

1 Pseudorandom Self-Reductions for NP-Complete 2 Problems

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11 — Abstract —

12 A language L is *random-self-reducible* if deciding membership in L can be reduced (in polynomial
13 time) to deciding membership in L for uniformly random instances. It is known that several “number
14 theoretic” languages (such as computing the permanent of a matrix) admit random self-reductions.
15 Feigenbaum and Fortnow showed that NP-complete languages are not non-adaptively random-self-
16 reducible unless the polynomial-time hierarchy collapses, giving suggestive evidence that NP may
17 not admit random self-reductions. Hirahara and Santhanam introduced a weakening of random
18 self-reductions that they called *pseudorandom* self-reductions, in which a language L is reduced to
19 a distribution that is computationally indistinguishable from the uniform distribution. They then
20 showed that the Minimum Circuit Size Problem (MCSP) admits a non-adaptive pseudorandom
21 self-reduction, and suggested that this gave further evidence that distinguished MCSP from standard
22 NP-Complete problems.

23 We show that, in fact, the Clique problem admits a non-adaptive pseudorandom self-reduction,
24 assuming the planted clique conjecture. More generally we show the following. Call a property of
25 graphs π *hereditary* if $G \in \pi$ implies $H \in \pi$ for every induced subgraph of G . We show that for *any*
26 infinite hereditary property π , the problem of finding a maximum induced subgraph $H \in \pi$ of a
27 given graph G admits a non-adaptive pseudorandom self-reduction.

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33 **1** Introduction

34 A language L is *randomly-self-reducible* if L admits a “worst-case” to “average-case” reduction
35 on the uniform distribution — that is, if we can reduce solving the problem on any worst-
36 case instance to solving the problem on uniformly-random instances in polynomial time.
37 For example, it was famously shown by Lipton [29] that the problem of computing the
38 permanent of a matrix admits a random-self-reduction. Many other central examples of
39 random-self-reducibility come from cryptography — such as the discrete logarithm and the
40 quadratic non-residuosity problems [1] — where it is typically exploited to strengthen several
41 cryptographic assumptions from average-case hardness to worst-case hardness without loss
42 of generality.

43 A central open question in complexity theory is whether or not any NP-Complete set
44 admits a random self-reduction [6, 14, 18]. This is closely related to the problem of whether or



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not the hardness of *distributional* languages in NP can be based on typical NP-Completeness assumptions (and, in particular, if “natural” NP-Complete problems are still hard over natural input distributions) [2]. Feigenbaum and Fortnow [13] famously showed that if an NP-Complete language is *non-adaptively* random-self-reducible (meaning that the queries to the random distribution must not be allowed to adaptively depend on earlier queries), then the polynomial hierarchy collapses to the third level. Feigenbaum and Fortnow’s result was improved by Bogdanov and Trevisan [8] to show that if an NP-Complete set is non-adaptively self-reducible to *any* polynomial-time sampleable distribution, then the polynomial hierarchy similarly collapses to the third level. Bogdanov and Trevisan’s result shows that if we can base the distributional hardness of an NP-language on standard worst-case NP-Completeness, then the reduction witnessing this theorem must be adaptive. Along these lines, it is important to mention recent work by Hirahara, which showed that showing that average-case hardness of NP *can* at least be based on *exponential* hardness of NP [20].

In a recent paper, Hirahara and Santhanam [21] introduced a generalization of random self-reducibility that they called *pseudorandom self-reducibility*; now, the algorithm that performs the reduction is allowed to reduce to a distribution that is *computationally indistinguishable* from the uniform distribution. Under standard cryptographic assumptions they showed that the *Minimum Circuit Size Problem* (MCSP) admits a pseudorandom self-reduction (and, furthermore, their reduction is easily seen to be non-adaptive). There is much other evidence indicating that any reduction that would prove MCSP is NP-Complete must be surprisingly different from “standard” reductions [4, 32, 22, 3], and so, comparing this with the prior results about random self-reducibility for NP, Hirahara and Santhanam suggested that their pseudorandom self-reduction for MCSP further distinguished it from other NP-Complete problems.

1.1 Our Results

In this work we show that, somewhat surprisingly, the classic NP-Complete Clique problem *does* admit a non-adaptive pseudorandom self-reduction under a non-uniform variant of *planted clique conjecture*. Let $G(n, p)$ denote the usual Erdős-Rényi random graph, and let $G(n, p, k)$ denote the distribution obtained by first sampling $G \sim G(n, p)$ and then choosing a random set of k vertices and planting a clique on those vertices.

► **Conjecture 1** (Non-Uniform Planted Clique Conjecture). *There is some $0 < \varepsilon_0 < 1/2$ such that, letting $k = n^{\varepsilon_0}$, for every sequence of polynomial-size circuits $\{C_n\}$*

$$\left| \Pr_{G \sim G(n, 1/2)}[C_n(G) = 1] - \Pr_{H \sim G(n, 1/2, k)}[C_n(H) = 1] \right| \leq \frac{1}{n}.$$

Our main result is the following (as the formal definition of a pseudorandom self-reduction is somewhat technical we refer the reader to Section 2):

► **Theorem 2.** *The Clique problem admits a non-adaptive pseudorandom self-reduction, assuming the Non-Uniform Planted Clique Conjecture.*

In fact, using our techniques, we can prove something a bit stronger. A *graph property* π is a set of graphs closed under isomorphism. A graph property π is *hereditary* if $G \in \pi$ implies $H \in \pi$ for each induced subgraph H of G , and it is *non-trivial* if both π and its complement are infinite. Consider the following decision problem:

► **Definition 3.** *Let π be an infinite, hereditary graph property. The π -induced subgraph problem, denoted π -SUB, is defined as follows. As input, we receive an undirected graph G ,*

88 as well as a positive integer k . The goal is to decide if G contains an induced subgraph H
 89 such that $H \in \pi$ and H has at least k vertices.

90 First, it is easy to see that the π -SUB is more general than the Clique problem, since the
 91 Clique problem is simply the case where π is the set of all complete graphs. The π -induced
 92 subgraph problem has been considered in several previous works [28, 11, 9, 30], where it
 93 was shown that it is NP-Complete and hard to approximate within a factor $n^{1-\varepsilon}$ for every
 94 infinite hereditary π . We show the following:

95 ► **Theorem 4.** *For every non-trivial, hereditary π , the π -SUB problem admits a pseudorandom
 96 self-reduction, assuming the Non-uniform Planted Clique Conjecture.*

97 To the best of our knowledge, this is the first worst-case to average-case reduction for
 98 any NP-Complete problem to a distribution that is “near” uniform, in any reasonable sense.
 99 However, as we will see next in our technical overview, our reduction relies crucially on
 100 some very special properties of the Clique problem (properties that are shared by the π -SUB
 101 problem), and because of this it appears to be difficult to extend it to other NP-Complete
 102 problems.

103 1.2 Technical Overview

104 We now sketch our reduction, specialized to the Clique problem. Our reduction relies crucially
 105 on the following special properties of the Clique problem that seem to distinguish it among
 106 NP-Complete problems:

- 107 ■ *Very Hard to Approximate.* Approximating the size of the largest clique in a graph is
 108 NP-Hard even within a multiplicative $n^{1-\varepsilon}$ factor for all $\varepsilon > 0$.
- 109 ■ *Small Value on Random Instances.* When $G \sim G(n, 1/2)$, then the size of the largest
 110 clique in G is $2 \log n$ (up to lower-order terms) with high probability (see e.g. [31]).

111 It seems that nearly all standard NP-Complete problems break one of these two require-
 112 ments. For instance, the *Colouring* problem is hard to approximate, but, random graphs
 113 require a large number of colours to properly colour. On the other hand, random instances
 114 of the MAX- k -SAT problem have been very well-studied and it is easy to find random
 115 instances (below the “SAT threshold”) which are easy to satisfy; but, it is well known that
 116 the MAX- k -SAT problem is easy to approximate by simply choosing a random assignment.

117 On to discussing our reduction for Clique. By standard hardness-of-approximation results,
 118 we can assume that the Gap-Clique promise problem — where we must distinguish between
 119 graphs containing cliques of size $n^{1-\varepsilon}k$ or graphs in which every clique has size at most k
 120 — is hard. Our reduction then proceeds as follows: we choose a random subset $U \subseteq V$ of
 121 vertices of G (say, of size n^{ε_0} for some appropriate constant ε_0) and randomize *all* edges with
 122 at most one endpoint inside of U . If G originally contained a large clique (of size $\gg n^{1-\varepsilon}k$),
 123 then a large portion of that clique will intersect U with high probability, and by using the
 124 fact that random graphs have very small cliques, it follows that solving the clique problem on
 125 the resulting graph will yield a good approximation to the size of the clique on the original
 126 graph G . Note here we have crucially used both properties (1) and (2) listed above.

127 The novel part of the reduction is proving that it is pseudorandom modulo the Planted
 128 Clique Conjecture. To do this we use the following “XOR-trick” (a form of this trick also
 129 played a role in the pseudorandom self-reduction for MCSP by Hirahara and Santhanam
 130 [21]). Suppose that the reduction was not pseudorandom, so that we obtain a sequence of
 131 graphs $\{G_n\}$ and a family of boolean circuits C_n such that C_n can distinguish between the

132 above “planted” distribution (obtained by taking G_n and randomizing all edges outside a
 133 random subset of vertices) and uniformly random graphs $G \sim G(n, 1/2)$. Using this family
 134 of circuits C_n we will construct a new family of circuits C'_n that can detect the existence of
 135 planted cliques in random graphs, violating the Planted Clique Conjecture. The new family
 136 C'_n is defined as follows: given a graph H as input, C'_n takes the XOR of the edge-set of the
 137 complement graph \overline{H} with the edge-set of G_n . If H was a uniformly random graph, then the
 138 result will be a uniformly random graph. If, however, H had a planted clique, then \overline{H} will
 139 have a planted independent set. Thus, taking the XOR of \overline{H} with G_n will result in a random
 140 graph with uniformly random edges except for a random subset of G_n . We can therefore
 141 apply the family of circuits C_n that differentiates between the “planted” distribution and
 142 uniformly random graphs and differentiate between planted cliques and random graphs.

143 Now that we have discussed our reduction, note that a worst-case to average-case reduction
 144 for any problem implies that an efficient algorithm solving the average-case problem also
 145 implies an efficient algorithm that solves the worst-case problem. Of course, approximating
 146 the value of the largest clique on a $G(n, 1/2)$ graph is actually *easy*: as we have discussed
 147 above, the size of the largest clique is $(2 - o(1)) \log n$ with high probability, and a simple
 148 greedy algorithm will find a clique of size roughly $\log n$ with high probability [26]. However,
 149 in our case, if the Planted Clique conjecture is true then this good approximation algorithm
 150 does not imply a good approximation algorithm for the Max-Clique problem as, intuitively,
 151 the pseudorandomness “fools” the polynomial-time algorithm into thinking that there is a
 152 clique of size $\approx 2 \log n$, when in fact the graph actually contains a much larger clique. On
 153 the other hand, if the Planted Clique conjecture is false, then a polynomial-time algorithm
 154 could perhaps distinguish the output graphs of the reduction from $G(n, 1/2)$, but, in order
 155 to solve Clique it must find a very large clique inside the randomly planted portion, which
 156 still could be a very hard problem.

157 1.3 Related Work

158 The *planted clique problem* is a well-studied problem in both complexity theory and algorithms
 159 that was introduced independently by Jerrum [24] and Kučera [27]; although, the hardness
 160 of finding cliques in random graphs was initially observed by Karp, who observed that there
 161 is no known polynomial-time algorithm finding cliques of size $\approx 2 \log n$ in random graphs
 162 [26], even though they exist with probability $1 - o(1)$. It is well-known that the planted
 163 clique problem can be solved by a quasipolynomial-time algorithm that simply enumerates
 164 all potential cliques of size $O(\log n)$. As for polynomial-time algorithms, a classic result due
 165 to Alon, Krivelevich and Sudakov [5] finds planted cliques of size $\Omega(n^{1/2})$ using semidefinite
 166 programming. The planted clique problem has also been used in prior works as a hardness
 167 assumption in complexity theory and cryptography (see, e.g. [25, 17]), and it is known
 168 to be hard to solve in both the Lovász-Shrijver and Sum-of-Squares convex programming
 169 hierarchies [12, 7].

170 There has been much work regarding the study of average-case self-reducibility of NP
 171 problems. Thanks to the *negative* results by Feigenbaum and Fortnow [13] and Bogdanov
 172 and Trevisan [8], the power of non-adaptive random reductions inside of NP is now fairly
 173 well understood: it is known that any such problem must lie in $\text{NP/poly} \cap \text{coNP/poly}$ [8].
 174 There have also been some *positive* results. Feigenbaum, Fortnow, Lund and Spielman
 175 showed that under plausible assumptions, there is a function in $\text{NP} \setminus \text{P}$ which is adaptively
 176 random-self-reducible but not nonadaptively random-self-reducible [14]. Hemaspaandra,
 177 Naik, Ogihara and Selman showed that if $\text{NP} \not\subseteq \text{BPE}$ then there is a set in $\text{NP} \setminus \text{BPP}$
 178 which is adaptively random-self-reducible, but neither nonadaptively random-self reducible

nor self-reducible [18]. Hirahara recently gave a worst-case to average-case reduction from the Minimum Time-Bounded Kolmogorov Complexity problem (MinKT) (which is widely believed to lie *outside* of NP) to a distributional problem inside of NP [19]. Another recent result of Hirahara shows that average-case hardness of problems in NP *can* be based on sufficiently strong exponential hardness of the closely related class UP [20]. We refer to Bogdanov and Trevisan [8] for an excellent (if somewhat dated) survey of the average-case complexity of NP, and to Hirahara [20] for a modern discussion of frontier open questions.

Worst case to average case reductions for problems in P were studied in [15]. They showed a subclass of problems in P which admit a random self reductions, such as counting the number of fixed-size cliques in a graph.

2 Preliminaries

If D is a probability distribution, we denote by $x \sim D$ an element sampled according to D . A promise problem is a pair $\Pi = (\Pi_{\text{YES}}, \Pi_{\text{NO}})$, where $\Pi_{\text{YES}}, \Pi_{\text{NO}} \subseteq \{0, 1\}^*$ and $\Pi_{\text{YES}} \cap \Pi_{\text{NO}} = \emptyset$. A language $L \subseteq \{0, 1\}^*$ is consistent with the promise problem $\Pi = (\Pi_{\text{YES}}, \Pi_{\text{NO}})$ if $\Pi_{\text{YES}} \subseteq L$ and $\Pi_{\text{NO}} \subseteq \bar{L}$.

In this paper, graphs are simple and undirected. Denote by $\mathcal{G}(n)$ the set of all graphs over n vertices. We assume that a graph G with n vertices is encoded using a binary string of length $\binom{n}{2}$. We denote by $\omega(G)$ the largest clique in G .

We borrow some definitions from [21].

► **Definition 5.** (*Indistinguishability*). Let \mathcal{C} be a (uniform or non-uniform) complexity class, and $\{D_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}, \{D'_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ two sequences of distributions such that for all n , D_n and D'_n are supported on $\{0, 1\}^n$. We say that $\{D_n\}$ and $\{D'_n\}$ are indistinguishable by \mathcal{C} , if for all $A \in \mathcal{C}$ and for all sufficiently large n ,

$$\left| \Pr_{x \sim D_n} [A(x) = 1] - \Pr_{x \sim D'_n} [A(x) = 1] \right| \leq \frac{1}{n}.$$

► **Definition 6.** (*Pseudorandom Self-Reducibility*, [21]). Let \mathcal{C} be a complexity class. Let $Q = (\Pi_{\text{YES}}, \Pi_{\text{NO}})$ be a promise problem, where $\Pi_{\text{YES}}, \Pi_{\text{NO}} \subseteq \{0, 1\}^*$, and let $L \subseteq \{0, 1\}^*$ be a language. Q is said to be pseudorandomly reducible to L with respect to \mathcal{C} if there are constants q, ℓ and polynomial time computable functions $g : \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^*$ and $h : \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^*$ satisfying the following conditions:

1. For every sequence $\{(x_n, i_n)\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ where $x_n \in \{0, 1\}^n$ and $1 \leq i_n \leq n^q$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, the distributions $\{g(i_n, x_n, U_{n^\ell})\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ and $\{U_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ are indistinguishable by \mathcal{C} .
2. For large enough n and for every $x \in (\Pi_{\text{YES}} \cup \Pi_{\text{NO}}) \cap \{0, 1\}^n$:

$$Q(x) = h(x, r, L(g(1, x, r)), L(g(2, x, r)), \dots, L(g(n^q, x, r))),$$

with probability at least $1 - 2^{-n}$ when $r \sim U_{n^\ell}$.

The reduction is non-adaptive if the later queries to random instances cannot depend on earlier queries to random instances.

2.0.0.1 Probabilistic bounds.

The Chernoff-type bound we use in this paper is stated below.

► **Theorem 7.** (*Chernoff's inequality*, [10]). Let $X = X_1 + \dots + X_n$ where X_i are independent random variables taking values in $\{0, 1\}$. Then

$$\Pr[|X - \mathbb{E}[X]| \geq \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}[X]] \leq 2e^{-\mathbb{E}[X]/16}.$$

223 In addition, we will need the following result by Hoeffding (Theorem 4 in [23]).

224 ► **Lemma 8.** *Let $S = (s_1, \dots, s_N)$ be a finite population of N real points, X_1, \dots, X_n denote*
 225 *a uniformly random sample without replacement from S and Y_1, \dots, Y_n denote a uniformly*
 226 *random sample with replacement from S . If $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous and convex, then*

$$227 \quad \mathbb{E}[f(\sum_{i=1}^n X_i)] \leq \mathbb{E}[f(\sum_{i=1}^n Y_i)].$$

228 Lemma 8 implies that we can use Chernoff's inequality for the random variables $\{X_i\}$, even
 229 though they are dependent¹.

230 **3 Non-uniform Planted Clique**

231 In this section we state our hardness assumption, which essentially says that polynomial size
 232 circuits cannot distinguish between a random graph, and a random graph with a planted
 233 clique of size n^{ϵ_0} , for some $\epsilon_0 \in (0, \frac{1}{2})$.

234 For a graph G and a parameter $0 < \epsilon < 1$, we define the distribution $P(G, \epsilon)$ by picking
 235 a random subset of vertices of G of size n^ϵ , keep the induced subgraph generated by this set,
 236 and randomize all edges not contained inside of G . Formally,

237 ► **Definition 9.** (*Planted Subgraph Distribution*). *Let $G = (V, E)$ be a graph with n vertices,*
 238 *and let $\epsilon \in (0, 1)$. The distribution $P(G, \epsilon)$ is defined to be the output distribution of the*
 239 *following algorithm. Start with the graph $G = (V, E)$. Then, pick uniformly at random a*
 240 *subset $S \subset V$ of vertices of size $\lceil n^\epsilon \rceil$. Output a graph $G' = (V', E')$ where $V' = V$ and*

$$241 \quad \Pr[\{u, v\} \in E'] = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} & \text{if } u \notin S \text{ or } v \notin S, \\ 1 & \text{if } \{u, v\} \in E \text{ and } u, v \in S, \\ 0 & \text{if } \{u, v\} \notin E \text{ and } u, v \in S. \end{cases}$$

242

243 Let $\{K_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ be the sequence of complete graphs over n vertices, and let $G(n, \frac{1}{2})$ be the
 244 uniform distribution over graphs with n vertices. Note that the distribution $P(K_n, \epsilon)$ is
 245 exactly the same distribution as $G(n, 1/2, n^\epsilon)$ (that is, choosing a random graph and planting
 246 a random clique the same as starting with a complete graph and randomizing all edges
 247 outside of random small set). The Planted Clique Conjecture states that there is a constant
 248 $\epsilon_0 \in (0, \frac{1}{2})$ such that there is no polynomial time algorithm that can distinguish between
 249 $G(n, \frac{1}{2})$ and $P(K_n, \epsilon_0)$ with high probability². In this paper we use a slightly stronger version
 250 of the Planted Clique Conjecture that requires hardness for polynomial-size circuits.

251 ► **Conjecture 10.** *There exists some $\epsilon_0 \in (0, \frac{1}{2})$ such that there is no sequence of polynomial*
 252 *size circuits $\{C_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ satisfying*

$$253 \quad \left| \Pr_{G \sim G(n, \frac{1}{2})} [C_n(G) = 1] - \Pr_{G' \sim P(K_n, \epsilon_0)} [C_n(G') = 1] \right| \leq \frac{1}{n}.$$

254

¹ Taking the function $f(x) = e^{tx}$, we get that $\mathbb{E}[\Pi e^{tX_i}] \leq \mathbb{E}[\Pi e^{tY_i}]$, where the random variables $\{Y_i\}$ are independent. Thus the Chernoff bound can be derived for the random variables $\{X_i\}$ as well.

² Some papers states this conjecture for all $\epsilon \in (0, \frac{1}{2})$, but for our purposes it is enough to assume the weaker version of the conjecture.

255 We observe that the non-uniform planted clique conjecture is equivalent to the following
 256 conjecture where we replace the sequence of graphs $\{K_n\}$ with *any* fixed sequence of graphs
 257 $\{G_n\}$.

258 ► **Conjecture 11.** *There exists some $\epsilon_0 \in (0, \frac{1}{2})$ such that for any sequence of graphs over n*
 259 *vertices $\{G_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$, there is no sequence of polynomial size circuits $\{C_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ satisfying*

$$260 \quad \left| \Pr_{G \sim G(n, \frac{1}{2})} [C_n(G) = 1] - \Pr_{G' \sim P(G_n, \epsilon_0)} [C_n(G') = 1] \right| \leq \frac{1}{n}.$$

262 ▷ **Claim 12.** Conjectures 10 and 11 are equivalent.

263 **Proof.** Clearly, Conjecture 11 implies Conjecture 10. We show the converse direction.

264 Assume by way of contradiction that Conjecture 11 is false, and we show that Conjecture
 265 10 is false. In particular, assume that there is a sequence $\{G_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ of graphs and a sequence
 266 $\{C_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ of polynomial size circuits, such that

$$267 \quad \left| \Pr_{G \sim G(n, \frac{1}{2})} [C_n(G) = 1] - \Pr_{G' \sim P(G_n, \epsilon_0)} [C_n(G') = 1] \right| > \frac{1}{n}.$$

268 Define the boolean circuit $C'_n(G) = C_n(G \oplus G_n \oplus K_n)$, where \oplus is the symmetric difference
 269 of edge sets of graphs. If $G \sim P(K_n, \epsilon_0)$ then $G \oplus K_n \oplus G_n$ is distributed according to
 270 $P(G_n, \epsilon_0)$, and if $G \sim G(n, 1/2)$ then $G \oplus K_n \oplus G_n$ is also distributed according to $G(n, 1/2)$.
 271 This implies that the sequence of circuits $\{C'_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ can distinguish between a random graph
 272 and a random graph with a planted clique of size n^{ϵ_0} , contradicting Conjecture 10. ◀

273 4 Self-Reductions for Clique

274 Before proving the general theorem, we demonstrate our method on the language CLIQUE:
 275 we show that CLIQUE is pseudorandomly self-reducible. Thanks to the hardness of ap-
 276 proximation results for CLIQUE [33, 16], it is enough to consider the promise problem
 277 GAP-CLIQUE $_{\beta}$, defined below.

278 ► **Definition 13.** *For $\beta \in (0, 1)$, define the promise problem GAP-CLIQUE $_{\beta} = (\Pi_{YES}, \Pi_{NO})$*
 279 *by*

$$280 \quad \Pi_{YES} = \{G : G \text{ is a graph with } n \text{ vertices and } \omega(G) \geq n^{1-\beta}\},$$

282 *and*

$$283 \quad \Pi_{NO} = \{G : G \text{ is a graph with } n \text{ vertices and } \omega(G) < n^{\beta}\}.$$

285 ► **Theorem 14** ([33]). *For any $\beta > 0$ the GAP-CLIQUE $_{\beta}$ problem is NP-Hard under*
 286 *polynomial-time many-one reductions.*

287 We proceed to stating the main theorem of this section, which shows that GAP-CLIQUE $_{\beta}$
 288 is pseudorandomly self-reducible. By combining this with the above NP-Hardness result
 289 and the fact that GAP-CLIQUE $_{\beta}$ is itself a subproblem of Clique we immediately obtain
 290 pseudorandom self-reducibility of Clique.

291 ► **Theorem 15.** *If the Planted Clique Conjecture holds, then for every $\beta \in (0, \epsilon_0)$, where ϵ_0*
 292 *is the constant from Conjecture 11, GAP-CLIQUE $_{\beta}$ is pseudorandomly self-reducible with*
 293 *respect to SIZE(poly).*

294 Before we prove the theorem, we will need the following lemma showing that if we take a
 295 graph with a large clique and choose a random subset of vertices U and randomize every
 296 edge with at most one endpoint in U , then the size of the largest clique will not be badly
 297 perturbed with high probability.

298 ► **Lemma 16.** *Let $G = (V, E)$ be a graph over n vertices and $\beta \in (0, \epsilon_0)$. Set $\delta := \epsilon_0 - \beta$. Let
 299 $P(G, \epsilon_0)$ be the planted distribution for G defined in Definition 9. Then, for large enough n :*

300 1. *If $\omega(G) \geq n^{1-\beta}$, then*

$$301 \quad \Pr_{G' \sim P(G, \epsilon_0)}[\omega(G') \geq \frac{1}{2}n^\delta] \geq 1 - 2e^{-\frac{n^\delta}{16}} = 1 - o(1).$$

303 2. *If $\omega(G) < n^\beta$, then*

$$304 \quad \Pr_{G' \sim P(G, \epsilon_0)}[\omega(G') < \frac{1}{2}n^\delta] \geq 1 - 2^{-\frac{1}{36}n^{2\delta}} = 1 - o(1).$$

306 **Proof.** We start by proving the first statement. Let G' be the graph obtained from G by
 307 $P(G, \epsilon_0)$, let S , $|S| = n^{\epsilon_0}$ be the set of vertices in G' preserved by $P(G, \epsilon_0)$, and let T ,
 308 $|T| \geq n^{1-\beta}$ be the set of the maximal clique vertices in G . We have,

$$309 \quad \Pr[\omega(G') \geq \frac{1}{2}n^\delta] \geq \Pr[|T \cap S| \geq \frac{1}{2}n^\delta].$$

311 For a vertex $v \in T$, define an indicator random variable X_v , such that $X_v = 1$ if and only
 312 if $v \in S$. Note that $\Pr[X_v = 1] = n^{\epsilon_0-1}$. We have,

$$313 \quad \mathbb{E}[|T \cap S|] = \sum_{v \in T} \mathbb{E}X_v \geq \frac{n^{1-\beta}}{n^{1-\epsilon_0}} = n^\delta.$$

315 By Lemma 8 we can use the Chernoff bound for the random variables X_v , even though they
 316 are dependent. Thus, for n large enough,

$$317 \quad \Pr[|T \cap S| < \frac{1}{2}n^\delta] \leq \Pr[|T \cap S| - \mathbb{E}|T \cap S| \geq \frac{1}{2}\mathbb{E}|T \cap S|]$$

$$318 \quad \leq 2e^{-\mathbb{E}|T \cap S|/16} \leq 2e^{-\frac{n^\delta}{16}}.$$

320 We move to the second part of the Lemma. Intuitively, with high probability, the largest
 321 clique in G' is of size at most $\omega(G) + 2 \log n$: on the set S of preserved vertices the largest
 322 clique is of size at most $\omega(G)$, and with high probability the largest clique outside S
 323 is roughly of size $2 \log n$. Thus, the probability that $\omega(G') \geq \frac{1}{2}n^\delta$ is tiny. We formalize this
 324 intuition. Denote by $G' \setminus S$ the induced subgraph obtained by removing the vertices in S
 325 from G' . For large enough n ,

$$326 \quad \Pr[\omega(G') \geq \frac{1}{2}n^\delta] \leq \Pr[\omega(G' \setminus S) \geq \frac{1}{2}n^\delta - n^\beta] \leq \Pr[\omega(G' \setminus S) > \frac{1}{3}n^\delta]$$

$$327 \quad \leq \binom{n}{\frac{1}{3}n^\delta} \frac{1}{2^{\binom{\frac{1}{3}n^\delta}{2}}}.$$

329 Using $\binom{n}{m} \leq n^m$ we get:

$$330 \quad \binom{n}{\frac{1}{3}n^\delta} \frac{1}{2^{\binom{\frac{1}{3}n^\delta}{2}}} \leq n^{\frac{1}{3}n^\delta} 2^{-\binom{\frac{1}{3}n^\delta}{2}} \leq 2^{-\frac{1}{36}n^{2\delta}}. \quad \blacktriangleleft$$

331 **4.0.0.1 Proof of Theorem 15.**

332 We show that there is a pseudorandom reduction from GAP-CLIQUE_β to CLIQUE . We
 333 need to define the functions h and g , as required by Definition 6.

334 **4.0.0.2 The function g .**

335 On input (i, G, r) , where $1 \leq i \leq n^q$, G is an encoding of a graph with n vertices, and r is a
 336 random binary string composed of n^4 blocks of size $\binom{n}{2}$ each, g uses the i 'th block of the
 337 random bits in r in order to sample a graph $G' \sim P(G, \epsilon_0)$, for ϵ_0 as in Lemma 16. Then, g
 338 outputs G' .

339 **4.0.0.3 The function h .**

340 The function h simply computes the majority of the queries g_i and answers accordingly.

341 We show that the functions h and g satisfy the requirements of Definition 6. We
 342 need to prove that the queries are pseudorandom, and that the reduction works with high
 343 probability. The fact that the queries are pseudorandom follows immediately from Conjecture
 344 11. Considering any G output by the function g the graph G' is distributed according to
 345 $P(G, \epsilon_0)$. By Conjecture 11 (which is equivalent to the Planted Clique Conjecture) the
 346 graph G' is indistinguishable from a uniformly random graph, and thus the queries are
 347 pseudorandom.

348 The reduction succeeds with high probability by Lemma 16 and a standard Chernoff
 349 bound argument.

350 **5 Self-Reductions for Hereditary Properties**

351 Instead of searching for the largest clique in a graph, we can search for the largest induced
 352 subgraph satisfying some property (e.g. largest planner subgraph, largest connected subgraph,
 353 etc.). Formally, a *graph property* π is a set of graphs, closed under isomorphism. A property
 354 π is *non-trivial* if both π and its complement are infinite. For a property π and a graph G ,
 355 denote by $\alpha_\pi(G)$ the size of the largest set of nodes inducing a graph in π . The promise
 356 problem for π is defined in the natural way,

357 **► Definition 17.** For $\beta \in (0, \epsilon_0)$, where ϵ_0 is the constant from Conjecture 11³, define the
 358 promise problem $\text{GAP-}\pi_\beta = (\Pi_{\text{YES}}, \Pi_{\text{NO}})$ by

$$359 \quad \Pi_{\text{YES}} = \{G : G \text{ is a graph with } n \text{ vertices and } \alpha_\pi(G) \geq n^{1-\beta}\},$$

360 and

$$362 \quad \Pi_{\text{NO}} = \{G : G \text{ is a graph with } n \text{ vertices and } \alpha_\pi(G) < n^\beta\}.$$

364 For which graph properties can the pseudorandom self reduction from the previous section
 365 work? A more careful look at the previous result shows that in order for the reduction to
 366 work, it is sufficient for the property π to satisfy:

³ We choose to address only the case where $\beta \in (0, \epsilon_0)$, since our reduction only works in this range.

367 1. *Stability.* A graph property π is stable if whenever a graph G has a “large” subgraph in
 368 the property π , then $P(G, \epsilon_0)$ also has a “large” subgraph in the property, where $P(G, \epsilon_0)$
 369 is the distribution defined in Definition 9. Formally,

$$370 \quad \alpha_\pi(G) \geq n^{1-\beta} \implies \Pr_{G' \sim P(G, \epsilon_0)} [\alpha_\pi(G') \geq \frac{1}{2}n^\delta] \geq \frac{2}{3},$$

372 where ϵ_0 is the constant from Conjecture 11, $\beta \in (0, \epsilon_0)$ and $\delta = \epsilon_0 - \beta$. Intuitively, it
 373 means that a “YES” instance is mapped to a “YES” instance.

374 2. *Non-density*⁴. For a graph property π , denote by $\text{gr}_\pi(n) := |\pi \cap \mathcal{G}(n)|$ the number of
 375 graphs over n vertices in the property. A graph property π is non-dense if there exists a
 376 constant $\epsilon > 0$ such that for large enough n

$$377 \quad \text{gr}_\pi(n) \leq 2^{(1-\epsilon)\binom{n}{2}}.$$

379 Intuitively, we need this requirement in order to make sure that in the process of
 380 randomizing “most” of the input graph, with high probability we did not create a large
 381 subgraph in the property. It means that a “NO” instance is mapped to a “NO” instance.

382 3. *Hard to Approximate.* The conditions above give a pseudorandom self reduction for the
 383 promise problem $\text{GAP-}\pi$. In case we want to obtain a pseudorandom self reduction for the
 384 language π -SUB mentioned in the introduction, we need to use hardness of approximation
 385 results.

386 We now characterize a family of graph properties satisfying the three above requirements.

387 ► **Definition 18.** *A graph property π is hereditary if whenever a graph G is in π , then every*
 388 *induced subgraph of G is also in π .*

389 ► **Theorem 19.** *Let π be a non-trivial hereditary graph property. Then π is stable, non-dense*
 390 *and hard to approximate.*

391 First, we sketch the proof that π is stable, as it is essentially the same as in the case of
 392 Clique.

393 **Proof.** Let π be a non-trivial hereditary graph property. Let G be a graph so that $\alpha_\pi(G) \geq$
 394 $n^{1-\beta}$, and let H be the largest subgraph of G in the property π . As shown in the proof
 395 of Lemma 16, with probability at least $1 - 2e^{-\frac{n^\delta}{16}}$, $G' \sim P(G, \epsilon_0)$ contains a subgraph of
 396 H with $\frac{1}{2}n^\delta$ vertices. Since π is a hereditary property, this subgraph is also in π , and so
 397 $\alpha_\pi(G') \geq \frac{1}{2}n^\delta$ with probability at least $1 - o(1)$. ◀

398 The hardness of approximation for non-trivial hereditary properties was proven by Lurid
 399 and Yannakakis [30], and was later improved by Feige and Kogan [11]. The result in [11] can
 400 be derandomized in the same manner as in [33] in order to obtain the following theorem.

401 ► **Theorem 20.** *For every nontrivial hereditary property π and for every $\beta > 0$, the π -SUB*
 402 *problem cannot be approximated within a factor of $n^{1-\beta}$, unless $P = NP$.*

403 Additionally, Bollobás and Thomason showed in [9, Theorem 8] that for a hereditary
 404 property π , if $\text{gr}_\pi(n) = 2^{c_n \binom{n}{2}}$ then c_n is monotonically decreasing, therefore the following
 405 result follows:

⁴ We call this “non-density” rather than “sparsity” since the level of density we can afford is really quite high!

406 ▶ **Theorem 21.** *Let π be a non-trivial hereditary property, then there exists some $\epsilon_1 > 0$*
 407 *such that for n large enough*

$$408 \quad \text{gr}_\pi(n) < 2^{(1-\epsilon_1)\binom{n}{2}}$$

410 *Thus, every non-trivial hereditary property is non-dense.*

411 To see why this requirement guarantees that a “NO” instance is mapped to a “NO”
 412 instance with high probability, observe the following claim.

413 ▷ **Claim 22.** Let π be a non-trivial graph property. Then for every $\delta > 0$,

$$414 \quad \Pr_{G \sim G(n, \frac{1}{2})} [\alpha_\pi(G) \geq n^\delta] = o(1).$$

416 **Proof.** Let $\epsilon_1 > 0$ satisfying $\text{gr}_\pi(n) \leq 2^{(1-\epsilon_1)\binom{n}{2}}$, then:

$$417 \quad \Pr_{G \sim G(n, \frac{1}{2})} [\alpha_\pi(G) \geq n^\delta] \leq \binom{n}{n^\delta} \frac{\text{gr}_\pi(n^\delta)}{2^{\binom{n^\delta}{2}}} \leq n^{n^\delta} 2^{-\epsilon_1 \binom{n^\delta}{2}} = o(1). \quad \blacktriangleleft$$

418 Therefore Lemma 16 still holds for *any* non-trivial hereditary property, and so for every
 419 non-trivial hereditary property the language π -SUB admits a pseudorandom self-reduction.

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