

# CS244: THEORY OF COMPUTATION

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# Outline

## Advanced Topics In Complexity Theory

Approximation Algorithms

Probabilistic Algorithms

Alternation

Interactive Proof Systems

Parallel Computation

Cryptography

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  - ▶ For a **maximization** problem, a  **$k$ -optimal approximation algorithm** always finds a solution that is **at least  $\frac{1}{k}$  times the size** of the optimal

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- ▶ This algorithm is a **2-optimal** approximation algorithm

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- ▶ The **MAX-CUT problem** asks for a **largest** cut in a graph  $G$ .

## Theorem

*k-CUT problem is **NP**-complete.*

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- At every node  $v$  of  $G$ , the number of cut edges is at least as large as the number of uncut edges,  $|CutEdge(v)| \geq |UNCutEdge(v)|$ , otherwise *B* would have shifted the node  $v$  to the other side

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- ▶  $\sum_{v \in V} |CutEdge(v)| = 2|CutEdge|$ , because every cut edge is counted once for each of its two endpoints
- ▶  $|CutEdge| = \frac{\sum_{v \in V} |CutEdge(v)|}{2}$
- ▶  $\sum_{v \in V} |CutEdge(v)| \geq \sum_{v \in V} |UNCutEdge(v)|$
- ▶  $\sum_{v \in V} |CutEdge(v)| + \sum_{v \in V} |UNCutEdge(v)| = 2|E| \Rightarrow \sum_{v \in V} |CutEdge(v)| \geq |E| \Rightarrow |CutEdge| \geq \frac{|E|}{2}$

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# Probabilistic Algorithm

## Nature Perspective

“There are several reasons why **probabilistic programming** could prove to be revolutionary for machine intelligence and scientific modelling.”<sup>1</sup>

## REVIEW

doi:10.1038/nature14541

# Probabilistic machine learning and artificial intelligence

Zoubin Ghahramani<sup>1</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Zoubin Ghahramani leads the Cambridge Machine Learning Group, and holds positions at CMU, UCL, and the Alan Turing Institute.

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- ▶ A **probabilistic algorithm** is an algorithm designed to use the outcome of a random process, e.g., by “flip a coin”<sup>2</sup>

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- ▶ Certain types of problems seem to be more easily solvable by probabilistic algorithms than by deterministic algorithms
- ▶ How can making a decision by flipping a coin ever be better than actually calculating, or even estimating, the best choice in a particular situation?
- ▶ Sometimes, calculating the best choice may require excessive time, and estimating it may introduce a bias that invalidates the result

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# Sorting by flipping coins

## Quicksort:

```
QS(A) =  
  if |A| <= 1 { return A; }  
  i := ceil(|A|/2);  
  A< := {a in A | a < A[i]};  
  A> := {a in A | a > A[i]};  
  return QS(A<) ++ A[i] ++ QS(A>)
```

Worst case complexity:  
 *$O(N^2)$  comparisons*



## Randomised Quicksort:

```
rQS(A) =  
  if |A| <= 1 { return A; }  
  i := Unif[1...|A|];  
  A< := {a in A | a < A[i]};  
  A> := {a in A | a > A[i]};  
  return rQS(A<) ++ A[i] ++ rQS(A>)
```

Worst case complexity:  
 *$O(N \log N)$  expected comparisons*





# Monte Carlo: Matrix multiplication

**Input:** three  $N^2$  square matrices  $A$ ,  $B$ , and  $C$

**Output:** yes, if  $A \cdot B = C$ ; no, otherwise

- ▶ until end 1960s: cubic ( $= 3$ )
- ▶ 1969: 2.808
- ▶ 1978: 2.796
- ▶ 1979: 2.780
- ▶ 1981: 2.522
- ▶ 1984: 2.496
- ▶ 1989: 2.376
- ▶ 2014: 2.373
- ▶ 2100: ...

# Monte Carlo: Freivald's matrix multiplication

Input: three  $\mathcal{O}(N^2)$  square matrices  $A$ ,  $B$ , and  $C$

Output: **yes**, if  $A \times B = C$ ; **no**, otherwise



Deterministic: compute  $A \times B$  and compare with  $C$

Complexity: in  $\mathcal{O}(N^3)$ , best known complexity  $\mathcal{O}(N^{2.37})$

- Randomised:
1. take a random bit-vector  $\vec{x}$  of size  $N$
  2. compute  $A \times (B \vec{x}) - C \vec{x}$
  3. output **yes** if this yields the null vector; **no** otherwise
  4. repeat these steps  $k$  times

Complexity: in  $\mathcal{O}(k \cdot N^2)$ , with false positive with probability  $\leq 2^{-k}$

# Probabilistic Turing Machine

## Definition

A **probabilistic Turing machine**  $M$  is a type of **nondeterministic** Turing machine in which each nondeterministic step is called a **coin-flip step** and has two legal next moves. We assign a probability to each branch  $b$  of  $M$ 's computation on input  $w$  as follows. Define the probability of branch  $b$  to be

$$Pr[b] = 2^{-k}$$

where  $k$  is the number of coin-flip steps that occur on branch  $b$ .

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$$Pr[M \text{ rejects } w] = 1 - Pr[M \text{ accepts } w]$$

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For TM  $M$  of the language  $A$ , for every string  $w$ , we have

- ▶  $w \in A$  if  $M$  accepts  $w$
- ▶  $w \notin A$  if  $M$  rejects  $w$  or does not halt

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For **Probabilistic** TM  $M$  of a language  $A$  and a small probability of error  $0 \leq \epsilon < \frac{1}{2}$ , for every string  $w$ ,

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# Probabilistic Turing Machine

For TM  $M$  of the language  $A$ , for every string  $w$ , we have

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We may consider error probability bounds that depend on the input length  $n$ , e.g.,  $\epsilon = \frac{1}{2^n}$



# Bounded-Error Probabilistic Polynomial-Time (BPP)

Time and space complexity of a **probabilistic** Turing machine in the same way we do for a **nondeterministic** Turing machine: by using the **worst case computation branch** on each input.

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## Definition

**Bounded-Error Probabilistic Polynomial-Time (BPP)** is the class of languages that are decided by **probabilistic polynomial time** Turing machines with an error probability of  $\frac{1}{3}$ .

Note:  $\frac{1}{3}$  can be any bounded error  $0 \leq \epsilon < \frac{1}{2}$ .

# Bounded-Error Probabilistic Polynomial-Time (BPP)

## Lemma

*Let the bounded error  $0 \leq \epsilon < \frac{1}{2}$ . Then for any polynomial  $p(n)$ , a probabilistic polynomial time Turing machine  $M_1$  that operates with error probability  $\epsilon$  has an equivalent probabilistic polynomial time Turing machine  $M_2$  that operates with an error probability of  $\frac{1}{2^{p(n)}}$ .*

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Idea:

1.  $M_2$  simulates  $M_1$  by running it a **polynomial number of times** and taking the **majority** vote of the outcomes
2. The probability of error decreases **exponentially** with the number of runs of  $M_1$  made

# Proof

$M_2$  On input  $x$

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3. If **most** runs of  $M_1$  accept, then **accept**; otherwise, reject



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 Note: there are at most  $2^{2k}$  bad sequences

# Proof

- ▶ Let  $S$  be the sequence of stage 2,  $S$  has  $c$  correct results and  $w$  wrong results, then  $c + w = 2k$
- ▶ Let  $\epsilon_x$  be the probability that  $M_1$  is wrong on  $x$ , then  $0 \leq \epsilon_x \leq \epsilon < \frac{1}{2}$
- ▶ The probability that  $M_2$  obtains  $S$ :  $P_s \leq (1 - \epsilon_x)^c (\epsilon_x)^w$
- ▶  $0 \leq \epsilon_x \leq \epsilon < \frac{1}{2} \Rightarrow (\epsilon - \epsilon_x) \geq (\epsilon - \epsilon_x)(\epsilon + \epsilon_x) \Rightarrow (\epsilon - \epsilon_x) \geq (\epsilon^2 - \epsilon_x^2) \Rightarrow (\epsilon - \epsilon^2) \geq (\epsilon_x - \epsilon_x^2) \Rightarrow (1 - \epsilon_x)\epsilon_x \leq (1 - \epsilon)\epsilon$
- ▶ If  $M_2$  outputs **incorrectly** via  $S$  (called **bad**  $S$ ), then
  - ▶  $c \leq w \geq k$  and  $c \leq k$ ,  $P_s \leq (1 - \epsilon_x)^c (\epsilon_x)^w = (1 - \epsilon_x)^c (\epsilon_x)^c (\epsilon_x)^{w-c} \leq (1 - \epsilon)^c (\epsilon)^c (\epsilon)^{w-c} = (1 - \epsilon)^c (\epsilon)^w$
  - ▶  $\epsilon < (1 - \epsilon) \Rightarrow \epsilon^{c-k} \geq (1 - \epsilon)^{c-k} \Rightarrow \epsilon^{c-k} (1 - \epsilon)^k \epsilon^w \geq (1 - \epsilon)^{c-k} (1 - \epsilon)^k \epsilon^w \Rightarrow \epsilon^k (1 - \epsilon)^c \epsilon^w \geq (1 - \epsilon)^c \epsilon^w \geq P_s$
- ▶ Let  $k \geq \log_{4\epsilon(1-\epsilon)} 2^{-p(n)}$
- ▶  $Pr[M_2 \text{ outputs incorrectly on input } x] = \sum_{\text{bad } S} P_s \leq 2^{2k} \epsilon^k (1 - \epsilon)^k = (4\epsilon(1 - \epsilon))^k = (4\epsilon(1 - \epsilon))^{-p(n) \log_{4\epsilon(1-\epsilon)} 2} = 2^{-p(n)}$   
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- ▶  $Pr[M_1 \text{ accepts } w] \geq 1 - \epsilon \iff Pr[M_2 \text{ accepts } w] \geq 1 - 2^{-p(n)}$
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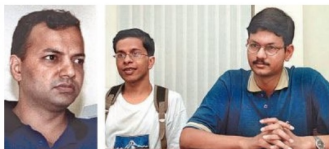
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We describe a much **simpler probabilistic polynomial time algorithm** for primality testing, in  $O(n^2)$ , with tiny error probability

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If  $p$  is *not* pseudoprime, it fails the Fermat for at least half of all numbers in  $\mathbb{Z}_p^+$ , i.e., for each randomly selected  $a \in \mathbb{Z}_p^+$ , the probability of  $a^{p-1} \equiv_p 1$  is at most  $\frac{1}{2}$ .

PSEUDOPRIME on input  $p$ :

1. Select  $a_1, \dots, a_k$  randomly in  $\mathbb{Z}_p^+$
  2. Compute  $a_i^{p-1} \pmod{p}$  for all  $1 \leq i \leq k$  [Mod exponentiation in **P**]
  3. If all computed values are 1, **accept**; otherwise, reject
- ▶ If  $p$  is **pseudoprime**, then  $\Pr[\text{PSEUDOPRIME accepts } p] = 1$
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### Corollary

*If  $p$  is an **odd** number and there exists a **nontrivial** square root (i.e., not  $\pm 1$ ) of 1, modulo  $p$ , then  $p$  is **composite** number.*

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  - ▶ if  $t^{s \times 2^{j+1}} \not\equiv_p 1$ , contradicts that  $j$  is the largest position having  $-1$

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PRIME on input  $p$ :

1. If  $p$  is even: **accept** if  $p = 2$ , otherwise **reject**;
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3. For each  $i = 1$  to  $k$ :
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If  $p$  is prime,  $\Pr[\text{PRIME accepts } p] = 1$ .

If  $p$  is not prime,  $\Pr[\text{PRIME accepts } p] \leq 2^{-k}$ ,  
i.e.,  $\Pr[\text{PRIME rejects } p] \geq 1 - 2^{-k}$ .

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RP is the class of languages that are decided by **probabilistic polynomial time TM** where inputs in the language are accepted with a probability of at least  $\frac{1}{2}$ , and inputs **not** in the language are **rejected** with a probability of 1.

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$COMPOSITES \in RP$  and  $PRIME \in coRP$



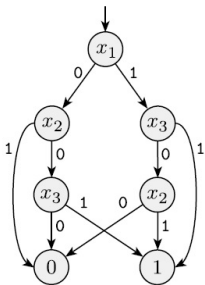
# Branching Program

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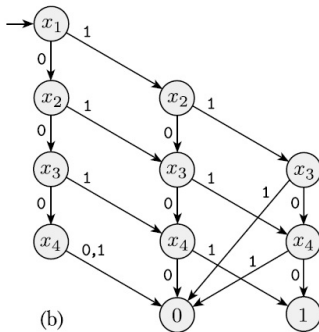
A **branching program** is a directed acyclic graph where all nodes are labeled by variables, except for two output nodes labeled 0 or 1.

The nodes that are labeled by variables are called **query nodes**. Every query node has two outgoing edges: one labeled 0 and the other labeled 1. Both output nodes have no outgoing edges. One of the nodes in a branching program is designated the **start node**.

$$f : \{0, 1\}^V \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$$



(a)



(b)

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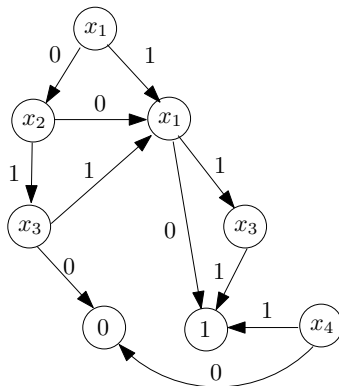
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2. This algorithm introduces the technique of assigning **non-Boolean values** to normally Boolean variables in order to analyze the behavior of some Boolean function of those variables

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# Read-once Branching Program

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$EQ_{ROBP}$  is in **BPP**.

Naive trial:

1. Randomly selects an assignment of variables and evaluate these branching programs on the assignment.
2. **Accept** if  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  agree on the assignment and **reject** otherwise.
3. However, there are  $2^m$  number of assignments ( $m$  denotes the number of variables), the probability that we would select that assignment is exponentially small.
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Randomly selecting a **non-Boolean assignment** to the variables, and evaluate  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  in a suitably defined manner.

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Randomly selecting a **non-Boolean assignment** to the variables, and evaluate  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  in a suitably defined manner. If  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  are not equivalent, the random evaluations will likely be **unequal**.

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$D$  on input  $\langle P_1, P_2 \rangle$ , two read-once BP over variables  $x_1, \dots, x_m$ :

1. Select elements  $a_1$  through  $a_m$  at random from a finite field  $\mathcal{F}$  with at least  $3m$  elements.
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4. For each node  $v$  of  $P_i$  in **topological order**:
5. Assign  $\sum_{(v', v) \in E_0} (1 - a_j) p(v') + \sum_{(v', v) \in E_1} a_j p(v')$  to  $v$ ,  
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This algorithm runs in **polynomial time** and decides  $EQ_{ROBP}$  with an error probability of at most  $\frac{1}{3}$ .

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- ▶ We assume that the polynomials can be transformed into this form, i.e., no  $y_j^i$  is 1.

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*Let  $\mathcal{F}$  be a finite field with  $f > 0$  elements, and  $p$  be a non-zero polynomial on variables  $x_1, \dots, x_m$ , where each variable has degree at most  $d$ . If  $a_1, \dots, a_m$  are selected randomly from  $\mathcal{F}$ , then*

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  - ▶ Either all  $p_i$  evaluate to 0. At least one  $p_j$  is nonzero, as  $p \neq 0$ . The probability that all  $p_i$  evaluate to 0 is at most the probability that  $p_j$  evaluates to 0. By the induction hypothesis, the probability that  $p_j$  evaluates to 0 is at most  $\frac{(m-1)d}{f}$  ( $p_j$  has at most  $(m-1)$  variables)
  - ▶ Or some  $p_i$  does not evaluate to 0, and  $a_1$  is a root of the single variable polynomial  $p_x$  obtained by evaluating  $p_0, \dots, p_d$  on  $a_2, \dots, a_m$ . The probability that  $p_x$  evaluates to 0 is at most  $\frac{d}{f}$ .
  - ▶ Then, the probability that  $a_1, \dots, a_m$  is a root of  $p$  is at most  $\frac{(m-1)d}{f} + \frac{d}{f} = \frac{md}{f}$

# Read-once Branching Program

## Lemma

*Let  $\mathcal{F}$  be a finite field with  $f > 0$  elements, and  $p$  be a non-zero polynomial on variables  $x_1, \dots, x_m$ , where each variable has degree at most  $d$ . If  $a_1, \dots, a_m$  are selected randomly from  $\mathcal{F}$ , then*

$$\Pr[p(a_1, \dots, a_m) = 0] \leq \frac{md}{f}$$

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$$\Pr[p(a_1, \dots, a_m) = 0] \leq \frac{md}{f}$$

Since  $f = 3m$  and  $d = 1$ , we have:

## Theorem

This algorithm runs in *polynomial time* and decides  $EQ_{ROBP}$  with an error probability of at most  $\frac{1}{3}$ .

# Outline

## Advanced Topics In Complexity Theory

Approximation Algorithms

Probabilistic Algorithms

**Alternation**

Interactive Proof Systems

Parallel Computation

Cryptography



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- ▶ Using alternation, we may **simplify various proofs** in time/space complexity theory and exhibit a surprising **connection** between the time and space complexity measures

# Alternating TM

## Definition

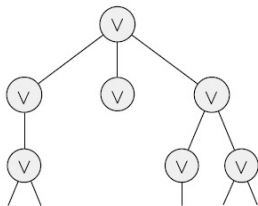
A **alternating TM** is a 7-tuple,  $(Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, \delta, q_0, q_{\text{accept}}, q_{\text{reject}})$ , where

1.  $Q$  is finite set of states such that  $Q \setminus \{q_{\text{accept}}, q_{\text{reject}}\} = Q_{\exists} \uplus Q_{\forall}$
2.  $\Sigma$  is a finite nonempty input alphabet not containing the blank symbol  $\sqcup$ ,
3.  $\Gamma$  is finite nonempty tape alphabet, where  $\sqcup \in \Gamma$  and  $\Sigma \subseteq \Gamma$ ,
4.  $\delta$  is a transition function

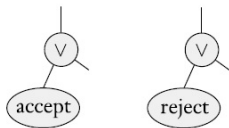
$$\delta : Q \times \Gamma \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(Q \times \{L, R\}).$$

5.  $q_0 \in Q$  is the start state,
6.  $q_{\text{accept}} \in Q$  is the accept state, and
7.  $q_{\text{reject}} \in Q$  is the reject state, where  $q_{\text{reject}} \neq q_{\text{accept}}$ .

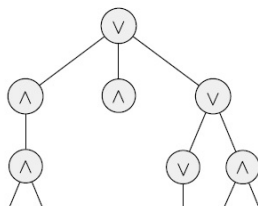
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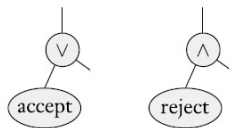
⋮



nondeterministic



⋮



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# Alternating Time and Space

**Time** and **space** complexity of these machines in the same way that we did for nondeterministic Turing machines: by taking the **maximum** time or space used by any computation branch.

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$$\mathbf{AP} = \bigcup_k \mathbf{ATIME}(n^k)$$

$$\mathbf{APSPACE} = \bigcup_k \mathbf{ASPACE}(n^k)$$

$$\mathbf{AL} = \mathbf{ASPACE}(\log n)$$

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$coNP \subseteq AP$ .

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It is not known whether MIN-FORMULA is in **NP** or in **coNP**

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Open problems: **NP** = **AP**? and **P** = **AP**?

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4. The total space is  $O(f(n))$ , but the total time is  $O(2^{f(n)})$

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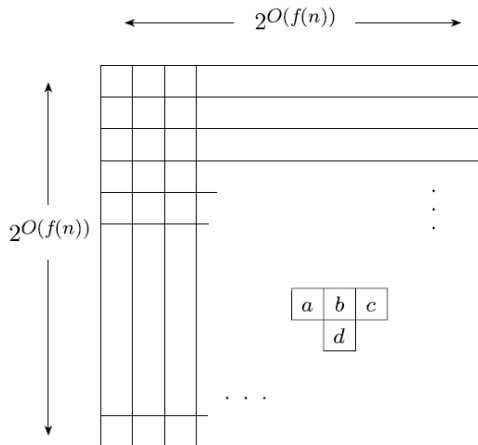
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We only need to store  $i, j, s$  which only need space  $O(f(n))$  using binary representation, time is still  $O(2^{f(n)})$



# Understanding Proofs

Target	Proof	Other side
$\mathbf{ATIME}(f(n)) \subseteq \text{SPACE}(f(n))$	post-order tree traversal tree depth = $O(f(n))$	$\text{TIME}(2^{f(n)})$
$\text{SPACE}(f(n)) \subseteq \mathbf{ATIME}(f^2(n))$	CANYIELD	$\mathbf{ASPACE}(f(n))$
$\mathbf{ASPACE}(f(n)) \subseteq \text{TIME}(2^{O(f(n))})$	graph traversal graph size = $O(2^{f(n)})$	$\text{SPACE}(2^{f(n)})$
$\text{TIME}(2^{O(f(n))}) \subseteq \mathbf{ASPACE}(f(n))$	CellCheck	$\mathbf{ATIME}(2^{f(n)})$

# Polynomial Hierarchy

## Definition

For every  $i \geq 1$  a language  $L$  is  $\Sigma_i^P$  if there is a polynomial time TM  $M$  and a polynomial time computable function  $q$  such that

$$x \in L \iff \exists u_1 \in \{0, 1\}^{q(|x|)} \forall u_2 \in \{0, 1\}^{q(|x|)} \dots \\ Q_i u_i \in \{0, 1\}^{q(|x|)} M(x, u_1, \dots, u_i) = \text{accept}$$

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$L \in \Sigma_i^P$  iff there is a  $\Sigma_i$ -alternating TM  $M$  such that  $M$  can decide  $L$  in polynomial time

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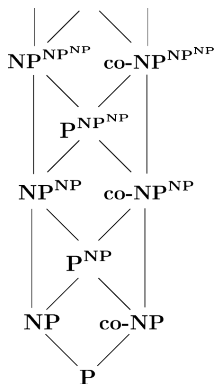
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Similar to the case  $i = 1$ , do it by yourself.

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For every  $i \geq 1$ , a language  $L$  is  $\Sigma_i^P$ -complete if

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$$TQBF = \{ \langle \varphi \rangle \mid \varphi \text{ is a true fully quantifier Boolean formula} \}.$$

## Theorem

*TQBF is PSPACE-complete.*

# Examples continued

► Define

$$\Sigma_i \text{SAT} = \{\exists x_1 \forall x_2 \cdots Q_i x_i \phi(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_i) = \text{true}\}$$

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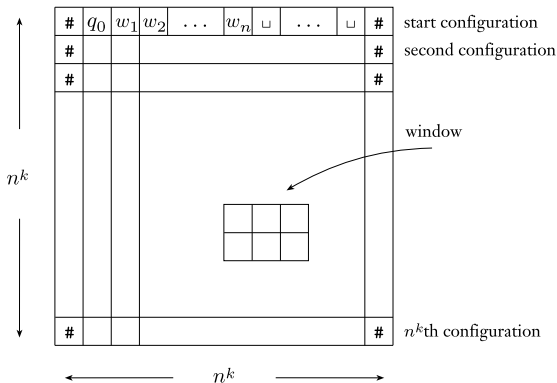
- ▶  $\Sigma_i\text{SAT}$  is  $\Sigma_i^P$ -hard.



# Recall: SAT is NP-hard

Let  $N$  be an NTM that decides a language  $A$  in time  $n^k$  for some  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ .

A **tableau** for  $N$  on  $w$  is an  $n^k \times n^k$  table whose rows are the configurations of the branch of the computation of  $N$  on input  $w$ .



$$\varphi_{\text{cell}} \wedge \varphi_{\text{start}} \wedge \varphi_{\text{move}} \wedge \varphi_{\text{accept}}.$$

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# Outline

## Advanced Topics In Complexity Theory

Approximation Algorithms

Probabilistic Algorithms

Alternation

**Interactive Proof Systems**

Parallel Computation

Cryptography



# Interactive Proof Systems

- ▶ Probabilistic polynomial time algorithms provide a probabilistic analog to **P**.

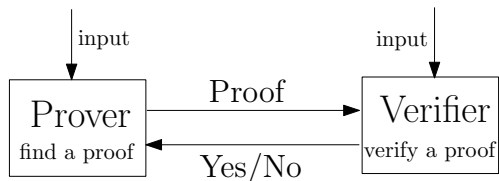
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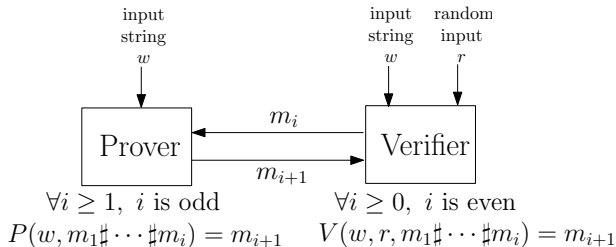
SAT problem



# Interactive Proof Systems

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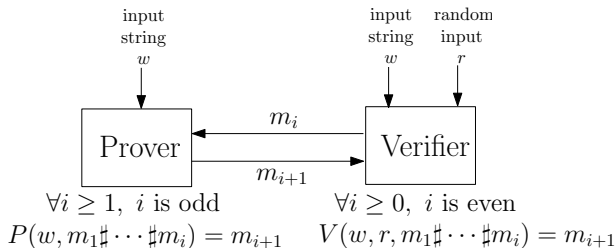
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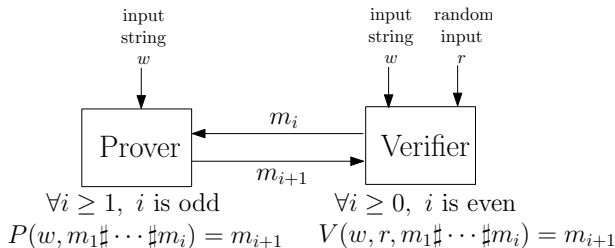


$(V \leftrightarrow P)(w, r) = \text{accept}$  for given input string  $w$  and random input  $r$ , if  $V$  outputs the accept message, i.e.,  $m_i = \text{accept}$  for some  $i$ .

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## Definition

A language  $A$  is in **interactive polynomial Time** (IP) if some **polynomial time computable function**  $V$  exists such that for **some (arbitrary) function**  $P$  and **for every (arbitrary) function**  $\tilde{P}$  and for every string  $w$  with length  $n$

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## Theorem

**NP**  $\subseteq$  IP and **BPP**  $\subseteq$  IP.



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Two graphs are **isomorphic** if they are same up-to node renaming

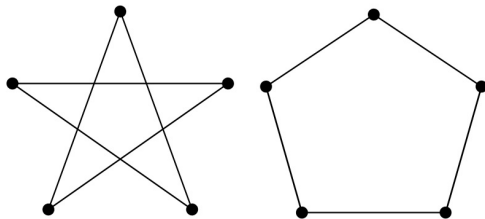
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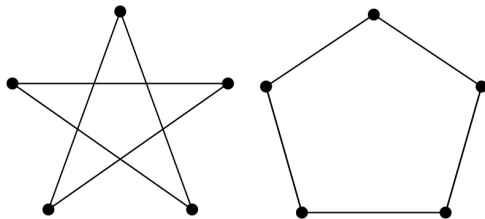


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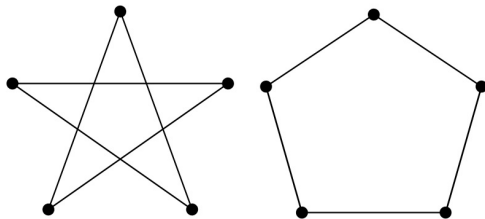
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Open problem: ISO is **NP**-complete or  $\text{ISO} \in \mathbf{P}$ ?

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  - ▶ The Verifier can repeat the above protocol in order to get the desired error probability

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- ▶ For any language in PSPACE, a Prover can convince a **probabilistic polynomial time Verifier** about the membership of a string in the language, even though a conventional proof of membership might be **exponentially** long
- ▶ Proof: read the textbook.



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# Parallel Computer

- ▶ A **parallel computer** is one that can perform **multiple operations simultaneously**
- ▶ Parallel computers may solve certain problems **much faster** than sequential computers, which can only do **a single operation at a time**
- ▶ Introduce the theory of parallel computation
  - ▶ describe one model of a parallel computer
  - ▶ give examples of certain problems that lend themselves well to parallelization
  - ▶ explore the possibility that parallelism may not be suitable for certain other problem

# Boolean Circuits

## Definition

A **Boolean circuit** is a collection of **gates** and **inputs** connected by wires. Cycles aren't permitted. Gates take three forms: **AND** gates, **OR** gates, and **NOT** gates

- ▶ The **size** of a circuit  $C$  is the number of gates that it contains
- ▶ The **size complexity** of a circuit family  $(C_0, C_1, C_2, \dots)$  is the function  $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ , where  $f(n)$  is the size of  $C_n$
- ▶ The **depth** of a circuit is the **length** (number of wires) of the **longest** path from an input variable to the output gate. **Depth minimal circuits** and **circuit families**, and the **depth complexity** of circuit families are similar

## Definition

The **circuit complexity** of a language is the **size complexity** of a **minimal** circuit family for that language.

The **circuit depth complexity** of a language is defined similarly, using **depth** instead of size.



# Uniform Boolean Circuits

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A family of circuits  $(C_0, C_1, C_2, \dots)$  is **uniform** if some log space transducer  $T$  outputs  $\langle C_n \rangle$  when  $T$ 's input is  $1^n$ .

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- ▶ A uniform family of circuits is a model of a parallel computer, where each gate to be an individual processor
- ▶ A language has **simultaneous size-depth** circuit complexity at most  $(f(n), g(n))$  if a uniform circuit family exists for that language with **size complexity**  $f(n)$  and **depth complexity**  $g(n)$

## Example

The  $m$ -input parity function  $\text{parity}_m : \{0,1\}^m \rightarrow \{0,1\}$  outputs 1 if an odd number of 1's appear in the input variables.

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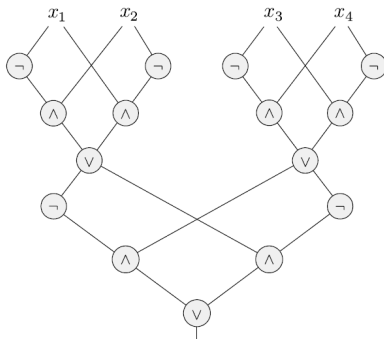
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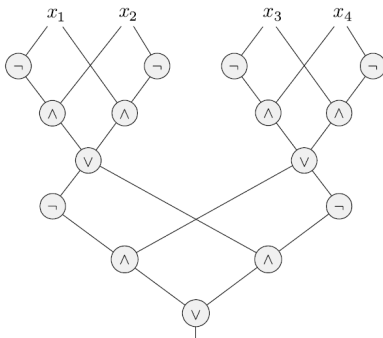
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The simultaneous size-depth circuit complexity:  $(O(n), O(\log n))$ , as each  $\oplus$  costs 5 gates



# Boolean Matrix Multiplication

- ▶ The input of Boolean matrix multiplication has  $2m^2 = n$  variables representing two  $m \times m$  matrices  $A = \{a_{ik}\}_{1 \leq i, k \leq m}$  and  $B = \{b_{ik}\}_{1 \leq i, k \leq m}$

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The **simultaneous size-depth** circuit complexity:  
 $(O(m^3), O(\log m)) = (O(n^{1.5}), O(\log n))$

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The  $NC^i$  computable or NC computable problems may be considered to be highly parallelizable with a moderate number of processors

Boolean Matrix Multiplication  $\in NC^1$



# Connection Between TM Space and Circuit Depth

## Theorem

$NC^1 \subseteq L$ , i.e., *problems that are solvable in logarithmic depth are also solvable in logarithmic space.*

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The depth of  $C_n$  is  $O(\log n)$ , therefore recursion depth is  $O(\log n)$ , hence space of  $M$

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- ▶  $C_n$  has polynomial size and  $O(\log^2 n)$  depth, see Theorem 8.25 ( $PATH$  is **NL**-complete) and Theorem 9.30 ( $TIME(t(n)) \Rightarrow$  circuit complexity  $O(t^2(n))$ ).

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A polynomial time algorithm can run the log space transducer to generate circuit  $C_n$  and simulate it on an input of length  $n$

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$$\mathbf{CIRCUIT-VALUE} = \{\langle C, x \rangle \mid C \text{ is a Boolean circuit and } C(x) = 1\}$$

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  - ▶ The reduction can be carried out in log space because the circuit it produces has a simple and repetitive structure.

# Outline

## Advanced Topics In Complexity Theory

Approximation Algorithms

Probabilistic Algorithms

Alternation

Interactive Proof Systems

Parallel Computation

Cryptography

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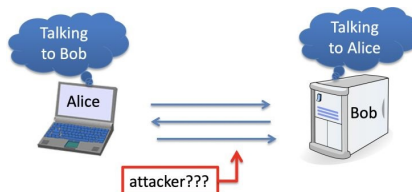
# Cryptography

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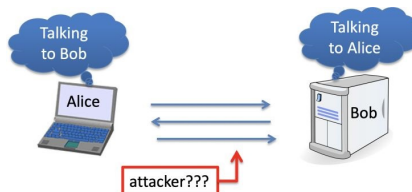
# The One Time Pad & Perfect Security



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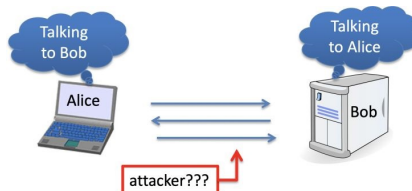


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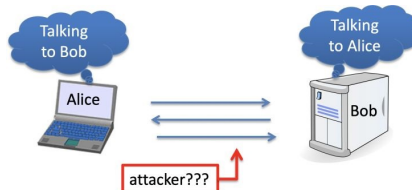
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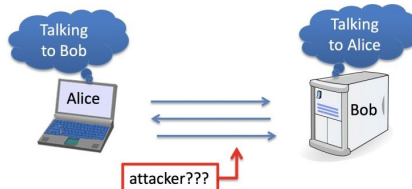
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- ▶ **Trapdoor functions**: allow us to construct public-key cryptosystems

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Note that  $M$  may sometimes fail to accept on input  $w$ :

$$\sum_{x \in \Sigma^*} Pr[M(w) = x] \leq 1$$

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For one-way permutations, any probabilistic polynomial time algorithm has only a small probability of inverting  $f$ ; that is, it is unlikely to compute  $w$  from  $f(w)$



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For one-way functions, any probabilistic polynomial time algorithm is unlikely to be able to find any  $y$  that maps to  $f(w)$ .

# One-way function: example

The multiplication function **mult** is a **candidate** for a one-way function.

## Definition

- ▶ Let  $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$ , for any  $w \in \Sigma^*$ , let  $\text{mult}(w)$  be the string representing the product of the first and second halves of  $w$ , i.e.,

$$\text{mult}(w) = u \cdot v$$

where  $w = uv$  such that  $|u| = |v|$  if  $|w|$  is even, and  $|u| = |v| + 1$  if  $|w|$  odd.

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Despite a great deal of research into the integer factorization problem, no probabilistic polynomial time algorithm is known that can invert **mult**, even on a polynomial fraction of inputs

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We don't know whether the existence of a one-way function alone is enough to allow the construction of a **public-key cryptosystem**

# Trapdoor function

- ▶ A family of functions  $\{f_i\}_{i \in \Sigma^*}$  can be represented by the single function  $f : \Sigma^* \times \Sigma^* \rightarrow \Sigma^*$  such that for every  $i \in \Sigma^*$  and  $w \in \Sigma^*$ :  
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The trapdoor function that underlies the well-known RSA cryptosystem.

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- The trapdoor function  $f$ :  $f_{N,e}(w) = w^e \pmod{N}$
- The inverting function  $h$ :  $h(d, x) = x^d \pmod{N}$

$$\begin{aligned} h(d, f_{N,e}(w)) &= (w^e \pmod{N})^d \pmod{N} \\ &= w^{de} \pmod{N} = w \end{aligned}$$