# Tighter MA/1 Circuit Lower Bounds From Verifier Efficient PCPs for PSPACE 

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#### Abstract

We prove for some constant $a>1$, for all $k \leq a$, $$
\operatorname{MATIME}\left[n^{k+o(1)}\right] / 1 \not \subset \mathbf{S I Z E}\left[O\left(n^{k}\right)\right]
$$


for some specific $o(1)$ function. This improves on the Santhanam [San07] lower bound, which says there exists constant $c$ such that for all $k>1$ :

$$
\text { MATIME }\left[n^{c k}\right] / 1 \not \subset \mathbf{S I Z E}\left[O\left(n^{k}\right)\right]
$$

There is inherently no upper bound on $c$ in Santhanam's proof. Using ideas from Murray and Williams MW18, all $k>1$ :

$$
\text { MATIME }\left[n^{10 k^{2}}\right] / 1 \not \subset \mathbf{S I Z E}\left[O\left(n^{k}\right)\right]
$$

Our proof uses a new, very efficient PCP for PSPACE. We construct a PCP with unbounded proof length for $\operatorname{SPACE}[O(n)]$ that has a $\tilde{O}(n)$ time verifier, $\tilde{O}(n)$ space prover, $O(\log (n))$ queries, and polynomial alphabet size. Prior to this work, PCPs for SPACE $[O(n)]$ either used $\Omega(n)$ queries or had verifiers that run in $\Omega\left(n^{2}\right)$ time.

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## 1 Introduction

Some of the most fundamental problems in complexity theory are proving circuit lower bounds for uniform complexity classes. One such conjecture is that NP does not have polynomial size circuits. Such a result would give a strong version of $\mathbf{P} \neq \mathbf{N P}$ ! But proving circuit lower bounds for uniform complexity classes has been very hard. In fact, there are no known proofs that NEXP does not have polynomial sized circuits! But there are some closely related results that could be loosely seen as relaxations.

One can strengthen NP slightly by giving it access to randomness in addition to a witness, as well as an extra bit of trusted advice. This gives the complexity class MA/1. We can weaken polynomial sized circuits to circuits of fixed polynomial size: $\operatorname{SIZE}\left[n^{k}\right]$ for constant $k$.

Santhanam San07 gave the circuit lower bound that for any constant $k$, class MA/1 is not contained in SIZE $\left[n^{k}\right]$. Specifically, where the verifier of the MA protocol runs in time $n^{O(k)}$. Santhanam's original proof inherently ${ }^{11}$ has no bound on the constant in the exponent of the verifier time. One can use ideas used in Murray and Williams MW18 to get for som ${ }^{2}$ ] $c<10$, we have MATIME $\left[O\left(n^{c k^{2}}\right)\right] \not \subset \mathbf{S I Z E}\left[O\left(n^{k}\right)\right]$.

We would like a more fine grained separation of MA/1 from fixed polynomial size circuits. There are fine grained hierarchy theorems that show that giving deterministic or nondeterministic algorithms more time allows them to solve more problems HS65; Coo72. Fortnow, Santhanam, and Trevisan showed that MATIME with a small amount of advice can solve more problems when given more time [FST05]. In fact, van Melkebeek and Pervyshev showed that for any $1<c<d$, MATIME $\left[n^{c}\right] / 1 \subsetneq \operatorname{MATIME}\left[n^{d}\right] / 1$ MP06.

### 1.1 Results

In this work, we give a fine grained lower bound for the time of an MA protocol with advice, against the size of circuits required to compute them. We show that for at least some $k>1$, there is an MA protocol with one bit of advice whose verifier has time almost $n^{k}$ such that any circuit solving the same problem also requires size almost $n^{k}$. Formally:

Theorem 1.1.1 (Fine Grained MA Lower Bound). There exists constant $a>$ 1 , such that for all $k<a$, for some $f(n)=o(1)$,

$$
\operatorname{MATIME}\left[O\left(n^{k+f(n)}\right)\right] / 1 \not \subset \mathbf{S I Z E}\left[o\left(n^{k}\right)\right]
$$

This result removes a polynomial factor in the gap between the MA verifier time and the circuit size in the Santhanam result.

[^1]Santhanam's original proof uses an IP for PSPACE that can be viewed as a PCP. To prove our circuit lower bound, we replace the IP in the Santhanam proof with a new, more efficient PCP. To get our fine grained results, we need a PCP for space $S=O(n)$ and time $T=2^{O(n)}$ algorithms, where the verifier simultaneously has $\tilde{O}(n)$ time and $O(\log (n))$ many queries. Further, the PCP needs a prover that can compute any bit of the proof in almost linear space. Notably, we do not need any bounds on the proof length.

The PCP given by Babai, Fortnow, and Lund in their proof that MIP = NEXP BFL90 gave a PCP that required $\Omega(\log (T))$ queries, while we want $O(\log (\log (T)))$ queries.

Holmgren and Rothblum in their work on delegated computation HR18 improved on the BFL PCP in several ways that can ${ }^{3}$ be used to give a $\mathbf{P C P}$ with verifier time $\tilde{O}(n+\log (T))$. Unfortunately, it still requires $\Omega(\log (T))$ queries.

Ben-Sasson, Goldreich, Harsha, Sudan, and Vadhan Ben+05 gave a PCP that uses a constant number of queries, but has verifier time poly $(\log (T))$, while we need $\tilde{O}(n+\log (T))$ verifier time. Similar results were given by subsequent work Mei09; BV14; Ben+13].

The small space requirement for the prover is achieved by Holmgren and Rothblum HR18. In some PCPs, like the PCP in Ben-Sasson, Chiesa, Genkin, and Tromer's work on the concrete efficiency of PCPs $[$ Ben+13], the prover requires space $\Omega(T)$. In contrast, our result needs prover space $O(S+n)$.

A sufficiently efficient PCP was not known, so we construct a new PCP.
Theorem 1.1.2 (Verifier Efficient PCP). Let $S, T=\Omega(n)$ be functions, and $L$ be any language computed by a simultaneous time $T$ and space $S$ algorithm. Let $\delta \in(0,1 / 2)$ be a constant. Then there is a $\mathbf{P C P}$ for $L$ with:

1. Verifier time $\tilde{O}(n+\log (T))$.
2. Query time $\tilde{O}(\log (T))$.
3. $O(\log (n)+\log (\log (T)))$ queries.
4. Alphabet $\Sigma$ with $\log (|\Sigma|)=O(\log (\log (T)))$.
5. Log of proof length $\tilde{O}(\log (T))$.
6. Prover space $\tilde{O}(S+n)$.

## 7. Perfect completeness and soundness $\delta$.

We believe we can achieve a similar verifier time, query time and prover space while also achieving proof length poly $(T)$ and constant number of queries. We do not need these improvements for our main result, so we only prove this simpler result.

[^2]
### 1.2 Proof Idea

### 1.2.1 MA Lower Bounds Using PCP

We first review Santhanam's original proof.
Santhanam's original result uses the fact that if PSPACE $\subset \mathbf{P} /$ poly, then $\mathbf{P S P A C E}=\mathbf{M A}$. This follows from the famous result that $\mathbf{I P}=\mathbf{P S P A C E}$ Sha92. The idea is that if PSPACE $\subset \mathbf{P} /$ poly, than an MA protocol can guess a circuit computing any problem in PSPACE. The prover in the interactive protocol for PSPACE is also computable in PSPACE. So to solve any PSPACE problem in MA, the MA protocol first guesses the circuit for a prover, then simulates the verifier using the circuit we guessed as the prover.

Using this, Santhanam's original proof then considered two cases: either PSPACE $\subset \mathbf{P} /$ poly, or PSPACE $\not \subset \mathbf{P} /$ poly .

If PSPACE $\subset \mathbf{P} /$ poly, then we already know PSPACE $=$ MA. Now we just need a problem not computable by a size $n^{k}$ circuit. But there is a straightforward algorithm that exhaustively finds a circuit of size larger than $n^{k}$ that computes a function that cannot be computed by a smaller circuit. In fact, such an algorithm only requires space $O\left(n^{k}\right)$. So PSPACE $\not \subset \mathbf{S I Z E}\left[n^{k}\right]$. In this case, PSPACE $=\mathbf{M A}$, so MA $\not \subset \mathbf{S I Z E}\left[n^{k}\right]$.

If PSPACE $\not \subset \mathbf{P} /$ poly, then we know a hard problem that is not in SIZE $\left[n^{k}\right]$, namely any PSPACE complete problem. Let us take a PSPACE complete, downward self reducible language, $Y$. Now $Y$ may be too hard for MA to solve, but if we give it enough padding, eventually the padded version of $Y$ will be computable by size $n^{k}$ circuits. But for this amount of padding, MA can pull the same trick it does in the PSPACE $\subset \mathbf{P} /$ poly case. Namely, guess a circuit for $Y$ and then simulate the IP protocol for $Y$. For some PSPACE complete $Y$, the language itself is its proof and this works. The trick is to use just the right amount of padding so it requires circuits of at least size $n^{k}$, but not much larger. Santhanam uses the single bit of advice in a clever way to figure out when there is just the right amount of padding.

In either case, the time of this protocol is roughly the time of the verifier in the IP protocol, plus the size of the prover circuit times the number of times the prover is queried. More generally, we can think of this IP protocol as a $\mathbf{P C P}$. In the case that PSPACE $\not \subset \mathbf{P} /$ poly, the time of the verifier and the number of queries in the PCP grows at a smaller than polynomial rate. So the time is almost the same as the circuit complexity.

If PSPACE $\subset \mathbf{P} /$ poly, then there are two reasons the MA protocol could take polynomially more time than the size of the circuits it wants to compute. One is that the circuit being guessed is for a different problem than we want to prove, and thus may have greater circuit complexity. Our new proof cannot always avoid this possibility, which is why we only prove our result for some $k>1$.

The other is that the IP from the original Santhanam result has polynomial verifier time and a polynomial number of queries, making the verifier in the MA protocol take polynomially longer than the circuit complexity of the problem
being solved. By using a better PCP, we get better results.
Our proof of the circuit lower bound follows the same basic pattern as Santhanam's original proof in San07, except:

1. We break the problem into 3 cases. For some $\mathbf{S P A C E}[O(n)]$ complete language, $X$, we have one of the following:
(a) $X \notin \mathbf{P} /$ poly.
(b) $X \in \mathbf{S I Z E}\left[n^{1+o(1)}\right]$.
(c) $X \in \mathbf{S I Z E}\left[n^{a+o(1)}\right] \backslash \mathbf{S I Z E}\left[n^{a-o(1)}\right]$ for some $a>1$.

The original proof only used the two cases $X \notin \mathbf{P} /$ poly and $X \in \mathbf{P} /$ poly. The case where $X \notin \mathbf{P} /$ poly is completely unchanged.
2. If $X \in \mathbf{P} /$ poly, we use our efficient $\mathbf{P C P}$, Theorem 1.1.2, instead of the IP Santhanam uses.
With this substitution, the case where $X \in \mathbf{S I Z E}\left[n^{1+o(1)}\right]$ is almost unchanged from the original proof.
3. If $X \in \mathbf{S I Z E}\left[n^{a+o(1)}\right] \backslash \mathbf{S I Z E}\left[n^{a-o(1)}\right]$ for some $a>1$, then we use the same padding technique we use if $X \notin \mathbf{P} /$ poly, just using our new PCP . In this case, we can only do this if for some $k<a$, we are trying to show MATIME $\left[n^{k+o(1)}\right] / 1 \not \subset \mathbf{S I Z E}\left[n^{k-o(1)}\right]$.

### 1.2.2 Verifier Efficient PCP

Now we explain the PCP we actually use in the MA protocol. We start with a PCP similar to HR18] and BFL90] that we refer to as our base PCP. This PCP has a verifier that runs in time $O(n+\log (T))$ and uses $O(\log (T))$ queries. To reduce the number of queries, we use PCP composition AS98; BS+04 DR04 MR08, DH09.

To perform PCP composition, we need a robust PCP. Loosely, a robust $\mathbf{P C P}$ is a PCP so that when $x \notin L$, for any proof, most sets of queries to that proof return not only a rejected response, but a response that is far from any accepted response. To make our base PCP robust, we use the aggregation through curves technique Aro +98 . Now we briefly explain how to use aggregation through curves to convert our base PCP into a robust PCP.

An honest proof for our base PCP is a single low degree polynomial. Suppose our base PCP has $q$ queries. To make our PCP robust, we first choose the randomness for the base $\mathbf{P C P}$, and another random point in the $\mathbf{P C P}$ proof. Then we find the degree $q$ curve that goes through all these points. Then we check if the proof, restricted to this curve, is a low degree polynomial, and whether the base PCP would have accepted on this input. Since a low degree polynomial is an error correcting code, this gives robustness.

One concern one might have with this robust PCP is that it actually requires $\Omega\left(\log (T)^{2}\right)$ queries. We don't need to actually calculate all of these query locations. Since we reduce the actual number of queries with $\mathbf{P C P}$ composition,
we only need to be able to calculate any individual query location quickly. To find these query locations requires us to compute a point on the degree $q$ curve going through each of our $q$ points our base PCP queries plus a random point. In our base PCP, $q=O(\log (T))$ and our proof has dimension $O(\log (T))$. So the naive way to compute this curve is to calculate each coordinate independently, which would take time $\tilde{O}\left(\log (T)^{2}\right)$.

To efficiently compute low degree curves through points, or to extrapolate a function going through those points, we introduce the concept of time extrapolatable functions.

Definition 1.2.1 (Extrapolatability). For any $n, q, t>0$, and field $\mathbb{F}$, we call $Q:[q] \rightarrow \mathbb{F}^{n}$ " $t$ extrapolatable" (or time $t$ extrapolatable) if there is a time $t$ algorithm taking any $v \in \mathbb{F}^{q}$, that outputs

$$
\sum_{i \in[q]} v_{i} Q(i) .
$$

Equivalently, if we think of $Q$ as outputting the columns of a matrix, then we say $Q$ is time $t$ extrapolatable if one can multiply a vector with it in time $t$. An important property of extrapolatable functions is that an extrapolation of an extrapolatable function can be computed efficiently. This is where it gets its name.

Our base PCP is just a sum check and a few point checks. Each of these are time $\tilde{O}(\log (T))$ extrapolatable. Our robust PCP only queries locations easily computable given the extrapolation of our base PCP query locations. Extrapolations of extrapolatable functions are easy to compute, so we can easily compute the query locations of the robust $\mathbf{P C P}$.

We also introduce the concept an extrapolatable $\mathbf{P C P}(\mathbf{e P C P})$ as one where an honest proof is a low degree polynomial, and the query locations after fixing a choice of randomness are extrapolatable. Using an $\mathbf{e P C P}$, we show that any $\mathbf{e P C P}$ can be extended into a robust PCP where the query locations of that robust PCP can be computed efficiently.

## 2 Preliminaries

We assume some familiarity with basic complexity theory. See Arora and Barak's book for background AB09. In this paper, by algorithm, we mean algorithm on a RAM machine, and by circuit, we mean a fan in 2 circuit with unbounded depth. A randomized algorithm is a deterministic algorithm with an extra input for randomness. We will assume in this paper that all time and space bounds for algorithms are sufficiently easily computable.

Now recall that MA is the complexity class of problems with polynomial sized certificates that can be verified with bounded error by a randomized, polynomial time algorithm. This is like NP with a randomized verifier. Then we define MATIME in an analogous way to NTIME.

Definition 2.0.1 (MATIME). For any function $f: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$, MATIME $[f(n)]$ is the class of languages, $L$, such that there is a time $f(n)$ randomized algorithm $M$ taking three inputs, an input $x$, a random input $r$, and a witness $w$, so that

Completeness If $x \in L$ and $n=|x|$, then there exists $w$ with $|w| \leq f(n)$ such that

$$
\operatorname{Pr}_{r}[M(x, r, w)=1]=1
$$

Soundness If $x \notin L$, then for every $w$,

$$
\operatorname{Pr}_{r}[M(x, r, w)=1]<1 / 2 .
$$

An algorithm with trusted advice is an algorithm with an extra input for advice, where the advice is fixed for every input of a given length. Complexity class MATIME $[f(n)] / 1$ is MATIME $[f(n)]$ with 1 bit of trusted advice.

Definition 2.0.2 (MATIME/1). For any function $f: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$, complexity class MATIME $[f(n)] / 1$ is the set of languages, $L$, such that there is a function $b: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow\{0,1\}$ and a time $f(n)$ randomized algorithm $M$ taking four inputs, an input $x$, a random input $r$, a witness $w$, and an advice bit such that

Completeness If $x \in L$ and $n=|x|$, then there exists $w$ with $|w| \leq f(n)$ such that

$$
\operatorname{Pr}_{r}[M(x, r, w, b(n))=1]=1 .
$$

Soundness If $x \notin L$ and $n=|x|$, then for every $w$,

$$
\operatorname{Pr}_{r}[M(x, r, w, b(n))=1]<1 / 2
$$

We let SIZE denote the class of languages with circuits of a given size.
Definition 2.0.3 (SIZE). For any function $f: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$, SIZE $[f(n)]$ is the class of languages, $L$, where for each input length $n$, there is a circuit of size $f(n)$ with $n$ inputs computing $L$ for inputs of length $n$.

Further, SIZE $[O(f(n))]$ is the class of languages, $L$, such that for some $g(n)=O(f(n))$, we have $L \in \mathbf{S I Z E}[g(n)]$. Similarly for $\mathbf{S I Z E}[o(f(n))]$.

To show that $L \notin \operatorname{SIZE}[o(f(n))]$, we will show that for some constant $c>0$, for infinitely many $n$, language $L$ on length $n$ inputs requires circuits of size at least $c f(n)$. This implies that for any $g(n)=o(f(n))$, language $L$ must have size greater than $g(n)$ infinitely often, because eventually, $g(n)$ must stay below $c f(n)$.

While super linear circuit lower bounds have been hard to prove, one can easily get linear circuit lower bounds for any language that depends on every bit in the input, for instance, the parity function.

Lemma 2.0.4 (Parity Requires Large Circuits). Let $L$ be the language of strings with an odd number of 1 s . Then $L \in \mathbf{T I M E}[O(n)]$, but $L$ on length $n$ inputs requires circuits of size $n / 2$.

This lower bound comes from the fact that parity as a function depends on every input, and since each gate only has fan in 2 , so we need at least $n / 2$ gates to make the circuit a function of every input. Similarly, since TIME $[O(n)] \subseteq$ MATIME $[O(n)]$, we get a similar result for MATIME. Since we can run an algorithm that only computes parity on some specific subset of the input, we can extend this to sublinear time as well.

Corollary 2.0.5 (Sub-linear Circuit Lower Bounds Are Easy). For any time constructible $S(n) \leq n / 2$, there exists a language $L \in \mathbf{T I M E}[O(S(n))]$ but for every $n$, language $L$ on length $n$ inputs requires circuits of size $S(n)$.

We assume a model of computation where $n$ is provided to the algorithm in binary. Then the language is just parity on the first $2 S(n)$ bits. By Lemma 2.0.4 this requires a size $S(n)$ circuit. Since $S(n)$ is time constructable, we can construct $S(n)$ then run parity on the first $S(n)$ bits in $O(S(n))$ time.

We will occasionally need to look at projections of a string onto some indexes.
Definition 2.0.6 (Projection). For any set $\Sigma$, naturals $n, m \in \mathbb{N}$, string $\pi=$ $\left(\pi_{1}, \ldots, \pi_{n}\right) \in \Sigma^{n}$, and indices $I=\left(I_{1}, \ldots I_{m}\right) \in[n]^{m}$, we define the projection $\pi_{I}=\left(\pi_{I_{1}}, \ldots, \pi_{I_{m}}\right)$. We may also write for $i \in[n], \pi(i)=\pi_{i}$, and $\pi(I)=\pi_{I}$.

In this paper, we will focus on time and space efficient, non-adaptive PCPs with perfect completeness. Because we need to pay close attention to the amount of time it takes to make a single query to the proof, I separate the algorithm for producing queries, $Q$, from the algorithm for verifying the response, $V$. I also separate the function that gives all the query locations for a choice of randomness, $I$, from the algorithm that gives a single one of those query locations, $Q$.

So at a high level, a PCP protocol does the following:

1. Chooses a common random string, $r$.
2. Runs query function $Q$ with randomness $r$ for $q(n)$ many times to get all query locations, $I$.
3. Looks up all query locations, $I$, into a provided proof, $\pi$, to get proof window $\pi_{I}$.
4. Runs verifier $V$ with randomness $r$ and proof window $\pi_{I}$ and outputs if $V$ accepts.

Then if the input is in a language $L$, we want some proof $\pi$ to always make the verifier accept. But if an input is not in language $L$, we want for any proof $\pi$, the probability the verifier accepts to be small. We also want a prover, $P$, that can compute any symbol of the proof using low space.

Now I formally define a PCP.

Definition 2.0.7 (PCP). We say that a language $L$ has a non-adaptive $\mathbf{P C P}$, $A$, with perfect completeness if there exists verifier $V$, prover $P$, index function $I$, and query function $Q$, such that, for some alphabet $\Sigma, \delta \in[0,1]$, and functions $r, l, q: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ :

1. I takes 2 inputs, an input of length $n$ and randomness of length $r(n)$, and outputs an element of $[l(n)]^{q(n)}$. That is, I outputs $q(n)$ indexes in a length $l(n)$ string,
2. $Q$ is an algorithm with three inputs, an input $x$ of length $n$, randomness $r$ of length $r(n)$, and an index $i \in[q(n)]$ and outputs an element of $[l(n)]$ such that $Q(x, r, i)=I(x, r)_{i}$.
3. $V$ is an algorithm with three inputs, an input of length $n$, randomness of length $r(n)$, and $q(n)$ symbols from $\Sigma$, and outputs either accept or reject.
4. $P$ is an algorithm that takes two inputs, an input of length n, and an index $i \in[l(n)]$, and outputs a symbol from $\Sigma$.

Completeness If $x \in L$ and $n=|x|$, then there exists $\pi^{x} \in \Sigma^{l(n)}$ such that

$$
\operatorname{Pr}_{r}\left[V\left(x, r, \pi_{I(x, r)}^{x}\right)=1\right]=1,
$$

and for every $i \in[l(n)], P(x, i)=\pi_{i}^{x}$.
Soundness If $x \notin L$ then for every $\pi^{\prime}$,

$$
\operatorname{Pr}_{r}\left[V\left(x, r, \pi_{I(x, r)}^{\prime}\right)=1\right] \leq \delta .
$$

Then we also say:

1. A has proof length $l(n)$.
2. A has alphabet $\Sigma$.
3. A has soundness $\delta$.
4. A uses $q(n)$ queries.
5. A uses $r(n)$ bits of randomness.
6. If $V$ runs in time $t(n), A$ has verifier time $t(n)$.
7. If $V$ runs in space $s(n)$, $A$ has verifier space $s(n)$.
8. If $P$ runs in space $s^{\prime}(n)$, $A$ has prover space $s^{\prime}(n)$.
9. If $Q$ is computable in time $t^{\prime}(n)$, $A$ has query time $t^{\prime}(n)$.

For convenience, we assume that any alphabet or field is always encoded with some canonical binary encoding. We generally will not worry too much about encoding as we switch from models of computation and we will assume inputs are encoded in binary using a small power of two bits.

We use big $O$ and little $o$ notation extensively in this paper. We will use the result that sub-polynomial functions remain sub-polynomial when composed with polynomials.

Lemma 2.0.8 (Composing Sub-polynomials with Polynomials gives Sub-polynomials.). If $h(n)=o(1)$, and for some constant $k$, we have $D(n)=O\left(n^{k}\right)$, then for some $h^{\prime}(n)=o(1)$,

$$
D(n)^{h(D(n))}=O\left(n^{h^{\prime}(n)}\right)
$$

Proof. Let $G(n)=n^{h(n)}$ so that $G(D(n))=D(n)^{h(D(n))}$. Then we can bound $\log (G(n))$ :

$$
\log (G(n))=h(n) \log (n)=o(\log (n))
$$

Using that $\log (n)$ is increasing and unbounded, we can bound $\log (G(D(n)))$.

$$
\log (G(D(n)))=o(\log (D(n)))=o(\log (n))
$$

This is equivalent to, for some $h^{\prime}(n)=o(1)$,

$$
\log (G(D(n)))=h^{\prime}(n) \log (n)
$$

This gives the result.

$$
D(n)^{h(D(n))}=2^{\log (G(D(n)))}=n^{h^{\prime}(n)}
$$

## 3 Efficient PCP To Fine Grained Lower Bounds

Our analysis depends on the circuit complexity of some PSPACE complete problem. So we start by choosing a SPACE $[O(n)]$ complete problem. We use a version of SPACE TMSAT (on page 83 of [AB09]).

Definition 3.0.1 (Specific Problem). SPACE TMSAT is the language

$$
\left\{\left(M, x, 1^{n}, 0^{*}\right): \text { Turing machine } M \text { accepts } x \text { using at most } n \text { space. }\right\}
$$

Note: SPACE TMSAT $\in \mathbf{S P A C E}[O(n)]$ and SPACE TMSAT is $\operatorname{SPACE}[O(n)]$ complete. The $0^{*}$ is just there to make it explicit the language is paddable. In particular, this means that the circuit complexity of SPACE TMSAT is nondecreasing.

Lemma 3.0.2 (SPACE TMSAT Circuit Complexity is Non-Decreasing). If $A^{\prime}(n)$ is the size of the minimum circuit solving SPACE TMSAT for inputs of length $n$, then $A^{\prime}(n)$ is non-decreasing.

Proof. Let $C$ be the circuit of size $A^{\prime}(n+1)$ solving SPACE TMSAT for length $n+1$ inputs. Then to get a circuit for length $n$ inputs, use $C$ with an extra 0 hard coded into the last input. The resulting circuit will be at most the size of $C$ and solve length $n$ inputs. Thus $A^{\prime}(n+1) \geq A^{\prime}(n)$.

Then using Theorem 1.1.2, we can get a PCP for SPACE TMSAT by setting $T=2^{O(n)}$ and $S=O(n)$. This can be turned into a PCP with a binary alphabet by replacing every query for a symbol in $\Sigma$ with $O(\log (n))$ queries to the individual bits of that symbol.

Corollary 3.0.3 (PCP for SPACE TMSAT). There is a PCP for SPACE TMSAT with:

1. Verifier time $\tilde{O}(n)$.
2. Query time $\tilde{O}(n)$.
3. $\mathbf{p o l y}(\log (n))$ queries.
4. Binary alphabet.
5. Log of proof length $\tilde{O}(n)$.
6. Prover space $\tilde{O}(n)$.
7. Soundness $1 / 2$ and perfect completeness.

We prove three different MATIME/1 lower bounds that are based on three different hard problems. Different ones work better in different parameter regimes. After constructing them all, we show we always fall into some range of parameters so that we can get the lower bounds of Theorem 1.1.1.

### 3.1 Implicitly Encoding Advice in Input Length

In each of our cases, we will use advice to find the size of some prover circuit. To do this, we implicitly encode a number in the input length. If that implicitly encoded number describes the size, our advice bit will be 1. Otherwise, the advice bit is 0 .

For any input length $n \in \mathbb{N}$, for some $l \in \mathbb{N}$, we have $n \in\left[2^{l}, 2^{l+1}\right)$. For such an $l$, there is some $m \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $n=2^{l}+m$. This $m$, or equivalently this $l$, is our implicitly encoded number. Because we will use this decomposition a lot, we will explicitly define some functions that perform this decomposition.

Definition 3.1.1 (Implicit Encoding In Input). For natural $n \geq 1$, let $l \geq 0$ be an integer so that $n \in\left[2^{l}, 2^{l+1}\right)$, and $m \geq 0$ be an integer so that $n=2^{l}+m$. Then define $\mu(n)=m$ and $\rho(n)=l$.

There is a simple interpretation of this $m=\mu(n)$ and $l=\rho(n)$ in terms of the binary representation of $n$. You can think of $l$ as the length of the binary number, and $m$ the binary number after the top bit is removed.

### 3.2 SPACE TMSAT $\notin \mathbf{P} /$ poly

In this case, we follow the proof in the original work (San07] where PSPACE $\not \subset$ $\mathbf{P} /$ poly. We present the same arguments here in more generality and with more precise parameters.

When PSPACE $\not \subset \mathbf{P} /$ poly, the circuit complexity of different input sizes for SPACE TMSAT could change drastically and in a way that may be hard to analyze. This is an issue because the PCP for SPACE TMSAT needs a prover with a longer input than the input being verified, thus might require a much larger circuit.

Instead, we use a downward self reducible PSPACE complete language. Specifically, a language that has a sound interactive protocol with queries the same length as its input and whose prover is the language itself. We cite the result from Lemma 11 in San07:

Lemma 3.2.1 (Same Size, Self Proving PSPACE Complete Language). There is a PSPACE-complete language $Y$ and a probabilistic polynomial-time oracle Turing machine $M$ such that for any input $x$ :

1. $M$ only asks its oracle queries of length $|x|$.
2. If $M$ is given $Y$ as oracle and $x \in Y$, then $M$ accepts with probability 1 .
3. If $x \notin Y$, then irrespective of the oracle given to $M, M$ rejects with probability at least $1 / 2$.

The important feature of language $Y$ is that for an input $x$, the prover for $x$ is the same language $Y$, and queries to the prover have the same length as $x$. This means $Y$, and the prover for $Y$, have the same circuit.

Now using Lemma 3.2.1, we can get the following bound.
Lemma 3.2.2 (Bound Using Padded $Y$ as Hard Problem). Using $Y$ from Lemma 3.2.1, if for some $g(n)=\omega(1)$ we have $Y \notin \operatorname{SIZE}\left[O\left(n^{g(n)}\right)\right]$ then for any time constructable, non-decreasing, unbounded $S(n)$ such that $S(n)=o\left(n^{g(n)}\right)$, for som\& $f(n)=o(1)$ :

$$
\text { MATIME }\left[O\left(S(n)^{1+f(n)}\right)\right] / 1 \not \subset \operatorname{SIZE}[o(S(n / 4))] .
$$

Proof. Let $a>0$ be the constant so that the verifier ( $M$ in Lemma 3.2.1) for $Y$ 's interactive protocol runs in time $O\left(n^{a}\right)$.

Now we define our language, $W$ in MATIME $\left[S(n)^{1+o(1)}\right] / 1$ but not in $\operatorname{SIZE}[o(S(n))]$. For any input size, $n$, using Definition 3.1.1. let $m=\mu(n)$ and $l=\rho(n)$. Let our advice bit be 1 if

1. $Y$ on length $m$ inputs does not have circuits of size $m^{g(m)}$,
2. $Y$ on length $m$ inputs has circuits with size $S(n)$, and

[^3]3. for all integers $l^{\prime}$ with $l^{\prime}<l$ and $2^{l^{\prime}}>m, Y$ on length $m$ inputs does not have circuits of size $S\left(2^{l^{\prime}}+m\right)$.
This condition requires the advice bit to only be 1 for a given $m$ exactly once, whenever it can be used first. This simplifies the analysis, giving us a one to one function from $n$ where the advice bit is 1 , to $m$.

Then $x \in W$ for some $x$ with $|x|=n$ if and only if the advice bit is 1 and for some $y \in Y$ with $|y|=m$ we have $x=y 1^{n-m}$.

Now we will show that infinitely often the advice bit is 1 and $W$ does not have circuits with size $S(n / 4)$.

Since $Y \notin \mathbf{S I Z E}\left[O\left(n^{g(n)}\right)\right]$, for some infinite set $U^{\prime}$, for $m \in U^{\prime}$, the language $Y$ on input length $m$ does not have circuits of size $m^{g(m)}$. Since $S(m)=$ $o\left(m^{g(m)}\right)$, for some $n^{\prime}$, for all $m \geq n^{\prime}, S(m)<m^{g(m)}$. So let $U=U^{\prime} \cap\left[n^{\prime}, \infty\right)$. See that $|U|=\infty$.

For $m \in U$, since $S(n)$ is non-decreasing and unbounded, for large enough $l$, language $Y$ on length $m$ inputs has circuits of size at most $S\left(2^{l}+m\right)$. Then there is a smallest such $l$ with $2^{l}>m$ and for $n=2^{l}+m$, the language $Y$ on length $m$ inputs has circuits of size $S(n)$. For such $n$, the advice bit is 1 .

Now either $2^{l-1} \leq m$, or $2^{l-1}>m$.
$2^{l-1} \leq m$ Then $2 m \geq 2^{l}$, and $m>n / 4$. Since $m \in U$, language $Y$ on length $m$ inputs does not have circuits of size $S(m)$. Since $S(n)$ is monotone, $Y$ on length $m$ inputs also doesn't have circuits of size $S(n / 4)$.
$2^{l-1}>m$ Then by choice of $l, Y$ on length $m$ inputs does not have circuits of size $S\left(2^{l-1}+m\right)$. Since by definition of $n$, we have $2^{l-1}+m>n / 2$ and $S(n)$ is monotone, $Y$ on length $m$ inputs does not have circuits of size $S(n / 2)$.

So $W$ does not have circuits with size less than $S(n / 4)$.
Since $U$ has infinitely many elements, and for every $m \in U$, there is an $n>m$ such that $W$ on length $n$ inputs does not have circuits of size $S(n / 4)$, for infinitely many $n$, language $W$ on length $n$ inputs does not have circuits of size $S(n / 4)$. So $W \notin \operatorname{SIZE}[o(S(n / 4))]$.

Now we define $f(n)$. Let $\mu_{1}(n)$ be the partial function from $n$ where the advice bit is 1 , to $\mu(n)$. We claim $\mu_{1}(n)=\omega(1)$. This is because for any $m$, the advice bit can only be 1 once. Thus $\mu_{1}$ is one to one. Any one to one function into the naturals is $\omega(1)$, since for any $b$, there is a max $n$ such that for some $m<b, \mu_{1}(n)=m$, and for all $i>n, \mu_{1}(i) \geq b$. Then let

$$
D(n):= \begin{cases}\mu_{1}(n) & \text { Advice bit for } n \text { is } 1 \\ D(n-1) & \text { Otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

Since $\mu_{1}(n)=\omega(1)$, we also have $D(n)=\omega(1)$. Then since $g(n)=\omega(1)$, we also have that for $f(n)=a / g(D(n))$, we have $f(n)=o(1)$.

Now we show that $W \in \operatorname{MATIME}\left[O\left(S(n)^{1+f(n)}\right)\right] / 1$. If the advice bit is 0 , this is true trivially. Suppose that the advice bit is 1 .

For an $n$ where the advice bit is 1 , inputs of length $m=\mu(n)$ for $Y$ have circuits of size $S(n)$, which can be guessed. Then from Lemma 3.2.1, there is a time $m^{a}$ algorithm that can verify membership in $Y$ with a circuit for $Y$. This gives an MA protocol for $Y$ on length $m$ that runs in time $O\left(S(n) m^{a}\right)$.

Then since the advice bit is 1 , there are circuits for length $m$ instances of $Y$ with size $S(n)$, but not $m^{g(m)}$. Thus $S(n)>m^{g(m)}$, so $S(n)^{1 / g(m)}>m$. So the time of the MA verifier is at most $O\left(S(n) m^{a}\right)=O\left(S(n) S(n)^{a / g(m)}\right)=$ $O\left(S(n)^{1+f(n)}\right)$. The MA protocol is complete and sound since the protocol for $Y$ is. So $W \in$ MATIME $\left[O\left(S(n)^{1+f(n)}\right)\right] / 1$.

Therefore

$$
W \in \operatorname{MATIME}\left[O\left(S(n)^{1+f(n)}\right)\right] / 1 \backslash \mathbf{S I Z E}[o(S(n / 4))]
$$

I show that when PSPACE $\not \subset \mathbf{P} /$ poly, there is some $g(n)=\omega(1)$ such that $Y \notin \mathbf{S I Z E}\left[n^{g(n)}\right]$. Thus we can apply Lemma 3.2.2.

Corollary 3.2.3 (Bound if PSPACE does not have Polynomial Sized Circuits). If SPACE TMSAT $\notin \mathbf{P} /$ poly, then for any $k>0$, and some $f(n)=o(1)$ :

$$
\operatorname{MATIME}\left[O\left(n^{k+f(n)}\right)\right] / 1 \not \subset \mathbf{S I Z E}\left[O\left(n^{k}\right)\right]
$$

Proof. We want to use Lemma 3.2 .2 with $S(n)=n^{k} \log (n)$ and some $g(n)=$ $\omega(1)$. Let $Y$ be the langauge from Lemma 3.2.1.

Since SPACE TMSAT is in PSPACE, SPACE TMSAT $\notin \mathbf{P} /$ poly and $Y$ is PSPACE complete, $Y \notin \mathbf{P} /$ poly. We will show, since $Y \notin \mathbf{P} /$ poly, for some $g(n)=\omega(1)$, we have $Y \notin \mathbf{S I Z E}\left[o\left(n^{g(n)}\right)\right]$.

Let $A(n)$ be the size of then minimum sized circuit computing $Y$ on length $n$ inputs. Let $g^{\prime}(n)=\frac{\log (A(n))}{\log (n)}$. Suppose for contradiction that $g^{\prime}(n)$ was bounded above by a constant, $c$. Then for all $n$, we have $g^{\prime}(n) \leq c$ and $A(n)=n^{g^{\prime}(n)} \leq n^{c}$. Thus $Y$ has polynomial sized circuits. But $Y$ doesn't, so $g^{\prime}(n)$ is unbounded.

Let $g^{*}(n)=\max _{i \in[n]} g^{\prime}(i)$. Since $g^{*}(n) \geq g^{\prime}(n)$, we also know $g^{*}(n)$ is unbounded. By definition, $g^{*}(n)$ is non-decreasing. Thus $g^{*}(n)=\omega(1)$.

For infinitely many $n$, we know $g^{\prime}(n)=g^{*}(n)$, since $g^{\prime}(n)$ is unbounded. So for $n$ such that $g^{\prime}(n)=g^{*}(n)$, our problem $Y$ does not have circuits of size less than $n^{g^{\prime}(n)}=A(n)$. So infinitely often, $Y$ does not have circuits of size $n^{g^{*}(n)} / 2$. Thus $Y \notin \operatorname{SIZE}\left[o\left(n^{g^{*}(n)}\right)\right]$.

Now let $g(n)=g^{*}(n)-1$. Then $g(n)=\omega(1)$ and $n^{g(n)}=o\left(n^{g^{*}(n)}\right)$, so $Y \notin \operatorname{SIZE}\left[O\left(n^{g(n)}\right)\right]$.

Since $g(n)=\omega(1)$, see that $n^{k} \log (n)=o\left(n^{g(n)}\right)$. Then using Lemma 3.2.2. we have that for some $f(n)=o(1)$,

$$
\text { MATIME }\left[O\left(\left(n^{k} \log (n)\right)^{1+f(n)}\right)\right] / 1 \not \subset \mathbf{S I Z E}\left[o\left((n / 4)^{k} \log (n / 4)\right)\right]
$$

Now to simplify this. Since $k$ is a constant, we have that $n^{k}=o\left((n / 4)^{k} \log (n / 4)\right)$. Thus

$$
\operatorname{SIZE}\left[O\left(n^{k}\right)\right] \subset \mathbf{S I Z E}\left[o\left((n / 2)^{k} \log (n / 2)\right)\right]
$$

Now for $f^{\prime}(n):=k f(n)+(1+f(n)) \frac{\log (\log (n))}{\log (n)}$ we have $f^{\prime}(n)=o(1)$ and $\left(n^{k} \log (n)\right)^{1+f(n)}=n^{k+f^{\prime}(n)}$. Thus

$$
\operatorname{MATIME}\left[O\left(\left(n^{k} \log (n)\right)^{1+f(n)}\right)\right] / 1 \subseteq \operatorname{MATIME}\left[O\left(n^{k+f^{\prime}(n)}\right)\right] / 1
$$

Together

$$
\operatorname{MATIME}\left[O\left(n^{k+f^{\prime}(n)}\right)\right] / 1 \not \subset \mathbf{S I Z E}\left[O\left(n^{k}\right)\right]
$$

### 3.3 SPACE TMSAT $\in \mathbf{S I Z E}\left[n^{1+o(1)}\right]$

The idea in this case is to use a brute force, small space algorithm that finds a problem not in a fixed polynomial size. In particular, for circuit size $S(n)$, the brute force algorithm uses space $O(S(n))$ to compute some function with minimum circuit size $\Theta(S(n))$. Then we want to simulate the PCP from Corollary 3.0.3 to prove the output of this algorithm. Since the $\mathbf{P C P}$ is efficient, the prover for this algorithm does not use much more space than the brute force algorithm itself.

If SPACE TMSAT has almost linear sized circuits, the prover doesn't require much larger circuits than the space of the prover. Finally, our PCP is efficient, so the time of the MA verifier isn't much more than the size of the prover circuit. So the MA protocol doesn't require much more time then the size of the circuit it proves the output of.

If SPACE TMSAT requires larger circuits, say quadratic circuits, then the size of the prover circuits would be quadratically larger than the input length of the prover. That is, the prover circuit would be quadratically larger than the circuit it is trying to prove. This would give quadratic overhead for the MA verifier time over the size of the circuit it verifies. So this construction only works well enough when SPACE TMSAT has almost linear sized circuits.

Lemma 3.3.1 (Bound From Exhaustive Search As Hard Problem). If for some non-decreasing $A(n)$ we have $\operatorname{SPACE}$ TMSAT $\in \mathbf{S I Z E}[O(A(n))]$, then there is some non-decreasing $B(n)=\tilde{\Theta}(n)$ such that for any time constructable, nondecreasing $S(n)$ with $S(n)<\frac{2^{n}}{n}$ and $S(n) 2^{n}=\omega(A(B(S(n))))$ :

$$
\operatorname{MATIME}[\tilde{O}(A(B(S(n))))] / 1 \not \subset \mathbf{S I Z E}[o(S(n / 2))]
$$

The $B(n)$ in this problem comes directly from the prover space and the log of the proof length ${ }^{5}$ of our PCP given in Corollary 3.0.3. The outer polylogarithmic factors in the MA verifier time come from the number of queries made by the $\mathbf{P C P}$, the query time, and the $\mathbf{P C P}$ verifier time.

Proof. One can show SPACE TMSAT requires circuits of size $\Omega(n)$ since it can compute parity and thus needs to read most of the bits in the input, so $A(n)=$

[^4]$\Omega(n)$. If $S(n)=O(n)$, then use Corollary 2.0.5. Otherwise, we can assume $S(n)>10 n$.

The proof proceeds in five steps.

1. Find a language $L \in \mathbf{S P A C E}[O(S(n))] \backslash \mathbf{S I Z E}[S(n) / 10]$. In particular, for every input length $n$, language $L$ has circuits of size $S(n)$ but not $S(n) / 10$.
2. Reduce $L$ to SPACE TMSAT and use Corollary 3.0.3. In particular, find a circuit, $C_{n}$, for the prover in an MA protocol for $L$ on length $n$ inputs.
3. Define our advice bit to implicitly give an upper bound for the size of $C_{m}$ for some $m$ within a factor of 2 of $n$. Then we define $W$ to be length $m$ elements of $L$, padded to length $n$.
4. Show that infinitely often the advice bit is 1 and $W$ does not have small circuits.
5. Show that $W$ has an efficient MA protocol.

With that outline in mind, let us begin the proof.

1. Find a language $L \in \mathbf{S P A C E}[O(S(n))] \backslash \mathbf{S I Z E}[o(S(n))]$.

By theorem premise $S(n)<2^{n} / n$. So from the non-uniform hierarchy (see Theorem 6.22 in Arora and Barak AB09), there is a language $L \in$ $\operatorname{SIZE}[S(n)] \backslash \operatorname{SIZE}[S(n) / 10]$. In particular, for every $n$, language $L$ on length $n$ has circuits size $S(n)$ but not size $S(n) / 10$.
Consider an algorithm, $M$, recognizing such an $L$ which checks all circuits of size $S(n)$, and compares them with every circuit of size $S(n) / 10$ on every input, and returns the output from the first circuit of size $S(n)$ that disagrees with every circuit of size $S(n) / 10$ on some input.
Then $M$ runs in space $O(S(n))$ and recognizes an $L \notin \operatorname{SIZE}[S(n) / 10]$. So we have an $L \in \mathbf{S P A C E}[O(S(n))] \backslash \mathbf{S I Z E}[S(n) / 10]$. In particular, for every $n$, language $L$ on length $n$ does not have circuits of size $S(n) / 10$.
2. Reduce $L$ to SPACE TMSAT and use Corollary 3.0.3.

Since $M$ only uses $O(S(n))$ space, for some $g(n)=O(S(n))$, we know $x \in$ $L$ if and only if $\left(M, x, 1^{g(n)}, 0\right) \in$ SPACE TMSAT. We know SPACE TMSAT on length $O(S(n))$ inputs has a PCP protocol from Corollary 3.0.3 that uses poly $(\log (S(n)))$ queries with length $\tilde{O}(S(n))$ to a space $\tilde{O}(S(n))$ prover, $P$, where each query can be calculated by a time $\tilde{O}(S(n))$ algorithm, $Q$, and the results from $P$ are verified by a time $\tilde{O}(S(n))$ verifier, $V$.
Now we reduce the prover $P$ to SPACE TMSAT so we can use the premise that SPACE TMSAT $\in \operatorname{SIZE}[O(A(n))]$ to get a circuit for $P$.
A length $\tilde{O}(S(n))$ query, $q$, to $P$ can be converted into a length $\tilde{O}(S(n))$ input, $q^{\prime}$, for SPACE TMSAT by providing the algorithm for $P$ and $\tilde{O}(S(n)) 1 \mathrm{~s}$.

In particular, for some $B(n)=\tilde{O}(n)$, proof input $q^{\prime}$ has length $B(S(n))$. We can also take $B(n)=\Omega(n)$. Call the circuit for SPACE TMSAT on length $\left|q^{\prime}\right|$ inputs $C_{n}$. Since SPACE TMSAT $\in \mathbf{S I Z E}[O(A(n))]$, we know $C_{n}$ has size $O(A(B(S(n))))$.
3. Define our advice bit.

Now an MA protocol can guess $C_{n}$, but we may not be able to compute how large $C_{n}$ needs to be. The function $A(n)$ may be hard to compute. So we use advice.
Let $l=\rho(n), m=2^{l}$ and $t=\mu(n)$ so that $n=m+t$. Then let the advice bit be 1 if
(a) Circuit $C_{m}$ has size $S(m) 2^{t}$.
(b) For any natural $t^{\prime}$ less than $t$, circuit $C_{m}$ does not have size $S(m) 2^{t^{\prime}}$. This condition allows us to use the smallest $t$ possible for a given $m$.

Then $x \in W$ for some $x$ with $|x|=n$ if and only if the advice bit is 1 and for some $y \in \operatorname{SPACE}$ TMSAT with $|y|=m$ we have $x=y 1^{n-m}$.
4. Show $W$ does not have small circuits.

First we show that for every large enough $l$, for $m=2^{l}$, there will be one $t$ such that this advice bit is 1 . To show this, we will show that for some $t, C_{m}$ has size $S(m) 2^{t}$. Then for the minimum such $t$, the advice bit will be one.
For $t=m-1$, by premise of the theorem, we have

$$
S(m) 2^{t}=S(m) 2^{m} / 2=\omega(A(B(S(m))))
$$

This is eventually larger than $C_{m}$ since $C_{m}$ has size $O(A(B(S(m))))$. Then for large enough $l$ with $m=2^{l}$, there will be a smallest $t$ so that $C_{m}$ has size $S(m) 2^{t}$ circuits, since it will for $t=m-1$. The advice bit for such an $n=2^{l}+m$ must be 1 . So infinitely often, the advice bit will be 1 .
When the advice bit is 1 , the language $W$ on length $n=m+t$ inputs is equal to $L$ on length $m$ inputs. Language $L$ on length $m$ inputs does not have circuits of size $S(m) / 10$. See by choice of $m$ that $2 m>n$, and $S(n)$ is monotone, so $S(m) / 10>S(n / 2) / 10$. Thus infinitely often, $W$ does not have length $S(n / 2) / 10$ inputs. Thus $W \notin \operatorname{SIZE}[o(S(n / 2))]$.
5. Show $W$ has an efficient MA protocol.

If the advice bit is 0 , this is trivially true. For $n=2^{l}+t$ so that the advice bit is 1 and $m=2^{l}$, either
$t=0$ Then $C_{m}$ has size $S(m)$. Since $A(n)=\Omega(n)$ and $B(n)=\Omega(n)$, we know $C_{m}$ has size $O(A(B(S(m))))$.
$t \geq 1$ Then $C_{m}$ has size $S(m) 2^{t}$ but not $S(m) 2^{t-1}$. Since $C_{m}$ does have circuits of size $O(A(B(S(m))))$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
S(m) 2^{t-1} & =O(A(B(S(m)))) \\
S(m) 2^{t} & =O(A(B(S(m))))
\end{aligned}
$$

In either case, an MA protocol can guess $C_{m}$ with a circuit with size $O(A(B(S(m))))$.
Then an MA protocol for $x=y 1^{n-m}$ and an advice bit of 1 can verify if $y \in L$ by first guessing a circuit for $C_{m}$, then using it as the prover in the PCP protocol from Corollary 3.0.3.

The MA verifier needs to calculate poly $(\log (S(m)))$ queries with $Q$, run $C_{m}$ on each of those queries, and run $V$ on those results. Since $C_{m}$ has size $O(A(B(S(m))))$, and $Q$ and $V$ run in time $\tilde{O}(S(m))$, calculating all query locations, running $C_{n}$ on each of those locations, and $V$ on those outputs takes time

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{poly}(\log (S(m)))(\tilde{O}(S(m))+O(A(B(S(m)))))+\tilde{O}(S(m)) \\
= & \tilde{O}(A(B(S(m)))+S(m)) \\
= & \tilde{O}(A(B(S(m))))
\end{aligned}
$$

The last equality comes from the fact $A(n)=\Omega(n)$ and $B(n)=\Omega(n)$. Finally, since $A, B$ and $S$ are non-decreasing and $m<n$, the MA verifier runs in time $\tilde{O}(A(B(S(n))))$.
The MA protocol is complete and sound since the $\mathbf{P C P}$ is. Thus $W \in$ MATIME $[\tilde{O}(A(B(S(n))))] / 1$.

Therefore

$$
W \in \operatorname{MATIME}[\tilde{O}(A(B(S(n))))] / 1 \backslash \mathbf{S I Z E}[o(S(n / 2))]
$$

And in the special case where SPACE TMSAT has almost linear sized circuits, we get:

Corollary 3.3.2 (Bound if SPACE TMSAT has Size $\left.n^{1+o(1)}\right)$. If for some $g(n)=$ $o(1)$ and some non-decreasing function $A(n)=n^{1+g(n)}$ we have SPACE TMSAT $\in$ SIZE $[O(A(n))]$, then for any $k>0$, there is an $f(n)=o(1)$ such that:

$$
\operatorname{MATIME}\left[O\left(n^{k+f(n)}\right)\right] / 1 \not \subset \mathbf{S I Z E}\left[O\left(n^{k}\right)\right]
$$

Proof. We want to use Lemma 3.3.1 with $S(n)=n^{k} \log (n)$. The size upper bound on $S(n)$ is clear: $S(n)=o\left(2^{n} / n\right)$. We need to show $S(n) 2^{n}=$
$\omega(A(B(S(n))))$. Well for any $B(n)=\tilde{O}(n)$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
A(B(S(n))) & =B\left(n^{k} \log (n)\right)^{1+g(n)} \\
& =\tilde{O}\left(n^{k+k g(n)}\right) \\
& =o\left(2^{n}\right) \\
S(n) 2^{n} & =\omega(A(B(S(n)))) .
\end{aligned}
$$

So by Lemma 3.3.1, for some $B(n)=\tilde{O}(n)$,

$$
\operatorname{MATIME}[\tilde{O}(A(B(S(n))))] / 1 \not \subset \mathbf{S I Z E}[o(S(n / 2))]
$$

See that for some $f(n)=o(1)$,

$$
\tilde{O}(A(B(S(n))))=\tilde{O}\left(n^{k+k g(n)}\right)=O\left(n^{k+f(n)}\right)
$$

Similarly $n^{k}=o(S(n / 2))$, so we also have

$$
\operatorname{MATIME}\left[O\left(n^{k+f(n)}\right)\right] / 1 \not \subset \mathbf{S I Z E}\left[O\left(n^{k}\right)\right]
$$

### 3.4 SPACE TMSAT $\in \operatorname{SIZE}\left[n^{a+o(1)}\right] \backslash \operatorname{SIZE}\left[n^{a-o(1)}\right]$ for $a>1$

This is the "bad" case, where we can't prove the result for every constant $k$, only for $k<a$. This is the most complicated case, requiring us to both pad the input to get the correct problem difficulty, and use advice to get the size of the circuits for the prover.

Lemma 3.4.1 (Bound from SPACE TMSAT as Hard Problem). If for some nondecreasing $A(n)$ we have SPACE $T M S A T \in \mathbf{S I Z E}[O(A(n))] \backslash \mathbf{S I Z E}[o(A(n))]$, then there is some non-decreasing $B(n)=\tilde{\Theta}(n)$ and $D(n)=O(n)$ such that if for some time constructable, non-decreasing $S(n)$ with $S(2 n)=o(A(n))$ and $S(n) 2^{n}=\omega(A(B(n)))$, we have:

$$
\text { MATIME }\left[\tilde{O}\left(S(n) \frac{A(B(D(n)))}{A(D(n) / 2)}\right)\right] / 1 \not \subset \mathbf{S I Z E}[o(S(n / 4))]
$$

Before we give the proof, we explain the parameters in this result. In this problem, you can think of $D(n)$ as being similar to $A^{-1}(S(n))$, though to simplify the analysis, we use a more trivial bound of $D(n)=O(n)$. The $B(n)$ comes from the prover space and log of the proof length of Corollary 3.0.3. Then this fraction term in the MA verifier time, loosely, accounts for the increase in circuit size for SPACE TMSAT on length $n$ inputs versus length $B(n)$ inputs.

If SPACE TMSAT $\in \mathbf{P} /$ poly, the difference between the size of circuits for SPACE TMSAT on length $n$ inputs and length $B(n)$ inputs will be small (at least for $n$ where SPACE TMSAT requires circuits with size near the polynomial that upper bounds the size of SPACE TMSAT). But if SPACE TMSAT requires larger
than polynomial sized circuits, then the difference in circuit size between length $n$ inputs and length $B(n)$ may become large.

So the idea is to solve SPACE TMSAT on a padded version of the input using our PCP. So we need the advice to tell us three things:

1. Some $m$ so that SPACE TMSAT on length $m$ inputs requires circuits of size $S(n / 4)$.
2. Further, we need SPACE TMSAT on length $m$ inputs to require circuits of size near $A(m / 2)$. This keeps the prover from requiring circuits too much larger than SPACE TMSAT on length $m$ inputs does.
3. How big the circuit for the prover in Corollary 3.0.3 needs to be.

Similar to the previous cases, this advice will come implicitly from the input length, and the single advice bit will be 1 if and only if the input length encodes valid advice.

Proof. If $S(n)=O(n)$, we use Corollary 2.0.5. Otherwise, we want to solve a smaller instance of SPACE TMSAT that requires circuits of size $S(n / 4)$, and we also need advice to tell us the size of circuits needed to prove SPACE TMSAT. The advice for this will come implicitly from the input length.

For input $x$ of length $n$, (using $\rho$ and $\mu$ from Definition 3.1.1) let $l=\rho(n)$, $l^{\prime}=\rho(\mu(n))$, and $t=\mu(\mu(n))$ so that $n=2^{l}+2^{l^{\prime}}+t$. We want to solve SPACE TMSAT on length $2^{l^{\prime}}$ inputs, so we let $m:=2^{l^{\prime}}$. Let $D(n):=m$. Then $n=2^{l}+m+t$ and our language will solve length $m$ inputs for SPACE TMSAT using prover circuits of size $S\left(2^{l}\right) 2^{t}$. Then the advice bit will only be 1 only when this advice is good.

So then $m$ is the input length to SPACE TMSAT we want to solve, $2^{l}$ is how much padding is needed to make length $m$ problems the right difficulty, and $S\left(2^{l}\right) 2^{t}$ is the size of the circuits needed for our PCP prover.

The proof proceeds in 4 steps.

1. Define circuits $C_{m}$ that prove SPACE TMSAT for length $m$ inputs using our PCP and our theorem assumptions on circuits for SPACE TMSAT.
2. Define when the advice bit should be 1 .
3. Show infinitely often the advice bit is 1 and $W \notin \operatorname{SIZE}[o(S(n / 4))]$.
4. Show that

$$
W \in \text { MATIME }\left[\tilde{O}\left(S(n) \frac{A(B(D(n)))}{A(D(n) / 2)}\right)\right] / 1
$$

Now following this outline:

1. Define circuits $C_{m}$ that prove SPACE TMSAT for length $m$ inputs.

Then SPACE TMSAT on length $m$ inputs has a PCP protocol with verifier time $\tilde{O}(m)$, log of proof length $\tilde{O}(m)$, and prover space $\tilde{O}(m)$. Then for
some strictly increasing $B(m)=\tilde{O}(m)$, the prover for SPACE TMSAT on length $m$ inputs can be reduced to a circuit for SPACE TMSAT with length $B(m)$ inputs. Then SPACE TMSAT on length $B(m)$ inputs has a circuit, $C_{m}$, of size at most $O(A(B(m)))$. We can also take $B(m)=\Omega(m)$ so that $B(m)=\tilde{\Theta}(m)$.
2. Define when the advice bit should be 1 .

Since SPACE TMSAT $\notin \operatorname{SIZE}[o(A(n))]$, for some $c_{1}>0$, for some infinite set, $U^{\prime}$, for all $n^{\prime} \in U^{\prime}$, language SPACE TMSAT on length $n^{\prime}$ inputs does not have circuits with size $c_{1} A(n)$.
Let the advice bit be 1 if and only if each of the following hold:
(a) SPACE TMSAT on length $m$ inputs does not have circuits with size at most $c_{1} A(m / 2)$.
This restricts us to $m$ where the circuits for SPACE TMSAT require size near our upper bound. This limits how much bigger $C_{m}$ needs to be than the circuits for SPACE TMSAT on length $m$ inputs.
(b) SPACE TMSAT on length $m$ inputs does not have a circuit with size $S\left(2^{l-1}\right)$. Note $S\left(2^{l-1}\right) \geq S(n / 4)$.
(c) SPACE TMSAT on length $m$ inputs does have a circuit with size $S\left(2^{l}\right)$.
(d) Circuit $C_{m}$ has size $S\left(2^{l}\right) 2^{t}$.
(e) Either $m=0$, or $C_{m}$ does not have size $S\left(2^{l}\right) 2^{t-1}$.

Then $x \in W$ for some $x$ with $|x|=n$ if and only the advice bit is 1 and for some $y \in \operatorname{SPACE}$ TMSAT with $|y|=m$ we have $x=y 1^{n-m}$.
3. Now we will argue that infinitely often the advice bit is 1 and $W$ does not have circuits with size $S(n / 4)$. We do this in a few steps:

- First restrict our focus to $m$ large enough and where SPACE TMSAT on length $m$ inputs has size near $A(m / 2)$. This will be the set of input lengths, $U$.
Since, by theorem premise, $S(2 n)=o(A(n))$, for some $n_{2}$, for all $n^{\prime}>n_{2}: S\left(2 n^{\prime}\right)<c_{1} A\left(n^{\prime}\right)$.
Since, by theorem premise, $S(n) 2^{n}=\omega(A(B(n)))$, and $C_{n}$ has size at most $O(A(B(n)))$, we have $\left|C_{n}\right|=o\left(S(n) 2^{n}\right)$. So for some $n_{3}$, for all $n^{\prime}>n_{3}$, circuit $C_{n}$ has size $S\left(n^{\prime}\right) 2^{n^{\prime}-1}$.
Take $U^{*}$ to be the $n^{\prime} \in U^{\prime}$ larger than $\max \left\{n_{1}, n_{2}, n_{3}\right\}$. See that $U^{*}$ is still an infinite set. For each length $n^{\prime} \in U^{*}$, we will find a length $n>n^{\prime}$ so the advice bit is 1 .
For $n^{\prime} \in U^{*}$, let $m=2^{l^{\prime}}$ be the smallest power of 2 greater than $n^{\prime}$. That is, $m>n^{\prime}$, but $2 n^{\prime} \geq m$.
By choice of $U^{*} \subseteq U^{\prime}$, language SPACE TMSAT on length $n^{\prime}$ inputs does not have circuits of size $c_{1} A\left(n^{\prime}\right)$. Recall that the min circuit length
for SPACE TMSAT is monotone (see Lemma 3.0.2), so since $m>n^{\prime}$, language SPACE TMSAT on length $m$ inputs does not have circuits of size $c_{1} A\left(n^{\prime}\right)$.
Since $A$ is monotone and $m \leq 2 n^{\prime}$, we know $c_{1} A(m / 2) \leq c_{1} A\left(n^{\prime}\right)$. Since $n^{\prime}>n_{2}$, we know $S\left(2 n^{\prime}\right)<c_{1} A\left(n^{\prime}\right)$. Since $S$ is monotone and $m \leq 2 n^{\prime}$, we have $S(m) \leq S\left(2 n^{\prime}\right)$. So we know $S(m) \leq c_{1} A\left(n^{\prime}\right)$. Then since SPACE TMSAT on length $m$ inputs does not have circuits of size $c_{1} A\left(n^{\prime}\right)$, we also have SPACE TMSAT on length $m$ inputs does not have circuits of size $S(m)$. Similarly, since $n^{\prime} \geq m / 2$ and $A$ is monotone, SPACE TMSAT on length $m$ inputs does not have circuits of size $c_{1} A(m / 2)$.
Let $U$ be the set of $m$ from each $n^{\prime} \in U^{*}$. See that $U$ is an infinite set since for each $n^{\prime} \in U^{*}$, there is an $m \in U$ greater than $n^{\prime}$, and $U^{*}$ is an infinite set. Then for $m \in U$, language SPACE TMSAT on length $m$ inputs does not have circuits of size $S(m)$ or $c_{1} A(m / 2)$ and $m>\max \left\{n_{1}, n_{2}, n_{3}\right\}$.
- For each $m \in U$, find appropriate $l$ and $t$.

Take the smallest $l$ so that SPACE TMSAT on length $m$ inputs does have a circuit of size $S\left(2^{l}\right)$. Note that $l>l^{\prime}$, since SPACE TMSAT on length $m$ inputs does not have circuits with size $S(m)$.
Now consider $t^{\prime}=2^{l^{\prime}}-1=m-1$. Since $m>n_{3}$, we know $C_{m}$ has size at most $S(m) 2^{t^{\prime}}$. Let $t$ be the smallest such $m$ so that $C_{m}$ has size $S(m) 2^{t}$.

- Now for $n=2^{l}+m+t$, we show the advice bit is 1 and language SPACE TMSAT on length $n$ inputs does not have circuits with size $S(n / 4)$.
First, see that $t<m$, so $m+t<2^{l^{\prime}+1}$. As noted before, $l^{\prime}<l$, so $2^{l^{\prime}+1} \leq 2^{l}$. Thus $2^{l}>m+t$ and $\rho(n)=l$. Similarly $l^{\prime}=\rho(\mu(n))$, $m=2^{l^{\prime}}$, and $t=\mu(\mu(n))$. Then
(a) By choice of $U$, language SPACE TMSAT on length $m$ inputs does not have circuits of size $c_{1} A(m / 2)$.
(b) SPACE TMSAT on length $m$ inputs does not have a circuit with size $S\left(2^{l-1}\right)$, since we chose the smallest $l$ so that SPACE TMSAT on length $m$ inputs has a circuit with size $S\left(2^{l}\right)$.
(c) For the same reason, SPACE TMSAT on length $m$ inputs does have a circuit with size $S\left(2^{l}\right)$,
(d) By choice of $t$, circuit $C_{m}$ has size $S\left(2^{l}\right) 2^{t}$.
(e) Specifically, $t$ is the smallest such that $C_{m}$ has size $S\left(2^{l}\right) 2^{t}$. So either $t=0$, or $C_{m}$ does not have size $S\left(2^{l}\right) 2^{t-1}$.
So for that $n$, the advice bit is 1 .
Since for every $m \in U$ for some $n>m$ the advice bit is 1 , and $U$ is an infinite set, the advice bit is one infinitely often. For input lengths where the advice bit is 1 , SPACE TMSAT does not have circuits of size
$S\left(2^{l-1}\right) \geq S(n / 4)$. So SPACE TMSAT does not have circuits of size $S(n / 4)$ infinitely often. Therefore

$$
W \notin \mathbf{S I Z E}[o(S(n / 4))]
$$

4. Show that

$$
W \in \text { MATIME }\left[\tilde{O}\left(S(n) \frac{A(B(D(n)))}{A(D(n) / 2)}\right)\right] / 1
$$

If the advice bit is 0 , this is trivial. Otherwise, assume for $n$ the advice bit is 1 .

When the advice bit is 1 , we know $C_{m}$ has size at most $S\left(2^{l}\right) 2^{t}$ and either
$t=0$ : Then $C_{m}$ has size $S\left(2^{l}\right)=O(S(n))$.
$t \geq 1$ : Then $C_{m}$ does not have size $S\left(2^{l}\right) 2^{t-1}$ by choice of $t$. Circuit $C_{m}$ has size $A(B(m))$. Thus

$$
S\left(2^{l}\right) 2^{t-1}<A(B(m))
$$

Further, SPACE TMSAT on length $m$ inputs does not have circuits with size $c_{1} A(m / 2)$ since the advice bit is 1 , but it does have circuits with size $S\left(2^{l}\right)$. Thus

$$
c_{1} A(m / 2)<S\left(2^{l}\right)
$$

Together

$$
\begin{aligned}
S\left(2^{l}\right) 2^{t-1} & <A(B(m)) \\
c_{1} A(m / 2) 2^{t-1} & <A(B(m)) \\
2^{t} & <\frac{2}{c_{1}} \frac{A(B(m))}{A(m / 2)}
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus $C_{m}$ has size

$$
S\left(2^{l}\right) 2^{t}=O\left(S(n) \frac{A(B(D(n)))}{A(D(n) / 2)}\right)
$$

The verifier for SPACE TMSAT can be simulated in time $\tilde{O}(m)$, and the poly $(\log (m))$ queries to the prover can be simulated in time

$$
\operatorname{poly}(\log (m)) S\left(2^{l}\right) 2^{t}=\tilde{O}\left(S(n) \frac{A(B(D(n)))}{A(D(n) / 2)}\right)
$$

This gives a total MA time of $\tilde{O}\left(S(n) \frac{A(B(D(n)))}{A(D(n) / 2)}\right)$ for $W$. Thus

$$
W \in \operatorname{MATIME}\left[\tilde{O}\left(S(n) \frac{A(B(D(n)))}{A(D(n) / 2)}\right)\right] / 1
$$

Therefore

$$
W \in \operatorname{MATIME}\left[\tilde{O}\left(S(n) \frac{A(B(D(n)))}{A(D(n) / 2)}\right)\right] / 1 \backslash \mathbf{S I Z E}[o(S(n / 4))]
$$

Now for the special case where SPACE TMSAT almost has some fixed polynomial size.

Corollary 3.4.2 (Bound if SPACE TMSAT has size $\left.n^{a+o(1)}\right)$. Suppose for some function $h(n)$ with $|h(n)|=o(1)$ and for some constant $a>1$, for some function $A(n)$ we have $A(n)=n^{a+h(n)}$. Then if $A(n)$ is non-decreasing and we have $S P A C E \quad T M S A T \in \mathbf{S I Z E}[O(A(n))] \backslash \mathbf{S I Z E}[o(A(n))]$, then for any $k<a$, for some $f(n)=o(1)$,

$$
\operatorname{MATIME}\left[O\left(n^{k+f(n)}\right)\right] / 1 \not \subset \operatorname{SIZE}\left[O\left(n^{k}\right)\right]
$$

Proof. If $k<1$, we use Corollary 2.0.5. Otherwise, let $S(n)=n^{k} \log (n)$. Since $k<a$, we have $S(2 n)=o(A(n))$.

To apply Lemma 3.4.1, we need to show that for some $B(n)=\tilde{\Theta}(n)$, we have $S(n) 2^{n}=\omega(A(\overline{B(n)}))$. But since $A(n)$ and $B(n)$ are both polynomials, they are smaller than $2^{n}$. That is

$$
\begin{aligned}
A(B(n)) & =o\left(B(n)^{k+1 / 2}\right) \\
& =o\left(2^{n}\right) \\
& =o\left(S(n) 2^{n}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

This is equivalent to $S(n) 2^{n}=\omega(A(B(n)))$.
Now we can apply Lemma 3.4.1 to get a language $W$ such that

$$
W \in \operatorname{MATIME}\left[\tilde{O}\left(n^{k} \log (n) \frac{A(B(D(n)))}{A(D(n) / 2)}\right)\right] / 1 \backslash \mathbf{S I Z E}\left[o\left(n^{k} \log (n)\right)\right]
$$

Now let's simplify this a bit. Since $W \notin \operatorname{SIZE}\left[o\left(n^{k} \log (n)\right)\right]$ and $n^{k}=o\left(n^{k} \log (n)\right)$, we have $W \notin \operatorname{SIZE}\left[O\left(n^{k}\right)\right]$.

Now we want to bound that fraction:

$$
\frac{A(B(D(n)))}{A(D(n) / 2)}=\frac{(B(D(n)))^{a+h(B(D(n)))}}{(D(n) / 2)^{a+h(D(n) / 2)}}
$$

We start by letting $D(n)=m$ and bounding this in terms of $m$ first. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{A(B(D(n)))}{A(D(n) / 2)} & =\frac{(B(m))^{a+h(B(m))}}{(m / 2)^{a+h(m / 2)}} \\
& =\tilde{O}\left(\frac{m^{a+h(B(m))}}{m^{a+h(m / 2)}}\right) \\
& =\tilde{O}\left(m^{h(B(m))-h(m / 2)}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $B(m)=\omega(1)$, and $h(m)=o(1)$, we know $h(B(m))=o(1)$. So for some $h^{*}(m)=o(1)$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{A(B(D(n)))}{A(D(n) / 2)} & =O\left(m^{h^{*}(m)}\right) \\
& =O\left(D(n)^{h^{*}(D(n))}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Note that since $A$ and $B$ are both non-decreasing, this fraction is at least 1 . So in particular $h^{*}(n) \geq 0$.

Now using Lemma 2.0.8 since $D(n)=O(n)$, for some $h^{\prime}(n)=o(1)$, we have

$$
\frac{A(B(D(n)))}{A(D(n) / 2)}=O\left(n^{h^{\prime}(n)}\right) .
$$

Thus for some $f(n)=o(1)$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\tilde{O}\left(n^{k} \log (n) \frac{A(B(D(n)))}{A(D(n) / 2)}\right) & =\tilde{O}\left(n^{k} n^{h^{\prime}(n)}\right) \\
& =O\left(n^{k+f(n)}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

So $W \in \mathbf{S I Z E}\left[O\left(n^{k+f(n)}\right)\right]$. Thus we conclude:
$\operatorname{MATIME}\left[O\left(n^{k+f(n)}\right)\right] / 1 \not \subset \mathbf{S I Z E}\left[O\left(n^{k}\right)\right]$.

### 3.5 Altogether

Altogether, these three cases imply Theorem 1.1.1
Theorem 1.1.1 (Fine Grained MA Lower Bound). There exists constant $a>$ 1 , such that for all $k<a$, for some $f(n)=o(1)$,

$$
\operatorname{MATIME}\left[O\left(n^{k+f(n)}\right)\right] / 1 \not \subset \mathbf{S I Z E}\left[o\left(n^{k}\right)\right]
$$

Proof. First, we will find the best polynomial approximation of the circuit complexity of SPACE TMSAT. So define set

$$
S=\left\{a \in \mathbb{R}: \text { SPACE TMSAT } \in \operatorname{SIZE}\left[O\left(n^{a}\right)\right]\right\}
$$

If $S=\emptyset$, then there is no constant $a$ such that SPACE TMSAT $\in \operatorname{SIZE}\left[O\left(n^{a}\right)\right]$. Then SPACE TMSAT $\notin \mathbf{P} /$ poly, so we use Corollary 3.2.3. Then Corollary 3.2.3 gives: for any $k>0$, and some $f(n)=o(1)$ :

$$
\operatorname{MATIME}\left[O\left(n^{k+f(n)}\right)\right] / 1 \not \subset \mathbf{S I Z E}\left[O\left(n^{k}\right)\right]
$$

So suppose $S \neq \emptyset$. Now see that SPACE TMSAT requires circuits of size $O(n)$ since we can reduce parity to it and parity requires circuits of size $O(n)$ (see

Lemma 2.0.4). Thus for any $a<1$, we know that SPACE TMSAT $\notin \operatorname{SIZE}\left[O\left(n^{a}\right)\right]$, that is $a \notin S$. So 1 is a lower bound for $S$.

Then the set $S$ is nonempty and has a lower bound. So $S$ has an infimum, $a$, so that for any constant $\epsilon>0$, we have SPACE TMSAT $\in \operatorname{SIZE}\left[O\left(n^{a+\epsilon}\right)\right]$, but SPACE TMSAT $\notin \operatorname{SIZE}\left[O\left(n^{a-\epsilon}\right)\right]$.

Before we use Corollary 3.3.2 and Corollary 3.4.2 we need to find an $A(n)$ such that for some $h(n)$, we have $A(n)=n^{a+h(n)}$ and

1. $A(n)$ is non-decreasing.
2. SPACE TMSAT $\in \operatorname{SIZE}[O(A(n))] \backslash \operatorname{SIZE}[o(A(n))]$.
3. $|h(n)|=o(1)$.

Let $A^{\prime}(n)$ be the minimum circuit size of SPACE TMSAT on length n inputs. One might hope $A^{\prime}(n)$ would work for $A(n)$, but the difficulty of SPACE TMSAT may not increase smoothly. It may remain near linear for many consecutive $n$, and only occasionally increase near $n^{a}$. So instead, we want a smoother function for $A(n)$ that never drops too far below $n^{a}$, but infinitely often is equal to $A^{\prime}(n)$.

So the idea is just to have $A(n)$ be the maximum of $A^{\prime}(n)$ and some polynomial just smaller than $n^{a}$, say $n^{a-\epsilon}$. Then $A(n)$ won't get far away from $n^{a}$ if $A^{\prime}(n)$ becomes small. But we can't use a constant $\epsilon$, or we could get $|h(n)|=\Omega(1)$. So instead, we make $\epsilon$ smaller each time $A^{\prime}(n)$ is larger than $n^{a-\epsilon}$.

Define $m(n)$ so that $m(0)=0$ and

$$
m(n+1)=\left\{\begin{array}{ll}
m(n)+1 & A^{\prime}(n) \geq n^{a-2^{-m(n)}} \\
m(n) & \text { otherwise }
\end{array} .\right.
$$

Then $\epsilon(n)=2^{-m(n)}$.
Now we define $A(n)=\max \left\{A^{\prime}(n), n^{a-\epsilon(n)}\right\}$. Then for $h(n)=\frac{\log (A(n))}{\log (n)}-a$, we have $A(n)=n^{a+h(n)}$. Now we show the three conditions.

1. $A(n)$ is non-decreasing.
$A(n)$ is the maximum of two non-decreasing sequences: $A^{\prime}(n)$ and $n^{a-\epsilon(n)}$, so is also non-decreasing.
2. SPACE $\operatorname{TMSAT} \in \operatorname{SIZE}[O(A(n))] \backslash \operatorname{SIZE}[o(A(n))]$.

By choice of $A(n)$, for all $n, A(n) \geq A^{\prime}(n)$, the minimum circuit size of SPACE TMSAT, so SPACE TMSAT $\in \operatorname{SIZE}[O(A(n))]$.
Now we will argue that infinitely often, $A(n)=A^{\prime}(n)$. Otherwise, for some $n^{\prime}$, for all $n \geq n^{\prime}, A^{\prime}(n)<n^{a-\epsilon(n)}$. If this were true, then for any $n \geq n^{\prime}, m(n)=m\left(n^{\prime}\right)$ since for none of these $n$ will $m(n)$ increase. Thus for all $n>n^{\prime}, A^{\prime}(n)<n^{a-\epsilon\left(n^{\prime}\right)}$. Then SPACE TMSAT $\in \mathbf{S I Z E}\left[O\left(n^{a-\epsilon\left(n^{\prime}\right)}\right)\right]$. But since $\epsilon\left(n^{\prime}\right)>0$, by choice of $a$, this cannot happen. Contradiction. So infinitely often, $A(n)=A^{\prime}(n)$.
Thus infinitely often, SPACE TMSAT requires circuits of size $A(n)$, thus SPACE TMSAT $\notin \operatorname{SIZE}[o(A(n))]$.
3. $|h(n)|=o(1)$.

From the last section, infinitely often, $A^{\prime}(n) \geq n^{a-\epsilon(n)}$, so $m(n) \rightarrow \infty$, and for $h_{1}(n)=\epsilon(n)=o(1)$, we have a lower bound on $A(n)$ of $A(n) \geq$ $n^{a-h_{1}(n)}$.
Let $h_{2}(n)=\max \left\{0, \frac{\log \left(A^{\prime}(n)\right)}{\log (n)}-a\right\}$. See that $n^{a+h_{2}(n)}$ is always at least $n^{a-\epsilon(n)}$ and $A^{\prime}(n)$, so $A(n) \leq n^{a+h_{2}(n)}$. Next we show that $h_{2}(n)=o(1)$.
Suppose otherwise. Then for some $c>0$, for infinitely many $n$, we have $h_{2}(n)>c$. But for such $n$, we have $h_{2}(n)=\frac{\log \left(A^{\prime}(n)\right)}{\log (n)}-a$, so

$$
A^{\prime}(n)=n^{a+h_{2}(n)}>n^{a+c} .
$$

Then infinitely often, SPACE TMSAT does not have circuits of size $n^{a+c}$, thus SPACE TMSAT $\notin \operatorname{SIZE}\left[o\left(n^{a+c}\right)\right]$. Specifically, for $c / 2>0$, we have SPACE TMSAT $\notin \operatorname{SIZE}\left[O\left(n^{a+c / 2}\right)\right]$. But choice of $a$, this cannot happen. Contradiction. So $h_{2}(n)=o(1)$.
Thus

$$
\begin{aligned}
n^{a-h_{1}(n)} & \leq & A(n) & \leq \\
a-h_{1}(n) \leq & \frac{\log (A(n))}{\log (n)} & \leq & n^{a+h_{2}(n)} \\
-h_{1}(n) & \leq & & a+h_{2}(n) \\
h(n) & \leq & & h_{2}(n) \\
|h(n)| & \leq & & \max \left\{h_{1}(n), h_{2}(n)\right\} \\
& & &
\end{aligned}
$$

If $a=1$, we use Corollary 3.3.2. See that $|h(n)|=o(1)$ and SPACE TMSAT $\in$ SIZE $\left[O\left(n^{1+|h(n)|}\right)\right]$. Thus for any $k$, for some $f(n)=o(1)$, we have

$$
\operatorname{MATIME}\left[O\left(n^{k+f(n)}\right)\right] / 1 \not \subset \mathbf{S I Z E}\left[O\left(n^{k}\right)\right]
$$

If $a>1$, we use Corollary 3.4.2. See that $A$ was specifically constructed to satisfy the theorem requirements. Then for any $k<a$, for some $f(n)=o(1)$, we have

$$
\operatorname{MATIME}\left[O\left(n^{k+f(n)}\right)\right] / 1 \not \subset \operatorname{SIZE}\left[O\left(n^{k}\right)\right]
$$

## 4 Extrapolatable PCPs

We introduce extrapolatable $\mathbf{P C P}(\mathbf{e P C P}$ s) as an intermediate $\mathbf{P C P}$ in constructing an efficient rPCP. We will later use $\mathbf{r P C P}$ s in PCP composition to reduce the number of queries. Before defining an $\mathbf{e P C P}, \mathbf{r P C P}$ or $\mathbf{P C P}$ composition, we start by introducing several useful properties about extrapolatability.

### 4.1 Extrapolatable Functions

We defined extrapolatable functions to help construct functions we can compute a low degree extrapolation of efficiently. For any $Q:[q] \rightarrow \mathbb{F}^{n}$, we say its low degree extrapolation is the unique degree $q-1$ function that agrees with $Q$ on its first $q$ values. Any $Q$ computable in time $n$ polylog $(|\mathbb{F}|)$, we can compute the extrapolation of $Q$ in time $q n$ polylog $(|\mathbb{F}|)$. But we want to compute the extrapolation of $Q$ in time $(q+n)$ polylog $(|\mathbb{F}|)$. Recall the definition of an extrapolatable function.

Definition 1.2.1 (Extrapolatability). For any $n, q, t>0$, and field $\mathbb{F}$, we call $Q:[q] \rightarrow \mathbb{F}^{n}$ ' $t$ extrapolatable" (or time $t$ extrapolatable) if there is a time $t$ algorithm taking any $v \in \mathbb{F}^{q}$, that outputs

$$
\sum_{i \in[q]} v_{i} Q(i) .
$$

We will use $Q$ where $t \leq(q+n)$ polylog $(|\mathbb{F}|)$.
Various basic combinations of extrapolatable functions give extrapolatable functions.

The function that outputs one extrapolatable function for its first $m$ inputs, and then a second extrapolatable function for its last $m^{\prime}$ inputs is also extrapolatable.

Lemma 4.1.1 (Extrapolatability Combination 1). For integers $n, q, q^{\prime}, t, t^{\prime}>$ 0 , and field $\mathbb{F}$, if $p:[q] \rightarrow \mathbb{F}^{n}$ is $t$ extrapolatable, and $p^{\prime}:\left[q^{\prime}\right] \rightarrow \mathbb{F}^{n}$ is $t^{\prime}$ extrapolatable, then $g:\left[q+q^{\prime}\right] \rightarrow \mathbb{F}^{n}$ is $O\left(t+t^{\prime}+n \log (\mathbb{F})\right)$ extrapolatable where

$$
g(i)= \begin{cases}q(i) & i \leq q \\ p(i-m) & i>q\end{cases}
$$

Proof. To prove $g(i)$ is extrapolatable, we need an algorithm that takes $v \in$ $\mathbb{F}^{q+q^{\prime}}$ and outputs

$$
\sum_{i \in\left[q+q^{\prime}\right]} v_{i} g(i)
$$

We can write this sum as

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sum_{i \in\left[q+q^{\prime}\right]} v_{i} g(i) & =\sum_{i \in[q]} v_{i} g(i)+\sum_{i \in\left[q^{\prime}\right]} v_{q+i} g(q+i) \\
& =\sum_{i \in[q]} v_{i} p(i)+\sum_{i \in\left[q^{\prime}\right]} v_{q+i} p^{\prime}(i)
\end{aligned}
$$

Then use extrapolatability of $p$ to calculate

$$
\sum_{i \in[q]} v_{i} p(i)
$$

in time $t$, and use extrapolatability of $p^{\prime}$ to calculate

$$
\sum_{i \in\left[q^{\prime}\right]} v_{q+i} p^{\prime}(i)
$$

in time $t^{\prime}$. Then their sum is the answer, and addition takes time $O(n \log (\mathbb{F}))$.

Similarly, a function that outputs pairs of values from extrapolatable functions is extrapolatable.

Lemma 4.1.2 (Extrapolatability Combination 2). For integers $n, n^{\prime}, q, t, t^{\prime}>$ 0 , and field $\mathbb{F}$, if $p:[q] \rightarrow \mathbb{F}^{n}$ is $t$ extrapolatable, and $p^{\prime}:[q] \rightarrow \mathbb{F}^{n^{\prime}}$ is $t^{\prime}$ extrapolatable, then $g:[q] \rightarrow \mathbb{F}^{n+n^{\prime}}$ is $O\left(t+t^{\prime}\right)$ extrapolatable where

$$
g(i)=\left(p(i), p^{\prime}(i)\right)
$$

Proof. Given $v \in \mathbb{F}^{q}$, we need to calculate

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sum_{i \in[q]} v_{i} g(i) & =\sum_{i \in[q]} v_{i}\left(p(i), p^{\prime}(i)\right) \\
& =\left(\sum_{i \in[q]} v_{i} p(i), \sum_{i \in[q]} v_{i} p^{\prime}(i)\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

We use extrapolatability of $p$ to calculate

$$
\sum_{i \in[q]} v_{i} p(i)
$$

in time $t$, then use extrapolatability of $p^{\prime}$ to calculate

$$
\sum_{i \in[q]} v_{i} p^{\prime}(i)
$$

in time $t^{\prime}$. Then concatenate the results.
As an example of extrapolatable functions, see that any function outputting an arithmetic progression is extrapolatable.

Lemma 4.1.3 (Arithmetic Progressions are Extrapolatable). For integers $n, q>$ 0 , and field $\mathbb{F}$, for any $x \in \mathbb{F}^{n}$ and $y \in \mathbb{F}^{n}$, the function $f:[q] \rightarrow \mathbb{F}^{n}$ defined by

$$
f(i)=x+i y
$$

is time $O((n+q)$ polylog $(|\mathbb{F}|)$ extrapolatable.

Proof. Given $v \in \mathbb{F}^{q}$, we need to calculate

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sum_{i \in[q]} v_{i} f(i) & =\sum_{i \in[q]} v_{i}(x+i y) \\
& =\left(\sum_{i \in[q]} v_{i}\right) x+\left(\sum_{i \in[q]} v_{i} i\right) y
\end{aligned}
$$

Then one can calculate $\alpha=\sum_{i \in[q]} v_{i}$ using just $m$ field additions, which takes time $O(m \log (|\mathbb{F}|))$. Similarly, one can calculate $\beta=\sum_{i \in[q]} v_{i} i$ using only $q$ multiplications and additions, which takes time $O(q$ polylog $(|\mathbb{F}|))$.

Now we need to calculate $\alpha x+\beta y$. Since $x \in \mathbb{F}^{n}$, it only $n$ field operations to multiply $x$ by $\alpha$, so $\alpha x$ only takes time $O(n$ polylog $(|\mathbb{F}|))$ to calculate. Similar for $\beta y$ and the sum of of $\alpha x$ with $\beta y$.

So altogether, this algorithm only takes time $O((q+n)$ polylog $(|\mathbb{F}|)$ to compute $\sum_{i \in[q]} v_{i} f(i)$.

Now we show that we can efficiently extrapolate (compute the low degree extrapolation of) an extrapolatable function.

Lemma 4.1.4 (Efficient Polynomials From Extrapolatability). For any $n, q, t>$ 0 , field $\mathbb{F}$ where $|\mathbb{F}|>q$, and $t$ extrapolatable $Q:[q] \rightarrow \mathbb{F}^{n}$, there is a time

$$
O(t+q \text { polylog }(|\mathbb{F}|))
$$

algorithm computing the value of a degree $q-1$ polynomial, $g$, such that for all $i \in[q]$

$$
g(i)=Q(i)
$$

Proof. We use Lagrange interpolation. For a given $q$, and $i \in[q]$, the $i$ th Lagrange basis polynomial is:

$$
l_{i}^{q}(x)=\prod_{j \in[q] \backslash\{i\}} \frac{x-j}{i-j} .
$$

This is the degree $q-1$ polynomial that is 1 at $x=i$, but 0 for all other $x \in[q] \backslash\{i\}$.

Then we can easily write our desired $g$ in terms of the Lagrange basis polynomials:

$$
g(x)=\sum_{i \in[q]} l_{i}^{q}(x) Q(i)
$$

A naive, straightforward evaluation of this sum takes time $O(n q \mathbf{p o l y l o g}(|\mathbb{F}|))$. But since $Q$ is $t$ extrapolatable, if we can calculate $l_{1}^{q}(x), \ldots, l_{q}^{q}(x)$, we can use these to calculate $g$ in time $t$.

For a fixed $x$, and $i$, we can define

$$
\begin{array}{r}
\alpha_{i}=\prod_{j \in[i-1]}(x-j) \\
\alpha_{i}^{\prime}=\prod_{j \in[q] \backslash[i]}(x-j) \\
\beta_{i}=\prod_{j \in[i-1]} j \\
\beta_{i}^{\prime}=\prod_{j \in[q-i]}(-j)
\end{array}
$$

so that

$$
\begin{aligned}
l_{i}^{q}(x) & =\prod_{j \in[q] \backslash\{i\}} \frac{x-j}{i-j} \\
& =\frac{\alpha_{i} \alpha_{i}^{\prime}}{\beta_{i} \beta_{i}^{\prime}}
\end{aligned}
$$

Each one of these sequences $\left(\alpha, \alpha^{\prime}, \beta, \beta^{\prime}\right)$ can be entirely computed in time $O(q$ polylog $(|\mathbb{F}|))$. For instance, see that for $i<q, \alpha_{i+1}=(x-i) \alpha_{i}$, which can be computed with two field operations. So all $q$ of the $\alpha_{i}$ can be computed in time $O(q \mathbf{p o l y l o g}(|\mathbb{F}|))$. Similarly for $\alpha^{\prime}, \beta$, and $\beta^{\prime}$.

Now given each of $\alpha, \alpha^{\prime}, \beta$, and $\beta^{\prime}$ have already been calculated, we can calculate $l_{i}^{q}(x)$ in four field operations. Thus, every $l_{1}^{q}(x), \ldots, l_{q}^{q}(x)$ can be calculated in time $O(q$ polylog $(|\mathbb{F}|))$.

Finally, since $Q$ is time $t$ extrapolatable, we can calculate $g(x)$ in time $t$, giving a total time of $O(t+q$ polylog( $|\mathbb{F}|))$.

### 4.2 Robust PCPs and Extrapolatable PCPs

The purpose of an $\mathbf{e P C P}$ is to give an easy, efficient way to construct a robust PCP (rPCP). This construction uses low degree testing. So before we define ePCP and show how to convert one to a rPCP, we first define rPCP and review low degree testing.

Loosely, a robust $\mathbf{P C P}$ is a $\mathbf{P C P}$ so that when $x \notin L$, for any proof, most sets of queries to that proof return not only a rejected response, but a response that is far from any accepted response.

To formally define a robust $\mathbf{P C P}$ s, we need to define Hamming distance.
Definition 4.2.1 (Distance). For $x, y \in \Sigma^{n}$, define distance by the function, $\Delta$ :

$$
\Delta(x, y)=\frac{\sum_{i \in[n]} 1_{x_{i} \neq y_{i}}}{n}=\operatorname{Pr}_{i \in[n]}\left[x_{i} \neq y_{i}\right] .
$$

For $Y \subset \Sigma^{n}$, define

$$
\Delta(x, Y)=\min _{y \in Y} \Delta(x, y)
$$

The only difference between a PCP (see Definition 2.0.7) and an $\mathbf{r P C P}$ is a strengthening of the of soundness to robust soundness. Now we formally define an $\mathbf{r P C P}$.

Definition 4.2.2 (Robust PCP). For language $L$ with a non-adaptive PCP protocol, A, with verifier $V$, index function $I$, and alphabet $\Sigma$, we say $A$ is a robust $\mathbf{P C P}$ (rPCP) if:

Robust Soundness If $x \notin L$ then for every $\pi^{\prime}$, for $Y_{r}=\{\sigma: V(x, r, \sigma)=1\}$,

$$
E_{r}\left[\Delta\left(\pi_{I(x, r)}^{\prime}, Y_{r}\right)\right] \geq 1-\delta
$$

Completeness If $x \in L$ and $n=|x|$, then there exists $\pi^{x} \in \Sigma^{l(n)}$ such that

$$
\operatorname{Pr}_{r}\left[V\left(x, r, \pi_{I(x, r)}^{x}\right)=1\right]=1
$$

Then we say $A$ has robust soundness $\delta$.
Now we introduce extrapolatable $\mathbf{P C P s}(\mathbf{e P C P s})$ as an intermediate between a PCP and an rPCP. An $\mathbf{~ P P C P}$ is a $\mathbf{P C P}$ where:

1. An honest PCP proof is a low degree polynomial: $\pi: \mathbb{F}^{m} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$.

This allows us to make the PCP robust using an aggregation through curves type technique.
2. We relax soundness to only be against low degree proofs.

This makes constructing ePCPs easier, since it lets us assume proofs are low degree functions, and low degree polynomials are error correcting codes.
3. The query function is extrapolatable (see Definition 1.2.1).

This makes the query locations of the robust $\mathbf{P C P}$ efficient to compute individually.

Now we formally define an extrapolatable $\mathbf{P C P}$ (see standard $\mathbf{P C P}$ s, Definition 2.0.7. for reference).

Definition 4.2.3 (Extrapolatable PCP). We say a non-adaptive PCP, A, for language $L$ with verifier $V$, prover $P$, and query function $Q$ is an extrapolatable $\mathbf{P C P}$ (ePCP) if for some $m$ and $d$ :

1. For some field $\mathbb{F}, A$ uses alphabet $\mathbb{F}$.
2. The proof length is $|\mathbb{F}|^{m}$.

That is, any proof, $\pi$, can be viewed as a function $\pi: \mathbb{F}^{m} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$.

Low Degree Completeness If $x \in L$ and $n=|x|$, then there exists a polynomial $\pi^{x}: \mathbb{F}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$ of degree at most $d$ such that

$$
\operatorname{Pr}_{r}\left[V\left(x, r, \pi^{x}(I(x, r))\right)=1\right]=1,
$$

and for every $i \in[l(n)]$, we have $P(x, i)=\pi_{i}^{x}$.
Low Degree Soundness If $x \notin L$ then for every polynomial $\pi^{\prime}: \mathbb{F}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$ of degree at most d has

$$
\operatorname{Pr}_{r}\left[V\left(x, r, \pi^{\prime}(I(x, r))\right)=1\right] \leq \delta .
$$

Further, we say A has:

1. Extrapolation time $t(n)$ if for any $x, r, Q_{x, r}(t)=Q(x, r, t)$ is time $t(n)$ extrapolatable.
2. Degree $d$ and $m$ variables.
3. Low degree soundness $\delta$.
4. Perfect low degree completeness.

### 4.3 Low Degree Testing

Low degree testing checks if there is a global low degree polynomial a proof is close to. We use this to find a low degree proof for an $\mathbf{e P C P}$ if a proof for our rPCP is too often close to accepting inputs.

We use the "line versus point" low degree test. Our definition of the line versus point test has more redundancy than necessary (we allow multiple claimed polynomials per line), but this is equivalent and simplifies our analysis.

Definition 4.3.1 (Line versus Point test). Let $\mathbb{F}$ be a field, $f$ be a function $f: \mathbb{F}^{m} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$, and degree $d$ be an integer. For each line given by $l: \mathbb{F} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}^{m}$, let there be a degree $d$ polynomial $g_{l}: \mathbb{F} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$.

The line vs point test uniformly samples a line given by, $l: \mathbb{F} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}^{m}$ and $a$ uniform $t \in \mathbb{F}$ then accepts if and only if

$$
f(l(t))=g_{l}(t)
$$

Let $L v P_{d}(f)$ be the random variable that this test fails on function $f$ for the set of $g_{l}$ that fails with the lowest probability.

The failure probability of the line versus point test is related to the distance to a low degree polynomial AS97. We will be using the result from FS95.

Lemma 4.3.2 (Line vs Point Test Measures Distance to Degree). For some constant $c$, for any integer $d$ and field $\mathbb{F}$ with $|\mathbb{F}| \geq c d$, for any function $f$ : $\mathbb{F}^{m} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$, if

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left[L v P_{d}(f)\right] \leq 0.12
$$

then there exists a degree $d$ polynomial $g$ so that

$$
\Delta(f, g) \leq 2 \operatorname{Pr}\left[L v P_{d}(f)\right]
$$

If $f$ is a degree $d$ polynomial, then

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left[L v P_{d}(f)\right]=0
$$

### 4.4 Extrapolatable PCPs to Robust PCPs

The idea is to take an ePCP, and instead of querying points, query all the points along a curve that goes through those points. Since low degree functions are an error correcting code, restricting low degree proofs to a low degree curve gives an error correcting code. So by querying entire curves, we can make the set of accepted query values for our PCP verifier an error correcting code.

Querying along a line and checking if it is low degree performs a low degree test. A low degree test only succeeds with high probability if a proof is close to a global, low degree polynomial. Then since low degree polynomials are error correcting codes, if the query values are close to both the global low degree polynomial and an accepted proof, the accepted proof is the global low degree polynomial. If the query values for a proof are close to being accepted often, we show a global low degree proof for the original ePCP succeeds often.

Then the idea of the protocol is to choose the randomness for the $\mathbf{e P C P}$, take a curve through all the query points of the $\mathbf{e P C P}$, query all the locations along this curve and check if the the curve is low degree, and the ePCP accepts the proof on this curve. This is almost what the rPCP does, with a few caveats:

1. We also perform a robust line versus point test. This is just like a regular line versus point test, except we check every point along the line. This gives our line versus point test robustness since low degree polynomials are an error correcting code.
2. To guarantee the curve is consistent with the global low degree polynomial with high probability, we need a random point on the curve to be approximately uniform over $\mathbb{F}^{m}$. So we also choose another random point in the proof, and use a curve that goes through the $\mathbf{e P C P}$ queries and that point.
From Lemma 4.1.1, the function going through all these points is still extrapolatable, and so by Lemma 4.1.4 we can efficiently compute the curve going through them.

Theorem 4.4.1 (ePCP gives efficient rPCP). For any language $L$ with an ePCP, A, with

1. Verifier time $t(n)$.
2. Verifier space $s(n)$.
3. Extrapolation time $t^{\prime}(n)$.
4. Randomness $r(n)$.
5. Degree $d(n)$ and $m(n)$ variables.
6. $q(n)$ queries.
7. Alphabet $\mathbb{F}$ where $|\mathbb{F}|>10 q(n) d(n)$.
8. Prover P.
9. Low degree soundness 0.1.
10. Perfect low degree completeness.

Language $L$ has an $\mathbf{r P C P}, B$, with

1. Verifier time $O\left(t(n)+|\mathbb{F}|^{3}\right.$ polylog $\left.(|\mathbb{F}|)\right)$.
2. Verifier space $O(s(n)+\log (|\mathbb{F}|))$.
3. Randomness $r(n)+O(m(n) \log (|\mathbb{F}|))$.
4. Query time $O\left(t^{\prime}(n)+(q(n)+m(n))\right.$ polylog $\left.(|\mathbb{F}|)\right)$.
5. $O(|\mathbb{F}|)$ queries.
6. Prover $P$ with perfect completeness.
7. Soundness at most 0.99.

These are not great parameters, especially for soundness, but they are good enough for our purposes.

Proof. Let $V$ be the verifier, $Q$ the query function, $I$ the index function, and $P$ the prover from $\mathbf{e P C P}, A$. We construct a new $\mathbf{r P C P}, B$, that expects the same low degree polynomial as proof as $A$. Our new verifier will be $V^{\prime}$ and our new query function $Q^{\prime}$. I will start by describing our protocol from a high level, pointing out which parts are done by a new query function $Q^{\prime}$ and $V^{\prime}$ later.

First, on input $x$, and proof $\pi$, our PCP protocol $B$ will choose the randomness for $A$, call it $r$. This determines the query points for $A$, which are $I(x, r)$. By assumption, $Q_{x, r}(i)=Q(x, r, i)$ is time $t^{\prime}(n)$ extrapolatable.

Then $B$ chooses some random $y \in \mathbb{F}^{m}$. See that the function taking 1 to $y$ is time $O(m$ poly $\log (|\mathbb{F}|))$ extrapolatable. Let $g: \mathbb{F} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}^{m}$ be the degree $q(n)$ function such that, for each $t \in[q(n)]$, we have $g(t)=Q(x, r, t)$, and $g(q(n)+1)=y$.

Then $\pi \circ g$ is a degree $d^{\prime}=d q$ polynomial if $\pi$ is actually a degree $d$ polynomial. Our new rPCP verifier $V^{\prime}$ will check every point along $\pi \circ g$ and verify it is a degree $d^{\prime}$ polynomial that would cause our $\mathbf{e P C P}$ verifier $V$ to accept.

Next $B$ chooses a random $z \in \mathbb{F}^{m}$ to run a robust line versus point test with line $l(i)=y+i \cdot z$. Altogether, $B$ uses randomness $r^{\prime}=(r, y, z)$ and $\left|r^{\prime}\right|=r(n)+(2 m(n)) \log (|\mathbb{F}|)$.

Then query function $Q^{\prime}:[2|\mathbb{F}|] \rightarrow \mathbb{F}^{m}$ is defined by

$$
Q^{\prime}\left(x, r^{\prime}, i\right)= \begin{cases}g(i) & i \leq|\mathbb{F}| \\ l(i-|\mathbb{F}|) & i>|\mathbb{F}|\end{cases}
$$

(where we define $g(|\mathbb{F}|)=g(0)$ and $l(|\mathbb{F}|)=l(0)$ ).
We call the first $|\mathbb{F}|$ queries the curve queries and the second $|\mathbb{F}|$ queries the line queries. Similarly, we call $\pi$ evaluated on the first $\mathbb{F}$ queries the curve values and $\pi$ on the second $\mathbb{F}$ queries the line values.

The verifier $V^{\prime}$ first checks if the $\mathbf{e P C P}$ would accept the curve values, that is, if $V\left(x, r, \pi_{I(x, r)}\right)=1$. It can do this since the first $q$ queries of $Q^{\prime}$ are the same as $Q$. Then the verifier checks if the curve values are a degree $d^{\prime}$ polynomial. Finally, it checks if the line values are a degree $d$ polynomial. Our new verifier $V^{\prime}$ accepts only if all of these checks pass.

Now I show that $B$ has the required performance.

1. Now to analyze the time of $V$. It just takes the time to simulate $V^{\prime}$, which is $t(n)$, plus the time it takes to perform the low degree tests.
To test the low degree of $f$ (using $h$ in the verifier space analysis above) takes $O(|\mathbb{F}|)$ calculations of $h(x)$. Each $h(x)$ only takes $O\left(d^{\prime}\right)$ calculations of $l_{i}^{d^{\prime}}(x)$. Each $l_{i}^{d^{\prime}}(x)$ only takes time $O\left(d^{\prime}\right.$ polylog $\left.(|\mathbb{F}|)\right)$. Thus the total time for the low degree test of $f$ is

$$
O\left(|\mathbb{F}| d^{\prime} d^{\prime} \text { poly } \log (|\mathbb{F}|)\right)=O\left(|\mathbb{F}|^{3} \text { poly } \log (|\mathbb{F}|)\right)
$$

The line versus point checks take at most this long, so the overall time

$$
O\left(t(n)+|\mathbb{F}|^{3} \text { polylog }(|\mathbb{F}|)\right.
$$

2. Now we show verifier space is $O(s(n)+\log (|\mathbb{F}|))$.

To keep the verifier space down, we need to specify how we check that $\pi \circ g$ is a degree $d^{\prime}$ polynomial. Let $f:=\pi \circ g$ so that $f$ is a function outputting the curve values.
Using the degree $d^{\prime}$ interpolating polynomials,

$$
l_{i}^{d^{\prime}}(x)=\prod_{j \in\left[d^{\prime}\right] \backslash\{i\}} \frac{x-j}{i-j},
$$

we can write a degree $d^{\prime}$ polynomial, $h$ :

$$
h(x)=\sum_{i \in\left[d^{\prime}\right]} l_{i}^{d^{\prime}}(x) f(i) .
$$

If $f$ is a degree $d^{\prime}$ polynomial, then $f=h$. To see if $f=h$, we calculate $h$ at each point and compare to $f$.
Each $l_{i}^{d^{\prime}}$ can be computed in a straightforward way following the definition. This requires keeping track of a constant number of field elements and a pointer for $j$. Then given that, $h(x)$ only needs the additional space for another counter for $i$ and another field element. Finally, comparing all of the $h(x)$ to the $f(x)$ only takes space for another pointer for the $x$ and another field element. So it only requires a constant number of pointers and field elements. Since $|\mathbb{F}|>d^{\prime}$, this only requires $O(\log (|\mathbb{F}|))$ space.
We do a similar thing for the line versus point test.
So the total space of $V^{\prime}$ is the space used to run $V$ plus $O(\log (|\mathbb{F}|))$. So the total space is $O(s(n)+\log (|\mathbb{F}|))$.
3. As already shown, $B$ uses randomness $O(r(n)+(2 m(n)+1) \log (|\mathbb{F}|))$.
4. Next, we show the query time of the robust $\mathbf{P C P}$.

By assumption, the query locations of $Q$ are time $t^{\prime}(n)$ extrapolatable. And by Lemma 4.1.1, adding $y$ gives a $O\left(t^{\prime}+m \log (|\mathbb{F}|)\right)$ extrapolatable function. And $g$ is the low degree extrapolation of this sequence.
By Lemma 4.1.4, we can calculate $g$ in time $O\left(t^{\prime}(n)+(m+q)\right.$ polylog $\left.(|\mathbb{F}|)\right)$. This handles the curve queries, as these are just evaluations of $g$.
The curve queries just return a point in $l(i)=y+i \cdot z$. These can be calculated in $O(m$ polylog $(|\mathbb{F}|))$ time.
In either case, we calculate $Q^{\prime}$ in time

$$
O\left(t^{\prime}(n)+(m+q) \text { polylog }(|\mathbb{F}|)\right)
$$

5. For number of queries, we just do $2|\mathbb{F}|=O(|\mathbb{F}|)$.
6. Now I need to show the proof provided by $P$ has perfect completeness.

This prover works, since by assumption, if $x \in L$, then $P$ computes a proof, $\pi^{x}$, that $V$ accepts and $\pi^{x}$ has degree $d$. Then $\pi^{x} \circ g$ has degree $d^{\prime}$, and $\pi^{x} \circ l$ has degree $d$, so the low degree tests will also succeed. Thus with probability 1 will $V^{\prime}$ accept when given queries from $\pi^{x}$.
7. Now we need to show soundness 0.99 .

Let $q^{\prime}(n)=2|\mathbb{F}|$ be the number of queries made by our new protocol. Let $I^{\prime}(x, r)=\left(Q^{\prime}\left(x, r^{\prime}, i\right)\right)_{i \in\left[q^{\prime}(n)\right]}$ be the index function of our $\mathbf{r P C P}$.
We want to show that if $x \notin L$, then for any proof $\pi$, the expected distance of $\pi_{I^{\prime}(x, r)}$ to any string that would make the verifier accept is more than 0.01. We prove the contrapositive.

Let $Y_{r}=\left\{\sigma: V^{\prime}(x, r, \sigma)=1\right\}$. Then we want to show if there exists a proof $\pi: \mathbb{F}^{m} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$ such that

$$
\mathrm{E}_{r}\left[\Delta\left(\pi_{I^{\prime}(x, r)}, Y_{r}\right)\right] \leq 0.01
$$

then $x \in L$.
Suppose $\mathrm{E}_{r}\left[\Delta\left(\pi_{I^{\prime}(x, r)}, Y_{r}\right)\right]<0.01$. First recall that our queries have 2 equal length parts: the curve and the line queries.
The proof idea is the following:
(a) With high probability, for randomness $r$, individually, the curve and line queries agree on most points with a single proof window, $\sigma_{r} \in Y_{r}$, that is accepted on $r$.
(b) This implies a protocol for the line versus point test that frequently succeeds. So $\pi$ is close to low degree proof $\pi^{\prime}$.
(c) Then with good probability, $\pi$ on curve queries will agree with $\pi^{\prime}$ at most places.
(d) Often, $\pi$ on curve queries agree with $\sigma_{r}$ and $\pi^{\prime}$ on most locations. So $\sigma_{r}$ and $\pi^{\prime}$ are equal on the curve queries. So $\pi^{\prime}$ is accepted often by our ePCP, $A$.
(e) Then $x \in L$, since $\pi^{\prime}$ is a low degree proof that is accepted often by our ePCP and our ePCP has low degree soundness.

Let's follow this outline.
(a) Let $C$ be the set of randomness $r$ so that for some $\sigma_{r} \in Y_{r}$, the distance between the $\pi_{I(x, r)}$ and $\sigma_{r}$ is at most 0.1. I want to show the probability $r \notin C$ is at most 0.1 .
By definition of $C$, for any $r \notin C$, we have $\Delta\left(\pi_{I(x, r)}, Y_{r}\right) \geq 0.1$. Then see that

$$
\begin{aligned}
0.01 & \geq \mathrm{E}_{r}\left[\Delta\left(\pi_{I(x, r)}, Y_{r}\right)\right] \\
& \geq \operatorname{Pr}[r \notin C] 0.1 \\
0.1 & \geq \operatorname{Pr}[r \notin C] \\
\operatorname{Pr}[r \in C] & \geq 0.9 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Notice in particular that for $r \in C$, the distance between $\pi_{I(x, r)}$ and $\sigma_{r}$ further restricted to the curve or line values is at most 0.2 .
(b) Now our PCP encodes an implicit line versus point test that chooses a line, and checks a random point along it. I will use this to show that for some degree $d$ function $\pi^{\prime}$, we have $\Delta\left(\pi, \pi^{\prime}\right)<0.24$.
For a given randomness $r$, let $l$ be the line $Q^{\prime}$ queries. Let $p_{l}$ be the degree $d$ function that agrees with the line values at the most places. Now we show that for $r \in C$, we have $p_{l}=\sigma_{r}$.
For $r \in C$, some $\sigma_{r}$ disagrees with $\pi$ on the line values on at most 0.2 fraction of places. Thus $p_{l}$ must also disagree with $\pi$ on at most 0.2 fraction of places. Thus $p_{l}$ and $\sigma_{r}$ agree with each other on at least 0.6 fraction of places. So $\sigma_{r}$ and $p_{l}$ agree on more than $d$ points.

Since $\sigma_{r}$ causes the verifier to accept, it has degree at most $d$. So $p_{l}$ and $\sigma_{r}$ on the line queries are degree $d$ polynomials that agree on more than $d$ places. So $p_{l}=\sigma_{r}$ on the line queries.
Now, let us consider the probability that the line versus point test fails. This is at most the probability that $r \notin C$ plus the probability that $r \in C$ and it fails for $r$. So

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left[\operatorname{LvP}_{d}(\pi)\right] \leq \operatorname{Pr}\left[r \in C \wedge \operatorname{LvP}_{d}(\pi)\right]+\operatorname{Pr}[r \notin C]
$$

The probability that a line versus point test fails for $r \in C$ is just the probability a random point in the point queries disagrees with $p_{l}$. But this is the same as the probability a random point in the point queries disagrees with $\sigma_{r}$. This is at most twice times the distance between $\sigma_{r}$ and $\pi$ :

$$
\operatorname{Pr}_{r \in C}\left[\operatorname{LvP}_{d}(\pi)\right] \leq 2 \mathrm{E}_{r \in C}\left[\Delta\left(\sigma_{r}, \pi_{I(x, r)}\right)\right]
$$

Thus

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{Pr}\left[r \in C \wedge \operatorname{LvP}_{d}(\pi)\right] \\
= & \operatorname{Pr}[r \in C] \operatorname{Pr}_{r \in C}\left[\operatorname{LvP}_{d}(\pi)\right] \\
\leq & \operatorname{Pr}[r \in C] 2 \mathrm{E}_{r \in C}\left[\Delta\left(\sigma_{r}, \pi_{I(x, r)}\right)\right] \\
\leq & 2 \mathrm{E}_{r}\left[\Delta\left(Y_{r}, \pi_{I(x, r)}\right)\right] .
\end{aligned}
$$

So we can write

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Pr}\left[\operatorname{LvP}_{d}(\pi)\right] & \leq \operatorname{Pr}\left[r \in C \wedge \operatorname{LvP}_{d}(\pi)\right]+\operatorname{Pr}[r \notin C] \\
& \leq 2 \mathrm{E}\left[\Delta\left(Y_{r}, \pi_{I(x, r)}\right)\right]+\operatorname{Pr}[r \notin C] \\
& \leq 0.02+0.1 \\
& \leq 0.12
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus the line versus point test fails with probability at most 0.12 . Then by Lemma 4.3.2, $\pi$ is within 0.76 of a degree $d$ polynomial, $\pi^{\prime}$. That is

$$
\Delta\left(\pi, \pi^{\prime}\right)<0.24
$$

(c) Let $D$ be the set of randomness so that on the curve queries, $\pi$ has distance at most 0.4 from $\pi^{\prime}$. I want to show that $\operatorname{Pr}[r \in D] \geq 0.4$. First, I show that any individual point in the curve query past the first $d^{\prime}$ queries is uniformly random. That is, for $i \in\left[d^{\prime}+1,|\mathbb{F}|\right]$, function $g(i)$ is uniform as a function of $r$, or more particularly, $y$. This is because each different value of $y$ encodes a specific value of $g(i)$. But alternatively, we could make $g(i)$ be any uniform value and decide our degree $q(n)$ polynomial that way, which would imply a
value for $y$. So there is a bijection between choices for $y$ and choices for $g(i)$, and choices of $y$ are uniform, so choices for $g(i)$ must be too. Let $I_{c}=I_{\left.\left[d^{\prime}+1, \mid \mathbb{F}\right]\right]}^{\prime}(x, r)$ be the set of curve queries for randomness $r$. Then by linearity of expectation, the expected distance between $\pi$ and $\pi^{\prime}$ on $I_{c}$ is the expected distance between $\pi$ and $\pi^{\prime}$ overall, which is at most 0.24 . So then

$$
\mathrm{E}\left[\Delta\left(\pi_{I_{c}}, \pi_{I_{c}}^{\prime}\right)\right]<0.24
$$

So by a Markov inequality,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Pr}[r \notin D] & =\operatorname{Pr}\left[\Delta\left(\pi_{I_{c}}, \pi_{I_{c}}^{\prime}\right) \geq 0.4\right] \\
& \leq \frac{\mathrm{E}\left[\Delta\left(\pi_{I_{c}}, \pi_{I_{c}}^{\prime}\right)\right]}{0.4} \\
& \leq \frac{0.24}{0.4} \\
& \leq 0.6 .
\end{aligned}
$$

(d) Now suppose $r \in C \cap D$. Then since $r \in C$, for some proof $\sigma_{r}$ accepted by the verifier, the distance between $\sigma_{r}$ and $\pi$ on the curve queries is at most 0.2 . Since $r \in D$, the distance between $\pi$ and $\pi^{\prime}$ on the curve queries is at most 0.4 . So $\sigma_{r}$ and $\pi^{\prime}$ agree on at least 0.4 fraction of curve queries. Since $\sigma_{r}$ is accepted by the verifier, $\pi^{\prime} \circ g$ has degree $d^{\prime}$.
Then both $\sigma_{r}$ and $\pi^{\prime} \circ g$ on the curve queries are degree $d^{\prime}$ and agree on more than $d^{\prime}$ locations. Thus $\sigma_{r}$ and $\pi^{\prime}$ are equal on the curve queries.
Since $\sigma_{r}$ is accepted by the verifier, so is $\pi^{\prime}$ since they agree on the curve queries. Thus for $r \in C \cap D$, we have $\pi_{I(x, r)}^{\prime}$ is accepted by the original ePCP verifier, $V$.
(e) By a union bound, with probability at least 0.3 , we have $r \in C \cap D$. Thus with probability at least 0.3 , our original ePCP protocol, $A$, accepts proof $\pi^{\prime}$. But this can't be if $x \notin L$ since $A$ has degree $d$ soundness 0.1. So $x \in L$.

Thus $B$ has soundness 0.99 .

## 5 Constructing our ePCP

We use a BFL style base PCP. Our ePCP verifier asks for a multilinear extension of the computation history of an algorithm, and constructs a simple formula that indicates an inconsistency in the computation history. Then it does a sum check to verify that the arithmetization of this formula constructed from the computation history is 0 on all Boolean inputs.

Then the base ePCP consists broadly of 4 parts.

1. Check consistency of input with the claimed multilinear extension of the computation history. The multilinear extension of the input can be calculated in a straightforward matter by the verifier. Then we just need to compare our proof at the time 0 configuration to what it should actually be at a random point
2. Check consistency of the claimed multilinear extension of the computation history with the claimed value of an arithmetization of the inconsistency formula. This can be done by using the claimed multilinear extension of the computation history to calculate a random point in the arithmetization of the inconsistency formula and checking if they are equal.
3. Run a sum check on the claimed arithmetization of the inconsistency formula to verify it is constant 0 on Boolean inputs. Specifically, we check if the multilinear function consistent with the inconsistency formula is the constant 0 at a random point using a sum check.

### 5.1 Arithmetization

This paper frequently uses arithmetizations of boolean functions. We say that a function $f: \mathbb{F}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$ is consistent with a boolean function $g:\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow\{0,1\}$ if $f$ agrees with $g$ when restricted to boolean inputs. If further $f$ is a low degree polynomial, $f$ is often called an arithmetization of $g$.

An example of an arithmetization is the multilinear extension of a boolean function. That is just the unique multilinear function, $f$, that agrees with $g$ on boolean inputs. These can often be constructed very efficiently. For instance, the multilinear extension of the equality function.

Definition 5.1.1 (Equality Arithmetization). For field $\mathbb{F}$, and $l \geq 1$, define equ: $\mathbb{F}^{l} \times \mathbb{F}^{l} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$ as:

$$
e q u(u, v)=\prod_{i \in[l]} u_{i} \cdot v_{i}+\left(1-u_{i}\right) \cdot\left(1-v_{i}\right)
$$

Observe that equ is the multilinear extension of the Boolean equality function.
But even for Boolean functions whose multilinear extensions can't be computed time efficiently, there is a space efficient, brute force way to compute it.

Lemma 5.1.2 (Multilinear Extensions Require Low Space). Suppose function $G:\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow\{0,1\}$ is computable in space $S$. Then the multilinear function $g$ consistent with $G$ on Boolean inputs is computable in space $O(n \log (|\mathbb{F}|)+S)$.
Proof. This follows from the fact $g$ can be written as

$$
g(x)=\sum_{y \in\{0,1\}^{n}} G(y) \mathrm{equ}(y, x)
$$

Then this can be evaluated using only a pointer for $y$, a small amount of space for equ, $O(n)$ field elements, and the space to evaluate $G$.

### 5.2 Simulating With Automata

First, we need to translate from the RAM model of computation our algorithms use to cellular automata. This is because we will be looking at an arithmetization of a uniform, local, consistency check. It is important for us to keep the degree of the arithmetization low, which requires very local checks.

A cell's value in the next step of computation is only a function of it and its neighboring cells. So a cellular automata is very local. Further, cellular automata can simulate any RAM algorithm with only polynomial overhead in time, and very little overhead in space.

In this lemma, think of $S=O(n)$ and $T=2^{O(n)}$. We will assume $S$ and $T$ are efficiently computable. Then we have the following, direct conversion from a RAM algorithm and an associated cellular automata.

Lemma 5.2.1 (RAM algorithms have simple cellular automata). Let $A$ be a RAM algorithm recognizing $L$, running in time $T$ and space $S$ where $S=$ $\Omega(\log (n))$ and $T=\Omega(S)$. Further, A uses input coming from a read only space of $n$ bits.

Then there is a 1 dimensional cellular automata, $B$, simulating $A$, such that

1. B runs in time $T^{\prime}=\operatorname{poly}(T, n)$, and space $S^{\prime}=O(n+S)$.
2. $B$ has a constant size alphabet, $\Sigma$, where for some $k$, we have $|\Sigma|=2^{2^{k}}$. That is, $\Sigma$ is represented by a power of 2 number of bits.
3. For any input $x$ for $A$, there is a corresponding input for $B, y_{x}$, of length $S^{\prime}$. And we also have that $y_{x}=\left(y^{1}, y_{x}^{2}, y^{3}\right)$ where
(a) $y^{1}$ has length $O\left(\log \left(S^{\prime}\right)\right)$ and is independent of the specific $x$, only the length of $x$, and $y^{1}$ is computable in time $O\left(\left|y^{1}\right|\right)$.
(b) $y_{x}^{2}$ is exactly $n$ symbols where for some $f:\{0,1\} \rightarrow \Sigma$, for each $i \in[n],\left(y_{x}^{2}\right)_{i}=f\left(x_{i}\right)$, where $f$ is computable in constant time.
(c) $y^{3}$ is exactly $S$ copies of a specific symbol in $\Sigma$.
4. Not all transitions for $B$ will be defined, and $A$ accepts on $x$ if and only if after time $T^{\prime}$ starting on $y_{x}, B$ reaches a steady state. Similarly, $A$ rejects on $x$ if and only if there is no sequence of $T^{\prime}$ valid transitions in $B$ starting from $y_{x}$.
5. If $B$ has a starting state that is $\left(y^{1}, z\right)$ for any $z$ that is not $\left(y_{x}^{2}, y^{3}\right)$ for some $x \in L$, then $B$ will not have $T^{\prime}$ valid transitions.
6. Let $x \in L$ be an input for $A$, with transformed input for $B, y_{x}$. Given a time $t \in\left[T^{\prime}\right]$ and a memory location $s \in\left[S^{\prime}\right]$, there is a RAM algorithm $C$ that can compute the symbol in cell s at time $t$ in $B$ 's computation history on $y_{x}$ in time $O(T)$ and space $O(S)$ given read only access to $x$.

Remark. The exact structure of the transformed input may seem overly specific, but we need this extra structure to construct our decodable $\mathbf{P C P}$. In particular, our decodable PCP will need to know which cells encode a known, explicit, first input, and which cells encode an unknown, implicit, second input.

We explain the translation more thoroughly in Appendix B
For the purpose of analyses, it will be useful to look at a multilinear extension associated with a low degree polynomial. So we define the following purely to simplify the analysis of our PCP.

Definition 5.2.2 (Multilinear Extension of Binarized function (MLB)). For any function $f: \mathbb{F}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$, there is a unique, multilinear function, $g: \mathbb{F}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$, such that for all binary $x \in\{0,1\}^{n}$,

$$
g(x)= \begin{cases}0 & f(x)=0 \\ 1 & f(x) \neq 0\end{cases}
$$

Then we say $M L B(f)=g$.
We can construct our inconsistency check from a claimed multilinear extension of a computation history. This comes from arithmetizing the transition rules of a cellular automata. The construction is straightforward, but details can be found in Appendix B

Lemma 5.2.3 (Inconsistency Function). Let $k$ be a constant, $s, t$ be integers, and $\mathbb{F}$ be a field. Let $B$ be a cellular automata with $2^{2^{k}}$ different states per cell running in $S=2^{s}$ cells, and time $T=2^{t}$. Then there is a function $\Gamma_{B}$ taking any function $X: \mathbb{F}^{s} \times \mathbb{F}^{k} \times \mathbb{F}^{t} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$ and returning a function $Y: \mathbb{F}^{3 s+2 t+4\left(2^{k}\right)} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$ such that:

1. If $X$ is Boolean on Boolean inputs, $Y$ is Boolean on Boolean inputs.
2. If $X$ is Boolean on Boolean inputs, then $Y$ is 0 on all Boolean inputs if and only if $X$ on Boolean inputs encodes a valid computation history for $B$.
3. If $X$ is degree $d$, then $Y$ is degree $O(s+t+d)$. If $X$ is degree $d$ in every variable individually, $Y$ is degree $O(d)$ in every variable individually.
4. Given oracle access to $X, Y$ can be computed in time $O((t+s) \operatorname{polylog}(|\mathbb{F}|))$ with a constant number of calls to $X$.
5. If $Y=\Gamma_{B}(X)$ is 0 on all Boolean inputs, then $\Gamma_{B}(M L B(X))$ is also 0 on all Boolean inputs.

### 5.3 Sum Check Protocols

Our PCP uses the sum check protocol. The sum check is a standard element of $\mathbf{P C P}_{\mathrm{s}}$, and all we add is a small bit of analysis that sum check is extrapolatable.

Lemma 5.3.1 (Sum Check Protocol). Let $n, d \in \mathbb{N}$, and $\mathbb{F}$ be a field with $|\mathbb{F}|>(d+1) n$. Then there is some protocol, $A$, so that for any $f: \mathbb{F}^{n} \times \mathbb{F} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$ :

1. For some $m=O(n d)$ and $R=2 n$, there is a verifier $V: \mathbb{F}^{m} \rightarrow\{0,1\}$ and query function $Q: \mathbb{F}^{R} \times[m] \rightarrow \mathbb{F}^{n} \times \mathbb{F}$ so that

$$
A(f, r)=V(f(Q(r, 1)), f(Q(r, 2)), \ldots, f(Q(r, m)))
$$

2. $V$ runs in time $O($ ndpolylog $(|\mathbb{F}|))$ and space $O($ nd $\log (|\mathbb{F}|))$.
3. For any $r \in \mathbb{F}^{R}$, for $Q_{r}(i)=Q(r, i), Q_{r}$ is time $O(n d \mathbf{p o l y l o g}(|\mathbb{F}|))$ extrapolatable.
4. For any $r \in \mathbb{F}^{R}$, the last coordinate of $Q$ is always an element of $[n+1]$. That is, for all $i \in[m], Q(r, i)_{n+1} \in[n+1]$
Further, the last coordinate of $Q$ is only equal to $n+1$ at most $O(d)$ times.
Completeness For any $g: \mathbb{F}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$ where $g$ has max degree $d$ in any individual variable, if for all $x \in\{0,1\}^{n}, g(x)=0$, then there is some $f: \mathbb{F}^{n} \times \mathbb{F} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$ so that:

- For all $x \in \mathbb{F}^{n}$ we have $g(x)=f(x, n+1)$.
- Sum check succeeds on $f$ :

$$
\operatorname{Pr}_{r}[A(f, r)=1]=1
$$

- Function $f$ has degree at most $d$ in each of its first $n$ variables.
- If function $g$ is computable in space $S$, then function $f$ is computable in space $O(n \log (|\mathbb{F}|)+S)$.

Soundness for any $g: \mathbb{F}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$ where $g$ has max degree $d^{\prime}$, if there exists $x \in\{0,1\}^{n}$ such that $g(x) \neq 0$, then for any $f: \mathbb{F}^{n} \times \mathbb{F} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$ so that for all $x \in \mathbb{F}^{n}, g(x)=f(x, n+1)$, sum check fails with high probability:

$$
\operatorname{Pr}_{r}[A(f, r)=1] \leq \frac{\left(d^{\prime}+1\right) n}{|\mathbb{F}|}
$$

We will prove just the extrapolatable property in the body of this paper. For completeness, we prove the rest of the properties in Appendix C. To prove extrapolatability, we first formally define the sum check algorithm.

Definition 5.3.2 (Sum Check Protocol Definition). Let $n, d \in \mathbb{N}$, and $\mathbb{F}$ be a field with $|\mathbb{F}|>\max \{d, n\}+1$. Suppose $f: \mathbb{F}^{n} \times \mathbb{F} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$. Then the degree $d$ Sum Check Protocol on $f$ is the following randomized algorithm.

1. Get $2 n$ random field elements, $R=\left(r_{1}, \ldots, r_{n}\right.$ and $\left.r_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, r_{n}^{\prime}\right)$.
2. Reject if $f\left(\left(r_{1}, \ldots, r_{n}\right), 1\right) \neq 0$.
3. For $i$ from 1 to $n$ :
(a) For $j \in[d+1]$, query

$$
a_{i}^{j}=f\left(\left(r_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, r_{i-1}^{\prime}, j, r_{i+1}, \ldots r_{n}\right), i+1\right)
$$

Using these, let $g_{i}: \mathbb{F} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$ be the degree $d$ polynomial so that for all $j \in[d+1], g_{i}(j)=a_{i}^{j}$.
(b) If

$$
f\left(\left(r_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, r_{i-1}^{\prime}, r_{i}, \ldots r_{n}\right), i\right) \neq\left(1-r_{i}\right) g_{i}(0)+r_{i} g_{i}(1)
$$

reject.
(c) If

$$
f\left(\left(r_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, r_{i}^{\prime}, r_{i+1}, \ldots r_{n}\right), i+1\right) \neq g_{i}\left(r_{i}^{\prime}\right)
$$

reject.
4. If all checks pass, accept.

This should look familiar to anyone familiar with the sum check protocol. At a high level, this protocol expects a sequence of polynomials where $f_{i}(x)=$ $f(x, i)$ such that $f_{i}$ is just $f_{i+1}$ where the ith variable has been made degree 1 and $f_{n+1}$ is degree at most $d$ in each variable. Then sum check iteratively checks if each polynomial is consistent with their definition.

The correctness of this protocol is standard. Here, we only show that this protocol is extrapolatable.

Lemma 5.3.3 (Sum Check Queries Are Extrapolatable). For $n, d \in \mathbb{N}$, field $\mathbb{F}$ with $|\mathbb{F}|>\max \{d, n\}+1$, and $r=\left(r_{1}, \ldots, r_{n}, r_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots r_{n}^{\prime}\right) \in \mathbb{F}^{2 n}$, the degree $d$ sum check query locations, $Q_{r}$, used in Definition 5.3.2, are $O(n d \mathbf{p o l y l o g}(|\mathbb{F}|))$ extrapolatable.

Proof. Define the degree $d$ sum check query location function, $Q_{r}:[(d+3) n] \rightarrow$ $\mathbb{F}^{n} \times \mathbb{F}$, as, for any $l \in[d+3]$ and $i \in[n]:$

$$
Q_{r}((d+3)(i-1)+l)= \begin{cases}\left(\left(r_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, r_{i-1}^{\prime}, r_{i}, r_{i+1}, \ldots r_{n}\right), i\right) & l=1 \\ \left(\left(r_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, r_{i-1}^{\prime}, 1, r_{i+1}, \ldots r_{n}\right), i+1\right) & l=2 \\ \vdots & \\ \left(\left(r_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, r_{i-1}^{\prime}, d+1, r_{i+1}, \ldots r_{n}\right), i+1\right) & l=d+2 \\ \left(\left(r_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, r_{i-1}^{\prime}, r_{i}^{\prime}, r_{i+1}, \ldots r_{n}\right), i+1\right) & l=d+3\end{cases}
$$

These are the queries made to $f$ by the sum check protocol for randomness $r=\left(r_{1}, \ldots, r_{n}, r_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, r_{n}^{\prime}\right)$.

To show $Q_{r}$ is extrapolatable, take $v_{1}, \ldots, v_{(d+3) n}$. We need an algorithm running in time $O(n d$ polylog $(|\mathbb{F}|))$ computing

$$
u=\sum_{i \in[(d+3) n]} v_{i} Q_{r}(i)
$$

Note $u$ is an $n+1$ component vector.
For any give $j \in[n]$,

$$
u_{j}=\left(\sum_{i=1}^{(d+3)(j-1)+1} v_{i} r_{j}\right)+\left(\sum_{i=1}^{d+1} i v_{((d+3)(j-1)+1+i)}\right)+\left(\sum_{i=(d+3) j}^{(d+3) n} v_{i} r_{j}^{\prime}\right)
$$

We will handle $u_{n+1}$ at the end.
First, look at the first and last terms. For $j \in[n]$, let

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \alpha_{j}=\sum_{i=1}^{(d+3)(j-1)+1} v_{i} \\
& \beta_{j}=\sum_{i=(d+3) j}^{(d+3) n} v_{i}
\end{aligned}
$$

Then an iterative algorithm can calculate every $\alpha_{j}$ and $\beta_{j}$ in $O(n d \mathbf{p o l y} \log (|\mathbb{F}|))$ time. Given $\alpha_{j}$ and $\beta_{j}, u_{j}$ can be calculated in $O(d$ polylog $(|\mathbb{F}|))$ time. So all $u_{j}$ for $j \in[n]$ can be calculated in $O(n d$ poly $\log (|\mathbb{F}|))$ time.

Now $u_{n+1}$, as a single component, can just straightforwardly be evaluated in time $O(n d$ poly $\log (|\mathbb{F}|))$ from the definition. Thus $u$ can be calculated in $O($ ndpolylog $(|\mathbb{F}|))$ time.

For completeness, we prove the rest of Lemma 5.3.1 in Appendix C

### 5.4 Our Base PCP

The idea of the $\mathbf{P C P}$ is to ask the prover for the function that takes a time $t$ and a bit of memory $s$ and returns the value of cell $s$ at time $t$ in the cellular automata. Of course, we need this to be error corrected, so we ask for the multilinear extension of this function. We check if this is consistent with the input. Then, given this function, we can compute an arithmetization of whether cell $s$ at time $t$ has an improper transition. Finally, we run a sum check on this arithmetization to see if it is 0 on all Boolean inputs.

This PCP is actually an ePCP, which can be converted into an rPCP. Further, this PCP explicitly encodes its initial input, giving us a natural way to extend it into a dPCP. We will give the extension to a $\mathbf{d P C P}$ in the next section.

Lemma 5.4.1 (Base ePCP). Let $S, T=\Omega(n)$, and $L$ be any language computed by a simultaneous time $T$ and space $S$ algorithm.

There is some constant $\alpha>0$, so that for any field $\mathbb{F}$ with $|\mathbb{F}|>\alpha \log (T)^{2}$, we have an $\mathbf{~ P P C P ~ w i t h ~}$

1. Verifier time $O((\log (T)+n)$ polylog $(|\mathbb{F}|))$ and space $O(\log (T) \log (|\mathbb{F}|))$.
2. Randomness $O(\log (T) \log (|\mathbb{F}|))$.
3. Prover space $O(\log (T) \log (|\mathbb{F}|)+S)$.
4. $O(\log (T))$ queries.
5. Alphabet $\mathbb{F}$.
6. Extrapolation time $O(\log (T)$ polylog $(|\mathbb{F}|))$.
7. Degree $O(\log (T))$ and $O(\log (T))$ variables.
8. Perfect completeness.
9. Low degree soundness $O\left(\frac{\log (T)^{2}}{|\mathbb{F}|}\right)$.
10. Log of proof length $O(\log (T) \log (|\mathbb{F}|))$.

Proof. Take such a language $L$ computed by RAM algorithm $A$ running in time $T$ and space $S$. By Lemma 5.2.1, $A$ has a simulation by a cellular automata $B$ with time $T^{\prime}$ polynomial in $T$ and space $S^{\prime}$ linear in $S$.

Let $K=2^{k}$ be a constant power of two such that the states in $B$ are encoded in $\{0,1\}^{K}$. Let $s$ and $t$ be constants so that $S^{\prime} \leq 2^{s}$ and $T^{\prime} \leq 2^{t}$. There is also a RAM algorithm $C$ that can compute the bits of the computation history of $B$ in time $O(T)$ and space $O(S)$.

Let $x$ be our input, and $y$ be that input encoded for $B$. Now we will describe an honest prover for $x \in L$.

If $x \in L$, then let $X^{\prime}:\{0,1\}^{s} \times\{0,1\}^{k} \times\{0,1\}^{t} \rightarrow\{0,1\}$ be the function that outputs the computation history of $B$ with the starting input being $y$. Then by Lemma 5.1.2 the multilinear extension of $X^{\prime}, X$, can be computed in space $O(\log (T) \log (|\mathbb{F}|)+S)$.

Then by Lemma 5.2.3, using $X$, we can compute $Y=\Gamma_{B}(X)$ that is constant degree in each variable, uses constantly many queries to $X$, and $Y$ is 0 on all binary inputs (as well as the other properties listed in Lemma 5.2.3, which we later use to prove soundness). Let $m=3 s+2 t+4 K$. Then $Y$ is a function $\mathbb{F}^{m} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$. Abusing notation slightly, let $X: \mathbb{F}^{m} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$ be $X$ applied to the first $s+k+t$ variables.

Then by the completeness case of Lemma 5.3.1 in space $O(\log (T) \log (|\mathbb{F}|)+$ $S)$, the prover can compute the proof, $f$, for the sum check for $Y$. Let $f_{i}(x)=$ $f(x, i)$.

For all $j \in[m+2]$, let $l_{j}^{m+2}: \mathbb{F} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$ be the unique $m+1$ degree polynomial that is 1 at $j$, and 0 for all other $i \in[m+2]$. Then the proof for our PCP is supposed to be $\pi: \mathbb{F}^{m} \times \mathbb{F} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$ where

$$
\pi(z, i)=\left(\sum_{j \in[m+1]} l_{j}^{m+2}(i) f_{j}(z)\right)+l_{m+2}^{m+2}(i) X(z)
$$

See that restricting $i \in[m+1]$ gives $f_{i}$, and for $i=m+2$ gives $X$.
Then we already showed how to compute $X$ and $f$ in space $O(\log (T) \log (|\mathbb{F}|)+$ $S$ ). Then we only need additional space to store a pointer to $j$ (which requires
only $O(\log (T))$ space $)$, and to compute the interpolating polynomial $l_{j}^{m}$. Recall that

$$
l_{j}^{m+2}(i)=\prod_{h \in[m+2] \backslash\{j\}} \frac{i-h}{j-h} .
$$

Which can be straightforwardly computed with a constant number of field elements. So any symbol in $\pi$ is computable in space $O(\log (T) \log (|\mathbb{F}|)+S)$.

Finally, $\pi$ has constant degree in each of the first $m$ variables, since $X$ and each of the $f_{i}$ do. And $\pi$ has degree $O(m)$ in the last variable since each $l_{j}^{m+2}$ has degree $O(m)$. This gives $\pi$ a final degree of $d=O(m)$.

Now we describe the verifier. For a provided proof, $\pi$, we will infer the provided $X$, and $f$ in the obvious way. The verifier runs a few checks for input $x$.

1. Sum check of $f$.

Follow the verifier in the sum check protocol in Lemma 5.3.1. Just make sure the $\mathbb{F}$ is large enough so the soundness is less than $\delta / 4$, which is true for large enough $\alpha$.
2. Consistency of $X$ with $f_{m+1}$.

Let $W$ be the set of $w$ so that the sum check queries $f\left(w, m^{\prime}+1\right)$. Sum check will only query constantly many of such $w$, since the degree of $Y$ is constant. So $W$ has constant size.
Then for $w \in W$, use Lemma 5.2 .3 to calculate $Y(w)=\Gamma_{B}(X)(w)$. Then check if $f\left(w, m^{\prime}+1\right)=Y(w)$.
3. Consistency of $X$ with $y$.

For input $x$, it has transformed input $y=\left(y^{1}, y_{x}^{2}, y^{3}\right)$ as described in Lemma 5.2.1. Let $n^{\prime}=O(n+\log (S))$ be so that $n^{\prime} \geq\left(\left|y^{1}\right|+\left|y_{x}^{2}\right|\right) K$, and $n^{\prime}$ is a power of 2: $n^{\prime}=2^{N}$.
Choose a random element, $v \in \mathbb{F}^{N}$, and compute

$$
u(y, v)=\sum_{z \in\{0,1\}^{N}} \operatorname{equ}(z, v) y_{z} .
$$

where we interpret $z$ as a binary number and get the $z$ th bit of $y$.
This is basically the multilinear extension of our first input. This should be equal to some entry in $X$ at time 0 , with 0 for most space coordinates, besides the first $N$ being $v: v^{\prime}$.
Reject if $X\left(v^{\prime}\right) \neq u(y, v)$.
Now let us show this has the desired properties.

1. Verifier time $O((\log (T)+n)$ poly $\log (|\mathbb{F}|))$ and space $O(\log (T) \log (|\mathbb{F}|))$.

The sum check protocol runs in time $O(\log (T)$ polylog $(|\mathbb{F}|))$ and uses space $O(\log (T) \log (|\mathbb{F}|))$.
Checking consistency of $X$ with $f_{m+1}$ is only constantly many calculations of $Y$, which only takes time $O(m$ polylog $(|\mathbb{F}|))=O(\log (T)$ polylog $(|\mathbb{F}|))$.
When checking the consistency of $X$ with input, we need to calculate $u(y, v)$. This can be done efficiently with a stack of partial calculations of equ and enumerating through $z$ in standard order. In expectation, each value of $z$ only requires a constant number of field operations, and there are only $O(n+\log (S))$ values for $z$. So it only takes time $O((n+$ $\log (T))$ poly $\log (|\mathbb{F}|))$. Further, the stack of partial calculations only needs to hold $N=O(\log (n+\log (S)))=O(\log (T))$ field elements, which only takes $O(\log (T) \log (|\mathbb{F}|))$ space.
2. Randomness $O(\log (T) \log (|\mathbb{F}|))$.

The verifier needs to use $O(\log (T) \log (|\mathbb{F}|))$ bits to run the sum check, and to choose $v$.
3. Prover space $O(\log (T) \log (|\mathbb{F}|)+S)$.

We already went over the prover space when describing the prover.
4. $O(\log (T))$ queries.

The sum check only takes $O(\log (T))$ queries, and there are only constantly many other queries.
5. Alphabet $\mathbb{F}$.

From how we defined our $\mathbf{e P C P}$.
6. Extrapolation time $O(\log (T)$ polylog $(|\mathbb{F}|))$.

From Lemma 5.3.1 the sum check is time $O(\log (T)$ polylog $(|\mathbb{F}|))$ extrapolatable. There are only constantly many other queries, so all the other queries are trivially time $O(\log (T)$ polylog $(|\mathbb{F}|))$ extrapolatable.
Since the query locations are just constantly many extrapolatable query locations, by Lemma 4.1.1, all together they are time $O(\log (T)$ polylog $(|\mathbb{F}|))$ extrapolatable.
7. Degree $O(\log (T))$ and $O(\log (T))$ variables.

We already showed when describing an honest prover that we have degree $O(m)$ which is $O(\log (T))$ and by definition of the proof, it has $O(\log (T))$ variables.
8. Perfect completeness.

Follows for $x \in L$ with an honest prover. Since $x \in L$, the prover provides the $X$ that is the multilinear extension of the computation history from the proper $y$, so consistency with input passes. Similarly, $f$ is honestly
given to be consistent with $Y$. So the consistency between $X, Y$, and $f$ passes. Finally, since $X$ is a valid computation history, $Y$ is 0 on all Boolean inputs, so the sum check succeeds.
9. Low degree soundness $\frac{O\left(\log (T)^{2}\right)}{|\mathbb{F}|}$.

Suppose $x \notin L$ and we are given a degree $d=O(\log (T))$ proof, $\pi$. Then $X$ is a degree $d$ function.
Now let $\hat{X}=\operatorname{MLB}(X)$, and $X^{\prime}$ be $\hat{X}$ restricted to binary inputs. Since $x \notin L$, either $X^{\prime}$ is an invalid computation history, or it does not start with state $y$.
If $X^{\prime}$ does not start with state $\left(y^{1}, y_{x}^{2}, z\right)$ for some $z, \hat{X}$ restricted to time 0 and 0 for everything but the first $N$ spaces is not the multilinear extension of the state $y\left(\left[n^{\prime}\right]\right)$. Thus neither is $X$. Then the probability that $v$ is chosen so that $X$ agrees with $u(y, v)$ is at most $\frac{d}{|\mathbb{F}|}$. So the $\mathbf{e P C P}$ accepts with probability only $\frac{d}{|\mathbb{F}|}$.
If $X^{\prime}$ does start with state $\left(y^{1}, y_{x}^{2}, z\right)$, and $z \neq y^{3}$, then $X^{\prime}$ must be an invalid computation history, since $y^{1}$ is correct, by Lemma 5.2.1. Similarly, if $z=y^{3}$, the computation history must be invalid since $x \notin L$. So then all we have left is the case that $X^{\prime}$ is not a valid computation history.
Suppose $X^{\prime}$ is an invalid computation history. Then $\Gamma_{B}(\hat{X})$ must not be 0 on all Boolean inputs. Then from Lemma 5.2 .3 , by contrapositive, $\Gamma_{B}(X)$ must not be 0 on all binary inputs.
Then by the soundness in Lemma 5.3.1, the sum check for $\Gamma_{B}(X)$ passes with probability at most

$$
\frac{(d+1) m}{|\mathbb{F}|}=O\left(\frac{\log (T)^{2}}{|\mathbb{F}|}\right)
$$

So with probability at most $O\left(\frac{\log (T)^{2}}{|\mathbb{F}|}\right)$ do we accept.
10. Log of proof length $O(\log (T) \log (|\mathbb{F}|))$.

This comes from the fact that the proof is a function with domain $\mathbb{F}^{m+1}$, and

$$
\log \left(\left|\mathbb{F}^{m}\right|\right)=(m+1) \log (|\mathbb{F}|)=O(\log (T) \log (|\mathbb{F}|))
$$

## 6 Decodable PCP and Composition

Our PCP uses the standard technique of PCP composition AS98; BS+04, DR04, MR08, DH09 to reduce the number of queries. Here we overview the basics of PCP composition using robust and decodable PCPs MR08; DH09, construct our decodable $\mathbf{P C P}$, and prove Theorem 1.1.2.

A decodable $\mathbf{P C P}(\mathbf{d P C P})$ is a $\mathbf{P C P}$ that not only verifies that a solution to a problem exists, but also with high probability decodes a symbol from a single ${ }^{6}$ solution.

Together, an rPCP and a dPCP give a composition theorem. The robust "outer" PCP chooses queries to a large proof. For this set of queries, we ask a decodable "inner" PCP to prove the outer PCP on this set of queries would accept. Then we ask the inner, decodable PCP for a symbol that would have been queried by the robust, outer PCP. Since the outer PCP is robust (see Definition 4.2.2), if $x \notin L$, then for many of the choices of queries, the outer proof disagrees with any accepted queries at many places. Thus the outer proof must often disagree with the symbol decoded by the inner $\mathbf{P C P}$, since the inner PCP decodes a symbol from a solution.

### 6.1 Decodable PCPs

A decodable PCP (dPCP) verifies pairs of inputs together: an explicit input, and an implicit input.

- The explicit input is known to the verifier and contains the input $x$ the $\mathbf{P C P}$ is trying to verify.
- The implicit input is not known by the verifier, it is only known by the prover. You should think of this as a proof for $x$, just one too large to read. In our application, it will be polynomially larger than $x$, so our verifier wouldn't even have time to read it all.

Then the $\mathbf{d P C P}$, in addition to verifying that this input as a pair are in a language, needs to decode a symbol from the implicit input with high probability.

Our definition of $\mathbf{d P C P}$ is very similar to our definition of $\mathbf{P C P}$ (see Definition 2.0.7, except that

1. The implicit input has some specific, potentially non binary alphabet, $\Sigma^{\prime}$, in addition to the alphabet of the $\mathbf{d P C P}$ proof, $\Sigma$.
2. We renamed the verifier $V$ to a decoder $D$. This is because when $D$ accepts it now outputs a symbol from $\Sigma^{\prime}$, which it claims is a decoded symbol from the implicit input. If it rejects, it outputs $\perp$.
3. We rename the prover $P$ to encoder $E$. This is because now the encoder not only has an explicit input it must prove, but an implicit input that $D$ needs to decode.
In our application, our encoder $E$ also cannot use enough space to hold the entire implicit input. Instead, it will have to recalculate each symbol of the implicit input every time it needs one.

Now we define a decodable PCP

[^5]Definition 6.1.1 (Decodable PCP). Let $L^{\prime}$ be a language containing pairs, where if the first input is length $n$, the second input is $m(n)$ symbols from alphabet $\Sigma^{\prime}$. We say $L^{\prime}$ has a decodable $\mathbf{P C P}$ ( $\mathbf{d P C P}$ ), B, if for some decoder $D$, encoder $E$, index function $I$, and query function $Q$, alphabet $\Sigma$, constant $\delta \geq 0$, and functions $q, r, l: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ :

1. $I^{\prime}$ takes 3 inputs, an input of length $n$, randomness $r(n)$, and an index in $[m(n)]$ and outputs an element of $[l(n)]^{q(n)}$. That is, I outputs $q(n)$ indexes in a length $l(n)$ string,
2. $Q$ is an algorithm with 4 inputs, an input $x$ of length $n$, randomness $r$ of length $r(n)$, an index $j \in[m(n)]$, and an index $i \in[q(n)]$, and outputs an element of $[l(n)]$ such that $Q(x, r, j, i)=I(x, r, j)_{i}$.
3. $D$ is an algorithm that takes 4 inputs: an input of length $n$, randomness of length $r(n), q(n)$ symbols from $\Sigma$, and an index in $[m(n)]$. The algorithm $D$ outputs either an element of $\Sigma^{\prime}$ or $\perp$.
4. $E$ is an algorithm that takes three inputs, an input of length $n$, some $m(n)$ symbols from $\Sigma^{\prime}$, and an index $i \in[l(n)]$, and outputs a symbol from $\Sigma$.

Completeness: For any $x$ of length $n$ and for any $y \in \Sigma^{\prime m(n)}$ such that $(x, y) \in$ $L^{\prime}$, there exists a proof $\pi^{x, y}$ such that

$$
\operatorname{Pr}_{r, i}\left[D\left(x, r, \pi_{I(x, r, i)}^{x, y}, i\right)=y_{i}\right]=1 .
$$

Further for every $i \in[l(|x|)]$, we have $E(x, y, i)=\pi_{i}^{x, y}$.
Soundness: For any $x$ and any $\pi$, if

$$
\operatorname{Pr}_{r, i}\left[D\left(x, r, \pi_{I(x, r, i)}, i\right) \neq \perp\right]>\delta
$$

then there is exists $y$ such that $(x, y) \in L^{\prime}$ and

$$
\operatorname{Pr}_{r, i}\left[D\left(x, r, \pi_{I(x, r, i)}, i\right) \notin\left\{y_{i}, \perp\right\}\right] \leq \delta
$$

Then we also say:

1. $B$ has proof length $l^{\prime}(n)$.
2. $B$ has alphabet $\Sigma$.
3. $B$ has soundness $\delta$.
4. $B$ uses $q(n)$ queries.
5. $B$ uses $r(n)$ bits of randomness.
6. If $D$ runs in time $t(n), B$ has decoder time $t(n)$.
7. If $E$ runs in space $s^{\prime}(n), B$ has encoder space $s^{\prime}(n)$.
8. If $Q$ is computable in time $t^{\prime}(n), B$ has query time $t^{\prime}(n)$.

Composing a robust and a decodable $\mathbf{P C P}$ gives a $\mathbf{P C P}$ with the number of queries of the decodable PCP, plus one to compare the outer PCP proof to the symbol decoded by the inner PCP. In our application, this allows us to reduce a PCP that uses $O(n)$ queries to one that uses $O \log (n))$. The proof is straightforward and included for completeness in Appendix A

Theorem 6.1.2 (PCP Composition). Suppose $L$ is a language with an $\mathbf{r P C P}$, $A$, with verifier $V$, prover $P$, query function $Q$, and index function $I$ such that

1. $Q$ runs in time $t(n)$.
2. $P$ run in space $s(n)$.
3. $V$ uses $r(n)$ bits of randomness.
4. A uses alphabet $\Sigma$.
5. A has robust soundness $\delta$.
6. A has perfect completeness.
7. A has proof length $l(n)$.

Suppose $L^{\prime}=\{((x, r), y): V(x, r, y)=1\}$. Let $n^{\prime}=n+r(n)$. Suppose $L^{\prime}$ has a dPCP protocol, $B$, with decoder $D$ and encoder $E$ such that

1. E runs in space $s^{\prime}\left(n^{\prime}\right)$.
2. D runs in time $t^{\prime}\left(n^{\prime}\right)$.
3. $B$ uses $q^{\prime}\left(n^{\prime}\right) q u e r i e s$.
4. $B$ has query time $t^{*}\left(n^{\prime}\right)$.
5. B uses alphabet $\Sigma^{\prime}$.
6. B has soundness $\delta^{\prime}$.
7. B has perfect completeness.
8. $B$ has proof length $l^{\prime}\left(n^{\prime}\right)$.

Then there is a PCP protocol for $L$, $C$, such that

1. $C$ has verifier time $O\left(t^{\prime}\left(n^{\prime}\right)\right)$
2. $C$ uses $O\left(q^{\prime}\left(n^{\prime}\right)\right)$ queries.
3. $C$ has prover space $O\left(s(n)+t(n)+s^{\prime}\left(n^{\prime}\right)\right)$.
4. $C$ uses alphabet $\Sigma^{\prime} \cup \Sigma$.
5. $C$ has query time $O\left(t(n)+t^{*}\left(n^{\prime}\right)\right)$.
6. $C$ has soundness $\delta+\delta^{\prime}$.
7. $C$ has perfect completeness.
8. $C$ has proof length $l(n)+2^{r(n)} l^{\prime}\left(n^{\prime}\right)$.

### 6.2 More Low Degree Gadgets

Since our dPCP doesn't use the reduction from $\mathbf{e P C P}$ to $\mathbf{r P C P}$, it needs to do low degree testing itself. Here, we mostly use local decoding properties of low degree polynomials.

We show there is an implicit way to run the line versus point test (see Definition 4.3.1) for a function $f: \mathbb{F}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$ using queries to just $f$. We do this by inferring $g_{l}$ from $f(l(1)), \ldots f(l(d+1))$. This may not be the optimal $g_{l}$, but it still gives an upper bound for the probability of $\operatorname{LvP}_{d}(f)$.
Lemma 6.2.1 (Implicit Line Versus Point Test). For a field $\mathbb{F}$, degree $d$, the implicit line versus point test has an index function $I$, a query function $Q$, and a verifier $V$ such that for function $f: \mathbb{F}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$, points $x, y \in \mathbb{F}^{m}$, and $t \in \mathbb{F}$ :

1. I gives locations along a line

$$
I(x, y, t)=(x+1 \cdot y, \ldots, x+(d+1) \cdot y, x+t \cdot y)
$$

2. $Q$ outputs elements from $I$ :

$$
Q(x, y, t, i)=I(x, y, t)_{i}
$$

3. $V$, given $t$, and $v \in \mathbb{F}^{d+2}$ as input, finds the degree d polynomial, $g: \mathbb{F} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$, such that for $i \in[d+1]$, we have. $g(i)=v_{i}$. Then $V$ accepts if $g(t)=v_{d+2}$.
4. Then the implicit line versus point test is whether

$$
V(t, f(I(x, y, t)))=1
$$

Then we also have:

1. $V$ runs in time $O(d \mathbf{p o l y l o g}(|\mathbb{F}|))$ and $Q$ runs in time $O(\mathbf{p o l y l o g}(|\mathbb{F}|))$.
2. If $x, y$, and $t$ are chosen uniformly at random, then

$$
\underset{x, y, t}{\operatorname{Pr}}[V(t, f(I(x, y, t)))=0] \geq \operatorname{Pr}\left[L v P_{d}(f)\right] .
$$

3. If $f$ has degree d, then

$$
\operatorname{Pr}_{x, y, t}[V(t, f(I(x, y, t)))=1]=1
$$

Proof. Now we prove the second half.

1. To get the verifier running time, we can use Lagrange interpolation. See Lemma 4.1.4 to see how to do Lagrange Interpolation. Function $Q$ is just a multiplication and an addition.
2. To get the probability of acceptance, first note for each $i \in[d+1]$,

$$
Q(x, y, t, i)=x+i \cdot y
$$

and

$$
Q(y, x, t, d+2)=x+t \cdot y
$$

If $x, y$ is chosen uniformly random, then $g$ is just a degree $d$ polynomial for the line $l(s)=x+s \cdot y$. Then $f(x+t \cdot y)=f(Q(x, y, t, d+2))$, and

$$
\operatorname{Pr}[g(t)=f(x+t \cdot y)]
$$

is at most the probability the probability the optimal $g$ does, which is the $g$ the line versus point test uses. Thus for $x, y$, and $t$ uniformly at random

$$
\operatorname{Pr}_{x, y, t}[V(t, f(I(x, y, t)))=0] \geq \operatorname{Pr}\left[\operatorname{LvP}_{d}(f)\right]
$$

3. Finally, if $f$ has degree $d$, then composing the line $l(s)=x+s \cdot y$ with $f$ has degree $d$. So $g$ agrees with that polynomial at $d$ points, so is equal to it. Then $g$ at $t$ is equal to it too.

We will use the implicit line versus point test several times to get high confidence that $f$ is actually very close to low degree.

Lemma 6.2.2 (Low degree test). There is some constant $c$, so that for any integers $d$ and $n$, field $\mathbb{F}$ with $|\mathbb{F}| \geq c d$, and constant $\epsilon \in\left(0, \frac{1}{5}\right)$, there is some protocol, A, so that:

1. For some $m=O(d)$ and $r=O(n)$, there is a verifier $V: \mathbb{F}^{m} \rightarrow\{0,1\}$ and query function $Q: \mathbb{F}^{r} \times[m] \rightarrow \mathbb{F}^{n}$ so that for any $f: \mathbb{F}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$,

$$
A(f, r)=V(f(Q(r, 1)), f(Q(r, 2)), \ldots, f(Q(r, m)))
$$

2. $V$ runs in time $O(d \mathbf{p o l y l o g}(|\mathbb{F}|))$ and $Q$ runs in time $O(\mathbf{p o l y l o g}(|\mathbb{F}|))$.

Completeness If $f: \mathbb{F}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$ is a degree d polynomial, then

$$
\operatorname{Pr}_{r}[A(f, r)=1]=1 .
$$

Soundness If for $f: \mathbb{F}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$,

$$
\operatorname{Pr}_{r}[A(f, r)=1] \geq \epsilon,
$$

then there exists some polynomial, $h$, of degree at most $d$ so that

$$
\Delta(f, h) \leq \epsilon
$$

Proof. Let $B(f)$ be the random variable of the output of the implicit line versus point test on a random input. Let $k=\frac{2 \ln (1 / \epsilon)}{\epsilon}$. Let $A$ be the protocol that runs the implicit line versus point test (Lemma 6.2.1) $k$ independent times with uniformly random $x, y, t$ and outputs if they all pass.

Then $V$ runs in $k$ times the time of the implicit line versus point test. Since $k$ is constant, this is time $O(d \mathbf{p o l y l o g}(|\mathbb{F}|)) . Q$ is just a query from the implicit line versus point test, which only takes time $O($ polylog $(|\mathbb{F}|))$.

If $f$ is a degree $d$ polynomial, then $B$ always succeeds, and so does $A$.
If $\operatorname{Pr}\left[\operatorname{LvP}_{d}(f)\right] \leq \operatorname{Pr}[B(f)=0]=\delta$, then the probability of $A$ passing is

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Pr}[A(f)=1] & =\operatorname{Pr}[B(f)=1]^{k} \\
& =(1-\delta)^{k} \\
& =(1-\delta)^{\frac{2 \ln (1 / \epsilon)}{\epsilon}} \\
& \leq e^{-\delta \frac{2 \ln (1 / \epsilon)}{\epsilon}}
\end{aligned}
$$

If $\epsilon \leq \operatorname{Pr}[A(f)=1]$, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\epsilon & \leq e^{-\delta \frac{2 \ln (1 / \epsilon)}{\epsilon}} \\
\ln (\epsilon) & \leq-\delta \frac{2 \ln (1 / \epsilon)}{\epsilon} \\
\delta \frac{2 \ln (1 / \epsilon)}{\epsilon} & \leq \ln (1 / \epsilon) \\
\delta & \leq \frac{\epsilon}{2} \\
\operatorname{Pr}\left[\operatorname{LvP}_{d}(f)\right] & \leq \frac{\epsilon}{2} \leq 1 / 10 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Then by Lemma 4.3 .2 there exists some $d$ degree polynomial $h$ so that

$$
\Delta(f, h) \leq \epsilon
$$

We also need to do some error corrected queries to the low degree function $f$ is near. Essentially, we do a bunch of line versus point tests for lines going through our point, and only output the value of $f$ at that point if each of these line versus point tests succeed and agree with the value at that point.

Lemma 6.2.3 (Self Correction Of Approximate Low Degree Polynomials). For any $\epsilon>0$, integers $d$ and $n$, field $\mathbb{F}$ with $|\mathbb{F}|>4 d$, there is a protocol $A$ such that for any function $f: \mathbb{F}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$, and for any $x \in \mathbb{F}^{n}$, :

1. For some $m=O(d)$ and $r(n)=O(n)$, there is a verifier $V: \mathbb{F}^{m} \rightarrow \mathbb{F} \cup\{\perp\}$ and query function $Q: \mathbb{F}^{r(n)} \times[m] \rightarrow \mathbb{F}^{n}$ so that

$$
A(f, r)=V(f(Q(r, 1)), f(Q(r, 2)), \ldots, f(Q(r, m)))
$$

Here, $\perp$ is some symbol outside of $\mathbb{F}$ indicating $V$ rejects.
2. $V$ runs in time $O(d \mathbf{p o l y l o g}(|\mathbb{F}|))$ and $Q$ runs in time $O(\mathbf{p o l y l o g}(|\mathbb{F}|))$.

Completeness If $f$ is a degree d polynomial, for all $r \in \mathbb{F}^{r(n)}, A(f, r)$ always outputs $f(x)$.

Soundness If for some degree d polynomial $h, \Delta(f, h)<1 / 2$, with probability at least $1-\epsilon$ over $r \in \mathbb{F}^{R}, A(f, r)$ either rejects or outputs $h(x)$. We call $\epsilon$ the soundness.

Proof. Define algorithm $B$ to be the conjunction (AND) of two calls of the the implicit line versus point test where $y$ is uniformly random, $x$ comes from the input, and once $t=0$, and once $t$ is a uniformly random element of $\mathbb{F} \backslash\{0\}$.

Explicitly, $B$ first chooses a random $y \in \mathbb{F}^{m}$ and $t \in \mathbb{F} \backslash\{0\}$. Let $g_{x, y}: \mathbb{F} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$ be the degree $d$ function so that for $i \in[d+1], g_{x, y}(i)=f(x+i \cdot y)$. Then $B$ accepts if $g_{x, y}(0)=f(x)$ and $g_{x, y}(t)=f(x+t \cdot y)$.

Algorithm $A$ runs $B$ for $k=4 \ln (1 / \epsilon)$ times, and if they all accept, it outputs $f(x)$. The query time for $A$ is just the time for an implicit line versus point test query. So $Q$ runs in time $O(\mathbf{p o l y l o g}(|\mathbb{F}|))$. And $V$ just runs $O(k)$ instances of the implicit line versus test verification, which takes time $O(d \mathbf{p o l y l o g}(|\mathbb{F}|))$.

If $f$ is degree $d$, then the implicit line versus point test always accepts, and we always output $f(x)$.

Now suppose for some degree $d$ polynomial $h, \Delta(f, h)<1 / 2$. Then $B$ can only output the wrong value if $f(x) \neq h(x)$, so suppose $f(x) \neq h(x)$. Then $B$ only accepts erroneously if $g_{x, y}(0)=f(x)$, and $g_{x, y}(t)=f(x+t \cdot y)$.

Define the degree $d$ polynomial $h_{x, y}(t)=h(x+t \cdot y)$. Suppose for some $y$ $g_{x, y}(0)=f(x)$. Then $g_{x, y} \neq h_{x, y}$, since $h_{x, y}(0)=h(x) \neq f(x)$. Since $g_{x, y}$ is a different degree $d$ polynomial than $h_{x, y}$, they agree on at most $d$ places. Then if $t$ is both one of the places where $f$ agrees with $h$, but $h$ disagrees with $g$, we reject.

Observe, $x+t \cdot y$ is uniformly distributed over $\mathbb{F}^{m}$. Then let $C$ be the event
that $g_{x, y}(0)=f(x)$. Then by a union bound:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Pr}[B=1] & \leq \operatorname{Pr}_{y, t}\left[C \wedge g_{x, y}(t)=f(x+t \cdot y)\right] \\
& \leq \operatorname{Pr}_{y, t}\left[C \wedge\left(h(x+t \cdot y) \neq f(x+t \cdot y) \vee h(x+t \cdot y)=g_{x, y}(t)\right)\right] \\
& \leq \operatorname{Pr}_{y, t}[h(x+t \cdot y) \neq f(x+t \cdot y)]+{\underset{y y}{y, t}}_{\operatorname{Pr}}\left[C \wedge h(x+t \cdot y)=g_{x, y}(t)\right] \\
& \leq 1 / 2+d /|\mathbb{F}| \\
& \leq 3 / 4 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus if $B$ samples $g_{x, y}(i)$ at any of these at least $1 / 4$ of the locations that it disagrees with $f, B$ rejects.

Each one of the $k$ samples is independent and uniform. So the probability that $A$ erroneously outputs $f(x)$ is at most $(3 / 4)^{k} \leq \epsilon$. Thus with probability $1-\epsilon, A$ outputs $h(x)$, or rejects.

### 6.3 Decoding With Our PCP

Now we show how to convert our base ePCP (from Lemma 5.4.1) into a dPCP. This requires the following changes:

1. We need to do a low degree test.
2. Queries to the multilinear extension of the input now need to be error corrected.
3. We can't verify the implicit input is at time 0 in the provided proof. We can only verify the explicit input is at time 0 .
4. We need to perform an extra error corrected query into the implicit input to get a bit from it. While we technically need to do $O(\log (|\Sigma|))$ queries to get a single symbol, we only need to do one error corrected query to check it. To check it, we use a similar technique that we use for the explicit input, except only on a single symbol.

Then we get the following $\mathbf{d P C P}$ :
Lemma 6.3.1 (Making our base PCP into a dPCP). Let $S, T=\Omega(n)$, and $L$ be a language of pairs where if the first element has $n$ binary symbols, the second element has $m(n)=$ poly $(n)$ symbols in some alphabet $\Sigma$ with $\log (\log (|\Sigma|))=O(\log (T))$. Suppose $L$ is computed by a simultaneous time $T$ and space $S$ algorithm.

Then for any constant $\delta>0$, there is some constant $\alpha>0$, so that for any field $\mathbb{F}$ with $|\mathbb{F}|>\alpha \log (T)^{2}$, we have a $\mathbf{d P C P}$ with

1. Decoder time $O((\log (T)+n+\log (|\Sigma|))$ polylog$(|\mathbb{F}|))$ and decoder space $O((\log (T)+\log (|\Sigma|)) \log (|\mathbb{F}|))$.
2. Randomness $O((\log (T)+\log (\log (|\Sigma|))) \log (|\mathbb{F}|))$.
3. Encoder space $O(\log (T) \log (|\mathbb{F}|)+S)$.
4. $O(\log (T)+\log (|\Sigma|))$ queries.
5. Alphabet $\mathbb{F}$.
6. Query time $O(\log (T)$ polylog $(|\mathbb{F}|))$.
7. Soundness $\delta$.
8. Perfect completeness.
9. Log of proof length $O(\log (T) \log (|\mathbb{F}|))$.

Proof. Let $A$ be the time $T$ space $S$ algorithm for $L$. Assume $|\Sigma|=2^{K}$ where $K=2^{k}$ for some constant $k$.

The idea is to use the same PCP as Lemma 5.4.1, but adapted to take a pair of inputs. Recall that our base PCP checks for a valid computation history of a cellular automata that computes our function. Then we verify that the starting state of that cellular automata is consistent with our input. We do the same thing, except now we need to have the cellular automata also hold the second input, and since we can't know the second input, we can't check it directly.

Recall the cellular automata (from Lemma 5.2.1) just simulates an algorithm that runs in $O(S)$ space. Then we modify our algorithm to add padding on the explicit input. Specifically, we choose some $n^{\prime}=2^{N} \geq K$ space to store our first input and the registers. Since $k=\log (\log (|\Sigma|))=O(\log (T))$, we still have $n^{\prime}=O(n+\log (T))$. Then the second input will be stored outside that reserve region, followed by the working space.

So for input $x=\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)$ of length $n+m(n)$, we will actually use an algorithm, $A^{\prime}$, that works on a padded version of this input: $x^{\prime}=\left(x_{1}^{\prime}, x_{2}^{\prime}\right)$. Our $x_{1}^{\prime}$ is $x_{1}$ padded so that $\left|y^{1}\right|+\left|x_{1}^{\prime}\right|=n^{\prime}$. Note that while $y^{1}$ is dependent on the length of $x_{1}^{\prime}$, it is of logarithmic size in $x_{1}^{\prime}$ and efficiently computable, so can easily be factored into the padding. Then $x_{2}^{\prime}$ can just be $x_{2}$. Then we use Lemma 5.2.1 to convert $A^{\prime}$ into cellular automata $B$.

Let $L^{\prime}$ be the language accepted by $B$. That is, the set of inputs so that $B$ eventually reaches a steady state. Let $\sigma=\{0,1\}^{K^{\prime}}$ be the alphabet of $B$ where $K^{\prime}=2^{k^{\prime}}$ 。

Our prover for this algorithm is the same as our base PCP. We use the same notions of $X, Y, f$, and $\pi$ from Lemma 5.4.1. Function $X$ should be the multilinear extension of the computation history of $B$. Function $Y$ should be the low degree polynomial arithmetization of an inconsistency formula for $X$. Function $f$ should be the sum check polynomial for $Y$, and $\pi$ is a low degree polynomial containing $X$, and $f$. Let $d=O(\log (S)+\log (T))$ be the degree of the correct $X$.

For the verifier, we need to be able to find the index of a specific symbol in the implicit input. We note each symbol in the second input after encoding into the alphabet for $B$ will be stored in a power of 2 bits: $K \cdot K^{\prime}=2^{k+k^{\prime}}$. Since $n^{\prime}>K$ and both are powers of two, for some $a$, we have $n^{\prime}=a K$. Then the $i$ th
symbol of the implicit input is uniquely determined by the area in memory from $n^{\prime} K^{\prime}+i K K^{\prime}=(a+i) K K^{\prime}$ to $(a+i+1) K K^{\prime}-1$. This allows the prover to query a claimed multilinear extension of a single symbol from the second input using one application of Lemma 6.2.3 in the same way we do for the entire first input.

So our verifer on input $x_{1}$, with padded version $x_{1}^{\prime}$, does:

1. A low degree test on $X$ using Lemma 6.2 .2 so that we accept with probability at most $\delta$ if $X$ has distance $\frac{1}{4}$ from every degree $d$ function. Output $\perp$ if the low degree test fails.
2. Sum check of $f$, same as Lemma 5.4.1. Output $\perp$ if it would reject in our base PCP.
3. Consistency of $X$ with $f_{m+1}$, same as Lemma 5.4.1, except we replace every query to $X$ with an error corrected query using Lemma 6.2.3. That is, for every $w$ so that the sum check step above makes a query to $f_{m+1}(w)$, calculate $Y(w)$ (from Lemma 5.2.3 using Lemma 6.2.3 for every call to $X$.
Specifically, do the self corrected queries so that with probability at most $\frac{\delta}{2}$ will any error corrected query fail to return the degree $d$ function closest to the provided $X$. This can be done since $\delta, w$, and the number of calls to $X$ used to calculate $Y$ are constant. So the number of calls to Lemma 6.2.3 are constant.
Output $\perp$ if any calls to Lemma 6.2 .3 fails, or if any calculated $Y(w)$ disagrees with $f_{m+1}(w)$.
4. Consistency of $X$ with $y$.

For input $x^{\prime}$, it has transformed input $y=\left(y^{1}, y_{x^{\prime}}^{2}, y^{3}\right)$ as described in Lemma 5.2.1. In particular, we can separate $y_{x^{\prime}}^{2}$ into $y_{1}^{2}$ as the transformed version of $x_{1}^{\prime}$, and $y_{2}^{2}$ as the transformed version of $x_{2}^{\prime}$.
We already chose $n^{\prime}$, or rather $x^{\prime}$, so that $n^{\prime}=\left|y^{1}\right|+\left|y_{1}^{2}\right|=2^{N}$.
Choose a random element, $v \in \mathbb{F}^{N+k^{\prime}}$, and compute

$$
u(y, v)=\sum_{z \in\{0,1\}^{N+k^{\prime}}} \operatorname{equ}(z, v) y_{z} .
$$

This can be done since for these $z, y_{z}$ is either in $y^{1}$ or $y_{1}^{2}$, which we know. This is basically the multilinear extension of our first input. This should be equal to some entry in $X$ at time 0 , with 0 for most space coordinates, besides the first $N+k^{\prime}$ being $v: v^{\prime}$.
Then use Lemma 6.2 .3 to get an error corrected query to $X\left(v^{\prime}\right)$ with soundness $\delta / 4$. Output $\perp$ if $X\left(v^{\prime}\right) \neq u(y, v)$.
5. Decode a symbol from $x_{2}$.

We get an $i \in[m(n)]$ for the symbol of the second input we want to query. We make $K K^{\prime}$ queries to get a claimed value of what symbol $i$ should be. These are just the bits at time 0 at locations $(a+i) K K^{\prime}, \ldots,\left(n^{\prime}+i+\right.$ 1) $K K^{\prime}-1$. These together give a claimed value for the $i$ th symbol, call it $y^{\prime}$. Reject if any of these symbols are non binary.
Then choose a random $b \in \mathbb{F}^{k+k^{\prime}}$. Now we want to check if the multilinear extension of the claimed value for the $i$ th symbol above is consistent with the proof. We do this the same way as the primary input, except that all the top field elements are set to the binary values for the $i$ th index, and the bottom $k$ are set to $b$. Then we can get an error corrected query of this one location using Lemma 6.2.3.
That is, we calculate

$$
u^{\prime}\left(y^{\prime}, b\right)=\sum_{z \in\{0,1\}^{k+k^{\prime}}} \operatorname{equ}(z, b) y_{z}^{\prime}
$$

This should be equal to some entry of $X$ at time 0 , with the top space coordinates being $n^{\prime}+i$, and the bottom space coordinates being $b: b^{\prime}$.
Then use Lemma 6.2 .3 to get an error corrected query to $X\left(b^{\prime}\right)$ with soundness $\delta / 4$. Output $\perp$ if $X\left(b^{\prime}\right) \neq u\left(y^{\prime}, b\right)$. Otherwise, the $i$ th symbol is probably what encodes to $y^{\prime}$. Output what symbol of $\Sigma$ that encodes to $y^{\prime}$.

Now to prove this achieves the desired results.

1. Decoder time $O((\log (T)+n+\log (|\Sigma|)) \mathbf{p o l y l o g}(|\mathbb{F}|))$ and decoder space $O((\log (T)+\log (|\Sigma|)) \log (|\mathbb{F}|))$.
Since $d=O(\log (T))$, the low degree test runs in time $O(d \mathbf{p o l y l o g}(|\mathbb{F}|))=$ $O(\log (T)$ polylog$(|\mathbb{F}|))$ and space $O(\log (T) \log (|\mathbb{F}|))$. The sum check runs in time $O(\log (T)$ polylog $(|\mathbb{F}|))$ and space $O(\log (T) \log (|\mathbb{F}|))$.
Checking consistency of $X$ with $f_{m+1}$ is only constantly many calculations of $Y$, which only takes time $O(m$ polylog $(|\mathbb{F}|))=O(\log (T)$ polylog $(|\mathbb{F}|))$.
Altogether, we only need to do a constant number of error correcting queries (Lemma 6.2.3), each of which takes time $O(\log (T)$ poly $\log (|\mathbb{F}|))$ and space $O(\log (T) \log (|\mathbb{F}|))$.
Like in Lemma 5.4.1, checking the consistency of $X$ with out input only takes time $O((n+\log (T))$ polylog $(|\mathbb{F}|))$ and space $O(\log (T) \log (|\mathbb{F}|))$.
When decoding a symbol from the implicit input, we need to compute a multilinear extension of a Boolean function with $O(\log (|\Sigma|))$ inputs, which only takes time $O(\log (|\Sigma|)$ polylog $(|\mathbb{F}|))$ and space $O(\log (|\Sigma|) \log (|\mathbb{F}|))$.
2. Randomness $O((\log (T)+\log (\log (|\Sigma|))) \log (|\mathbb{F}|))$.

The low degree test takes $O(\log (T) \log (|\mathbb{F}|))$ bits of randomness. The sum check, all the error corrected queries, and choosing the point to compare $X$ to the input also take $O(\log (T) \log (|\mathbb{F}|))$ bits of randomness.

We need $k^{\prime}+k=O(\log (\log (|\Sigma|)))$ random field elements to choose $b$ when checking the decoded symbol, which requires $O(\log (\log (|\Sigma|)) \log (|\mathbb{F}|))$ bits of randomness.
3. Encoder space $O(\log (T) \log (|\mathbb{F}|)+S)$.
this follows from Lemma 5.4.1 since we are using the same encoder as that prover. Completeness works for that prover.
4. $O(\log (T)+\log (|\Sigma|))$ queries.

The low degree test, sum check, and error corrected queries all only require $O(\log (T))$ queries. We need to query $O(\log (|\Sigma|))$ locations to get the claimed symbol from the implicit input.
5. Alphabet $\mathbb{F}$.

By definition of the proof.
6. Query time $O(\log (T)$ polylog $(|\mathbb{F}|))$.

Low degree tests and sum check have query time $O(\log (T)$ polylog $(|\mathbb{F}|))$. The queries for decoding a symbol takes time $O(\log (T) \operatorname{polylog}(|\mathbb{F}|))$ to calculate the index of the $i$ th implicit input.
7. Soundness $\delta$.

The soundness argument is similar to our base $\mathbf{P C P}$.
Take any proposed proof, $\pi$. Let $x_{1}$ be the explicit input, $x_{1}^{\prime}$ its padded transformation, and $y_{1}^{2}$ the encoded input of $x^{\prime}=x_{1}^{\prime}$ properly encoded for $B$. Let $L^{\prime}$ be the language recognized by $B$.
If the low degree test passes only with probability $\delta$, then the probability we don't output $\perp$ is only $\delta$, and we are done. Otherwise, $X$ is within $1 / 4$ of a degree $d$ polynomial, $\tilde{X}$.
Let $\hat{X}=\operatorname{MLB}(\tilde{X})$, and $X^{\prime}$ be $\hat{X}$ restricted to binary inputs.
If $X^{\prime}$ does not start with state $\left(y^{1}, y_{1}^{2}, z\right)$ for some $z, \hat{X}$ restricted to time 0 and 0 for everything but the first $N K^{\prime}$ spaces is not the multilinear extension of the state $y\left(\left[n^{\prime}\right]\right)$. Thus neither is $\tilde{X}$. Then the probability that $v$ is chosen so that $\tilde{X}$ agrees with $u(y, v)$ is at most $\frac{d}{|F|}<\delta / 4$. If they don't agree, with probability at most $\delta / 4$ will our sample to $\tilde{X}(v)$ fail to show us they disagree. So overall, we succeed with probability at most $\delta$. Suppose $X^{\prime}$ starts with state $\left(y^{1}, y_{1}^{2}, z^{1}, z^{2}\right)$. If $\left(y^{1}, y_{1}^{2}, z^{1}, z^{2}\right) \notin L^{\prime}$, then the computation history of $X^{\prime}$ is invalid. Then $\Gamma_{B}(\hat{X})$ (from Lemma 5.2.3) is not 0 on all Boolean inputs, so $\Gamma_{B}(\tilde{X})$ is not 0 on all boolean inputs. The probability that any $\Gamma_{B}(\tilde{X})$ calculated for the sum check is not properly calculated is at most $\delta / 2$.
By the soundness of Lemma 5.3.1. the sum check passes with probability at most

$$
\frac{O((d+1) \log (T))}{\|\mathbb{F}\|} \leq \frac{\delta}{2}
$$

for large enough $\alpha$. So the probability the sum check succeeds or we miscalculate $\Gamma_{B}(\tilde{X})$ is at most $\delta$, and one of these two has to happen to accept. So the probability we accept is at most $\delta$.
Suppose $\left(y^{1}, y_{1}^{2}, z^{1}, z^{2}\right) \in L^{\prime}$. Since $y^{1}$ is correct, $z^{2}=y^{3}$, and $\left(y_{1}^{2}, y_{2}^{2}\right)$ must be some valid encoding of an $x \in L$, from Lemma 5.2.1. Since $y_{1}^{2}$ is a valid encoding of $x_{1}^{\prime}$, we have $x^{\prime}=\left(x_{1}^{\prime}, x_{2}^{\prime}\right)$ for some $x_{2}^{\prime}$. Further, $x_{2}^{\prime}$ corresponds to some unpadded $x_{2}$ such that $\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right) \in L$.
So we have our valid $x_{2}$, now we just have to show that we decode it or output $\perp$ with high probability. For index $i$, let $y^{\prime}$ be the state for cell $i$ from directly sampling it from the proof. If $y^{\prime}=y_{2}^{2}(i)$, then we either output $\perp$, or the symbol $y_{2}^{2}(i)$ decoded from $y^{\prime}$, which is what we want. So suppose $y^{\prime} \neq y_{2}^{2}(i)$.
Then $\tilde{X}$ restricted to the projection of the variables for $y_{2}^{2}$ at cell $i$ is a different degree $d=O(\log (T))$ polynomial than the multilinear extension of $y^{\prime}$. Then they agree on at most $\frac{d}{|F|}<\delta / 4$ locations. So the probability we chose a location to check that they agree is at most $\delta / 4$. Finally, the probability we fail to accurately query this location in $\tilde{X}$ is at most $\delta / 4$. So the probability we don't output $\perp$ is at most $\delta$.
8. Perfect completeness.

An honest proof has an $X$ of degree $d$, so passes the low degree test. Will have no inconsistencies, so passes the sum check and $X$ is consistent with $Y$. Since $X$ is degree $d$, all error corrected queries succeed. Since $X$ is honest, it will be consistent with the input. Since $X$ is honest, it will have pass the check when decoding a symbol from the implicit input.
9. Log of proof length $O(\log (T) \log (|\mathbb{F}|))$.

Same as Lemma 5.4.1. this follows from the fact the proof is just a function $\pi: \mathbb{F}^{O(\log (T))} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$.

### 6.4 Constructing our Efficient PCP

Finally, we can use Lemma 5.4.1 to get an ePCP and Theorem 4.4.1 to get an rPCP. Then we use Lemma 6.3.1 to get a dPCP that we use in Theorem6.1.2 to get a query efficient $\mathbf{P C P}$ with constant soundness. Then we use repetitions for amplification to get a PCP with a small constant soundness, which proves Theorem 1.1.2,

Theorem 1.1.2 (Verifier Efficient PCP). Let $S, T=\Omega(n)$ be functions, and $L$ be any language computed by a simultaneous time $T$ and space $S$ algorithm. Let $\delta \in(0,1 / 2)$ be a constant. Then there is a $\mathbf{P C P}$ for $L$ with:

1. Verifier time $\tilde{O}(n+\log (T))$.
2. Query time $\tilde{O}(\log (T))$.
3. $O(\log (n)+\log (\log (T)))$ queries.
4. Alphabet $\Sigma$ with $\log (|\Sigma|)=O(\log (\log (T)))$.
5. Log of proof length $\tilde{O}(\log (T))$.
6. Prover space $\tilde{O}(S+n)$.
7. Perfect completeness and soundness $\delta$.

Proof. Let $\mathbb{F}$ be a field with $\|\mathbb{F}\|>\alpha \log (T)^{2}$ for sufficiently large $\alpha$. Use Lemma 5.4.1 to get an $\mathbf{e P C P}, A^{\prime}$, with:

1. Verifier time $O((\log (T)+n)$ polylog $(|\mathbb{F}|))$ and space $O(\log (T) \log (|\mathbb{F}|))$.
2. Randomness $O(\log (T) \log (|\mathbb{F}|))$.
3. Prover space $O(\log (|\mathbb{F}|) \log (T)+S)$.
4. $O(\log (T))$ queries.
5. Alphabet $\mathbb{F}$.
6. Extrapolation time $O(\log (T)$ polylog $(|\mathbb{F}|))$.
7. Degree $O(\log (T))$ and $O(\log (T))$ variables.
8. Perfect completeness.
9. Low degree soundness 0.1.
10. Log of proof length $O(\log (T) \log (|\mathbb{F}|))$.

Then run Theorem 4.4.1 to get a $\mathbf{r P C P}, A$ with:

1. Verifier time polynomial in $\log (T)$, $n$, and polylog $(|\mathbb{F}|)$.
2. Verifier space $O(\log (|\mathbb{F}|) \log (T)+S)$.
3. Randomness $r(n)=O(\log (T) \log (|\mathbb{F}|))$.
4. $O(\log (T))$ queries.
5. Alphabet $\mathbb{F}$.
6. Query time $O(\log (T)$ polylog $(|\mathbb{F}|))$.
7. It has $\log$ of proof length $O(\log (T) \log (|\mathbb{F}|))$ since it has the same prover as $A^{\prime}$.
And prover space $O(\log (|\mathbb{F}|) \log (T)+S)$.
8. Perfect completeness and soundness 0.99.

Let $V$ be the verifier for $A$. Now let $L^{\prime}=\{((x, r), p): V(x, r, p)=1\}$. Then $L^{\prime}$ is a pair language, where for for $m=n+r(n)=O(n+\log (T) \log (|\mathbb{F}|))$, language $L^{\prime}$ is decided by a Turing machine running in time poly $(m)$, and space $O(m+S)$ with symbols in the second input $\mathbb{F}$.

Note that Lemma 6.3.1 only holds for algorithms with time bounds at least $n$. So we bound the time of our verifier $V$ by poly $(m)$. Then by Lemma 6.3.1. there is a dPCP for $L^{\prime}, B$, such that $B$ has:

1. Decoder time

$$
\begin{aligned}
& O((\log (m)+m+\log (|\mathbb{F}|)) \text { polylog }(|\mathbb{F}|)) \\
= & O((n+\log (T) \log (|\mathbb{F}|)) \text { polylog}(|\mathbb{F}|))
\end{aligned}
$$

2. Randomness

$$
O((\log (m)+\log (\log (|\mathbb{F}|))) \log (|\mathbb{F}|))=O(\log (T) \log (|\mathbb{F}|))
$$

3. Encoder space

$$
O(\log (|\mathbb{F}|) \log (m)+S)=O(\log (T) \log (|\mathbb{F}|)+S)
$$

4. $O(\log (m)+\log (|\mathbb{F}|))=O(\log (n)+\log (\log (T)))$ queries.
5. Alphabet $\mathbb{F}$.
6. Query time

$$
O(\log (m) \text { polylog}(|\mathbb{F}|))=O((\log (n)+\log (\log (T))) \text { polylog}(|\mathbb{F}|))
$$

7. Perfect completeness and soundness 0.005 .
8. Log of proof length

$$
O(\log (m) \log (|\mathbb{F}|))=O((\log (n)+\log (\log (T))) \log (|\mathbb{F}|))
$$

Then by Theorem 6.1.2, we have a $P C P$ for $L, C$, such that $C$ has:

1. Verifier time $O((n+\log (T) \log (|\mathbb{F}|))$ poly $\log (|\mathbb{F}|))$
2. Query time $O(\log (T)$ polylog $(|\mathbb{F}|))$.
3. $O(\log (n)+\log (\log (T)))$ queries.
4. Alphabet $\mathbb{F}$.
5. Log of proof length $O(\log (T) \log (|\mathbb{F}|))$
6. Prover space $O(n+\log (T)$ polylog $(|\mathbb{F}|)+S)$.
7. Perfect completeness and soundness 0.995 .

Then, by repeating this for $200 \ln (1 / \delta)$ times, we get a $\mathbf{P C P}$ that uses within a constant factor the same time, space, and number of queries, and has soundness $\delta$.

## 7 Open Problems

There are several ways we would like to improve the circuit lower bounds.

1. Remove the advice bit.

We still had to use advice, a limitation from the original Santhanam result. It would be nice if we could get lower bounds on MA with no non-uniformity.
2. Prove tight bounds for all $k$.

Another limitation of our circuit lower bound is that it does not prove this tight bound for all $k>1$, just for some $k$.

The major barrier is in the case that $\mathbf{S P A C E}[n]$ algorithms may require super linear, but polynomial, sized circuits. Then the circuit size required for any given space may change in a strange way. For example, suppose for some $a>1$

$$
\mathbf{S P A C E}[n] \subseteq \mathbf{S I Z E}\left[O\left(n^{a}\right)\right] \backslash \mathbf{S I Z E}\left[o\left(n^{a}\right)\right] .
$$

What we would like, but this does not obviously imply, is that for all $b>1$ :

$$
\mathbf{S P A C E}\left[n^{b}\right] \subseteq \mathbf{S I Z E}\left[O\left(n^{a b}\right)\right] \backslash \mathbf{S I Z E}\left[o\left(n^{a b}\right)\right]
$$

While a padding argument gives SPACE $\left[n^{b}\right] \subseteq \operatorname{SIZE}\left[O\left(n^{a b}\right)\right]$, it does not give $\mathbf{S P A C E}\left[n^{b}\right] \nsubseteq \mathbf{S I Z E}\left[o\left(n^{a b}\right)\right]$. We may even have something weird, like

$$
\mathbf{S P A C E}\left[n^{a}\right] \subseteq \mathbf{S I Z E}\left[O\left(n^{a}\right)\right] \backslash \mathbf{S I Z E}\left[o\left(n^{a}\right)\right]
$$

That is, even if space $n$ circuits require size $n^{a}$, we may not need larger circuits until our algorithms use space $n^{a}$.
In this case, to get circuit lower bounds greater than $n^{a}$, we need to use an algorithm with space greater than $n^{a}$. Unfortunately, our interactive protocol gives queries to the prover of the same length as the space of the algorithm being verified. Then the prover needs to use linear space in its input length, and may require size $\left(n^{a}\right)^{a}=n^{a^{2}}$ circuits.
One way to try to solve this problem is to show that if

$$
\mathbf{S P A C E}[n] \subseteq \mathbf{S I Z E}\left[O\left(n^{a}\right)\right] \backslash \mathbf{S I Z E}\left[o\left(n^{a}\right)\right]
$$

for some $a>1$, then for all $b>1$ :

$$
\mathbf{S P A C E}\left[n^{b}\right] \subseteq \mathbf{S I Z E}\left[O\left(n^{a b}\right)\right] \backslash \mathbf{S I Z E}\left[o\left(n^{a b}\right)\right]
$$

This seems plausible, but hard to prove.
3. Make lower bound more frequent.

Another direction is improving the infinitely often separation to a more frequently often separation. Murray and Williams MW18 gave a refinement of the Santhanam circuit lower bounds that is incomparable to ours. In it they proved that for some $L \in \mathbf{M A} / O(\log (n))$ and constant $c$, for almost every $n$, either $L$ on length $n$ inputs wouldn't have circuits with size $n^{k}$, or $L$ on length $n^{c k}$ inputs wouldn't have circuits with size $n^{c^{2} k^{2}}$. One might want to strengthen their results.
Perhaps something like: for some $k>1$, for some function $f(n)=$ $o(1)$, language $L^{\prime} \in \operatorname{MATIME}\left[O\left(n^{k+f(n)}\right)\right] / O(\log (n))$, and gap function $g(n)=\operatorname{poly}(n)$, for all $n$, for some $m \in[n, g(n)]$, language $L^{\prime}$ on length $m$ inputs does not have circuits of size $n^{k}$.
The Murray and Williams result produces a language $L$ that for every input length $n$ will either be the downward self reducible language from Santhanam's result ( $Y$ in Lemma 3.2.1), or a circuit found with exhaustive search (like in Lemma 3.3.1). If the prover circuit for the exhaustive search is small enough, then $L$ is exhaustive search. Otherwise, $L$ is (possibly padded) $Y$.

The idea is that if exhaustive search on length $n$ inputs doesn't have small prover circuits, than for the input length of the prover circuits, we have a hard problem (specifically, $Y$ ). Unfortunately, provers have input length about $n^{k}$, and for that prover to be hard enough for our bound, length $n^{k}$ inputs must require size $n^{k^{2}}$ inputs. So to make sure the provers are hard enough, length $n$ inputs for exhaustive search may have to use prover circuits as large as $n^{k^{2}}$ !
Our PCP can improve the constant $c$ in the Murray and Williams result, but improving the approximately $n^{k^{2}}$ verifier time to near $n^{k}$ seems to be hard.
4. Prove exponential lower bounds for MAEXP.

A similar problem is to prove exponential circuit lower bounds for the exponential version of MA, known as MAEXP. The best circuit lower bounds known for MAEXP are "half-exponential" by Miltersen, Vinodchandran, and Watanabe MVW99. Loosely, a function is half exponential if that function composed with itself is exponential.

One could also look to improve our PCP. In particular, one could try to replicate other existing results while maintaining the $\tilde{O}(n+\log (T))$ runtime. Standard techniques can reduce the number of queries, or improve the soundness. With a little effort, we believe these techniques can be used to give poly $(T)$ proof length. Can we construct PCPs with length $\tilde{O}(T)$ proofs while having a $\tilde{O}(n+\log (T))$ verifier runtime?

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## A PCP Composition Proof

Here is the proof of PCP composition: Theorem 6.1.2.
Theorem 6.1.2 (PCP Composition). Suppose $L$ is a language with an $\mathbf{r P C P}$, $A$, with verifier $V$, prover $P$, query function $Q$, and index function $I$ such that

1. $Q$ runs in time $t(n)$.
2. $P$ run in space $s(n)$.
3. $V$ uses $r(n)$ bits of randomness.
4. A uses alphabet $\Sigma$.
5. A has robust soundness $\delta$.
6. A has perfect completeness.
7. A has proof length $l(n)$.

Suppose $L^{\prime}=\{((x, r), y): V(x, r, y)=1\}$. Let $n^{\prime}=n+r(n)$. Suppose $L^{\prime}$ has a dPCP protocol, $B$, with decoder $D$ and encoder $E$ such that

1. E runs in space $s^{\prime}\left(n^{\prime}\right)$.
2. D runs in time $t^{\prime}\left(n^{\prime}\right)$.
3. $B$ uses $q^{\prime}\left(n^{\prime}\right)$ queries.
4. $B$ has query time $t^{*}\left(n^{\prime}\right)$.
5. B uses alphabet $\Sigma^{\prime}$.
6. B has soundness $\delta^{\prime}$.
7. B has perfect completeness.
8. $B$ has proof length $l^{\prime}\left(n^{\prime}\right)$.

Then there is a PCP protocol for $L$, $C$, such that

1. $C$ has verifier time $O\left(t^{\prime}\left(n^{\prime}\right)\right)$
2. $C$ uses $O\left(q^{\prime}\left(n^{\prime}\right)\right)$ queries.
3. $C$ has prover space $O\left(s(n)+t(n)+s^{\prime}\left(n^{\prime}\right)\right)$.
4. $C$ uses alphabet $\Sigma^{\prime} \cup \Sigma$.
5. $C$ has query time $O\left(t(n)+t^{*}\left(n^{\prime}\right)\right)$.
6. $C$ has soundness $\delta+\delta^{\prime}$.
7. $C$ has perfect completeness.
8. $C$ has proof length $l(n)+2^{r(n)} l^{\prime}\left(n^{\prime}\right)$.

Proof. At a high level, our new PCP will essentially use the dPCP to prove that a query would pass the rPCP. The decoding property of the dPCP forces the proof to almost commit to a single accepting result for these query locations. And the robustness property of the $\mathbf{r P C P}$ means that on average, the proof is far away from the accepting one the $\mathbf{d P C P}$ claimed. So the two will disagree most of the time.

Suppose $B$ uses $r^{\prime}(n)$ bits of randomness. Then our new verifier, $V^{\prime}$, will expect for its randomness $\left(r, r^{\prime}, i\right)$ where $r$ is $r(n)$ bits of randomness for $V$, $r^{\prime}$ is $r^{\prime}(n)$ bits of randomness for $D$, and $i$ is a uniformly random element of $[q(n)]$ where $q(n)$ is the number of queries for $A$. Then $C$ has a proof length of $l(n)+2^{r(n)} l^{\prime}(n)$ which we write, for proof $\pi$, as one substring $\pi^{\prime}$ of length $l(n)$, and for each possible value of $r$, a substring $\pi^{r}$ of length $l^{\prime}(n)$.

Let $I^{\prime}$ be the index function for $B$. Then finally, our new $\mathbf{P C P}$ just checks if

$$
D\left((x, r), r^{\prime}, \pi_{I^{\prime}\left((x, r), r^{\prime}, i\right)}^{r}, i\right)=\pi_{Q(x, r, i)}^{\prime}
$$

The proof is expected to have $\pi^{\prime}$ as the proof for the $\mathbf{r P C P}$, and then for each $r, \pi^{r}$ should be the proof for the inner verifier that $V\left(x, r, \pi_{I(x, r)}^{\prime}\right)=1$, where $I$ is the index function for $A$.

1. The time of the new verifier, is the time to run the $\mathbf{d P C P}$ decoder, $t^{\prime}\left(n^{\prime}\right)$, plus the time to compare the result to a symbol in the $\mathbf{r P C P}$ proof. This comparison takes time linear in the symbol size, which since the decoder decodes a symbol, is at most $O\left(t^{\prime}\left(n^{\prime}\right)\right)$ time. Thus the composed verifier takes time $O\left(t^{\prime}\left(n^{\prime}\right)\right)$.
2. The total number of queries are just the number for the inner $\mathbf{d P C P}$, $q^{\prime}\left(n^{\prime}\right)$, plus one to check consistency with the outer rPCP.
3. The proof only requires space $s^{\prime}\left(n^{\prime}\right)$ to compute the symbols from dPCP when given query access to symbols from the rPCP for a choice of randomness.
To calculate the index in the rPCP proof of one of the symbols given to the verifier for a choice of randomness requires time, and space, $t(n)$.
To calculate a symbol of the proof for the $\mathbf{r P C P}$ only requires space $s(n)$. So computing the symbols from the inner $\mathbf{d P C P}$ only require space $O\left(s^{\prime}\left(n^{\prime}\right)+t(n)+s(n)\right)$. And of course, queries to the outer rPCP only require space $s(n)$.
4. The symbols for $\pi^{\prime}$ are in $\Sigma$, and the symbols for $\pi^{r}$ are in $\Sigma^{\prime}$, so the alphabet is $\Sigma^{\prime} \cup \Sigma$.
5. A query location for $C$ will either be to a query location of $A$ or $B$, which can be computed in time $t(n)$ or $t^{*}\left(n^{\prime}\right)$. In either case, it can be computed in time $O\left(t(n)+t^{*}\left(n^{\prime}\right)\right)$.
6. For soundness, suppose $x \notin L$. Then by robust soundness of $A$, for any proof $\pi^{\prime}$, for $Y_{r}=\{y: V(x, r, y)=1\}$ :

$$
\mathrm{E}_{r}\left[\Delta\left(\pi_{I(x, r)}^{\prime}, Y_{r}\right)\right] \geq 1-\delta
$$

Then for any $r$, for any $\pi^{r}$, by the soundness of the $\mathbf{d P C P}$, either

$$
\operatorname{Pr}_{r^{\prime}, i}\left[D\left((x, r), r^{\prime}, \pi_{I^{\prime}\left((x, r), r^{\prime}, i\right)}^{r}, i\right) \neq \perp\right] \leq \delta^{\prime}
$$

or there is some $y^{r}$ where $V\left(x, r, y^{r}\right)=1$ and

$$
\operatorname{Pr}_{r^{\prime}, i}\left[D\left((x, r), r^{\prime}, \pi_{I^{\prime}\left((x, r), r^{\prime}, i\right)}^{r}, i\right) \notin\left\{y_{i}^{r}, \perp\right\}\right] \leq \delta^{\prime} .
$$

Then the probability that we accept is the probability that

$$
D\left((x, r), r^{\prime}, \pi_{I^{\prime}\left((x, r), r^{\prime}, i\right)}^{r}, i\right)=\pi_{Q(x, r, i)}^{\prime}
$$

This can happen in 3 ways. If $y_{r}$ doesn't exist, then we accept only if $D\left((x, r), r^{\prime}, \pi_{I^{\prime}\left((x, r), r^{\prime}, i\right)}^{r}, i\right) \neq \perp$. If $y_{r}$ does exist, then either $y_{i}^{r}=\pi_{Q(x, r, i)}^{\prime}$ or $D\left((x, r), r^{\prime}, \pi_{I^{\prime}\left((x, r), r^{\prime}, i\right)}^{r}, i\right) \notin\left\{\perp, y_{i}^{r}\right\}$.
Then we can bound the probability of acceptance by:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Pr}[\text { accept }] \leq & \operatorname{Prr}_{r, i}\left[y_{r} \text { exists } \wedge D\left((x, r), r^{\prime}, \pi_{I^{\prime}\left((x, r), r^{\prime}, i\right)}^{r}, i\right) \notin\left\{y_{i}^{r}, \perp\right\}\right] \\
& +\underset{r, i}{\operatorname{Pr}}\left[y_{r} \text { exists } \wedge y_{i}^{r}=\pi_{I(x, r)}^{\prime}(i)\right] \\
& +\underset{r, i}{\operatorname{Pr}}\left[y_{r} \text { doesn't exist } \wedge\left(D\left((x, r), r^{\prime}, \pi_{I^{\prime}\left((x, r), r^{\prime}, i\right)}^{r}, i\right) \neq \perp\right)\right] \\
\leq & \operatorname{Pr}_{r, i}\left[y_{r} \text { exists }\right] \delta^{\prime}+\delta+\underset{r, i}{\operatorname{Pr}}\left[y_{r} \text { doesn't exist }\right] \delta^{\prime} \\
\leq & \delta^{\prime}+\delta
\end{aligned}
$$

7. The protocol has completeness since if $x \in L$, there is some proof $\pi^{x}=\pi^{\prime}$ so that for any of the chosen $r$, then $V\left(x, r, \pi_{I(x, r)}^{x}\right)=1$. Then from completeness of the $\mathbf{d P C P}$, there is a $\pi^{r}$ so that for any $i$, the inner $\mathbf{P C P}$ will always return $\pi_{I(x, r)}^{x}(i)$.

## B Automata Proofs

In this section, we show how to construct the cellular automata for an algorithm, and how to arithmetize a formula for its rules. First, let us show how to construct the cellular automata for a RAM algorithm: Lemma 5.2.1.

Lemma 5.2.1 (RAM algorithms have simple cellular automata). Let $A$ be a RAM algorithm recognizing L, running in time $T$ and space $S$ where $S=$ $\Omega(\log (n))$ and $T=\Omega(S)$. Further, A uses input coming from a read only space of $n$ bits.

Then there is a 1 dimensional cellular automata, $B$, simulating $A$, such that

1. $B$ runs in time $T^{\prime}=\operatorname{poly}(T, n)$, and space $S^{\prime}=O(n+S)$.
2. $B$ has a constant size alphabet, $\Sigma$, where for some $k$, we have $|\Sigma|=2^{2^{k}}$. That is, $\Sigma$ is represented by a power of 2 number of bits.
3. For any input $x$ for $A$, there is a corresponding input for $B, y_{x}$, of length $S^{\prime}$. And we also have that $y_{x}=\left(y^{1}, y_{x}^{2}, y^{3}\right)$ where
(a) $y^{1}$ has length $O\left(\log \left(S^{\prime}\right)\right)$ and is independent of the specific $x$, only the length of $x$, and $y^{1}$ is computable in time $O\left(\left|y^{1}\right|\right)$.
(b) $y_{x}^{2}$ is exactly $n$ symbols where for some $f:\{0,1\} \rightarrow \Sigma$, for each $i \in[n],\left(y_{x}^{2}\right)_{i}=f\left(x_{i}\right)$, where $f$ is computable in constant time.
(c) $y^{3}$ is exactly $S$ copies of a specific symbol in $\Sigma$.
4. Not all transitions for $B$ will be defined, and $A$ accepts on $x$ if and only if after time $T^{\prime}$ starting on $y_{x}, B$ reaches a steady state. Similarly, $A$ rejects on $x$ if and only if there is no sequence of $T^{\prime}$ valid transitions in $B$ starting from $y_{x}$.
5. If $B$ has a starting state that is $\left(y^{1}, z\right)$ for any $z$ that is not $\left(y_{x}^{2}, y^{3}\right)$ for some $x \in L$, then $B$ will not have $T^{\prime}$ valid transitions.
6. Let $x \in L$ be an input for $A$, with transformed input for $B, y_{x}$. Given a time $t \in\left[T^{\prime}\right]$ and a memory location $s \in\left[S^{\prime}\right]$, there is a RAM algorithm $C$ that can compute the symbol in cell $s$ at time $t$ in $B$ 's computation history on $y_{x}$ in time $O(T)$ and space $O(S)$ given read only access to $x$.

Proof. The idea is simple: First convert the RAM machine into an input oblivious, single tape Turing machine, $B^{\prime}$, where there is $O(\log (S+n))$ space for the registers, $n$ space for the read only input, followed by $S$ working space reserved on the tape. Notably, this input oblivious Turing machine may temporarily modify the contents of this read only space. In fact, it needs to. But these will always be temporary since we are simulating a RAM machine where these are read only.

Then we create our cellular automata, $B$, by encoding this Turing machine's state into the cell the head is on, alongside that cell's symbol. Then the state transitions will come from whether the current state has the head, or a neighbor does. On accepting, the cellular automata will just remove the head and remain constant. On rejecting, there will just be an undefined transition. This makes accepting equivalent to the existence of a valid computation history.

For more details, first, we take our input RAM algorithm $A$, and make a new RAM algorithm $A^{\prime}$ that does the same thing, but starts by making sure its working space is all 0 .

Turing machine $B^{\prime}$ can be made from $A^{\prime}$ by first adding $O\left(\log \left(S^{\prime}\right)\right)$ bits before the first bit to hold the current memory configuration of the registers. Then the Turing Machine starts at the beginning, goes through the motions it would need to do on any register to register operation and any state change. Then it goes from the beginning forward, looking for the index it wants to operate on for any register memory operation.

Each time it moves, it copies the bit in front of the head behind it, and shifts all its registers 1 forward. At each potential bit, it moves the tape head as if it was going to do every operation, but doesn't actually do it unless the indexes match for a register memory operation. Once it gets to the far side, it returns the registers to the start.

This Turing Machine runs in time $T^{\prime}=O\left(T(S+n) \log \left(S^{\prime}\right)^{2}\right)$ and only needs size $S^{\prime}=O(S+n)$ to hold bits of the computation, and the registers. In particular, at time 0 , it has $O(\log (S+n)$ space reserved for the registers, exactly
$n$ cells reserved for the read only input, and $S$ cells reserved for the working space.

Then $B^{\prime}$ can be made into a cellular automata, $B^{*}$, by expanding the alphabet to be a pair of an entry from the alphabet of the Turing Machine, and an entry of the state of the current TM or empty.

Then the rules $B^{*}$ follow from the state transitions of $B^{\prime}$, where the cell contents and Turing Machine state indicate how the cell contents should change, and the state of it's neighbors and itself indicate which Turing Machine state it should move to next (that is, should the head move from a neighboring state to this one).

We need to do one more thing to $B^{*}$ to get $B$. Before we start, we want to verify the format. $B$ will do this by sweeping from from the beginning to the end and back, making sure each symbol is of the appropriate format. This will tell us that the provided $y_{x}^{2}$ and $y^{3}$ encode binary inputs. Such a procedure will work if $y^{1}$ is correct. Than after that, the simulation of $A^{\prime}$ will further make sure $y^{3}$ actually encodes all 0 .

Automata $B$ does this by having a special sweeping state that sweeps from left to right that makes sure it only encounters binary inputs, that it then changes to be activated, makes it all the way to the end, and then sweeps back to the beginning where it turns into the head for the Turing machine $B^{\prime}$ simulating $A^{\prime}$.

For a time $t$ and a space $s$, the state of cell $s$ in the history of $B$ at time $t$ can be computed by an algorithm $C$ which does the following:

1. If the time $t$ is in the preprocessing part of $B$ before $B^{*}$ starts, we can just return the bit from $y_{x}$ directly, if it is after the head, the head if it is on the head, or the bit from $y_{x}$ activated if it is before.
If $t$ is not in the time for preprocessing, just subtract the amount of time to do the preprocessing from $t$ and move on.
2. A time $t$ in $B$ is part of the simulation of some step at some time $t^{\prime}$ in $A^{\prime}$. Since the Turing Machine is input oblivious, we know exactly how many operations a step in $A^{\prime}$ is in $B$ and can calculate $t^{\prime}$. Run $A$ up to time $t^{\prime}$.
3. Calculate the current cell the Turing machine should be visiting at time $t^{\prime}$. We can straightforwardly calculate how long it takes to simulate all the register operations, and then each cell takes the same amount of time.
(a) If we are in the middle of a register register operation: If $s$ is in a register, simulate $B$ on the registers till time $t$, and then directly output it. If $s$ is not a register, output that cell's value from the previous time, as nothing happened.
(b) If we are looking at another cell: If $s$ is a cell before the register's location during this operation, then just return the value of this cell at the time step after this. If $s$ is a cell inside the register, then simulate $B$ on this register and this one bit right up till time $t$, then
output $s$ at time $t$. Otherwise, output the value of this cell now. It hasn't been modified yet by this step in the RAM algorithm.

This can easily be done since the algorithm is input oblivious, we know exactly how many steps in $B$ one step in $A$ will take. There is a direct, simple way to translate from a state in $A$ to a state in $B$. And each step from one bit in memory to the next as it seeks the appropriate index takes the same amount of time, so we can skip right to the correct one. Thus we can easily compute if the sought index is before, or after the one being checked and change the state appropriately.

This gives us a version of the original RAM algorithm with a locally checkable computation history, since cellular automata is a local model of computation. This is essentially the definition of a cellular automata. Remember that we are assuming the states in the cellular automata are in some convenient binary encoding.

Lemma B.0.1 (Cellular Automata have Constant Size Consistency Checks). For any cellular automata with $S$ bounded cells in memory, for any $i \in[S]$ there is a constant size Boolean function on the states of the $i-1, i$, and $i+1$ cell, and a new proposed value for cell $i$ that outputs whether that would be the new state of cell $i$ after a time step.

We want to use the multilinear extension of the computation history of the $B$ in Lemma 5.2.1 to get an arithmetization of Lemma B.0.1. As part of this, we need another arithmetization.

Lemma B.0.2 (Successor Arithmetization). For field $\mathbb{F}, l \geq 1$, there is a $O(l \mathbf{p o l y} \log (|\mathbb{F}|))$ time algorithm computing the multilinear extension of $u+1=$ $v$ for $l$ bit numbers, $u$ and $v$.

Proof. For this proof, I will assume that $u$ and $v$ have their high order bits first, so $v_{1}$ is the bit with the largest magnitude, and $v_{l}$ is the bit with the smallest magnitude. For all $l \geq 1$, define $f_{l}: \mathbb{F}^{l} \times \mathbb{F}^{l} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$ inductively by

1. If $l=1, f_{l}(u, v)=\left(1-u_{1}\right) \cdot v_{1}$,

2 . If $l>1$,

$$
f_{l}(u, v)=\left(1-u_{l}\right) \cdot v_{l} \cdot \operatorname{equ}\left(u_{[l-1]}, v_{[l-1]}\right)+u_{l} \cdot\left(1-v_{l}\right) f_{l-1}\left(u_{[l-1]}, v_{[l-1]}\right) .
$$

Then by induction, each $f_{l}$ is multilinear and consistent with the check that $v=u+1$.

We can calculate every equ term together with $O(l)$ field operations, by starting with equ $\left(u_{1}, v_{1}\right)$, then multiplying it by equ $\left(u_{2}, v_{2}\right)$ to get equ $\left(u_{[2]}, v_{[2]}\right)$, and so on. Then using each of these, $f$ can be calculated inductively in a straightforward way using only $O(l)$ field operations.

Now we can construct the inconsistency function actually used in our PCP. The idea is to take 2 times, 3 spaces, and a claimed computation history, and output if the cells at these times and spaces violate Lemma B.0.1. For technical reasons, we will further ask for the states of those spaces at that time in the input, and only do the check if these states agree with the computation history. Of course, we will actually get an arithmetization of such a boolean function.

So now we can prove Lemma 5.2 .3
Lemma 5.2.3 (Inconsistency Function). Let $k$ be a constant, $s, t$ be integers, and $\mathbb{F}$ be a field. Let $B$ be a cellular automata with $2^{2^{k}}$ different states per cell running in $S=2^{s}$ cells, and time $T=2^{t}$. Then there is a function $\Gamma_{B}$ taking any function $X: \mathbb{F}^{s} \times \mathbb{F}^{k} \times \mathbb{F}^{t} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$ and returning a function $Y: \mathbb{F}^{3 s+2 t+4\left(2^{k}\right)} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$ such that:

1. If $X$ is Boolean on Boolean inputs, $Y$ is Boolean on Boolean inputs.
2. If $X$ is Boolean on Boolean inputs, then $Y$ is 0 on all Boolean inputs if and only if $X$ on Boolean inputs encodes a valid computation history for $B$.
3. If $X$ is degree $d$, then $Y$ is degree $O(s+t+d)$. If $X$ is degree $d$ in every variable individually, $Y$ is degree $O(d)$ in every variable individually.
4. Given oracle access to $X, Y$ can be computed in time $O((t+s) \operatorname{polylog}(|\mathbb{F}|))$ with a constant number of calls to $X$.
5. If $Y=\Gamma_{B}(X)$ is 0 on all Boolean inputs, then $\Gamma_{B}(M L B(X))$ is also 0 on all Boolean inputs.
Proof. From Lemma B.0.1, there is a function, $\phi:\{0,1\}^{4\left(2^{k}\right)} \rightarrow\{0,1\}$, which takes $a_{0}, a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{1}^{\prime} \in\{0,1\}^{2^{k}}$ and outputs $\phi\left(a_{0}, a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{1}^{\prime}\right)=0$ if in the cellular automata with $a_{0}, a_{1}, a_{2}$ adjacent, in that order, in the cellular automata at one time, replaces $a_{1}$ with $a_{1}^{\prime}$ in the next time, and outputs 1 otherwise.

Let $\hat{\phi}$ be the multilinear extension of $\phi$. Since $\phi$ has constant size, $\hat{\phi}$ is a constant size arithmetic expression that can be computed in time $O(\mathbf{p o l y l o g}(|\mathbb{F}|))$.

Let $\theta:\{0,1\}^{3 s} \times\{0,1\}^{2 t} \rightarrow\{0,1\}$ be the function that takes $s_{0}, s_{1}, s_{2} \in$ $\{0,1\}^{s}$ and $t_{0}, t_{1} \in\{0,1\}^{t}$ and outputs 1 if $s_{0}+1=s_{1}, s_{1}+1=s_{2}$ and $t_{0}+1=t_{1}$, and 0 otherwise. By Lemma B.0.2 in time $O((t+s) \operatorname{polylog}(|\mathbb{F}|))$ we can compute a function $\tilde{\theta}: \mathbb{F}^{3 s} \times \mathbb{F}^{2 t} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$ that has constant degree in each variable and is consistent with $\theta$ on boolean values.

For $s_{0}, s_{1}, s_{2} \in \mathbb{F}^{s}, t_{0}, t_{1} \in \mathbb{F}^{t}, a_{0}, a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{1}^{\prime} \in \mathbb{F}^{2^{k}}$, define $Y$ by:

$$
\begin{aligned}
Y\left(s_{0}, s_{1}, s_{2}, t_{0}, t_{1}, a_{0}, a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{1}^{\prime}\right)= & \tilde{\theta}\left(s_{0}, s_{1}, s_{2}, t_{0}, t_{1}\right) \\
& \hat{\phi}\left(a_{0}, a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{1}^{\prime}\right) \\
& \prod_{j \in\{0,1,2\}} \prod_{i \in\{0,1\}^{k}} \operatorname{equ}\left(X\left(s_{j}, i, t_{0}\right),\left(a_{j}\right)_{i}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\prod_{i \in\{0,1\}^{k}} \mathrm{equ}\left(X\left(s_{1}, i, t_{1}\right),\left(a_{1}^{\prime}\right)_{i}\right)
$$

1. If $X$ is binary on binary inputs, $Y$ is binary on binary inputs since it is just a product of functions that are binary on binary inputs.
2. If $X$ is binary on binary inputs, then for binary inputs, $Y$ is 1 if and only if $s_{0}, s_{1}, s_{2}$ are adjacent states, $a_{0}, a_{1}, a_{2}$ are the states of $s_{0}, s_{1}, s_{2}$ at time $t_{0}, a_{1}^{\prime}$ is the state of $s_{1}$ at time $t_{1}$, and the transition from $a_{1}$ to $a_{1}^{\prime}$, given neighbors $a_{0}$ and $a_{2}$ is invalid.
Thus, if $X$ on binary inputs is a valid computation history, no constraints are ever violated, and $Y$ is 0 on binary inputs. If $X$ is not a valid computation history, it has an improper transition at some point, and at that point, $Y$ would be 1.
3. $Y$ is the product of only constantly many terms (since $k$ is constant), all of which, but potentially $X$, have degree at most $O(s+t)$, and the $X$ has degree $d$. Products only add degrees, and we only take constantly many products. So we have degree $O(s+t+d)$.

For individual variable degree, the input to each of the constantly many $X$ all have degree 1 in distinct variables. So if $X$ has degree $d$ in every variable individually, each call to $X$ is degree at most $d$ in each variable individually. $Y$ is only a product of constantly many calls to $X$ times functions with constant degree. So $Y$ has degree $O(d)$ in each variable individually.
4. Function $\tilde{\theta}$ runs in time $O((s+t)$ polylog $(|\mathbb{F}|))$, and function $\hat{\phi}$ runs in time $O(\operatorname{polylog}(|\mathbb{F}|))$, and each of the constantly many equ only take $O(\operatorname{polylog}(|\mathbb{F}|))$ time with constantly many calls to $X$. So we only take $O((s+t)$ polylog $(|\mathbb{F}|))$ time overall with constantly many oracle calls to $X$.
5. Suppose $Y$ is 0 on all boolean inputs. Let $Y^{\prime}=\Gamma_{A}(\operatorname{MLB}(X))$.

In particular, suppose for some boolean values for $s_{0}, s_{1}, s_{2}, t_{0}, t_{1}, a_{0}, a_{1}, a_{2}$, and $a_{1}^{\prime}$, function $Y$ is 0 . This happens if and only if one of the products making up $Y$ is 0 .
$\tilde{\theta}=0$ or $\tilde{\phi}=0$ : Neither of these terms involve $X$, so they are still 0 no matter what we switch $X$ to.
$\operatorname{equ}\left(X\left(s_{j}, i, t_{0}\right),\left(a_{j}\right)_{i}\right)$ for some $i, j$ : We know $\left(a_{j}\right)_{i}$ is binary, so by the definition of equ, this expression simplifies to either $X\left(s_{j}, i, t_{0}\right)=0$, or $X\left(s_{j}, i, t_{0}\right)=1$. In either case, this implies $X\left(s_{j}, i, t_{0}\right)$ is binary. Thus on this input, $\operatorname{MLB}(X)=X$, and this term is still 0 in $\Gamma_{A}(\operatorname{MLB}(X))$.
$\operatorname{equ}\left(X\left(s_{1}, i, t_{1}\right),\left(a_{1}^{\prime}\right)_{i}\right)$ for some $i$ : Same as above.

## C Sum Check Proofs

Here we prove that sum check works: Lemma 5.3.1. For reference, here is how we defined our sum check protocol:

Definition 5.3.2 (Sum Check Protocol Definition). Let $n, d \in \mathbb{N}$, and $\mathbb{F}$ be a field with $|\mathbb{F}|>\max \{d, n\}+1$. Suppose $f: \mathbb{F}^{n} \times \mathbb{F} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$. Then the degree $d$ Sum Check Protocol on $f$ is the following randomized algorithm.

1. Get $2 n$ random field elements, $R=\left(r_{1}, \ldots, r_{n}\right.$ and $\left.r_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, r_{n}^{\prime}\right)$.
2. Reject if $f\left(\left(r_{1}, \ldots, r_{n}\right), 1\right) \neq 0$.
3. For $i$ from 1 to $n$ :
(a) For $j \in[d+1]$, query

$$
a_{i}^{j}=f\left(\left(r_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, r_{i-1}^{\prime}, j, r_{i+1}, \ldots r_{n}\right), i+1\right)
$$

Using these, let $g_{i}: \mathbb{F} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$ be the degree $d$ polynomial so that for all $j \in[d+1], g_{i}(j)=a_{i}^{j}$.
(b) If

$$
f\left(\left(r_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, r_{i-1}^{\prime}, r_{i}, \ldots r_{n}\right), i\right) \neq\left(1-r_{i}\right) g_{i}(0)+r_{i} g_{i}(1)
$$

reject.
(c) If

$$
f\left(\left(r_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, r_{i}^{\prime}, r_{i+1}, \ldots r_{n}\right), i+1\right) \neq g_{i}\left(r_{i}^{\prime}\right)
$$

reject.
4. If all checks pass, accept.

We often refer to the ability of some function $g: \mathbb{F}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$ to pass a sum check. The sum check on function $f$ checks whether $g(x)=f(x, n+1)$ on binary inputs is the constant 0 function. It can be useful to refer to the probability of $g$ passing the sum check, assuming the rest of $f$ is defined optimally.

Definition C.0.1 (Passing A Sum Check). Let $n, d \in \mathbb{N}, \mathbb{F}$ be a field with $|\mathbb{F}|>\max \{n, d+1\}, \delta \in[0,1]$, and $g: \mathbb{F}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$. Then we say $g$ passes the degree $d$ sum check with probability $\delta$ if there exists some function $f: \mathbb{F}^{n} \times \mathbb{F} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$ so that for all $x \in \mathbb{F}, g(x)=f(x, n+1)$, and $f$ passes the degree $d$ sum check protocol with probability $\delta$.

If $g$ is low degree, then the sum check does a good job checking if $g$ is 0 on all binary inputs.

Lemma C.0.2 (Sum Check Of Low Degree Polynomial). Let $n, d \in \mathbb{N}$, $\mathbb{F}$ be a field with $|\mathbb{F}|>n(d+1), \delta \in[0,1]$, and $g: \mathbb{F}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$. If the max degree of $g$ in any variable is at most d, then:

1. If for all $x \in\{0,1\}^{n}$ we have if $g(x)=0$, then $g$ passes the degree $d$ sum check with probability 1.
2. If there exists $x \in\{0,1\}^{n}$ such that $g(x) \neq 0$, then $g$ passes the degree $d$ sum check with probability at most $\frac{(d+1) n}{|\mathbb{F}|}$.

Proof. First we define $f$ in the format a sum check expects (whether or not the multilinear extension of $g$ actually is 0 ).

$$
\begin{aligned}
f_{n+1}\left(\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right), n+1\right)= & g\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right) \\
f\left(\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right), i\right)= & \left(1-x_{i}\right) f\left(\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{i-1}, 0, x_{i+1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right), i+1\right) \\
& +x_{i} f\left(\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{i-1}, 1, x_{i+1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right), i+1\right) \\
f_{i}(x)= & f(x, i)
\end{aligned}
$$

For $i \notin[n+1]$, how we define $f(x, i)$ is arbitrary since it is never queried.
By induction, see that for $n \geq j \geq i \geq 1$, then $f_{i}$ is linear in variable $j$. In particular, $f_{1}$ is multilinear. And for all $i \in[n+1], j \in[n]$, function $f_{i}$ has degree at most $d$ in variable $j$. Similarly, each $f_{i}$ agree on boolean inputs.

1. Suppose for all $x \in\{0,1\}^{n}$ we have $g(x)=0$.

Then choose randomness, $R=\left(r_{1}, \ldots, r_{n}\right.$ and $\left.r_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, r_{n}^{\prime}\right)$. See that $f_{1}$ is multilinear, and 0 on all binary inputs, so it must be the 0 function. Thus $f\left(\left(r_{1}, \ldots, r_{n}\right), 1\right)=0$.
For every $i \in[n]$, by definition

$$
\begin{aligned}
& f\left(\left(r_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, r_{i-1}^{\prime}, r_{i}, r_{i+1}, \ldots, r_{n}\right), i\right) \\
= & \left(1-r_{i}\right) f\left(\left(r_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, r_{i-1}^{\prime}, 0, r_{i+1}, \ldots, r_{n}\right), i+1\right) \\
& +r_{i} f\left(\left(r_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, r_{i-1}^{\prime}, 1, r_{i+1}, \ldots, r_{n}\right), i+1\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $f_{i+1}$ is degree at most $d$ in variable $i$, function $g_{i}$ in the sum check is a degree at most $d$ polynomial, and $g_{i}$ agrees with $f_{i+1}$ on $d+1$ points, then $f_{i+1}=g_{i}$ as a function of variable $i$. So

$$
f\left(\left(r_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, r_{i-1}^{\prime}, r_{i}^{\prime}, r_{i+1}, \ldots, r_{n}\right), i+1\right)=g_{i}\left(r_{i}^{\prime}\right)
$$

and

$$
f\left(\left(r_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, r_{i-1}^{\prime}, r_{i}, r_{i+1}, \ldots, r_{n}\right), i\right)=\left(1-r_{i}\right) g_{i}(0)+r_{i} g_{i}(1)
$$

So all tests pass.
2. Suppose there exists $x \in\{0,1\}^{n}$ such that $g(x) \neq 0$. Then take any candidate function, $f^{\prime}: \mathbb{F}^{n} \times \mathbb{F} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$, so that $f^{\prime}(x, n+1)=g(x)$. Define $f_{i}^{\prime}(x)=f(x, i)$.
Our goal is to show that if $f^{\prime}$ is not equal to $f$, than with low probability will $f^{\prime}$ be able to change to $f$ on the values we are evaluating without the
sum check catching it. Since $f^{\prime}$ must be $f$ at the last step, due to how we defined them, function $f^{\prime}$ must fail the sum check with high probability.
Since $f_{1}(x) \neq 0, f_{1}$ is not the constant 0 function. Since $f_{1}$ is multilinear, $f_{1}$ has degree at most $n$. Thus the probability that $f_{1}\left(r_{1}, \ldots, r_{n}\right)=0$ is at most $\frac{n}{|\mathbb{F}|}$ by Schwartz-Zippel.
Suppose $f_{1}\left(r_{1}, \ldots, r_{n}\right) \neq 0$. Then either $f_{1}^{\prime}\left(r_{1}, \ldots, r_{n}\right)=f_{1}\left(r_{1}, \ldots, r_{n}\right)$ or not. If they are equal, sum check will fail. Now we will perform induction.
Suppose for $i \leq n$, with probability at most $\frac{n+d(i-1)}{|\mathbb{F}|}$ has $f^{\prime}$ not failed the sum check by step $i$ and

$$
f_{i}\left(r_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, r_{i-1}^{\prime}, r_{i}, r_{i+1}, \ldots, r_{n}\right)=f_{i}^{\prime}\left(r_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, r_{i-1}^{\prime}, r_{i}, r_{i+1}, \ldots, r_{n}\right)
$$

So suppose

$$
f_{i}\left(r_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, r_{i-1}^{\prime}, r_{i}, r_{i+1}, \ldots, r_{n}\right) \neq f_{i}^{\prime}\left(r_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, r_{i-1}^{\prime}, r_{i}, r_{i+1}, \ldots, r_{n}\right)
$$

Define degree $d$ functions, $g_{i}$ and $g_{i}^{\prime}$ so that for $j \in[d+1]$ we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
g_{i}(j) & =f_{i+1}\left(r_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, r_{i-1}^{\prime}, j, r_{i+1}, \ldots, r_{n}\right) \\
g_{i}^{\prime}(j) & =f_{i+1}^{\prime}\left(r_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, r_{i-1}^{\prime}, j, r_{i+1}, \ldots, r_{n}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $f_{i+1}$ is degree $d$ in variable $i$ and agrees with $g_{i}$ on $d+1$ places,

$$
\begin{aligned}
f_{i+1}\left(r_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, r_{i-1}^{\prime}, r_{i}^{\prime}, r_{i+1}, \ldots, r_{n}\right) & =g_{i}\left(r_{i}^{\prime}\right) \\
f_{i}\left(r_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, r_{i-1}^{\prime}, r_{i}, r_{i+1}, \ldots, r_{n}\right) & =\left(1-r_{1}\right) g_{i}(0)+r_{i} g_{i}(1)
\end{aligned}
$$

Then if

$$
f_{i}^{\prime}\left(r_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, r_{i-1}^{\prime}, r_{i}, r_{i+1}, \ldots, r_{n}\right) \neq\left(1-r_{i}\right) g_{i}^{\prime}(0)+r_{i} g_{i}^{\prime}(1)
$$

then the sum check will fail. So suppose they are equal.
Then because

$$
f_{i}\left(r_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, r_{i-1}^{\prime}, r_{i}, r_{i+1}, \ldots, r_{n}\right) \neq f_{i}^{\prime}\left(r_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, r_{i-1}^{\prime}, r_{i}, r_{i+1}, \ldots, r_{n}\right)
$$

either $g_{i}(0) \neq g_{i}^{\prime}(0)$ or $g_{i}(1) \neq g_{i}^{\prime}(1)$. In either case, $g_{i} \neq g_{i}^{\prime}$. Then by Schwartz-Zippel, the probability $g_{i}\left(r_{i}^{\prime}\right)=g_{i}^{\prime}\left(r_{i}^{\prime}\right)$ is at most $\frac{d}{|\mathbb{F}|}$.
So suppose $g_{i}\left(r_{i}^{\prime}\right) \neq g_{i}^{\prime}\left(r_{i}^{\prime}\right)$. Then if

$$
f_{i+1}^{\prime}\left(r_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, r_{i-1}^{\prime}, r_{i}^{\prime}, r_{i+1}, \ldots, r_{n}\right) \neq g_{i}^{\prime}\left(r_{i}^{\prime}\right)
$$

the sum check fails. So suppose they are equal. Then we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
f_{i+1}^{\prime}\left(r_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, r_{i-1}^{\prime}, r_{i}^{\prime}, r_{i+1}, \ldots, r_{n}\right) & =g_{i}^{\prime}\left(r_{i}^{\prime}\right) \\
& \neq g_{i}\left(r_{i}^{\prime}\right) \\
& =f_{i+1}\left(r_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, r_{i-1}^{\prime}, r_{i}^{\prime}, r_{i+1}, \ldots, r_{n}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

So by a union bound, the probability that we haven't failed by step $i+1$ and

$$
f_{i+1}\left(r_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, r_{i-1}^{\prime}, r_{i}^{\prime}, r_{i+1}, \ldots, r_{n}\right)=f_{i+1}^{\prime}\left(r_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, r_{i-1}^{\prime}, r_{i}^{\prime}, r_{i+1}, \ldots, r_{n}\right)
$$

is $\frac{n+d i}{|\mathbb{F}|}$.
Finally, for $i=n+1$, we know $f_{n+1}^{\prime}=f_{n+1}$, since they are equal to function $g$. So with probability at most $\frac{n(d+1)}{|\mathbb{F}|}$ has the sum check not failed.

Now we need a prover to actually carry out this protocol in small space. But this can be done following the expected definition for $f$ in the obvious way.

Lemma C.0.3 (Sum Check Proofs Require Low Space). Suppose $g: \mathbb{F}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$ has degree $d$ in each variable and can be computed in space $S$ and is 0 on Boolean inputs. Then for some $f: \mathbb{F}^{n} \times \mathbb{F} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$ so that for all $x \in \mathbb{F}, g(x)=f(x, n+1)$ and $f$ passes the degree $d$ sum check protocol with probability $1, f$ can be calculated in space $O(n \log (|\mathbb{F}|)+S)$.

Further, if $g$ has degree $d$ in variable $i$, so does $f$.
Proof. First, we define $f$ inductively in the usual way:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& f\left(\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right), n+1\right)= g\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right) \\
& f\left(\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right), i\right)=\left(1-x_{i}\right) f\left(\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{i-1}, 0, x_{i+1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right), i+1\right) \\
&+x_{i} f\left(\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{i-1}, 1, x_{i+1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right), i+1\right) \\
& f_{i}(x)=f(x, i) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Now one may observe that we didn't define $f$ for $i \notin[n+1]$. We can just assume they are all 0 for now, this will be addressed in our ePCP. Note this is the same $f$ used in Lemma C.0.2, so passes the sum check.

We can then rewrite each $f_{i}$ in a more convenient format of

$$
\begin{gathered}
f_{i}\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)=\sum_{y \in\{0,1\}^{n+1-i}} g\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{i-1}, y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n+1-i}\right) . \\
\prod_{j \in[n+1-i]} \operatorname{equ}\left(y_{j}, x_{i-1+j}\right) .
\end{gathered}
$$

This can be shown to be correct by induction. Then this can be calculated for any $f_{i}$ in a straightforward way keeping track of a constant number of field elements, and a pointer for $y$ and $j$, requiring only $O(n \log (|\mathbb{F}|))$ bits.

Given all of these, Lemma 5.3.1 follows.
Lemma 5.3.1 (Sum Check Protocol). Let $n, d \in \mathbb{N}$, and $\mathbb{F}$ be a field with $|\mathbb{F}|>(d+1) n$. Then there is some protocol, $A$, so that for any $f: \mathbb{F}^{n} \times \mathbb{F} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$ :

1. For some $m=O(n d)$ and $R=2 n$, there is a verifier $V: \mathbb{F}^{m} \rightarrow\{0,1\}$ and query function $Q: \mathbb{F}^{R} \times[m] \rightarrow \mathbb{F}^{n} \times \mathbb{F}$ so that

$$
A(f, r)=V(f(Q(r, 1)), f(Q(r, 2)), \ldots, f(Q(r, m)))
$$

2. $V$ runs in time $O($ ndpolylog $(|\mathbb{F}|))$ and space $O($ nd $\log (|\mathbb{F}|))$.
3. For any $r \in \mathbb{F}^{R}$, for $Q_{r}(i)=Q(r, i), Q_{r}$ is time $O(n d \mathbf{p o l y l o g}(|\mathbb{F}|))$ extrapolatable.
4. For any $r \in \mathbb{F}^{R}$, the last coordinate of $Q$ is always an element of $[n+1]$. That is, for all $i \in[m], Q(r, i)_{n+1} \in[n+1]$
Further, the last coordinate of $Q$ is only equal to $n+1$ at most $O(d)$ times.
Completeness For any $g: \mathbb{F}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$ where $g$ has max degree $d$ in any individual variable, if for all $x \in\{0,1\}^{n}, g(x)=0$, then there is some $f: \mathbb{F}^{n} \times \mathbb{F} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$ so that:

- For all $x \in \mathbb{F}^{n}$ we have $g(x)=f(x, n+1)$.
- Sum check succeeds on $f$ :

$$
\operatorname{Pr}_{r}[A(f, r)=1]=1
$$

- Function $f$ has degree at most $d$ in each of its first $n$ variables.
- If function $g$ is computable in space $S$, then function $f$ is computable in space $O(n \log (|\mathbb{F}|)+S)$.

Soundness for any $g: \mathbb{F}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$ where $g$ has max degree $d^{\prime}$, if there exists $x \in\{0,1\}^{n}$ such that $g(x) \neq 0$, then for any $f: \mathbb{F}^{n} \times \mathbb{F} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$ so that for all $x \in \mathbb{F}^{n}, g(x)=f(x, n+1)$, sum check fails with high probability:

$$
\operatorname{Pr}_{r}[A(f, r)=1] \leq \frac{\left(d^{\prime}+1\right) n}{|\mathbb{F}|}
$$

Proof. The verifier and query function are implicit in Definition 5.3.2. As are the verifier runtime, and where the queries are made. Extrapolatability of the queries is shown in Lemma 5.3.3. Completeness and soundness is shown in LemmaC.0.2. The low space in the completeness case is shown in LemmaC.0.3.


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[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ This comes from the case where PSPACE $\in \mathbf{P} /$ poly where Santhanam proves a similar result to Lemma 3.3.1 except $B(n)$ is a large (but known) polynomial, and $A(n)$ is some unknown polynomial.
    ${ }^{2}$ This constant $c$ comes from the overhead of reducing SPACE $\left[O\left(n^{k}\right)\right]$ problems to a PSPACE complete language (the one used in Lemma 3.2.1 specifically). Following standard reductions would put $c$ around 8 .

[^2]:    ${ }^{3}$ The PCP constructed by Holmgren and Rothblum was built to have no signalling soundness and has many steps that take longer than $\tilde{O}(\log (T))$ time to compute. Still, the basic elements of of their PCP needed for a standard PCP are computable in $\tilde{O}(n+\log (T))$ time.

[^3]:    ${ }^{4}$ More generally, if $A(n)$ is the minimum circuit size for $Y$, the MA verifier will run in time similar to $S(n)$ poly $\left(A^{-1}(S(n))\right)$. Since $A^{-1}(n)$ is not simple, we avoid proving a more detailed result here.

[^4]:    ${ }^{5}$ The $\log$ of the proof length of a PCP gives the length of a query to the prover.

[^5]:    ${ }^{6}$ Often, a dPCP will use list decodability, so that the $\mathbf{d P C P}$ can actually decode a symbol from a small list of solutions. We only discuss unique decoding.

