## Abstract

These notes are based on Anindya De's "Theory of Computation" lectures given at UPenn along with Michael Sipser's *Introduction to the Theory of Computation, 3rd ed.* and Arora and Barak's *Computational Complexity: A Modern Approach*. Any mistake in what follows is my own.

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# 1 Automata theory

# 1.1 Lecture 1

## Definition.

- 1. An alphabet is a nonempty finite set of characters, e.g.,  $\Sigma := \{0, 1\}$ .
- 2. A string is a finite ordered sequence of elements from a given alphabet  $\Sigma$ . The empty sequence  $\epsilon$  is allowed.
- 3. Let  $\Sigma^*$  denote the set of all finite-length strings over  $\Sigma$ . Any subset of  $\Sigma^*$  is called a *(formal) language*.

**Example 1.** Both the set of binary strings representing prime numbers and the set of binary strings with an even number of 1's are languages.

**Remark 1.** Consider a function  $f:\{0,1\}^* \to \{0,1\}$ . The computation of f is equivalent to determining whether  $x \in \underbrace{f^{-1}}_{\text{a language}} \subset \{0,1\}^*$ . Thus, computing any boolean function is the same as determining membership in some language.

Note 1. Finite automata are characterized by O(1) memory and passing over their inputs exactly once.

**Definition.** Formally, an *m-state deterministic finite automaton* (DFA) is an ordered 5-tuple

$$M := (Q, \Sigma, q_0, \delta, Q_F)$$

where |Q| = m,  $\Sigma$  is an alphabet,  $q_0 \in Q$ ,  $\delta : Q \times \Sigma \to Q$ , and  $Q_F \subset Q$ . We call  $\delta$  the transition function of M.

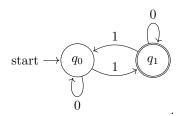
Intuitively, an automaton M is a DFA if

- (a) M has a finite number of states Q,
- (b) M has a unique starting state  $q_0$ ,
- (c) for every state q and every symbol  $\sigma \in \Sigma$ , there is a unique next state  $\delta(q, \sigma)$ ,
- (d) computation begins at the starting state and applies  $\delta$  in order, and
- (e) certain states  $Q_F$  are designated as final states.

**Definition.** Let  $x := x_1 x_2 \cdots x_n \in \Sigma^*$ . Set  $q_0(x) = q_0$ . For each  $1 \le i \le n$ , define  $q_i(x) = \delta(q_{i-1}(x), x_i)$ . If  $x = \epsilon$ , then n = 0, so that  $q_0(x) = q_0$  as well. We say that x is accepted by M if  $q_n(x) \in Q_F$ . We define  $L(M) = \{x \in \Sigma^* : M \text{ accepts } x\}$ .

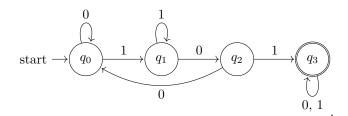
Example 2. Set  $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$ .

1. Let M denote



Then L(M) consists of all binary strings with an even number of 0's.

# 2. Let M denote



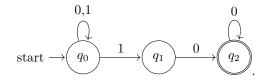
Then  $L(M) = \{x \in \Sigma^* : x = y101z \text{ for some strings } y \text{ and } z\}.$ 

**Definition.** A language L is regular is there is some DFA M such that L(M) = L.

**Remark 2.** Every regular expression induces a DFA, and vice versa. Thus, they have equal expressive power. The former gives rules for generating legitimate strings whereas the latter recognizes membership of a language.

**Definition.** A nondeterministic finite automaton (NFA) is an ordered quintuple  $(Q, \Sigma, q_0, \delta, Q_F)$  of the sort above except that  $\delta: Q \times \Sigma \to \mathcal{P}(Q)$ .

**Example 3.** Set  $\Sigma = \{0,1\}$  and M =



If x = 0100, then

$$q_0(x) = \{q_0\}$$

$$q_1(x) = \{q_0\}$$

$$q_2(x) = \{q_0, q_1\}$$

$$q_3(x) = \{q_0, q_2\}$$

$$q_4(x) = \{q_0, q_2\}.$$

# 1.2 Lecture 2

**Definition.** Let  $\delta$  denote a transition function for the NFA N. Define the multi-step transition function

$$\hat{\delta}: Q \times \Sigma^* \to \mathcal{P}(Q)$$

inductively as follows.

$$\begin{split} \hat{\delta}(q,\epsilon) &= \{q\} \\ \hat{\delta}(q,x) &= \bigcup_{\gamma \in \hat{\delta}(q,y)} \delta(\gamma,\sigma) \qquad x = y\sigma, \ y \in \Sigma^*, \ \sigma \in \Sigma. \end{split}$$

**Note 2.** If  $p \in \hat{\delta}(q, y)$  and  $r \in \hat{\delta}(p, \sigma)$ , then  $r \in \hat{\delta}(q, y\sigma) = \hat{\delta}(q, x)$ .

**Definition.** A string x is accepted by N if  $\hat{\delta}(q_0, x) \cap Q_F \neq \emptyset$ . Let  $L(N) := \{x \in \Sigma^* : N \text{ accepts } x\}$ .

**Remark 3.** Every DFA is an NFA, in which case we have that  $\hat{\delta}(q, x) = \{\delta(\hat{\delta}(q, y), \sigma)\}$ . It's not the case, however, that any NFA is a DFA.

**Theorem 1.** For any NFA N, there is some DFA M such that L(N) = L(M).

*Proof.* Write  $N = (Q, \Sigma, q_0, \delta_N, Q_F)$ . Define the DFA

$$M = (\mathcal{P}(Q), \Sigma, q_0^{(1)}, \delta_M, Q_F^{(1)})$$

where  $q_0^{(1)} = \{q_0\}$ ,  $\delta_M(Q', \sigma) = \bigcup_{\gamma \in Q'} \delta_N(\gamma, \sigma)$  and  $Q_F^{(1)} := \{R \subset Q : R \cap Q_F \neq \emptyset\}$ . For any string x, one can use induction on |x| to show that if  $R \subset Q$ , then

$$\tilde{\delta}_M(R,x) = \bigcup_{p \in R} \widehat{\delta_N}(p,x)$$

where  $\tilde{\delta}_M : \mathcal{P}(Q) \times \Sigma^* \to \mathcal{P}(Q)$  denotes the obvious extension of  $\delta_M$  to strings. By setting  $R = \{q_0\}$ , we are done.

**Example 4.** Let  $L \subset \{0,1\}^*$  consist of those strings x such that "1010" appears in x. We can easily capture L with the following NFA, but writing a DFA that captures L is much harder.

**Definition.** An NFA is called an  $\epsilon$ -NFA if its transition function is of the form  $\delta: Q \times (\Sigma \cup \{\epsilon\}) \to \mathcal{P}(Q)$ . In this case, we call  $\delta$  an  $\epsilon$ -transition.

**Definition.** Let q be a state. The  $\epsilon$ -closure of q is the set of states that can be reached from q by taking finitely many  $\epsilon$ -transitions. This determines a function  $\epsilon$ -cl $(-): \mathcal{P}(Q) \to \mathcal{P}(Q)$ .

$$\textbf{Note 3. We have that } \hat{\delta}(q,x) = \begin{cases} \epsilon\text{-}\operatorname{cl}(q) & x = \epsilon \\ \bigcup_{r \in \hat{\delta}(q,y)} \epsilon\text{-}\operatorname{cl}(\delta(r,\sigma)) & x = y\sigma \end{cases}.$$

**Theorem 2.** For any  $\epsilon$ -NFA N, there is some DFA M such that L(N) = L(M).

Proof. Use a similar argument to the proof for an NFA. In particular, set

$$q_0^{(1)} = \epsilon \operatorname{-cl}(q_0)$$

and

$$\delta_{M}(R,\sigma) = \bigcup_{r \in R} \bigcup_{p \in \epsilon - \operatorname{cl}(r)} \bigcup_{s \in \delta_{N}(p,\sigma)} \epsilon - \operatorname{cl}(s)$$
$$= \bigcup_{r \in R} \bigcup_{s \in \delta_{N}(r,\sigma)} \epsilon - \operatorname{cl}(s).$$

# 1.3 Lecture 3

**Proposition 1.** Let  $L_1, L_2 \subset \Sigma^*$  be regular.

(a)  $\overline{L_1} := \Sigma^* \setminus L_1 = (L_1)^c$  is regular.

Corollary 1. If L is finite or cofinite, then it is regular.

- (b)  $L_1 \cup L_2$  is regular.
- (c)  $L_1 \cap L_2$  is regular.

(d) Define  $L_1 \cdot L_2 = \{xy \mid x \in L_1 \land y \in L_2\}$ . Then  $L_1 \cdot L_2$  is regular.

*Proof.* By assumption, there exist DFA's  $M_1$  and  $M_2$  such that  $L_1 = L(M_1)$  and  $L_2 = L(M_2)$ .

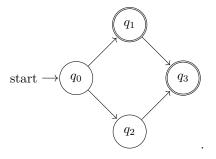
- (a) Construct a new DFA  $M_3$  by making every final state of  $M_1$  non-final and vice versa. Then  $L(M_3) = \overline{L_1}$ .
- (b) Construct an  $\epsilon$ -NFA  $M_3$  as follows. Take a starting state  $q_0$ . Attach an  $\epsilon$ -transition from  $q_0$  to the starting state of  $M_1$  and an  $\epsilon$ -transition from  $q_0$  to the starting state of  $M_2$ . Then  $L(M_3) = L_1 \cup L_2$ .
- (c) Note that  $L_1 \cap L_2 = (\overline{L_1} \cup \overline{L_2})^c$ . Now apply (a) and (b).
- (d) Construct an  $\epsilon$ -NFA  $M_3$  as follows. Given any final state q of  $M_1$ , add an  $\epsilon$ -transition from q to the start state of  $M_2$ . Then  $L(M_3) = L_1 \cdot L_2$ .

**Definition.** Let L be any language. Let  $L^k := \underbrace{L \cdot L \cdots L}_{k \text{ times}}$  for each integer  $k \geq 1$ . Moreover, define  $L^0 = \{\epsilon\}$  (which is regular). Then define

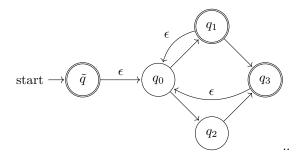
$$L^* = \bigcup_{k \ge 0} L^k.$$

**Proposition 2.** If L is regular, then  $L^*$  is regular as well.

*Proof.* There is some DFA M such that L(M) = L. Without loss of generality, write M as



Now, let  $\widetilde{M}$  denote the automaton



Then 
$$L(\widetilde{M}) = L^*$$
.

**Remark 4.** There exists a canonical set isomorphism  $\{F : F \text{ is a finite automaton.}\} \cong \mathbb{N}$ . Also, we have that  $\{0,1\}^* \cong \mathbb{N}$ . But then  $\mathbb{R} \cong \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N}) \cong \mathcal{P}(\{0,1\}^*) = \{L : L \text{ is a language over } \{0,1\}\}$ . Since there is a surjection

 $\{F: F \text{ is a finite automaton.}\} \rightarrow \{L: L \text{ is a regular language over } \{0,1\}\},\$ 

it follows that there are uncountably many non-regular languages over  $\{0,1\}$ .

# 1.4 Lecture 4

**Lemma 1.** (Pumping) Let L be a regular language. Then there exists  $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$  such that for any  $x \in L$  with  $|x| \geq n_0$ , we may write x = wyz such that

- (a) |y| > 0,
- (b)  $|wy| \leq n_0$ , and
- (c) if  $i \geq 0$ , then  $wy^i z \in L$  where  $y^i := \underbrace{y \cdots y}_{i \text{ times}}$ .

In this case, we call the minimal such  $n_0$  the pumping length of L.

*Proof.* By assumption, there is some DFA  $M = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, Q_F)$  such that L = L(M). Let  $n_0 = |Q|$ . Let  $x \in L$  such that  $|x| \ge n_0$ . Set  $q_i = \hat{\delta}(q_0, x_0 \cdots x_i)$  for each  $i \ge 0$ . There exist  $0 \le i < j \le n_0$  such that  $q_i = q_j$ . Define the three strings

$$w = x_1 \cdots x_i \quad y = x_{i+1} \cdots x_j \quad z = x_{j+1} \cdots x_m$$

where |x| = m. It is straightforward to verify that these satisfy conditions (a), (b), and (c).

#### Corollary 2.

- 1. Our last proof shows that any regular language L has pumping length  $\leq |Q|$ .
- 2. If  $L(M) \neq \emptyset$ , then there exists  $x \in L(M)$  such that  $|x| \leq |Q|$ .

**Example 5.** Let  $n_0 \ge 0$  be an integer. Suppose that x = wyz with |y| > 0 and  $|wy| \le n_0$ .

- 1. Define  $L = \{1^{2^n} : n \ge 0\}$ . Let  $x := 1^{2^{n_0+1}}$ . But note that  $|wy^iz| = |wyz| + (i-1)|y| = 2^{n_0+1} + (i-1)|y|$ . Hence if i = 2, then  $|wy^iz| = 2^{n_0+1} + |y| \le 2^{n_0+1} + n_0 < 2^{n_0+2}$  since  $n_0 < 2^{n_0+1}$ , in which case  $2^{n_0+1} < |wy^iz|$  as well. Therefore, L is not a regular language.
- 2. Define  $L = \{ww : w \in \{0,1\}^*\}$ . Let  $x := 0^{n_0}10^{n_0}1$ . If |y| = m with  $0 < m \le n_0$ , then  $wz = 0^{n_0-m}10^{n_0}1$ , which does not belong to L. Hence L is not a regular language.

**Aside.** Let D be a DFA with  $|Q_D| = n$ . Then D recognizes an infinite language if and only if it accepts some string s such that  $n \leq |s| \leq 2n$ .

*Proof.* The ( $\iff$ ) direction follows from the pumping lemma. Conversely, suppose that L(D) is infinite. Then D contains some path p of states from the start state to a final state as well as some cycle of states c such that  $c \cap p \neq \emptyset$ . Note that  $|c| \leq n$  and  $|p| \leq n$ . Hence we can apply c sufficiently many times to get our desired string.

# 2 Computability theory

**Definition.** A Turing machine is a 7-tuple

$$(Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, \delta, q_0, Q_F, Q_R)$$

where  $\Gamma \supset \Sigma$  is finite such that there is some null character  $\bot \in \Gamma \setminus \Sigma$ ,  $\delta : Q \times \Gamma \to Q \times \Gamma \times \{L, R\}$ , and  $Q_F, Q_R \subset Q$  such that  $Q_F \cap Q_R = \emptyset$ . We call  $\Sigma$  the input alphabet,  $\Gamma$  the tape alphabet,  $Q_F$  the set of accepting states, and  $Q_R$  the set of rejecting states.

**Note 4.** On any given input x, a TM can either accept or reject or loop (i.e., fail to halt on x).

**Remark 5.** A Turing machine is supposed to act as a minimal model of computation. It should be able to write, be able to move left and right, and have unconstrained memory.

# 2.1 Lecture 5

**Remark 6.** Every finite automaton may be viewed as a Turing machine M with the following properties.

- (a) M never writes on the tape.
- (b) M's read-write head moves to the right only.
- (c) M writes on just a finite portion of the tape.
- (d) M either accepts or rejects immediately after reading the input string.

**Remark 7.** Adding a stay option S to the set  $\{L, R\}$  would not increase a Turing machine's computational power.

**Definition.** Let M be a Turing machine. Let  $q \in Q$  and  $u, v \in \Gamma^*$ . We say that the *configuration of* M is uqv if

- (a) the current state of M is q,
- (b) the current tape contents is precisely uv, and
- (c) the current head location is the first symbol of v.

We call this an accepting configuration if  $q \in Q_F$  and a rejecting configuration if  $q \in Q_R$ .

**Definition.** Let  $a, b, c \in \Gamma$  and  $u, v \in \Gamma^*$ . Let  $p, q \in Q$ . We say that the configuration  $C_1$  yields the configuration  $C_2$  in the following cases.

- (a) uaphv yields uqacv when  $\delta(p, b) = (q, c, L)$ .
- (b) uapbv yields uacqv when  $\delta(p,b) = (q,c,R)$ .

We write  $C_1 \vdash C_2$ .

**Definition.** We say that the TM M accepts the input w if there is some sequence  $C_1, \ldots, C_k$  of configurations such that  $C_1$  is  $\perp q_0 w$ , each  $C_i$  yields  $C_{i+1}$  (in which case we write  $C_1 \models^* C_k$ ), and  $C_k$  is an accepting configuration. We define the language of the TM M as

$$L(M) = \{x \in \Sigma^* : M \text{ accepts } x.\}.$$

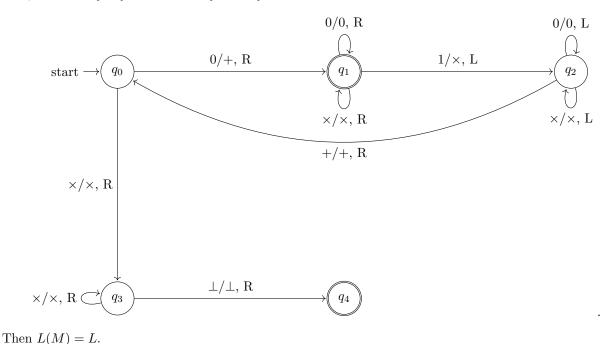
**Definition.** Let L be a language.

- 1. We say that L is Turing-recognizable or recursively enumerable if there is some TM M such that L = L(M).
- 2. We say that L is decidable or recursive if there is some TM M such that L = L(M) and M halts on every input. In this case, we say that M is an algorithm.

Note 5. Every decidable language is recursively enumerable.

**Example 6.** By the pumping lemma, one may show that the language  $L := \{0^n 1^n : n \ge 1\}$  is not regular. But L is decidable.

*Proof.* Set  $\Sigma = \{0,1\}$  and  $\Gamma = \Sigma \cup \{\bot,+,\times\}$ . Define the TM M as follows.



**Remark 8.** The *Church-Turing thesis* states that our pre-theoretic notion of algorithm is entirely captured by decidability (equivalently,  $\lambda$ -computability).

# 2.2 Lecture 6

**Definition.** A multi-tape Turing machine is exactly like an ordinary Turing machine except that the former's transition function is of the form

$$\delta: Q \times \Gamma^k \to Q \times \Gamma^k \times \{L,R\}^k$$

where  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ .

**Theorem 3.** For any  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  and any language L, if there is some k-tape  $\mathsf{TM}\ M$  such that L(M) = M, then there is some single-tape  $\mathsf{TM}\ M'$  such that L = L(M'). Moreover, T steps of a k-tape  $\mathsf{TM}\$ can be simulated using  $O_k(T^2)$  steps of a single-tape  $\mathsf{TM}$ .

*Proof.* Write  $M = (Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, \delta, q_0, Q_F, Q_R)$ . Let

$$\{\#\}\bigcup_{\gamma\in\Gamma}\{\gamma,\dot{\gamma}\}$$

be the tape alphabet of M'. Construct M' so that its tape always has # in a cell separating the current contents of M's different tapes and  $\dot{\gamma}$  whenever the head of the tape of M containing  $\gamma$  is currently at  $\gamma$ . We make M' scan its tape once to determine the positions of the heads of M's tapes, then scan it again to update its contents according to  $\delta$ .

**Example 7.** Let  $L = \{w \in \{0,1\}^* \mid w \text{ is a palindrome}\}$ . This cannot be recognized by a TM running in better than quadratic time but can be recognized by a 2-tape TM running in linear time. Thus, computational models may differ in complexity even when they don't in decidability.

**Definition.** A nondeterministic Turing machine M is exactly like an ordinary Turing machine except that M's transition function is of the form

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

such that M accepts on an input as long as at least one branch of computation accepts.

**Theorem 4.** Let M be a NDTM and let L = L(M). Then there exists a TM M' such that L = L(M').

*Proof.* By our last theorem, it suffices to construct a multi-tape  $\mathsf{TM}$  that simulates M. Construct a tree with branches corresponding to threads of computation given by M and nodes corresponding to configurations of M. We construct a 3-tape  $\mathsf{TM}$  D as follows.

Tape 1 always contains the input string w and nothing else. Tape 2 contains just the string on the tape of the current node. Setting  $m = \max\{|A| : A \in \text{im } \delta\}$ , tape 3 contains a string over  $\{1, \ldots, m\}$  that corresponds to the "address" of the current node.

We make D simulate a breadth-first search of the tree as follows.

- 1. Initialize tape 1 with w and tape 3 with  $\epsilon$ .
- 2. Copy tape 1 to tape 2.
- 3. Move to the node given by the next symbol on tape 3.
- 4. Read the configuration of M on w that is determined by this node.
- 5. Accept or reject if this is an accepting or rejecting configuration, respectively.
- 6. Replace the current string on tape 3 with the next string under the string order.
- 7. Do step 1.

## Note 6.

- 1. This simulation has time complexity  $O(m^T)$  where T denotes the steps taken by M.
- 2. We can modify the proof our last theorem to show that if M always halts on each branch of computation, then M' always halts. Thus, a language is decidable if and only if a NDTM decides it.

**Remark 9.** There is an injective function  $\iota$  from the set of Turning machines into  $\{0,1\}^*$  because any TM's transition function admits a finite description. In particular, the set of TM is countable. Let  $\langle M \rangle$  denote the binary encoding of the TM M. Let any  $x \notin \operatorname{im} \iota$  correspond to the TM that immediately halts and outputs zero on every input. As a result, every binary string corresponds to some Turing machine.

**Theorem 5.** There is a TM (denoted by  $U_{\mathsf{TM}}$ ) taking two strings as inputs,  $\langle M \rangle$  and x, (i.e., one string over  $\{0,1\} \times \Sigma$ ) such that

- 1. if M accepts x, then  $U_{\mathsf{TM}}$  accepts,
- 2. if M rejects x, then  $U_{\mathsf{TM}}$  rejects, and
- 3. if M does not halt on x, then neither does  $U_{TM}$ .

We call  $U_{\mathsf{TM}}$  a universal Turing machine. Moreover, if M takes T steps on w, then  $U_{\mathsf{TM}}$  takes  $O(T \log T)$  steps on  $\langle M, w \rangle$ .

*Proof.* This is like constructing an interpreter for a programming language within the language itself. See Arora and Barak, Theorem 1.13 for a high-level proof.  $\Box$ 

# 2.3 Lecture 7

Note 7. Alternatively, we can view  $U_{\mathsf{TM}}$  as a ternary function with input  $(\langle M \rangle, w, 1^k)$  such that

- 1. if M accepts (resp. rejects) on w in  $\leq k$  steps, then  $U_{\mathsf{TM}}$  accepts (resp. rejects), and
- 2. if M does not halt on w in  $\leq k$  steps, then  $U_{\mathsf{TM}}$  will reach a special state.

**Lemma 2.** Let  $A_{\mathsf{TM}}$  denote the language  $\{\langle M, w \rangle \mid M \text{ accepts } w\}$ . Then  $A_{\mathsf{TM}}$  is recursively enumerable.

```
Proof. Observe that L(U_{\mathsf{TM}}) = A_{\mathsf{TM}}.
```

**Theorem 6.**  $A_{\mathsf{TM}}$  is undecidable.

*Proof.* Suppose, for contradiction, that there is some M that decides  $A_{\mathsf{TM}}$ . Design a new TM N as follows.

- (a) Given a binary string x, run M on  $(\langle M_x \rangle, \langle M_x \rangle)$  where  $M_x$  denotes the TM corresponding to x.
- (b) Let N reject when M accepts and N accept when M rejects.

Then

$$N(\langle N \rangle) = \begin{cases} accept & N \text{ does not accept } \langle N \rangle \\ reject & N \text{ accepts } \langle N \rangle \end{cases},$$

which is impossible.

**Lemma 3.** If L is decidable, then clearly  $\overline{L}$  is decidable.

**Lemma 4.** If both L and  $\overline{L}$  are recursively enumerable, then L is decidable.

*Proof.* Find some  $M_1$  and  $M_2$  such that  $L = L(M_1)$  and  $\overline{L} = L(M_2)$ . Construct some TM M as follows.

# **Algorithm 1:** pseudocode describing M

```
Input: the string w
 1 T = 1;
 2 while the current state is a non-halting state do
        run U_{\mathsf{TM}} on (\langle M_1 \rangle, w) for T steps;
        if U_{\mathsf{TM}} accepts then
 4
             accept
 \mathbf{5}
 6
        else
             run U_{\mathsf{TM}} on (\langle M_2 \rangle, w) for T steps;
 7
             if U_{\mathsf{TM}} accepts then
 8
 9
                 reject
10
             else
                 T += 1
11
             end
12
13
        end
14 end
```

Corollary 3.  $\overline{A_{\mathsf{TM}}}$  is not recursively enumerable.

**Definition.** A function  $f: \Sigma^* \to \underline{\Sigma}^*$  is *computable* if there is some TM M such that for any string w, M halts on w with its tape containing just f(w).

**Definition.** Let  $L \subset \Sigma^*$  and  $L' \subset \underline{\Sigma}^*$  be languages. We say that L many-one reduces to L', written as  $L \leq_m L'$ , if there is some computable function  $f: \Sigma^* \to \underline{\Sigma}^*$  such that  $x \in L \iff f(x) \in L'$ . In this case, we call f the reduction from L to L'.

**Lemma 5.** Suppose that  $L \leq_m L'$  and that L' is decidable (resp. recursively enumerable), then L is decidable (resp. recursively enumerable). In this way, L' is at least as "hard" as L.

*Proof.* Find some M that decides (resp. recognizes) L' and some reduction f from L to L'. Construct the TM N so that on input  $w \in \Sigma^*$ , we let N compute f(w) and then output whatever M outputs on f(w). Then N decides (resp. recognizes) L.

# 2.4 Lecture 8

**Example 8.** (Halting problem) Let  $A_{\text{HALT}} := \{ \langle M, w \rangle \mid M \text{ halts on } w \}$ . Then  $A_{\text{HALT}}$  is undecidable.

*Proof.* Recall that  $A_{\mathsf{TM}}$  is undecidable. Thus, it suffices to show that  $A_{\mathsf{TM}} \leq_m A_{\mathsf{HALT}}$ . To do this, we want to design a computable function that maps any  $\langle M, w \rangle$  to another  $\langle M' \rangle, w'$  such that M' halts on w' precisely when M accepts w. Construct such an M' as follows.

# **Algorithm 2:** pseudocode describing M'

```
Input: the string x

1 run U_{\mathsf{TM}} on (\langle M \rangle, x);

2 if U_{\mathsf{TM}} accepts then

3 | accept

4 else

5 | while true do

6 | pass

7 | end

8 end
```

Then we get a suitable function given by  $(\langle M \rangle, w) \mapsto (\langle M' \rangle, w)$ .

**Theorem 7.** (Rice) Every nontrivial semantic property of Turing machines is undecidable. Formally, let C be any subset of the universe of all languages over a fixed alphabet. Define  $L_C = \{\langle M \rangle : L(M) \in C\}$ . Suppose that both  $L_C$  and  $\overline{L_C}$  are nonempty. Then  $L_C$  is undecidable.

*Proof.* We may assume that  $\emptyset \notin C$  for otherwise we could show that  $\overline{L_C}$  is undecidable. We know that  $L(M_y) \in C$  for some TM  $M_y$ . We show that  $A_{\mathsf{TM}} \leq_m L_C$ . Consider any  $\langle M, w \rangle \in A_{\mathsf{TM}}$ . Define M' as follows.

# **Algorithm 3:** pseudocode describing M'

```
Input: the string x
1 run U_{\mathsf{TM}} on \langle M, w \rangle;
2 if U_{\mathsf{TM}} accepts then
3 | run U_{\mathsf{TM}} on \langle M_y, x \rangle
4 else
5 | reject
6 end
```

If M accepts w, then  $L(M') = L(M_y)$ . If M rejects w, then  $L(M') = \emptyset$ . If M does not halt on w, then  $L(M') = \emptyset$ .

**Example 9.** Let  $A_{\text{fin}} := \{ \langle M \rangle : L(M) \text{ is finite} \}$ . Then  $A_{\text{fin}}$  is undecidable.

**Example 10.** Moreover,  $A_{\rm fin}$  is not recursively enumerable.

*Proof.* Recall that  $\overline{A_{\mathsf{TM}}}$  is not recursively enumerable. We show that  $\overline{A_{\mathsf{TM}}} \leq_m A_{\mathrm{fin}}$ . Given any  $\langle M, w \rangle$ , define M' as follows.

# **Algorithm 4:** pseudocode describing M'

```
Input: the string x

1 run U_{\mathsf{TM}} on \langle M, w \rangle;

2 if U_{\mathsf{TM}} accepts then

3 | accept

4 else

5 | reject

6 end
```

If M accepts w, then  $L(M') = \{0,1\}^*$ . Otherwise,  $L(M') = \emptyset$ .

Note 8. It's possible that both a language and its complement are not recursively enumerable.

# 3 Complexity theory

# 3.1 Lecture 9

**Remark 10.** Once we know that a question is decidable, we want to determine the amount of computational resources required to decide it. Such resources include

- (a) time
- (b) space
- (c) parallelism
- (d) communication
- (e) rounds
- (f) randomness.

We also want to study how these trade off with each other.

**Definition.** Given any TM M, its *time complexity* is the function  $f : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$  where  $f(n) = \max\{\text{steps used by } M \text{ on input } w \mid |w| = n\}$ . We say that M runs in time f(n).

**Definition.** Given any time-constructible function  $f: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$ , define  $\mathsf{DTIME}(f(n)) = \{L: \exists \mathsf{TM} \ M \text{ such that } L = L(M) \text{ and } M \text{ halts on all inputs of length } n \text{ in } O(f(n)) \text{ steps}\}$ . Let  $\mathbf{P} := \bigcup_{k > 0} \mathsf{DTIME}(n^k)$ .

**Proposition 3.** P is independent of the variant of deterministic Turing machine used.

**Remark 11.** Given any convex body, we want to compute its volume. In 1989, Dyer and Frieze proved that this is solvable in  $O(n^{23})$  steps. It is now known that it's solvable in  $O(n^2)$  steps.

**Example 11.** For any  $k \geq 0$ ,  $\mathsf{DTIME}(n^k) \subset \mathsf{DTIME}(n^{k+1})$ . Consider the case where k = 2. Then we can show that this containment is proper by using diagonalization. Indeed, define the language L as follows.

- 1. If x is of the form  $w10^i$  for some w and some i, then let  $x \notin L$ .
- 2. Otherwise, let  $M_w$  be the TM corresponding to w.
- 3. In this case, run  $M_w$  on x for  $n^2$  steps where n denotes |x|.
- 4. If  $M_w$  does not halt in so many steps, then let  $x \notin L$ .
- 5. Else, let  $x \in L$  when  $M_w$  rejects and let  $x \notin L$  when  $M_w$  accepts.

Steps 2 and 3 together take  $O(n^2 \log n)$  steps. It follows that  $L \in \mathsf{DTIME}(n^2 \log n) \subset \mathsf{DTIME}(n^3)$ . But  $L \notin \mathsf{DTIME}(n^2)$ .

**Theorem 8.** (Time hierarchy) Let  $f: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$  be any function. Suppose that  $g(n) = \omega(f(n) \log f(n))$ . Then  $\mathsf{DTIME}(f(n)) \subseteq \mathsf{DTIME}(g(n))$ .

**Definition.** We say that a NDTM M has  $time\ complexity\ t(n)$  if every branch of M runs in time t(n). Define  $\mathsf{NTIME}(t(n)) = \{L : \exists\,\mathsf{NDTM}\,M \text{ such that } L(M) = L \text{ and every branch of } M \text{ halts on any input of length } n \text{ in } O(t(n)) \text{ steps}\}$ . Let  $\mathbf{NP} \coloneqq \bigcup_{k \geq 0} \mathsf{NTIME}(n^k)$ .

**Proposition 4.** NTIME $(t(n)) \subset \mathsf{DTIME}(2^{O(t(n))})$ .

**Example 12.** Let  $\varphi$  be a Boolean formula in conjunctive normal form (CNF). Suppose that  $\varphi$  contains n clauses and m literals. Then the size of the representation in bits of  $\varphi$  is of order  $O(2m \cdot n) = O(mn)$ . Also, deciding whether  $\varphi$  evaluates to 1 takes  $O(2m \cdot n) = O(mn)$  steps.

Define  $\mathsf{CNF\text{-}SAT} = \{\langle \varphi \rangle : \varphi \text{ is satisfiable} \}$ . Notice that this can be decided by a nondeterministic Turing machine in linear time. There is, however, no known deterministic Turing machine running faster than brute force.

# 3.2 Lecture 10

**Lemma 6.** A language L belongs to **NP** if and only if there exist a deterministic TM  $V(\cdot, \cdot)$  and constants  $c_1, c_2 > 0$  such that  $L = \{x \mid \exists y. |y| \leq |x|^{c_1} \wedge V(x, y) = 1 \text{ where } V \text{ runs in time } |x \cdot y|^{c_2} \}$ . We call V a verifier and y a witness.

Proof.

 $(\Longrightarrow)$  There is some NDTM M running in polynomial time such that L(M) = L. Say that M runs in time  $n^c$ . The sequence of choices along any branch of M can be represented by a binary string of length  $n^c$ . Define V as the algorithm taking inputs x and y with  $y \in \{0,1\}^{n^c}$  and executing M on x with choice of branch given by y. Then V runs in polynomial time, and  $x \in L \iff V(x,y) = 1$  for some y.

( $\Leftarrow$ ) Given an input x, define a NDTM M that first guesses a witness y in a separate tape and then runs V on (x, y) in polynomial time.

**Note 9.** Equivalently, we could have made V run in time  $|x|^{c_2}$  while dropping the requirement that |y| be polynomial in |x|.

**Definition.** An independent set of a graph G = (V, E) is a set  $I \subset V$  such that no two points in I are connected by an edge.

**Example 13.** The following languages are in **NP**.

- 1.  $\mathsf{IND}\mathsf{-SET} := \{ \langle G, k \rangle : G \text{ is an (undirected) graph with an independent set of size at least } k \}$
- 2.  $3-COLOR := \{\langle G \rangle : G \text{ has a 3-coloring}\}$
- 3. Composite  $:= \{x \mid x \text{ is a composite number}\}$
- 4. PRIMES :=  $\{n \mid n \text{ is prime}\}$

**Definition.** We say that  $L_1$  polynomially many-one reduces to  $L_2$  (written as  $L_1 \leq_m^p L_2$ ) if there is some TM M running in polynomial time such that  $x \in L_1 \iff M(x) \in L_2$ .

**Lemma 7.** If  $L_1 \leq_m^p L_2$  and  $L_2 \in \mathbf{P}$ , then  $L_1 \in \mathbf{P}$ .

**Definition.** We say that L is NP-complete if  $L \in NP$  and for any  $L' \in NP$ ,  $L' \leq_m^p L$ .

# **3.3** Lecture 11

**Definition.** A (Boolean) circuit is a directed acyclic graph with a unique sink node such that

- 1. each node has indegree at most 2
- 2. each internal node is labelled by  $\land$ ,  $\lor$ , or  $\neg$ ,
- 3. each leaf node is labeled by a Boolean variable, and
- 4. each edge is labeled by the Boolean value given as the output of the prior node.

The size of a circuit is the number of its internal nodes.

**Remark 12.** This is an example of a non-uniform model of computation as we must specify a new circuit for each input size.

**Lemma 8.** Every function  $g:\{0,1\}^n \to \{0,1\}$  can be computed by a circuit of size  $O(2^n)$ .

*Proof.* We use induction to show that any  $g:\{0,1\}^n \to \{0,1\}$  can be computed by a circuit of size at most  $3 \cdot 2^n - 4$ , which is enough. When n = 1, there are four cases to consider.

(a) If  $g = id_{\{0,1\}}$ , then g can be computed by a circuit of size 0.

- (b) If g(0) = 1 and g(1) = 0, then  $g(x) = \neg x$ .
- (c) If g(0) = g(1) = 0, then  $g(x) = x \land \neg x$ .
- (d) If g(0) = g(1) = 1, then  $g(x) = x \vee \neg x$ .

Hence the base case holds. Now, define  $g_0, g_1 : \{0,1\}^{n-1} \to \{0,1\}$  by  $g_0(y) = g(0,y)$  and  $g_1(y) = g(1,y)$ . Then g satisfies

$$g(y) = (\neg y_1 \land g_0(y_2, \dots, y_n)) \lor (y_1 \land g_1(y_2, \dots, y_n))$$

for each y. By induction, g can be computed by a circuit of size at most  $4 + 2(3 \cdot 2^{n-1} - 4) = 3 \cdot 2^n - 4$ .  $\square$ 

**Lemma 9.** Let  $M = (Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, q_0, \delta, Q_F, Q_R)$  be a TM. Suppose that on any input of size n, M halts in at most t steps with  $t \ge n$ . Then there is a circuit of size  $O(t^2 \cdot (|\Gamma| \cdot |Q|)^3) = O(t^2)$  that outputs 1 on a string x of length n if and only if M accepts x.

Proof. We want to encode a given configuration of M, which we may assume uses at most t cells of tape. To do this, we take  $\log |\Gamma|$  bits, 1 bit, and  $\log |Q|$  bits to encode the content of the current cell, whether or not the head is located at this cell, and, if so, the current state, respectively. For each  $i, j \geq 0$ , the bit  $b_{j,l+1}$  representing the j-th cell at time l+1 depends precisely on the three bits  $b_{j-1,l}$ ,  $b_{j,l}$ , and  $b_{j+1,l}$ . If  $B := 1 + \log |\Gamma| + \log |Q|$ , then every bit of the encoding of the configuration of M at time l+1 depends on B bits. This determines a Boolean function  $f: \{0,1\}^{3B} \to \{0,1\}$  that computes the next configuration. Our previous lemma implies that f be be computed by a circuit of size  $O(2^{3B})$  and hence by one of size  $O((|\Gamma| \cdot |Q|)^3)$ . Thus, there is a circuit of size  $O(t \cdot t \cdot (|\Gamma| \cdot |Q|)^3)$  that simulates M on inputs of size n.  $\square$ 

**Example 14.** (Cook-Levin theorem) Define CIRCUIT-SAT =  $\{\langle C \rangle : \exists x. C(x) = 1\}$ . This is certainly in **NP**. We claim that it is **NP**-complete.

*Proof.* If  $L \in \mathbf{NP}$ , then there is an efficient (i.e., polynomial-time) algorithm V such that

$$\forall x \in L. \exists y \in \Sigma^*. |y| \leq |x|^{O(1)} \land V(x,y) = 1 \land (x \notin L \implies \forall y. V(x,y) = 0).$$

Thus, for each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , we can use our previous lemma to construct a circuit of size  $n^{O(1)}$  such that C(x,y) = V(x,y) for each string x of size n and each string y with  $|y| \le n^{O(1)}$ . This means that for each string x, we can construct a circuit  $C_x(\cdot)$  of size  $|x|^{O(1)}$  such that  $C_x(y) = V(x,y)$  for any y with  $|y| \le |x|^{O(1)}$ . The mapping  $M: x \mapsto \langle C_x(\cdot) \rangle$  satisfies  $x \in L \iff M(x) \in \mathsf{CIRCUIT-SAT}$ , as desired.

# 3.4 Lecture 12

Corollary 4. Showing that CIRCUIT-SAT is not in **P** is equivalent to showing that  $P \neq NP$ .

Corollary 5. Suppose that CIRCUIT-SAT  $\leq_m^p L$  and  $L \in \mathbf{NP}$ . Then any  $L' \in \mathbf{NP}$  satisfies  $L' \leq_m^p L$ , i.e., L is  $\mathbf{NP}$ -complete.

Note 10. Our last two corollaries hold with CIRCUIT-SAT replaced by any NP-complete language.

**Definition.** A Boolean formula in CNF is a 3cnf formula if each clause contains exactly 3 literals.

# Example 15.

1. Define  $3-\mathsf{SAT} = \{\langle \varphi \rangle \mid \varphi \text{ is a 3cnf formula that is satisfiable}\}$ . This is certainly in **NP**. We claim that it is **NP**-complete.

*Proof.* It suffices to show that CIRCUIT-SAT  $\leq_m^p 3$ -SAT. We must construct an efficient algorithm M(-) such that the circuit C is satisfiable if and only if  $\varphi := M(\langle C \rangle)$  is satisfiable. If C has size n, then, wlog, we can use the associativity of our Boolean operations to add at most  $n^k$  internal nodes to C such that each gate labeled by  $\wedge$  or  $\vee$  takes exactly two inputs.

Let  $g_1, \ldots, g_n$  and  $x_1, \ldots, x_m$  denote the Boolean values given by the edges and inputs of C, respectively. Relabel  $g_1, \ldots, g_n, x_1, \ldots, x_m$  as  $w_1, \ldots, w_{n+m}$ . Let  $\varphi$  be the 3cnf formula in the variables  $w_1, \ldots, w_{n+m}$  where each clause of  $\varphi$  corresponds either to C's output value  $w_s \vee w_s \vee w_s$  or to one of C's internal edges. In the latter case, we can give the following descriptions.

• If  $w_i = \neg w_i$ , then  $\varphi$  contains exactly one clause of the form

$$(w_i \vee w_j) \wedge (\neg w_i \vee \neg w_j).$$

• If  $w_h = w_i \wedge w_j$  in C, then  $\varphi$  contains exactly one clause of the form

$$(w_i \vee w_j \vee \neg w_h) \wedge (w_i \vee \neg w_j \vee \neg w_h) \wedge (\neg w_i \vee w_j \vee \neg w_h) \wedge (\neg w_i \vee \neg w_j \vee w_h).$$

• If  $w_h = w_i \vee w_j$  in C, then  $\varphi$  contains exactly one clause of the form

$$(w_i \lor w_j \lor \neg w_h) \land (w_i \lor \neg w_j \lor w_h) \land (\neg w_i \lor w_j \lor w_h) \land (\neg w_i \lor \neg w_j \lor w_h).$$

By construction,  $\varphi$  is satisfiable if and only if C is. The algorithm  $M:\langle C\rangle\mapsto\varphi$  is linear in  $n^k$ , hence efficient. Hence it is a suitable reduction.

2. It's clear that IND-SET is in NP. We claim that this is NP-complete.

*Proof.* We show that  $3-\mathsf{SAT} \leq_m^p \mathsf{IND}-\mathsf{SET}$ . Let  $\varphi$  be a 3cnf-formula and write  $\varphi = c_1 \wedge c_2 \wedge c_3 \wedge \cdots \wedge c_m$ . For each clause  $c_i$ , create a triangle  $t_i$  with vertices corresponding to the three literals in  $c_i$ . Let  $G_\varphi$  denote the graph obtained from the graph  $\coprod_{i=1}^m t_i$  by adding an edge between any two conflicting vertices v and  $\neg v$  in  $\coprod_{i=1}^m t_i$ . Then the algorithm  $\varphi \mapsto \langle G_\varphi, m \rangle$  defines a suitable reduction.  $\square$ 

3. We say that  $K \subset V$  is a vertex cover of a graph G = (V, E) if any  $(x, y) \in E$  has  $x \in K$  or  $y \in K$ . Define  $VC = \{\langle G, k \rangle \mid G \text{ has a vertex cover of size at most } k\}$ . Then  $IND-SET \leq_m^p VC$ , so that VC is NP-complete.

*Proof.* Let G be a graph with an independent set S with  $|S| \ge k$ . Then  $V \setminus S$  is a vertex cover of G. Conversely, if G has a vertex cover K of size at most |V| - k, then  $V \setminus K$  is an independent set of size at least k in G. Thus, the algorithm  $\langle G, k \rangle \mapsto \langle G, |V| - k \rangle$  defines a suitable reduction.  $\square$ 

# 3.5 Lecture 13

**Definition.** We say that a language L is **NP**-hard if  $L' \leq_m^p L$  for any  $L' \in \mathbf{NP}$ .

**Definition.** Let G = (V, E) be a graph. A subset  $C \subset V$  is a *clique in G* if any two distinct points in C are adjacent. Let  $\mathsf{CLIQUE} \coloneqq \{ \langle G, k \rangle \mid G \text{ has a clique of size at least } k \}$ .

**Definition.** If G = (V, E) is a graph, then the graph  $\overline{G} = (V, E')$  where  $E' = \{(x, y) \mid (x, y) \notin E\}$  is the complement graph of G

**Proposition 5.** A set S of vertices in a graph G is an independent set in G if and only if it is a clique in  $\overline{G}$ .

**Example 16.** IND-SET  $\leq_m^p$  CLIQUE via  $\langle G, k \rangle \mapsto \langle \overline{G}, k \rangle$ . Hence CLIQUE is **NP**-hard.

**Definition.** Let G = (V, E) be an (undirected) weighted graph with weight function  $w : E \to \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ . Suppose  $C \subset V$ . A Steiner tree in G is a connected subgraph of G with no cycles that contains each vertex in G.

Remark 13. Any connected subgraph of minimum weight must be a tree.

**Problem.** Given a weighted graph G and set of vertices C in G, find the Steiner tree in G of minimum weight that contains C.

**Definition.** Let G = (V, E). A subset  $C \subset V$  has a Steiner tree of total weight W if there exists a connected subgraph of G that contains every vertex in C and has weight at most W.

**Example 17.** Let Steiner-tree  $:= \{ \langle G, C, W \rangle \mid C \text{ has a Steiner tree of total weight at most } W \}$ . This is **NP**-complete.

*Proof.* It's clear that Steiner-tree is in NP. To show that it is also NP-hard, we prove that  $VC \leq_m^p$  Steiner-tree. Let G = (V, E) be a graph with a vertex cover S of size k.

Let

$$V' = \bigcup_{v \in V} [v] \bigcup_{(u,v) \in E} [u,v].$$

Build E' as follows.

- (a) Let  $([u], [v]) \in E'$  for any  $u, v \in V$  and set w'([u], [v]) = 1.
- (b) If  $(u, v) \in E$ , then let  $([u], [u, v]), ([u, v], [v]) \in E'$  and set w'([u], [u, v]) = w'([u, v], [v]) = 1.
- (c) If  $(v, w) \in E$  and u, v, w are pairwise distinct, then let  $([u], [v, w]) \in E'$  and and set w'([u], [v, w]) = 2.
- (d) Finally, for any  $(u, v), (w, z) \in E$ , let  $([u, v], [w, z]) \in E'$  with weight

$$w'([u,v],[w,z]) = \begin{cases} 2 & (u,v) \text{ and } (w,z) \text{ share a vertex} \\ 3 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}.$$

Set  $C = \{[u, v] : (u, v) \in E\}$ . Also, set W = |E| + k - 1. Let G' = (V', E', w'). Note that we have constructed G' in polynomial time.

**Claim 1.** G' has a Steiner tree containing C with weight at most |E| + k - 1.

Proof. Write  $S = \{v_1, \dots, v_k\}$ . Let  $S' \coloneqq \{[v_1], \dots, [v_k], \bigcup_{(u,v) \in E} [u,v]\}$  and  $E_{S'} \coloneqq \{(x,y) \in E' \mid w'(x,y) = 1 \text{ and } x,y \in S'\}$ . Since S is a vertex cover, we see that  $(S',E_{S'})$  is a connected subgraph of G' that contains C and has weight |E| + k - 1.

Claim 2. If C has a Steiner tree T of total weight  $W \leq |E| + k - 1$ , then G has a vertex cover of size k. *Proof.* Alter T as follows.

- Replace any edge of weight 2 between [w] and [u, v] with the edges ([w], [u]) and ([u], [u, v]).
- Replace any edge of weight 2 between [u, v] and [v, w] with the edges ([u, v], [v]) and ([v], [v, w]).
- Replace any edge of weight 3 between [u, v] and [w, z] with the edges ([u, v], [v]), ([v], [w]), and ([w], [w, z]).

The resultant graph T' is connected and contains C. Note that T' has weight at most |E|+k-1 where each edge of T' has weight 1. This implies that T' spans at most |E|+k vertices. Since T' contains C, it follows that T' contains a set R of vertices of the form [v] such that  $|R| \leq k$ . If  $(x,y) \in E$ , then [x,y] is connected to some  $[v_0]$  by edges of weight 1. This means that [x] or [y] is in T', so that [x] or [y] is in R. This shows that R is a vertex cover for G.

**Remark 14.** Any undirected weighted (connected) graph can be endowed with a metric by taking the shortest path between any two vertices. Our choice of weights in part (d) of our construction of E' made G' a metric space.

**Example 18.** Let SUBSET-SUM :=  $\{\langle a_1, \dots, a_k, t \rangle \mid a_i, t \geq 0, \exists S \subset [k]. \sum_{i \in S} a_i = t\}$ . SUBSET-SUM is **NP**-complete.

Proof. It's clear that this is in NP. We show that  $VC \leq_m^p \mathsf{SUBSET-SUM}$ . Let G = (V, E) such that |V| = n and |E| = m. We can make E totally ordered. Suppose that G has a vertex cover C of size k. For each  $v \in V$ , we define an integer  $a_v \geq 0$  in base-4 (written from left to right) consisting of m+1 digits. Further, for each  $e \in E$ , we define an integer  $b_e \geq 0$  in base-4 consisting of m+1 digits. Specifically, if  $0 \leq i \leq |E|-1$  and  $(u,v) \in E$  is the i-th edge, then define both  $a_u$  and  $a_v$  as the integer

$$0 \cdots 0 \underbrace{1}_{i\text{-th digit}} 0 \cdots 01$$

and define  $b_{(u,v)}$  as the integer

$$0 \cdots 0 \underbrace{1}_{i\text{-th digit}} 0 \cdots 00.$$

Now, set  $t = k \cdot 4^m + \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} 2 \cdot 4^i$ .

Let  $S = \{a_v \mid v \in C\} \cup \{b_{(u,v)} \mid \text{ exactly one of } u \text{ and } v \text{ belongs to } C\}$ . Note that we can construct S in polynomial time. It's straightforward to check that the terms of S sum to t.

**Claim 3.** Suppose that there are  $U \subset V$  and  $T \subset E$  such that  $t = \sum_{u \in U} a_u + \sum_{(u,v) \in T} b_{(u,v)}$ . Then U is a vertex cover for G of size at most k.

Proof. Since  $t < (k+1)4^m$  and each  $a_u > 4^m$ , it follows that  $|U| \le k$ . Note that, in base-4, each of the first m digits of t equals 2. Thus, for each  $(u,v) \in E$ , at least two of  $a_u$ ,  $a_v$ , and  $b_{(u,v)}$  contribute to the summation  $\sum_{u \in U} a_u + \sum_{(u,v) \in T} b_{(u,v)}$ . This implies that at least one of u and v belongs to u. Hence u is a vertex cover for u.

**Remark 15.** Using dynamic programming, one can show that there is a poly(k,t) algorithm deciding SUBSET-SUM. This result, however, does not imply that SUBSET-SUM  $\in \mathbf{P}$ , because the size of the whole input  $\langle a_1, \ldots, a_k, t \rangle$  is on the order of  $k \log t$ .

# 3.6 Lecture 14

**Definition.** Let  $S: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$ .

- 1. Define the space complexity class  $\mathsf{DSPACE}(S(n)) = \{L \mid \exists \mathsf{TM}\, M \text{ such that } L = L(M) \text{ and on any input of length } n, M \text{ touches at most } S(n) \text{ cells (on its work tape)} \}.$
- 2. Define  $\mathsf{NSPACE}(S(n)) = \{L \mid \exists \, \mathsf{NDTM} \, M \, \text{ such that } L = L(M) \, \text{ and on any input of length } n, \, M \, \text{ halts on every branch of computation and touches at most } S(n) \, \text{ cells on any branch} \}.$

Unless we state otherwise, we assume that  $S(n) \ge \log n$ .

**Definition.** Let M be a Turing machine that always halts. Define the configuration graph  $G_{M,x}$  of M on input x as the directed graph (V, E) where V consists of the possible configurations of M on x and  $E = \{(C, C') : C \vdash C'\}$ . By making M erase the contents of its work tapes right before halting, we may assume that M has exactly one accepting configuration  $C_{\text{accept}}$  on x.

**Note 11.** Since M always halts, it can never reach the same configuration more than once. Thus,  $G_{M,x}$  is a directed acyclic graph.

Lemma 10.  $\mathsf{NSPACE}(S(n)) \subset \mathsf{DTIME}(2^{O(S(n))}).$ 

Proof. Let  $L \in \mathsf{NSPACE}(S(n))$  with L(M) = L. Given any input x of length n, we can use O(S(n)) bits to describe the current contents of the tape,  $O(\log S(n))$  bits to describe the current state, and O(1) bits to describe the current location of the head. Thus, we need  $O(S(n)) + O(1) + O(\log S(n)) = O(S(n))$  bits to describe any vertex of  $G_{M,x}$ .

Note that the number of configurations of M is at most  $2^{O(S(n))}$  (provided that any configuration of a NDTM yields at most two distinct configurations). Therefore, we can construct  $G_{M,x}$  in  $2^{O(S(n))}$  steps. Now apply the standard linear-time BFS for connectivity to  $G_{M,x}$  to decide if there is a path from  $C_{\text{start}}$  to  $C_{\text{accept}}$ .

# Corollary 6.

- 1.  $\mathsf{DTIME}(S(n)) \subset \mathsf{DSPACE}(S(n)) \subset \mathsf{NSPACE}(S(n)) \subset \mathsf{DTIME}(2^{O(S(n))})$ .
- 2.  $\mathsf{DTIME}(S(n)) \subset \mathsf{NTIME}(S(n)) \subset \mathsf{NSPACE}(S(n)).$

Remark 16. It is not known whether these chains of containment can be improved.

#### Definition.

- 1. Define  $PSPACE = \bigcup_{k \ge 0} DSPACE(n^k)$ .
- 2. Define NPSPACE =  $\bigcup_{k>0}$  NSPACE $(n^k)$ .

#### Note 12.

- 1.  $\mathbf{P} \subset \mathsf{PSPACE}$ .
- 2.  $\mathbf{NP} \subset \mathsf{NPSPACE}$ .

**Proposition 6.** Let  $L := \mathsf{DSPACE}(\log n)$  and  $\mathsf{NL} := \mathsf{NSPACE}(\log n)$ .

- 1. Let  $L_1 = \{ \langle x, y, z \rangle \mid x \cdot y = z \}$  and  $L_2 = \{ \langle x, y, z \rangle \mid x + y = z \}$ . Then  $L_1, L_2 \in \mathbf{L}$ .
- 2. Let  $\mathsf{DIR}\mathsf{-REACH} \coloneqq \{\langle G, s, t \rangle \mid G \text{ is directed and the vertex } t \text{ is reachable from } s\}$ . Then  $\mathsf{DIR}\mathsf{-REACH} \in \mathbf{NL}$ .

**Remark 17.** Omer Reingold has shown that  $\mathsf{REACH} \coloneqq \{\langle G, s, t \rangle \mid G \text{ is undirected and the vertex } t \text{ is reachable from } s\}$  belongs to **L**.

Theorem 9. (Savitch) Recall that  $\mathsf{NTIME}(S(n)) \subset \mathsf{DTIME}(2^{O(S(n))})$ . But  $\mathsf{NSPACE}(S(n)) \subset \mathsf{DSPACE}(S^2(n))$ . Corollary 7.  $\mathsf{PSPACE} = \mathsf{NPSPACE}$ .

# 3.7 Lecture 15

**Theorem 10.** (Savitch) Recall that  $NTIME(S(n)) \subset DTIME(2^{O(S(n))})$ . But we have that

$$\mathsf{NSPACE}(S(n)) \subset \mathsf{DSPACE}(S^2(n)).$$

*Proof.* Let  $L \in \mathsf{NSPACE}(S(n))$  with L(M) = L. Recall that the configuration graph  $G_{M,x}$  has at most  $T_0 := 2^{O(S(n))}$  nodes. Consider the following recursive algorithm.

```
Input: the string x

1 for j \in \{1, ..., T_0\} do

2 | if REACH(C_{start}, j, \frac{T_0}{2}) and REACH(j, C_{accept}, \frac{T_0}{2}) then

3 | output "yes"

4 | else

5 | output "no"

6 | end

7 end
```

Denote the space complexity of the preceding algorithm by  $\mathcal{L}(T_0)$ . Note that we we can reuse the space used by the first recursive call for the second recursive call. Since we need log  $T_0$  cells to encode the counter, it follows that

$$\mathcal{L}(T_0) = \log T_0 + \mathcal{L}(T_0/2) + O(1).$$

Note that the recursion depth is precisely  $\log T_0$ . Using this, we compute

$$\mathcal{L}(T_0) = \log T_0 + \mathcal{L}(T_0/2)$$
  
= \log^2 T\_0 + \mathcal{L}(1) = \log^2 2^{O(S(n))} + \mathcal{L}(1)  
= O(S^2(n)) + O(S(n)) = O(S^2(n)).

**Corollary 8.**  $NL \subset P$  because DIR-REACH is NL-complete and, by our last proof, has a  $\log^2 n$ -space deterministic algorithm.

#### Note 13.

- 1. We have that  $NTIME(poly(n)) \subset NPSACE(poly(n)) \subset DPSACE(poly(n)) = PSPACE$ .
- 2. PSPACE is closed under complementation.

# Example 19.

- 1. Let  $\Sigma_2$ -SAT := { $\varphi$  Boolean |  $\forall \bar{x} \exists \bar{y} (\varphi(\bar{x}, \bar{y}) = 1)$ }. It is unclear that this (or its complement) belongs to **NP**.
- 2. Let TQBF-SAT :=  $\{\varphi(\overline{x_1}, \dots, \overline{x_n}) \mid Q_1\overline{x_1}Q_2\overline{x_2}Q_3\overline{x_3}\cdots Q_n\overline{x_n}(\varphi(\overline{x_1}, \dots, \overline{x_n}) = 1), \ Q_i \in \{\forall, \exists\}\}$ . This stands for the set of totally quantified Boolean formulas. It belongs to PSPACE.

*Proof.* Construct an algorithm  $T(\varphi)$  as follows.

- If  $\varphi$  is quantifier-free, then evaluate it directly. Accept if it evaluates to 1 and reject otherwise.
- If  $\varphi = \exists x \psi$ , then recursively call T on  $\psi$  once with x = 0 and once with x = 1. Accept if either of these recursive calls accepts and reject otherwise.
- If  $\varphi = \forall x \psi$ , then recursively call T on  $\psi$  once with x = 0 and once with x = 1. Accept if both of these recursive calls accept and reject otherwise.

If m denotes the size of  $\varphi$ , then  $\mathcal{L}(m) = m^{O(1)} + \mathcal{L}(m-1) + O(1) = m^{O(1)} + \mathcal{L}(m-1) = O(m^k)$  for some k.

#### 3.8 Lecture 16

**Definition.** A language L is PSPACE-complete if it belongs to PSPACE and for any  $L' \in PSPACE$ ,  $L' \leq_m^p L$ . **Example 20.** TQBF—SAT is PSPACE-complete.

Proof. Let  $L \in \mathsf{PSPACE}$  with L(M) = L. Given any input x with |x| = n, we want to construct a TQBF  $\varphi_{c,c',i}$  of size  $O(S(n)^2)$  that is satisfiable if and only if there is a path of length at most  $2^i$  from c to c' in the configuration graph  $G_{M,x}$ . This will imply that

$$\hat{\varphi} := \varphi_{C_{\text{start}}, C_{\text{accept}}, O(S(n))}$$

is true if and only if M accepts x if and only if  $x \in L$ .

We have previously constructed such a  $\varphi_{c_1,c_2,0}$ . Moreover, if  $i \geq 1$ , then we see that

$$\varphi_{c_1,c_2,i} \equiv \exists c (\varphi_{c_1,c,i-1} \land \varphi_{c,c_2,i-1})$$

$$\equiv \exists c \forall D^1 \forall D^2 ((D^1 = c_1 \land D^2 = c) \lor (D^1 = c) \land (D^2 = c_2)) \implies \varphi_{D^1,D^2,i-1}.$$

It follows that  $|\varphi_{c_1,c_2,i}| \leq |\varphi_{c_1,c_2,i-1}| + O(S(n))$ , so that  $|\hat{\varphi}| \leq O(S(n)^2)$ , as desired.

**Proposition 7.** A language L belongs to  $\mathbf{NL}$  if and only if there exist  $c \in \mathbb{N}$  and a deterministic  $\mathsf{TM}\ V(\cdot,\cdot)$  consisting of one read-only input tape, one work tape, and one read-only, single-axis proof tape such that V's work tape uses  $O(\log |(\mathsf{first\ input})|)$  space and

$$L = \{x \mid \exists y . |y| \le |x|^c \land V(x, y) = 1\}.$$

.

## 3.9 Lecture 17

#### Definition.

- 1. Let M be a TM consisting of one read-only input tape, one work tape, and one write-only, single-axis output tape such that M's work tape uses  $O(\log n)$  space. We call M a log space transducer.
- 2. Let A and B be languages. We say that A is log space reducible to B, written as  $A \leq_l B$ , if there is some log space transducer  $M: \Sigma^* \to \underline{\Sigma}^*$  such that  $x \in A \iff M(x) \in B$ .
- 3. A language L is **NL**-complete if it is in **NL** and  $L' \leq_l L$  for any  $L' \in \mathbf{NL}$ .

**Proposition 8.** If  $L \in \mathbf{NL}$  and  $L' \leq_l L$ , then  $L' \in \mathbf{NL}$ .

**Example 21.** DIR-REACH is **NL**-complete.

*Proof.* See Arora and Barak, Theorem 4.16.

# Theorem 11. (Immerman-Szelepcsényi)

NL = co-NL.

*Proof.* Since DIR-REACH is NL-complete, it suffices to show that DIR-REACH<sup>c</sup>  $\in$  NL. Let G = (V, E) be a graph of size n and  $s, t \in V$ . Let  $C_i$  denote the set of vertices  $v \in V$  reachable from s in at most i steps. We can assume that V is ordered  $(v_1, \ldots, v_n)$  since each index can be described in  $\log n$  bits.

First, let  $v \in V$ . Given that  $|C_i| = k$ , we can verify that  $v \notin C_i$  as follows.

- 1. Propose a list  $v_{s_1}, \ldots, v_{s_m}$  of vertices and a path  $s \leadsto v_{s_i}$  for each  $1 \le i \le m$ .
- 2. Write the next  $v_{s_i}$  on the work tape and write the proposed path  $s \leadsto v_{s_i}$  on the proof tape.
- 3. Verify that the proposed path is valid. If not, then reject.
- 4. Otherwise, verify that  $s_i > s_{i-1}$  and  $v_{s_i} \neq v$ . If not, then reject.
- 5. Repeat steps 2-4 until there is no  $v_{s_i}$  left.
- 6. Verify that m = k by using a counter on the work tape. If not, then reject. Otherwise, accept.

Second, given that  $|C_{i-1}| = k$ , we can verify that  $v \notin C_i$  as follows.

- 1. Propose a list  $v_{s_1}, \ldots, v_{s_m}$  of vertices and a path  $s \leadsto v_{s_i}$  for each  $1 \le i \le m$ .
- 2. Write the next  $v_{s_i}$  on the work tape and write the proposed path  $s \leadsto v_{s_i}$  on the proof tape.
- 3. Verify that the proposed path is valid. If not, then reject.
- 4. Otherwise, verify that  $s_i > s_{i-1}$ ,  $v_{s_i} \neq v$ , and  $v_{s_i}$  is not a neighbor of v. If not, then reject.
- 5. Repeat steps 2-4 until there is no  $v_{s_i}$  left.
- 6. Verify that m=k by using a counter on the work tape. If not, then reject. Otherwise, accept.

Finally, let  $c \in \mathbb{N}$ . Given that  $|C_{i-1}| = k$ , we can verify that  $|C_i| = c$  as follows.

- 1. Write the next  $v_i$  on the work tape (where  $1 \le i \le n$ ).
- 2. Decide if  $v_i \in C_i$  using our two previous algorithms.
- 3. Repeat steps 1-2 until there is no  $v_i$  left.
- 4. Determine the number r of vertices in  $C_i$  by using a counter on the work tape. If r = c, then accept. Otherwise, reject.

Note that each of our three verifiers uses  $O(\log n)$  space on its work tape and is polynomial in n on its proof tape. Apply our final algorithm iteratively n-times to verify the size of  $C_n$ . Since we can reuse space on the work tape, our space complexity on it remains  $O(\log n)$ . Next, apply our first algorithm to verify that  $t \notin C_n$ , in which case t is not reachable from s.

Corollary 9. If  $s(n) \ge \log n$ , then  $NSPACE(s(n)) = \mathbf{co} - NSPACE(s(n))$ .

**Remark 18.** Bertrand's postulate implies that some prime number between N and 2N always exists. Suppose that we want to find the least such prime  $\tilde{p}$ . Consider the probability  $\mathbb{P}$  that a randomly chosen number between N and 2N is prime. From the prime number theorem, it is known that  $\mathbb{P} \approx \frac{N}{\log N}$ . As a result, we can apply the AKS primality test  $O(\log N)$  times to find  $\tilde{p}$  with high probability.

## 3.10 Lecture 18

#### Definition.

- 1. We call a TM a probabilistic/randomized Turing machine if it consists of an input tape, a work tape, and a "random bits" tape.
- 2. Let  $p: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$  be a polynomial. A probabilistic TM  $M(\cdot, \cdot)$  decides L with respect to p if
  - for any  $x \in L$ ,  $\mathbb{P}_{r \in \mathbb{R}\{0,1\}^{p(|x|)}}[M(x,r)=1] \geq \frac{2}{3}$  and
  - for any  $x \notin L$ ,  $\mathbb{P}_{r \in \mathbb{R}\{0,1\}^{p(|x|)}}[M(x,r)=0] \ge \frac{2}{3}$ .

**Definition.** A language L is in  $\underbrace{\mathsf{BPTIME}(t(n))}_{bounded\ error\ probabilistic\ time}$  if there exists a randomized TM M running in

time t(|x|) (with probability 1) such that M decides L with respect to t(n). Let  $\mathbf{BPP} \coloneqq \bigcup_{c>0} \mathsf{BPTIME}(n^c)$ .

Note 14. It's clear that  $P \subset BPP$ .

Proposition 9.  $P \neq NP \implies P = BPP$ .

# Remark 19.

- 1. Computing the value of the determinant of an  $n \times n$  matrix of integers via cofactor expansion takes  $\omega(n!)$  steps. Computing it via Gaussian elimination, however, takes  $O(n^3)$  steps.
- 2. Computing the value of the determinant of an  $n \times n$  matrix of linear forms over  $\mathbb{Z}$  via cofactor expansion is exponential in n. There is no known deterministic polynomial time algorithm for such a computation.

## Proposition 10.

- (a) Let L be an  $n \times n$  matrix of linear forms in  $\mathbb{Z}[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$  whose coefficients are in  $[-2^n, 2^n]$ . Then  $\det L$  is a polynomial in  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$  with (total) degree n and each coefficient an integer  $\leq 2^{O(n^2)}$ .
- (b) Let p(x) be a univariate polynomial of degree  $d \geq 0$ . Let  $S \subset \mathbb{Z}$  be finite. Then  $\mathbb{P}[p(x) = 0] \leq \frac{d}{|S|}$  for any  $x \in S$ .

**Lemma 11.** (DeMillo-Lipton-Schwartz-Zippel) Let  $p(x_1, ..., x_n)$  be a multivariate polynomial of degree at most  $d \geq 0$ . Let  $S \subset \mathbb{Z}$  be finite. Then for any  $a_1, ..., a_n$  randomly chosen with replacement from S,

$$\mathbb{P}[p(a_1,\ldots,a_n)=0] \le \frac{d}{|S|}.$$

*Proof.* We use induction on n. If n=1, then this is exactly Proposition 9(b). Now, we can write

$$p(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \sum_{i=0}^{d} = x_1^i q_i(x_2, \dots, x_n)$$

where deg  $q_i \leq d-i$  for each i. Let k be maximal such that  $q_k(x_2, \ldots, x_n) \neq 0$ . Let E denote the event that  $q_k(x_2, \ldots, x_n) = 0$ . By induction together with Proposition 9(b), it follows that

$$\mathbb{P}[p(a_1, \dots, a_n) = 0] \le \mathbb{P}[E] + \mathbb{P}[p(a_1, \dots, a_n) = 0 \mid \neg E]$$

$$\le \frac{d - k}{|S|} + \frac{k}{|S|} = \frac{d}{|S|}.$$

**Example 22.** Let L be an  $n \times n$  matrix of linear forms in  $\mathbb{Z}[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$  whose coefficients are in  $[-2^n, 2^n]$ . Define the probabilistic TM A on input  $\langle L \rangle$  as follows.

- 1. Set  $S = \{1, \dots, 100n\}$ .
- 2. Choose  $a_1, \ldots, a_n$  randomly from S with replacement
- 3. Evaluate  $det(a_1, \ldots, a_n)$ . If this equals 0, then accept. Otherwise, reject.

Then A accepts  $\langle L \rangle$  with probability 1 when det L=0. Also, it rejects with probability  $\geq \frac{99}{100}$  when det  $L \neq 0$  because

$$\mathbb{P}[\det(a_1,\ldots,a_n)=0] \le \frac{1}{100}.$$

Since evaluating a polynomial is polynomial in its degree, we see that A is polynomial in n.

# 3.11 Lecture 19

**Example 23.** Let  $G = (V_1, V_2, E)$  be a bipartite graph with  $|V_1 = |V_2| = n$ . A perfect matching is a permutation  $\sigma$  of  $\{1, 2, ..., n\}$  such that  $(i, \sigma(i)) \in E$  for each i = 1, ..., n.

Let  $M = (m_{i,j})$  be the  $n \times n$  matrix with

$$m_{i,j} = \begin{cases} X_{ij} & (i,j) \in E \\ 0 & (i,j) \notin E \end{cases}.$$

Since

$$\det M = \sum_{\sigma \in S_n} (-1)^{\operatorname{sgn} \sigma} \prod_{i=1}^n m_{i,\sigma i},$$

we see that  $\det M \neq 0$  if and only if G has some perfect matching. By our last example, it follows that deciding whether or not a finite graph has a perfect matching is in **BPP**.

**Lemma 12.** (Chernoff bound) Let  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  be independent boolean-valued random variables. Let  $\mathbb{E}[X_i] = \mu$ . Then  $Z = \frac{X_1 + \cdots + X_n}{n}$ , so that  $\mathbb{E}[Z] = \mu$ . Then

$$\mathbb{P}[|Z - \mu| \ge t] \le e^{\frac{-t^2 n\mu}{4}}$$

for any  $t \in (0,1)$ .

Corollary 10. Let M be a randomized polynomial-time TM and  $L \subset \Sigma^*$  be a language. Suppose that there exists c > 0 such that

- for any  $x \in L$ ,  $\mathbb{P}_{r \in_R\{0,1\}^{\text{poly}(|x|)}}[M(x,r)=1] \ge \frac{1}{2} + n^{-c}$  and
- for any  $x \notin L$ ,  $\mathbb{P}_{r \in_R\{0,1\}^{\text{poly}(|x|)}}[M(x,r)=0] \ge \frac{1}{2} + n^{-c}$

where n denotes |x|. Then for any c' > 0, there exist a randomized polynomial-time TM M' such that

- for any  $x \in L$ ,  $\mathbb{P}_{r \in_R\{0,1\}^{\text{poly}(|x|)}}[M'(x,r)=1] \ge 1 2^{-n^{c'}}$  and
- for any  $x \notin L$ ,  $\mathbb{P}_{r \in_R\{0,1\}^{\text{poly}(|x|)}}[M'(x,r) = 0] \ge 1 2^{-n^{c'}}$ .

*Proof.* Set  $m = n^{2c+2c'+100}$ . Define M' as follows. On any input x, run M(x) m times, with outputs  $y_1, \ldots, y_m$ . Accept if M accepts x more than  $\frac{m}{2}$  times and reject otherwise.

For each  $i \in \{1, ..., m\}$ , define the random variable

$$X_i = \begin{cases} 1 & y_i = \chi_L(x) \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}.$$

Then  $\mathbb{E}[X_i] = \mathbb{P}[X_i = 1] \ge \mu := \frac{1}{2} + n^{-c}$ . We can apply the Chernoff bound to get

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{P}[\sum_{i=1}^{m} X_i & \leq \frac{m}{2}] \leq \mathbb{P}[\left|\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{m} X_i}{m} - \mu\right| \geq n^{-c}] \\ & \leq e^{\frac{-n^{-2c}(n^{2c+2c'+100})(\frac{1}{2}+n^{-c})}{4}} \\ & = \frac{1}{e^{\frac{n^{2c'+100}(\frac{1}{2}+n^{-c})}{4}}} \\ & = \frac{1}{e^{\frac{n^{2c'+100}+n^{2c'-c+100}}{8}}} \\ & = \frac{1}{e^{\frac{n^{2c'+100}+n^{2c'-c+100}}{8}}} \\ & \leq \frac{1}{e^{\frac{1}{8}n^{2c'+100}}} \leq \frac{1}{2^{n^{c'}}}. \end{split}$$

**Remark 20.** Call a random bit r bad for x if  $M(x,r) \neq \chi_L(x)$  and good for x otherwise. For any x of length n,  $\mathbb{P}_{r \in_R\{0,1\}^{\operatorname{poly}(|x|)}}[r]$  is bad for  $x] \leq 2^{-n^c}$ . Thus,  $\mathbb{P}_{r \in_R\{0,1\}^{\operatorname{poly}(|x|)}}[r]$  is bad for some x of length  $n \leq 2^{-n^c} \cdot 2^n \ll 2^{-n}$  when c is large, and  $\mathbb{P}_{r \in_R\{0,1\}^{\operatorname{poly}(|x|)}}[r]$  is good for every x of length  $n \geq 1 - 2^{-n}$ .

# Definition.

- 1. Let  $\mathbf{RP}$  consist of those languages L for which there is some efficient randomized TM M such that
  - for any  $x \in L$ ,  $\mathbb{P}_{r \in \mathbb{R}\{0,1\}^{t(|x|)}}[M(x,r)=1] \geq \frac{2}{3}$  and
  - for any  $x \notin L$ ,  $\mathbb{P}_{r \in \mathbb{R}\{0,1\}^{t(|x|)}}[M(x,r)=0]=1$

where t(n) denotes the time complexity of M.

- 2. Let  $\mathbf{co} \mathbf{RP}$  consist of those languages L for which there is some efficient randomized TM M such that
  - for any  $x \in L$ ,  $\mathbb{P}_{r \in_{R}\{0,1\}^{t(|x|)}}[M(x,r)=1]=1$  and
  - for any  $x \notin L$ ,  $\mathbb{P}_{r \in_R\{0,1\}^{t(|x|)}}[M(x,r)=0] \ge \frac{2}{3}$

where t(n) denotes the time complexity of M.

Let  $\mathbf{ZPP} \coloneqq \mathbf{RP} \cap \mathbf{co} - \mathbf{RP}$ .

Note 15.  $L \in \mathbf{ZPP}$  if there exists a randomized algorithm that runs in expected polynomial time and never errs.

# 3.12 Lecture 20

**Theorem 12.** If there exist  $L \in \mathsf{DTIME}(2^{O(n)})$  and  $\gamma > 0$  such that L requires circuits of size at least  $2^{\gamma n}$ , then  $\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{BPP}$ .

**Note 16.** Recall that any algorithm running in time t(n) can be simulated by circuits of size  $t(n)^2$ . Let  $L := \{1^n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}, \text{ the TM represented by the number } n \text{ in binary halts when its input equals } n\}$ . Then L is undecidable but has polynomial size circuits.

**Theorem 13.** (Adleman) Every  $L \in \mathbf{BPP}$  has polynomial size circuits. In other words,  $\mathbf{BPP} \subset \mathbf{P}/\mathrm{poly}$ .

*Proof.* Let L(M) = L where M is a randomized TM that runs in polynomial time. Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Our last remark implies that there is some random bit  $r_n$  such that for any string x of size n,  $M(x, r_n) = \chi_L(x)$ . From this, we can obtain a circuit  $C_{r_n}$  of size quadratic in the running time of M such that

$$C_{r_n}(x) = M(x, r_n) = \chi_L(x)$$

for each x of size n.

# Corollary 11. BPP $\subset$ EXP.

# Definition. (Polynomial hierarchy)

1. For any  $i \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $\Sigma_p^i$  is the class of languages L for which there exist a polynomial-time computable predicate P and polynomials  $p_1(\cdot), \ldots, p_i(\cdot)$  such that

$$x \in L \iff \exists \overline{x_1} \in \{0, 1\}^{p_1(|x|)} \forall \overline{x_2} \in \{0, 1\}^{p_2(|x|)} \cdots \exists / \forall \overline{x_i} \in \{0, 1\}^{p_i(|x|)} (P(x, \overline{x_1}, \dots, \overline{x_i}) = 1).$$

2. For any  $i \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $\Pi_p^i$  is the class of languages L for which there exists a polynomial-time computable predicate P and polynomials  $p_1(\cdot), \ldots, p_i(\cdot)$  such that

$$x \in L \iff \forall \overline{x_1} \in \{0,1\}^{p_1(|x|)} \exists \overline{x_2} \in \{0,1\}^{p_2(|x|)} \cdots \exists / \forall \overline{x_i} \in \{0,1\}^{p_i(|x|)} (P(x,\overline{x_1},\ldots,\overline{x_i}) = 1).$$

**Example 24.** We see that  $\mathsf{MAX}\mathsf{-CLIQUE} \in \Sigma_2^p$  because it is defined by the formula "there exists a choice of vertices  $V_1$  such that for any choice of vertices  $V_2$ ,  $V_1$  is a clique of size k and  $V_2$  is either not a clique or of size smaller than k."

# 3.13 Lecture 21

# Note 17.

- 1.  $\Sigma_{n}^{0} = \mathbf{P}$ .
- 2.  $\Sigma_{n}^{1} = \mathbf{NP}$ .
- 3.  $\Sigma_p^k \subset \Sigma_p^{k+1} \cap \Pi_p^{k+1}$ .
- 4.  $\Pi_p^k \subset \Sigma_p^{k+1} \cap \Pi_p^{k+1}$ .
- $5. \ \operatorname{co-}\Sigma^k_p = \Pi^k_p.$

**Lemma 13.** If k > 0 and  $\Sigma_p^k = \Pi_p^k$ , then  $\Sigma_p^{k+1} = \Sigma_p^k$ .

*Proof.* For convenience, let k=1. Note that  $L\in\Sigma^2_p$  if and only if some formula

$$\varphi(x) := \exists \overline{y_1} \forall \overline{y_2} (P(x, \overline{y_1}, \overline{y_2}))$$

defines L. But, by assumption,  $\varphi(x)$  is equivalent to some formula  $\exists \overline{y_1} \exists \overline{y_2} (P'(x, \overline{y_1}, \overline{y_2}))$ .

# Theorem 14. (Sipser-Gács) BPP $\subset \Sigma_p^2 \cap \Pi_p^2$ .

*Proof.* Since **BPP** = co-**BPP**, it suffices to show that **BPP**  $\subset \Sigma_p^2$ . If  $L \in \mathbf{BPP}$ , then there exists an efficient algorithm A such that  $\mathbb{P}_{r \in_R\{0,1\}^{\mathrm{poly}(n)}}[A(x,r) = \chi_L(x)] \geq \frac{2}{3}$  where n denotes |x|. Define A' to run  $A(x,r_1),\ldots,A(x,r_s)$  and take the majority. Then A' uses st random bits, and

$$\mathbb{P}_{r_1,\ldots,r_s}[A'(x,r_1,\ldots,r_s)=\chi_L(x)] \ge 1-2^{-s(n)}.$$

By choosing  $s \gg 10t^2$ , we see that  $\mathbb{P}[A'(x, \overline{r}) = \chi_L(x)] \ge 1 - \frac{1}{100m^2}$  where m denotes the number of random bits used.

Claim 4.  $x \in L \iff \exists \overline{y_1}, \dots, \overline{y_m} \in \{0,1\}^m \forall \overline{z} \in \{0,1\}^m \bigvee_{i=1}^m A'(x, \overline{y_i} \oplus \overline{z}) = 1.$ 

Proof.

 $(\Longrightarrow)$  Suppose that  $x \in L$ . It suffices to show that

$$\mathbb{P}_{\overline{y_1},\dots,\overline{y_m}} \left[ \exists \overline{z} \in \{0,1\}^m \bigwedge_{j=1}^m A'(\overline{x},\overline{y_j} \oplus \overline{z}) \neq 1 \right] < 1.$$

Note that  $\mathbb{P}_{\overline{y_1},...,\overline{y_m}} \left[ \bigwedge_{j=1}^m A'(\overline{x},\overline{y_j} \oplus \overline{z}) \neq 1 \right] \leq \frac{1}{(100m^2)^m}$  for any  $\overline{z} \in \{0,1\}^m$ . Therefore,

$$\mathbb{P}_{\overline{y_1},\dots,\overline{y_m}} \left[ \exists \overline{z} \in \{0,1\}^m \bigwedge_{j=1}^m A'(\overline{x},\overline{y_j} \oplus \overline{z}) \neq 1 \right] \leq \frac{2^m}{(100m^2)^m} < 1.$$

 $(\Leftarrow)$  Suppose that  $x \notin L$ . Fix  $y_1, \ldots, y_m$ . Note that  $\mathbb{P}_{z \in_R\{0,1\}^*}[A(x, y_j \oplus z) = 1] \leq \frac{1}{100m^2}$  for each  $j = 1, \ldots, m$ . This implies that

$$\mathbb{P}_{z \in_{R}\{0,1\}^{*}} [\bigvee_{j=1}^{m} A(x, y_{j} \oplus z) = 1] \le \frac{1}{100m^{2}} \le \frac{m}{100m^{2}} = \frac{1}{100m} < 1.$$

3.14 Lecture 22

Definition.

1. Let  $V, P : \{0,1\}^* \to \{0,1\}^*$  be mappings and x a binary string. Let  $r \in_R \{0,1\}^*$ . A k-round (randomized) interaction of V and P on x and r is the sequence of length k consisting of the following strings.

$$a_{1} = V(x, r)$$

$$a_{2} = P(x, a_{1})$$

$$\vdots$$

$$a_{2i+1} = V(x, r, a_{1}, \dots, a_{2i})$$

$$a_{2i+2} = P(x, a_{1}, \dots, a_{2i+1})$$

Let out  $\langle V, P \rangle(x,r)$  denote the final string of this sequence. We call V a verifier and P a prover.

- 2. Let  $k: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$  be polynomial computable. A language L has a has a k-round (randomized) interactive protocol or lies in the class  $\mathsf{IP}[k]$  if there exists a randomized  $\mathsf{TM}\ V$  that V is polynomial in its first input and
  - (a) (completeness) if  $x \in L$ , then there exists a prover P such that  $\langle V, P \rangle(x)$  is k(|x|)-round interaction and

$$\mathbb{P}_{r \in_{R} \in \{0,1\}^{\text{poly}(|x|)}}[\text{out } \langle V, P \rangle(x,r) = 1] \ge \frac{2}{3}$$

and

(b) (soundness) if  $x \notin L$ , then for any prover P such that  $\langle V, P \rangle(x)$  is k(|x|)-round interaction,

$$\mathbb{P}_{r \in_R \in \{0,1\}^{\text{poly}(|x|)}}[\text{out } \langle V, P \rangle(x,r) = 1] \le \frac{1}{3}.$$

3. Let  $\mathbf{IP} := \bigcup_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \mathsf{IP}[n^k]$ .

**Example 25.** Let NIP :=  $\{\langle G_1, G_2 \rangle \mid G_1 \text{ and } G_2 \text{ are non-isomorphic graphs} \}$ . The following interaction shows that NIP  $\in$  **IP**.

- V: Pick  $i \in \{1,2\}$  uniformly randomly. Randomly permute the vertices of  $G_i$  to get a new isomorphic graph H. Send H to P.
- P: If H is not isomorphic to one of  $G_1$  and  $G_2$ , then select the other graph. Otherwise, select one of  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  by flipping a coin. Let  $G_j$  denote the selected graph. Send j to V.
- V: Pick  $i' \in \{1,2\}$  uniformly randomly. Randomly permute the vertices of  $G_{i'}$  to get a new isomorphic graph H'. Send H' to P.
- P: If H' is not isomorphic to one of  $G_1$  and  $G_2$ , then select the other graph. Otherwise, select one of  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  by flipping a coin. Let  $G_{j'}$  denote the selected graph. Send j' to V.
- V: Accept if both i = j and i' = j'. Reject otherwise.

# 3.15 Lecture 23

**Proposition 11. IP** is closed under complementation.

**Remark 21.** The prover P of a k-round interaction can be assumed, without loss of generality, to decide languages in and only in PSPACE. As a result,  $\mathbf{IP} \subset \mathsf{PSPACE}$ .

Theorem 15. PSPACE  $\subset$  IP.

Corollary 12. PSPACE = IP.

**Definition.** Let A and B be sets of size  $2^n$  and  $2^k$ , respectively. A set of functions  $\mathcal{H} := \{h_1, \ldots, h_t\}$  from A to B is pairwise independent if for any distinct  $x, x' \in A$  and any  $y, y' \in B$ ,

$$\mathbb{P}_{h \in_R \mathcal{H}}[h(x) = y \land h(x') = y'] = \frac{1}{2^{2k}} = \frac{1}{|B|^2}.$$

An element of such a set is called a (pairwise independent) hash function.

**Example 26.** The set of all functions  $A \to B$  is a pairwise independent set of size  $|B|^{|A|}$ .

**Definition.** Let  $q = 2^n$ . For each  $(s,t) \in \mathbb{F}_q \times \mathbb{F}_q$ , define  $h_{s,t} : \mathbb{F}_q \to \mathbb{F}_q$  by  $h_{s,t}(a) = a \cdot s + t$ . If  $x, y, x', y' \in \mathbb{F}_q$  with  $x \neq x'$ , then the system of equations

$$sx + t = y$$
$$sx' + t = y'$$

is satisfied  $\iff \begin{bmatrix} x & 1 \\ x' & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} s \\ t \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} y \\ y' \end{bmatrix} \iff \begin{bmatrix} x & 1 \\ x' & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} y \\ y' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} s \\ t \end{bmatrix}$ . Therefore,

$$\mathbb{P}_{(s,t)\in_R\mathbb{F}_q\times\mathbb{F}_q}[h_{s,t}(x)=y\wedge h_{s,t}(x')=y']=\frac{1}{q^2},$$

which proves that  $h_{s,t}$  is a hash function.

# 3.16 Lecture 24

**Proposition 12.** Let G and H be graphs.

- 1. If  $G \ncong H$ , then  $\operatorname{Aut}(G \cup H) \cong \operatorname{Aut}(G) \times \operatorname{Aut}(H)$ .
- 2. There is some  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $|\operatorname{Aut}(G \cup H)| \ge 2k$  whenever  $G \cong H$  and  $|\operatorname{Aut}(G \cup H)| \le k$  whenever  $G \ncong H$ .

**Example 27.** (Goldwasser-Sipser set bound protocol) Let  $S \subset \{0,1\}^m$  and  $K \in \mathbb{N}$ . We want to construct a verifier V and prover P such that

- V can efficiently check whether any given x belongs to S, and
- it is guaranteed that either  $|S| \leq \frac{K}{2}$  or  $|S| \geq K$ .

To do this, choose  $l \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $2^{l-2} \leq K \leq 2^{l-1}$  and  $|S| \leq 2^{l-1}$ . Let  $\mathcal{H}$  denote a pairwise independent set of mappings  $\{0,1\}^m \to \{0,1\}^l$ .

Have V randomly choose  $h \in \mathcal{H}$  and  $y \in \{0,1\}^l$  and then send (h,y) to P. Next, have P send  $x \in_R \{0,1\}^m$  to V. Finally, have V accept if and only if  $x \in S$  and h(x) = y.

Case 1: Suppose that  $|S| \leq \frac{K}{2}$ . If  $x \in S$ , then  $\mathbb{P}_{h \in_R \mathcal{H}}[h(x) = y] = \frac{1}{2^l}$ . Moreover,

$$\mathbb{P}_{h \in_R \mathcal{H}}[\exists x \in S, \ h(x) = y] \le \frac{|S|}{2^l} \le \frac{|K|}{2 \cdot 2^l} = \frac{p}{2}$$

where  $p := \frac{|K|}{2^l}$ .

Case 2: Suppose that  $|S| \ge K$ . We compute

$$\mathbb{P}_{h \in \mathcal{H}}[\exists x \in S, \ h(x) = y] \ge \sum_{x \in S} \mathbb{P}[h(x) = y] - \sum_{\substack{x, x' \in S \\ x \neq x'}} \mathbb{P}[h(x) = y \land h(x') = y] \\
\ge \frac{|S|}{2^{l}} - \underbrace{\frac{|S|(|S| - 1)}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2^{2l}}}_{(\frac{|S|}{2})} \cdot \frac{1}{2^{2l}} \\
= \frac{|S|}{2^{l}} \left(1 - \frac{|S| - 1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2^{l}}\right) \\
\ge \frac{S}{2^{l}} \left(1 - \frac{|S|}{2 \cdot 2^{l}}\right) \\
\ge \frac{K}{2^{l}} \left(1 - \frac{S}{s \cdot s^{l}}\right) \\
\ge \frac{3}{4} \cdot p.$$

## 3.17 Lecture 25

**Lemma 14.** (Sum-check protocol) Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and choose a prime  $2^{10n} \leq p \leq 2^{20n}$ . Let  $\varphi(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$  be a 3cnf formula with m clauses and let  $\tilde{\varphi}(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$  be the polynomial obtained from  $\varphi$  by the following translation rules.

- $\bar{x} \longleftrightarrow (1-x)$ .
- $x \wedge y \longleftrightarrow x \cdot y$ .

For any  $a_1, \ldots, a_i \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ , define

$$S(a_1, \dots, a_i) = \sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^{n-i}} \tilde{\varphi}(a_1, \dots, a_i, x) \mod p.$$

For any  $K \in \mathbb{N}$ , there exists an efficient interactive protocol (V, P) such that

- if  $K = S(a_1, \dots, a_i)$ , then V accepts  $\langle \varphi, p \rangle$  with probability 1 and
- if  $K \neq S(a_1, \ldots, a_i)$ , then V rejects  $\langle \varphi, p \rangle$  with probability  $\geq (1 \frac{d}{p})^{n-i}$  where  $d := 3m \leq n^3$ .

#### 3.18 Lecture 26

Proof.

First, we construct (V, P) as follows.

- 1.  $\underline{V}$ : If n=1, then compute  $\tilde{\varphi}(0)+\tilde{\varphi}(1)$ . If this equals K, then accept. Otherwise, reject. If n>1, then let  $h_1(x_1)=\sum_{x_2,\ldots,x_n\in\{0,1\}}\tilde{\varphi}(x_1,x_2,\ldots,x_n)$ , which is a univariate polynomial of degree at most  $n^3$ . Ask P to send  $h_1(x_1)$ .
- 2.  $\underline{P}$ : Return  $h'_1(x_1)$  to V where  $h'_1(x_1)$  is univariate and has degree at most d.
- 3.  $\underline{V}$ : Compute  $h'_1(0) + h'_1(1)$ . If this equals K, then reject. Otherwise, choose  $a_1 \in_R \mathbb{F}_p$ . Recursively apply the same protocol thus far with K replaced with  $h'_1(a_1)$  and  $\sum_{x_1 \in \{0,1\}} \cdots \sum_{x_n \in \{0,1\}} \tilde{\varphi}(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n)$  replaced with

$$\sum_{x_2 \in \{0,1\}} \cdots \sum_{x_n \in \{0,1\}} \tilde{\varphi}(a_1, x_2, \dots, x_n).$$

Next, we must verify the correctness of (V, P). If  $K = \sum_{x_1, \dots, x_n \in \{0,1\}} \tilde{\varphi}(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ , then have P return  $h_i(x_i)$  for each  $i = 1, \dots, n-1$ . In this case, V accepts with probability 1.

Now, assume that  $K \neq \sum_{x_1,\dots,x_n \in \{0,1\}} \tilde{\varphi}(x_1,\dots,x_n)$ . If n=1, then clearly V rejects with probability 1. Assume, inductively, that V rejects with high probability for any polynomial of degree  $\leq d$  in n-1 variables. If  $h_1'(x_1) = h_1(x_1)$ , then V rejects with probability 1. Assume that  $h_1'(x_1) \neq h_1(x_1)$ . Note that the polynomial  $h_1' - h_1$  is nonzero and has degree at most d. By DeMillo-Lipton, it follows that

$$\mathbb{P}_{a \in_R \mathbb{F}_p}[h_1'(a) \neq h_1(a)] \ge 1 - \frac{d}{p}.$$

Since  $s(a) \neq h(a) = \sum_{x_2 \in \{0,1\}} \cdots \sum_{x_n \in \{0,1\}} \tilde{\varphi}(a_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ , we see, by our induction hypothesis, that V rejects its recursive input with probability  $\geq (1 - \frac{d}{p})^{n-1}$ . Thus, V rejects  $(\varphi, K, p)$  with probability

$$\geq \left(1 - \frac{d}{p}\right)^{n-1} \cdot \left(1 - \frac{d}{p}\right) = \left(1 - \frac{d}{p}\right)^n,$$

as desired.

Proposition 13. The language of all unsatisfiable 3cnf formulas is co-NP-complete.

# Corollary 13. $co-NP \subset IP$ .

*Proof.* We can modify our last interactive protocol so that its first round has P send a large enough prime p to V. As a result, we can remove p from the input of (V, P). Notice that  $\varphi$  is unsatisfiable if and only if  $\sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^n} \tilde{\varphi}(x_1, \ldots, x_n) = 0$ . This, in turn, is true if and only if

$$\sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^n} \tilde{\varphi}(x_1, \dots, x_n) = 0 \mod p$$

since  $0 \leq \sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^n} \tilde{\varphi}(x_1,\ldots,x_n) \leq 2^n$ . By our last proposition, we are done.

Theorem 16. IP = PSPACE.

## 3.19 Final exam review session

Theorem 17. (Space hierarchy) If  $f: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$  satisfies  $f(n) \ge \log n$ , then  $\mathsf{DSPACE}(f(n)) \subseteq \mathsf{DSPACE}(f^2(n))$ .

**Example 28.** Since  $\log^2(n) \le p(n)$  for some polynomial  $p : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$ , the space hierarchy theorem implies that  $\mathbf{L} \subseteq \mathsf{PSPACE}$ .