#### CAS CS 535: Complexity Theory

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## Lecture Notes 23:

## **PCP** Theorem, Hardness of Approximation

### Reading.

• Arora-Barak § 11.1-11.3

Last time: IP = PSPACE

# **1** The PCP Theorem

In a traditional **NP** proof, the verifier generally needs to read the entire certificate to be convinced of the statement  $x \in L$ . For example, to verify that  $\varphi \in SAT$ , one generally needs to check all of the bits of an alleged satisfying assignment. When can a (probabilistic) verifier get away with only spot-checking a few random bits of a certificate?

**Theorem 1** (PCP Theorem (Informal)). Every language in NP has a probabilistic verifier that reads only O(1) bits of its certificate, and is convinced with high probability.

Let us introduce some definitions to make this statement precise. We'll model a certificate  $\pi$  as an oracle, which can be nonadaptively queried by writing a sequence of indices  $i_1, \ldots, i_q$  to the oracle tape, and receiving the bit values  $\pi[i_1], \ldots, \pi[i_q]$  as answers.

**Definition 2.** For functions  $r, q : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$ , we say a language  $L \in \mathbf{PCP}(r(n), q(n))$  if there exists a probabilistic poly-time oracle TM V with the following properties:

**Completeness:**  $x \in L \implies \exists \pi \Pr[V^{\pi}(x) = 1] = 1$ 

**Soundness:**  $x \notin L \implies \forall \pi \Pr[V^{\pi}(x) = 1] \leq 1/2$ 

Efficiency: V uses O(r(|x|)) random coin tosses and makes O(q(|x|)) non-adaptive queries to  $\pi$ .

#### **Comments on the Definition:**

- We can assume  $|\pi| \le 2^{O(r(n))} \cdot q(n)$ , since the verifier can only access this many distinct bits of the certificate.
- As usual, we can amplify soundness to  $2^{-c}$  by repeating verification c times with fresh randomness.
- When q is small (constant), the restriction to non-adaptive queries doesn't make much of a difference, since q adaptive queries can be simulated by  $2^q$  nonadaptive queries. Most positive results about PCP systems use nonadaptive verifiers.

**Theorem 3** (PCP Theorem).  $NP = PCP(\log n, 1)$ .

Why is the PCP Theorem nontrivial? Consider the following attempt to construct a probabilistic verifier for SAT. Given an instance  $\varphi$  and  $\pi$  representing a satisfying assignment:

- 1. Sample q random bits of  $\pi$
- 2. Reject if the sampled bits violate some clause of  $\varphi$ , and accept otherwise.

This has perfect completeness, but it fails soundness badly. For example, if  $\varphi(x_1, \ldots, x_n) = x_1 \wedge \overline{x_1}$ , then the verifier rejects only if it happens to sample  $\pi[1]$ .

# **1.1 Proof that** $PCP(\log n, 1) \subseteq NP$

We'll actually show the stronger statement that  $\mathbf{PCP}(r,q) \subseteq \mathbf{NTIME}(2^{O(r)} \cdot q)$ . To see this, let  $L \in \mathbf{PCP}(r,q)$  with verifier V. Consider the following nondeterministic TM deciding L:

- Nondeterministically guess  $\pi$  of length  $2^{O(r(n))q(n)}$
- Run  $V^{\pi}(x)$  using all  $2^{O(r(n))}$  possible choices of its coin tosses, and accept iff all runs accept.

The opposite containment  $NP \subseteq PCP(\log n, 1)$  is a deep theorem that would take us a few weeks to cover. (See Chapter 22 of Arora-Barak.) We'll prove a weaker version on Tuesday that illustrates some of the main ideas.

# **1.2** Motivations for PCPs

The PCP Theorem and related results give us:

- New characterizations of NP and NEXP
- Outsourcing computation: A server can convince a client of the outcome of a computation with a proof where the verifier needs to check only a few random bits.
- Cryptographic applications: PCPs can be combined with cryptographic tools to yield short noninteractive proofs (or "arguments") that can be stored on blockchains and such.
- Philosophy of math: Every mathematical theorem with an efficiently checkable proof also has one that can be probabilistically verified by checking only 3 lines.
- Many NP-hard problems are similarly hard even to approximate.

# 2 Hardness of Approximation

Let us recall the notion of **NP** optimization problems (from HW2). Let f(x, y) be a poly-time computable objective function. Given an input x, the goal is to compute  $\operatorname{argmax}_y f(x, y)$ .

**Example 4.** MAX3SAT: Given 3CNF  $\varphi = C_1 \wedge C_2 \wedge \cdots \wedge C_m$  with *n* variables and *m* clauses, output an assignment *y* that satisfies as many clauses as possible, i.e.,

$$\operatorname{argmax}_{y \in \{0,1\}^n} \sum_{i=1}^m C_i(y) =: \operatorname{val}(\varphi).$$

**Example 5.** MAXINDSET: Given a graph G, output a largest independent set.

**Example 6.** MAXqCSP: Generalizes MAX3SAT, but each "clause"  $C_i$  can instead be an arbitrary Boolean function on q input variables.

The decision versions of all of these problems are NP-complete, so  $P \neq NP$  implies no poly-time algorithms for (exactly) solving any of these problems.

#### 2.1 Approximation Algorithms

**Definition 7.** A  $\rho$ -approximation algorithm for a maximization problem outputs  $\hat{y}$  such that

$$f(x, \hat{y}) \ge \rho \cdot \operatorname{val}(x) := \rho \cdot \max_{y} f(x, y).$$

**Example 8.** MAX3SAT has an efficient (7/8)-approximation.

Randomized algorithm: A uniformly random assignment y satisfies:

$$\mathbb{E}_y\left[\sum_{i=1}^m C_i(y)\right] = \sum_{i=1}^m \Pr[C_i(y) = 1] = m \cdot \frac{7}{8} \ge \frac{7}{8} \cdot \operatorname{val}(\varphi).$$

This algorithm can be efficiently derandomized using the "method of conditional expectations."

Using advanced PCP technology, Håstad showed this is optimal:

**Theorem 9.** For every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , if there is a poly-time  $(7/8 + \varepsilon)$ -approximation to MAX3SAT, then  $\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{NP}$ .

#### 2.2 PCPs vs. Hardness of Approximation

The "standard" PCP theorem we stated has a completely <u>equivalent</u> interpretation in terms of hardness of approximation. To state this equivalence, let us define a decisional (promise) version of the MAXqCSP problem.

Recall that a qCSP instance  $\varphi$  is a collection of functions  $C_1, \ldots, C_m$  (called constraints) such that each  $C_i$  depends on at most q variables. The value of the instance is the maximum number of constraints that can be simultaneously satisfied:

$$\operatorname{val}(\varphi) = \max_{y \in \{0,1\}^n} \sum_{i=1}^m C_i(y).$$

**Definition 10.** For  $q \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $\rho \in (0, 1]$ , define the promise problem  $\mathsf{Gap}_{\rho}\mathsf{MAXqCSP}$  by

$$\begin{split} (\mathsf{Gap}_{\rho}\mathsf{MAXqCSP})_Y &= \{\varphi \mid \mathrm{val}(\varphi) = m\}\\ (\mathsf{Gap}_{\rho}\mathsf{MAXqCSP})_N &= \{\varphi \mid \mathrm{val}(\varphi) \leq \rho m\}. \end{split}$$

**Theorem 11.**  $\mathbf{NP} = \mathbf{PCP}(\log n, 1) \iff$  *There exist constants*  $\rho, q$  *such that*  $\mathsf{Gap}_{\rho}\mathsf{MAXqCSP}$  *is*  $\mathbf{NP}$ *-hard.* 

*Proof.* For the "only if" direction, suppose a language  $L \in \mathbf{NP}$  has a PCP verifier V making q queries using  $c \log n$  coin tosses. We'll reduce L to  $\mathsf{Gap}_{1/2}\mathsf{MAXqCSP}$  as follows. Given an input x, construct a qCSP instance  $\varphi$  with the following correspondence:

Bits of the proof  $\pi \mapsto$  input variables to  $\varphi$ 

Sequences of random coin tosses  $r \in \{0, 1\}^{c \log n} \mapsto$  indices of constraints in  $\varphi$ Number of possible random strings  $m = 2^{c \log n} = n^c \mapsto$  number of constraints. We set  $\varphi = \{C_r\}_{r \in \{0,1\}^{c \log n}}$  where

$$C_r(\pi) = V^{\pi}(x; r).$$

That is, constraint  $C_r$  is satisfied iff the verifier accepts the proof  $\pi$  using randomness is r.

This is a qCSP because, for every r, the verifier reads at most q bits of the proof  $\pi$ . So each  $C_r$  can only depend on at most q bits of  $\pi$ .

Moreover, the reduction runs in polynomial time because each execution of V does, and because there are at most  $m = n^c$  constraints that need to be generated.

Finally, to prove correctness, we check:

$$\begin{aligned} x \in L \implies \exists \pi \Pr_{r \leftarrow \{0,1\}^{c \log n}} [V^{\pi}(x;r) = 1] &= 1 \\ \implies \exists \pi \sum_{r \in \{0,1\}^{c \log n}} C_r(\pi) = m \\ \implies \exists \pi \operatorname{val}(\varphi) = m \implies \varphi \in (\mathsf{Gap}_{1/2}\mathsf{MAXqCSP})_Y \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} x \notin L \implies \forall \pi \Pr_{r \leftarrow \{0,1\}^{c \log n}} [V^{\pi}(x;r) = 1] \leq 1/2 \\ \implies \forall \pi \operatorname{val}(\varphi) \leq \frac{m}{2} \implies \varphi \in (\mathsf{Gap}_{\rho}\mathsf{MAXqCSP})_N. \end{aligned}$$

Now for the "if" direction, suppose  $\text{Gap}_{\rho}MAXqCSP$  is NP-hard. Let  $L \in NP$ , with poly-time computable f computing the reduction. We give a PCP system for L as follows.

On input x, the verifier computes f(x) to obtain a qCSP instance  $\varphi = \{C_i\}_{i=1}^m$ . It expects the proof  $\pi$  to be a satisfying assignment to  $\varphi$ . To verify the proof,  $V^{\pi}(x)$  samples a random constraint *i*, and accepts iff  $C_i(\pi) = 1$ . This all takes polynomial time. We check:

Completeness: If  $x \in L$ , then val $(\varphi) = 1$ , so there exists  $\pi$  such that  $\Pr[V^{\pi}(x) = 1] = 1$ .

<u>Soundness</u>: If  $x \notin L$ , then val $(\varphi) \leq \rho$ , so for every  $\pi$ , we have  $\Pr[V^{\pi}(x) = 1] \leq \rho$ . (This can be amplified to the constant 1/2 by repetition.)

Queries: The verifier makes q = O(1) queries to  $\pi$ .

<u>Randomness.</u> The verifier samples a single random constraint, which takes  $O(\log m) = O(\log n)$  bits.