

Randomized Algorithms

— P, NP, RP, PP, ZPP, BPP, ...

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Outline

1 RAMs & Turing Machines

2 Complexity Classes

- Deterministic Classes
- Space Complexity Classes
- Reduction & Completeness
- Randomized Complexity Classes

3 Transformation of Probability Distributions

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RAM (Random Access Machine)

- RAM is a model of computation used when describing and analyzing algorithms.
- A machine can perform operations involving registers and main memory.
- The *unit-cost* RAM: each instruction can be performed in one time step.
 - Too powerful; no known polynomial time simulation of this type of model by Turing machines.
- The *log-cost* RAM: each instruction requires time proportional to the logarithm of the size of its operands.

Turing Machine

A physical Turing machine (with finite amount of tape).

Deterministic Turing Machine

A deterministic Turing machine is a quadruple $M = (S, \Sigma, \delta, s)$.

- S : a finite set of **states** (s : the initial state)
- Σ : A finite set of **symbols** (including special symbols **BLANK** and **FIRST**).
- δ : the **transition function**.
 - $S \times \Sigma \mapsto (S \cup \{\text{HALT}, \text{YES}, \text{NO}\}) \times \Sigma \times \{\leftarrow, \rightarrow, \text{STAY}\}$.
 - HALT, YES, NO: The three halting states not in S .

Turing Machine (Input & Tape)

- The input to the TM: written on a tape.
- The TM, as an algorithm, may read from and write on this tape.
- Assume that HALT, YES, NO as well as the symbols \leftarrow , \rightarrow , and STAY are not in $S \cup \Sigma$.
- The TM begins in the initial state s with its cursor at the first symbol FIRST of input x .
- The input is a string of $(\Sigma \setminus \{\text{BLANK}, \text{FIRST}\})^*$.
 - The left-most BLANK on the tape: the end of the input string.

Turing Machine (Transition)

- The transition function δ : can be thought as a *program*.
- In each step, the TM reads the symbol α pointed by the cursor;
- Based on α and the current state, choose:
 - a next state;
 - a symbol β to be overwritten on α ;
 - a cursor motion direction from $\{\leftarrow, \rightarrow, \text{STAY}\}$.
- The cursor never falls off the left end of the input: FIRST.
- The BLANK symbol can be overwritten.

Turing Machine (Acceptance & Reject)

- The TM has **accepted** the input x : if the TM halts in the YES state.
- The TM has **rejected** the input x : if the TM halts in the NO state.
- State HALT: for the computation of functions whose range is not Boolean (output of the function is written on the tape).

Probabilistic Turing Machine

A probabilistic Turing machine is a Turing machine augmented with the ability to generate an unbiased coin flip in one step.

- This corresponds to a randomized algorithm.

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SAT

An instance of satisfiability (SAT):

$$(x_1 \wedge \neg x_2 \wedge x_4) \vee (\neg x_3 \wedge \neg x_4 \wedge x_5) \vee (\neg x_1 \wedge x_2 \wedge x_4 \wedge \neg x_5)$$

- x_1, x_2, \dots : variables
- $\neg x_1, x_2$: literals
- (\dots) : clauses

Language Recognition Problems

Language Recognition Problems

Any decision problem can be treated as a language recognition problem.

- Σ^* : the set of all possible strings over Σ .
- $|S|$: length of string s .

A language $L \subseteq \Sigma^*$ is any **collection of strings over Σ** .

A Language Recognition Problem

Decide whether a given string $x \in \Sigma^*$ belongs to L .

Complexity Class

A collection of languages all of whose recognition problems can be solved under prescribed bounds on the computational resources.

P & NP

P

The class **P** consists of all languages L which has a polynomial time algorithm A s.t. for any input $x \in \Sigma^*$,

- $x \in L \Rightarrow A(x)$ accepts;
- $x \notin L \Rightarrow A(x)$ rejects.

NP

The class **NP** consists of all languages L which has a polynomial time algorithm A s.t. for any input $x \in \Sigma^*$,

- $x \in L \Rightarrow \exists y \in \Sigma^*, A(x, y)$ accepts for $|y| \leq \text{poly}(|x|)$;
- $x \notin L \Rightarrow \forall y \in \Sigma^*, A(x, y)$ rejects.

For example, given an instance of satisfiability (SAT):

$$\mathbf{x} = (x_1 \wedge \neg x_2 \wedge x_4) \vee (\neg x_3 \wedge \neg x_4 \wedge x_5) \vee (\neg x_1 \wedge x_2 \wedge x_4 \wedge \neg x_5)$$

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Suppose we have the “proof” \mathbf{y} as

$$x_1 = \text{True}, x_2 = \text{False}, x_3 = \text{True}, x_4 = \text{True}, x_5 = \text{True}$$

For example, given an instance of satisfiability (SAT):

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Suppose we have the “proof” \mathbf{y} as

$$x_1 = \text{True}, x_2 = \text{False}, x_3 = \text{True}, x_4 = \text{True}, x_5 = \text{True}$$

We can check that $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \in L$ (encoded as string of $O(\log n)$ space in the tape) in polynomial time, where L denote the set of all satisfiable formula.

A Useful, Alternative Viewpoint

The class **P** consists of all language L such that for any $x \in L$, a proof of $x \in L$ (represented by the string y) can be **found** and **verified** in polynomial time.

The class **NP** consists of all language L such that for any $x \in L$, a proof of $x \in L$ (represented by the string y) can be **verified** in polynomial time.

Obviously,

$$P \subseteq NP.$$

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Complementary Classes

For any complexity class \mathcal{C} , the complementary class $\text{co-}\mathcal{C}$ is the set of languages whose complement is in \mathcal{C} . That is,

$$\text{co-}\mathcal{C} = \{L \mid \bar{L} \in \mathcal{C}\}.$$

Examples: co-**P** & co-**NP**

co-**P**

The class co-**P** consists of all languages L which has a polynomial time algorithm A s.t. for any input $x \in \Sigma^*$,

- $x \notin L \Rightarrow A(x)$ accepts;
- $x \in L \Rightarrow A(x)$ rejects.

co-**NP**

The class co-**NP** consists of all languages L which has a polynomial time algorithm A s.t. for any input $x \in \Sigma^*$,

- $x \notin L \Rightarrow \exists y \in \Sigma^*, A(x, y)$ accepts for $|y| \leq \text{poly}(|x|)$;
- $x \in L \Rightarrow \forall y \in \Sigma^*, A(x, y)$ rejects..

Open Questions: $P = NP \cap \text{co-}NP?$ $NP = \text{co-}NP?$

Similarly, . . .

EXP & NEXP

EXP

The class **EXP** consists of all languages L which has an **exponential** time algorithm A s.t. for any input $x \in \Sigma^*$,

- $x \in L \Rightarrow A(x)$ accepts;
- $x \notin L \Rightarrow A(x)$ rejects.

NEXP

The class **NEXP** consists of all languages L which has an **exponential** time algorithm A s.t. for any input $x \in \Sigma^*$,

- $x \in L \Rightarrow \exists y \in \Sigma^*, A(x, y)$ accepts for $|y| \leq \text{poly}(|x|)$;
- $x \notin L \Rightarrow \forall y \in \Sigma^*, A(x, y)$ rejects..

A Useful, Alternative Viewpoint

The class **EXP** consists of all language L such that for any $x \in L$, a proof of $x \in L$ (represented by the string y) can be **found** and **verified** in **exponential** time.

The class **NEXP** consists of all language L such that for any $x \in L$, a proof of $x \in L$ (represented by the string y) can be **verified** in **exponential** time.

Obviously,

$$\text{EXP} \subseteq \text{NEXP}.$$

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Space

- The space used by a TM: the number of distinct positions on the tape that are scanned during an execution.
 - For RAMs, its the number of words of memory required by an algorithm.
- **PSPACE** and **NPSPACE**: resembles the settings of **P** and **NP** but requiring polynomial **space**.
- A **PSPACE** algorithm may run for super-polynomial time (e.g., $2^{\text{poly}(n)}$).
- Known results: **PSPACE = NPSPACE**, **PSPACE = co-PSPACE**.
 - Savitch's theorem: a deterministic Turing machine can simulate a nondeterministic Turing machine without needing much more space.

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Reduction

Polynomial Reduction

A polynomial reduction from a language $L_1 \subseteq \Sigma^*$ to a language $L_2 \subseteq \Sigma^*$ is a function $f : \Sigma^* \mapsto \Sigma^*$ such that

- \exists a polynomial time algorithm that computes f
- $\forall x \in \Sigma^*, x_1 \in L_1$ if and only if $f(x) \in L_2$.

Completeness

NP-hard

A language L is **NP**-hard if, for all $L' \in \text{NP}$, there is a polynomial reduction from L' to L .

NP-complete

A language L is **NP**-complete if it is in **NP** and is **NP**-hard.

The first **NP**-complete problem: SAT (Cook-Levin Theorem (1971)).

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RP**RP**

The class **RP** (i.e., Randomized Polynomial time) consists of all languages L that have a randomized algorithm A which runs in **worst-case polynomial time** such that for any input $x \in \Sigma^*$:

- $x \in L \Rightarrow \Pr[A(x) \text{ accepts}] \geq \frac{1}{2}$.
 - $x \notin L \Rightarrow \Pr[A(x) \text{ accepts}] = 0$.
-
- Err only when $x \in L \Rightarrow$ **one-sided error**.

co-**RP**

co-**RP**

The class co-**RP** (i.e., complement Randomized Polynomial time) consists of all languages L that have a randomized algorithm A which runs in worst-case polynomial time such that for any input $x \in \Sigma^*$:

- $x \notin L \Rightarrow \Pr[A(x) \text{ accepts}] \geq \frac{1}{2}$.
 - $x \in L \Rightarrow \Pr[A(x) \text{ accepts}] = 0$.
-
- Err only when $x \notin L$. \Rightarrow one-sided error.

Exercise (3%)

Assume that we have the following class:

RP'

The class RP' consists of all languages L that have a randomized algorithm A which runs in worst-case polynomial time such that for any input $x \in \Sigma^*$:

- $x \in L \Rightarrow \Pr[A(x) \text{ accepts}] \geq \frac{1}{n^2}$.
- $x \notin L \Rightarrow \Pr[A(x) \text{ accepts}] = 0$.

Prove that $RP' = RP$.

$RP \cap \text{co-}RP$ **ZPP** (Zero-error Probabilistic Polynomial time)

The class **ZPP** is the class of languages that have Las Vegas algorithms running in expected polynomial time.

Why ZPP ?

- Suppose we have a language $L \in RP \cap \text{co-}RP$.
- L can be recognized by an RP algorithm A and a co- RP algorithm B .

A Las Vegas algorithm

Given the input x , perform the following procedure in iterations.

- ① If $A(x)$ accepts, then x must be a YES-instance;
 - ② Otherwise, if $B(x)$ rejects, then x must be a NO-instance.
 - ③ If neither of above occurs, continue to next iteration.
-
- The expected number of iterations is bounded!

PP**PP**

The class **PP** (i.e., Probabilistic Polynomial time) consists of all languages L that have a randomized algorithm A running in **worst-case polynomial time** such that for any input $x \in \Sigma^*$:

- $x \in L \Rightarrow \Pr[A(x) \text{ accepts}] > \frac{1}{2}$.
- $x \notin L \Rightarrow \Pr[A(x) \text{ accepts}] < \frac{1}{2}$.

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 - $x \notin L \Rightarrow \Pr[A(x) \text{ accepts}] < \frac{1}{2}$.
-
- To reduce the error probability of a two-sided error algorithm, we can perform several independent iterations on the same input.
 - Output the majority answer of these iterations.

BPP

BPP

The class **BPP** (i.e., Bounded-error Probabilistic Polynomial time) consists of all languages L that have a randomized algorithm A running in **worst-case polynomial time** such that for any input $x \in \Sigma^*$:

- $x \in L \Rightarrow \Pr[A(x) \text{ accepts}] \geq \frac{3}{4}$.
- $x \notin L \Rightarrow \Pr[A(x) \text{ accepts}] \leq \frac{1}{4}$.

BPP

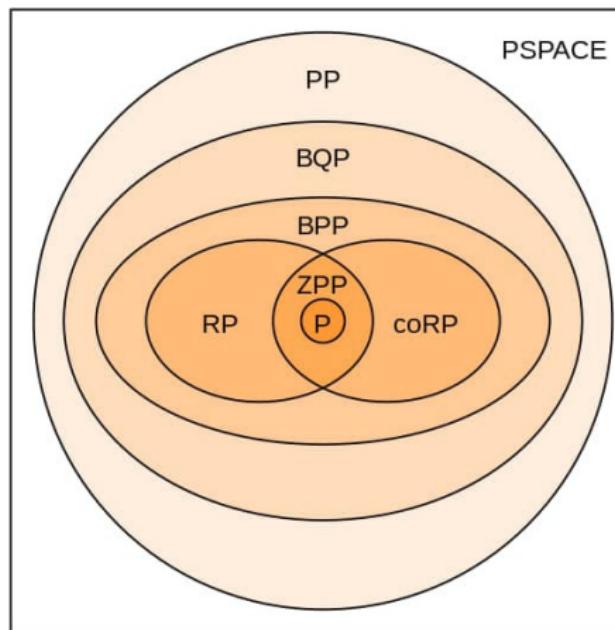
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Source: Wikipedia



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p -coin & Transforming a Probability Distribution

p -coin

A coin is called a p -coin if it shows HEAD after one coin-flipping with probability p .

Probability Distribution Transformations

A function that transforms a p -coin to get a q -coin, for $0 < p, q < 1$, is called a p -to- q transformation.

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Easy cases:

- p -to-0 and p -to-1..

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- p -to- $(1 - p)$

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Easy cases:

- p -to-0 and p -to-1..
- p -to- $(1 - p)$
- p -to- p^2 .

p -coin & Transforming a Probability Distribution

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Probability Distribution Transformations

A function that transforms a p -coin to get a q -coin, for $0 < p, q < 1$, is called a p -to- q transformation.

Easy cases:

- p -to-0 and p -to-1..
- p -to- $(1 - p)$
- p -to- p^2 .
- p -to- $\binom{n}{k} p^k (1 - p)^{n-k}$, for $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $k \in \{0, 1, \dots, n\}$.

Exercise (2%)

Given a p -coin, where $0 < p < 1$.

- Repeat the following steps until it returns YES or NO.
 - ① flip the p -coin twice.
 - ② if the results are HEAD-TAIL, return YES;
 - ③ else if the results are TAIL-HEAD, return NO;
 - ④ otherwise, continue to next iteration
- Please prove that the above procedure is a p -to- $\frac{1}{2}$ transformation (i.e., deriving a fair coin).
- Please compute the expected number of coin-flips of the above procedure.

Concatenation Rule

Concatenation Rule

Given a p -coin and a q -coin, we can derive a pq -coin as follows.

- ① First, simulate the p -coin. If it is TAIL, output TAIL
- ② Otherwise, simulate the q -coin and output the outcome.

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Given a p -coin and a q -coin, we can derive a pq -coin as follows.

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-
- By the Concatenation Rule & the exercise, we can derive a $p/2$ -coin when we are given a p -coin.

Discussions