Lecture 21: Hardness of Approximation

Rafael Oliveira

University of Waterloo Cheriton School of Computer Science rafael.oliveira.teaching@gmail.com

November 21, 2024

Overview

- Background and Motivation
 - Why Hardness of Approximation?
 - How do we prove Hardness of Approximation?
 - Hardness of Approximation Example
- Proofs & Hardness of Approximation
- Conclusion
- Acknowledgements

 Since the 50s and 60s (before we "formally knew" about NP) researchers from many areas noticed that certain combinatorial problems were much harder to solve than others

- Since the 50s and 60s (before we "formally knew" about NP)
 researchers from many areas noticed that certain combinatorial
 problems were much harder to solve than others
- What do we do when we see such a hard problem?

- Since the 50s and 60s (before we "formally knew" about NP)
 researchers from many areas noticed that certain combinatorial
 problems were much harder to solve than others
- What do we do when we see such a hard problem?
 - design algorithm which is efficient on "most" instances and always gives us the exact/best answer

- Since the 50s and 60s (before we "formally knew" about NP) researchers from many areas noticed that certain combinatorial problems were much harder to solve than others
- What do we do when we see such a hard problem?
 - design algorithm which is efficient on "most" instances and always gives us the exact/best answer
 - design (always) efficient algorithm, but finds sub-optimal solutions
 Approximation Algorithms

- Since the 50s and 60s (before we "formally knew" about NP) researchers from many areas noticed that certain combinatorial problems were much harder to solve than others
- What do we do when we see such a hard problem?
 - design algorithm which is efficient on "most" instances and always gives us the exact/best answer
 - design (always) efficient algorithm, but finds sub-optimal solutions
 Approximation Algorithms
 - For $\alpha \geq 1$, an algorithm is α -approximate for a minimization (maximization) problem if on every input instance the algorithm finds a solution with cost $\leq \alpha \cdot OPT$ ($\geq \frac{1}{\alpha} \cdot OPT$).

- Since the 50s and 60s (before we "formally knew" about NP) researchers from many areas noticed that certain combinatorial problems were much harder to solve than others
- What do we do when we see such a hard problem?
 - design algorithm which is efficient on "most" instances and always gives us the exact/best answer
 - design (always) efficient algorithm, but finds sub-optimal solutions
 Approximation Algorithms
 - For $\alpha \geq 1$, an algorithm is α -approximate for a minimization (maximization) problem if on every input instance the algorithm finds a solution with cost $\leq \alpha \cdot OPT$ ($\geq \frac{1}{\alpha} \cdot OPT$).
- For some problems, it is possible to prove that even the design of approximation algorithms for certain values of α is impossible, unless P = NP (in which case we would have an exact algorithm).

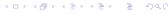
- Since the 50s and 60s (before we "formally knew" about NP) researchers from many areas noticed that certain combinatorial problems were much harder to solve than others
- What do we do when we see such a hard problem?
 - design algorithm which is efficient on "most" instances and always gives us the exact/best answer
 - design (always) efficient algorithm, but finds sub-optimal solutions

Approximation Algorithms

- For $\alpha \geq 1$, an algorithm is α -approximate for a minimization (maximization) problem if on every input instance the algorithm finds a solution with cost $\leq \alpha \cdot OPT$ ($\geq \frac{1}{\alpha} \cdot OPT$).
- For some problems, it is possible to prove that even the design of approximation algorithms for certain values of α is impossible, unless P = NP (in which case we would have an exact algorithm).

Hardness of Approximation

Important to know the limits of efficient algorithms!



- Background and Motivation
 - Why Hardness of Approximation?
 - How do we prove Hardness of Approximation?
 - Hardness of Approximation Example
- Proofs & Hardness of Approximation
- Conclusion

Acknowledgements

How do we Prove Hardness of Approximation?

• When we prove that a combinatorial problem $\mathcal C$ is NP-hard, we usually pick our favorite NP-complete combinatorial problem L and we show a *reduction* that

How do we Prove Hardness of Approximation?

- When we prove that a combinatorial problem $\mathcal C$ is NP-hard, we usually pick our favorite NP-complete combinatorial problem L and we show a *reduction* that
 - ullet maps every YES instance of L to a YES instance of $\mathcal C$
 - ullet maps every NO instance of L to a NO instance of ${\cal C}$

How do we Prove Hardness of Approximation?

- When we prove that a combinatorial problem $\mathcal C$ is NP-hard, we usually pick our favorite NP-complete combinatorial problem L and we show a *reduction* that
 - ullet maps every YES instance of L to a YES instance of $\mathcal C$
 - ullet maps every NO instance of L to a NO instance of ${\mathcal C}$
- For hardness of approximation what we would like is a (more robust) reduction of the form:
 - ullet maps every YES instance of L to a YES instance of ${\cal C}$
 - ullet maps every NO instance of L to a VERY-MUCH-NO instance of ${\cal C}$

- Background and Motivation
 - Why Hardness of Approximation?
 - How do we prove Hardness of Approximation?
 - Hardness of Approximation Example
- Proofs & Hardness of Approximation
- Conclusion

Acknowledgements

• **Input:** set of points *X* and a symmetric distance function

$$d: X \times X \to \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$$

• **Input:** set of points *X* and a symmetric distance function

$$d: X \times X \to \mathbb{R}_{>0}$$

• For any path $p_0 \rightarrow p_1 \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow p_t$ in X, *length* of the path is sum of distances traveled

$$\sum_{i=0}^{t-1} d(p_i, p_{i+1})$$

• **Input:** set of points *X* and a symmetric distance function

$$d: X \times X \to \mathbb{R}_{>0}$$

• For any path $p_0 \to p_1 \to \cdots \to p_t$ in X, *length* of the path is sum of distances traveled

$$\sum_{i=0}^{t-1} d(p_i, p_{i+1})$$

• Output: find a cycle that reaches all points in X of shortest length.

• **Input:** set of points *X* and a symmetric distance function

$$d: X \times X \to \mathbb{R}_{>0}$$

• For any path $p_0 \to p_1 \to \cdots \to p_t$ in X, *length* of the path is sum of distances traveled

$$\sum_{i=0}^{t-1} d(p_i, p_{i+1})$$

- Output: find a cycle that reaches all points in X of shortest length.
- Definitely a problem we would like to solve
 - Efficient route planning (mail system, shuttle bus pick up and drop off...)

• **Input:** set of points *X* and a symmetric distance function

$$d: X \times X \to \mathbb{R}_{>0}$$

• For any path $p_0 \rightarrow p_1 \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow p_t$ in X, *length* of the path is sum of distances traveled

$$\sum_{i=0}^{t-1} d(p_i, p_{i+1})$$

- Output: find a cycle that reaches all points in X of shortest length.
- Definitely a problem we would like to solve
 - Efficient route planning (mail system, shuttle bus pick up and drop off...)
- One of the famous NP-complete problems

General TSP without repetitions (General TSP-NR)

- General TSP without repetitions (General TSP-NR)
 - if $P \neq NP$ then there is no poly-time constant-approximation algorithm for General TSP-NR.

- General TSP without repetitions (General TSP-NR)
 - if $P \neq NP$ then there is no poly-time constant-approximation algorithm for General TSP-NR.
 - More generally, if there is any function $r: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$ such that r(n) computable in polynomial time, then it is hard to r(n)-approximate General TSP-NR if we assume that $P \neq NP$

- General TSP without repetitions (General TSP-NR)
 - if $P \neq NP$ then there is no poly-time constant-approximation algorithm for General TSP-NR.
 - More generally, if there is any function $r: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$ such that r(n) computable in polynomial time, then it is hard to r(n)-approximate General TSP-NR if we assume that $P \neq NP$
- Output Description How does one prove any such hardness of approximation?
 By reduction to another NP-hard problem.

- General TSP without repetitions (General TSP-NR)
 - if $P \neq NP$ then there is no poly-time constant-approximation algorithm for General TSP-NR.
 - More generally, if there is any function $r: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$ such that r(n) computable in polynomial time, then it is hard to r(n)-approximate General TSP-NR if we assume that $P \neq NP$
- Output Description How does one prove any such hardness of approximation?
 By reduction to another NP-hard problem.
- 1 In our case, let's reduce it to the Hamiltonian Cycle Problem

Theorem

If there is an algorithm M which solves TSP without repetitions with α -approximation, then P = NP.

1 Hamiltonian Cycle Problem: given a graph G(V, E), decide whether there exists a cycle C which passes through every vertex at most once.

- **1 Hamiltonian Cycle Problem:** given a graph G(V, E), decide whether there exists a cycle \mathcal{C} which passes through every vertex at most once.
- Proof:

- **1** Hamiltonian Cycle Problem: given a graph G(V, E), decide whether there exists a cycle C which passes through every vertex at most once.
- Proof:
- **1** If we had an algorithm M which solved the α -approximate TSP without repetition problem, then
 - from graph G(V, E), construct weighted graph H(V, F, w) such that

- **1** Hamiltonian Cycle Problem: given a graph G(V, E), decide whether there exists a cycle C which passes through every vertex at most once.
- Proof:
- **1** If we had an algorithm M which solved the α -approximate TSP without repetition problem, then
 - from graph G(V, E), construct weighted graph H(V, F, w) such that
 - All edges $\{u, v\} \in F$ (that is, H is the complete graph on V)

- **1** Hamiltonian Cycle Problem: given a graph G(V, E), decide whether there exists a cycle C which passes through every vertex at most once.
- Proof:
- **1** If we had an algorithm M which solved the α -approximate TSP without repetition problem, then
 - from graph G(V, E), construct weighted graph H(V, F, w) such that
 - All edges $\{u, v\} \in F$ (that is, H is the complete graph on V)

•
$$w(u, v) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } \{u, v\} \in E \\ (1 + \alpha) \cdot |V|, & \text{if } \{u, v\} \notin E \end{cases}$$

- **1** Hamiltonian Cycle Problem: given a graph G(V, E), decide whether there exists a cycle C which passes through every vertex at most once.
- Proof:
- **1** If we had an algorithm M which solved the α -approximate TSP without repetition problem, then
 - from graph G(V, E), construct weighted graph H(V, F, w) such that
 - All edges $\{u,v\} \in F$ (that is, H is the complete graph on V)
 - $w(u, v) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } \{u, v\} \in E \\ (1 + \alpha) \cdot |V|, & \text{if } \{u, v\} \notin E \end{cases}$
- lacktriangledown If G has a Hamiltonian Cycle, then OPT for the TSP is of value $\leq |V|$

- **1 Hamiltonian Cycle Problem:** given a graph G(V, E), decide whether there exists a cycle C which passes through every vertex at most once.
- Proof:
- **1** If we had an algorithm M which solved the α -approximate TSP without repetition problem, then
 - from graph G(V, E), construct weighted graph H(V, F, w) such that
 - All edges $\{u, v\} \in F$ (that is, H is the complete graph on V)
 - $w(u, v) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } \{u, v\} \in E \\ (1 + \alpha) \cdot |V|, & \text{if } \{u, v\} \notin E \end{cases}$
- **1** If G has a Hamiltonian Cycle, then OPT for the TSP is of value $\leq |V|$
- **1** If G has no Hamiltonian Cycle, then OPT for TSP must use an edge not in V, thus value is $\geq (1 + \alpha) \cdot |V|$

- **1 Hamiltonian Cycle Problem:** given a graph G(V, E), decide whether there exists a cycle C which passes through every vertex at most once.
- Proof:
- lacktriangledown If we had an algorithm M which solved the lpha-approximate TSP without repetition problem, then
 - from graph G(V, E), construct weighted graph H(V, F, w) such that
 - All edges $\{u,v\} \in F$ (that is, H is the complete graph on V)

•
$$w(u, v) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } \{u, v\} \in E \\ (1 + \alpha) \cdot |V|, & \text{if } \{u, v\} \notin E \end{cases}$$

- ullet If G has a Hamiltonian Cycle, then OPT for the TSP is of value $\leq |V|$
- **5** If G has no Hamiltonian Cycle, then OPT for TSP must use an edge not in V, thus value is $\geq (1 + \alpha) \cdot |V|$
- **1** Thus, M on input H will output a Hamiltonian Cycle of G, if G has one, or it will output a solution with value $\geq (1 + \alpha) \cdot |V|$

- Background and Motivation
 - Why Hardness of Approximation?
 - How do we prove Hardness of Approximation?
 - Hardness of Approximation Example
- Proofs & Hardness of Approximation
- Conclusion
- Acknowledgements

Complexity Classes

• NP: Set of languages $L \subseteq \{0,1\}^*$ such that there exists a poly-time Turing Machine V, such that:

$$x \in L \Leftrightarrow \exists w \in \{0,1\}^{\text{poly}(|x|)} \text{ s.t. } V(x,y) = 1$$

Complexity Classes

• **NP:** Set of languages $L \subseteq \{0,1\}^*$ such that there exists a poly-time Turing Machine V, such that:

$$x \in L \Leftrightarrow \exists w \in \{0,1\}^{\mathsf{poly}(|x|)} \text{ s.t. } V(x,y) = 1$$

• **BPP:** Set of languages $L \subseteq \{0,1\}^*$ such that there exists a poly-time Turing Machine M, such that for every $x \in \{0,1\}^*$, we have

$$\Pr_{R \in \{0,1\}^{\text{poly}(|x|)}}[M(x,R) = L(x)] \ge 2/3$$

Complexity Classes

• **NP:** Set of languages $L \subseteq \{0,1\}^*$ such that there exists a poly-time Turing Machine V, such that:

$$x \in L \Leftrightarrow \exists w \in \{0,1\}^{\mathsf{poly}(|x|)} \text{ s.t. } V(x,y) = 1$$

• **BPP:** Set of languages $L \subseteq \{0,1\}^*$ such that there exists a poly-time Turing Machine M, such that for every $x \in \{0,1\}^*$, we have

$$\Pr_{R \in \{0,1\}^{\text{poly}(|x|)}}[M(x,R) = L(x)] \ge 2/3$$

• **RP:** Set of languages $L \subseteq \{0,1\}^*$ such that there exists a poly-time Turing Machine M, such that:

$$x \in L \Rightarrow \Pr_{R \in \{0,1\}^{\text{poly}(|x|)}}[M(x,R) = 1] \ge 2/3$$
$$x \notin L \Rightarrow \Pr_{R \in \{0,1\}^{\text{poly}(|x|)}}[M(x,R) = 1] = 0$$

Complexity Classes

• **NP:** Set of languages $L \subseteq \{0,1\}^*$ such that there exists a poly-time Turing Machine V, such that:

$$x \in L \Leftrightarrow \exists w \in \{0,1\}^{\text{poly}(|x|)} \text{ s.t. } V(x,y) = 1$$

• **BPP:** Set of languages $L \subseteq \{0,1\}^*$ such that there exists a poly-time Turing Machine M, such that for every $x \in \{0,1\}^*$, we have

$$\Pr_{R \in \{0,1\}^{\text{poly}(|x|)}}[M(x,R) = L(x)] \ge 2/3$$

• **RP:** Set of languages $L \subseteq \{0,1\}^*$ such that there exists a poly-time Turing Machine M, such that:

$$x \in L \Rightarrow \Pr_{R \in \{0,1\}^{\text{poly}(|x|)}}[M(x,R) = 1] \ge 2/3$$
$$x \notin L \Rightarrow \Pr_{R \in \{0,1\}^{\text{poly}(|x|)}}[M(x,R) = 1] = 0$$

• co-RP: languages $L \subseteq \{0,1\}^*$ s.t. $\overline{L} \in RP$



- A prover and a verifier agree on the following:
 - The prover must provide proofs in a certain format
 - The verifier can use algorithms from a certain complexity class for verification

- A prover and a verifier agree on the following:
 - The prover must provide proofs in a certain format
 - The verifier can use algorithms from a certain complexity class for verification
- ② A statement is given to both prover and verifier (for instance "Graph G(V, E) has a Hamiltonian Cycle")

- A prover and a verifier agree on the following:
 - The prover must provide proofs in a certain format
 - The verifier can use algorithms from a certain complexity class for verification
- ② A statement is given to both prover and verifier (for instance "Graph G(V,E) has a Hamiltonian Cycle")
- A prover writes down a proof of the statement

- A prover and a verifier agree on the following:
 - The prover must provide proofs in a certain format
 - The verifier can use algorithms from a certain complexity class for verification
- ② A statement is given to both prover and verifier (for instance "Graph G(V,E) has a Hamiltonian Cycle")
- A prover writes down a proof of the statement
- The verifier uses an algorithm of their choice to check the statement and proof, and accepts or rejects accordingly.

- A prover and a verifier agree on the following:
 - The prover must provide proofs in a certain format
 - The verifier can use algorithms from a certain complexity class for verification
- ② A statement is given to both prover and verifier (for instance "Graph G(V, E) has a Hamiltonian Cycle")
- A prover writes down a proof of the statement
- The verifier uses an algorithm of their choice to check the statement and proof, and accepts or rejects accordingly.
- NP as a proof system:
 - $L \subseteq \{0,1\}^n$ is the language, verifier can use any deterministic, poly-time Turing Machine

- A prover and a verifier agree on the following:
 - The prover must provide proofs in a certain format
 - The verifier can use algorithms from a certain complexity class for verification
- ② A statement is given to both prover and verifier (for instance "Graph G(V,E) has a Hamiltonian Cycle")
- A prover writes down a proof of the statement
- The verifier uses an algorithm of their choice to check the statement and proof, and accepts or rejects accordingly.
- NP as a proof system:
 - $L \subseteq \{0,1\}^n$ is the language, verifier can use any deterministic, poly-time Turing Machine
 - Given an element x, the prover gives a proof (also known as witness) $w \in \{0,1\}^{\text{poly}(|x|)}$

- A prover and a verifier agree on the following:
 - The prover must provide proofs in a certain format
 - The verifier can use algorithms from a certain complexity class for verification
- ② A statement is given to both prover and verifier (for instance "Graph G(V, E) has a Hamiltonian Cycle")
- A prover writes down a proof of the statement
- The verifier uses an algorithm of their choice to check the statement and proof, and accepts or rejects accordingly.
- NP as a proof system:
 - $L \subseteq \{0,1\}^n$ is the language, verifier can use any deterministic, poly-time Turing Machine
 - Given an element x, the prover gives a proof (also known as witness) $w \in \{0,1\}^{\operatorname{poly}(|x|)}$
 - Verifier picks a poly-time Turing Machine V and outputs $\begin{cases} TRUE, & \text{if } V(x, w) = 1 \\ FALSE, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

- Two parameters (aside from efficiency):
 - Completeness: correct statements have a proof in the system
 - Soundness: false statements do not have a proof in the system

- Two parameters (aside from efficiency):
 - Completeness: correct statements have a proof in the system
 - Soundness: false statements do not have a proof in the system
- O NP as a proof system:
 - $L \subseteq \{0,1\}^n$ is the language, verifier can use any poly-time Turing Machine
 - Given an element x, the prover gives a proof (also known as witness) $w \in \{0,1\}^{\operatorname{poly}(|x|)}$
 - Verifier picks a deterministic, poly-time Turing Machine V and outputs $\int TRUE$, if V(x,w)=1 $\int FALSE$, otherwise

- Two parameters (aside from efficiency):
 - **Completeness:** *correct* statements *have a proof* in the system
 - Soundness: false statements do not have a proof in the system
- NP as a proof system:
 - $L\subseteq\{0,1\}^n$ is the language, verifier can use any poly-time Turing Machine
 - Given an element x, the prover gives a proof (also known as witness) $w \in \{0,1\}^{\text{poly}(|x|)}$
 - Verifier picks a deterministic, poly-time Turing Machine V and outputs $\int TRUE$, if V(x,w)=1 $\int FALSE$, otherwise
 - Completeness: $x \in L \Rightarrow \exists w \in \{0,1\}^{\text{poly}(|x|)}$ such that V(x,w)=1

- Two parameters (aside from efficiency):
 - Completeness: correct statements have a proof in the system
 - Soundness: false statements do not have a proof in the system
- NP as a proof system:
 - $L\subseteq\{0,1\}^n$ is the language, verifier can use any poly-time Turing Machine
 - Given an element x, the prover gives a proof (also known as witness) $w \in \{0,1\}^{\text{poly}(|x|)}$
 - Verifier picks a deterministic, poly-time Turing Machine V and outputs $\int TRUE$, if V(x,w)=1 $\int FALSE$, otherwise
 - Completeness: $x \in L \Rightarrow \exists w \in \{0,1\}^{\text{poly}(|x|)}$ such that V(x,w) = 1
 - Soundness: $x \notin L \Rightarrow \forall w \in \{0,1\}^{\text{poly}(|x|)}$ we have V(x,w) = 0

What if we allow our verifier to run a randomized algorithm?

What if we allow our verifier to run a randomized algorithm?

Definition (Probabilistic Proof System)

In a probabilistic proof system, the verifier has a randomized algorithm ${\it V}$ for which:

lacktriangledown Given language L (the language of correct statements)

What if we allow our verifier to run a randomized algorithm?

Definition (Probabilistic Proof System)

In a probabilistic proof system, the verifier has a randomized algorithm ${\it V}$ for which:

- lacktriangledown Given language L (the language of correct statements)
- ② $x \in L \Rightarrow$ there exists proof w such that $Pr[V^w(x) = 1] = 1$

What if we allow our verifier to run a randomized algorithm?

Definition (Probabilistic Proof System)

In a probabilistic proof system, the verifier has a randomized algorithm ${\it V}$ for which:

- lacktriangle Given language L (the language of correct statements)
- ② $x \in L \Rightarrow$ there exists proof w such that $Pr[V^w(x) = 1] = 1$
- 3 $x \notin L \Rightarrow$ for any "proof" w, we have $\Pr[V^w(x) = 1] \le 1/2$

What if we allow our verifier to run a randomized algorithm?

Definition (Probabilistic Proof System)

In a probabilistic proof system, the verifier has a randomized algorithm ${\it V}$ for which:

- Given language L (the language of correct statements)
- ② $x \in L \Rightarrow$ there exists proof w such that $Pr[V^w(x) = 1] = 1$
- **3** $x \notin L \Rightarrow$ for any "proof" w, we have $\Pr[V^w(x) = 1] \le 1/2$

Definition (Probabilistic Checkable Proofs (PCPs))

The class of *Probabilistic Checkable Proofs* consists of languages *L* that have a *randomized poly-time* verifier *V* such that

What if we allow our verifier to run a randomized algorithm?

Definition (Probabilistic Proof System)

In a probabilistic proof system, the verifier has a randomized algorithm ${\it V}$ for which:

- lacktriangle Given language L (the language of correct statements)
- ② $x \in L \Rightarrow$ there exists proof w such that $Pr[V^w(x) = 1] = 1$
- **3** $x \notin L \Rightarrow$ for any "proof" w, we have $\Pr[V^w(x) = 1] \le 1/2$

Definition (Probabilistic Checkable Proofs (PCPs))

The class of Probabilistic Checkable Proofs consists of languages L that have a randomized poly-time verifier V such that

- **1** $x \in L \Rightarrow \exists$ proof w such that $Pr[V^w(x) = 1] = 1$
- ② $x \notin L \Rightarrow \forall$ "proof" w, we have $\Pr[V^w(x) = 1] \le 1/2$

Definition (Probabilistic Checkable Proofs (PCPs))

The class of $Probabilistic\ Checkable\ Proofs\ (PCP)$ consists of languages L that have a randomized poly-time verifier V such that

- **1** $x \in L \Rightarrow$ there exists proof w such that $Pr[V^w(x) = 1] = 1$
- ② $x \notin L \Rightarrow$ for any proof w, we have $\Pr[V^w(x) = 1] \le 1/2$

Definition (Probabilistic Checkable Proofs (PCPs))

The class of $Probabilistic\ Checkable\ Proofs\ (PCP)$ consists of languages L that have a randomized poly-time verifier V such that

- **1** $x \in L \Rightarrow$ there exists proof w such that $\Pr[V^w(x) = 1] = 1$
- ② $x \notin L \Rightarrow$ for any proof w, we have $\Pr[V^w(x) = 1] \le 1/2$
 - PCP[r(n), q(n)] consists of all languages $L \in PCP$ such that, on inputs x of length n

Definition (Probabilistic Checkable Proofs (PCPs))

The class of $Probabilistic\ Checkable\ Proofs\ (PCP)$ consists of languages L that have a randomized poly-time verifier V such that

- **1** $x \in L \Rightarrow$ there exists proof w such that $Pr[V^w(x) = 1] = 1$
- 2 $x \notin L \Rightarrow$ for any proof w, we have $\Pr[V^w(x) = 1] \le 1/2$
 - PCP[r(n), q(n)] consists of all languages $L \in PCP$ such that, on inputs x of length n
 - ① Uses O(r(n)) random bits
 - 2 Examines O(q(n)) bits of a proof w

Note that n does not depend on w, only on x.

Definition (Probabilistic Checkable Proofs (PCPs))

The class of $Probabilistic\ Checkable\ Proofs\ (PCP)$ consists of languages L that have a randomized poly-time verifier V such that

- **1** $x \in L \Rightarrow$ there exists proof w such that $Pr[V^w(x) = 1] = 1$
- 2 $x \notin L \Rightarrow$ for any proof w, we have $\Pr[V^w(x) = 1] \le 1/2$
 - PCP[r(n), q(n)] consists of all languages $L \in PCP$ such that, on inputs x of length n
 - ① Uses O(r(n)) random bits
 - 2 Examines O(q(n)) bits of a proof w

Note that n does not depend on w, only on x.

Theorem (PCP theorem [AS'98, ALMSS'98])

$$PCP[\log n, 1] = NP$$

Definition (Max 3SAT)

- **Input:** a 3CNF formula φ on boolean variables x_1, \ldots, x_n and m clauses
- Output: the maximum number of clauses of φ which can be simultaneously satisfied.

Theorem

- The PCP theorem implies that there is an $\varepsilon > 0$ such that there is no polynomial time $(1 + \varepsilon)$ -approximation algorithm for Max 3SAT, unless P = NP.
- **2** Moreover, if Max 3SAT is hard to approximate within a factor of $(1 + \varepsilon)$, then the PCP theorem holds.
- In other words, the PCP theorem and the hardness of approximation of Max 3SAT are equivalent.

- Let us assume the PCP theorem holds.
 - Let $L \in PCP[\log n, 1]$ be an NP-complete problem.
 - Let V be the $(O(\log n), q)$ verifier for L, where q is a constant

- Let us assume the PCP theorem holds.
 - Let $L \in PCP[\log n, 1]$ be an NP-complete problem.
 - Let V be the $(O(\log n), q)$ verifier for L, where q is a constant
- ② We now describe a reduction from L to Max 3SAT which has a gap.

- Let us assume the PCP theorem holds.
 - Let $L \in PCP[\log n, 1]$ be an NP-complete problem.
 - Let V be the $(O(\log n), q)$ verifier for L, where q is a constant
- ② We now describe a reduction from L to Max 3SAT which has a gap.
- **3** Given an instance x of problem L, we construct 3CNF formula φ_x with m clauses such that, for some ε we have
 - $x \in L \Rightarrow \varphi_x$ is satisfiable
 - $x \not\in L \Rightarrow$ no assignment satisfies more than $(1-\varepsilon) \cdot m$ clauses of φ_x

- 1 Let us assume the PCP theorem holds.
 - Let $L \in PCP[\log n, 1]$ be an NP-complete problem.
 - Let V be the $(O(\log n), q)$ verifier for L, where q is a constant
- ② We now describe a reduction from L to Max 3SAT which has a gap.
- **3** Given an instance x of problem L, we construct 3CNF formula φ_x with m clauses such that, for some ε we have
 - $x \in L \Rightarrow \varphi_x$ is satisfiable
 - $x \notin L \Rightarrow$ no assignment satisfies more than $(1 \varepsilon) \cdot m$ clauses of φ_x
- **ullet** Enumerate all random inputs R for the verifier V.
 - Length of each random string is $O(\log n)$, by definition. So number of such random inputs is poly(n).
 - For each R, V chooses q positions i_1^R,\ldots,i_q^R and a boolean function $f_R:\{0,1\}^q \to \{0,1\}$ and accepts iff $f_R(w_{i_1^R},\ldots,w_{i_q^R})=1$.

- Enumerate all random inputs R for the verifier V.
 - Length of each random string is $O(\log n)$, by definition. So number of such random inputs is poly(n).
 - For each R, V chooses q positions i_1^R, \ldots, i_q^R and a boolean function $f_R: \{0,1\}^q \to \{0,1\}$ and accepts iff $f_R(w_{i_1^R}, \ldots, w_{i_q^R}) = 1$.

- Enumerate all random inputs R for the verifier V.
 - Length of each random string is $O(\log n)$, by definition. So number of such random inputs is poly(n).
 - For each R, V chooses q positions i_1^R, \ldots, i_q^R and a boolean function $f_R: \{0,1\}^q \to \{0,1\}$ and accepts iff $f_R(w_{i_1^R}, \ldots, w_{i_q^R}) = 1$.
- ② Simulate the computation f_R of the verifier for different random inputs R and witnesses w as a Boolean formula.
 - Can be done with a CNF of size 2^q
 - Converting to 3CNF we get a formula of size $q \cdot 2^q$

- Enumerate all random inputs R for the verifier V.
 - Length of each random string is $O(\log n)$, by definition. So number of such random inputs is poly(n).
 - For each R, V chooses q positions i_1^R, \ldots, i_q^R and a boolean function $f_R: \{0,1\}^q \to \{0,1\}$ and accepts iff $f_R(w_{i_1^R}, \ldots, w_{i_q^R}) = 1$.
- ② Simulate the computation f_R of the verifier for different random inputs R and witnesses w as a Boolean formula.
 - Can be done with a CNF of size 2^q
 - Converting to 3CNF we get a formula of size $q \cdot 2^q$
- **3** Let φ_{x} be the 3CNF we get by putting together all the 3CNFs constructed above

- Enumerate all random inputs R for the verifier V.
 - Length of each random string is $O(\log n)$, by definition. So number of such random inputs is poly(n).
 - For each R, V chooses q positions i_1^R, \ldots, i_q^R and a boolean function $f_R: \{0,1\}^q \to \{0,1\}$ and accepts iff $f_R(w_{i_1^R}, \ldots, w_{i_q^R}) = 1$.
- ② Simulate the computation f_R of the verifier for different random inputs R and witnesses w as a Boolean formula.
 - Can be done with a CNF of size 2^q
 - Converting to 3CNF we get a formula of size $q \cdot 2^q$
- **3** Let φ_x be the 3CNF we get by putting together all the 3CNFs constructed above
- If $x \in L$ then there is a witness w such that V(x, w) accepts for every random string R. In this case, φ_x is satisfiable!

- Enumerate all random inputs R for the verifier V.
 - Length of each random string is $O(\log n)$, by definition. So number of such random inputs is poly(n).
 - For each R, V chooses q positions i_1^R, \ldots, i_q^R and a boolean function $f_R: \{0,1\}^q \to \{0,1\}$ and accepts iff $f_R(w_{i_1^R}, \ldots, w_{i_q^R}) = 1$.
- ② Simulate the computation f_R of the verifier for different random inputs R and witnesses w as a Boolean formula.
 - Can be done with a CNF of size 2^q
 - Converting to 3CNF we get a formula of size $q \cdot 2^q$
- **3** Let φ_x be the 3CNF we get by putting together all the 3CNFs constructed above
- If $x \in L$ then there is a witness w such that V(x, w) accepts for every random string R. In this case, φ_x is satisfiable!
- **1** If $x \notin L$ then the verifier says NO for half of the random strings R.
 - For each such random string, at least one of its clauses fails
 - Thus at least $\varepsilon=\frac{1}{2\cdot q\cdot 2^q}$ of the clauses of $\varphi_{\scriptscriptstyle X}$ fails.



Conclusion

- Important to study hardness of approximation for NP-hard problems
- Different hard problems have different approximation parameters
- For hardness of approximation, need more robust reductions between combinatorial problems
- Proof systems, in particular Probabilistic Checkable Proofs, allows us to get such strong reductions
- Many more applications in computer science and industry!
 - Program Checking (for software engineering)
 - Zero-knowledge proofs in cryptocurrencies
 - many more...

Acknowledgement

- Lecture based largely on:
 - Section's 1-3 of Luca's survey [Trevisan 2004]
 - [Motwani & Raghavan 2007, Chapter 7]
- See Luca's survey https://arxiv.org/pdf/cs/0409043

References I



Trevisan, Luca (2004)

Inapproximability of combinatorial optimization problems.

arXiv preprint cs/0409043 (2004).



Motwani, Rajeev and Raghavan, Prabhakar (2007)

Randomized Algorithms



Arora, Sanjeev, and Shmuel Safra (1998)

Probabilistic checking of proofs: A new characterization of NP.

Journal of the ACM (JACM) 45, no. 1 (1998): 70-122.



Arora, Sanjeev, Carsten Lund, Rajeev Motwani, Madhu Sudan, and Mario Szegedy (1998)

Proof verification and the hardness of approximation problems.

Journal of the ACM (JACM) 45, no. 3 (1998): 501-555.