

Quantum computing and computational complexity

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March 16, 2022

Quantum computing advantages

Quantum computing in a nutshell

- A computing model where it is possible to act on a superimposition of exponentially many objects
- Measure only one of them after the computation

Goals of today (and next time)

- ① What is the set of problems where we actually improve efficiency?
 - And in which set is it actually worth doing so?
- ② What is the maximum known speedup w.r.t. classic computing?
- ③ What is the least guaranteed speedup w.r.t. classic computing?
 - and for which set of problems?
- ④ What is the link between classical randomized algorithms and quantum algorithms?

- ① Understand a quantitative framework to define classical complexity
- ② Understand classical complexity of nondeterministic computation
 - Will allow us to define boundaries for quantum computation
- ③ Understand classical complexity of probabilistic computation
 - Will allow us to define “the best classical mimics”
- ④ Understand quantum computation complexity

Our analytic tool: complexity theory

- Complexity theory is used to classify problems according to how expensive in time/space is solving them
- It allows to
 - Provide upper/lower bounds on the time taken to solve a given problem
 - Provide upper/lower bounds on the space taken to solve a given problem
 - Understand which problems can be mapped onto equivalents (reductions)
 - Prove substantial differences between set of problems (separations)

No possibility to perform better than $O(n \log_2(n))$ for ordering problems

There's an order relation of difficulties among problems \rightarrow Order implies also equivalence \Rightarrow We can make partitions among problems.

What is a problem? (for computational complexity theory)

*the description of a solution is just an encoded version of the input.
the solution itself is the description of the description.*

Definitions

- 1 A *problem* is a relation with both range and image $\subseteq \mathbb{N}$ (domain = codomain = \mathbb{N})
 - Analogously, range and image over sets of binary strings $\subseteq \{0,1\}^*$
- 2 *Total and computable* relation \rightarrow a **finitely described** algorithm **written before seeing the input**, computes its output (=image element) in **finite** time for any input(=range element) for a relation where domain and range coincide
- 3 Usually, we consider monodrome relations: $\exists! y \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $x \mapsto y$,

\hookrightarrow We consider total relations \leftarrow same domain and Range

Taxonomy

- **Search problem**: given an input x to a problem $f(x)$, find $y = f(x)$, $y \in \mathbb{N}$.
 - E.g.: compute the square of x , compute $x.x$ (x concatenated to itself)
- **Decision problem**: given x decide if x abides to some property $f(x) : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \{0,1\}$.
 - E.g.: Is x a perfect square? Is x a palindrome?

Computation model

- A k -tapes ($k > 0$) Turing Machine or a RAM machine is used as a computation model
 - The speedup thm states that changing tape encoding or number of tapes yields at most a multiplicative constant change in complexity
 - Moving from TM to RAM does not “change significantly” results
 - A bridge to the circuit complexity is a TM printing at runtime fixed input circuit solving the problem for the given input
- We evaluate the computation complexity as a function of the **input length** n
 - If the input is a binary encoded integer x , the complexity will be a function of $\lceil \log_2(x + 1) \rceil$
 - Sometimes a unary encoding of the input integer x is used. In that case, the complexity will be a function of x
 - If the input is a Boolean string s the complexity is a function of $|s|$

Complexity classes

Temporal complexity definitions

- $\text{DTIME}(f(n))$: the set of problems for which a **Deterministic TM** takes $f(n)$ transitions (a.k.a, steps, moves) to compute the solution *A form of parallel computation.*
- $\text{NTIME}(f(n))$: the set of problems for which a **Non-Deterministic TM** takes $f(n)$ moves to compute the solution of a problem in $\text{NTIME}(f(n))$
 - Recall: a ND-TM is a TM which, if multiple transitions are possible, it computes all of them simultaneously. Its configuration is represented by a set of D-TM configurations of the active computations
- $\text{DTIME}(f(n)) \subseteq \text{NTIME}(f(n))$, but it is not always known if the inclusion is proper for a given $f(n)$ (notable exception $\text{DTIME}(\mathcal{O}(n)) \subsetneq \text{NTIME}(\mathcal{O}(n))$) *Each problem solved by a DTM in linear time, can be computed by an NTM in same time.*
- Trivially, $\text{NTIME}(f(n)) \subseteq \text{DTIME}(c^{f(n)})$ for a constant $c > 1$ *↳ Put time for other complexities. ↳ We have no clue for that.*
 - ↳ This can be achieved through computing all the possible paths.

Spatial complexity definitions

- The definitions of $\text{DSPACE}(f(n))$, $\text{NSPACE}(f(n))$ are analogous to the ones of $\text{DTIME}(f(n))$ and $\text{NTIME}(f(n))$
 - replace the number of transitions with the number of tape slots written
 - for a k tapes TM, it is customary to pick the sum of the space consumption among the k memory tapes
- The input value size is conventionally not counted in the space consumption
 - It would be impossible to have sub-linear space complexity
 - Notable exception: single tape TMs ($\neq k = 1$ tapes TMs)
- Notable result 1: $\text{DTIME}(f(n)) \subsetneq \text{DSPACE}(f(n))$ in [7]
- Notable result 2: $\text{DSPACE}(f(n)) \subsetneq \text{DSPACE}(f(n) \log(f(n)))$ in [9]

Deterministic complexity classes

Notable deterministic time complexity classes

- $P = \bigcup_{i \geq 1} \text{DTIME}(n^i)$, $i \in \mathbb{N}$: “practically treatable” for any n
- $\text{PSPACE} = \bigcup_{i \geq 1} \text{DSpace}(n^i)$, $i \in \mathbb{N}$: usually **not** practically tractable
 - Find the optimal chess strategy (the number of moves to finish a game is polynomial)
- $\text{EXP} = \bigcup_{i \geq 1} \text{DTIME}(2^{n^i})$, $i \in \mathbb{N}$ a.k.a. EXPTIME never practically treatable for large n

Time hierarchy theorem [6]

- Statement: $\text{DTIME}\left(o\left(\frac{f(n)}{\log(f(n))}\right)\right) \subsetneq \text{DTIME}(f(n))$
- Given $f(n)$, we can always build a problem $\notin \text{DTIME}(f(n))$
- $P \subsetneq \text{EXP}$

Nondeterministic Polynomial time (NP) class

Definition

It is possible to define the NP class in two ways

- ① $NP = \bigcup_{i \geq 1} NTIME(n^i), i \in \mathbb{N}$
- ② Problems for which a **deterministic** TM verifies that a solution is ok, in polynomial time
 - ex. for decision problems: there is a deterministic TM which, given an element making the ND-TM accept, tests that it is actually one of the elements which should make the ND-TM accept

Example

State if a labyrinth (maze) has an exit, without a top-down map:

- ① A non-deterministic TM will find the poly-length exiting path, if any, taking all the branches in parallel
- ② A deterministic TM, given the path, will verify that it actually exits from the labyrinth through walking through it

Notable inclusions and open problems

$$P \subseteq NP \subseteq PSPACE \subsetneq EXP \quad \text{and, we know, } P \subsetneq EXP$$

- $P \subseteq NP$ is simple: the ND-TM emulates a D-TM without any overhead
- $NP \subseteq PSPACE$: A backtracking algorithm, given arbitrary time and polyspace emulates any ND-TM computing an NP problem in poly space
- $PSPACE \subsetneq EXP$: A TM can easily enumerate all configurations taken by one solving a PSPACE problem in exponential time. The converse is not possible.
- The open question: $P \stackrel{?}{=} NP$ Likely answer: No.
 - In case $P = NP$, would it give $P \stackrel{?}{=} PSPACE$: Likely no.

Computational reductions

A tool for problem comparison

- Given two computable problems, A and B , we say that A reduces to B if, taking for granted a solver M_B for B we can build a solver M_A for A
- Operatively, we assume that M_A invokes M_B as a subprocedure
- We can state:
 - A cannot be “harder to solve” than B
 - B can be “harder to solve” than A
 - Therefore, $A \leq^T B$ (where T reminds it's a Turing reduction)

Complexity preserving (poly time, log space) reductions, a.k.a. P Cook reductions

- To have reductions “preserve” the computational complexity (denoted as \leq_p^T):
 - M_A makes a poly number of calls to M_B
 - M_A uses at most $\mathcal{O}(\log(n))$ extra space
- A P Cook reduction making a single call to M_B is known as a Karp reduction

Polynomial equivalence

- Consider two problems A and B for which both $A \leq_p^T B$ and $B \leq_p^T A$ hold
- A and B are said to be polynomially (computationally) equivalent
 - If a solver for A is found, it is "practical" to solve B too and vice versa
 - Direct consequence: if either problem is $\in P$, so is the other

Examples

- Multiplying two integers is polynomially equivalent to adding them
- The inner product of vectors is polynomially equivalent to multiplying matrices

Computational classes as equivalence classes

CLASS-hardness

- Given a complexity class CLASS and a generic problem B , B is CLASS-hard iff:
 - For any problem $A \in \text{CLASS}$ we have that A reduces to B , i.e., $A \leq_p^T B$
 - Solving a CLASS-hard problem solves with extra poly effort all the problems in CLASS

CLASS-completeness

- Given a complexity class CLASS and a problem B , B is CLASS-complete iff:
 - Both $B \in \text{CLASS}$ and B is CLASS-hard
- CLASS-complete problems are the “computationally hardest” ones within a class
- The nature of a CLASS-complete problem “fully describes” the other problems in the class

CLASS-complete problem examples

P-completeness examples

- The canonical P complete problem is: compute the evaluation of a Boolean circuit (n) inputs

NP-completeness examples

- SAT: Given a generic n variables Boolean formula, state if there is an assignment making the formula true [4]
- Many natural problems are \in NPC: graph colorability, existence of an Hamiltonian cycle [8]

PSPACE-completeness examples

- Quantified SAT: Given a n variables Boolean formula with universal and existential quantifiers, is it true?

A taxonomy in NP – Assuming $P \neq NP$

NP-Hard problems

Any problem such that I can poly reduce to it any problem in NP. Note, there may be search problems in this set: e.g., Traveling salesperson, generic Integer Linear Programming

NP-intermediate: $NP \setminus (NPC \cup P)$

- This class is non empty if $P \neq NP$, has infinite hierarchy inside
- Some of its problems have sub-exponential solutions
- Conjectured members:
 - (decision-)Factoring $\in DTIME\left(\mathcal{O}(e^{(c+o(1))n^{\frac{1}{3}} \log(n)^{\frac{2}{3}}})\right)$, (decision)-discrete logarithms
 - Graph isomorphism (proven in 2015, disproved in '17, reproven in '17 later on, $\mathcal{O}(2^{(\log(n)^3)})$)

Complement classes coCLASS

Definition

- Consider a language L and the associated decision problem A , belonging to the class CLASS. The decision problem associated to $L^C = \{0,1\}^* \setminus L$ belongs to coCLASS.

Examples

- Observe that $P = \text{co}P$: exploit deterministic acceptance criterion
 - Given a D-TM recognizer for L , it will accept or reject in polytime. Run it and answer the reverse to get the recognizer for L^C
 - Corollary: $P \subseteq (NP \cap \text{co}NP)$
- $NP = \text{co}NP$? Open question; highly unlikely: $NP \neq \text{co}NP \rightarrow P \neq NP$.
 - The “reversal trick” does not work any longer: a ND-TM rejects only when all computation paths lead to rejection, accepts when one accepts

Avoiding a common mistake

A $(NP \cap coNP)$ sample

- Consider A , the decision-version of factoring: given n, k , does n have a divisor x in $1 < x \leq k$ (i.e., belong to the set of integers \mathbf{S} having a divisor...). It is in $(NP \cap coNP)$:
 - A polytime D-TM can check if a given x is a divisor of n (tests a solution for $n \in \mathbf{S}$)
 - A polytime D-TM can check if n is prime (tests a solution for $n \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \mathbf{S})$)

A very different case

- Consider the set of graphs $L = L_1 \cap L_2$ with: set of L_1 graphs with a tour $\leq b$, set of L_1 graphs with a tour $> b$
 - Solving the problem $I \stackrel{?}{\in} L_1$ is in NP (easy to verify that a given solution tour is $\leq b$)
 - Solving the problem $I \stackrel{?}{\in} L_2$ is in coNP (from the above and the definition of coNP)
- Solving the problem $I \stackrel{?}{\in} L$ is **not** in $(NP \cap coNP)$!

Oracle classes

TMs with Oracles

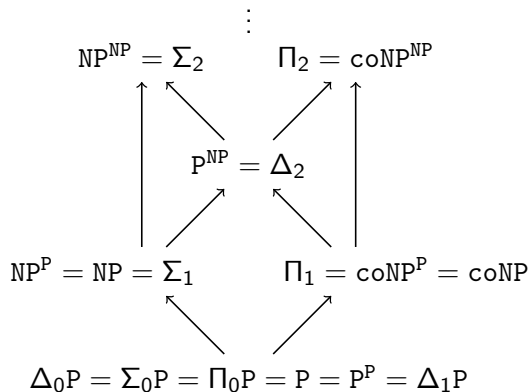
- Either D-TMs or N-TMs with a special tape, the *query* tape
- When an input is written on the query tape, the machine invokes an oracle which solves a problem considering the contents of the query tape as input *in a single transition*
- The cost of running the oracle is constant (in time) and in space (some models take into account the query length, we won't)

Notes

- Given a solver A in class C , and an oracle O in class C' the complexity class of the solver with the oracle is denoted as C^O
- Useful to consider CLASS-complete oracles: we can switch to $C^{C'}$ for the notation
- Given that the computation of the oracle is “free”, we have $C^{C'} = C^{coC'}$

The Polynomial Hierarchy (PH)

- Define a hierarchy with the relations:
 - $\Delta_{i+1} = \text{P}^{\Sigma_i}$
 - $\Sigma_{i+1} = \text{NP}^{\Sigma_i}$
 - $\Pi_{i+1} = \text{NP}^{\Sigma_i}$
- We know $\text{PH} \subseteq \text{PSPACE}$
 - If $\text{PH} = \text{PSPACE}$, then PH collapses to a finite height
- If there is a PH-complete problem PH collapses to a finite height
- Strong conjecture: PH does not collapse
- Sample Δ_2 -complete problem: given a Boolean formula, does its last (in lex-order) satisfying assignment end in 1?



Classical Probabilistic Complexity

Nondeterministic computation \neq Probabilistic computation

- ND machines perform all computations in parallel, probabilistic machines perform one of the possible computations, with a given probability
- QCs are different from both models; we will gain clarity in comparisons

Randomized algorithms

- Simply a TM having access to a tape filled with *truly random* bits (a.k.a., coins)
- What may get randomized (with a distribution over the value of the random bits)?
 - **running time**: Algorithm A runs in randomized time on a given input e.g., with a certain probability it terminates in $\text{poly}(n)$ time
 - **correctness**: Algorithm A runs in fixed time, but returns the correct answer with probability p

↳ From how on we assume computation runs in fixed time, and we focus on the correctness of the result.

Probabilistic Polynomial time (PP) class [5]

Definition

PP class: (*probabilistic poly time*) the problem is solved in $\text{DTIME}(\text{poly}(n))$ by an algorithm outputting the correct answer with $\Pr > \frac{1}{2}$

$$P(c = \text{yes}) = p \quad \begin{array}{l} (H, T) \rightarrow H \\ (T, \#) \rightarrow T \end{array}$$

Observations

- First attempt to define problems tractable with randomized computation
- Class way wider than expected. Case in point, it contains NP-complete!
- You can solve SAT in polytime with $\Pr > \frac{1}{2}$ as follows. Given a Boolean formula:
 - Return “yes” with $\Pr > \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2^{2n}}$
 - Otherwise, draw a random value for the variables, test if it satisfies the formula, and answer “yes” if it does, “no” if it does not
 - You provide the correct answer with $\Pr > \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2^{2n}} + \frac{1}{2^n} > \frac{1}{2}$

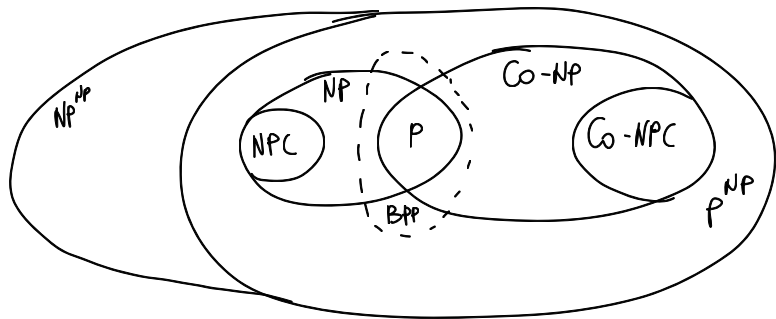
Bounded error Probabilistic Polynomial time (BPP) class

Definition

- BPP class: the problem is solved in $\text{DTIME}(poly(n))$ by an algorithm outputting the correct answer with $\Pr > \frac{1}{2} + k$, where $\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{poly(n)} < k < 1 - \frac{1}{2^n}$
($> \frac{2}{3}$)

Observations

- The choice of the lower bound for k is such that calling the solver $poly(n)$ times I can decide the correct answer through majority voting
- The choice of the upper bound for k is to make the BPP solver distinguishable from a deterministic one with a $poly(n)$ number of calls
- We will pick $k = \frac{1}{4}$ or $k = \frac{1}{6}$ to get a “pleasant” \Pr (either $\frac{3}{4}$ or $\frac{2}{3}$) of a correct answer



Relations with non probabilistic classes

$P \subseteq BPP$

- Yes: solve the problem and then produce a wrong answer on purpose with low probability
- Mounting evidence that $P = BPP$ may hold (swap random coins with *pseudorandom* coins)

$BPP \subseteq PP$

Yes: the constraint on the correctness of the solution provided by a BPP solver is tighter than the one of a PP solver

$BPP \subseteq NP?$

- Open question: is randomness “a substitute for parallelism”? Likely, no (see $P \stackrel{?}{=} BPP$)
- However, we know that $BPP \subseteq NP^{NP} = \Sigma_2$ [3]

A bigger picture

Relations with PH

- BPP is surely contained in PH, as it is contained in Σ_2
- We do not know if PP is contained in PH per se but:
 - There is an oracle O s.t. $\Delta_2^O \not\subseteq PP^O$ [1]
 - A fundamental result by Toda showed that $PH \subseteq P^{PP}$
- Our insight improves considering $\#P$: the class of functions which compute *how many* accepting paths a ND-TM has
 - A $\#P$ -complete problem is $\#SAT$, i.e., counting how many satisfying assignments does a Boolean formula have
- It is known that $P^{PP} = P^{\#P}$ (colloquially, a counting oracle does the same work of a probabilistic polynomial oracle to det. polynomial solver)
 - As a consequence, we get the inclusion $PH \subseteq P^{\#P}$

Randomness and nondeterminism - 2

- We tackled the question of whether randomized computation can somehow make up for the parallelism of nondeterministic communication (TL;DR, no, likely $BPP \not\subseteq NP$)
- What about the converse, $NP \stackrel{?}{\subseteq} BPP$?
 - Colloquially: is there a way to substitute classical randomness with the parallelism provided by nondeterminism?
- Contrary to some intuition, the answer is likely to be no
 - Understanding the strongest argument we have requires us to consider another computation model: computing with advices

Nonuniform classes and advices

An ideal algorithm for each length

- Up to now, we restricted our solvers to employ the same algorithm for all the inputs
- Is it possible to improve the complexity if we change this?
 - Trivially yes: have one algorithm for each input *value*: everything becomes constant-time as the algorithm just outputs the solution
 - As the former is too much, we consider the case of one algorithm *per input length*

Non-uniform complexity

- A way to model the “one-algorithm-per-input-length” behaviour is to consider a solver receiving a fixed $f(n)$ long *advice* string together with each n bit input
- The complexity of a class- C solver with an $f(n)$ long advice is denoted as $C/f(n)$
 - It will trivially contain C : the solver just ignores the advice
- The advices are assumed to be generated together with the solver

A single bit of advice goes a long way...

*P class
with 1 bit of advice.*

Example

- Consider the $P/1$ non uniform class. How far does a single bit of advice go?
 - Claim: the following problem has a solver in $P/1$:
 - Given an input string of the form 1^n (n repetitions of the character 1), compute if the n -th TM halts when run with input n .
 - Proof: Just consider the advice bit to be the answer!
 - The above problem is way outside PH and PP: it's a unary-encoded variant of the halting problem! It's not even computable without advice!
-
- Is granting advice too much? Does $P/1$ include all problems?

...but not all the way

- Denote as $P/poly$ the nonuniform class where the advice can be as long as any polynomial function of the input length n .
- We show that there is a (computable, Boolean) function outside $P/poly$

$$P/n^{\log(n)} \neq ALL$$

- Consider a list of poly time TMs taking an $n^{\log n}$ bit advice out of the set \mathbf{S} of $n^{\log n}$ bit strings, to compute a function on an n bit input.
- Claim: there is a Boolean function of n inputs that the set \mathbf{M} of the first n machines in the list fail to compute.
- Proof: consider Boolean functions of n inputs, there are 2^{2^n} of them
- The functions computed by the first n TMs at hand are only $|\mathbf{S}||\mathbf{M}| = n2^{n^{\log(n)}} < 2^{2^n}$

Advices, nondeterminism and randomness

Advices and nondeterminism

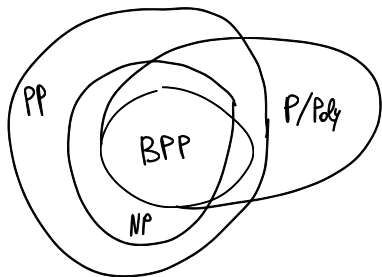
- Conjecture: $NP \not\subseteq P/poly$: poly advice is not enough to match nondeterminism
 - Note that $P = NP$ would imply the opposite
 - However, even assuming $P \neq NP$ we have not proven $NP \not\subseteq P/poly$ yet
 - Karp and Lipton proved $NP \subseteq P/poly$ implies $PH = \Sigma_2 = NP^{NP}$ (PH collapses to 2nd level)
 - We are quite convinced that poly advice is no match for nondeterminism

Advices and randomness

- $BPP \subseteq P/poly$: proven by Adleman
 - Consider a BPP solver, run it n^2 times, the error prob. over all coin outcomes is $\approx \frac{1}{2^{n^2}}$
 - Note that there are at most 2^n inputs, for the solver, and for each one, at most $\frac{1}{2^{n^2}}$ random coin strings cause an error
 - By Union Bound, at most a fraction of $\frac{2^n}{2^{n^2}} < 1$ of the coin outcomes ever cause an error
 - Pick one of the never-error-causing coin strings and feed it as an advice to a $P/poly$ solver!

Back to $NP \subseteq BPP$?

- Assume that $P \neq NP$ (or the answer is trivially yes)
- Since $BPP \subseteq P/poly$, $NP \subseteq BPP$ would imply $NP \subseteq P/poly$
- Thus $NP \subseteq BPP$ (by Karp-Lipton) implies $PH = \Sigma_2$ (which we do not think possible)
- It is very unlikely that randomized computation is as powerful as nondeterminism
 - Understanding if the “natural randomness” of quantum measurements does better or worse one of our goals.



Moving onto Quantum complexity theory

Choosing a quantum computation model

- To evaluate the complexity of quantum algorithms we have to choose our cost function and computation model.
- To make at least some sense, our model should take into account the fact that quantum computations are intrinsically probabilistic
 - The very result of the measurements is defined in probability
- It is useful to keep in mind that our probabilistic measurement gives us access to a bounded amount of the information contained in a quantum state (Holevo Bound)

Moving onto Quantum complexity theory

Choosing a quantum computation model

① Quantum Turing Machine model [2]

- The “usual” Turing machine; each tape slot can contain either a classic symbol or a qubit
- Cost in number of transitions, used tape slots on the memory tapes as usual

② Quantum circuit gate [10]

- A quantum circuit made of quantum gates, solving the problem for any input
- Cost criterion: time in number of gates/circuit depth, space in number of qubits
 - The Solovay-Kitaev theorem guarantees us that the gate set choice is not asymp. relevant

③ Quantum query model

- Consider a quantum circuit computing a function f of your choice
 - The circuit can be computed on any superimposition of your choice
- Time cost as the number of whole circuit computations (queries)
 - Useful when the size of the circuit does not depend on the input size

Probabilistic computational classes (for quantum computers)

BQP: Bounded error Quantum Polynomial

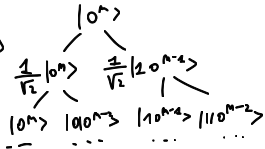
Each problem in BQP is solved in $O(\text{TIME}(\text{poly}(n)))$

$\overline{\text{BQP}} \subseteq \text{PSPACE}$

Consider simulating a quantum computer with a classical one.

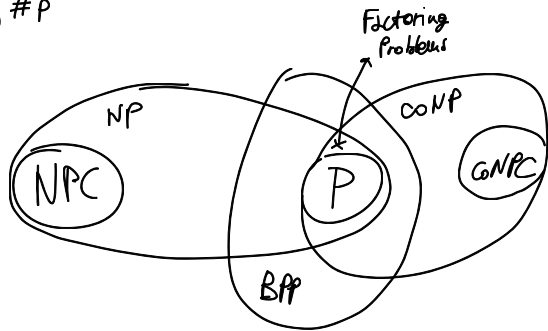
Consider $|0^n\rangle \leftarrow$ polynomial space

What if we apply H gates to only the first q-bit? \Rightarrow



The idea is to split computation in branches from the root of a tree \Rightarrow Then iterating a depth first search and backtracking.

$$BQP \leq p^{\#P}$$



$$\begin{aligned} \text{coNP} &= \text{NP} \\ \Downarrow \\ \text{NPC} \cap \text{coNP} &= \emptyset \end{aligned}$$

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