

Lecture 19

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1 Overview

Today we'll prove the parallel repetition theorem. The references are

1. Ran Raz 94 [1]
2. Holenstein: Simplified proof. [2]
3. Barak: Notes '09 [3].

[1] is the original paper, [2] provides a shorter proof, while the lecture mostly follows the exposition in [3]

2 2-prover-Game

Definition 1. A *2-prover game* is a 6-tuple $G = (X, Y, A, B, \mu, V)$, where μ is a distribution on $X \times Y$, and V is a verification function $V : X \times Y \times A \times B \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$. A strategy is $f : X \rightarrow A$ and $g : Y \rightarrow B$. The value of the strategy

$$\text{val}_{f,g}(G) = \mathbf{E}_{x,y \sim \mu} V(x, y, f(x), g(y))$$

Definition 2. One will define the k -fold repetition of a game G as

$$G^{\otimes k} = (X^k, Y^k, A^k, B^k, \mu^k, V^k)$$

where $V^k(\bar{x}, \bar{y}, \bar{a}, \bar{b}) = \bigwedge_{i=1}^n V(x_i, y_i, a_i, b_i)$.

3 Parallel repetition theorem

Theorem 3. (Ran Raz)

$\forall \varepsilon > 0, A, B$, exists $\delta > 0$ such that for all G, k

$$w(G) \leq 1 - \varepsilon \Rightarrow w(G^{\otimes k}) \leq (1 - \delta)^k$$

For the purposes of proving this lemma, define:

Definition 4. If one fixes strategy f, g , one defines W_S to be the event $\bigwedge_{i \in S} V(x_i, y_i, f(x_i), g(x_i)) = 1$.

We aim to prove the following lemma:

Lemma 5. For any $\varepsilon > 0, A, B$, there exists $\gamma > 0$ such that if $w(G) \geq 1 - \varepsilon$ then

$$\mathbb{P}(W_S) \leq 2^{-\gamma k} \text{ or there exists } i \notin S \text{ } \mathbb{P}(W_{\{i\}} | W_S) \leq 1 - \frac{\varepsilon}{100}$$

Remark

The parallel repetition theorem follows immediately from the lemma. As such, one keeps adding indices until the probability becomes low enough. If all the indices have been added, then a contradiction is reached, as at each step probability decreased by a factor of $1 - \frac{\varepsilon}{100}$.

Example 6. Let $X = \{1, 2\}$, $Y = \{3, 4\}$, $\mu \sim \text{Unif}(X \times Y)$, $A = B = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$. $V(x, y, a, b) = 1$ if $a = b$ and $b \in \{x, y\}$. Now, $w(G) = w(G^{\otimes 2})$ as we proved in the last class. Also, $w(G^{\otimes k}) \geq 2^{-\frac{k}{2}}$ by pairing coordinates.

The game is interesting because it provides intuition into the specifics of the theorem. First, it shows why $|S|\gamma k$ is necessary. This is because for a $2n$ -fold game, one can pair i and $n+i$ so that winning on the first n coordinates guarantees winning on the next n .

The second thing is that why can't one just induct on i from 1 to n and at each step extend $\{1, \dots, r\}$ to $\{1, \dots, r+1\}$ until the set becomes too big? This is again because if one pairs coordinates $2i+1$ and $2i+2$, if one wins on the first, then winning on the second is guaranteed.

3.1 Reduction

3.1.1 Intuition

We will first provide some intuition for the algorithm that will prove the lemma:

The proof will work by reduction. Consider $r = |S| + 1 = \gamma k + 1$. Take a copy of the game **Alice** $\leftarrow U$ and $V \rightarrow$ **Bob**. r will be assumed to be small compared to k , since one assumes a small γ . (since one is interested in small γ). We will be interested in acceptance in the k -fold version of this game. For simplicity, we will assume WLOG $S = \{1, \dots, r-1\}$. We are planning to inject U into coordinate r into X and V into coordinate r into Y . The argument needs one to pick $X_{<r}$ and $Y_{<r}$ so that we win on coordinates $s < r$. Choosing these coordinates creates conditioning on X_r, Y_r . Thus, we will be forced to condition on questions/answers. Turns out we will only be forced to conditions on answers on $s < r$. We will pretend for a little bit that $i = r$.

Next, one samples $X_{>r}, Y_{>r}$. The problem for sampling now is that there are too many coordinates. For practical purposes $\gamma k \approx k$. The strategy here will be following: We need a large portion of the space, as we know there are many points where we win the game. Conditioning on this would be too much as there are very few coordinates left. The solution comes from the fact that we don't have to win on coordinates $k > r$. So all we need is X_r, Y_r to be from the correct distribution roughly, i.e. μ^{k-r} (even conditioned on the first r coordinates), but we don't have to condition on $a_{>r}, b_{>r}$.

We would like to come up with $X_1, \dots, X_{k-1}, Y_1, \dots, Y_{k-1}$. We fixed f, g . We want $X_{<r}, Y_{<r}$ such that $V(X_j, Y_j, f(X^k)_j, g(X^k)_j) = 1$ for $j < r$ and $\mathbb{P}(V(X_r, Y_r, f(X^k)_r, g(X^k)_r)) \geq 1 - \frac{\epsilon}{2}$. Alice assumes answers are a_1, \dots, a_{r-1} . Bob assumes his answers are b_1, \dots, b_{r-1} . Fix also answers on the first $r-1$ coordinates. If one wants such a strategy, let $T_{>r}$ be the common randomness. $T_j = (0/1, x_j/y_j)$. The first coordinate tells whether we are sampling over the marginal distribution of x or y . With probability $\frac{1}{2}$, $T_j = (0, x_j)$ and with probability $\frac{1}{2}$, $T_j = (1, y_j)$. Here's how Alice will compute $X_{>r}$: Given $T_{>r}$, $X_j = x_j$ if $(T_j) = (0, x_j)$, and $X_j = X|_{Y_j=y_j}$ if $t_j = (1, y_j)$. If this wins the first $r-1$ coordinates accept, otherwise repeat. There is still randomness after T_j . The motivation for using T_j is that it gives common randomness. The procedure for sampling T will be a correlated sampling procedure. This is because they want to arrive at the same T , but there is difficulty in doing this directly from the fact that Alice conditions her T_j on x_j and Bob conditions on y_j .

Up until now we assumed looking at one r . But there is no reason to. One only needs to pick $i \in \{r, \dots, k\}$ such that conditional probability is small. What makes i good enough? Luck or careful examination? What should this i satisfy? Pick "typical" $X_{<r-1}, Y_{<r-1}, a_{<r-1}, b_{<r-1}$ (specify later). Let W be the event that the first $r-1$ questions are $X_{<r}$ and that they are $Y_{<r}$ and the first $r-1$ answers are $a_{<r}, b_{<r}$ respectively when $X_{<r}, Y_{<r}, a_{<r}, b_r$ are winning.

1. The first condition we would like is $(X_i, Y_i)|W \approx (U, V)$.
2. The second condition refers to $T_{>r} |_{W, X_i, Y_i}$. Neither Bob nor Alice can sample from this as they do not have access to X_i, Y_i respectively. The second condition we want is that $T_{>r}|_{W, X_r, Y_r} \approx T_{>r}|_{W, X_r} \approx T_{>r}|_{W, Y_r}$. We can now use correlated sampling.

3.1.2 Summary

Alice sets X_1, \dots, X_{r-1} as above. Next, she sample the remaining coordinates. First, she samples $X_{1,\dots,r-1}|W, X_{<r}$. Correlate this with $T_{>r}|W, Y_r$ which is what Bob will do. Having done this, they will complete $X_{r+1,\dots,X_n}|W$ and $Y_{r+1}, \dots, Y_r|W$. Resample if necessary. The claim is that probability of choosing a "good" i is high.

3.2 The reduction formally:

We summarize the reduction below:

Algorithm 1 Reduction

Pick $x_{<r}, y_{<r}, a_{<r}, b_{<r}$ typically.

Set $X_{<r} = x_{<r}, Y_{<r} = y_{<r}$.

Pick the correlators T_j defined above.

Let W be the event that $f(x_{<r}) = a_{<r}, g(y_{<r}) = b_{<r}$ and $W_{<r}$.

Alice computes $X_{>r}$ from T_r as described above.

Compute $f(X^k)_r, f(Y^k)_r$.

4 Aside

How do we prove a statement of the form the distributions "look the same"? Mostly through the following lemma:

Lemma 7. *If $(X_1, Y_1), \dots, (X_n, Y_n)$ are independent and E is some event of probability $\geq 2^{-d}$, then*

$$D((X^n, Y^n) | E) \leq d$$

Using independence,

$$\mathbf{E}_{i \sim \text{Unif}} D((X_i, Y_i) | E) \leq \frac{d}{n}$$

and so

$$\mathbf{E}_i(\delta((X_i, Y_i) | E, (X_i, Y_i))) \leq \mathcal{O}\left(\sqrt{\frac{d}{n}}\right)$$

References

- [1] Raz, R. (1998). A Parallel Repetition Theorem. *SIAM Journal on Computing*, 27(3), 763-803
- [2] Holenstein, T. (2007). Parallel repetition: Simplifications and the no-signaling case. *Proceedings of the Thirty-ninth Annual ACM Symposium on Theory of Computing*, 411-419.
- [3] Barak, B. (2009) <http://www.cs.princeton.edu/courses/archive/spr07/cos522/ho11.pdf>