

Theory of Computation Lecture Notes

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Class Information

- Papadimitriou. *Computational Complexity*. 2nd printing. Addison-Wesley. 1995.
 - The best book on the market for graduate students.
 - We more or less follow the topics of the book.
 - More “advanced” materials may be added.
- You may want to review discrete mathematics.

Class Information (concluded)

- More information and future lecture notes (in PDF format) can be found at

`www.csie.ntu.edu.tw/~lyuu/complexity.html`

- Please ask many questions in class.
 - The best way for me to remember you in a large class.^a
- Teaching assistants will be announced later.

^a “[A] science concentrator [...] said that in his eighth semester of [Harvard] college, there was not a single science professor who could identify him by name.” (*New York Times*, September 3, 2003.)

Grading

- No roll calls.
- Homeworks.
- Two to three examinations.
- You must show up for the examinations, in person.
- If you cannot make it to an examination, please email me beforehand (unless there is a legitimate reason).
- Missing the final examination will earn a “fail” grade.

Problems and Algorithms

I have never done anything “useful.”
— Godfrey Harold Hardy (1877–1947),
A Mathematician’s Apology (1940)

What This Course Is All About

Computability: What can be computed?

- What is computation anyway?
- There are *well-defined* problems that cannot be computed.
- In fact, “most” problems cannot be computed.

What This Course Is All About (continued)

Complexity: What is a computable problem's inherent complexity?

- Some computable problems require at least exponential time and/or space; they are **intractable**.
 - Can't you let Moore's law take care of it?^a
 - * Moore's law says the computing power doubles every 1.5 years.^b

^aContributed by Ms. Amy Liu (J94922016) on May 15, 2006.

^bMoore (1965).

What This Course Is All About (concluded)

- Some practical problems require superpolynomial resources unless certain conjectures are disproved.
- Other resource limits besides time and space?
 - Program size, circuit size (growth), number of random bits, etc.

Tractability and intractability

- Polynomial in terms of the input size n defines tractability.
 - $n, n \log n, n^2, n^{90}$.
 - Time, space, circuit size, number of random bits, etc.
- It results in a fruitful and practical theory of complexity.
- Few practical, tractable problems require a large degree.
- Exponential-time or superpolynomial-time algorithms are usually impractical.
 - $n^{\log n}, 2^{\sqrt{n}}$,^a $2^n, n! \sim \sqrt{2\pi n} (n/e)^n$.

^aSize of depth-3 circuits to compute the majority function (Wolfowitz (2006)).

Growth of Factorials

n	$n!$	n	$n!$
1	1	9	362,880
2	2	10	3,628,800
3	6	11	39,916,800
4	24	12	479,001,600
5	120	13	6,227,020,800
6	720	14	87,178,291,200
7	5040	15	1,307,674,368,000
8	40320	16	20,922,789,888,000

Turing Machines

Alan Turing (1912–1954)



What Is Computation?

- That can be coded in an **algorithm**.^a
- An algorithm is a detailed step-by-step method for solving a problem.
 - The Euclidean algorithm for the greatest common divisor is an algorithm.
 - “Let s be the least upper bound of compact set A ” is not an algorithm.
 - “Let s be a smallest element of a finite-sized array” can be solved by an algorithm.

^aMuhammad ibn Mūsā Al-Khwārizmī (780–850).

Turing Machines^a

- A Turing machine (TM) is a quadruple $M = (K, \Sigma, \delta, s)$.
- K is a finite set of **states**.
- $s \in K$ is the **initial state**.
- Σ is a finite set of **symbols** (disjoint from K).
 - Σ includes \sqcup (blank) and \triangleright (first symbol).
- $\delta : K \times \Sigma \rightarrow (K \cup \{h, \text{“yes”}, \text{“no”}\}) \times \Sigma \times \{\leftarrow, \rightarrow, -\}$ is a **transition function**.
 - \leftarrow (left), \rightarrow (right), and $-$ (stay) signify cursor movements.

^aTuring (1936).

A TM Schema

δ

▷1000110000111001110001110□□□□

“Physical” Interpretations

- The tape: computer memory and registers.
- δ : program.
- K : instruction numbers.
- s : “main()” in C.
- Σ : **alphabet** much like the ASCII code.

More about δ

- The program has the **halting state** (h), the **accepting state** (“yes”), and the **rejecting state** (“no”).
- Given current state $q \in K$ and current symbol $\sigma \in \Sigma$,

$$\delta(q, \sigma) = (p, \rho, D).$$

- It specifies the next state p , the symbol ρ to be written over σ , and the direction D the cursor will move *afterwards*.
- We require $\delta(q, \triangleright) = (p, \triangleright, \rightarrow)$ so that the cursor never falls off the left end of the string.

The Operations of TMs

- Initially the state is s .
- The string on the tape is initialized to a \triangleright , followed by a *finite-length* string $x \in (\Sigma - \{\sqcup\})^*$.
- x is the **input** of the TM.
 - The input must not contain \sqcup s (why?)!
- The cursor is pointing to the first symbol, always a \triangleright .
- The TM takes each step according to δ .
- The cursor may overwrite \sqcup to make the string longer during the computation.

Program Count

- A program has a *finite* size.
- Recall that
$$\delta : K \times \Sigma \rightarrow (K \cup \{h, \text{“yes”}, \text{“no”}\}) \times \Sigma \times \{\leftarrow, \rightarrow, -\}.$$
- So $|K| \times |\Sigma|$ “lines” suffice to specify a program, one line per pair from $K \times \Sigma$ ($|x|$ denotes the length of x).
- Given K and Σ , there are

$$((|K| + 3) \times |\Sigma| \times 3)^{|K| \times |\Sigma|}$$

possible δ 's (see next page).

- This is a constant—albeit large.
- Different δ 's may define the same behavior.

K Σ

$(|K| + 3) \times |\Sigma| \times 3$
possibilities

The Halting of a TM

- A TM M may **halt** in three cases.
 - “yes”: M **accepts** its input x , and $M(x) = \text{“yes”}$.
 - “no”: M **rejects** its input x , and $M(x) = \text{“no”}$.
 - h : $M(x) = y$, where the string (tape) consists of a \triangleright , followed by a finite string y , whose last symbol is not \sqcup , followed by a string of \sqcup s.
 - y is the **output** of the computation.
 - y may be empty denoted by ϵ .
- If M never halts on x , then write $M(x) = \nearrow$.

Why TMs?

- Because of the simplicity of the TM, the model has the advantage when it comes to complexity issues.
- One can develop a complexity theory based on C++ or Java, say.
- But the added complexity does not yield additional fundamental insights.
- We will describe TMs in pseudocode.

Remarks

- A problem is computable if there is a TM that halts with the correct answer.
 - If a TM (i.e., program) does not always halt, it does not solve the problem, assuming the problem is computable.^a
 - OS does not halt as it does not solve a well-defined problem (but parts of it do).^b

^aContributed by Ms. Amy Liu (J94922016) on May 15, 2006. Control-C is not a legitimate way to halt a program.

^bContributed by Mr. Shuai-Peng Huang (J94922019) on May 15, 2006.

Remarks (concluded)

- Any computation model must be physically realizable.
 - A model that requires nearly infinite precision to build is not physically realizable.
 - For example, if the TM required a voltage of exactly 100 to work, it would not be considered a successful model for computation.
- Although a TM requires a tape of infinite length, which is not realizable, it is not a major conceptual problem.^a
- A tape of infinite length cannot be used to realize infinite precision within a finite time span.^b

^aThanks to a lively discussion on September 20, 2006.

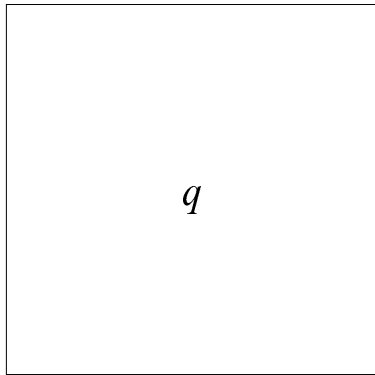
^bThanks to a lively discussion on September 20, 2006.

The Concept of Configuration

- A **configuration** is a complete description of the current state of the computation.
- The specification of a configuration is sufficient for the computation to continue as if it had not been stopped.
 - What does your PC save before it sleeps?
 - Enough for it to resume work later.
- Similar to the concept of **Markov process** in stochastic processes or dynamic systems.

Configurations (concluded)

- A configuration is a triple (q, w, u) :
 - $q \in K$.
 - $w \in \Sigma^*$ is the string to the left of the cursor (inclusive).
 - $u \in \Sigma^*$ is the string to the right of the cursor.
- Note that (w, u) describes both the string and the cursor position.



▷1000110000111001110001110□□□□

- $w = \triangleright 1000110000.$
- $u = 111001110001110.$

Yielding

- Fix a TM M .
- Configuration (q, w, u) **yields** configuration (q', w', u') in one step,

$$(q, w, u) \xrightarrow{M} (q', w', u'),$$

if a step of M from configuration (q, w, u) results in configuration (q', w', u') .

- $(q, w, u) \xrightarrow{M^k} (q', w', u')$: Configuration (q, w, u) yields configuration (q', w', u') in $k \in \mathbb{N}$ steps.
- $(q, w, u) \xrightarrow{M^*} (q', w', u')$: Configuration (q, w, u) yields configuration (q', w', u') .

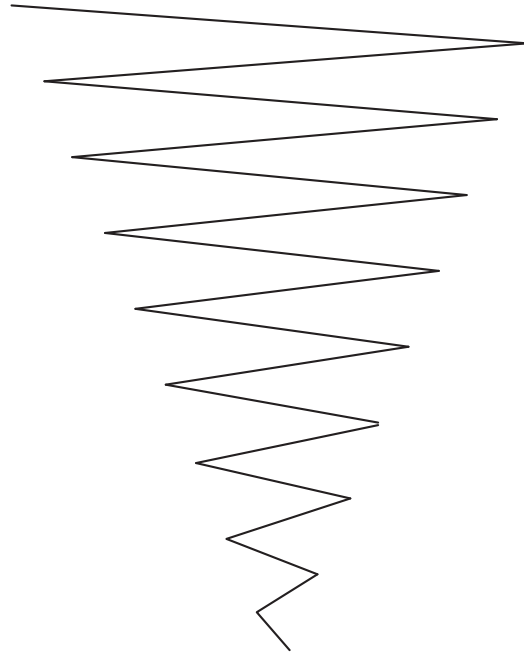
Example: How to Insert a Symbol

- We want to compute $f(x) = ax$.
 - The TM moves the last symbol of x to the right by one position.
 - It then moves the next to last symbol to the right, and so on.
 - The TM finally writes a in the first position.
- The total number of steps is $O(n)$, where n is the length of x .

Palindromes

- A string is a **palindrome** if it reads the same forwards and backwards (e.g., 001100).
- A TM program can be written to recognize palindromes:
 - It matches the first character with the last character.
 - It matches the second character with the next to last character, etc. (see next page).
 - “yes” for palindromes and “no” for nonpalindromes.
- This program takes $O(n^2)$ steps.
- Can we do better?

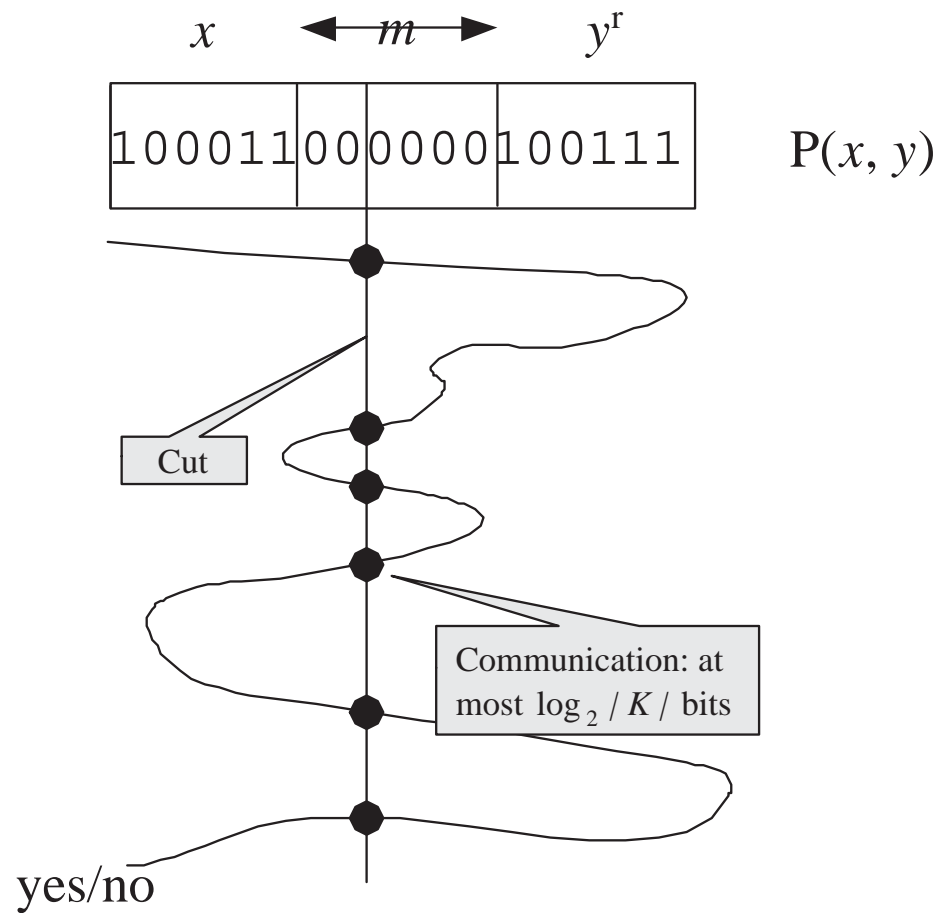
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A Matching Lower Bound for PALINDROME

Theorem 1 (Hennie (1965)) PALINDROME *on single-string TMs takes $\Omega(n^2)$ steps in the worst case.*

The Proof: Setup

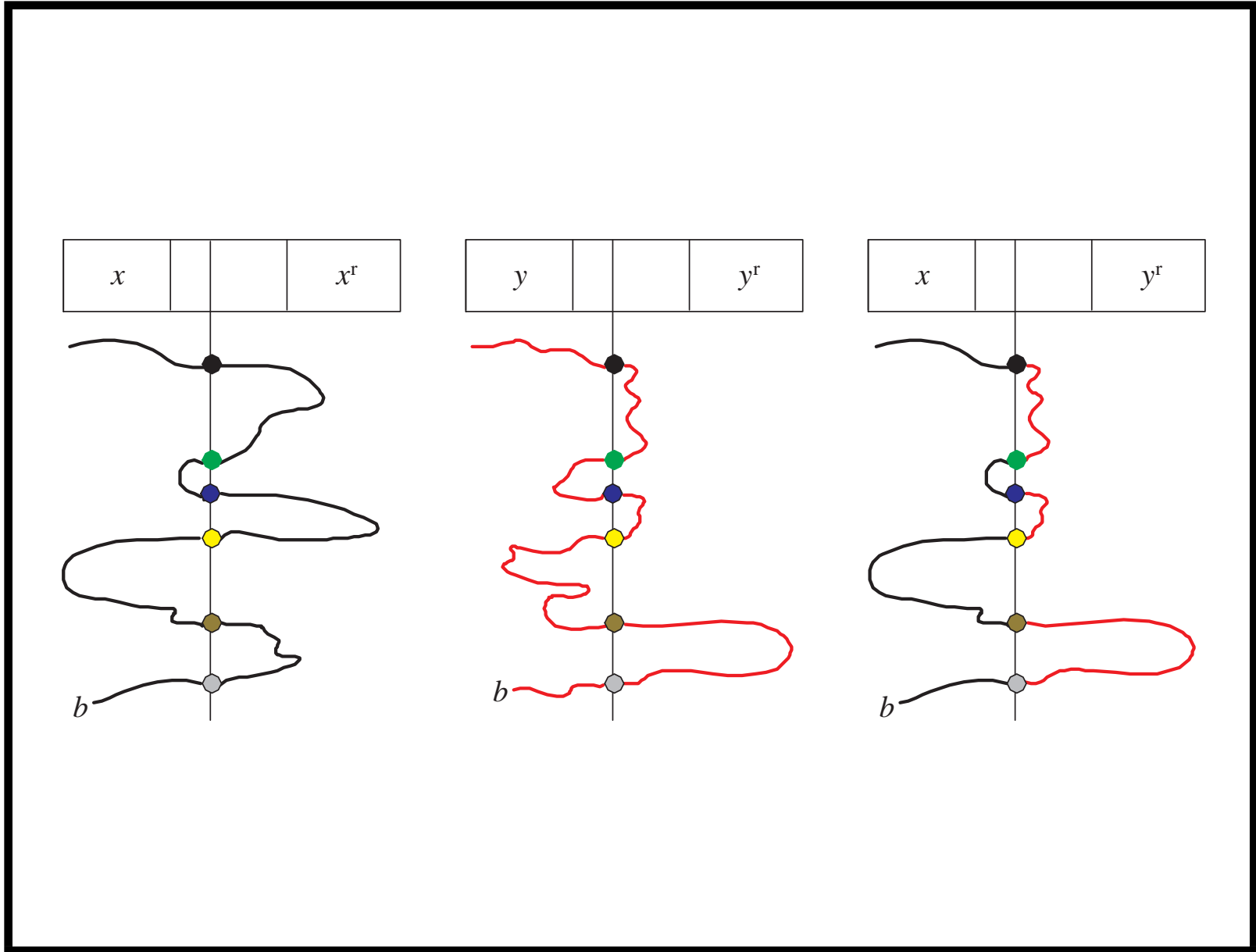


The Proof: Communications

- Our input is more restricted; hence any lower bound holds for the original problem.
- Each communication between the two halves across the cut is a state from K , hence of size $O(1)$.
- $C(x, y)$: the sequence of communications for palindrome problem $P(x, y)$ *across* the cut.
 - This crossing sequence is a sequence of states from K .

The Proof: Communications (concluded)

- $C(x, x) \neq C(y, y)$ when $x \neq y$.
 - Suppose otherwise, $C(x, x) = C(y, y)$.
 - Then $C(y, y) = C(x, y)$ by the cut-and-paste argument (see next page).
 - Hence $P(x, y)$ has the same answer as $P(y, y)$!
- So $C(x, x)$ is distinct for each x .



The Proof: Amount of Communications

- Assume $|x| = |y| = m = n/3$.
- $|C(x, x)|$ is the number of times the cut is crossed.
- We first seek a lower bound on the total number of communications:

$$\sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^m} |C(x, x)|.$$

- Define

$$\kappa \equiv (m + 1) \log_{|K|} 2 - \log_{|K|} m - 1 + \log_{|K|} (|K| - 1).$$

The Proof: Amount of Communications (continued)

- There are $\leq |K|^i$ distinct $C(x, x)$ s with $|C(x, x)| = i$.
- Hence there are at most

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\kappa} |K|^i = \frac{|K|^{\kappa+1} - 1}{|K| - 1} \leq \frac{|K|^{\kappa+1}}{|K| - 1} = \frac{2^{m+1}}{m}$$

distinct $C(x, x)$ s with $|C(x, x)| \leq \kappa$.

- The rest must have $|C(x, x)| > \kappa$.
- Because $C(x, x)$ is distinct for each x (p. 36), there are at least $2^m - \frac{2^{m+1}}{m}$ of them with $|C(x, x)| > \kappa$.

The Proof: Amount of Communications (concluded)

- Thus

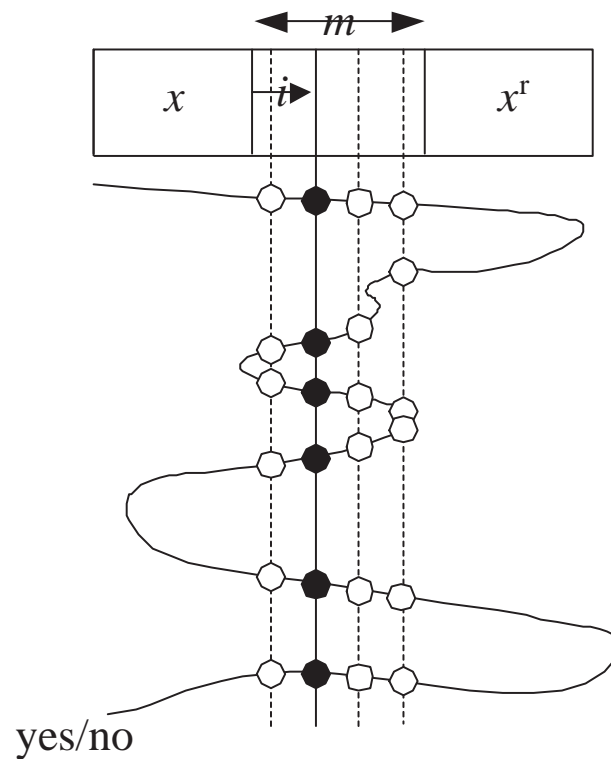
$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^m} |C(x, x)| &\geq \sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^m, |C(x, x)| > \kappa} |C(x, x)| \\ &> \left(2^m - \frac{2^{m+1}}{m}\right) \kappa \\ &= \kappa 2^m \frac{m-2}{m}. \end{aligned}$$

- As $\kappa = \Theta(m)$, the total number of communications is

$$\sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^m} |C(x, x)| = \Omega(m2^m). \quad (1)$$

The Proof (continued)

We now lower-bound the worst-case number of communication points in the middle section.



The Proof (continued)

- $C_i(x, x)$ denotes the sequence of communications for $P(x, x)$ given the cut at position i .
- Then $\sum_{i=1}^m |C_i(x, x)|$ is the number of steps spent in the middle section for $P(x, x)$.
- Let $T(n) = \max_{x \in \{0,1\}^m} \sum_{i=1}^m |C_i(x, x)|$.
 - $T(n)$ is the worst-case running time spent in the middle section when dealing with any $P(x, x)$ with $|x| = m$.
- Note that $T(n) \geq \sum_{i=1}^m |C_i(x, x)|$ for any $x \in \{0, 1\}^m$.

The Proof (continued)

- Now,

$$\begin{aligned} & 2^m T(n) \\ = & \sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^m} T(n) \\ \geq & \sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^m} \sum_{i=1}^m |C_i(x, x)| \\ = & \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^m} |C_i(x, x)|. \end{aligned}$$

The Proof (concluded)

- By the pigeonhole principle,^a there exists an $1 \leq i^* \leq m$,

$$\sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^m} |C_{i^*}(x, x)| \leq \frac{2^m T(n)}{m}.$$

- Eq. (1) on p. 40 says that

$$\sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^m} |C_{i^*}(x, x)| = \Omega(m2^m).$$

- Hence

$$T(n) = \Omega(m^2) = \Omega(n^2).$$

^aDirichlet (1805–1859).

Comments on Lower-Bound Proofs

- They are usually difficult.
 - Worthy of a Ph.D. degree.
- A lower bound that matches a known upper bound given by an algorithm shows that the algorithm is optimal.
 - The simple $O(n^2)$ algorithm for PALINDROME is optimal.
- This happens rarely and is model dependent.
 - Searching, sorting, PALINDROME, matrix-vector multiplication, etc.

Decidability and Recursive Languages

- Let $L \subseteq (\Sigma - \{\square\})^*$ be a **language**, i.e., a set of strings of symbols with a finite length.
 - For example, $\{0, 01, 10, 210, 1010, \dots\}$.
- Let M be a TM such that for any string x :
 - If $x \in L$, then $M(x) = \text{“yes.”}$
 - If $x \notin L$, then $M(x) = \text{“no.”}$
- We say M **decides** L .
- If L is decided by some TM, then L is **recursive**.
 - Palindromes over $\{0, 1\}^*$ are recursive.

Acceptability and Recursively Enumerable Languages

- Let $L \subseteq (\Sigma - \{\square\})^*$ be a language.
- Let M be a TM such that for any string x :
 - If $x \in L$, then $M(x) = \text{“yes.”}$
 - If $x \notin L$, then $M(x) = \nearrow$.
- We say M **accepts** L .

Acceptability and Recursively Enumerable Languages (concluded)

- If L is accepted by some TM, then L is a **recursively enumerable language**.^a
 - A recursively enumerable language can be generated by a TM, thus the name.
 - That is, there is an algorithm such that for every $x \in L$, it will be printed out eventually.

^aPost (1944).

Emil Post (1897–1954)



Recursive and Recursively Enumerable Languages

Proposition 2 *If L is recursive, then it is recursively enumerable.*

- We need to design a TM that accepts L .
- Let TM M decide L .
- We next modify M 's program to obtain M' that accepts L .
- M' is identical to M except that when M is about to halt with a “no” state, M' goes into an infinite loop.
- M' accepts L .

Turing-Computable Functions

- Let $f : (\Sigma - \{\sqcup\})^* \rightarrow \Sigma^*$.
 - Optimization problems, root finding problems, etc.
- Let M be a TM with alphabet Σ .
- M **computes** f if for any string $x \in (\Sigma - \{\sqcup\})^*$,
 $M(x) = f(x)$.
- We call f a **recursive function**^a if such an M exists.

^aKurt Gödel (1931).

Kurt Gödel (1906–1978)



Church's Thesis or the Church-Turing Thesis

- What is computable is Turing-computable; TMs are algorithms (Kleene 1953).
- Many other computation models have been proposed.
 - Recursive function (Gödel), λ calculus (Church), formal language (Post), assembly language-like RAM (Shepherdson & Sturgis), boolean circuits (Shannon), extensions of the Turing machine (more strings, two-dimensional strings, and so on), etc.
- All have been proved to be equivalent.
- No “intuitively computable” problems have been shown not to be Turing-computable (yet).

Alonso Church (1903–1995)



Stephen Kleene (1909–1994)

