Lesson 3: Alternating Turing machines

Theme: The notion of alternating Turing machine and the relation with DTM.

1 Definition

A 1-tape alternating Turing machine (ATM) is a system $\mathcal{M} = \langle \Sigma, \Gamma, Q, U, q_0, q_{acc}, q_{rej}, \delta \rangle$, where each component is as follows.

- $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$ and $\Gamma = \{0, 1, \sqcup\}$ are the input and tape alphabets, respectively.
- Q is a finite set of states.
- $U \subseteq Q$ is a finite subset of Q.
- q_0, q_{acc}, q_{rej} are the initial state, accepting state and rejecting state, respectively.
- $\delta \subseteq (Q \{q_{\mathsf{acc}}, q_{\mathsf{rej}}\}) \times \Gamma \times Q \times \Gamma \times \{\mathsf{Left}, \mathsf{Right}\}.$

Note that ATM is very much like NTM, except that it has one extra component U. The states in U are called *universal* states, and the states in Q - U are called *existential* states.

The notions of *initial/halting/accepting/rejecting* configuration are defined similarly as in NTM/DTM. A configuration C is called *existential/universal* configuration, if the the state in C is an existential/universal state. The notion of "one step computation" $C \vdash C'$ for ATM is also similar to the one for DTM/NTM. When $C \vdash C'$, we say that C' is one of the next configuration of C (w.r.t. \mathcal{M}).

On input word w, the run of \mathcal{M} on w is a tree T where each node in the tree is labelled with a configuration of \mathcal{M} according to the following rules.

- The root node of T is labelled with the initial configuration of \mathcal{M} on w.
- Every other node x in T is labelled as follows.

If x is labelled with a configuration C and C_1, \ldots, C_n are all the next configurations of C, then x has n children y_1, \ldots, y_n labelled with C_1, \ldots, C_n , respectively.

Note that if x is labelled with C that does not have next configuration, then it is a leaf node, i.e., it does not have any children.

Let T be the run of \mathcal{M} on w and let x be a node in T. We say that x leads to acceptance, if the following holds.

- x is a leaf node labelled with an accepting configuration.
- If x is labelled with an existential configuration, then one of its children leads to acceptance.
- If x is labelled with a universal configuration, then all of its children lead to acceptance.

We say that T is accepting run, if its root node leads to acceptance. The ATM \mathcal{M} accepts w, if the run of \mathcal{M} on w is accepting run. As before, $L(\mathcal{M}) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{w : \mathcal{M} \text{ accepts } w\}.$

Note that NTM is simply ATM where all the states are existential, and DTM is simply NTM where every configuration (except the accepting/rejecting configuration) has exactly one next configuration. The generalization of ATM to multiple tapes is straightforward.

2 Time and space complexity for ATM

Let \mathcal{M} be a ATM, $w \in \Sigma^*$, $t \in \mathbb{N}$ and let $f : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$ be a function.

- \mathcal{M} decides w in time t (or, in t steps), if the run of \mathcal{M} on w has depth at most t.
- \mathcal{M} decides w in space t (or, uses t cells/space), if in the run of \mathcal{M} on w, every node is labelled with configuration of length t.
- \mathcal{M} runs in time/space O(f(n)), if there is c > 0 such that for sufficiently long word w, \mathcal{M} decides w in time/space $c \cdot f(|w|)$.
- \mathcal{M} decides a language L in time/space O(f(n)), if \mathcal{M} runs in time/space O(f(n)) and $L(\mathcal{M}) = L$.
- ATIME $[f(n)] \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{L : \text{there is ATM } \mathcal{M} \text{ that decides } L \text{ in time } O(f(n))\}.$
- ASPACE $[f(n)] \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{L : \text{there is ATM } \mathcal{M} \text{ that decides } L \text{ in space } O(f(n)) \}.$

Analoguous to the DTM/NTM, we can define the classes of languages accepted by ATM run in algorithmic/polynomial/exponential time/space.

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{AL} &\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{L : \text{there is ATM } \mathcal{M} \text{ that decides } L \text{ in space } O(\log n) \} \\ \mathbf{AP} &\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \bigcup_{\substack{f(n) = \mathsf{poly}(n) \\ f(n) = \mathsf{poly}(n)}} \operatorname{ATIME}[f(n)] \\ \mathbf{APSPACE} &\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \bigcup_{\substack{f(n) = \mathsf{poly}(n) \\ f(n) = \mathsf{poly}(n)}} \operatorname{ASPACE}[f(n)] \\ \mathbf{AEXP} &\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \bigcup_{\substack{f(n) = \mathsf{poly}(n) \\ f(n) = \mathsf{poly}(n)}} \operatorname{ATIME}[2^{f(n)}] \end{aligned}$$

The following lemma links time/space complexity classes for ATM with those for DTM.

Lemma 3.1 Let $T : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$ and $S : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$ such that $T(n) \ge n$ and $S(n) \ge \log n$, for every n.

- (a) ATIME $[T(n)] \subseteq DSPACE[T(n)].$
- (b) DSPACE[S(n)] \subseteq ATIME[$S(n)^2$].
- (c) ASPACE[S(n)] \subseteq DTIME[$2^{O(S(n))}$].
- (d) $DTIME[T(n)] \subseteq ASPACE[\log T(n)].$

Proof. (a) and (c) is by straightforward simulation of ATM with DTM. (b) is similar to the proof of Savitch's theorem. (d) is similar to the proof of Theorem 3.3 below, i.e., by viewing the computation of DTM as a boolean circuit.

Theorem 3.2 (Chandra, Kozen, Stockmeyer 1981)

- AL = P.
- AP = PSPACE.
- APSPACE = EXP.
- AEXP = EXPSPACE.
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Appendix

A P-complete languages

Boolean circuits. Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$, where $n \ge 1$. An *n*-input Boolean circuit C is a directed acyclic graph with *n* source vertices (i.e., vertices with no incoming edges) and 1 sink vertex (i.e., vertex with no outgoing edge).

The source vertices are labelled with x_1, \ldots, x_n . The non-source vertices, called *gates*, are labelled with one of \land, \lor, \neg . The vertices labelled with \land and \lor have two incoming edges, whereas the vertices labelled with \neg have one incoming edge. The *size* of *C*, denoted by |C|, is the number of vertices in *C*.

On input $w = x_1 \cdots x_n$, where each $x_i \in \{0, 1\}$, we write C(w) to denote the output of C on w, where \wedge, \vee, \neg are interpreted as "and," "or" and "negation," respectively and 0 and 1 as false and true, respectively.

(Boolean) straight line programs. It is sometimes more convenient to view a boolean circuit a straight line program. The following is an example of straight line program, where the input is $w = x_1 \cdots x_n$.

1:
$$p_1 := x_1 \wedge x_3$$
.
2: $p_2 := \neg x_4$.
3: $p_3 := p_1 \lor p_2$.
:
 ℓ : $p_\ell := p_i \land p_j$.

Intuitively, straight line programs are programs without **if** branch and **while** loop, hence, the name "straight line" programs. It is assumed that such program always outputs the value in the variable in the last line. In our example above, it outputs the value of variable p_{ℓ} .

Define the following problem.

CIRCUIT-EVAL	
Input:	An <i>n</i> input boolean circuit <i>C</i> and $w \in \{0, 1\}^n$.
Task:	Output $C(w)$.

It can also be defined as the language CIRCUIT-EVAL $\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{(C, w) : C(w) = 1\}.$

For our proof of Theorem 3.3 below, it is also convenient to assume that vertices labelled with \wedge and \vee can have more than 2 incoming edges.

Theorem 3.3 CIRCUIT-EVAL is P-complete via log-space reductions.

Proof. Follows the reduction for the NP-completeness of SAT.