Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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Course "Proofs and Computers", JASS'06

Probabilistically Checkable Proofs

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Faculty of Computer Science TU Munich

March 30, 2006



Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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History of Inapproximability Results			

 1974: Foundational Paper from Johnson states approximation algorithms and inapproximability results for Max SAT, Set Cover, Independent Set, and Coloring.



Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
• 00 00	0000	0000 0000000 00	00000 0000000 00
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Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
• 00 00	0000	0000 0000000 00	00000 0000000 00
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Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
• 00 00	0000	0000 0000000 00	00000 0000000 00
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Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
• 00 00	0000	0000 0000000 00	00000 0000000 00
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Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
• 00 00	0000	0000 0000000 00	00000 0000000 00
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- ▶ 1992: Arora proved the PCP Theorem.
- Many inapproximability results for problems were found in the mid 1990s.
- ▶ 2005: Dinur shows a new proof for the PCP Theorem.



Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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A (r,q)-restricted verifier			

Definition 1

A verifier V is a (r,q)-restricted verifier if for any input x, witness w, and random string τ of length O(r), the decision $V^w(x,\tau) = "yes"$ is based on at most O(q) bits from the witness w.



Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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Remarks:

A (r,q)-restricted verifier is called non-adaptive if the queries to the witness w only depend on the input x and the random string τ . If the next queries are also dependant from the previous queries from the witness w, the verifier is called adaptive.



Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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A (r,q)-restricted verifier





Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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Probabilistically checkable proofs			

Definition 2

A language L is probabilistically checkable using an (r,q)-restricted verifier V iff



Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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Probabilistically checkable proofs

Definition 2

A language L is probabilistically checkable using an (r,q)-restricted verifier V iff

Completeness: If x ∈ L then there exists a witness w such that Pr_τ[V^w(x, τ) = "yes"] = 1.



Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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Probabilistically checkable proofs

Definition 2

A language L is probabilistically checkable using an (r,q)-restricted verifier V iff

- Completeness: If x ∈ L then there exists a witness w such that Pr_τ[V^w(x, τ) = "yes"] = 1.
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Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
	0000	0000 0000000 00	00000 00000000 00
Probabilistically checkable proofs			



Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
	0000	0000 00000000 00	00000 00000000 00
Probabilistically checkable proofs			

Some simple examples for PCP-Classes are:

▶ P = PCP(0, 0)



Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
	0000	0000 0000000 00	00000 00000000 00
Probabilistically checkable proofs			

- ▶ P = PCP(0, 0)
- ► NP = PCP(0, poly)



Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
	0000	0000 00000000 00	00000 00000000 00
Probabilistically checkable proofs			

- ▶ P = PCP(0, 0)
- ► NP = PCP(0, poly)
- ▶ NP \subseteq PCP(log, poly)



Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
	0000	0000 00000000 00	00000 00000000 00
Probabilistically checkable proofs			

- ▶ P = PCP(0, 0)
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Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
	0000	0000 00000000 00	00000 00000000 00
Probabilistically checkable proofs			

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Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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Some simple examples for PCP-Classes are:

- ▶ P = PCP(0, 0)
- ► NP = PCP(0, poly)
- ▶ NP \subseteq PCP(log, poly)
- ▶ co-RP = PCP(poly, 0)

Proofs are easily shown by constructing verifiers which reduces the one class on the other and vice versa.

Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs o oo oo	PCP Theorem - Part 1 •000	Applying PCP Theorem 0000 00000000 00	PCP Theorem - Part 2 00000 00000000 00
PCP Theorem			

Definition 4 (PCP Theorem) NP = PCP(log(n), 1)



Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs o oo oo	PCP Theorem - Part 1 0●00	Applying PCP Theorem 0000 00000000 00	PCP Theorem - Part 2 00000 00000000 00
PCP Theorem			

First, we will prove the easier side of the PCP theorem: $PCP(log(n), 1) \subseteq NP$.



Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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PCP Theorem

First, we will prove the easier side of the PCP theorem: $PCP(log(n), 1) \subseteq NP$.

Proof.

Let $L \in PCP(\log(n), 1) \Rightarrow$ there is a $(\log(n), 1)$ -verifier V. For τ there are $2^{O(\log(n))} \le n^c$ many random strings, namely $\tau^1, \cdots, \tau^{n^c}$.



Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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The verifier V will work as follows:

- 1. Reads a random string $\tau^i, 1 \leq i \leq n^c$.
- 2. Uses x and τ^i to calculate q positions i_1, \dots, i_q to read from the witness string.
- 3. Run a calculation with x and w_{i_1}, \dots, w_{i_q} , and answer "yes" or "no".



Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
0 00 00	0000	0000 0000000 00	00000 00000000 00
PCP Theorem			

Now, we will simulate the verifier V on a non-deterministic Turing machine V'.

The witness string for V' is w which has polynomial length since V can only access polynomial positions.

V' now calculates step 2 and 3 from V for every possible τ^i and answers "yes" if all simulated calculations of V answered "yes".



Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
0 00 00	0000	0000 00000000 00	00000 00000000 00
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It is left to show that V^{\prime} behaves like V.



Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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PCP Theorem			



Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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PCP Theorem			

x ∈ L and L ∈ PCP(log(n), 1) ⇒ For a given w, V returns yes with probability 1.
 With this witness w V' will also return yes.

Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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PCP Theorem			

- x ∈ L and L ∈ PCP(log(n), 1) ⇒ For a given w, V returns yes with probability 1.
 With this witness w V' will also return yes.
- ★ x ∉ L ⇒ There is no witness string w for V' because at least on half of the calculations will not answer "yes".

Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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Definition 5

An optimization problem O is defined by a cost function $C: \Sigma^* \times \Sigma^* \to R_+ \cup \{\bot\}$, that given an instance string x and a solution string s outputs C(x, s) which is either the cost of the solution or \bot if the solution is illegal.



Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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Let OPT(x) denote the optimal value a solution can get, then: $OPT(x) = max_{s:C(x,s)\neq\perp}C(x,s).$



Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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Let OPT(x) denote the optimal value a solution can get, then: $OPT(x) = max_{s:C(x,s)\neq\perp}C(x,s).$

An optimization problem is to find a legal solution s^* that attains the optimal value of cost, $C(x, s^*) = OPT(x)$.

Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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Example 6

MAX-3SAT is the problem of finding an assignment A which maximizes the percent of satisfied clauses of a 3CNF formula ψ . Of course, if ψ is satisfiable, then the optimal value of MAX-3SAT is 1.



Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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Definition 7

A is an r-approximation algorithm for a maximation problem iff for any input x, A finds a solution s that $C(x, s) \ge rOPT(x)$.



Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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Definition 8

Let O be a maximization problem. Let x be an instance of the problem. A $gap(\alpha, \beta)$ -O is the problem of deciding between the following alternatives:



Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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- "Yes": $OPT(x) \ge \beta$
- "No": $OPT(x) \leq \alpha$



Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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- "No": $OPT(x) \leq \alpha$

If $OPT \in [\alpha, \beta)$ then both alternatives are acceptable.



Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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- "Yes": $OPT(x) \ge \beta$
- "No": $OPT(x) \leq \alpha$

If $OPT \in [\alpha, \beta)$ then both alternatives are acceptable.

If the gap problem is NP-hard, then it is the $\frac{\alpha}{\beta}\text{-approximation}$ algorithm is also NP-hard.

Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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Lemma 9

The following statements are equivalent:

- 1. (PCP Theorem) NP = PCP(log(n), 1)
- 2. There exists $\alpha \in (0,1)$, such that $gap(\alpha, 1)$ -MAX-3SAT is NP hard.



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Proof. $(2 \Rightarrow 1)$ Let language $L \in NP$. Assumption: gap $(\alpha, 1)$ -MAX- 3SAT is NP hard.



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Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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Proof. (2 \Rightarrow 1) Let language $L \in NP$. Assumption: gap(α , 1)-MAX- 3SAT is NP hard. \implies there exists a 3CNF formula, $\psi_{x,L} = c_1 \land \ldots \land c_m$, such that

1. $x \in L \Leftrightarrow \psi_{x,L}$ is satisfiable.



	Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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- 1. $x \in L \Leftrightarrow \psi_{x,L}$ is satisfiable.
- 2. $x \notin L \Leftrightarrow$ for every assignment A, the number of clauses in $\psi_{x,L}$ that are satisfied is less than αm .

Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2	
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Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2	
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Algorithm

1. step: Construct the 3CNF formula $\psi_{x,L}$.



Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs O OO OO	PCP Theorem - Part 1 0000	Applying PCP Theorem ○○○○ ○●○○○○○ ○○	PCP Theorem - Part 2 00000 00000000 00
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- 1. step: Construct the 3CNF formula $\psi_{x,L}$.
- 2. step: Get an assignment A and create witness/proof $w = \psi_{x,L} \circ A$.



Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs 0 00	PCP Theorem - Part 1 0000	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2 00000 00000000	
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- 1. step: Construct the 3CNF formula $\psi_{x,L}$.
- 2. step: Get an assignment A and create witness/proof $w = \psi_{x,L} \circ A$.
- 3. step: Choose k = O(1) clauses from the witness.

Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs 0 00	PCP Theorem - Part 1 0000	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2 00000 00000000	
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- 2. step: Get an assignment A and create witness/proof $w = \psi_{x,L} \circ A$.
- 3. step: Choose k = O(1) clauses from the witness.
- 4. step: If all k clauses are satisfied, return "yes".

Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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Proof.



Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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Proof.

► Completeness:

If the assignment A satisfies the formula, V will answer "yes" no matter which k clauses were chosen. \surd



Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs PC	CP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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Proof.

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Soundness:

If A does not satisfy $\psi_{x,L}$, then it satisfies at most αm clauses \implies the probability to answer "yes" is at most α^k .



Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs PC	CP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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If A does not satisfy $\psi_{x,L}$, then it satisfies at most αm clauses \implies the probability to answer "yes" is at most α^k . With $k > \log(1/2)/\log(\alpha) : \Pr_{\tau}[V^w x, \tau = "yes"] \le \alpha^k \implies$ $\Pr_{\tau}[V^w(x,\tau) = "yes"] < 1/2.\sqrt{}$

Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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Proof. $(1 \rightarrow 2)$

 $(1 \Rightarrow 2)$

Proof by reduction from gap-MAX-3SAT to 3SAT.

$$3SAT \in NP \implies 3SAT \in PCP[log, 1]$$

 \implies there exists a verifier V such that a given 3CNF formula ϕ :



Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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$$\phi$$
 is satisfiable $\Rightarrow \exists w : \Pr_{\tau}[V^w(\phi, \tau) = "yes"] = 1.$



Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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• ϕ is not satisfiable $\Rightarrow \forall w : \Pr_{\tau}[V^{w}(\phi, \tau) = "yes"] < 1/2.$

Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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Proof.

The verifier only considers q bits of the witness w for its decision. \Rightarrow acceptance is determined with local constraint ψ^{ϕ}_{τ} and variable assignment according to the positions in the witness w. It is still true that:

- ϕ is satisfiable \Rightarrow all local constraints ψ^{ϕ}_{τ} are satisfied.

Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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Proof.

Construct a new formula $\phi' = \psi^{\phi}_{\tau_1} \wedge \cdots \wedge \psi^{\phi}_{\tau^{\sigma}_n}$ with $\tau_1, \cdots \tau_{n^c}$ are all random string of the length $O(\log(n))$. For ϕ' , we have:

- ϕ is satisfiable $\Rightarrow \phi'$ is satisfied.
- ϕ is not satisfiable \Rightarrow any assignment for ϕ' satisfies at most half of the clauses of ϕ' .

Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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Proof.

Construct a 3CNF formula from each local constraint.

 $\phi'' = \underbrace{(\psi_{1,1} \land \ldots \land \psi_{1,k})}_{\psi^{\phi}_{\tau_1}} \land \ldots \land \underbrace{(\psi_{n^c,1} \land \ldots \land \psi_{n^c,k})}_{\psi^{\phi}_{\tau_{n^c}}}$

• ϕ is satisfiable $\Rightarrow \phi''$ is satisfied.

• ϕ is not satisfiable \Rightarrow any assignment for ϕ' satisfies at most $\frac{2k-1}{2k}$ of the clauses of ϕ'' .

This concludes the reduction from gap(α ,1)-MAX-3SAT for $\alpha = \frac{2k-1}{2k}$ to 3SAT assuming the PCP Theorem.





Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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Outlook of MAX-3SAT			

Theorem 10 (John Hastad, 1997) For any $\alpha \in (\frac{7}{8}, 1)$, the problem gap $(\alpha, 1)$ -MAX-3SAT is NP-hard.



Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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Outlook of MAX-3SAT

Fact

But notice this interesting fact: Howard Karloff and Uri Zwick have stated a $\frac{7}{8}$ -Approximation Algorithm for MAX-3-SAT and provided strong evidence that the algorithm performs equally well on arbitrary MAX-3-SAT instances.



Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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Definition 11 $G = \langle (V, E), \Sigma, C \rangle$ is called a constraint graph, if



Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs		11 2 0	
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Definition 11 $G = \langle (V, E), \Sigma, C \rangle$ is called a constraint graph, if

1. (V,E) is an undirected graph, called the underlying graph of G.



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Definition 11

 $G = \langle (V, E), \Sigma, C \rangle$ is called a constraint graph, if

- 1. (V,E) is an undirected graph, called the underlying graph of G.
- 2. The set V is also viewed as a set of variables assuming values over alphabet Σ .



Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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Definition 11

 $G = \langle (V, E), \Sigma, C \rangle$ is called a constraint graph, if

- 1. (V,E) is an undirected graph, called the underlying graph of G.
- 2. The set V is also viewed as a set of variables assuming values over alphabet $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}.$
- 3. Each edge $e \in E$ carries a constraint $c^e : \Sigma^2 \to \{T, F\}$ and $C = \{c^e\}_{e \in E}$.

Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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Definition 12 An assignment is a mapping $\sigma: V \to \Sigma$ that gives each vertex in V a value from Σ .



Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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Definition 12

An assignment is a mapping $\sigma: V \to \Sigma$ that gives each vertex in V a value from Σ .

For any assignment σ , define $SAT_{\sigma}(G) = Pr(c^{e}(\sigma(u), \sigma(v)) = T]$ and $SAT(G) = max_{\sigma}SAT_{\sigma}(G)$.



Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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Constraint Graphs			

Example 13

Constructing a constraint graph from a 3-SAT-formula: $\phi = \underbrace{(A \lor B \lor C)}_{V_1} \land \underbrace{(A \lor D \lor E)}_{V_2} \land \underbrace{(D \lor F \lor G)}_{V_3}$


Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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Constraint Graphs			

Constructing a constraint graph from a 3-SAT-formula: $\phi = \underbrace{(A \lor B \lor C)}_{v_1} \land \underbrace{(A \lor D \lor E)}_{v_2} \land \underbrace{(D \lor F \lor G)}_{v_3}$

1. Encode each clause as a vertex.



Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
0 00 00	0000	0000 0000000 00	00000 0000000 00
Constraint Graphs			

Constructing a constraint graph from a 3-SAT-formula:

$$\phi = \underbrace{(A \lor B \lor C)}_{v_1} \land \underbrace{(A \lor D \lor E)}_{v_2} \land \underbrace{(D \lor F \lor G)}_{v_3}$$

- 1. Encode each clause as a vertex.
- 2. Encode the satisfying assignments to a clause as the alphabet Σ . (T, T, T) | (T, T, F) | (T, F, T) | (F, F, T) | (F, T, T) | (F, T, F) | (F, F, T)

Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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Constraint Graphs			

Constructing a constraint graph from a 3-SAT-formula:

$$\phi = \underbrace{(A \lor B \lor C)}_{v_1} \land \underbrace{(A \lor D \lor E)}_{v_2} \land \underbrace{(D \lor F \lor G)}_{v_3}$$

- 1. Encode each clause as a vertex.
- 2. Encode the satisfying assignments to a clause as the alphabet $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}.$

3. Put a consistency constraint for every pair of clauses that a share a variable.

Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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Constraint Graphs			

For ϕ the constraint graph G will look like this:



Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1 0000	0000	0000●
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Constraint Graphs

Theorem 14

Given a constraint graph $G = \langle (V, E), \Sigma, C \rangle$ with $|\Sigma| \leq 7$, it is NP-hard to decide if SAT(G) = 1.

Proof by using last Example to reduce to 3SAT.



Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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Definition 15 Let G = (V, E) be a d-regular graph. Let $E(S, \overline{S}) = |(S \times \overline{S}) \cap E|$ equal the number of edges from a subset $S \subseteq V$ to its complement. The edge expansion is defined as $h(G) = \min_{S, |S| < |V|/2} \frac{E(S, \overline{S})}{|S|}$.



Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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Example 16



Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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Expander Graphs			

• A disconnected graph has an expansion of 0.



Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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Expander Graphs			

- A disconnected graph has an expansion of 0.
- ► A random d-regular graph has an expansion of about d/2, independent of the number of vertices.



Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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Lemma 17

There exist $d_0 \in N$ and $h_0 > 0$, such that there is a polynomial-time constructible family $\{X_n\}_{n \in N}$ of d_0 -regular graphs X_n on n vertices with $h(X_n) \ge h_0$.



Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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Example 18

All graphs of size p (for all primes). Here $V_p = Z_p$ and d = 3. Ever vertex is connected to its neighbors (x + 1, x - 1) and its inverse (x^{-1}) .



Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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Lemma 19

Let G be a d-regular graph, h(G) denotes the edge expansion of G and let $\lambda(G)$ be the second largest eigenvalue of the adjacency matrix of G. Then $\lambda(G) \leq d - \frac{h(G)^2}{d}$.



Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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Lemma 20 (Expander Mixing Lemma) for all $S, T \subseteq V$: $\left| E(S, T) - \frac{d|S||T|}{n} \right| \le \lambda \sqrt{|S||T|}$



Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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Lemma 20 (Expander Mixing Lemma) for all $S, T \subseteq V$: $\left| E(S, T) - \frac{d|S||T|}{n} \right| \le \lambda \sqrt{|S||T|}$

A small λ means a graph with allot of "randomness".



Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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Theorem 21 Let G = (V, E) be a d-regular graph with a second largest eigenvalue λ . Let $F \subseteq E$ be a set of edges. The probability p that a random walk that starts at a random edge in F takes the i + 1st step in F as well, is bounded by $\frac{|F|}{|E|} + (\frac{\lambda}{d})^i$.



Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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Expander Graphs			

Example 22 (Amplifying the success probability of random algorithms)

 $L \in RP$. A decides whether $x \in L$ with *m* coin tosses and one-sided-error probability β .

Simple way: $Pr(A \text{ fails}) \leq \beta^t$ and uses $m \cdot t$ coin tosses.

With random walk on expander graphs:

 $\Pr(A \text{ fails}) \leq (\beta + \frac{\lambda}{d})^t$ and uses $m + t \cdot \log(d)$ coin tosses.



Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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Probability

Lemma 23

For any non-negative variable X, $Pr(X > 0) \ge \frac{E^2(X)}{E(X^2)}$.

Proof.

$$\begin{array}{l} X \text{ is non-negative} \implies E(X^2) = E(X^2 : X > 0) \cdot Pr(X > 0) \text{ and} \\ E(X) = E(X : X > 0) \cdot Pr(X > 0). \\ \implies \frac{E^2(X)}{E(X^2)} = \frac{(E(X:X > 0) \cdot Pr(X > 0))^2}{E(X^2:X > 0) \cdot Pr(X > 0)} \leq Pr[(X > 0). \end{array}$$



Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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Probability

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Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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Probability

Thank you for your attention!



Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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Probability			



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Introduction to Probabilistically Checkable Proofs	PCP Theorem - Part 1	Applying PCP Theorem	PCP Theorem - Part 2
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Probability			





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