### Approximation hardness via Gap Reduction and PCP

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### We will look...

- What Optimization problem is
- Approximation algorithms
- Gap problems and Gap reduction
- PCP machinery
  - what is PCP?
  - Hard-to-Approximate problems that can be proved by PCP machinery

### Optimization problem

#### Definition

An optimization problem consists of the following:

- Set of instances of the problem (e.g. set of graphs for 3COL)
- For each instance: the set of possible solutions(e.g. the set of 3-coloring for graph instance)
- For each solution: a nonnegative weight(cost for min-problem, benefit for max-problem)
- An objective: either min or max(e.g. min in TSP, max in knapsack)

Goal of an optimization problem is to find a solution which achieves the objective (minimize cost / maximize benefit)

# Approximation Algorithms

#### Definition

For an optimization problem A and an instance x,  $\mathbf{OPT}(\mathbf{x})$  is the weight of the best solution (minimum cost for min-problem / maximum benefit for max-problem)

#### **Definition**

- Let A be a min-problem. algorithm alg is a **c-approximation** algorithm for A if for all valid instances x,  $alg(x) \le c \cdot OPT(x)$ .
- Let A be a max-problem. algorithm alg is a **c-approximation** algorithm for A if for all valid instances x,  $OPT(x) \leq c \cdot alg(x)$ .

# Examples of Approximation Algorithms

There are several approximation algorithms:

- $\frac{3}{2}$ -approximation algorithm for Euclidean TSP
- $\frac{8}{7}$ -approximation algorithm for MAX 3SAT. Note that the algorithm find a solution that satisfies at least  $\frac{7}{8} \cdot OPT(x)$  clauses, but it is a  $\frac{8}{7}$ -approximation algorithm, not  $\frac{7}{8}$ -approximation algorithm.

#### **PTAS**

#### Definition

Let A be a min-problem. A **polynomial time approximation** scheme(PTAS) for A is a polynomial time algorithm that takes as input  $(x,\epsilon)$  (x is an instance of A,  $\epsilon>0$  is a real number) and ouputs a solution that has weight  $\leq (1+\epsilon)OPT(x)$ .

Above definition is applied to max-problem in the same way.

### Complexity classes

#### Definition

Assume that A be a min-problem.

- PTAS: set of all problems where PTAS exists.
- APX:  $A \in APX$  if there is a constant  $c \ge 1$  and a poly-time algorithm M such that  $M(x) \le c \cdot OPT(x)$
- Log-APX:  $A \in \text{Log-APX}$  if there is a constant c > 0 and a poly-time algorithm M such that  $M(x) \le c \log |x| \cdot OPT(x)$
- **Poly-APX**:  $A \in APX$  if there is a polynomial p and a poly-time algorithm M such that  $M(x) \leq p(|x|) \cdot OPT(x)$

Above definition is applied to max-problem in the same way. We will use both symbol n and |x| for denoting size of input x.

### Examples

- Euclidean TSP  $\in$  APX since there is a  $\frac{3}{2}$ -approximation. In fact, Euclidean TSP  $\in$  PTAS.
- MAX 3SAT  $\in$  APX.

### Basic Hard-to-Approximate Problems

Assuming  $P \neq NP$ , then the followings hold:

- TSP ∉ Poly-APX.
- CLIQUE  $\in$  Poly-APX \ Log-APX.
- SET COVER  $\in$  Log-APX \ APX.
- MAX-3SAT  $\in$  APX  $\setminus$  PTAS.

Therefore,  $PTAS \subsetneq APX \subsetneq Log-APX \subsetneq Poly-APX$ .

# TSP is hard to approximate

#### Theorem

If  $TSP \in Poly-APX$ , then P=NP.

Since HAM-CYCLE is NP-Complete, it is enough to show TSP  $\in$  Poly-APX implies HAM-CYCLE is in P.

Assume that TSP  $\in$  Poly-APX. Then there is a poly-time algorithm M for TSP and polynomial p such that  $M(x) \leq p(|x|) \cdot OPT(x)$ . For instance of HAM-CYCLE G = (V, E), create instance of TSP G'

such that:

- if  $e \in E$ , then give e weight 1.
- If  $e \notin E$ , then give e weight np(n) + 1.

# TSP is hard to approximate

- if  $G \in \mathsf{HAM}\text{-CYCLE}$ ,  $M(G') \le p(n)OPT(G') = np(n)$
- if  $G \notin \mathsf{HAM}\text{-CYCLE}$ ,  $M(G') \ge OPT(G') \ge np(n) + 1$

so we can determine whether  $G \in \mathsf{HAM}\text{-CYCLE}$  or not, by running algorithm M on G'. Since M is poly-time algorithm for number of vertices n of G, it implies  $\mathsf{HAM}\text{-CYCLE} \in \mathsf{P}$ .

Since HAM-CYCLE  $\in$  NP-Complete, P=NP.

### Gap problem

Let g be a max-problem (e.g. MAX 2SAT). Let a(n), b(n) be functions from  $\mathbb N$  to  $\mathbb N$  such that b(n) < a(n). Then:

#### Definition

 $\mathsf{GAP}(g, a(n), b(n))$ 

Instance: y which is guaranteed that  $g(y) \ge a(|y|)$  or  $g(y) \le b(|y|)$ .

Question: Determine which is the case.

### Gap Lemma

Let A be NP-hard.

#### Lemma

If there exists a poly-time reduction that maps x to y such that

- If  $x \in A$  then  $g(y) \ge a(|y|)$
- If  $x \notin A$  then  $g(y) \leq b(|y|)$

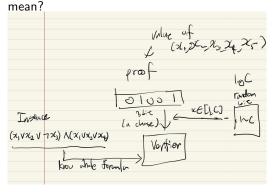
Then,

- GAP(g, a(n), b(n)) is NP-Hard
- If there is  $\frac{a(n)}{b(n)}$ -approximation poly-time algorithm for g, then P=NP.

The proof is straightforward using the same technique we used for proving TSP  $\in$  Poly APX implies P=NP.

PCP is hard to understand by definition, so I will introduce PCP using an example of 3SAT.

3SAT  $\in$  PCP $(\log C, 3, \frac{C-1}{C})$  where C is number clauses. What does this



3SAT  $\in$  PCP $(\log C, 3, \frac{C-1}{C})$  where C is number clauses. What does this mean?

- There is an instance(formula)  $\varphi$ , prover, verifier.
- A prover can submit an arbitrary evidence. Let the evidence as an assignment (values of  $x_1, ..., x_n$ ).
- Verifier rolls the dice and get  $\log C$ -bit random string. it is equivalent to a random number c from 1 to C.
- verifier see the instance (boolean formula) and verify that c-th clause is TRUE by read at most 3 variables of evidence.
- verifier accepts for prob 1 when the evidence is a solution. Otherwise, verifier accepts for prob  $\leq \frac{C-1}{C}$ .

Therefore, 3SAT  $\in \mathsf{PCP}(\log C, 3, \frac{C-1}{C})$ 

 $A \in \mathsf{PCP} \big( r(n), q(n), \epsilon(n) \big)$  iff:

- ullet Given x, an instance of A. And There is a prover and a verifier.
- A prover can submit an arbitrary evidence.
- Verifier can read both instance and part of evidence and have to decide to accept or not, in poly-time.
- Verifier can access a r(n)-bit random string, which is equivalent to a random number between 1 and  $2^{r(n)}$ .
- Verifier can only read q(n) bits of evidence. Verifier can decide the position of bits using above random string.
- If  $x \in A$ , there is an evidence y such that verifer always accepts.
- If  $x \notin A$ , acceptance rate should be at most  $\epsilon(n)$  for every evidence.

#### Some Facts

- SAT  $\in$  PCP(0, n, 0). It can be achieved by evidence of n variables and checking by read all n variables.
- Some books omit  $\epsilon(n)$  when  $\epsilon(n)=\frac{1}{2}$ . That is,  $\mathsf{PCP}(r(n),q(n))=\mathsf{PCP}(r(n),q(n),\frac{1}{2})$ ,
- PCP(0, poly(n), 0) = NP (by definition)
- $PCP(O(\log n), O(1), \frac{1}{2}) = NP$  (the PCP theorem)
- SAT  $\in \mathsf{PCP}(O(\log n), O(\log n), \frac{1}{n})$

Note: Definition of PCP in the book use the concept of **Oracle Turing Machine-bit access** and slightly different from prover-verifier scheme.

# Problems that hard to approximate

In previous slides, we saw that  $P \neq NP$  implies followings:

- TSP ∉ Poly-APX.
- CLIQUE  $\in$  Poly-APX \ Log-APX.
- SET COVER  $\in$  Log-APX \ APX.
- MAX-3SAT  $\in$  APX  $\setminus$  PTAS.

Using PCP theorem, we can prove them.

# CLIQUE is hard to approximate

#### Proof is composed of following steps:

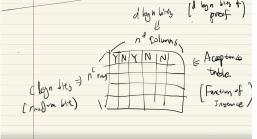
- There is an poly-time algorithm for CLIQUE which guarantees poly-scale approximation. Hence CLIQUE Poly-APX (Fei04)
- Let A be a NP-Complete problem s.t.  $A \in PCP(c \log n, d \log n, \frac{1}{n})$  for some c, d. There is a reduction that maps x (|x| = n) to a graph G on  $N = n^{c+d}$  vertices such that:
  - If  $x \in A$  then  $OPT(G) \ge n^c = N^{c/(c+d)}$
  - If  $x \notin A$  then  $OPT(G) \le n^{c-1} = N^{(c-1)/(c+d)}$
- If there is approximation algorithm for CLIQUE s.t. returns a clique of size at least  $OPT(G)/N^{1/(c+d)}$ , then P=NP. (Gap Lemma)
- Assuming  $P \neq NP$ ,  $CLIQUE \in Poly-APX Log-APX$

Only the second step is not trivial. Let's see about it.



# CLIQUE is hard to approximate

First, SAT  $\in PCP(O(\log n), O(\log n), \frac{1}{n})$  so c, d exists. Think of a verifier as a function of instance, then it can be seen as a table.



Connect (r1,c1) and (r2,c2) iff  $r1 \neq r2$  and (c1,c2) are not contradicting. Since  $\epsilon(n)=1/n$ , there is no clique of size n(c-1) if  $x \notin A$ . Therefore, step 2 is proved.

# Thank you!