

CS-E4530

# Computational Complexity Theory

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Spring 2018

Lecture 16:

# **Fine-grained Complexity, Counting and Closing Remarks**

# Random-access Machines

# Limitations of Turing Machines

- **Turing machines are unwieldy for discussing fine-grained complexity**
  - Turing machines are very mechanical and don't reflect all capabilities of modern computers
  - Indeed, Turing machines predate modern computers
- **One key limitation: no random access**
  - For example, reading the  $i$ th entry of an array takes at least  $i$  time just due to moving the head

# RAM Models

- Various **random-access machine models** address this limitation
- A random access machine has the following features (informally):
  - An infinite number of **registers**, each capable of storing a single number
  - A finite **instruction set** (think assembly language)
  - Certain **addressing** instructions allowing direct access to a register specified by a value of other register
  - A specific instruction for **halting**

# Register Values

- **One can define different RAM models based on what values the registers can hold:**
  - **Real RAM:** registers can hold arbitrary real numbers
  - **Integer RAM:** registers can hold arbitrary positive integers
  - **Word RAM:** registers can hold integers of size  $O(\log n)$ , where  $n$  is the length of the input
- **The first two models are very powerful, but useful for discussing upper bounds**

# Time and Space for RAMs

- **Time for RAM models:**

- Number of elementary instructions executed
- Addressing and number operations ( $+$ ,  $-$ ,  $=$ ,  $\leq$ ) are assumed to be constant-time operations

- **Space for RAM models:**

- Number of registers used
- Note that real and integer RAMs can solve lots of problems in *constant* space by exploiting unbounded register values

# Fine-grained Complexity

- **Application of RAM models: understanding complexity landscape inside P**
- **Let  $L \in \mathbf{P}$  be a language**
  - What is the smallest constant  $c \geq 1$  such that  $L$  can be solved in time  $O(n^c)$  with random-access machines?
  - This gives rise to **fine-grained complexity**



# Fine-grained Complexity

- **Typical question:** what is the **relative complexity** of problems  $L_1$  and  $L_2$ ?
  - **Typical result:** if  $L_1$  can be solved in time  $O(n^{c-\epsilon})$  for some specific constant  $c$ , then problem  $L_2$  can also be solved in time  $O(n^{c-\epsilon})$
  - Here  $O(n^c)$  is usually the best known upper bound for  $L_1$  and  $L_2$
  - This means working with reductions that
    - can be computed in significantly faster than  $O(n^c)$
    - increase the instance size sub-linearly
  - Though other variations on the theme are possible

**Hard Problems in P?**

# Hard Problems in P?

- **Recent work in fine-grained complexity has identified certain problems in P that seem to be ‘canonically expressive’ in some sense:**
  - **Best known algorithm:**  $O(n^c)$  for some constant  $c$  (up to sub-polynomial factors)
  - Used as a subroutine in best known algorithms for many other problems
  - Lower bound  $\Omega(n^c)$  would imply that many known algorithms for other problems are optimal
- **This is not hardness in a structural complexity sense**
  - Useful for identifying relationships inside P
  - Tells us that we are facing the same algorithmic challenge for many problems

# Three-sum

## 3SUM problem

Given a set  $S$  of  $n$  numbers, decide if there are distinct numbers  $x, y, z \in S$  such that  $x + y + z = 0$ .

- **Trivial algorithm:**  $O(n^3)$
- **Best upper bound:** roughly  $O(n^2)$
- **Open:** is there a  $O(n^{2-\epsilon})$  algorithm for any  $\epsilon > 0$ ?

# Matrix Multiplication

## Matrix multiplication

Given two matrices  $A$  and  $B$ , compute the matrix product  $C = AB$ , where

$$C_{ik} = \sum_j A_{ij} B_{jk} .$$

- **Trivial algorithm:**  $O(n^3)$
- **Best upper bound:** roughly  $O(n^{2.373})$  (???)
- **Open:** what is the real complexity of matrix multiplication?
- **Matrix multiplication is very expressive problem with lots of applications**

# Min-Sum Matrix Multiplication

## Min-sum (semiring) matrix multiplication

Given two matrices  $A$  and  $B$ , compute the min-sum matrix product  $C = AB$ , where

$$C_{ik} = \min_j (A_{ij} + B_{jk}).$$

- **Trivial algorithm:**  $O(n^3)$
- **Best upper bound:** roughly  $O(n^3)$
- **Open:** is there a  $O(n^{3-\varepsilon})$  algorithm for any  $\varepsilon > 0$ ?

# All-pairs Shortest Paths

## APSP

Given a weighted undirected/directed graph  $G = (V, E)$ , compute the distance  $d(v, u)$  for all pairs of vertices  $u, v \in V$ .

- **Floyd-Warshall:**  $O(n^3)$
- **Using min-sum MM:**  $\log n$  applications of min-sum MM
- **Open:** is there a  $O(n^{3-\epsilon})$  algorithm for any  $\epsilon > 0$ ?
- Closely connected to the complexity of min-sum matrix multiplication

# Set Cover with Two Sets

## Set Cover with Two Sets

Given a set family  $\mathcal{S}$  of size  $n$  over universe  $U$  of size  $m$ , decide if there are two sets  $S_1, S_2 \in \mathcal{S}$  such that  $S_1 \cup S_2 = U$ .

- **Trivial algorithm:**  $O(n^2m)$
- **Open:** is there a  $n^{2-\varepsilon} \text{poly}(m)$  algorithm for any  $\varepsilon > 0$ ?
- **This question connects polynomial-time algorithms to exponential-time algorithms:**
  - If set cover with two sets can be solved in time  $n^{2-\varepsilon} \text{poly}(m)$ , then CNF-SAT has an algorithm with running time  $2^{\delta n} \text{poly}(m)$  for some  $\delta < 2$
  - That is, the **strong exponential time hypothesis** has consequences for problems in P



# Counting Complexity

# Counting and Enumeration

- **Problems in P and NP can be viewed as decision problems of specific type:**
  - Problem is defined by a polynomial-time Turing machine  $M$  accepting two inputs  $x$  and  $y$
  - Question is whether for given  $x \in \{0, 1\}^*$ , is there a  $y \in \{0, 1\}^*$  with length polynomial in  $|x|$  such that  $M(x, y) = 1$
- **We can similarly ask related counting and enumeration questions:**
  - **Counting:** count the number of  $y$  such that  $M(x, y) = 1$
  - **Enumerate:** list all  $y$  such that  $M(x, y) = 1$

# Counting and Enumeration

- **Enumeration can clearly be very difficult**
  - The number of certificates  $y$  can be exponential in  $|x|$
- **What about counting?**
  - If the decision problem is in P, what does this imply about counting?
  - Turns out counting is often more difficult than decision

# Perfect Matching

## Definition (Perfect matching)

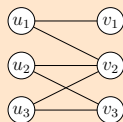
- **Instance:** Bipartite graph  $B = (U, V, E)$ , where  $U = \{u_1, \dots, u_n\}$ ,  $V = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ ,  $E \subseteq U \times V$ .
  - **Question:** Is there a set  $E' \subseteq E$  of  $n$  edges such that for any two distinct edges  $(u, v), (u', v') \in E'$ ,  $u \neq u'$  and  $v \neq v'$  (i.e., is there a **perfect matching**)?
- 
- We saw a polynomial-time randomised algorithm finding a perfect matching
  - The related counting problem #MATCHING ask us to count the number of perfect matchings in a bipartite graph

# Permanent and #MATCHING

- Perfect matching problem is related to computing the **determinant** of the adjacency matrix  $A^G$
- The counting version is related to the problem of computing the **permanent** of the matrix adjacency matrix:

$$\text{perm}(A^G) = \sum_{\pi} \prod_{i=1}^n A_{i,\pi(i)}^G = \sum_{\pi} A_{1,\pi(1)}^G A_{2,\pi(2)}^G \cdots A_{n,\pi(n)}^G$$

## Example



$$A^G = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{perm}(A^G) &= A_{1,1}^G A_{2,2}^G A_{3,3}^G + A_{1,1}^G A_{2,3}^G A_{3,2}^G + \\ &= A_{1,2}^G A_{2,1}^G A_{3,3}^G + A_{1,2}^G A_{2,3}^G A_{3,1}^G + \\ &= A_{1,3}^G A_{2,1}^G A_{3,2}^G + A_{1,3}^G A_{2,2}^G A_{3,1}^G \end{aligned}$$

# Counting and Probability

## Definition (Graph reliability)

- **Instance:** An undirected graph  $G = (V, E)$ , vertices  $s, t \in V$ .
  - **Question:** Compute the probability that there remains a  $s$ - $t$ -path if all edges of  $G$  fail (i.e. are deleted) independently with probability  $1/2$ .
- 
- **Graph reliability can be solved by counting:**
    - After deletions, the remaining graph is any subgraph of  $G$  with equal probability
    - Solution is thus given by counting subgraphs of  $G$  where  $s$  and  $t$  are connected, and dividing it with the number of all subgraphs

# Class #P

## Definition

A function  $f: \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$  is in **#P** (pronounced ‘*sharp p*’) if there exists a polynomial  $p: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$  and a polynomial-time Turing machine  $M$  such that

$$f(x) = |\{y \in \{0, 1\}^{p(|x|)} : M(x, y) = 1\}|.$$

- **Are all functions in #P computable in polynomial time?**
  - That is, does it hold  $\#P = FP$ ?
  - **FP** is the class of functions  $f: \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^*$  computable in polynomial time

# #P-completeness

- **Completeness for #P is defined in terms of oracle reductions**
  - Generalising prior definitions, a Turing machine with oracle access to function  $f$  can obtain value  $f(x)$  in single time step, assuming it has computed  $x$
  - For any function  $f: \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^*$ , we denote by  $FP^f$  the class of functions computable by polynomial-time Turing machines with oracle access to  $f$



# #P-completeness

## Definition

A function  $f: \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^*$  is **#P-complete** if  $f \in \#P$  and every function  $g \in \#P$  is in  $FP^f$ .

## Theorem

*If  $f$  is #P-complete and  $f \in FP$ , then  $\#P = FP$ .*

# #P-completeness

- **Some examples of #P-complete problems:**
  - **#SAT**: counting satisfying assignments for a CNF formula
  - **#2-SAT**: counting satisfying assignments for a 2-CNF formula (decision version in P)
  - **#MATCHING** and **PERMANENT**
  - **#HAMILTONIAN-CYCLE**
- **In particular, counting versions of many problems in P are #P-complete**
  - Not everything, though: counting spanning trees is in FP

# Toda's Theorem

- **How powerful is counting exactly?**
  - Clearly  $\#P \subseteq PSPACE$
  - Both PH and  $\#P$  are generalisations of NP; what is the relationship between these classes?

## Theorem (Toda's theorem)

$$PH = P^{\#\text{SAT}}$$

- **That is, all problems in PH can be solved in polynomial time with oracle access to a  $\#P$ -complete function**

**Towards Lower Bounds**

# Concrete Lower Bounds?

- **Proving concrete lower bounds for Turing machines and circuits seems to be out of reach**
- **Two general lines of research related to this issue:**
  - Proving lower bounds for **restricted** models of computation
  - Understanding **why** general lower bounds are difficult

# Concrete Lower Bounds

- **Examples of models with concrete lower bounds:**
  - **Decision trees:** understanding how many bits of the input we have to look to decide an answer
  - **Communication complexity:**
    - Alice and Bob are both holding  $n$ -bit strings, and want to compute a function  $f: \{0, 1\}^n \times \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$
    - How many bits they have to communicate?
  - **Monotone circuits:** complexity for circuits without NOT gates

# Circuit Lower Bounds

- **There are also (fairly weak) circuit lower bounds known**
  - $AC^0$  is the class of problems solvable by polynomial-size, constant-depth, unbounded fan-in circuits
  - $ACC$  is  $AC^0$  with counters (up to an arbitrary constant  $m$ )
- **The following represent state of the art:**
  - Parity function (that is, the counting number of ones in input modulo 2) is not in  $AC^0$  (1980s)
  - $NTIME(2^n) \not\subseteq ACC$  (Williams 2010)

# Barriers: Relativisation

- Can **diagonalisation** be used to prove  $P \neq NP$ ?
  - Diagonalisation works for undecidability and hierarchy theorems, why not for  $P \neq NP$ ?
- **Diagonalisation relies on specific properties of Turing machines**
  - (I) Turing machines can be efficiently represented as strings
  - (II) Turing machines can be simulated by Turing machines with small overhead



# Barriers: Relativisation

- **The properties (I) and (II) also hold for oracle Turing machines**
  - Implies that any statement diagonalisation proves for complexity classes defined in terms of Turing machines, it also proves it for complexity classes defined in terms of oracle Turing machines
  - This implies a limitation for diagonalisation

## **Theorem (Baker, Gill, Solovay 1975)**

*There exist languages  $A$  and  $B$  such that  $P^A = NP^A$  and  $P^B \neq NP^B$ .*

# Barriers: Natural Proofs

- Why are **circuit lower bounds** difficult?
- One can define a notion of **natural proof** for circuit lower bounds
  - This is a specific, technical notion!
  - Most known lower bounds are natural in this sense
  - It has been proven that if sufficiently strong one-way functions exist, then natural proofs cannot prove that an explicit function  $f$  is not in  $P_{/poly}$
- **In summary:** there is non-trivial amount of research explaining why certain 'obvious' proof techniques do not work for proving lower bounds

# Lecture 16: Summary

- RAM models
- Fine-grained complexity
- Counting complexity and #P
  
- Explicit lower bounds for weaker models are known
- Explicit lower bounds for circuits and Turing machines seem difficult to prove