Infeasibility of Instance Compression and Succinct PCPs for NP

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Abstract

We study the notion of instance compressibility for NP problems [HN06b], closely related to the notion of kernelization in parameterized complexity [DF99, FG06, Nie06]. An NP language $L$ is instance compressible if there is a set $A$ and a polynomial-time computable reduction $f$ such for any instance $x$ of $L$, $|f(x)|$ is polynomially bounded in the witness size of $x$, and $x \in L$ iff $f(x) \in A$.

We show that SAT is not instance compressible unless $\text{NP} \subseteq \text{coNP}/\text{poly}$, and the Polynomial Hierarchy collapses. This result settles an open problem proposed by Downey [Dow07] and Harnik and Naor [HN06b] and has a number of implications.

- A number of parametric NP problems, including Satisfiability, Clique, Dominating Set and Integer Programming, are not polynomially kernelizable unless $\text{NP} \subseteq \text{coNP}/\text{poly}$.
- Satisfiability does not have PCPs of size polynomial in the number of variables unless $\text{NP} \subseteq \text{coNP}/\text{poly}$.
- An approach of Harnik and Naor to constructing collision-resistant hash functions from one-way functions is invalid in its current form.
- (Buhrman) There are no subexponential-size complete sets for NP or co-NP unless NP is in co-NP/poly.

We also study probabilistic variants of compression, and show various results about and connections between these variants. To this end, we introduce a new strong derandomization hypothesis, the Oracle Derandomization Hypothesis, and discuss how it relates to traditional derandomization assumptions.

1 Introduction

Say we have a problem $L$ which we wish to solve in polynomial time, but we don’t yet have a polynomial-time algorithm for $L$. Is there a way to quantify how close we can get in polynomial time to solving $L$? Here’s a natural approach: Let $f : \{0,1\}^* \rightarrow \{0,1\}^*$ be a function such that for any instance $x$, $f(x)$ uniquely determines whether $x \in L$. Try to find such an $f$ computable in polynomial time such that $|f(x)|$ grows as slowly as possible as a function of $x$. If we find such an $f$ with $|f(x)| = 1$ for all $x$, this implies that we can actually solve $L$ in polynomial time; on the other hand $f(x) = x$ is a trivial $f$ satisfying our requirement. In between these two cases is a continuum where the growth rate of $f$ represents “degree of success” in solving $L$. We call $f$ a compression
function for \( L \), since a non-trivial \( f \) compresses \( x \) while preserving information about membership in \( L \) (note that is the only kind of information about \( x \) that we are required to preserve).

We could apply this idea to NP-complete problems, to develop a theory of “partial solvability” of NP-complete problems. An important issue here is the complexity of deciding, given \( f(x) \), whether it corresponds to membership in \( L \) or non-membership in \( L \). If \( f(x) \) is itself an instance of \( L \), and if for all \( x \), \( |f(x)| < |x| \), then by applying \( f \) iteratively until the instance size is reduced to a constant, we can decide \( L \) in polynomial time. Thus the more interesting case is where \( f(x) \) is an instance of a different language \( A \), which may or may not be in NP for \( L \in NP \). The following general question arises.

**Question 1** For which NP-complete \( L \) is there a polynomial-time computable compression function \( f \) such that \( |f(x)| < |x| \) for all \( x \).

As stated, the question is unlikely to have a positive answer for \( f \) that compress significantly, say to a length sub-polynomial in \( |x| \). This is because a language \( L \) with a compression function \( f \) with growth rate \( g \) is decidable non-uniformly by circuits of size \( 2^{g(n)+1} - \) a circuit that encodes for each string of length at most \( g(n) \) whether that string corresponds to membership or non-membership in \( L \) is sufficient to decide membership in \( L \) for strings of length \( n \). If \( g(n) \) is sub-polynomial in \( n \), we get that \( L \) has sub-exponential size circuits, which is considered unlikely for \( L \) that is NP-complete.

Hence we need to relax our conditions if we hope to achieve a significant amount of compression. Suppose we have an instance of \( L \in NP \) where the instance size \( m \) is significantly larger than the witness size \( n \). Such an instance is decidable in time \( O(2^n \text{poly}(m)) \) just by a brute-force search of the witness space. Perhaps, for such instances, compression to length \( \text{poly}(n) \) might not have unlikely consequences and might even be achievable? We get the following relaxed version of Question 1.

**Question 2** For which NP-complete \( L \) is there a polynomial-time compression function \( f \) which compresses to size polynomial in the witness size?

We arrived at Question 2 from a purely conceptual consideration of “partial solvability”, but in fact Question 2 has been considered before from a more practical viewpoint, in the research area of parameterized complexity [DF99, Fg06, Nie06]. Parameterized complexity investigates algorithms for NP problems whose complexity depends principally on a certain parameter of the problem, often the witness size, rather than on the instance size (which may be much larger). A popular algorithm design technique in this area is to kernelize [GN07], namely to reduce the instance to a smaller instance of the problem whose size depends only on the parameter. This is precisely the case of Question 2 where the compressed instance is an instance of the original language. For example, it’s known that any instance of the NP-complete problem Vertex Cover can be reduced to an instance whose size is linear in the size of the required vertex cover [NT75, CKJ01]. Though various techniques for kernelization are known, resulting in efficient algorithms for certain problems, there’s very little known so far about lower bounds on kernelization - evidence that certain other problems are inherently non-kernelizable.

More recently, Harnik and Naor [HN06b] studied Question 2 with a completely different motivation, cryptographic in nature. Our terminology in the discussion above is drawn from their work. They showed that if the Satisfiability problem is compressible in the sense of Question 2, then collision resistant hash functions can be constructed from one-way functions. If an even stronger compressibility assumption holds, then oblivious transfer protocols can be constructed from one-
way functions. This would imply that public-key cryptography can be based on one-way functions, solving one of the outstanding open problems in theoretical cryptography. In light of these applications, finding a compression algorithm for SAT or giving evidence against the existence of one becomes an interesting research direction.

Our main result states that Question 2 has a negative answer for the SAT problem unless $NP \subseteq \text{coNP}/\text{poly}$ and the Polynomial Hierarchy collapses to its third level. The assumption that the Polynomial Hierarchy does not collapse is one of the most standard and widely-believed complexity-theoretic assumptions.

In fact, our negative result holds even for a restricted version of SAT known as OR-SAT. An instance of OR-SAT contains consists of $m$ Boolean formulas of size $n$, with a positive instance being one where at least one of these formulas are satisfiable. Here the parameter of interest is $n$, which upper bounds the witness size. The significance of this problem arises mainly from the fact that compressibility of OR-SAT is what Harnik and Naor require for their cryptographic constructions. But in addition, the negative result for OR-SAT yields negative results for various NP-complete problems, such as Clique, DominatingSet and IntegerProgramming.

Our proof technique uses the fact that if a compression function $f$ reduces OR-SAT to a set $A$ and $f(\phi_1, \ldots, \phi_m) = \psi$ for a $\psi$ not in $A$ then none of the $\phi_i$ are satisfiable. We choose $m$ a polynomial in $n$ that depends on $f$ and use a combinatorial argument to generate a polynomial number of $\psi \not\in A$ that will serve as advice for NP proofs of unsatisfiability for all unsatisfiable $\phi_i$.

Our main result and technique have several applications. First, since kernelization is a special case of compression where the compressed instances are instances of the same language as the original instance, our result gives strong evidence that several natural NP-complete problems such as SAT, Clique, DominatingSet and IntegerProgramming are not polynomially kernelizable. These are the first results showing that natural problems are not polynomially kernelizable under a standard complexity-theoretic assumption.

Second, our results indicate that the current approach of Harnik and Naor to cryptographic constructions may not be viable. This raises the interesting question of whether there are weaker, more plausible compressibility assumptions which might yield similar constructions.

Third, our technique is relevant to the question of whether there are succinct PCPs for NP, which has been raised recently by Kalai and Raz [KR07]. A succinct PCP for a instance with size $m$ and witness size $n$ is a probabilistically checkable proof for the instance where the size of the proof is polynomial in the witness size $n$ rather than in the instance size $m$. Current proofs of the PCP theorem [AS98, ALM+98, Din07] do not yield such PCPs. Kalai and Raz state that the existence of succinct PCPs would have important applications in complexity theory and cryptography, while a negative result would be extremely interesting from a theoretical point of view”. We show such a negative result: unless $NP \subseteq \text{coNP}/\text{poly}$ and the Polynomial Hierarchy collapses, SAT does not have succinct PCPs, nor do problems like Clique and DominatingSet. On the other hand, polynomially kernelizable problems such as VertexCover do have succinct PCPs.

All the results mentioned so far concern compressibility using an $f$ that is computable in deterministic polynomial time or in probabilistic polynomial time with very small error. We also study the case of general probabilistic compression. Here we do not have strong negative results, but we do have negative results for restricted notions as well as connections between different notions. Under a strong derandomization assumption that we call the Oracle Derandomization Hypothesis, we extend our infeasibility result for succinct PCPs to the more general case of gap amplification without blowing up the parameter by more than a polynomial factor. This has applications to the theory of hardness of approximation in the context of parameterized complexity.

In a follow-up to our work, Chen and Müller [CM07] use our techniques to give a one-sided
randomized version of our main theorem, and show infeasibility of one-sided gap amplification without superpolynomial blow-up in the number of variables.

Bodlaender, Downey, Fellows and Hermelin [BDFH07] explore the question of which NP-complete problems are unlikely to have a polynomial kernelization, in light of our main result.

Buhrman [Buh07] has used the proof of our main theorem to show that if NP is not in coNP/poly then no NP-complete or coNP-complete set reduces to any set $A$ that has at most $2^{n^{o(1)}}$ strings at every length. This is an extension of the classical theorem of Mahaney [Mah82] on sparseness of NP-complete sets.

In Section 2 we formally define the model and the problems. In Section 3 we prove our main result Theorem 3.1. In Section 4 we describe some applications of our main result and techniques for succinct PCPs, kernelization and cryptography. In Section 5 we give results about probabilistic compression. We discuss the feasibility of the Oracle Derandomization Hypothesis in Section 6.

## 2 Preliminaries

### 2.1 Basic Complexity Notions

For the definitions of basic complexity classes such as NP, P, E, BPP and AM, we refer the reader to the Complexity Zoo\(^1\). The work of Garey and Johnson [GJ76] is an excellent compendium of NP-complete problems. There are a number of good reference works on parameterized complexity [DF99, FG06, NC06].

We use $\text{SIZE}(s)$ to refer to the class of languages accepted by Boolean circuits of size $O(s)$, and $\text{NSIZE}(s)$ to refer to the class of languages accepted by non-deterministic Boolean circuits of size $O(s)$. Given a complexity class $C$, $\text{i.o.} C$ is the class of languages $L$ for which there is some $L' \in C$ such that $L'$ agrees with $L$ on infinitely many input lengths.

### 2.2 Instance Compression

Motivated by cryptographic applications, Harnik and Naor [HN06b] introduced the notion of instance compression for languages in NP. Informally, a language $L \in \text{NP}$ is instance compressible if there is a polynomial time algorithm that, for each instance $x$, produces an instance $C(x)$ of length polynomial in the witness size for $x$, such that $C(x) \in L$ iff $x \in L$. When the witness size is significantly smaller than the instance size, this gives a significant compression of the original instance $x$ with respect to membership in $L$.

Harnik and Naor [HN06b] define instance compression relative to languages. Since an NP language could correspond to different relations with varying witness lengths, this notion is not robust when considering compression of languages. Hence we choose to define instance compression for parametric problems - problems in which the instance is given with an additional parameter, and the length of the compressed instance is required to be polynomial in that parameter. Note that for most problems of interest in NP, such as Vertex Cover and Clique, the traditional instance specification includes the relevant parameter (respectively, the size of the vertex cover and size of the clique). For other problems, such as Satisfiability, the relevant parameter is implicit in the instance, eg., the description of a formula $\phi$ also reveals the number of variables in $\phi$, and hence the witness length.

Our formulation has three other advantages. First, it enables us to pose the question of whether a given problem has small witnesses or not. Second, the parameter could potentially be used to

\(^1\)\url{http://qwiki.caltech.edu/wiki/Complexity_Zoo}
represent quantities other than the witness length. Third, the formulation enables us to study compression of languages that are not in NP. In this paper, though, we'll focus on natural parametric versions of NP problems, where the parameter corresponds to the witness length.

**Definition 2.1.** A parametric problem is a subset of \( \{ < x, 1^n > | x \in \{0, 1\}^* , n \in \mathbb{N} \} \).

**Definition 2.2.** Let \( L \) be a parametric problem and \( A \subseteq \{0, 1\}^* \). \( L \) is said to be compressible within \( A \) if there is a polynomial \( p(\cdot) \), and a polynomial-time computable function \( f \), such that for each \( x \in \{0, 1\}^* \) and \( n \in \mathbb{N} \), \( |f(< x, 1^n >)| \leq p(n) \) and \( < x, 1^n > \in L \) iff \( f(< x, 1^n >) \in A \). \( L \) is compressible if there is some \( A \) for which \( L \) is compressible within \( A \). \( L \) is self-compressible if \( L \) is compressible within \( L \).

We remark here that our definition differs slightly from that of Harnik and Naor in that the size of the compressed instance is only allowed to be polynomial in \( n \) rather than polynomial in \( n \) and \( \log(m) \). In our opinion, this is a cleaner and conceptually better-motivated definition. This choice does not have an impact on the strength of our results - our conditional lower bounds for compression go through even in the more relaxed setting of Harnik and Naor.

Harnik and Naor also consider variants where the compressed size need not be polynomially bounded in \( n \) and \( \log(m) \) but is constrained to be at most some larger non-trivial function in \( n \) and \( \log(m) \). Our negative results on compressibility scale smoothly in terms of the strength of the assumption required as the constraint on the compressed size becomes weaker.

We will also be interested in probabilistic compression.

**Definition 2.3.** Let \( L \) be a parametric problem and \( A \subseteq \{0, 1\}^* \). \( L \) is said to be probabilistically compressible with error \( \epsilon(n) \) within \( A \) if there is a probabilistic polynomial-time computable function \( f \) such that for each \( x \in \{0, 1\}^* \) and \( n \in \mathbb{N} \), with probability at least \( 1 - \epsilon(|x|) \) we have:

1. \( |f(< x, 1^n >)| \leq \text{poly}(n) \)
2. \( f(< x, 1^n >) \in A \) iff \( x \in L \)

\( L \) is probabilistically compressible if there is an \( A \) such that \( L \) is probabilistically compressible within \( A \) with error \( 1/3 \). \( L \) is errorless compressible if there is an \( A \) such that \( L \) is probabilistically compressible within \( A \) with error \( 0 \).

We say that a probabilistic compression function \( f \) has randomness complexity \( R \) if it uses at most \( R \) random bits.

Note that errorless compression is a distinct notion from deterministic compression.

We also define, informally but unambiguously, non-uniform and average-case versions of compression.

**Definition 2.4.** A parametric problem \( L \) is said to be compressible with advice \( s(\cdot, \cdot) \) if the compression function is computable in deterministic polynomial time when given access to an advice string of size \( s(|x|, n) \) which depends only on \( |x| \) and \( n \) but not on \( x \). \( L \) is non-uniformly compressible if \( s \) is polynomially bounded in \( m \) and \( n \).

**Definition 2.5.** A parametric problem \( L \) is said to be compressible with success \( a(\cdot, \cdot) \) if the compression function works correctly for at least a fraction \( a(m, n) \) of instances \( < x, 1^n > \) where \( |x| = m \).
Compression on average with advice is defined by combining the two notions in the obvious way; similarly probabilistic compression with advice is defined by combining the notion of probabilistic compression with the notion of non-uniform compression. Note that deterministic compression is compression with success 1 using 0 bits of advice.

We will mainly be discussing compressibility of parametric problems in NP. We next define some of the problems we will be studying.

**Definition 2.6.** $SAT = \{<\phi, 1^n> | \phi$ is a satisfiable formula, and $n$ is at least the number of variables in $\phi}\}.$

**Definition 2.7.** $VC = \{<G, 1^{k\log(m)}> | G$ has a vertex cover of size at most $k\}.$

**Definition 2.8.** $Clique = \{<G, 1^{k\log(m)}> | G$ has a clique of size at most $k\}.$

Note that our representation of the inputs to VC and Clique is slightly non-standard in that we specify $k \log(m)$ rather than just the size $k$ of the object for which we’re searching. This is because we would like the parameter to accurately reflect the witness size.

**Definition 2.9.** $OR\text{-}SAT = \{<\phi_i, 1^n> | At least one $\phi_i$ is satisfiable, and each $\phi_i$ has size at most $n\}.$

Similarly we define the parametric problems DominatingSet and IntegerProgramming in the natural way.

One imagines it would be useful to have a structure theory relating compressibility of these various problems, analogous to the theory of NP-completeness for decidability. Harnik and Naor initiated just such a theory in their paper, by using the notion of “W-reduction” [HN06b] to define a hierarchy $VC_0 \subseteq VC_{OR} \subseteq VC_1 \subseteq VC_2 \ldots$ of problems in NP, closely related to similar hierarchies in the theory of parameterized complexity. Their notion is not rigorous as defined, but becomes rigorous when each class $VC_i$ is defined as a class of parametric problems. In this paper, we are not concerned so much with the hierarchy itself so much as with the basic notion of a W-reduction, which allows us to translate infeasibility of compression results from one parametric problem to another.

**Definition 2.10.** Given parametric problems $L_1$ and $L_2,$ $L_1$ W-reduces to $L_2$ (denoted $L_1 \leq_w L_2$) if there is a polynomial-time computable function $f$ and polynomials $p_1$ and $p_2$ such that:

1. $f(<x, 1^{n_1}>)$ is of the form $<y, n_2>$ where $|y| \leq p_1(n_1 + |x|)$ and $n_2 \leq p_2(n_1)$.
2. $f(<x, 1^{n_1}>)$ $\in L_2$ iff $x, 1^{n_1} \in L_1$.

The semantics of a W-reduction is that if $L_1$ W-reduces to $L_2$, it’s as hard to compress $L_2$ as it is to compress $L_1$.

**Proposition 2.11.** If $L_1 \leq_w L_2$ and $L_2$ is compressible, then $L_1$ is compressible.

Armed with this notion, we can investigate the relative compressibility of the parametric problems we defined earlier.

First, we ask: are there any natural parametric versions of NP-complete problems which can be shown to be compressible? The answer is yes, for problems for which the parameter is polynomially related to the input length. For instance, in the problem 3-SAT, the size of the formula is polynomially related to the number of variables (after deleting repeated clauses), hence any non-redundant version of the formula is itself a compressed instance, by our definition.

There still remains the question of whether there are less trivial compression algorithms for natural parametric problems. Using a close relationship between compressibility and the technique of kernelization in parameterized complexity, Harnik and Naor show the following:
Theorem 2.12. [DF99, HN06b] VC is self-compressible.

As for the remaining problems, all that was previously known were reductions between them.

Proposition 2.13. [HN06b] OR–SAT $\leq_W$ Clique $\leq_W$ SAT $\leq_W$ DominatingSet. Also SAT $\leq_W$ IntegerProgramming.

3 Infeasibility of Deterministic Compression

In this section, we show that deterministic compression of SAT implies that the Polynomial Hierarchy collapses. In fact, the conclusion holds even under the milder assumption that OR-SAT is deterministically compressible.

Theorem 3.1. If OR-SAT is compressible, then coNP $\subseteq$ NP/poly, and hence PH collapses.

Proof. Let $\phi$ be any formula of size at most $m$ consisting of the disjunction of formulae each of size at most $n$. By the assumption on compressibility of OR-SAT, there is a language $A$ and a function $f$ computable in deterministic time $\text{poly}(m)$ such that $|f(\phi, 1^n)| \leq O(\text{poly}(n, \log(m)))$, and $\phi$ is satisfiable iff $f(\phi, 1^n) \in A$. Let $c$ be a constant such that the length of compressed instances on OR-SAT formulae of size at most $m$ and parameter at most $n$ is at most $k = (n + \log(m))^c$.

Now let $S$ be the set of unsatisfiable formulae of size at most $m$ and $T$ be the set of strings in $\bar{A}$ of length at most $k$. The function $f$ induces a map $g : S^{m/n} \rightarrow T$, since a tuple of $m/n$ formulae of size $n$ can be represented in size $m$ in a natural encoding scheme, and the correctness of the reduction implies that a disjunction of $m/n$ unsatisfiable formulae maps to a string in $\bar{A}$ of length at most $k$.

Our strategy will be as follows: we will attempt to find a $\text{poly}(n)$ size set $C$ of strings in $T$, such that any formula in $S$ is contained in at least one tuple that maps to a string in $C$ under the mapping $g$. If such a set $C$ exists, then we have a proof with advice of unsatisfiability of a formula $z$ of size $n$, by guessing a tuple of $m/n$ formulae of size at most $n$ such that $z$ belongs to the tuple, and then checking if the tuple maps to a string in $C$. The check whether the tuple maps to a string in $C$ can be done with polynomial advice, by enumerating the strings in $C$ in the advice string. Any unsatisfiable formula will have such a proof with advice, just by the definition of $C$. Conversely, any tuple containing a satisfiable formula will map to a string in $A$ and hence to a string in $\bar{C}$, implying that no satisfiable formula will have such a proof. If $m = \text{poly}(n)$, then the proof is polynomial-size, and since the advice is polynomial-size as well by assumption on $C$, we get that coNP $\subseteq$ NP/poly.

Thus the proof reduces to showing the existence of a set $C$ with the desired properties. The proof is via a purely combinatorial argument. We employ a greedy strategy, trying to “cover” as many strings in $S$ as possible with each string we pick in $C$. We prove that such a greedy strategy terminates after picking polynomially many strings.

We pick the set $C$ in stages, with one string picked in each stage. Let $C_i$ be the set of strings picked at or before stage $i$, $|C_i| = i$. Let $S_i$ denote the set of strings $y$ in $S$, such that $y$ is not part of a tuple that maps to a string in $C_i$ under $g$. Let $X = S^{m/n}$, and $X_i \subseteq X$ be the set of tuples that do not belong to the pre-image set of $S_i$ (under the mapping $g$).

At stage 0, $C_i$ is the empty set, $S_i = S$ and $X_i = X$. We proceed iteratively as follows. If $S_i$ is empty, we stop. Otherwise, at stage $i$, we pick the string in $T$ with the maximum number of pre-images in $X_{i-1}$, and add it to $C_i$. 

7
We show that if $m$ is picked appropriately as a function of $n$, then this process concludes within $\text{poly}(n)$ stages. It is enough to show that the size of $S_i$ decreases by at least a constant factor in each stage. Since $|S| \leq 2^{n+1}$, this implies that the process concludes after $O(n)$ stages.

Now we analyze the decrease in the size of $S_i$. By the pigeonhole principle, at least $|X_{i-1}|/2^{k+1}$ tuples are in $X_{i-1} - X_i$, i.e., are pre-images of the newest string in $C_i$. This implies that at least $|X_{i-1}|^{n/m}/2^{kn/m}$ elements are in $S_{i-1} - S_i$, since the set of all $m/n$-tuples with elements in $S_{i-1} - S_i$ is contained in $X_{i-1} - X_i$ and has cardinality $|S_{i-1} - S_i|^{m/n}$. But we have $|X_{i-1}|^{n/m} \geq |S_{i-1}|$, since the set of $m/n$-tuples of elements in $S_{i-1}$ is contained in $X_{i-1}$. Hence $|S_{i-1} - S_i| \geq |S_{i-1}|/2^{kn/m}$.

Since $k \leq (\log(m) + n)c$ for some constant $c$, we can pick a constant $c' > c$ large enough so that $kn < m$ when $m = n^c$. For this choice of $m$, we have that $|S_{i-1} - S_i| \geq |S_{i-1}|/2$, and therefore that $|S_i| \leq |S_{i-1}|/2$.

Thus, for this choice of $m$, we have that the set $C$ has size $O(n)$ and that $m$ is polynomially bounded in $n$. By the argument given earlier, this gives polynomial-sized proofs with polynomial advice for unsatisfiable formulae, and implies that $\text{coNP} \subseteq \text{NP}/\text{poly}$. From a result of Yap [Yap83], it follows that PH collapses to the third level.

Since OR-SAT $\text{W}$-reduces to SAT by Proposition 2.13, our infeasibility result also applied to compression of general satisfiable formulae with small witnesses. From Proposition 2.13, we also get consequences for other natural parametric problems.

**Corollary 3.2.** If SAT is compressible, then $\text{coNP} \subseteq \text{NP}/\text{poly}$, and PH collapses. The same conclusion holds if Clique, DominatingSet or IntegerProgramming are compressible.

We next extend our infeasibility result to errorless compression and compression with very small error. This extension uses “Adleman’s trick” [Adl78] to embed a “good” random string in the advice, and then applies the argument for deterministic compression.

**Theorem 3.3.** If OR-SAT is compressible with error $< 2^{-m}$, where $m$ is the instance size, then $\text{NP} \subseteq \text{coNP}/\text{poly}$ and PH collapses.

**Proof.** The key observation is that compression with error $< 2^{-m}$ implies non-uniform compression. This is because, by a union bound, there must be some choice of randomness that yields a correct compressed instance for each instance of length $m$. Let $z$ be such a random string, $z$ is of size at most $\text{poly}(m)$, since the compression algorithm runs in probabilistic polynomial time. Now we just use the same argument as in the proof of Theorem 3.1 except that we also include $z$ in the advice string when defining the proof system with advice for unsatisfiable formulae. In the earlier argument, the mapping from a tuple to a string could be performed deterministically; in the present case, we just perform it using $z$ as the random string for the probabilistic compression function. 

Our infeasibility result also extends to non-uniform compression, using the same proof as for Theorem 3.1.

**Corollary 3.4.** if OR-SAT is non-uniformly compressible, then $\text{NP} \subseteq \text{coNP}/\text{poly}$ and PH collapses.

### 4 Applications

In this section, we discuss the implications of our infeasibility result in various other research areas. First, we show a connection to succinct PCPs, which have attracted interest recently in the context of the study of short zero-knowledge proofs/arguments for NP. Second, we show that our
result connects the theory of parameterized complexity to classical complexity theory, specifically with regard to the “kernelization” technique in parameterized complexity. Third, we discuss some implications for the classical cryptographic question of basing public-key cryptography for one-way functions. Here our results are mainly negative, showing the inviability of certain approaches to this problem which motivated Harnik and Naor to define the notion of instance compression.

4.1 Succinct PCPs

The PCP theorem [AS98, ALM+98] is one of the landmark achievements in complexity theory. It states that any NP-complete language has polynomial-size proofs that can be verified probabilistically by reading only a constant number of bits of the proof.

Here “polynomial-size” means that the proof size is polynomial in the size of the input. It’s natural to ask whether the proof size can be made polynomial in the size of the witness instead, giving more efficient proofs. The witness constitutes a proof which can be verified by reading all the bits of the proof - perhaps the number of bits read can be reduced to a constant by just blowing up the size of the proof polynomially? The known proofs of the PCP theorem [AS98, Din07] do not achieve this, since the size of the proof obtained is polynomial in the input size and not just in the witness size. But a priori, a more efficient argument is conceivable.

Kalai and Raz [KR07] raise this question in their paper on “interactive PCPs”, and state that either a positive answer or a negative answer would be interesting. Here we give strong evidence for a negative answer by showing a strong connection between succinct PCPs and compressibility, and then invoking the results in the previous section.

We begin by defining “succinct PCPs”, which are intuitively PCPs where the proof size depends polynomially on the witness length rather than the input length. In our framework of parametric problems, this corresponds to the proof size depending polynomially on the parameter rather than the input length.

**Definition 4.1.** Let \( L \) be a parametric problem. \( L \) is said to have succinct PCPs with completeness \( c \), soundness \( s \), proof size \( S \) and query complexity \( q \) if there is a probabilistic polynomial-time oracle machine \( V \) such that the following holds for any instance \( x, 1^n \):

1. If \( x, 1^n \in L \), then there is a proof \( y \) of size \( S(n) \) such that on input \( x, 1^n \) and with oracle access to \( y \), \( V \) makes at most \( q \) queries to \( y \) on any computation path, and accepts with probability at least \( c \).

2. If \( x, 1^n \not\in L \), then there for any string \( y \) of size \( S(n) \), on input \( x, 1^n \) and with oracle access to \( y \), \( V \) makes at most \( q \) queries to \( y \) on any computation path, and accepts with probability at most \( s \).

\( L \) is said to have succinct PCPs if it has succinct PCPs with completeness 1, soundness 1/2, proof size \( \text{poly}(n) \) and query complexity \( O(1) \).

For standard NP-complete problems such as SAT, CLIQUE and VERTEX-COVER, we abuse notation and say the problem has succinct PCPs if the natural parametric version of it does.

We show a close connection - a near-equivalence - between compressibility and the existence of succinct PCPs. In one direction, the existence of succinct PCPs implies compressibility with small error.

**Theorem 4.2.** If SAT has succinct PCPs, then SAT is self-compressible with error less than \( 2^{-n} \).
We informally describe the basic plan of the proof, and then give the details.

Let us first assume, for the sake of simplicity, that the verifier only uses a logarithmic amount of randomness, say $r \log(n)$ for some constant $r$. Suppose that the verifier makes at most $q$ queries on any computation path, for $q$ a constant. Note that the size of the proof is effectively at most $qn^r$, since at most this many proof bits can be read by the verifier.

Given an input formula of size $n$ with $n$ variables, we use the hypothesis that succinct PCPs exist to find an equivalent formula of size $O(n^r)$. The variables of the formula correspond to proof bits, and there is a clause in the formula corresponding to each computation path of the verifier. The clause corresponding to a computation path encodes whether the proof bits read on that path cause the verifier to accept on that path. Note that once the input formula is fixed, this is just a function of the proof bits read on that path, and hence can be expressed as a CNF formula of size at most $O(q2^q)$ on the variables corresponding to the proof bits read on that path. The equivalent formula we construct is just the conjunction of the formulae corresponding to each computation path. Note that the size of this formula is at most $O(q2^q)n^r$, which is polynomial in $n$.

To argue correctness, we use the hypothesis that the verifier corresponds to a PCP. If the input formula is satisfiable, there is some setting of the proof bits such that the verifier accepts on each computation path, and hence some setting of the variables in the compressed formula such that the formula is satisfiable. If the input formula is unsatisfiable, for any setting of the proof bits, at least one computation path rejects (in fact, at least a 1/2 fraction of them reject) and hence the compressed formula is unsatisfiable.

The above argument works when the randomness complexity of the verifier is low. In general, this may not be the case, and we do not have enough time to compute a formula for each computation path. However, in this case, we can use the fact that the proof size and query complexity are small together with a sampling argument to prove that there is probabilistic compression with very low error. We give details below.

Proof of Theorem 4.2. Assume that SAT has succinct PCPs with proof size $n^C$, query size $q$ (where $q$ is a constant) and randomness complexity $R$. Since the verifier runs in probabilistic polynomial time, we have that $R = O(poly(m))$.

Our self-compression algorithm works as follows. It samples independently $m^2$ random strings $r_1, r_2, \ldots, r_m^2$ each of length $R$. For each $r_i$, running the verifier for the succinct PCP with random string $r_i$ corresponds to a function $f_{r_i}$ on $q$ bits of the proof such that the verifier accepts if and only if the function evaluates to 1 on those bits. Moreover, given the verifier, a canonical CNF formula of size $O(q2^q)$ for this function can be computed explicitly in time $poly(m)$. Note that since the proof has size at most $n^C$, there are at most $n^{Cq2^q}$ such functions. Here, the input formula is fixed, and hence the size of the input formula does not factor into the bound. The self-compression algorithm computes a canonical CNF formula of size $O(q2^q)$ for each $f_{r_i}, i = 1 \ldots m^2$, and outputs the conjunction of these formulae, omitting duplicate formulae. This is a SAT formula, and we need to show that the formula has size at most $poly(n)$, and that with error $2^{-m}$, the compressed formula is satisfiable if and only if the input formula is satisfiable.

The size bound follows from the upper bound on the total number of functions on $q$ bits of the proof, together with the fact that we remove duplicates. For the error bound, it follows from the definition of PCPs that if the input formula is satisfiable, then the compressed formula is also satisfiable, since the verifier accepts with probability 1 on a correct proof. If the input formula is not satisfiable, then for any proof, the verifier accepts with probability at most 1/2. In this case, the compressed formula we output may not be the conjunction of all possible formula corresponding to runs of the verifier, but we will argue that with very high probability, the total measure of $r$ such that $f_r$ is omitted is less than 1/2, and hence that the compressed formula is still unsatisfiable even
with the formulae corresponding to these \( f_i \) omitted from the conjunction. Indeed, if the measure of such \( r \) were greater than or equal to \( 1/2 \), the probability that no such \( r \) is sampled as some \( r_i \) is at most \( 1/2m^2 \), since the sampling is done at random. Hence, with probability at least \( 1 - 1/2m^2 \), the compressed formula is unsatisfiable if the original formula is unsatisfiable. Thus the error is at most \( 1/2m^2 \).

\[
\square
\]

Using a more refined approach, we can show the infeasibility of PCPs with non-negligible gap between soundness and completeness, not just of PCPs with completeness 1. We provide a sketch of the proof indicating in what respects the proof differs from the proof of Theorem 4.2, since a formal description would be very technical.

**Theorem 4.3.** If \( SAT \) has succinct PCPs with completeness \( c \), soundness \( s \), proof size \( poly(n) \) and query complexity \( O(1) \), where \( c + s \) is computable in time \( poly(m) \) and \( c - s \geq 1/poly(n) \), then \( SAT \) is self-compressible.

**Proof Sketch.** We follow the basic framework of the proof of Theorem 4.2. We compute different functions corresponding to independent runs of the verifier, and then take the conjunction of constraints derived from these functions in order to produce a compressed instance. The compressed instance will not directly be a SAT instance, however it will be an instance of an NP language, hence we can reduce it to a SAT instance of polynomial size.

The fact that the verifier does not have completeness 1 does complicate the argument. Let us call a function on \( O(1) \) bits of the proof corresponding to some run of the verifier a “test function”. Now we also need a notion of the “weight” of a test function, which is essentially the measure of random strings on which the verifier run corresponds to the function. Our compressed formula will consist of the conjunction of constraints derived from test functions. Each constraint is on \( O(1) \) variables, and we pick an arbitrary representation for these constraints (say, a list consisting of the names of variables involved, together with the truth table of the test function). The constraints will be present with multiplicity, where the multiplicity of a constraint is approximately the weight of its test function. This is designed to ensure that in the case of satisfiable input formulae, approximately a fraction \( c \) of constraints are satisfiable, and in the case of unsatisfiable ones, approximately a fraction \( s \) of them are satisfiable. We sample enough test functions and choose multiplicities with enough granularity (while still keeping the multiplicity of any one constraint polynomial in \( n \)) so that with probability more than \( 1 - 2^{-m} \), at least \((c + s)/2\) constraints are satisfiable if the input formula is satisfiable, and fewer than \((c + s)/2\) are satisfiable if the input formula is not satisfiable. This is argued with Chernoff bounds, using the facts that there is a non-negligible separation between \( c \) and \( s \) and that we sample enough. When we sample test functions, we also update estimates of their weights, sampling enough to ensure that the estimates are very accurate. The estimates are normalized and truncated to their \( O(\log(n)) \) high-order bits to ensure that multiplicities are at most polynomial. The compressed instance produced in this way is still of size polynomial in \( n \), and is an instance of a general constraint satisfaction problem in NP, where we are given a set of constraints explicitly together with a parameter \( k \) and asked whether at least \( k \) of those constraints are satisfiable. Here the parameter \( k = (c + s)/2 \), which by our assumption can be computed explicitly in time \( poly(m) \). This already establishes compressibility of \( SAT \) with error \(< 2^{-m} \) from the assumption on succinct PCPs; in order to get self-compressibility, we reduce the constraint satisfaction instance to a SAT instance using the Cook-Levin reduction [Cook71], which preserves the instance size up to a polynomial factor.

Note that it is actually sufficient to obtain a good approximation (i.e., an approximation to within an arbitrary \( 1/poly(n) \) additive term) of \( c + s \) or even of just one of \( c \) and \( s \), in order to
obtain our result. But we do not see how to carry the compression through without access to any information about $c$ or $s$ apart from the fact that they are non-negligibly separated. □

Using Corollary 3.2, we get the following.

**Corollary 4.4.** SAT does not have succinct PCPs unless NP ⊆ coNP/poly and PH collapses.

In the other direction, self-compressibility implies the existence of succinct PCPs.

**Theorem 4.5.** If SAT is self-compressible, then SAT has succinct PCPs.

*Proof.* Assume SAT is self-compressible via a compression function $f$. Given a formula $\phi$ of size $m$ on $n$ variables, $f(\phi)$ is a formula of size $\text{poly}(n)$ such that $f(\phi)$ is satisfiable if and only if $\phi$ is satisfiable. The PCP theorem states that there are PCPs for SAT with polynomial proof size, completeness 1, soundness $1/2$ and $O(1)$ queries.

We modify the verifier $V$ in the PCP theorem to a verifier $V'$ that does the following: It first applies the compression function $f$ to the input formula $\phi$ and obtains a formula $f(\phi)$ which is satisfiable if and only if $\phi$ is satisfiable. Then it treats the proof as a proof that $f(\phi)$ is satisfiable and runs $V$ with input $f(\phi)$ and oracle access to the proof. The correctness of $V'$ follows from the self-compressibility property, and $V'$ inherits its parameters from $V$. The proof size is polynomial in the size of $f(\phi)$, i.e., of size $\text{poly}(n)$. Thus the PCP with verifier $V'$ is a succinct PCP. □

It's straightforward to prove a more general version of Theorem 4.5. First, the analogue of Theorem 4.5 holds for any parametric problem in NP, with basically the same proof and using the NP-completeness of SAT. Second, we don't even need the problem to be self-compressible - it suffices if the problem is compressible to a problem in NP.

**Theorem 4.6.** Let $L$ be any parametric problem in NP. If $L$ is compressible within NP, then $L$ has succinct PCPs.

Using Theorem 2.12, we derive the following corollary.

**Corollary 4.7.** VC has succinct PCPs.

To sum up, a refined understanding of which parametric NP problems are compressible and which are not would also lead to a better understanding of which problems have efficient proofs.

### 4.2 Kernelization

The notion of compression is very closely related to the notion of kernelization in parameterized complexity. Parameterized complexity studies how the complexity of solving a parametric problem increases as a function of the parameter. Given an input of length $m$ to a parametric problem in NP and a parameter $n$, the question is whether the input can be solved in time $f(n)\text{poly}(m)$, where $f$ is an arbitrary function.

A useful technique in constructing parameterized algorithms is to reduce the decidability of the input to the decidability of a much smaller instance depending only on the parameter, and then solve the smaller instance using brute force. This technique is known as kernelization, and the smaller instance is known as the problem kernel. For instance, parameterized algorithms for VC typically proceed by constructing a kernel of size $\text{poly}(n)$ and then solving the kernel by brute force. This raises the question of whether the parameterized versions of other NP-complete problems such as SAT and Clique are polynomially kernelizable. The question of whether the parametric
problems SAT has a polynomial kernelization is explicitly posed as an open problem by Flum and Grohe [Fg06]. In their survey on kernelization, Guo and Niedermeier [GN07] state, “In terms of computational complexity theory, the derivation of lower bounds is of the utmost importance.”

First we define kernelization [GN07].

**Definition 4.8.** A parametric problem $L$ is said to be kernelizable with kernel size $g()$ if there is a

deterministic reduction $f$ such that $< x, 1^n > \in L$ iff $f(< x, 1^n >) \in L$, $|f(< x, 1^n >)| \leq g(n)$ and

$f$ is computable in time $\text{poly}(m + n)$.

$L$ is polynomially kernelizable if it is kernelizable with kernel size $O(\text{poly}(.))$.

For problems of interest we can assume without loss of generality that $n \leq |x|$, so being polynomially kernelizable is the same as being self-compressible for such problems. Theorem 3.1 immediately implies:

**Corollary 4.9.** OR-SAT is not polynomially kernelizable unless PH collapses.

We also get that various other parametric problems are unlikely to be polynomially kernelizable.

**Corollary 4.10.** The following parametric problems are not polynomially kernelizable unless PH collapses: SAT, Clique, DominatingSet, IntegerProgramming.

Note that as per our definitions, all the problems considered above are in fact fixed-parameter tractable, since they can be solved in time $O(2^n)\text{poly}(m)$. Our negative results clearly imply that the more traditional parametric versions of Clique and Dominating Set, where the size $k$ of the required object is specified rather than $k \log(m)$, are also not polynomially kernelizable under the hypothesis that the polynomial hierarchy does not collapse.

### 4.3 Cryptographic Reductions

The main motivation of Harnik and Naor [HN06b] for studying instance compressibility was the wealth of cryptographic applications. They showed that compressibility of OR-SAT would imply constructions of collision-resistant hash functions (CRHs) from one-way functions (OWFs), which would solve a long-standing open problem in cryptography. They also showed that the compressibility assumption would have interesting implications for the active research area of “everlasting security” in the bounded storage model - any hybrid scheme could be broken. Harnik and Naor also discuss a stronger compressibility assumption, *witness-retrievable compressibility*, which implies construction of oblivious transfer protocols (OT) based on OWFs, but they also give evidence against their assumption, so we do not discuss it here.

Independently, Dubrov and Ishai used strong *incompressibility* assumptions to construct “non-Boolean” pseudo-random generators (PRGs), namely pseudo-random generators that fool non-Boolean tests. They show how to use such assumptions to reduce the randomness complexity of sampling algorithms, so that the randomness used is only marginally larger than the output length of the sampler.

We now discuss what implications our results have for the feasibility of the above constructions. Our discussion is mostly informal, and we do not define the underlying cryptographic notions formally here. Consult the respective papers [HN06b, DI06] for definitions.

**Construction of CRHs from OWFs:** Constructing CRHs from OWFs is a classic problem in theoretical cryptography, and it is known this cannot be done using black-box reductions [Sim98]. Harnik and Naor suggest a non-black-box way to approach this problem, using the compressibility assumption for SAT. They show that probabilistic compression of OR-SAT with error $< 2^{-m}$
implies that CRHs can be constructed from OWFs. But as stated in Theorem 3.3, this compression assumption does not hold unless PH collapses, and hence this approach to constructing CRHs is unlikely to yield dividends. It is possible, though, that CRHs can be constructed from even weaker assumptions on compressibility that might be more plausible - it’s an interesting open problem to come up with such assumptions.

**Everlasting Security of the Hybrid Bounded Storage model:** The bounded storage model, defined by Maurer [Mau92], constrains the space used by adversaries rather than their running time. In this model, all honest and dishonest parties are given access to a shared random string. It has been shown that two parties that have previously shared a secret key can securely communicate using a small amount of local storage, even if the adversary has a much higher storage capability [AR99, DR02, Vad04]. These schemes have the property of *everlasting security*, meaning that the protocol remains secure if the private key is revealed to the adversary after the completion of the protocol. In the setting where the two honest parties do not exchange a secret key in advance, only quite weak results are possible (in terms of the local storage required to communicate securely). In an attempt to derive stronger results in a setting that is still quite realistic, a hybrid version of the Bounded Storage Model has been defined [HN06a]. Harnik and Naor [HN06b] show that if SAT is compressible, then no hybrid scheme can have the property of everlasting security. By giving evidence that SAT is not compressible, Theorem 3.1 holds out hope for achieving everlasting security using some protocol in the Hybrid Bounded Storage model.

**Construction of non-Boolean PRGs:** This is an application of incompressibility rather than compressibility, and since Theorem 3.1 provides a natural complexity-theoretic condition that implies incompressibility of NP, namely that $\text{NP} \not\subseteq \text{coNP/poly}$, one might imagine that our techniques would be more directly relevant here. Dubrov and Ishai construct different kinds (cryptographic and complexity-theoretic) of non-Boolean PRGs based on the assumptions, respectively, that there is a one-way permutation with an incompressible (on average) hard-core bit, and that for each fixed $k$, there is a language in $\text{P}$ not compressible (on average) to $n^k$ bits. These assumptions are both implied by the assumption that there are exponentially strong one-way permutations, but it would be interesting to derive the corresponding conclusions from a natural complexity-theoretic assumption, such as the assumption that NP does not have sub-exponential size co-nondeterministic circuits. Our results do not apply directly here for two reasons: (1) The incompressibility assumptions refer to incompressibility on the average, rather than in the worst-case. We consider such average-case assumptions in the next section, since they are related to probabilistic compression, but we do not know how to apply our techniques to say something of interest about them. (2) The incompressibility assumptions refer to incompressibility of problems computable in polynomial time rather than NP problems. Nevertheless, Theorem 3.1 can be considered as progress towards the goal of deriving non-Boolean PRGs from standard complexity-theoretic assumptions.

## 5 Probabilistic Compression and Parametric Hardness of Approximation

In this section, we study probabilistic compression. We are unable to show that probabilistic compression of NP-complete problems is unlikely under a standard complexity-theoretic assumption, but we do have results in settings where the number of random bits used is restricted. We also have negative results for the *implicit* case where the compression algorithm operates in time $\text{poly}(n)$ when

\[2\text{Here we are referring to compressibility of languages, not parametric problems, and the strength of the compression is expressed in terms of input length.}\]
given random access to its input, but these negative results are under a somewhat non-traditional strong derandomization assumption. In the next section, we discuss the derandomization assumption we use in more detail. The implicit case is relevant to the question of parametric hardness of approximation, where we ask if the classical machinery for hardness-of-approximation results can be extended to the parameterized setting.

5.1 Probabilistic Compression

We consider probabilistic compression of parametric problems. Theorem 3.3 applies to the case where the error is less than $2^{-m}$, so here we will be concerned with the case where the error is larger. The techniques of Theorem 3.1 and 3.3 do not seem to apply here. But we do obtain various reductions between different versions of the problem, as well as results for restricted settings.

First, we note that the correctness probability can be amplified to $1 - 2^{-\text{poly}(n)}$ using standard techniques.

**Proposition 5.1.** If $L$ is probabilistically compressible with error $1/3$, then $L$ is probabilistically compressible with error $2^{-\text{poly}(n)}$.

**Proof.** Let $A$ be a language such that $L$ is probabilistically compressible within $A$. Let $f$ be the compression function compressing inputs with length $m$ and parameter $n$ with high probability to length at most $t(n)$ which is polynomial in $n$. We fix a polynomial $p(n)$ and define a new language $A'$ and compression function $f'$ such that $L$ is probabilistically compressible within $A'$ via $f'$. An input $< x_1, x_2 \ldots x_k >$ is in $A'$ iff the majority of $x_i$'s are in $A$. All inputs not of this form are excluded from $A'$. The probabilistic compression function $f'$, given input $x$ of length $m$, simulates $f$ independently $p(n)$ times on $x$ to obtain $x_1 \ldots x_p(n)$. It discards all strings of length $> \ell(n)$, re-indexes the strings to obtain $x_1, x_2 \ldots x_k$ and then outputs $< x_1, x_2 \ldots x_k >$. Using Chernoff bounds, one gets that if $f$ has error at most $1/3$, then $f'$ has error at most $2^{-\text{O}(p(n))}$. □

Note that the new error is not sufficiently small to use Adleman’s trick as in the proof of Theorem 3.3, since the instance size is $m$.

Next, we show some results where the randomness complexity of the compression function is restricted.

**Lemma 5.2.** If $L$ is probabilistically compressible with randomness complexity $O(\log(n))$, then $L$ is deterministically compressible.

**Proof.** The proof is similar to the proof of Proposition 5.1. Let $L$ be probabilistically compressible within $A$ via a compression function $f$ with randomness complexity $O(\log(n))$. Let $c$ be a constant such that for any $x$, $f$ compresses $< x, 1^n >$ to a string of length at most $n^c$, with high probability. We define a new compression function $f'$ computable in deterministic polynomial time, and a set $A'$, such that $L$ is compressible within $A'$ via $f'$. Given input $x$, $f'$ simulates $f$ on $x$ with every possible random string of length $O(\log(n))$ to obtain $x_1, x_2 \ldots x_t$, where $t = \text{poly}(n)$. It discards all strings with length $> n^c$ and then re-indexes the strings to obtain $x_1 \ldots x_k$. It outputs $< x_1, x_2 \ldots x_k >$. The set $A'$ is just the set of inputs of the form $< x_1, x_2 \ldots x_k >$ such that the majority of $x_i$'s are in $A$. □

As a corollary, we can extend the negative result in Theorem 3.1 to the case of probabilistic compression with small randomness complexity.
Corollary 5.3. If OR-SAT is probabilistically compressible with randomness complexity $O(\log(n))$, then PH collapses.

We next show that if we could extend the negative result slightly to probabilistic compression with randomness complexity $O(\log(m))$ (using advice), then it would also rule out probabilistic compression in the general case.

Theorem 5.4. If $L$ is probabilistically compressible, then $L$ is probabilistically compressible with randomness complexity $O(\log(m))$ and poly($m$) advice.

Proof Sketch. The idea is to try to derandomize the probabilistic reduction $f$ for $L$ by using a discrepancy set of size poly($m$). The probabilistic reduction can be viewed as a deterministic function taking $x$ and the random string as input and yielding a string of size poly($n$) which is in $L$ iff $x \in L$, with high probability over the choice of random string. We can get by using only polynomially many pseudo-random strings rather than all possible random strings if the “test” that the output string is in $L$ iff $x \in L$ is satisfied with approximately the same probability (say, with absolute difference at most 1/12 between the probabilities) over pseudo-random strings as over random strings. The test can be encoded by a polynomial-size Boolean circuit with oracle access to $L$, hence a set of poly($m$) strings chosen at random will “fool” all such circuits with high probability. Thus there must exist such a set $S$ of strings - we specify $S$ explicitly in the advice string using poly($m$) bits. The new compression function $f'$ for $L$ with randomness complexity $O(\log(m))$ just uses its random string as an index into the discrepancy set encoded by the advice string, and simulates $f$ using the corresponding element of the discrepancy set as its “random choice” rather than using a purely random string. The defining property of the discrepancy set ensured that this is still a valid probabilistic compression algorithm for $L$.

Probabilistic compression also reduces to non-uniform average case compression, by a simple averaging argument.

Proposition 5.5. If $L$ is probabilistically compressible, then $L$ is non-uniformly compressible with success $1 - 2^{-\text{poly}(n)}$.

Proof. By Proposition 5.1, we can assume that the compression algorithm has error at most $2^{-\text{poly}(n)}$. Now consider the random string used by the compression algorithm. By averaging, there is some choice $r$ of the random string such the compression algorithm is correct on at least a $1 - 2^{-\text{poly}(n)}$ fraction of inputs when run with $r$ as the random string. We encode $r$ into the advice, yielding a non-uniform compression algorithm for $L$ with success $1 - 2^{-\text{poly}(n)}$.

5.2 Implicit Compression and Parametric Hardness of Approximation

Here we study implicit probabilistic compression, where the compression function is required to be computable in time polynomial in the size of the parameter. This sub-case of probabilistic compression is relevant to the question of whether parametric problems are as hard to approximate as they are to compute.

Definition 5.6. A parametric problem $L$ is implicitly probabilistically compressible if it is probabilistically compressible via a compression function $f$ that, given an input $< x, 1^n >$, can be computed in time poly($n$) with oracle access to the input.
We show that if OR-SAT is implicitly probabilistically compressible, then either PH collapses or that a certain strong derandomization hypothesis fails. We do not have a strong belief about the truth of our derandomization assumption, but we do believe it is hard to refute, thus our result provides evidence that implicit probabilistic compression may be hard to obtain using known techniques.

The assumption we use states that given a string \( x \), we can compute from \( x \) in polynomial time the truth table of a function \( f \) on \( < \lceil \log(x) \rceil \) bits such that \( f \) requires exponential-size nondeterministic circuits even when the circuits have oracle access to \( x \). The assumption can be interpreted as a strong diagonalization assumption - given an oracle in explicit form, the assumption states that it's possible to compute efficiently a function that diagonalizes against small circuits accessing that oracle.

**Hypothesis 5.7.** *(Oracle Derandomization Hypothesis)* Let \( n \) be polynomially bounded as a function of \( n \), such that \( m(n) \) is both computable and invertible in polynomial time. There is a family of functions \( G = G_n \), \( G_n : \{0,1\}^m \rightarrow \{0,1\}^n \) computable in time \( \text{poly}(m) \) and a constant \( \epsilon > 0 \) such that for any \( x \), \( G(x) \), when interpreted as the truth table of a function on \( \lceil \log(x) \rceil \) bits, requires non-deterministic circuits of size \( n^\epsilon \) even when the circuits are given oracle access to \( x \). If the condition holds for \( x \in A \) for some set \( A \subseteq \{0,1\}^* \), but not necessarily for all \( x \), we say that the Oracle Derandomization Hypothesis holds on \( A \).

We use Hypothesis 5.7 by combining it with a pseudo-random generator of Shaltiel and Umans [SU01] to derandomize certain kinds of sampling algorithms using a smaller seed size than we would require if we carried out the derandomization naively. The obvious point of reference is Theorem 5.4, where we reduced the randomness to \( O(\log(m)) \) bits by embedding an appropriate discrepancy set in the advice string. We could not completely derandomize Theorem 5.4, i.e., convert it to a deterministic compression algorithm, because running over all possible random strings of length \( O(\log(m)) \) and defining the deterministic compressed string to correspond to the majority value of the probabilistic compressed strings would blow the size of the compressed string up to \( \text{poly}(m) \), which makes the resulting deterministic compression trivial. Thus it is essential for us that the randomness is reduced to size \( O(\log(n)) \). If the probabilistic compression is implicit, we can use Hypothesis 5.7 to achieve this. We first describe what properties we require of the Shaltiel-Umans generator.

**Theorem 5.8 (Shaltiel-Umans).** Fix any constant \( d > 0 \). There is a constant \( \epsilon(d) > 0 \) depending on \( d \), and a family of functions \( F = F_n \), where \( F_n : \{0,1\}^n \times \{0,1\}^{O(\log(n))} \rightarrow \{0,1\}^{n^\epsilon} \) is computable in polynomial time, such that for any oracle \( A \) and oracle non-deterministic circuit \( C \) of size \( n^\epsilon \) with oracle access to \( A \), if \( y \in \{0,1\}^n \) has non-deterministic circuit complexity at least \( n^d \) with respect to circuits that have oracle access to \( A \), then \( \left| \Pr_{z \in \{0,1\}^{n^\epsilon}} (C(z) = 1) - \Pr_{z \in \{0,1\}^{O(\log(n))}} (C(F_n(y, z) = 1)) \right| < 1/n^\epsilon \).

Next we describe what kind of derandomization results from using Theorem 5.8 along with Hypothesis 5.7.

**Lemma 5.9.** Let \( m \) and \( n \) be parameters such that \( m \) is polynomially bounded in \( n \). Assume the Oracle Derandomization Hypothesis holds. Let \( A \) be a string of length \( m \) represented as an oracle function on \( \lceil \log(m) \rceil \) bits, and let \( C \) be a non-deterministic circuit of size at most \( n^\epsilon \) with oracle access to \( A \), where \( \epsilon \) is the constant in the statement of Theorem 5.8 corresponding to the constant \( \epsilon(d) \) in the statement of Hypothesis 5.7. Then there is a function \( h : \{0,1\}^{O(\log(m))} \rightarrow \{0,1\}^n \) computable in \( \text{poly}(n) \) time such that \( \left| \Pr_{z \in \{0,1\}^{n^\epsilon}} (C(z) = 1) - \Pr_{z \in \{0,1\}^{O(\log(n))}} (C(h(z)) = 1) \right| < 1/n^\epsilon \).
Proof. We define $h(\cdot) = F_n(G(A), \cdot)$. By Hypothesis 5.7, $G(A) \in \{0,1\}^n$ has circuit complexity at least $n^c$ with respect to circuits that have oracle access to $A$. Hence by theorem 5.8, $h(\cdot) = F_n(G(A), \cdot)$ is a pseudo-random generator that "fools" any circuit of size at most $n^c$ with oracle access to $A$, in the sense that the acceptance probability of the circuit changes by at most an additive term of $1/n^c$ when it is run with outputs of $h$ rather than with purely random circuits. □

We now apply Lemma 5.9 to the case of implicit probabilistic compression.

**Theorem 5.10.** If OR-SAT is implicitly probabilistically compressible within NP, then either PH collapses or the Oracle Derandomization Hypothesis fails.

Proof. We use Lemma 5.9 to derandomize the implicit probabilistic compression, and then we apply Theorem 3.1 to the resulting deterministic compression.

Assume that Hypothesis 5.7 holds. For the purpose of this lemma, we use "$k$" to denote the parameter size and reserve "$n$" for the application of Lemma 5.9.

We assume wlog that OR-SAT is implicitly probabilistically compressible to SAT. Let $f$ be the implicit probabilistic compression function for OR-SAT. Let $c$ be a constant such that on input $<x, 1^k>$, $f$ is computable in probabilistic time $k^c$ with oracle access to the input. It follows that the length of the compressed string is at most $k^c$, since the probabilistic algorithm needs at least one unit of time per output bit it writes. We first show that the test whether the compressed string corresponding to a particular probabilistic run of $f$ is "correct" can be performed by a non-deterministic circuit $C$ of size $\text{poly}(k)$.

For a fixed input $<x, 1^k>$ to the compression algorithm, this test takes as input the random string $r$ used by the implicit probabilistic compression algorithm. The circuit $C$ for the test first applies $f$ to $<x, 1^k>$ using $r$ as the random choices for running the algorithm for $f$. It thus obtains a compressed formula $y$. It guesses a satisfying assignment for $y$, accepting iff the assignment is indeed satisfying for $y$. Note that the $<x, 1^k>$ is fixed with respect to $C$. We cannot hard-code $x$ into $C$ since $x$ is of length $m$ which might be too large. Instead, we make use of the fact that the computation of $f$ is implicit, and hence $C$ can be represented as a non-deterministic circuit which has oracle access to $x$. The size of the circuit corresponds to the running time of the implicit algorithm for $f$ together with the time required to check if the compressed formula is satisfiable, which is altogether $\text{poly}(k)$.

There are two cases - either $x$ is in OR-SAT, or $x$ is not. In the first case, $C$ tests if its random input leads to a valid compression and in the second case, whether it leads to an invalid compression. Note that these two cases are symmetric with respect to the approximation of the acceptance probability of $C$.

Now we set $n = |C|^{1/e}$ where $e$ is the constant in the statement of Lemma 5.9. We set $m$ to be $n^j$ where $j$ large enough will be decided later. With these parameters, the conditions of Lemma 5.9 hold and hence there is a function $h : \{0,1\}^{O(\log(n))} \rightarrow \{0,1\}^n$ computable in time $\text{poly}(n)$ such that the output of $h$ fools $C$. We define a new deterministic compression algorithm $f'$ which runs the algorithm for $f$ with all possible outputs of $h$ used as random string to obtain compressed inputs $x_1 \ldots x_{\text{poly}(n)}$, each $x_i$ of length $k$. Now, since Majority is a monotone function, the question whether the majority of $x_i$'s are satisfiable can be expressed as a SAT formula of size at most $\text{poly}(n)$. Now, from Theorem 3.1 and Corollary 3.2, we conclude that NP $\subseteq \text{coNP/poly}$ and PH collapses. It remains to specify the choice of $m = |x|$ - we choose it to be a large enough polynomial in $n$ so that the proof technique of Theorem 3.1 can be applied to the deterministic compression $f'$. □
The main reason for studying implicit compression is to extend our negative results on succinct PCPs to results on reductions from parametric problems to gap versions thereof. Unlike in the unparameterized setting, reduction of the parameterized problem SAT to its gap version is not equivalent to the existence of succinct PCPs - we know that succinct PCPs imply a reduction to the gap version, but not the converse. For the one-sided gap version, in a follow-up work, Chen and Müller [CM07] rule out such a reduction under the assumption that PH does not collapse by applying the technique of Theorem 3.1 to probabilistic compression with one-sided error. Here we are concerned with the two-sided version.

Gap versions of parametric NP problems are modelled naturally as parametric promise problems - parametric problems where the “yes” and “no” instances are mutually exclusive but not exhaustive.

**Definition 5.11.** A parametric promise problem is a pair \((Y, N)\) where \(Y, N \subseteq \{<x, 1^n> | x \in \{0, 1\}^n, n \in \mathbb{N}\}\), and \(Y \cap N = \emptyset\).

The various definitions of compression extend naturally to parametric promise problems - we require the compression to work correctly only for instances in \(Y \cup N\) and allow it to behave arbitrarily on other instances. Similarly the definition of “W-reduction” also extends naturally to reductions between parametric promise problems and reductions from a parametric promise problem to a parametric problem or vice versa.

We define the natural parametric promise version of SAT.

**Definition 5.12.** \(c, s\)-GapSAT is the parametric promise problem \((Y, N)\) where \(<x, 1^n> \in Y\) if \(n\) is the number of variables in the formula \(x\) and at least \(c\) fraction of clauses in \(x\) are satisfiable, and \(<x, 1^n> \in N\) if \(n\) is the number of variables in \(x\) and at most \(s\) fraction of clauses in \(x\) are satisfiable.

The natural question here is whether SAT W-reduces to \(c, s\)-GapSAT, where \(c - s = \Omega(1)\). If so, then the parametric problem SAT is as hard to approximate within a factor \(s/c\) as it is to solve, in analogy with hardness of approximation results in the unparameterized case that follow from the PCP theorem.

Based on a sampling technique of Harnik and Naor [HN06b] (presented informally in Section 2.9 of their paper), we can derive an implicit probabilistic compression algorithm for \(c, s\)-GapSAT, even when \(c - s = \Omega(1/\text{poly}(n))\).

**Lemma 5.13.** Let \(c(n)\) and \(s(n)\) be functions computable in time \(\text{poly}(n)\), such that \(c - s = \Omega(1/\text{poly}(n))\). Then \(c, s\)-GapSAT is implicitly probabilistically compressible within SAT.

**Proof Sketch.** Given a formula \(<x, 1^n>\), our implicit compression algorithm samples \(\text{poly}(n)\) clauses from \(x\) and produces a formula corresponding to the question of whether at least \((c + s)/2\) fraction of these clauses are simultaneously satisfiable. Using Chernoff bounds, we can argue that if we sample enough (but still polynomially many) clauses, then if at least a \(c\) fraction clauses were satisfiable in \(x\), close to \(c\) fraction of clauses will be satisfiable in the compressed formula, with probability very close to 1. The argument is a little more delicate for the soundness case. Here, if we fix an assignment, then the random sampling ensures (again using Chernoff bounds) that with probability \(1 - 2^{-\text{poly}(n)}\), not much more than \(c\) fraction of clauses in the compressed formula will be satisfied by that assignment. Now, if we take a union bound over all \(2^n\) assignments, the probability that not much more than \(c\) fraction of clauses are simultaneously satisfiable remains close to 1.
Since we randomly sample \( \text{poly}(n) \) clauses from \( x \) and then spend \( \text{poly}(n) \) time processing these samples, the algorithm can be implemented in probabilistic time \( \text{poly}(n) \) with random access to \( x \).

Now, we combine Lemma 5.13 with Theorem 5.10 to give evidence that a W-reduction from SAT to \( c \cdot s \cdot \GapSAT \) is likely to be hard to construct, since it would imply either that PH collapses or that Hypothesis 5.7 fails.

**Theorem 5.14.** If there is a W-reduction from the parametric problem SAT to \( c \cdot s \cdot \GapSAT \), where \( c - s = \Omega(1/\text{poly}(n)) \) and \( c \) and \( s \) are computable in time \( \text{poly}(n) \), then either PH collapses or the Oracle Derandomization Hypothesis fails.

**Proof.** Suppose that such a W-reduction existed. If the Oracle Derandomization Hypothesis holds, by Lemma 5.13 together with the proof of Theorem 5.10, there is a deterministic compression algorithm for \( c \cdot s \cdot \GapSAT \). Composing this deterministic compression algorithm with the W-reduction, there is a deterministic compression algorithm for SAT. But this implies PH collapses by Corollary 3.2.

Theorem 5.14 suggests that some of the obstacles to finding good approximation algorithms in the classical setting are absent in the parameterized setting, and hence that we might hope for better approximations. Approximation algorithms in the context of parameterized complexity is an active field, with many open questions [Már06]. Hopefully Theorem 5.14 and the techniques used here will stimulate further work in this field.

## 6 The Oracle Derandomization Hypothesis

In this section we discuss the Oracle Derandomization Hypothesis used in the previous section. We comment on how this hypothesis relates to traditional derandomization hypotheses, and show that disproving it as hard as separating P and NP.

In our opinion, quite apart from its relevance to compressibility, the Oracle Derandomization Hypothesis is interesting in its own right because it tests our intuitions of which kinds of derandomization are plausible and which are not. The hypothesis that \( E \) requires linear exponential size circuits, which was used by Impagliazzo and Wigderson [IW97] to completely derandomize BPP, now seems widely accepted by complexity theorists, so too the assumption that \( E \) requires linear exponential size non-deterministic circuits, used by Klivans and van Melkebeek [KvM02] to derandomize AM. Klivans and van Melkebeek [KvM02] use even stronger assumptions for other results on derandomization in a relativized context, such as the result that \( \text{PH} \subseteq \text{P}^{\text{NP}} \) if \( E \) does not have sub-exponential size circuits with oracle access to \( \text{NP} \). First we make some observations about how the Hypothesis generalizes traditional derandomization hypotheses.

**Proposition 6.1.** There is an \( \epsilon > 0 \) such that \( E \not\subseteq i.o.\text{SIZE}(2^{\epsilon n}) \) iff the Oracle Derandomization Hypothesis holds on \( 0^* \).

**Proof.** We prove the "if" direction first. If the Hypothesis holds on \( 0^* \), then we define a function \( f \) in \( E \) which doesn't have non-deterministic circuits of size \( 2^{\epsilon n} \) for some \( \epsilon > 0 \). On an input \( x \) of length \( n \), we do the following to compute \( f(x) \): we simulate \( G_{2^n} \) on \( 0^{n(2^n)} \) to obtain a string \( X_n \) of length \( 2^n \). \( X_n \) will be interpreted as the truth table of \( f \) on inputs of length \( n \). \( f(x) \) is computed by just reading off the appropriate value in the bit string \( X_n \).
To prove the hardness of $f$, let $\epsilon$ be the constant in the statement of Hypothesis 5.7. Assume contrariwise that $f$ has non-deterministic circuits of size $2^\epsilon$ infinitely often. Then the same circuits also contradict the Oracle Derandomization Hypothesis on $0^*$. For the reverse direction, let $f$ be a function without non-deterministic circuits of size $2^m$. We define $G$ as follows: on input $0^m$, it outputs the truth table of $f$ on $\lceil \log(n) \rceil$ bits, followed by a string of 0's. Now suppose the Oracle Derandomization Hypothesis were false on $0^*$. Then, for infinitely many $n$, $G(0^m)$ has non-deterministic circuits of size $2^m$ with oracle access to $0^n$. Now, if we replace each oracle gate with the input “0”, these are non-deterministic circuits of size $2^m$ deciding $f$, contradicting the assumption on $f$. $\square$

Basically the same proof gives that the condition on the set $A$ on which the Hypothesis holds can be made a little weaker.

**Proposition 6.2.** Let $\delta > 0$ be any constant, and $m(n)$ be a polynomially bounded function as in the statement of Hypothesis 5.7. Let $A_m$ be the set of strings in $\{0, 1\}^{m(n)}$ which, when interpreted as the truth table of a function on $\lceil \log(m) \rceil$ bits, have circuits of size $2^{m(n) - \delta}$. Let $A$ be the union of $A_m$ over all $n$. Then there exists an $\epsilon > 0$ such that $E \not\subseteq \text{NSIZE}(2^{\epsilon n})$ iff the Oracle Derandomization Hypothesis holds on $A$.

Proposition 6.2 states that the traditional derandomization hypothesis used to derandomize AM is equivalent to the Oracle Derandomization Hypothesis holding on all “succinct” strings, where “succinct” means that the string can be described by a circuit of size sub-polynomial in the length of the string.

Next, we ask the question, is there any heuristic evidence the Oracle Derandomization Hypothesis is true? Often, if there is a probabilistic process which generates an object of a certain type with high probability, then it is reasonable to conjecture that there is a deterministic process of similar complexity producing an object of that type. For instance, a function with specified input and output lengths which is chosen uniformly at random is usually a pseudo-random generator with strong properties. However, in our case, a function $G$ chosen uniformly at random does not satisfy the required condition with high probability, but only with non-zero probability. This is not necessarily evidence against Hypothesis 5.7. First, there might be some non-trivial probabilistic process sampling $G$'s that satisfy the condition in Hypothesis 5.7 with high probability and it might be reasonable to conjecture that this non-trivial process can be derandomized. Second, there are natural examples of probabilistic constructions (proved to be correct using the Lovasz Local Lemma) which are only known to work with non-zero probability, and can still be derandomized.

We turn the question on its head and ask if it might be possible to unconditionally disprove the Oracle Derandomization Hypothesis. This seems hard, since it would imply $P \neq NP$.

**Theorem 6.3.** If the Oracle Derandomization Hypothesis is false, then $P \neq NP$.

**Proof.** Assuming $P = NP$, we construct a $G$ satisfying the required condition. Fix some $\epsilon$ such that $0 < \epsilon < 1$. We observe that for any $x$ of length $n$, there does exist a string of length $n$, which when interpreted as a function on $\lceil \log(n) \rceil$ bits, doesn't have non-deterministic circuits of size $n^\epsilon$ with oracle access to $x$, just by a counting argument. Indeed, we can find the lexicographically first such string $y(x)$ in $P^{\Sigma_2^P}$. By assumption, $P = NP$ and hence $P^{\Sigma_2^P} = P$, thus we can carry out the search in polynomial time and output $y$. $\square$
7 Questions

We highlight the two main technical questions that arise from this work.

The first is whether some negative results can be shown under a standard assumption for the probabilistic or closely-related average-case version of compression. Such results would have relevance to parametric hardness of approximation, and provide further evidence for the inviability of certain approaches to cryptographic constructions.

The second is the general question of characterizing for which functions \( f \), the compressibility of \( f \)-SAT implies collapse of \( \text{PH} \). Here \( f \)-SAT is the natural generalization of the OR-SAT problem to Boolean functions other than OR. This question basically reduces to the question of whether AND-SAT is compressible, since the compression of \( f \)-SAT for non-monotone \( f \) directly implies \( \text{NP} \subseteq \text{coNP/poly} \), and every monotone \( f \) that depends on all its \( m \) variables embeds either a \( \sqrt{m} \) sized OR or AND. Thus if we can show that (assuming \( \text{NP} \) not in \( \text{coNP/poly} \)) AND-SAT is not compressible, then under that same assumption \( f \)-SAT is not compressible for any \( f \) that has no useless variables.

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