### Descriptive Complexity: Part 2

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# Outline

Lecture 1: Introduction to Descriptive Complexity.

- Proving inexpressibility in Logics.
- Characterizing complexity classes.
- FPC and the Cai-Fürer-Immerman construction.

*Lecture 2*: FPC and its connections with:

- circuit complexity
- extension polytopes
- hardness of approximation

# Review

**Fagin:** ESO = NP

**Immerman-Vardi:** FP = P on *ordered* structures.

We are building up tools for proving inexpressibility in ever more powerful logics.

We used *Ehrenfeucht games* to show that first-order logic cannot define *Evenness, Connectivity, 2-Colourability.* 

We used *pebble games* to show that FP cannot define *Evenness*, *Perfect Matchings*, *Hamiltonicity*.

We want to use games to show that FPC cannot define  $Solv(\mathbb{Z}_2)$ .

#### Constructing systems of equations

Take G a 4-regular, connected graph. Define equations  $\mathbf{E}_G$  with two variables  $x_0^e, x_1^e$  for each edge e. For each vertex v with edges  $e_1, e_2, e_3, e_4$  incident on it, we have 16 equations:

 $E_v: \qquad x_a^{e_1} + x_b^{e_2} + x_c^{e_3} + x_d^{e_4} \equiv a + b + c + d \pmod{2}$   $\tilde{\mathbf{E}}_G \text{ is obtained from } \mathbf{E}_G \text{ by replacing, for exactly one vertex } v, E_v \text{ by:}$   $E'_v: \qquad x_a^{e_1} + x_b^{e_2} + x_c^{e_3} + x_d^{e_4} \equiv a + b + c + d + 1 \pmod{2}$ 

*We can show*:  $\mathbf{E}_G$  is satisfiable;  $\tilde{\mathbf{E}}_G$  is unsatisfiable.

# Satisfiability

**Lemma**  $\mathbf{E}_G$  is satisfiable.

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by setting the variables x_i^e to i.
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**Lemma**  $\tilde{\mathbf{E}}_G$  is unsatisfiable.

Consider the subsystem consisting of equations involving only the variables  $x_0^e$ .

The sum of all left-hand sides is

$$2\sum_{e} x_0^e \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$$

However, the sum of right-hand sides is 1.

Now we show that, for each k, we can find a graph G such that  $\mathbf{E}_G \equiv^{C^k} \tilde{\mathbf{E}}_G$ .

### Counting Game

**Immerman and Lander (1990)** defined a *pebble game* for  $C^k$ . This is again played by *Spoiler* and *Duplicator* using k pairs of pebbles  $\{(a_1, b_1), \ldots, (a_k, b_k)\}$  on a pair of structures A and B

At each move, Spoiler picks i and a set of elements of one structure (say  $X \subseteq B$ )

Duplicator responds with a set of vertices of the other structure (say  $Y \subseteq A$ ) of the same size.

Spoiler then places  $a_i$  on an element of Y and Duplicator must place  $b_i$  on an element of X.

Spoiler wins at any stage if the partial map from  $\mathbb{A}$  to  $\mathbb{B}$  defined by the pebble pairs is not a partial isomorphism

If Duplicator has a winning strategy for p moves, then  $\mathbb{A}$  and  $\mathbb{B}$  agree on all sentences of  $C^k$  of quantifier rank at most p.

# **Bijection Games**

 $\equiv^{C^k}$  is also characterised by a *k*-pebble *bijection game*. (Hella 96). The game is played on graphs A and B with pebbles  $a_1, \ldots, a_k$  on A and  $b_1, \ldots, b_k$  on B.

- *Spoiler* chooses a pair of pebbles *a<sub>i</sub>* and *b<sub>i</sub>*;
- Duplicator chooses a bijection h : A → B such that for pebbles a<sub>j</sub> and b<sub>j</sub>(j ≠ i), h(a<sub>j</sub>) = b<sub>j</sub>;
- Spoiler chooses  $a \in A$  and places  $a_i$  on a and  $b_i$  on h(a).

*Duplicator* loses if the partial map  $a_i \mapsto b_i$  is not a partial isomorphism. *Duplicator* has a strategy to play forever if, and only if,  $\mathbb{A} \equiv^{C^k} \mathbb{B}$ .

### Equivalence of Games

It is easy to see that a winning strategy for *Duplicator* in the bijection game yields a winning strategy in the counting game:

Respond to a set  $X \subseteq A$  (or  $Y \subseteq B$ ) with h(X) ( $h^{-1}(Y)$ , respectively).

For the other direction, consider the partition induced by the equivalence relation

 $\{(a,a') \mid (\mathbb{A},\mathbf{a}[a/a_i]) \equiv^{C^k} (\mathbb{A},\mathbf{a}[a'/a_i])\}$ 

and for each of the parts X, take the response Y of *Duplicator* to a move where *Spoiler* would choose X. Stitch these together to give the bijection h.

### Cops and Robbers

A game played on an undirected graph G = (V, E) between a player controlling k cops and another player in charge of a robber.

At any point, the cops are sitting on a set  $X \subseteq V$  of the nodes and the robber on a node  $r \in V$ .

A move consists in the cop player removing some cops from  $X' \subseteq X$ nodes and announcing a new position Y for them. The robber responds by moving along a path from r to some node s such that the path does not go through  $X \setminus X'$ .

The new position is  $(X \setminus X') \cup Y$  and s. If a cop and the robber are on the same node, the robber is caught and the game ends.

### Cops and Robbers on the Grid

If G is the  $k \times k$  toroidal grid, than the *robber* has a winning strategy in the *k*-cops and robbers game played on G.

To show this, we note that for any set X of at most k vertices, the graph  $G \setminus X$  contains a connected component with at least half the vertices of G.

If all vertices in X are in distinct rows then  $G \setminus X$  is connected. Otherwise,  $G \setminus X$  contains an entire row and in its connected component there are at least k-1 vertices from at least k/2 columns.

Robber's strategy is to stay in the large component.

### Cops, Robbers and Treewidth

Actually, the cops and robbers game *characterizes tree-width*.

A connected graph G has tree-width  $\geq k$  if, and only if, robber has a winning strategy against a team of k cops on G.

### Cops, Robbers and Bijections

Suppose G is such that the *robber* has a winning strategy in the 2k-cops and robbers game played on G.

We use this to construct a winning strategy for Duplicator in the k-pebble bijection game on  $\mathbf{E}_G$  and  $\tilde{\mathbf{E}}_G$ .

- A bijection h: E<sub>G</sub> → E<sub>G</sub> is good bar v if it is an isomorphism everywhere except at the variables x<sup>e</sup><sub>a</sub> for edges e incident on v.
- If h is good bar v and there is a path from v to u, then there is a bijection h' that is good bar u such that h and h' differ only at vertices corresponding to the path from v to u.
- Duplicator plays bijections that are good bar v, where v is the robber position in G when the cop position is given by the currently pebbled elements.

### Restricted Graph Classes

If we restrict the class of structures we consider, FPC may be powerful enough to express all polynomial-time decidable properties.

FPC captures P on *trees*. (Immerman and Lander 1990).
FPC captures P on any class of graphs of *bounded treewidth*. (Grohe and Mariño 1999).
FPC captures P on the class of *planar graphs*. (Grohe 1998).
FPC captures P on any *proper minor-closed class of graphs*. (Grohe 2010).

In each case, the proof proceeds by showing that for any G in the class, a *canonical*, *ordered* representation of G can be interpreted in G using FPC.

# Beyond FPC

How do we define logics extending FPC while remaining inside P? FPrk is fixed-point logic with an operator for *matrix rank* over finite fields. (D., Grohe, Holm, Laubner, 2009)

*Choiceless Polynomial Time with counting* (CPT(Card)) is a class of computational problems defined by (Blass, Gurevich and Shelah 1999). It is based on a *machine model (Gurevich Abstract State Machines)* that works directly on a graph or relational structure (rather than on a string representation).

CPT(Card) is the polynomial time and space restriction of the machines.

Both of these have expressive power *strictly greater* than FPC. Their relationship to each other and to P remains unknown.

We need new tools to analyze the *expressive power* of these logics.

# Circuit Complexity

A language  $L \subseteq \{0,1\}^*$  can be described by a family of *Boolean* functions:

 $(f_n)_{n \in \omega} : \{0, 1\}^n \to \{0, 1\}.$ 

Each  $f_n$  may be computed by a *circuit*  $C_n$  made up of

- Gates labeled by Boolean operators:  $\land, \lor, \neg$ ,
- Boolean inputs:  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$ , and
- A distinguished gate determining the output.

If there is a polynomial p(n) bounding the *size* of  $C_n$ , i.e. the number of gates in  $C_n$ , the language L is in the class P/poly.

If, in addition, the function  $n \mapsto C_n$  is computable in *polynomial time*, *L* is in P.

*Note:* For these classes it makes no difference whether the circuits only use  $\{\land, \lor, \neg\}$  or a richer basis with *threshold* or *majority* gates.

# Circuits for Graph Properties

We want to study families of circuits that decide properties of *graphs* (or other relational structures—for simplicity of presentation we restrict ourselves to graphs).

We have a family of Boolean circuits  $(C_n)_{n \in \omega}$  where there are  $n^2$  inputs labelled  $(i, j) : i, j \in [n]$ , corresponding to the *potential edges*. Each input takes value 0 or 1;

Graph properties in P are given by such families where:

- the size of  $C_n$  is bounded by a polynomial p(n); and
- the family is uniform, so the function  $n \mapsto C_n$  is in P (or DLogTime).

#### Invariant Circuits

 $C_n$  is *invariant* if, for every input graph, the output is unchanged under a permutation of the inputs induced by a permutation of [n].

That is, given any input  $G: [n]^2 \to \{0,1\}$ , and a permutation  $\pi \in S_n$ ,

 $C_n$  accepts G if, and only if,  $C_n$  accepts the input  $\pi G$  given

 $(\pi G)(i,j) = G(\pi(i),\pi(j)).$ 

Note: this is not the same as requiring that the result is invariant under *all* permutations of the input. That would only allow us to define functions of the *number* of 1s in the input. This requirement is simply that the circuit recognises an

encoding-invariant graph property.

## Symmetric Circuits

Say  $C_n$  is symmetric if any permutation of [n] applied to its inputs can be extended to an automorphism of  $C_n$ .

*i.e.*, for each  $\pi \in S_n$ , there is an automorphism of  $C_n$  that takes input (i, j) to  $(\pi i, \pi j)$ .

Any symmetric circuit is invariant, but *not* conversely.

Consider the natural circuit for deciding whether the number of edges in an n-vertex graph is even.

Any invariant circuit can be converted to a symmetric circuit, but with potentially *exponential blow-up*.

### Logic and Circuits

Any formula of  $\varphi$  first-order logic translates into a uniform family of circuits  $C_n$ 

For each subformula  $\psi(\overline{x})$  and each assignment  $\overline{a}$  of values to the free variables, we have a gate. Existential quantifiers translate to big disjunctions, etc.

The circuit  $C_n$  is:

- of *constant* depth (given by the depth of  $\varphi$ );
- of size at mose c · n<sup>k</sup> where c is the number of subformulas of φ and k is the maximum number of free variables in any subformula of φ.
- symmetric by the action of  $\pi \in S_n$  that takes  $\psi[\overline{a}]$  to  $\psi[\pi(\overline{a})]$ .

# FP and Circuits

For every sentence  $\varphi$  of FP there is a k such that for every n, there is a formula  $\varphi_n$  of  $L^k$  that is equivalent to  $\varphi$  on all graphs with at most n vertices.

The formula  $\varphi_n$  has

- *depth*  $n^c$  for some constant c;
- at most k free variables in each sub-formula for some constant k.

It follows that every graph property definable in FP is given by a family of *polynomial-size, symmetric* circuits.

# FPC and Counting

For every sentence  $\varphi$  of FP there is a k such that for every n, there is a formula  $\varphi_n$  of  $C^k$  that is equivalent to  $\varphi$  on all graphs with at most n vertices.

The formula  $\varphi_n$  has

- *depth*  $n^c$  for some constant c;
- at most k free variables in each sub-formula for some constant k.

It follows that every graph property definable in FP is given by a family of *polynomial-size, symmetric* circuits in a basis with *threshold gates*.

*Note:* we could also alternatively take a basis with *majority* gates.

# Main Result

The following is established in (Anderson, D. 2017):

#### Theorem

A class of graphs is accepted by a *P*-uniform, polynomial-size, symmetric family of threshold circuits *if*, and only *if*, it is definable in FPC.

We could jut use *majority* instead of threshold gates. Or we could through in all *fully symmetric* Boolean functions.

We get a natural and purely circuit-based characterisation of FPC definability.

Inexpressibility results for FPC can be seen as lower bound results against a natural circuit class.

# Counting Width

For any class of structures  $\mathcal{C}$ , we define its *counting width*  $\nu_{\mathcal{C}} : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$  so that

 $\nu_{\mathcal{C}}(n)$  is the least k such that  $\mathcal{C}$  restricted to structures with at most n elements is closed under  $\equiv^{C^k}$ .

Every class in FPC has counting width bounded by a *constant*.

3-Sat, Hamiltonicity, 3-Colourability all have counting width  $\Omega(n)$ .

#### **FPC**-Reductions

We can define a notion of one class  $\mathcal C$  being FPC-*reducible* to another  $\mathcal D$ 

If  $\mathcal{C} \leq_{\mathsf{FPC}} \mathcal{D}$  then

$$\nu_{\mathcal{D}} = \Omega(\nu_{\mathcal{C}}^{1/d}).$$

If the reduction takes C-instances to D-instances of *linear size*, then

 $\nu_{\mathcal{D}} = \Omega(\nu_{\mathcal{C}}).$ 

Known linear lower bounds follow from  $\nu_{\text{Solv}(\mathbb{Z}_2)} = \Omega(n)$ .

# Linear Programming

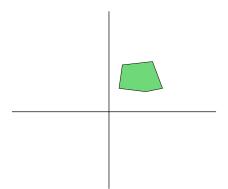
*Linear Programming* is an important algorithmic tool for solving a large variety of optimization problems.

It was shown by (Khachiyan 1980) that linear programming problems can be solved in polynomial time. We have a set C of *constraints* over a set V of *variables*. Each  $c \in C$  consists of  $a_c \in \mathbb{Q}^V$  and  $b_c \in \mathbb{Q}$ .

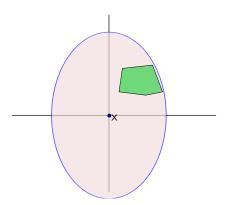
*Feasibility Problem:* Given a linear programming instance, determine if there is an  $x \in \mathbb{Q}^V$  such that:

 $a_c^T x \leq b_c$  for all  $c \in C$ 

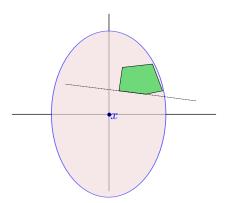
We can show that this, and the corresponding *optimization problem* are expressible in FPC.



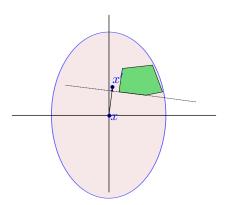
The set of constraints determines a *polytope* 



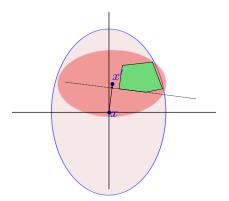
Start at the origin and calculate an *ellipsoid* enclosing it.



If the centre is not in the polytope, choose a constraint it violates.



Calculate a new *centre*.



And a new ellipsoid around the centre of at most *half* the volume.

# Ellipsoid Method in FPC

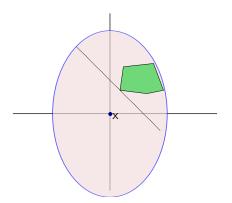
We can encode all the calculations involved in FPC.

This relies on expressing algebraic manipulations of *unordered* matrices.

What is not obvious is how to *choose* the violated constraint on which to project.

However, the ellipsoid method works as long as we can find, at each step, some *separating hyperplane*.

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This relies on expressing algebraic manilpulations of *unordered* matrices.

What is not obvious is how to *choose* the violated constraint on which to project.

However, the ellipsoid method works as long as we can find, at each step, some *separating hyperplane*.

So, we can take:

$$(\sum_{c \in S} a_c)^T x \le \sum_{c \in S} b_c$$

where S is the *set* of all violated constraints.

#### Separation Oracle

More generally, the ellipsoid method can be used, even when the *constraint matrix* is not given explicitly, as long as we can always determine a *separating hyperplane*.

In particular, the polytope represented may have *exponentially many* facets.

We can show that as long as the *separation oracle* can be defined in FPC, the corresponding *optimization problem* can be solved in FPC.

### Graph Matching

Recall, in a graph G = (V, E) a matching  $M \subset E$  is a set of edges such that each vertex is incident on at most one edge in M.

(Edmonds 1965) showed that the problem of finding a maximum weight matching in G = (V, E),  $w : \mathbb{Q}_{\geq 0}^{E}$  can be expressed as an exponential size linear program.

We can show that a *separation oracle* for this polytope is definable by an FPC formula interpreted in the weighted graph G.

As a consequence, there is an FPC formula defining the *size* of the maximum matching in G.

Note that this does not allow us to define an *actual* matching.

# Lift and Project Hierarchies

Given a *polytope*  $\mathcal{K}$  for *integer* optimization problem, we can get a better approximation of the *convex hull* of the integer points by means of *lift-and-project* programs.

The general idea is to add new variables  $y_{x_1,...,x_t}$  to denote the product  $x_1 \cdots x_t$  and add linear (or semi-definite) constraints to try and force this meaning.

We get hierarchies as t increases:

- Sherali-Adams:  $SA_t(\mathcal{K})$
- Lovasz-Schrijver:  $LS_t(\mathcal{K})$
- Lasserre:  $Las_t(\mathcal{K})$

Of these, the last is the strongest.

For many cases, we can show that the number of levels t required to get an exact soultion can be bounded by  $\Omega(\nu_{\mathcal{C}})$ .

## Hardness of Approximation

MAX 3SAT:

We are given a Boolean formula  $\varphi$  in 3CNF, i.e. a conjunction of clauses with three literals per clause.

Say  $\varphi$  has *n* Boolean variables and *m* clauses.

Let  $m^*$  denote the *maximum* number such that some assignment of values to the Boolean variables makes  $m^*$  clauses of  $\varphi$  true.

### Algorithmic Problems:

- Find an assignment of values to the variables that makes  $m^*$  clauses of  $\varphi$  true;
- *Determine* the value of  $m^*$ ;
- c-approximate m<sup>\*</sup> for some constant 0 < c < 1, i.e. give a value m' with a guarantee that cm<sup>\*</sup> < m' ≤ m<sup>\*</sup>.

### Lower Bounds

#### NP-completeness (Cook; Levin 1973):

Unless P = NP, there is no *polynomial-time algorithm* that can determine  $m^*$ .

#### PCP Theorem (Arora et al. 1998):

There is a constant c < 1 such that, unless P = NP, there is no *polynomial-time algorithm* that can *c*-approximate  $m^*$ .

(Håstad 2001): Unless P = NP, for every  $\epsilon > 0$  there is no *polynomial-time algorithm* that can  $(\frac{7}{8} + \epsilon)$ -approximate  $m^*$ .

Note: This is optimal since there is a trivial algorithm that can  $\frac{7}{8}$ -approximate  $m^*$ .

## MAX SNP

**(Papadimitriou-Yannakakis 1991)** define (in *syntactic terms*) a class MAX SNP of *NP optimization problems*.

For every problem in MAX SNP, there is a constant d such that there is a polynomial-time d-approximation algorithm.

They also define a notion of *approximation preserving reduction* under which MAX 3SAT is MAX SNP-*complete*.

It is a consequence of the PCP theorem that for every MAX SNP-complete problem, there is a constant c < 1 such that, unless P = NP, there is no polynomial-time *c*-approximation algorithm.

This poses a challenge for each problem in MAX SNP, to determine the best possible value of d.

## MAX 3XOR

We are given a Boolean formula  $\varphi$  in 3XOR, i.e. a conjunction of clauses each of which is the *exclusive* or ( $\oplus$ ) of three literals.

Say  $\varphi$  has n Boolean variables and m clauses.

Let  $m^*$  denote the maximum number such that some assignment of values to the Boolean variables makes  $m^*$  clauses of  $\varphi$  true.

- determining whether  $m^* = m$  can be done in polynomial-time, by Gaussian elimination;
- determining the exact value of  $m^*$  is MAX SNP-complete.

### (Håstad 2001):

Unless P = NP, for every  $\epsilon > 0$  there is no *polynomial-time algorithm* that can  $(\frac{1}{2} + \epsilon)$ -approximate  $m^*$ .

This is optimal since there is a trivial algorithm that can  $\frac{1}{2}$ -approximate  $m^*$ .

### Vertex Cover

In a graph G = (V, E),  $S \subseteq V$  is a *vertex cover* if each edge in E has at least one endpoint in S.

vc(G) is the *size* of the smallest vertex cover in G.

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(Dinur-Safra 2005):
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Unless P = NP, there is no polynomial-time algorithm that can approximate vc(G) up to a factor of 1.36.

Note 1: Since this is a minimization problem, the approximation ratio is a constant c > 1. Note 2: This has recently been improved to  $\sqrt{2}$  (Khot, Minzer, Safra 2018+).

There are polynomial-time algorithms that can approximate vc(G) up to a factor of 2.

#### Conjecture:

Unless P = NP, for every  $\epsilon > 0$  there is no polynomial-time algorithm that can approximate vc(G) up to a factor of  $2 - \epsilon$ .

# Methods

Say that a 3CNF formula is *c*-satisfiable if  $m^* > cm$ .

The proof of the PCP theorem gives (for some constant c) a reduction from 3SAT to itself which:

- maps a satisfiable formula to a satisfiable formula; and
- maps an unsatisfiable formula to one that is not *c*-satisfiable.

As a consequence, any class C of formulas that includes the satisifiable ones and excludes the ones that are *not* c-satisfiable, is NP-hard to decide.

The gap is amplified by further reductions, such as Håstad's long-code reductions.

In the case of 3XOR:

For any  $\epsilon > 0$ , any class C of formulas that includes the  $(1 - \epsilon)$ -satisifiable ones and excludes the ones that are not  $(\frac{1}{2} + \epsilon)$ -satisfiable, is NP-hard to decide.

## Results

For any  $\epsilon > 0$  there is no term of FPC which, interpreted in a 3CNF formula  $\varphi$ , defines a number guaranteed to be within  $\frac{7}{8} + \epsilon$  of  $m^*(\varphi)$ .

For any  $\epsilon > 0$  there is no term of FPC which, interpreted in a 3XOR formula  $\varphi$ , defines a number guaranteed to be within  $\frac{1}{2} + \epsilon$  of  $m^*(\varphi)$ .

There is no term of FPC which, interpreted in a graph G, defines a value guaranteed to be within a factor 1.36 of vc(G).

### New Challenges for Duplicator

The results are estabilshed by showing *definability gaps*:

If C is any class of 3CNF formulas that includes the satisfiable ones and excludes those that are not  $(\frac{7}{8} + \epsilon)$ -satisfiable, then C has counting width  $\Omega(n^{\delta})$  for some  $\delta > 0$ .

If C is any class of 3XOR formulas that includes the satisfiable ones and excludes those that are not  $(\frac{1}{2} + \epsilon)$ -satisfiable, then C has counting width  $\Omega(n^{\delta})$  for some  $\delta > 0$ .

# Initial Gap

Unlike the PCP theorem, we establish an initial gap for 3XOR:

If C is any class of 3XOR formulas that includes the satisfiable ones and excludes those that are not  $(\frac{1}{2} + \epsilon)$ -satisfiable, then C has counting width  $\Omega(n)$ .

We then *amplify the gap*, and extend it to 3SAT and *vertex cover* by means of *reductions* definable in *first-order logic*.

This involves showing that known polynomial-time reductions in the literature can be done in first-order logic.

## Gap Construction

The initial gap is established by a variant of the *Cai-Fürer-Immerman* construction.

For a set V of n variables, choose uniformly at random, a collection of m > n subsets  $\{x_1, x_2, x_3\}$  of V of three elements.

With high probability, the resulting bipartite graph has certain expansion properties.

Construct a system of equations  $x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = b$  where the left-hand sides are the chosen sets and b is 0 or 1 based on the toss of a coin.

With high probability, the system is not  $(\frac{1}{2} + \epsilon)$ -satisfiable.

The expansion properties guarantee that it is k-locally consistent for  $k = \Omega(n)$ .

A *CFI* construction on this then gives a system that is not  $(\frac{1}{2} + \epsilon)$ -satisfiable but  $\equiv^{C^k}$ -equivalent to a satisfiable one.

## Perspectives

FPC is a *subclass* of P that captures a natural notion of *symmetric algorithm*.

We are able to show both

- that powerful algorithmic techniques are expressible in FPC; and
- *unconditional* inexpressibility results for many problems.

The lower bound results reveal

- fundamental *structural* properties of the probems; and
- lower bounds on important algorithmic techniques.

## Pointers

For the classical material in Lecture 1, you may consult a textbook such as: L. Libkin, *Elements of Finite Model Theory*.

The recent work in Lecture 2 may be found in the following papers:

M. Anderson, A. Dawar:

*On Symmetric Circuits and Fixed-Point Logics.* Theory Comput. Syst. (2017)

M. Anderson, A. Dawar, B. Holm:

Solving Linear Programs without Breaking Abstractions. J. ACM (2015)

A. Dawar, P. Wang:

Definability of Semidefinite Programming and Lasserre Lower Bounds for CSPs. LICS 2017

A. Atserias, A. Dawar:

Definable Inapproximability: New Challenges for Duplicator. CSL 2018

A. Atserias, A. Dawar, J. Ochremiak:

On the Power of Symmetric Linear Programs. LICS 2019