

# PCP Course; Lectures 1, 2

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# Easy and Hard Problems

Easy: Polynomial Time

$5n; n^2; 4n^3 + n$

Hard: Super-polynomial Time

$n^{\log n}; 2^n; n!$

Proving that a problem is easy: provide an algorithm

Proving that a problem is hard: ???

Proving hardness is the biggest open problem in complexity theory.

## Conditional Hardness

We want to show that if Problem  $A$  is hard then problem  $B$  is also hard. So we prove the **counter-positive**: If  $B$  is easy then  $A$  is also easy. (And to prove easiness is easy! We just have to find an algorithm.)

### Polynomial Time Reduction:

$$\text{INPUTS}(A) \xrightarrow{\phi} \text{INPUTS}(B)$$

$\phi$  is a polynomial time map such that  $A(x) = B(y)$  for every  $x \in \text{INPUTS}(A)$  and  $y = \phi(x) \in \text{INPUTS}(B)$ .

Terminology:  $B$  is hard conditioned on  $A$

# Combinatorial Search Problems

- ▶ Property  $P$  depends on some input  $x$  together with witness  $y$ ;
- ▶  $P$  can be computed in polynomial time.

Is there  $y \in \{0,1\}^m$  such that property  $P$  holds for  $y$ , and for input  $x$ ? (In mathematical notation:  $\exists y P^y(x)$ ?)

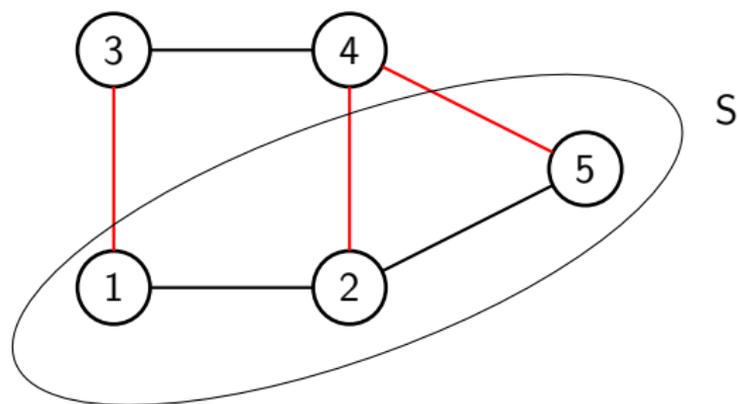
$x$  is a *positive input* (or *1-input*) if and only if

$$\exists y P^y(x)$$

Note: We put the witness into the upper index to differentiate it from  $x$ , but some simply write  $P(x, y)$ .

## Example: Exact-CUT-Language

Find a subset  $S \subseteq V(G)$  of a graph  $G$  such that the cut  $(S, \bar{S})$  has size exactly  $k$ .



INPUT =  $G, k$       OUTPUT  $\in \{ \text{yes, no} \}$

## Can you identify our concepts in case of the Exact-CUT-Language?

- ▶ **Input**  $x$  is the (graph, number) pair  $(G, k)$
- ▶ **Witness (or advice)** is the cut  $S$
- ▶ **Property**  $P$  is the property that  $S$  cuts exactly  $k$  edges of  $G$ .

$$P^S(G, k) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{(or "yes")} & \text{if cut } S \text{ cuts exactly } k \text{ edges of } G \\ 0 & \text{(or "no")} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$(G, k)$  is a positive input instance if there exists an  $S$  such that  $P^S(G, k) = 1$ :

$$\exists(G, k) P^S(G, k).$$

## How do we think about it?

- ▶ We think of property  $P$  as fixed.
- ▶ For most of the time we think of input  $x$  as fixed, given to us.
- ▶ We think of advice  $y$  as something that we have to find, or if it is given to us as an advice, we need to verify (check) it. So (somewhat unfairly to  $x$ ;)  $y$  is really the main character of the story here.

# Hardness and Combinatorial Search Problems

To cycle through all  $y \in \{0, 1\}^m$ s would take  $2^n \text{poly}(n)$  time.  
Is there anything quicker?

**ETH (Exponential Time Hypothesis):** 3SAT with  $n$  variables requires  $(1 + \epsilon)^n$  time to solve for some fixed  $\epsilon > 0$ . This is a stronger assumption than  $P \neq NP$ .

# Why did I mention ETH?

Because sometimes we shall use assumptions like

$$NP \not\subseteq DTIME(n^{\log n})$$

$$NP \not\subseteq DTIME(n^{\log \log n})$$

...

These all follow from ETH (in fact, much weaker assumptions than ETH, but stronger than  $P \neq NP$ ).

## Another remark: Terminology

1. Combinatorial Search Problems
2. Non-deterministic (Poly Time) Problems
3. NP Problems

MEAN ALL THE SAME

$y$  is called the **element of the search domain**, **advise**, or **non-determinism**, in short.

# Cook-Karp-Levin-reduction between NP problems

Reduction from  $P_1$  to  $P_2$ :

Instance Transformation :

$$\{ \text{inputs for } P_1 \} \xrightarrow{\phi} \{ \text{inputs for } P_2 \}$$

Witness Transformation :

$$\{ \text{witnesses for } \phi(x) \} \xrightarrow{\psi_x} \{ \text{witnesses for } x \}$$

Here  $x$  denotes a (generic) input of  $P_1$ .

Note: In the literature the instance transformation part is called Karp reduction. I have learned the witness reduction from Leonid Levin, so sometimes I will call the whole system Levin-Reduction.

## Focus on the witness transformation

The input transformation is dull:) (input transformation ensures that positive  $P_1$ -instances go into positive  $P_2$ -instances)

What requires smartness is the witness transformation. Witness transformation ensures that positive  $P_2$ -instances have positive pre-images. Therefore, by contradiction, negative  $P_1$ -instances go into negative instances.

Well, in reality you design the two reductions together.

## An example: The transformation 3SAT $\longrightarrow$ Max Clique

$$(x_1 \vee x_2 \vee x_3) \wedge (\overline{x_1} \vee \overline{x_2} \vee x_4)$$

$\downarrow$

$$(x_1 = 0; x_2 = 0; x_3 = 1)$$

...

$$(x_1 = 1; x_2 = 1; x_3 = 1)$$

$$(x_1 = 0; x_2 = 0; x_4 = 0)$$

...

$$(x_1 = 1; x_2 = 1; x_4 = 1)$$

Alltogether  $7m$  nodes, where  $m$  is the number of clauses. Column  $i$  contains the 7 assignments that satisfy the  $i^{\text{th}}$  clause. We call these *local satisfying assignments*. Two local assignments (in different columns) are connected by an edge if they are non-contradictory. **Example:**  $(x_1 = 0; x_2 = 0; x_3 = 1)$  and  $(x_1 = 1; x_2 = 1; x_4 = 1)$  are contradictory, because  $x_1$  is evaluated to 0 and 1, respectively.

## A note you should read

MAX-CLIQUE is not a language, because it returns a number: the size of the maximal clique in the input graph (rather than “yes” or “no”). In order to make it a language, we apply the same trick as in the case of the Exact-CUT-Language: We shall add a target number to the graph – the size of the clique we are searching for.

In our reduction we fix this target number. **We shall set this number to  $m$ .** (Recall:  $m$  was the number of clauses of the 3SAT instance = the number of columns in our clique instance) We show that even this problem is as hard as 3SAT.

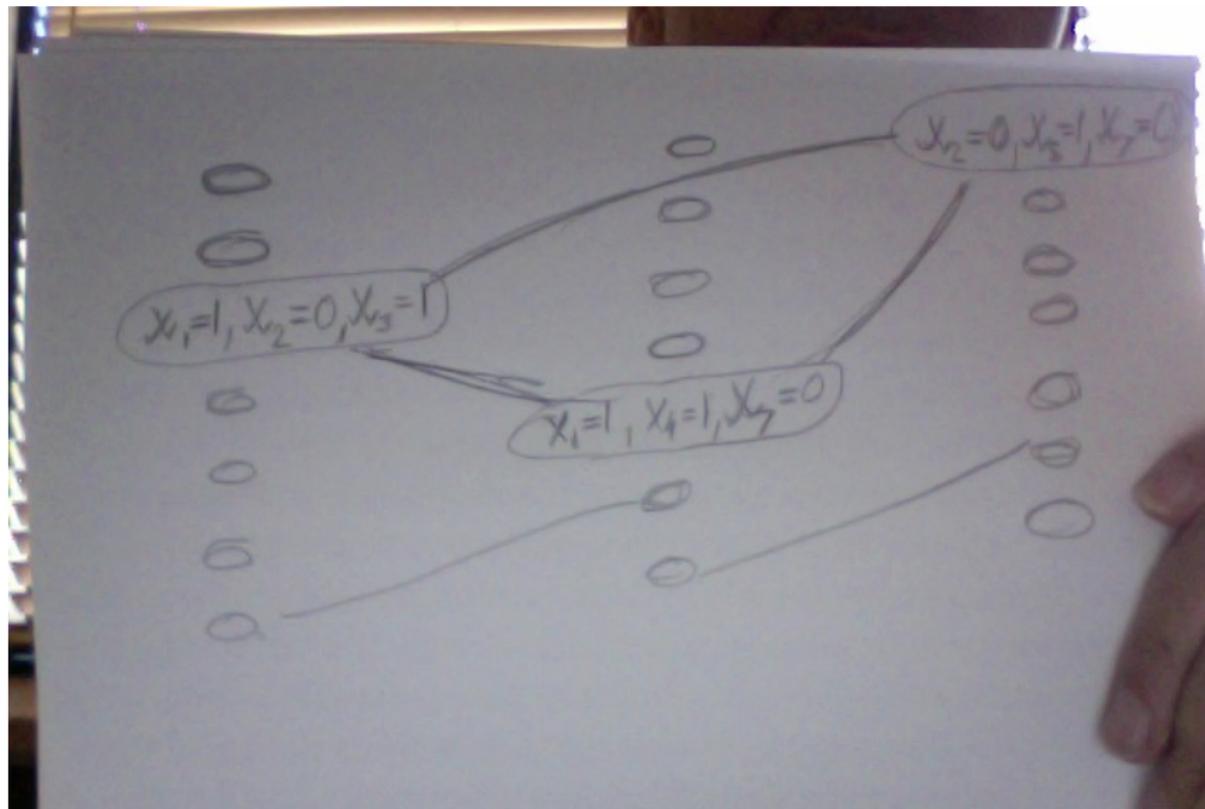
## So what is the witness transformation here?

1. **A witness of the clique instance:** Any clique of size  $m$  (a clique that picks a node from every column).
2. We have to transform such a witness to a satisfying assignment of the 3SAT instance.
3. **Witness transformation:** Create an assignment from the clique by combining the local assignments at the clique nodes together: (e.g.  $(x_1 = 0; x_2 = 0; x_3 = 1)$  and  $(x_1 = 0; x_2 = 0; x_4 = 0)$  becomes  $x_1 = 0; x_2 = 0; x_3 = 1; x_4 = 0$ . We will never find a contradiction, since we started from a clique, so every two local assignments are joined by an edge, meaning they are non contradictory.

Note: the construction satisfies *all* clauses, since the clique had size  $m$ .



Try to combine the local assignments in the clique of size three below



Hello there!



# The topics of this course

1. Proving hardness of **approximating** combinatorial optimization problems.
2. Probabilistic verification (PCPs).

What is the relation between the two?

**You will learn.**

But first you have to understand each separately.

# NP Optimization Problems (NPO)

(The same as combinatorial optimization problems.)

Comes in two flavors:

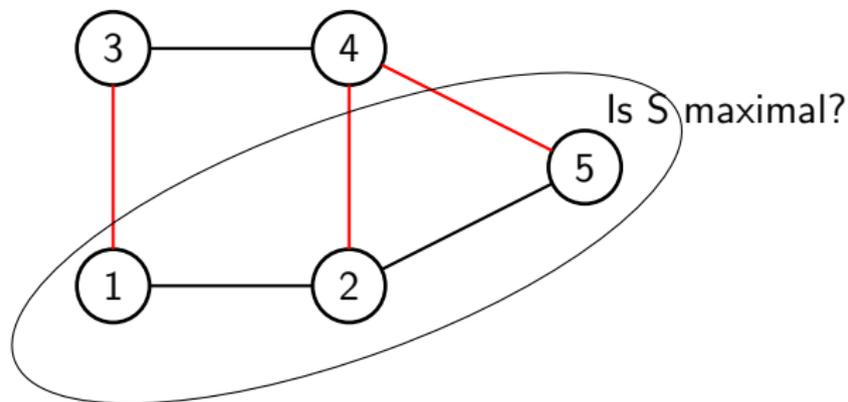
Maximization Problems; Minimization Problems.

Let  $P$  now be instead of a property, some integer-valued function, computable in polynomial time.

Find  $y$  such that  $P^y(x)$  is maximal (for fixed input  $x$ ). Call this maximal value  $\text{OPT}(x)$ , and call  $y$  an optimal witness.

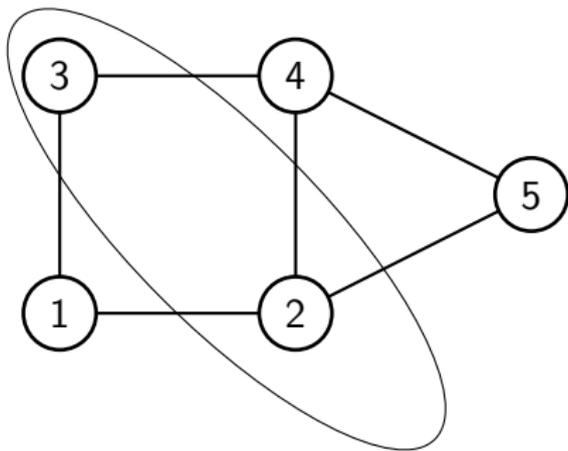
## Example: MAX-CUT

Find a subset  $S \subseteq V(G)$  of a graph  $G$  such that the size of the cut  $(S, \bar{S})$  is maximized.



INPUT =  $G$       OUTPUT = largest cut

No, you can actually cut 5 edges





# Approximation Ratio

Let  $P$  be a maximization problem with optimal value  $OPT(x)$  for input  $x$ .

**Definition:** If for every input  $x$  an algorithm finds a witness  $y$  such that

$$P^y(x) \geq \alpha \times OPT(x),$$

then  $\alpha$  is called the **approximation ratio** of the algorithm.

## Best Approximation Ratio

Assume we cannot solve a polynomial time. Then WE LOOK FOR THE POLYNOMIAL TIME ALGORITHM THAT ACHIEVES THE BEST APPROXIMATION RATIO POSSIBLE.

**Puzzle:** Assume that for a problem every  $\epsilon > 0$  there is an algorithm that achieves approximation ratio  $1 - \epsilon$ . Does it follow that then there exists a single algorithm with approximation ratio 1?

Note: such sequence of algorithms is called *Polynomial Time Approximation Scheme (PTAS)*.

## Best Approximation Ratio for MAX-CUT

Is it true that  $1/2$  the best approximation ratio for MAX-CUT?

No.

Goemans-Williamson: A semidefinite programming based algorithm achieves an approximation ratio of  $0.87856\dots$

Subhash Khot, Guy Kindler, Elchanan Mossel, Ryan O'Donnell:  
The **Unique Games Conjecture** implies that **no better approximation ratio than  $0.87856\dots$  can be achieved.**

## Apropos, what is the Unique Games Conjecture?

It is a fantastic new hypothesis you will learn about. Here is the history of approximation in a nutshell:

- ▶ Until PCP theory, they had tried to prove in-approximability via approximation preserving reductions starting from some basic in-approximability assumptions, with little success.
- ▶ In PCP theory we use  $P \neq NP$  as the basic hardness assumption, and Levin reduction (in a certain novel way). This was a breakthrough.
- ▶ In post-PCP theory we use Unique Games Conjecture as the as the basic hardness assumption, and Levin reduction. — we get a large number of exact bounds, like that the GW algorithm achieves the best approximation ratio for MAX-CUT.