L, \exists \pi \text{ of size at most } m(|x|), Pr_R[V^{\pi}[x; R] = acc] \ge c(|x|)$$
  
 $\forall x \notin L, \forall \pi \text{ of size at most } m(|x|), Pr_R[V^{\pi}[x; R] = acc] < s(|x|)$ 

#### Resource bounds

- 1. r(|x|) is a bound on randomness used by V
- 2. q(|x|) is a bound on the number of locations queried by V
- 3. m(|x|) is a bound the length of the proof to which V has oracle access
- 4. t(|x|) is a bound on the runtime of V

### Completeness and Soundness constraints

c(|x|) and s(|x|) are the completeness and soundness specifications

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#### Remarks

- The verifier could be adaptive or non-adaptive
- If the verifier is non-adaptive then  $m(n) \le q(n) \cdot 2^{r(n)}$
- $q(n) \leq t(n)$
- $PCP_{c,s}[r,q] \subseteq NTIME(q(n) \cdot 2^{r(n)})$
- $NP = PCP_{1,0}[0, poly(n)]$
- $BPP = PCP_{\frac{2}{3},\frac{1}{3}}[poly(n),0]$



### PCP Theorem

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#### **PCP** Theorem

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$$\mathit{NP} = \mathit{PCP}_{1,\frac{1}{2}}[\mathit{log}(\mathit{n}),1]$$

We will today present a weaker version of the PCP theorem.

### PCP Theorem [Weaker]

$$NP = PCP_{1,\frac{1}{2}}[poly(n), 1]$$



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### Subset XOR

Consider the function  $f_{\mathbf{u}}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x} \odot \mathbf{u}$ .

Here for  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \{0,1\}^n, \mathbf{x} \odot \mathbf{y} = \sum_i \mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{y}_i \pmod{2}$ .



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Note that  $f_{\mathbf{u}}$  is equivalent to choosing a subset (given by  $\mathbf{u}$ ) of elements from [n] and evaluating parity over this subset.



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#### Random Subsum Principle

For  $\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}\in\{0,1\}^n$  with  $\mathbf{y}\neq 0^n$ ,  $Pr_{\mathbf{x}\in\{0,1\}^n}[\mathbf{x}\odot\mathbf{y}=1]=\frac{1}{2}$ 



#### Walsh-Hadamard Code

Main Idea: Bit strings  $\mathbf{u} \in \{0,1\}^n$  are encoded as the truth table of a *linear* function over  $F_2$ 

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#### WH encoding

For an *n*-bit string  $\mathbf{u} \in \{0,1\}^n$ ,  $\mathrm{WH}(\mathbf{u})$  is the  $2^n$  bit string representing the truth table of the function  $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x} \odot \mathbf{u}$  for  $\mathbf{x} \in \{0,1\}^n$ .

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#### Walsh-Hadamard codeword

 $f \in \{0,1\}^{2^n}$  such that  $f = WH(\mathbf{u})$  for some  $\mathbf{u} \in \{0,1\}^n$ .

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EC *Error correcting* with minimum distance  $\frac{1}{2}$ . This means that for  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in_R \{0,1\}^n$  with  $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{y}$ ,  $\mathrm{WH}(\mathbf{x})$  and  $\mathrm{WH}(\mathbf{y})$  differ in 1/2 the bits.

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- LIN Linearity of  $WH(\mathbf{u})$   $f=WH(\mathbf{u})$  when viewed as a function from  $\{0,1\}^n$  to  $\{0,1\}$  is in fact linear (over  $\mathbf{F}_2$ )

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- LIN Linearity of WH(u) f = WH(u) when viewed as a function from  $\{0,1\}^n$  to  $\{0,1\}$  is in fact linear (over  $\mathbf{F}_2$ )
- LT Locally Testable Given access to a function  $f:\{0,1\}^n \to \{0,1\}$ , we can check whether it is a Walsh-Hadamard code-word by querying a constant number of places.

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- LT Locally Testable Given access to a function  $f:\{0,1\}^n \to \{0,1\}$ , we can check whether it is a Walsh-Hadamard code-word by querying a constant number of places.
- LD Locally Decodable Given f and an  $\mathbf{x} \in \{0,1\}^n$ , we can find  $\tilde{f}(\mathbf{x})$  in constant queries to f, where  $\tilde{f}$  is the true codeword.

### LT: Local Testability

LIN: WH( $\mathbf{u}$ ) for  $\mathbf{u} \in \{0,1\}^n$  captures all *n*-bit linear functions on  $\mathbf{F}_2$ .

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#### $\rho$ -closeness of functions

Functions f, g are  $\rho$ -close if  $Pr_{\mathbf{x} \in_R \{0,1\}^n} [f(\mathbf{x}) = g(\mathbf{x})] \ge \rho$ .

A function f is  $\rho$ -close to a linear function if there exists a linear function g such that f and g are  $\rho$ -close

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A function f is  $\rho$ -close to a linear function if there exists a linear function g such that f and g are  $\rho$ -close

Let f be such that

$$Pr_{\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}\in_{R}\{0,1\}^{n}}[f(\mathbf{x}+\mathbf{y})=f(\mathbf{x})+f(\mathbf{y})]\geq\rho$$

for some  $\rho>\frac{1}{2}.$  Then f is  $\rho\text{-close}$  to a linear function.

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EC: For  $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{y}$ ,  $\mathrm{WH}(\mathbf{x})$  and  $\mathrm{WH}(\mathbf{y})$  differ in 1/2 the bits

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Let f be  $(1-\delta)$ -close to a linear function  $\tilde{f}$  for some  $\delta < 1/4$ . Then by EC, f uniquely determines  $\tilde{f}$ .

EC: For  $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{y}$ , WH( $\mathbf{x}$ ) and WH( $\mathbf{y}$ ) differ in 1/2 the bits

Let f be  $(1 - \delta)$ -close to a linear function  $\tilde{f}$  for some  $\delta < 1/4$ . Then by EC, f uniquely determines  $\tilde{f}$ .

So, given a (possibly illegal) f, having a corresponding  $\tilde{f}$ , we want to find  $\tilde{f}(\mathbf{x})$ . Here we have oracle access only to f. The idea is to once again use randomness.

Objective: With oracle access only to f, given an  $\mathbf{x} \in \{0,1\}^n$ , find  $\tilde{f}(\mathbf{x})$ . The idea is to use randomness and linearity.

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- Choose  $\mathbf{x}' \in_R \{0,1\}^n$
- Set  $\mathbf{x}'' \leftarrow \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{x}'$
- Let  $\mathbf{y}' = f(\mathbf{x}')$  and  $\mathbf{y}'' = f(\mathbf{x}'')$
- $\bullet \ \mathsf{Output} \ \boldsymbol{y}' + \boldsymbol{y}''$

### LD: Local Decodability

Objective: With oracle access only to f, given an  $\mathbf{x} \in \{0,1\}^n$ , find  $\tilde{f}(\mathbf{x})$ . The idea is to use randomness and linearity.

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- Set  $\mathbf{x}'' \leftarrow \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{x}'$
- Let  $\mathbf{y}' = f(\mathbf{x}')$  and  $\mathbf{y}'' = f(\mathbf{x}'')$
- $\bullet \ \mathsf{Output} \ \boldsymbol{y}' + \boldsymbol{y}''$

With probability at least  $1 - 2\delta$  we have  $\mathbf{y}' = f(\mathbf{x}')$  and  $\mathbf{y}'' = f(\mathbf{x}'')$  and hence  $\tilde{f}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{y}' + \mathbf{y}''$ .

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#### PCP Theorem [Weaker]

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We show that QUADEQ - the satisfiability problem for quadratic equations over  $\mathbf{F}_2$  - has a PCP[poly(n), 1] proof system

QUADEQ over variables  $u_1, u_2, \cdots, u_n$  is is of the form AU = b, where A is an  $m \times n^2$  matrix and  $b \in \{0,1\}^m$ .  $U = \mathbf{u} \otimes \mathbf{u}$  is the tensor product (or the Hadamard product).

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#### Claim

QUADEQ, the language of all satisfiable instances is NP-complete

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#### $\pi$ and ${\cal V}$

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 $\pi$  The proof is  $\langle WH(\mathbf{u}), WH(\mathbf{u} \otimes \mathbf{u}) \rangle$ 



#### $\pi$ and ${\cal V}$

What is the proof  $\pi$  and what does the verifier  $\mathcal V$  do?

- $\pi$  The proof is  $\langle WH(\mathbf{u}), WH(\mathbf{u} \otimes \mathbf{u}) \rangle$
- $\mathcal V$  Denote the proof by  $f=\mathrm{WH}(\mathbf u)$  and  $g=\mathrm{WH}(\mathbf u\otimes \mathbf u)$ . The verifier does the following
  - 1) Check linearity of f and g
  - 2) Verify that g encodes  $\mathbf{u} \otimes \mathbf{u}$
  - 3) Verify that f encodes a satisfying assignment



# Check linearity of f and g

Note that 
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 $\mathcal{V}$  performs a 0.99-close (high-probability) linearity test on both f and g. This is done by the LT property described earlier.

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 $\mathcal V$  performs a 0.99-close (high-probability) linearity test on both f and g. This is done by the LT property described earlier.

Note crucially that a high but nevertheless constant closeness suffices. This is since we eventually plan to query  $\pi$  at only a small constant number of points.

## Verify that g encodes $\mathbf{u} \otimes \mathbf{u}$

 $\mathcal{V}$  chooses  $\mathbf{r}$ ,  $\mathbf{r}'$  independently at random from  $\{0,1\}^n$  and assert that  $f(\mathbf{r})f(\mathbf{r}')=g(\mathbf{r}\otimes\mathbf{r}')$ .



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Let W be an  $n \times n$  matrix representing the entries of  $\mathbf{w}$  and U be such a matrix for  $\mathbf{u} \otimes \mathbf{u}$ . Then

- 1.  $g(\mathbf{r} \oplus \mathbf{r}') = \mathbf{w} \odot (\mathbf{r} \otimes \mathbf{r}') = \mathbf{r} W \mathbf{r}'$
- 2.  $f(\mathbf{r})f(\mathbf{r}') = (\mathbf{u} \odot \mathbf{r})(\mathbf{u} \odot \mathbf{r}') = \mathbf{r}U\mathbf{r}'$

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By the random subsum principle, we claim this test rejects atleast 1/4 of the time on instances where  $\mathbf{w} \neq \mathbf{u} \otimes \mathbf{u}$ . Repeating this 3 times, we get probability of rejection as 37/64.

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Now we are assured that the form of  $\pi$  is  $\langle WH(\mathbf{u}), WH(\mathbf{u} \otimes \mathbf{u}) \rangle$  for some  $\mathbf{u} \in \{0, 1\}^n$ .

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- 2 Wonderfully, we also have O(1) access to  $A_i \cdot (\mathbf{u} \otimes \mathbf{u})$ , the value of the  $i^{th}$  equation in the QUADEQ instance and can match it with  $b_i$ .

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But but but ... how do we check all the m equations of the QUADEQ instance in constant number of queries?  $\odot$ 

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But but but ... how do we check all the m equations of the QUADEQ instance in constant number of queries?  $\odot$ 

Use the random subsum principle AGAIN! Choose a subset of equations randomly from [k] and add them together to create a new quadratic equation. If  ${\bf u}$  did not satisfy even one equation of the original system, it will not satisfy the new equation with probability at least 1/2.

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#### **QED**

With this, we have proved that  $NP \subseteq PCP[poly(n), 1]$ . The other direction is trivial.

The stronger theorem makes further observations regarding the form of the proof  $\pi$  given here. Then it uses further results such as gap amplification and alphabet reduction to prove the general statement NP = PCP(log(n), 1).



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#### A Sad Result

 $gap_{\alpha}$ -MAX3SAT is NP-hard

Just as SAT captured the essence of hardness of exact solution,  $gap_{\alpha}$ -MAX3SAT, or it's more general formulation, qCSP, captures the essence of hardness of approximation

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#### Proof Method

PCP Theorem  $\implies gap_{\alpha}$ -MAX3SAT is NP-hard

Proof: Consider any  $L \in PCP_{1,\frac{1}{2}}[c \cdot log(n), Q]$ . The idea is to encode the Verifier's possible actions by a Boolean formula  $\Psi$ .

$$\Psi = \bigwedge_{coins} h_R$$

But  $h_r$  is an arbitrary predicate over Q variables.

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#### Fact

 $\forall q, \exists l(q), k(q)$  such that any q-ary Boolean function h can be encoded by a 3-CNF formula  $\psi_h$  with k(q) clauses over q + l(q) variables  $x_1, \ldots, x_q, z_1, \ldots, z_l(q)$  such that

$$h(x) = 1 \implies \exists z, \psi_h(x, z) = 1$$

$$h(x) = 0 \implies \forall z, \psi_h(x, z) = 0$$

$$\Psi = \bigwedge_{coins\ R} \psi_{h_R}$$

- 1. If  $x \in L$  then  $\exists$  proof  $\pi$  such that  $\forall R, h_R(\pi) = 1$
- 2. If  $x \notin L$  then at least  $\frac{1}{2}$  choices of R accept make  $h_R(\pi) = 0$ . If the total number of clauses are M (  $= 2^R k(q)$ ) then maximum fraction of clauses that can be satisfied is  $(1 \frac{1}{k})$ .

This proves that PCP-theorem leads to the hardness of  $gap_{\alpha}$ -MAX3SAT which in turn as presented earlier leads to NP-hardness of  $\alpha$ -approximating MAX3SAT.

#### References

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