Topics in Quantum Engineering Presentation: Complexity Theory

Dominic Moylett

University of Bristol dominic.moylett@bristol.ac.uk

November 24, 2015

Complexity theory in a nutshell

"How hard can it be?", Clarkson, Hammond and May

Complexity theory is the study of how difficult it is to solve a problem with a computer.

Complexity theory is the study of how difficult it is to solve a problem with a computer.

How do we measure difficulty?

Complexity theory is the study of how difficult it is to solve a problem with a computer.

What is a problem?

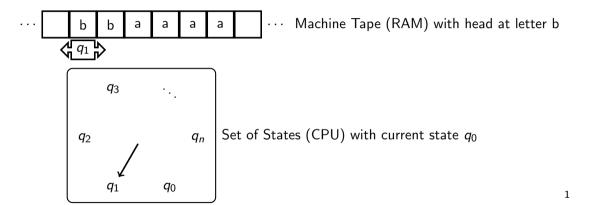
Complexity theory is the study of how difficult it is to solve a problem with a computer.

What is a computer?

Structure of part one

- What is a computer?
- What is a problem?
- How do we measure difficulty?

Our model of a computer



1 http://www.texample.net/tikz/examples/turing-machine-2/

10 × 40 × 4 = × 4 = × 900

Formal definition of a computer

A Turing Machine (TM) is specified as a tuple of seven components ($Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, q_0, q_{accept}, q_{reject}$):

- Q is the set of all possible states
- ullet Σ is the input alphabet for the tape. Note that Σ cannot contain the blank symbol \sqcup
- Γ is tape alphabet, where $\Sigma \subseteq \Gamma$ and $\sqcup \in \Gamma$
- $q_0 \in Q$ is the start state
- $q_{accept} \in Q$ is the accept state
- $q_{reject} \in Q$ is the reject state, where $q_{reject} \neq q_{accept}$
- $\delta: Q \times \Gamma \to Q \times \Sigma \times \{L, R\}$ is the transition function



But how do we run it?

```
The majority of computation time is spent repeating the following loop. Note that T_h is the
h-th cell of the tape.
q = q_0
h=0
T = w
                          // Tape starts as just input, followed by blank cells
while q \notin \{q_{accept}, q_{reiect}\} do
   (q, h, i) = \delta(q, T_h)
   if i = L then
   h=h-1
                                                      // Move tape head to the left
   else
   h=h+1
                                                     // Move tape head to the right
   end
```

end

What happens when it stops?

When we reach either the accept or reject state, the machine has halted.

If the machine accepted, then the output of it is the contents of the tape.

If the machine *rejected*, then nothing is returned.

Integers



- Integers
- Rational numbers



- Integers
- Rational numbers
- Floating point numbers

- Integers
- Rational numbers
- Floating point numbers
- Boolean (True/False) statements

- Integers
- Rational numbers
- Floating point numbers
- Boolean (True/False) statements
- Text

- Integers
- Rational numbers
- Floating point numbers
- Boolean (True/False) statements
- Text
- Graphs

- Integers
- Rational numbers
- Floating point numbers
- Boolean (True/False) statements
- Text
- Graphs
- Other machines

Universal Turing Machines

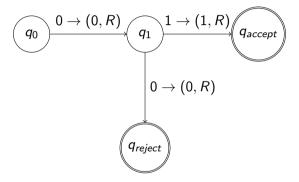
Turing showed in his PhD thesis that we could represent any TM after any number of transitions – including current state, tape contents and position of tape head – as an integer.

Not only that, but we could manipulate this integer such that it matched performing the next step of the computation.

This gave way to Universal Turing Machines; machines capable of running any *TM* given to them.

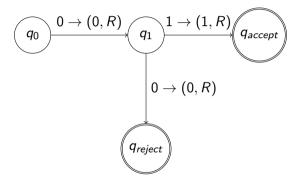
The Church-Turing Thesis

"[A]II effectively calculable sequences are computable", Turing



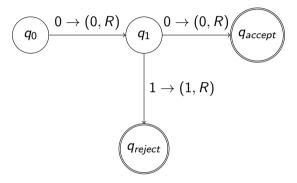
Question: Does M(01) accept or reject?



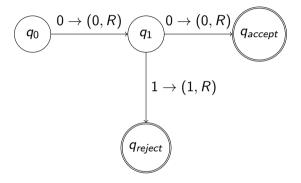


Answer: M(01) accepts!



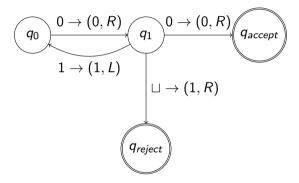


Question: Does M(01) accept or reject?

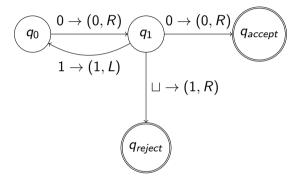


Answer: M(01) rejects!





Question: Does M(01) accept or reject?



Answer: M(w) doesn't halt.



The halting problem

You might think it would be useful if we could tell when a machine was going to halt.

Formally, we would want a TMH, such that given $M \in TM$ and $w \in \Sigma_M^*$:

- H(M, w) halts in the accept state if M(w) halts and
- H(M, w) halts in the reject state if M(w) does not halt.

Sadly, Turing proved that such a machine is impossible.

There are many other unsolvable problems as well, within the area of **computability theory**. We will not cover this area, but some reading on the subject is suggested at the end.

Nondeterminism: Spot the difference!

A Nondeterministic Turing Machine (*NTM*) is specified as a tuple of seven components $(Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, q_0, q_{accept}, q_{reject})$:

- ullet Q is the set of all possible states
- ullet Σ is the input alphabet for the tape. Note that Σ cannot contain the blank symbol \sqcup
- Γ is tape alphabet, where $\Sigma \subseteq \Gamma$ and $\sqcup \in \Gamma$
- $q_0 \in Q$ is the start state
- $q_{accept} \in Q$ is the accept state
- ullet $q_{reject} \in Q$ is the reject state, where $q_{reject}
 eq q_{accept}$
- $\delta: Q \times \Gamma \to (Q \times \Sigma \times \{L, R\})^*$ is the transition function

What, what's the difference?

NTMs are different because of the transition function.

In deterministic *TMs*, the transition goes from one machine setup to another.

In *NTM*s, the transition function goes from one to many setups.

These setups are run simultaneously, and the machine accepts if one setup halts in an accepting state, or rejects if all setups halt in the rejecting state.

Computation Tree

Power of Nondeterminism

Note that a TMs only transition from one machine setup to another, while NTMs transition from one to many.

From this, we can conclude that any TM is by definition also an NTM.

Question: Is there any problem that can be solved by an NTM that cannot be solved by a TM?

Using *TM*s to simulate *NTM*s

Recall the computation tree:

We can use Breadth-First Search to search every branch until we find one that halts in an accept state.

Structure of part one

- What is a computer? Deterministic Turing Machine, Nondeterministic Turing Machine
- What is a problem?
- How do we measure difficulty?



Describing problems as languages

A language L is a (potentially infinite) set.

Example languages:

- Text strings that contain the word "Hello"
- Satisfiable boolean expressions
- Eulerian graphs
- Hamiltonian graphs
- (M, w) such that M(w) halts

Decidable languages

A language L is decidable if there exists a machine M such that:

- $\forall w \in L, M(w)$ accepts
- $\forall w \notin L, M(w)$ rejects

Verifiable languages

A language L is *verifiable* if there exists a machine V such that:

- $\forall w \in L, \exists c \in \Sigma^* \text{ s.t. } V(w, c) \text{ accepts}$
- $\forall w \notin L, \forall c \in \Sigma^*, V(w, c)$ rejects

Structure of part one

- What is a computer? Deterministic Turing Machine, Nondeterministic Turing Machine
- What is a problem? Deciding if a word is in a language, verifying that a word is in a language
- How do we measure difficulty?



Performance of a machine

Problem: We want to talk about how much time it takes for a machine to solve a problem.

Solution: Assume δ takes a constant amount of time to run and count the number of times we call δ .

To remain general, we will focus on how the number of times we call δ scales in the worst case as the input becomes larger.

We can represent this time complexity as a function of the size of the input.

Problem: Time complexity might be complicated to work out

```
shile ((1 << (i + 1)) < m max) (
   matcher-loousfil one size a 1 // in
   lookup size = 0:
   for (d = 8: d / num natterns: dea) /
       if ((periods[1] > num patterns) && (m[1] > num patterns << 1) && (m[1] - num patterns > matcher->rous[1].row mize <
           set_fingerprint(matcher->printer, &P[d][matcher->rows[i].row_size], matcher->rows[i].row_size, matcher->tmp);
           finearcrint concet(matcher->printer, old matterns[prev row[il], matcher->tmo, matterns[lookup size]);
           if (mfd) - num patterns <= (matcher->rows[i].row size << 2)) (
               end_pattern[lookup_size] = num_progressions;
               set fingerprint(matcher->printer, &P[i][matcher->rows[i].row_size << 1], m[i] - num_patterns - (matcher->ro
               fingerprint_concat(matcher->printer, patterns[lookup_size], matcher->tmp, prefix[num_prefixes]);
               progression indexinum prefixes) a num progressions;
               prefix_length[num_prefixes] = m[j] - num_patterns;
               num suffixes (num prefixes) = 1:
               set fingerprint(matcher-)printer, &P[i][m[i] - num.patterns], num.patterns, suffixes[num.prefixes[[0]]);
               for (k = 0; k < num.prefixes; k++) (
                  if (fingerprint equals(prefix[k], prefix[num.prefixes])) (
                       end nattern(lookun size) = progression index(k):
                       for (1 = 0; 1 < num.suffixes(k); 1++) (
                       td () as non suddivestich (
                           fingercrint assign(suffixes[rum prefixes[f0], suffixes[k][1]);
                           num suddfyesfklast
               if (k == num prefixes) num prefixes++;
               end mattern(lookup size) = -1:
           for (k = 0; k < lookup size; k++) (
               if (fingerprint_equals(patterns[k), patterns(lookup_size))) (
                   new couffil = ki
                   if ((end_pattern(k) == -1) && (end_pattern(lookup_size) |= -1)) (
                       end mattern(k) = end mattern(lookum sizel)
                       num progressions++;
                   else if (end.pattern[lookup.size] |= -1) propression index[num.prefixes - 1] = end.pattern[k];
           if (k == lookup_size) {
               Inches sires.
               if (end_pattern[lookup_size -1] != -1) num_progressions++;
```

Solution: Approximate!

Let f and g be functions over the real numbers. We say that:

$$f(n) \in O(g(n))$$
 iff $\exists c > 0, n_0 \ge 0$ s.t. $\forall n \ge n_0, f(n) \le c \cdot g(n)$

$$f(n) \in \Omega(g(n))$$
 iff $\exists c > 0, n_0 \ge 0$ s.t. $\forall n \ge n_0, f(n) \ge c \cdot g(n)$

$$f(n) \in \Theta(g(n)) \text{ iff } \exists c_1, c_2 > 0, n_0 \ge 0 \text{ s.t. } \forall n \ge n_0, c_1 \cdot g(n) \le f(n) \le c_2 \cdot g(n)$$

$$n \in O(n^2)$$

 $2^n \in \Omega(n^2)$

$$2^n \in \Omega(n^2)$$

$$n \in \Theta(2n)$$

$$n \in O(n^2)$$
: $c = 1$, $n_0 = 0$
$$2^n \in \Omega(n^2)$$
$$n \in \Theta(2n)$$

$$n \in O(n^2) : c = 1, n_0 = 0$$

 $2^n \in \Omega(n^2) : c = 1, n_0 = 1$
 $n \in \Theta(2n)$

$$n \in O(n^2) : c = 1, n_0 = 0$$

 $2^n \in \Omega(n^2) : c = 1, n_0 = 1$
 $n \in \Theta(2n) : c_1 = 0.5, c_2 = 1, n_0 = 0$

Time Complexity Classes

Let $t : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{R}$ be a function.

TIME(t(n)) is all the languages that can be decided by a TM in O(t(n)) time.

NTIME(t(n)) is all the languages that can be decided by a *NTM* in O(t(n)) time.

Summary of part one

- What is a computer? Deterministic Turing Machine, Nondeterministic Turing Machine
- What is a problem? Deciding if a word is in a language, verifying that a word is in a language
- How do we measure difficulty? Upper bound of time for an input of length n

End of part one



41 / 76

³http://www.cs.utah.edu/~draperg/cartoons/2005/turing.html

Structure of part two

- Putting it all together!
- ...only to get another (very difficult) problem.
- How might we try to solve this new problem?

Complexity Classes

Now that we have provided our definitions for a computer, a problem and performance, we can look at what problems can be solved under these restrictions.

These are called *complexity classes*.

Deterministic polynomial time

One example of a complexity class is the set of languages that can be decided by a *TM* in polynomial time.

$$\bigcup_{k=0}^{\inf} \mathrm{TIME}(n^k)$$

We shall refer to the set of these problems as P.

Nondeterministic polynomial time

One example of a complexity class is the set of languages that can be decided by a *NTM* in polynomial time.

$$\bigcup_{k=0}^{\inf} \mathrm{NTIME}(n^k)$$

We shall refer to the set of these problems as NP.

We can also define NP as the set of languages that can be verified by a TM in polynomial time.

From nondeterminism to verification

Recall the computation tree for an *NTM*.

We label each branch with some integer.

Our certificate c is now the polynomial length sequence of integers that lead to the accepting state.

From verification to nondeterminism

Since the verifier runs in polynomial time, the certificate must be polynomial in length.

We use nondeterminism to brute force the certificate.

And then run the verifier on every certificate.



Structure of part two

- Putting it all together! Complexity classes, P, NP
- ...only to get another (very difficult) problem.
- How might we try to solve this new problem?

Exercise Left For the Student

Does
$$P = NP$$
?

The P versus NP problem

Arguably first proposed by Gödel in a letter to von Neumann in 1956.⁴

First stated formally by Cook in 1971.

Solving the problem will earn you a million dollars, courtesy of the Clay Mathematics Institute.⁵



⁴https://ecommons.cornell.edu/bitstream/handle/1813/6910/89-994.pdf

⁵http://www.claymath.org/millennium-problems/p-vs-np-problem

The easy side: $P \subseteq NP$

Recall that any *TM* is by definition nondeterministic.

Likewise, any polynomial-time *TM* is also nondeterministic.

Hence $P \subseteq NP$.

The easy side: $P \subseteq NP$

Alternative proof (using verification):

Let TMM decide L in polynomial time. Define V as follows:

```
V(w,c):

if M(w) accepts then

| accept

end

else

| reject

end
```

V verifies *L* in polynomial time. Hence $P \subseteq NP$.

The harder side: Is $NP \subseteq P$

Another way to think of this problem: If a problem can be easily verified, can it be easily solved?

How might we answer this question?

Why not look at the hardest problems in NP?

If P = NP, then even the hardest problems in NP will be solvable in polynomial time.

And if $P \subset NP$, then these are the problems that won't have a polynomial time solution, as could be checked by lower-bound analysis.

But how can we determine the hardest problems in NP?

Summary of part two

- Putting it all together! Complexity classes, P, NP
- ...only to get another (very difficult) problem. Are easy to verify problems easy to solve?
- How might we try to solve this new problem?

Polynomial time reducible

Take two languages A and B. We say that $A \leq_p B$ iff $\exists TM M$ such that:

- $\forall w \in A, M(w) \in B$
- $\forall w \notin A, M(w) \notin B$
- ullet and M runs in worst-case O(p(n)) time for some polynomial p, where n=|w|

Note that this property is transitive: $A \leq_p B$ and $B \leq_q C \to A \leq_{p+q} C$



NP-Complete

A language A is NP-Complete iff:

- \bullet $A \in NP$
- and $\forall B \in NP, B \leq_p A$

If one NP-Complete language is proven to be in P, then every NP problem is also in P.

Problem: There are lots of NP problems

We know that any problem in NP can be decided in polynomial time by an NTM.

So can we convert an NTM to some other problem?



Satisfiable boolean formulae

Take a boolean formula $f = a \lor b \land \bar{c}$.

We say that f is *satisfiable* if we can assign 0 or 1 to each variable such that f = 1.

Examples:

- f is satisfiable: (a = 1, b = 1, c = 0)
- but $f' = x \wedge \bar{x}$ is not satisfiable

We call SAT the language of all satisfiable boolean formulae.



$SAT \in NP$

SAT can be verified in polynomial time:

- Make the certificate the values we assign to each variable.
- ullet Have V substitute the value for each variable into the formula.
- Accept if the formula evaluates to 1, otherwise reject.

Cook-Levin Theorem

Cook showed that any *NTM M* can be converted to a boolean formula such that:

- If *M* accepts, then the formula is satisfiable
- and if *M* rejects, then the formula cannot be satisfied.

As a result, it was proven that $SAT \in NP$ -Complete.

Proving other NP-Complete problems

Now that we have one NP-Complete problem, proving others is a lot easier.

Recall that polynomial-time reducibility is transitive.

So we can now provide a recursive definition. $B \in NP$ -Complete iff:

- \bullet B = SAT
- or $B \in NP$ and $\exists A \in NP$ -Complete s.t. $A \leq_p B$



• 3*SAT*



- 3*SAT*
- Hamiltonian graphs

- 3*SAT*
- Hamiltonian graphs
- Cliques

- 3*SAT*
- Hamiltonian graphs
- Cliques
- Knapsack

- 3*SAT*
- Hamiltonian graphs
- Cliques
- Knapsack
- Tetris

- 3*SAT*
- Hamiltonian graphs
- Cliques
- Knapsack
- Tetris
- Lemmings



- 3SAT
- Hamiltonian graphs
- Cliques
- Knapsack
- Tetris
- Lemmings
- Super Mario Bros

- 3SAT
- Hamiltonian graphs
- Cliques
- Knapsack
- Tetris
- Lemmings
- Super Mario Bros
- Bejeweled

- 3SAT
- Hamiltonian graphs
- Cliques
- Knapsack
- Tetris
- Lemmings
- Super Mario Bros
- Bejeweled
- Candy Crush Saga



63 / 76

- 3SAT
- Hamiltonian graphs
- Cliques
- Knapsack
- Tetris
- Lemmings
- Super Mario Bros
- Bejeweled
- Candy Crush Saga
- Flood-It



Summary of part two

- Putting it all together! Complexity classes, P, NP
- ...only to get another (very difficult) problem. Are easy to verify problems easy to solve?
- How might we try to solve this new problem? NP-Complete problems

What else is there?

Recall our three questions from part one:

- What is a computer?
- What is a problem?
- How do we measure difficulty?

What if we answered these differently?

How do we measure difficulty?

Exponential time: EXP

Linear time: LIN

Space complexity: PSPACE, EXPSPACE

Sublinear working space: L

What is a problem?

Computational problems: NP-Hard

Counting problems: #P

Complementary problems: co-NP

What is a computer?

Probabilistic Turing Machines: BPP, RP

Postselection: Post-BPP

Parallel Computing: NC

Talking to another, more powerful computer: MA, IP

Oracles: $\Delta_i P$, $\Pi_i P$, $\Sigma_i P$, PH

Advice: P/poly, P/log

Quantum computers: EQP, BQP

Time travel: P_{CTC}

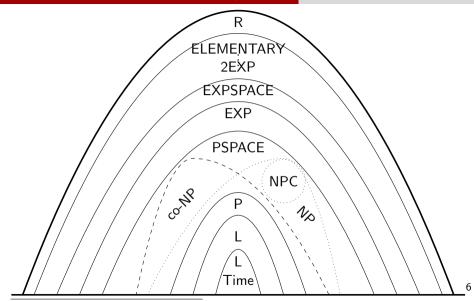
This is only the beginning

There are many more complexity classes out there, and very quickly relating them in a simple equation like this:

$$P \subseteq NP$$

Becomes this:

$$L \subseteq NL \subseteq P \subseteq NP \subseteq PSPACE = NPSPACE = IP = P_{CTC} \subseteq EXP \subseteq EXPSPACE$$



⁶http://www.texample.net/tikz/examples/complexity-classes/

• Does P = NP?



- Does P = NP?
- Does L = NL?

- Does P = NP?
- Does L = NL?
- Does BPP = P?

- Does P = NP?
- Does L = NL?
- Does BPP = P?
- Does BQP = BPP?

- Does P = NP?
- Does L = NL?
- Does BPP = P?
- Does BQP = BPP?
- Does NC = P?

- Does P = NP?
- Does L = NL?
- Does BPP = P?
- Does BQP = BPP?
- Does NC = P?
- Does P = PSPACE?

- Does P = NP?
- Does L = NL?
- Does BPP = P?
- Does BQP = BPP?
- Does NC = P?
- Does P = PSPACE?
- Does NP = co-NP?

- Does P = NP?
- Does L = NL?
- Does BPP = P?
- Does BQP = BPP?
- Does NC = P?
- Does P = PSPACE?
- Does NP = co-NP?
- And lots more...

The end

⁷http://www.smbc-comics.com/?id=3919

The end



⁸http://www.smbc-comics.com/?id=3919

Suggested books

- Quantum Computing Since Democritus by Scott Aaronson offers a broad overview of many complexity classes
- Introduction to the Theory of Computation by Michael Sipser is the recommended textbook for most computability and complexity theory courses

Suggested papers

- On Computable Numbers, with an Application to the Entscheidungsproblem by Alan
 Turing is Turing's PhD thesis, which provides the original definition of Turing Machines, a
 formal definition of the Universal Turing Machine, and a proof that the Halting problem is
 undecidable
- The Complexity of Theorem Proving Procedures by Stephen Cook provides the proof that $SAT \in NP$ -Complete
- Reducibility Among Combinatorial Problems by Richard Karp provides 21 of the earliest problems proven to be NP-Complete

Suggested websites

• https://complexityzoo.uwaterloo.ca/ is a Wiki originally developed by Scott Aaronson, which provides a list of every complexity class ever stated