

# Design and Analysis of Algorithm

## Basics of Complexity Theory

- 1 Decision Problem
- 2 Deterministic Computation
- 3 Several Important Complexity Classes
  - $\mathcal{P}$  vs.  $\mathcal{NP}$
  - $\mathcal{NP}$ -complete
- 4 Randomized Computation
  - $\mathcal{BPP}$

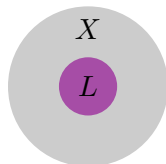
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## Decision Problem

**Decision Problem:** recognition of a set of strings  $L \subseteq X$

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- $x$ : a string in  $X$  (each string corresponds to an instance)
- $L$ : language (a subset of  $X$  satisfying some property)

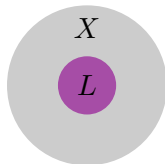


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### Example

- $X = \mathbb{N}$
- $L$  are Primes =  $\{2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, \dots\}$
- decide if  $x$  is a prime.

## Motivation for Complexity Theory

We always want to know if a given problem can be *efficiently* solved by an algorithm.

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We always want to know if a given problem can be *efficiently* solved by an algorithm.

- ① Precisely model algorithms
  - What is computation?
  - What is computable?
- ② Precisely define what does it means for efficient.

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# Turing Machine

1936, London Mathematical Society: On computable numbers, with an application to the Entscheidungsproblem.

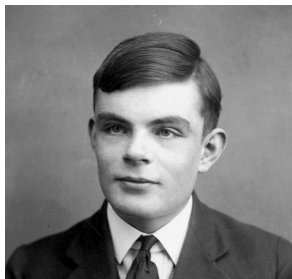
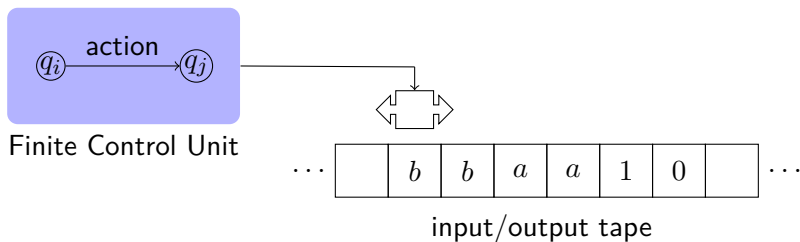


Figure: Alan Turing



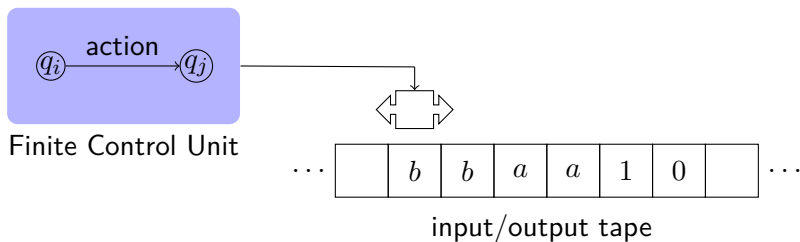
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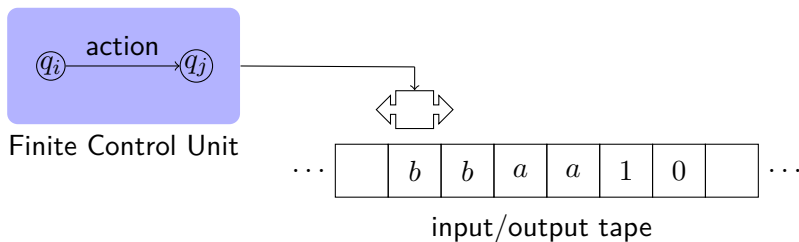
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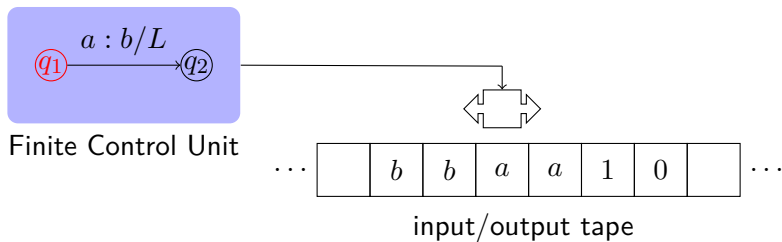
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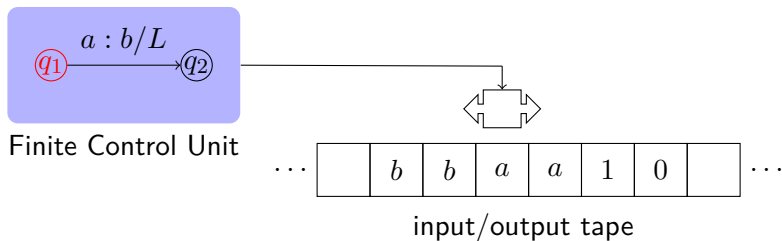


- At the beginning, the tape contains the input in several cells. Other places are empty.
- During computation, the control unit monitor current state and the head value, can do the following operations:
  - 1 wipe off old value and write new values
  - 2 change the current state
  - 3 move head left or right

## An Example

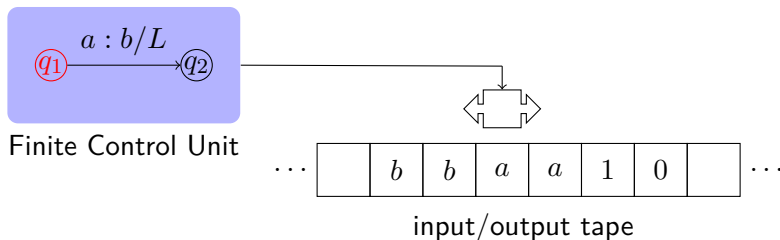


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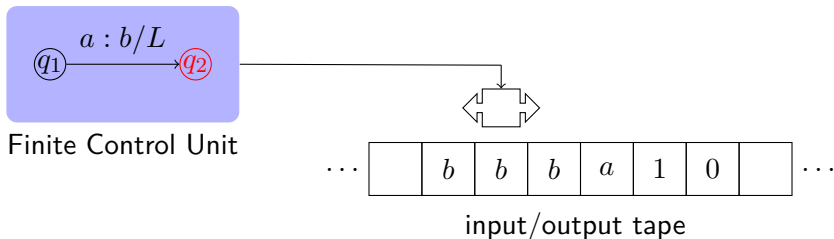


- $a \rightarrow b$ ; move left; current state  $q_1 \rightarrow q_2$

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Mimic how human being solve a problem

- TM has a finite number of states (memory)
- TM is provided a tape, which contains infinite cells (paper)
- a symbol can be scanned from a cell or printed to a cell (reading and writing)

### Definition 1 (Turing Machine)

TM consists  $(Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, \delta, q_0, q_{\text{acc}}, q_{\text{rej}})$

- $Q$ : a finite set of states
- $\Sigma$ : input alphabets
- $\Gamma$ : working alphabets (including  $\perp$ ,  $\Sigma \subseteq \Gamma$ )
- $q_0$ : the initial state of  $Q$ ;
- $q_{\text{acc}}, q_{\text{rej}}$ : accept and reject state of  $Q$
- $\delta$ : transition function

$$\delta : (Q \setminus \{q_{\text{acc}}, q_{\text{rej}}\}) \times \Gamma \rightarrow Q \times \Gamma \times \{L, R\}$$

## Running Time of TM

### Definition 2

We denote the running time of TM by  $t_M(n)$ , which is the maximum steps that TM runs on all inputs of length  $n$

Polynomial Time

$$\bigcup_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \text{TIME}(n^k)$$

# The Extended Church-Turing Thesis

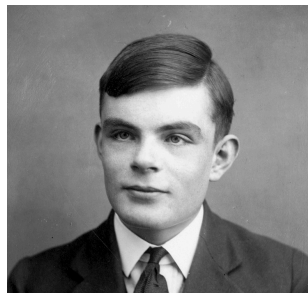


Figure: Alonzo Church & Alan Turing

Everyone's intuition of **Efficient** Algorithms = **Polynomial-Time** deterministic TMs

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NDTM doesn't really correspond to any real-world physical model, it's just a theoretical construction.

Non-determinism doesn't give TM any power to recognize more languages.

- Any NDTM can be simulated by a TM (with potentially exponential time overhead) by trying all branches of the NDTM machine “in parallel” by using BFS.

## Notes

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*Why TMs are so powerful?*

- TM has a working tape (好记性不如烂笔头)
- TM itself can be treated as data! TM can take another TM as its input.

# Universal TM



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Next, we introduce two important sets of problems, characterized by time complexity by DTM and NDTM:

$$\mathcal{P} \text{ and } \mathcal{NP}$$

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### Example of $\mathcal{P}$ Languages

- $L = \{\text{even integers}\}$ ,  $M$  just need to check if the last bit is 0.
- $L = \text{PRIME}$ ,  $M$  is the AKS primality test algorithm.

### Definition 4 ( $\mathcal{NP}$ Languages - Conventional)

$L \in \mathcal{NP}$  if there exists a non-deterministic poly-time TM  $M$ :

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#### Alert

$\mathcal{NP}$  means non-deterministic poly-time, not **non-poly-time**!

## Modern Definition

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$L \in \mathcal{NP}$  if there exists a deterministic poly-time TM  $M$ :

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### Equivalence between traditional and modern definitions

- Even though  $M$  is a deterministic machine, its second argument  $w$  captures the nondeterminism in the definition.

## Examples of $\mathcal{NP}$ Language - Composites

$L = \text{COMPOSITE}$

- instance  $x$  is an integer
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In fact, COMPOSITE also belong to  $\mathcal{P}$  (think why?)

## Examples of $\mathcal{NP}$ Language - SAT and 3-SAT

**SAT:** Given a CNF formula  $\Phi$ , check if it has a satisfying truth assignment.

**3-SAT:** SAT where each clause contains exactly 3 literals

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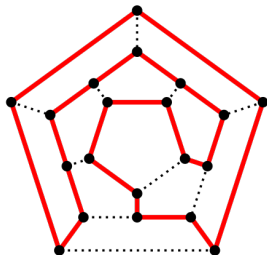
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### Example of 3-SAT

- instance  $\Phi = (\overline{x_1} \vee x_2 \vee x_3) \wedge (x_1 \vee \overline{x_2} \vee x_3) \wedge (\overline{x_1} \vee x_2 \vee x_4)$
- witness:  $x_1 = 1, x_2 = 1, x_3 = 0, x_4 = 0$

## Examples of $\mathcal{NP}$ Language - Hamilton Path

**Hamilton Graph:** Given an undirected graph  $G = (V, E)$ , does there exist a simple path that visits every node?



**Figure:** Hamiltonian Graph (a path traverses through each vertex exactly once)

**witness:** a path

$M$  check if the path contains each node in  $V$  exactly once

## $\mathcal{P}$ vs. $\mathcal{NP}$

As per definition,  $\mathcal{P} \subseteq \mathcal{NP}$ . Because  $L \in \mathcal{P} \Rightarrow L \in \mathcal{NP}$ :

- $M'(x, w)$  can always sets  $w = \perp$  and decide whether  $x \in L$  using  $M$ .
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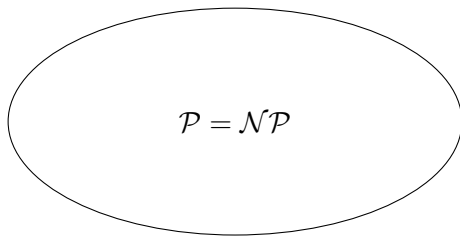
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1971: Cook, Edmonds, Levin, Yablonski, Gödel

Perhaps the most prominent question in TCS:

$$\mathcal{P} \stackrel{?}{=} \mathcal{NP}$$

$$\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{NP}$$



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The foundation of modern cryptography collapse!



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In principle, every aspect of life could be efficiently and globally optimized ...

... life as we know it would be different!

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Let  $f : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^m$ . To efficiently find a pre-image  $x$  of  $y$ , the idea is to determine  $x$  bit-by-bit.  $f(x_1 || \cdots || x_n) = y$ .

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Define a collection of languages  $L_i = \{(y, z) | \exists w \text{ s.t. } y = f(z || w)\}$ , where  $z \in \{0, 1\}^i$ ,  $w \in \{0, 1\}^{n-i}$

- clearly  $L_i \in \mathcal{NP}$  and thus also belong to  $\mathcal{P}$  by assumption, we define algorithm Invert as:

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**Algorithm 4:** Invert( $y$ )

---

```
1:  $z = \epsilon$ ;  
2: for  $i \leftarrow 1$  to  $n$  do  
3:   if  $(y, z || 0) \in L_i$  then  $z = z || 0$ ;  
4:   else  $z = z || 1$ ;  
5: end  
6: return  $z$ 
```

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## The Reverse Direction

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- We have many candidates of OWFs, but they require assumptions.

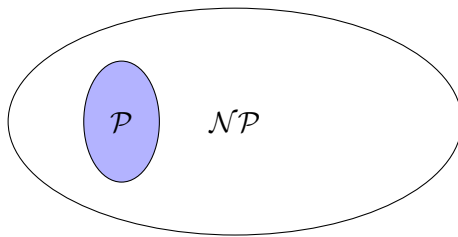
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### Warning

OWFs do not exist *does not imply*  $\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{NP}$





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Q: How to solve an instance of 3-SAT with  $n$  variables?

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Consensus opinion:  $\mathcal{P} \neq \mathcal{NP}$

- Because  $\mathcal{NP}$  contains many languages that are not believed to be in  $\mathcal{P}$ , such as: 3-SAT and Hamiltonian graph.

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Q: Can we do anything substantially more clever?

Conjecture:  $\underbrace{\text{No poly-time algorithm}}_{\text{intractable}}$  for 3-SAT

# Outline

- 1 Decision Problem
- 2 Deterministic Computation
- 3 Several Important Complexity Classes
  - $\mathcal{P}$  vs.  $\mathcal{NP}$
  - $\mathcal{NP}$ -complete
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  - $\mathcal{BPP}$

## Motivation of Reduction

$\mathcal{NP}$  is the set of many problems.

*How to figure out the relations among them?*

A central approach is finding reductions



## Polynomial Time Reducibility

Language  $L'$  is *poly-time reducible* or *reduces* to language  $L$ , written as  $L' \leq_p L$ , if there is a deterministic poly-time function  $\mathcal{R} : L' \rightarrow L$  so that:

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We should pay attention to:

- the direction of  $\mathcal{R}$
- the time complexity of  $\mathcal{R}$

### Definition 6 ( $\mathcal{NP}$ -Hard)

$L$  is said to be  $\mathcal{NP}$ -hard if for every  $\mathcal{NP}$ -language  $L'$ , there is a deterministic poly-time algorithm (a reduction)  $\mathcal{R}$ :

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- We can interpret that the languages in  $\mathcal{NP}$  is not harder than that in  $\mathcal{NP}$ -hard.

Fact: languages in  $\mathcal{NP}$ -hard may **not** fall in  $\mathcal{NP}$ .

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**Definition Intuition:**  $\mathcal{NP}$ -complete represents the set of hardest problems in  $\mathcal{NP}$ .

- We can solve all problems in  $\mathcal{NP}$  if we find an efficient algorithm for any problems in  $\mathcal{NP}$ -complete.

## Theorem 8

*Suppose  $Y \in \mathcal{NP}$ -complete, then  $Y \in \mathcal{P} \iff \mathcal{P} = \mathcal{NP}$ .*

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$\Rightarrow$ :  $\forall X \in \mathcal{NP}$ ,  $X \leq_p Y$  because  $Y \in \mathcal{NP}$ -complete. Now suppose  $Y \in \mathcal{P}$ , we further have  $\mathcal{NP} \subseteq \mathcal{P}$ . We already know  $\mathcal{P} \subseteq \mathcal{NP}$ , thus  $\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{NP}$ .

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- This theorem essentially states that if  $\mathcal{P} \cap \mathcal{NPC}$  is non-empty iff  $\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{NP}$ .

## $\mathcal{P}$ vs. $\mathcal{NP}$ revisited

Overwhelming consensus (still):  $\mathcal{P} \neq \mathcal{NP}$ .

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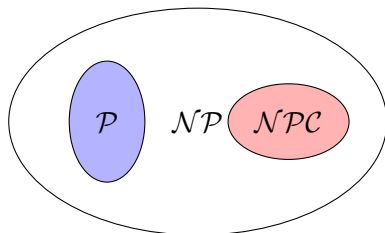


Figure:  $\mathcal{P} \neq \mathcal{NP}$

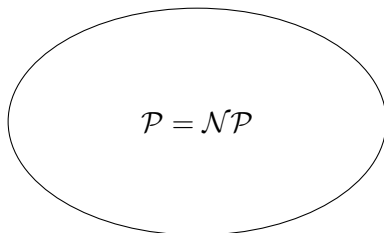


Figure:  $\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{NP}$



## $\mathcal{P}$ vs. $\mathcal{NP}$ revisited

Overwhelming consensus (still):  $\mathcal{P} \neq \mathcal{NP}$ .

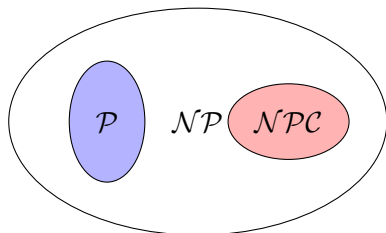


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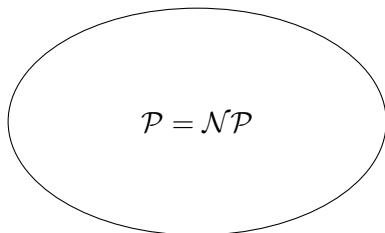
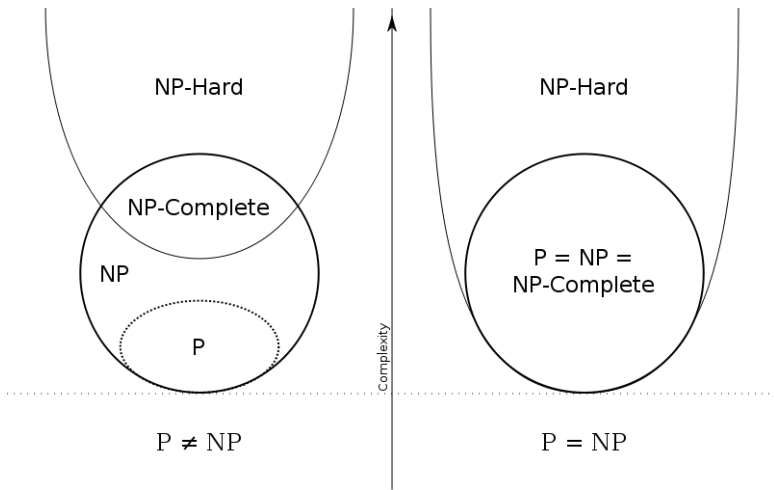


Figure:  $\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{NP}$

Why we believe  $\mathcal{P} \neq \mathcal{NP}$ ? Because some problems appear significantly harder.



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## Motivation of Randomized Algorithm

TM models deterministic algorithms.

TM does not seem to capture one aspect of reality — the ability to make random choices during computation

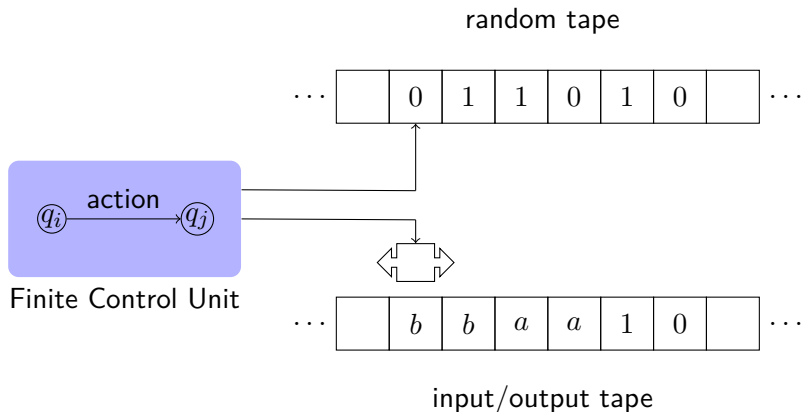
- Most programming languages provide a built-in RNG.

It makes sense to consider algorithms that can toss a coin, a.k.a. use a source of random bits. Such algorithms have been implicitly studied for a long time.

- estimate facts about a large sample by taking a small sample
- simulate real-world systems that are themselves probabilistic, such as nuclear fission and the stock market
- differential equations

# Probabilistic Turing Machine

Probabilistic Polynomial-time TM models probabilistic algorithm.



## PTM vs. NDTM

NDTM is a TM with two transition functions. PTM is syntactically similar.

The difference is in how we interpret the working of TM.

- In a PTM, each transition is taken with probability  $1/2$ , a computation that runs for time  $t$  gives rise  $2^t$  branches in the graph of all computations, each of which is taken with probability  $1/2^t$ .  $\Pr[M(x) = 1]$  is simply the *fraction* of branches that end with  $M$  outputting a 1.
- In a NDTM,  $M(x) = 1$  iff there exists a branch that outputs 1

On a conceptual level, PTM and NDTM are very different

- PTM like TM and unlike NDTM, is intended to model realistic computation devices.

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## Bounded-Error Probabilistic Polynomial Time

### Definition 9 ( $\mathcal{BPP}$ Complexity)

$L \in \mathcal{BPP}$  iff there exists a probabilistic polynomial time TM  $M$  such that:

$$\forall x \in L : \Pr[M(x) = 1] \geq \alpha$$

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### Bounded-error Probabilistic Polynomial Time (weak version)

- A typical choices is  $\alpha = 2/3$ ,  $\beta = 1/3$ . In this case, the class of decision problems solvable by a probabilistic TM in polynomial time with an error probability  $e$  bounded away from  $1/3$  for all instances

## Reduce the Error (1/2)

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- It can be any constant between  $(0, 1/2)$ .
- It does not even have to be constant:  $\epsilon$  could be as high as  $1/2 - n^{-c}$  on one hand, or as small as  $2^{-n^c}$  on the other hand, where  $c$  is any positive constant, and  $n$  is the length of input.

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- The idea is if the algorithm is run many times, the chance that the majority of the runs are wrong drops off exponentially as a consequence of the **Chernoff bound**.

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**Chernoff Bounds (Lower Tail):** Let  $X = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$ ,  $\Pr[X_i] = p$ ,  $\mu = \mathbb{E}(X) = np$ .

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Do the Majority Vote, i.e., set  $(1 - \delta)\mu = n/2$  and thus  $\delta = 1 - 1/2p$ , we obtain:

$$\Pr[X \leq n/2] \leq e^{-n \frac{(1-2p)^2}{8p}}$$

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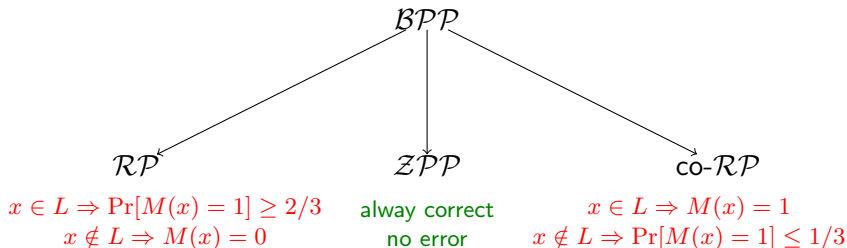
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[Agrawal, Kayal, Saxena 2002]: gave a deterministic polynomial-time algorithm for PRIME, thus showing that it is in  $\mathcal{P}$ .

## One-sided and Zero-sided Error

$\mathcal{ZPP}$ : probabilistic polynomial-time TM always returns correct YES or NO answer, or halts with low probability, a.k.a. running time is polynomial **in expectation** for every input

two-sided error

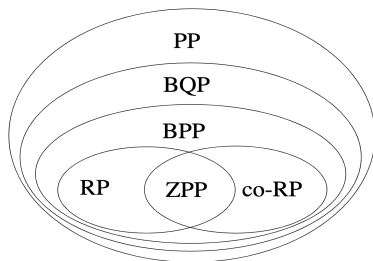


- $BPP$ : Monte Carlo algorithms (probabilistic) likely to be correct in strict polynomial running time
- $ZPP$ : Las Vegas algorithms (probabilistic) are always correct in expected polynomial running time

## *BPP* in Relation to Other Probabilistic Complexity Classes

*BQP* (bounded-error quantum polynomial time): the class of decision problems solvable by a quantum TM in polynomial time with bounded error

- It is the quantum analogue of *BPP*





## Limits of $BPP$

**Consensus:**  $\mathcal{P} \subseteq \underline{\mathcal{ZPP} = \mathcal{RP} \cap \text{co-}\mathcal{RP}} \subseteq BPP \subseteq \mathcal{NP}$

### $\mathcal{P} \subseteq BPP$

- An important example of a problem in  $BPP$  still not known to be in  $\mathcal{P}$  is **polynomial identity testing** — determining whether a polynomial is identically equal to the zero polynomial, when you have access to the value of the polynomial for any given input, but not to the coefficients.

### $BPP \subseteq \mathcal{NP}$

- Adleman's theorem:  $BPP \subseteq P/\text{poly}$  (polynomial-size Boolean circuits)
- Karp-Levin theorem:  $\mathcal{NP} \subseteq P/\text{poly} \Rightarrow \text{PH} = \sum_2^P$

Thus,  $\mathcal{NP} \subseteq BPP$  will imply collapse of PH, which is unlikely to be true. In other words,  $\nexists$  bounded-error probabilistic algorithms for  $\mathcal{NPC}$  problems.