Probabilistically Checkable Proofs

Irit Dinur

The Weizmann Institute of Science

September 14, 2010

A motivating story

- Common wisdom: to check a proof you need to read it
- Why bother? instead-
 - Ask for the proof to be supplied in PCP format
 - Check randomly by reading only 3 bits.
 Probability of error, i.e. of accepting a bad proof, is at most 1/2.
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"The PCP Theorem"

There is such a format.

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Theorems and Proofs, Problems and Solutions

- What is a mathematical proof?
- Anything that can be verified by a *rigorous* procedure, i.e., an algorithm
- More generally,

 The difference between a theorem and its proof, is how long it takes to verify it's correctness

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Linear Equations LINEQ

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Input: A system of linear equations (over a finite field):

$$x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = 0,$$

 $x_1 + x_6 - x_2 + x_{90} = 1$
 \vdots

Algorithmic goal: Decide if there is a solution to all of the equations

Complexity: easy, by Gaussian elimination

But, "overdetermined" version is hard...

Note:

 Algorithm's efficiency is measured as a function of the input length. Polynomial = good, Exponential = bad.

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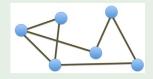
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Graph 3 Colorability (3*COL*)

3-Coloring a graph



Input: A graph G = (V, E)

Algorithmic goal: Decide if there is a 3-coloring, i.e., a mapping

 $c: V \rightarrow \{1,2,3\}$ such that every edge has differently colored

endpoints

Complexity: hard to solve, but easy to check proof

Proof: A 3-coloring.

Definition (Computational Problem

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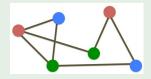
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 P is the class of efficiently decidable problems
 e.g. linear equations
- NP = (non-deterministically polynomial time)
 NP is the class of problems with efficiently checkable solutions
 e.g. 3-coloring, max-clique, ...
- P ≠ NP: \$1 Million Question: is discovering a proof as easy as checking it?
- 3-coloring is "the hardest problem in NP" (aka NP-hard)

Theorem

If 3-coloring is in P then P = NP.

To understand NP, enough to study the 3-coloring problem.

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Irit Dinur (Weizmann)

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Part II - The PCP Theorem

Arora-Safra, Arora-Lund-Motwani-Sudan-Szegedy 1991

The NP verifier (Definition)

Every problem $A \in NP$ has an efficient verifier V, that reads

- ullet the input string au and some randomness
- ullet a constant number of bits from the proof string π

- Completeness: If $\tau \in A$ then there is a proof that V accepts with probability 1.
- Soundness: If $\tau \notin A$ then for every π V rejects.
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The "natural" 3-Coloring verifier reads the coloring

$$c(v_1) = 1, c(v_2) = 2, \dots$$

and then checks edge-by-edge that endpoints have different colors.



What will the PCP verifier look like?

- Naive attempt: Choose a random edge, read the colors of its endpoints, and accept if true
- Fails! a non 3-colorable graph may have a 3 coloring with as few as only one monochromatic edge.
- Instead: encode the "standard" proof into a "PCP" proof, spreading out the bugs.

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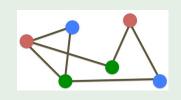


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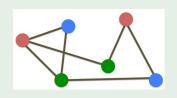


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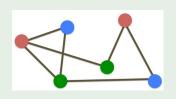


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The PCP Theorem - blind-folded jam spreading

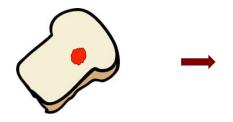
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The PCP Theorem & Inapproximability

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- [Feige-Goldwasser-Lovász-Safra-Szegedy, 1990]
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- Throughout 70's-80's: many problems discovered to be NP-hard
- Natural to seek approximate solutions. (Almost no known lower bounds)

Optimization

- Max-LIN: satisfy the largest number of equations.
- Max-3COL: color the vertices with 3 colors, maximizing number of two-colored edges.

Both these problems are NP-hard (yes, even Max-LIN!)

Approximation

- satisfy at least $\geq \alpha \cdot OPT$ equations

Complexity: depends on the problem, and on α

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Hardness of Approximation

Claim:

If there is an efficient algorithm that maps a graph G to a graph G' such that:

Yes: If
$$OPT(G) = 1$$
, then $OPT(G') = 1$

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Then, Max-3COL is NP-hard to 0.99-approximate.

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This is a "gap amplifying reduction":







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Claim:

Such a reduction implies the PCP theorem.

The PCP Theorem (1) – original formulation

There is an efficient verifier for 3-coloring that reads: the input G, randomness r, and then a constant number of bits from the proof, such that

Yes: If G is 3-colorable, then $Pr_r[V \text{ accepts}] = 1$

No: If *G* is not 3-colorable, then $\Pr_r[V \text{ accepts}] \leq \frac{1}{2}$.

The PCP Theorem (2) – second formulation

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- Read the input G, compute G'.
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- $(1) \Longrightarrow (2)$: exercise.

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To prove $(2) \Longrightarrow (1)$ we present a PCP verifier for 3-coloring:

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- For example, Max-3LIN:
 - NP-hard to 1-approximate, i.e. to solve exactly
 - 2 Easy to $\frac{1}{2}$ -approximate, e.g. by a random assignment
 - **1** What about α -approximation for $\frac{1}{2} \le \alpha < 1$?
- Interesting to study boundary between hard and easy ends, possibly pinpoint the point of transition?

Theorem (Håstad '97)

Given a 3LIN instance that is 1 - o(1) satisfiable, it is NP-hard to find an assignment satisfying 1/2 + o(1) of the clauses.

"Can't beat the random assignment"

 Very active field, connections to robustness questions in various math areas

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Example (System of Equations)

$$x_1^3 x_2 + 7x_3 = 2$$
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- approximate solution: satisfies 1 $-\varepsilon$ of the equations.
- Two different measures: (1) equation-based, (2) solution-based.
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- **2** close to: agrees on 1δ of the coordinates
- Two different measures: (1) equation-based, (2) solution-based.
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- Many other examples: clique, 3sat, cuts in graphs

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- Additive combinatorics: approximate fields and groups If a set is somewhat linear it must be close to a field / group [Freiman, Erdös-Szemeredy....]
- ② Discrete Fourier analysis & geometry: approximate dictatorships If a function $f: \{0,1\}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ is somewhat noise-stable then it must depend on few coordinates [Mossel-O'Donnell-Oleszkiewicz extension of CLT]
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Part III

(Flavors of)

the Proof of the PCP Theorem



Proving the PCP theorem

 Goal: find an efficient algorithm that maps graphs G to graphs H such that:

Yes: If
$$OPT(G) = 1$$
, then $OPT(H) = 1$
No: If $OPT(G) < 1$, then $OPT(H) \le 0.99$

- There are two different approaches.
 - The original "algebraic" proof [Arora-Safra, Arora-Lund-Motwani-Sudan-Szegedy, 1991]
 Technique: H encodes G via low degree polynomials over finite fields
 - 2 The "combinatorial" proof [Dinur, 2006]
 Technique: gradual gap amplification using graph structure

 Goal: find an efficient algorithm that maps graphs G to graphs H such that:

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Yes: If jam(G) = 0, then jam(H) = 0
No: If jam(G) > 0, then jam(H) \ge 0.01
(let jam(G) := 1 - OPT(G))
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Proof Idea

The idea is to proceed in many small steps:

$$G \Longrightarrow G_1 \Longrightarrow G_2 \Longrightarrow \cdots \Longrightarrow G_k =: H$$

such that the "jam" value gets amplified, unless it was zero. (pictorially, the "jam" is spread little by little)

The basic step

We show a mapping $G \Longrightarrow G'$ for which

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The mapping consists of two sub-steps $G \stackrel{1}{\to} \hat{G} \stackrel{2}{\to} G'$:

- Gather: Each vertex gathers the colors of its neighbors. Encoded by new color of vertex. \hat{G} -edges are length-3 paths in G, each tests for inconsistencies.
- ② Disperse: This step splits each vertex into several vertices, and replaces the "tests" by regular edges, yielding a 3-coloring instance. Robustly.

How? by recursion: using a weaker PCP theorem!



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Wrapping up the proof

- A "gathering" step increases the jam value, but looses the 3-coloring structure.
- A "dispersing" step regains the 3-coloring structure using a "gadget" (i.e. local replacement)
- Each pair of steps spreads the jam value a bit further (each vertex v is aware of vertices at growing distances)
- While each step is "local", the in the final outcome every vertex has been affected by the entire graph.
 ...and the bug, if existed, has been properly spread around.

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Robustness questions

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Thank You!