

Boolean Functions

- An n -ary boolean function is a function

$$f : \{ \text{true}, \text{false} \}^n \rightarrow \{ \text{true}, \text{false} \}.$$

- It can be represented by a truth table.
- There are 2^{2^n} such boolean functions.
 - We can assign **true** or **false** to f for each of the 2^n truth assignments.

Boolean Functions (continued)

Assignment	Truth value
1	true or false
2	true or false
\vdots	\vdots
2^n	true or false

- A boolean expression expresses a boolean function.
 - Think of its truth values under all possible truth assignments.

Boolean Functions (continued)

- A boolean function expresses a boolean expression.
 - $\bigvee_T \models \phi$, literal y_i is true in “row” $T(y_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge y_n)$.^a
 - * The implicant $y_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge y_n$ is called the **minterm** over $\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ for T .
 - The size^b is $\leq n2^n \leq 2^{2n}$.
 - This DNF is optimal for the parity function, for example.^c

^aSimilar to **programmable logic array**. This is called the **table lookup representation** (Beigel, 1993).

^bWe count only the literals here.

^cDu & Ko (2000).

Boolean Functions (continued)

x_1	x_2	$f(x_1, x_2)$
0	0	1
0	1	1
1	0	0
1	1	1

The corresponding boolean expression:

$$(\neg x_1 \wedge \neg x_2) \vee (\neg x_1 \wedge x_2) \vee (x_1 \wedge x_2).$$

Boolean Functions (concluded)

Corollary 15 *Every n -ary boolean function can be expressed by a boolean expression of size $O(n2^n)$.*

- In general, the exponential length in n cannot be avoided (p. 209).
- The size of the truth table is also $O(n2^n)$.^a

^aThere are 2^n n -bit strings.

Boolean Circuits

- A **boolean circuit** is a graph C whose nodes are the **gates**.
- There are no cycles in C .
- All nodes have indegree (number of incoming edges) equal to 0, 1, or 2.
- Each gate has a **sort** from

$$\{ \text{true}, \text{false}, \vee, \wedge, \neg, x_1, x_2, \dots \}.$$

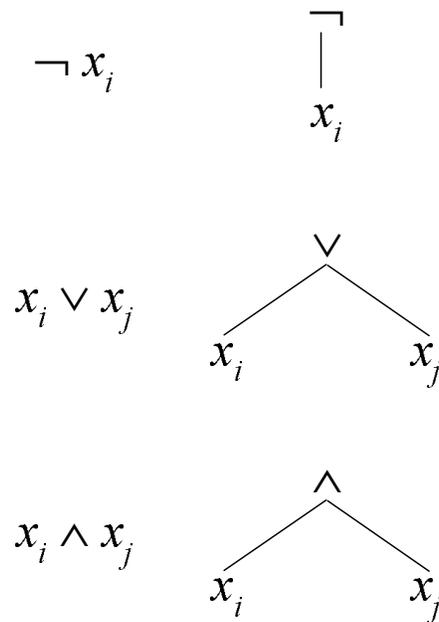
- There are $n + 5$ sorts.

Boolean Circuits (concluded)

- Gates with a sort from $\{\text{true}, \text{false}, x_1, x_2, \dots\}$ are the **inputs** of C and have an indegree of zero.
- The **output gate(s)** has no outgoing edges.
- A boolean circuit computes a boolean function.
- A boolean function can be realized by *infinitely many* equivalent boolean circuits.

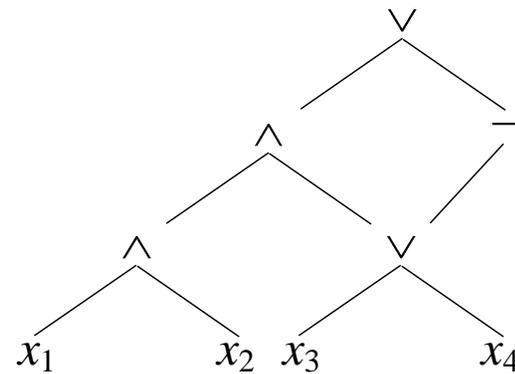
Boolean Circuits and Expressions

- They are equivalent representations.
- One can construct one from the other:



An Example

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



- Circuits are more economical because of the possibility of “sharing.”

CIRCUIT SAT and CIRCUIT VALUE

CIRCUIT SAT: Given a circuit, is there a truth assignment such that the circuit outputs true?

- **CIRCUIT SAT \in NP:** Guess a truth assignment and then evaluate the circuit.^a

CIRCUIT VALUE: The same as CIRCUIT SAT except that the circuit has no variable gates.

- **CIRCUIT VALUE \in P:** Evaluate the circuit from the input gates gradually towards the output gate.

^aEssentially the same algorithm as the one on p. 119.

Some^a Boolean Functions Need Exponential Circuits^b

Theorem 16 *For any $n \geq 2$, there is an n -ary boolean function f such that no boolean circuits with $2^n/(2n)$ or fewer gates can compute it.*

- There are 2^{2^n} different n -ary boolean functions (p. 199).
- So it suffices to prove that the number of boolean circuits with $2^n/(2n)$ or fewer gates is less than 2^{2^n} .

^aCan be strengthened to “Almost all.”

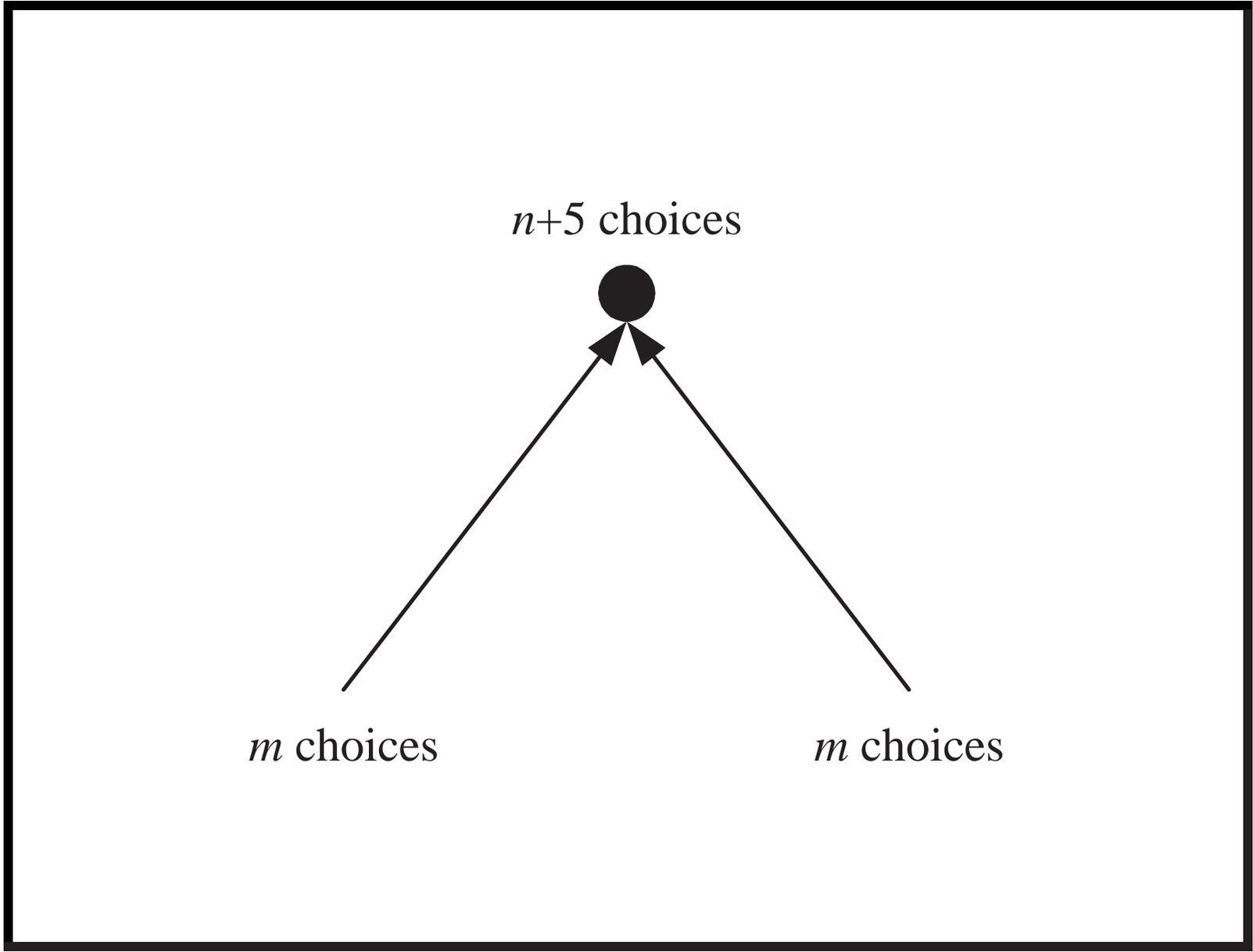
^bRiordan & Shannon (1942); Shannon (1949).

The Proof (concluded)

- There are at most $((n + 5) \times m^2)^m$ boolean circuits with m or fewer gates (see next page).
- But $((n + 5) \times m^2)^m < 2^{2^n}$ when $m = 2^n / (2n)$:

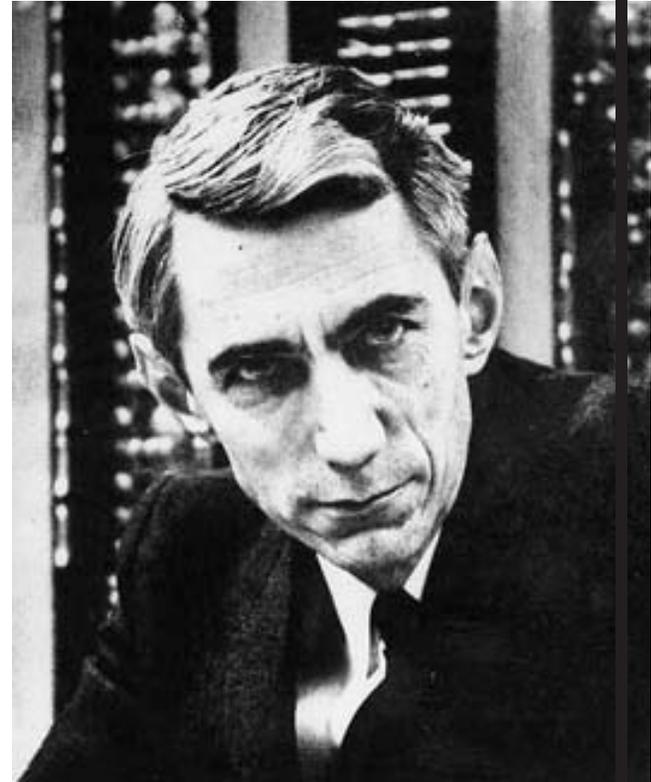
$$\begin{aligned} & m \log_2((n + 5) \times m^2) \\ &= 2^n \left(1 - \frac{\log_2 \frac{4n^2}{n+5}}{2n} \right) \\ &< 2^n \end{aligned}$$

for $n \geq 2$.



Claude Elwood Shannon (1916–2001)

Howard Gardner (1987), “[Shannon’s master’s thesis is] possibly the most important, and also the most famous, master’s thesis of the century.”



Comments

- The lower bound $2^n / (2n)$ is rather tight because an upper bound is $n2^n$ (p. 201).
- The proof counted the number of circuits.
 - Some circuits may not be valid at all.
 - Different circuits may also compute the same function.
- Both are fine because we only need an upper bound on the number of circuits.
- We do not need to consider the *outgoing* edges because they have been counted as incoming edges.^a

^aIf you prove it by considering outgoing edges, the bound will not be good. (Try it!)

Relations between Complexity Classes

It is, I own, not uncommon to be
wrong in theory
and right in practice.

— Edmund Burke (1729–1797),

*A Philosophical Enquiry into the Origin of Our
Ideas of the Sublime and Beautiful* (1757)

The problem with QE is
it works in practice,
but it doesn't work in theory.

— Ben Bernanke (2014)

Proper (Complexity) Functions

- We say that $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ is a **proper (complexity) function** if the following hold:
 - f is nondecreasing.
 - There is a k -string TM M_f such that $M_f(x) = \sqcap^{f(|x|)}$ for any x .^a
 - M_f halts after $O(|x| + f(|x|))$ steps.
 - M_f uses $O(f(|x|))$ space besides its input x .
- M_f 's behavior depends only on $|x|$ not x 's contents.
- M_f 's running time is bounded by $f(n)$.

^aThe textbook calls “ \sqcap ” the quasi-blank symbol. The use of $M_f(x)$ will become clear in Proposition 17 (p. 219).

Examples of Proper Functions

- Most “reasonable” functions are proper: c , $\lceil \log n \rceil$, polynomials of n , 2^n , \sqrt{n} , $n!$, etc.
- If f and g are proper, then so are $f + g$, fg , and 2^g .^a
- Nonproper functions when serving as the time bounds for complexity classes spoil “theory building.”
 - For example, $\text{TIME}(f(n)) = \text{TIME}(2^{f(n)})$ for some recursive function f (the **gap theorem**).^b
- Only proper functions f will be used in $\text{TIME}(f(n))$, $\text{SPACE}(f(n))$, $\text{NTIME}(f(n))$, and $\text{NSPACE}(f(n))$.

^aFor $f(g(n))$, we need to add $f(n) \geq n$.

^bTrakhtenbrot (1964); Borodin (1972). Theorem 7.3 on p. 145 of the textbook proves it.

Precise Turing Machines

- A TM M is **precise** if there are functions f and g such that for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, for every x of length n , and for every computation path of M ,
 - M halts after precisely $f(n)$ steps,^a and
 - All of its strings are of length precisely $g(n)$ at halting.^b
 - * Recall that if M is a TM with input and output, we exclude the first and last strings.
- M can be deterministic or nondeterministic.

^aFully time constructible (Hopcroft & Ullman, 1979).

^bFully space constructible (Hopcroft & Ullman, 1979).

Precise TMs Are General

Proposition 17 *Suppose a TM^a M decides L within time (space) $f(n)$, where f is proper. Then there is a precise TM M' which decides L in time $O(n + f(n))$ (space $O(f(n))$), respectively).*

- M' on input x first simulates the TM M_f associated with the proper function f on x .
- M_f 's output, of length $f(|x|)$, will serve as a “yardstick” or an “alarm clock.”

^aIt can be deterministic or nondeterministic.

The Proof (continued)

- Then M' simulates $M(x)$.
- $M'(x)$ halts when and only when the alarm clock runs out—even if M halts earlier.
- If f is a time bound:
 - The simulation of each step of M on x is matched by advancing the cursor on the “clock” string.
 - Because M' stops at the moment the “clock” string is exhausted—even if $M(x)$ stops earlier, it is precise.
 - The time bound is therefore $O(|x| + f(|x|))$.

The Proof (concluded)

- If f is a space bound (sketch):
 - M' simulates M on the quasi-blanks of M_f 's output string.^a
 - The total space, not counting the input string, is $O(f(n))$.
 - But we still need a way to make sure there is no infinite loop.^b

^aThis is to make sure the space bound is precise.

^bSee the proof of Theorem 24 (p. 237).

Important Complexity Classes

- We write expressions like n^k to denote the union of all complexity classes, one for each value of k .
- For example,

$$\text{NTIME}(n^k) \triangleq \bigcup_{j>0} \text{NTIME}(n^j).$$

Important Complexity Classes (concluded)

P	\triangleq	TIME(n^k),
NP	\triangleq	NTIME(n^k),
PSPACE	\triangleq	SPACE(n^k),
NPSPACE	\triangleq	NSPACE(n^k),
E	\triangleq	TIME(2^{kn}),
EXP	\triangleq	TIME(2^{n^k}),
NEXP	\triangleq	NTIME(2^{n^k}),
L	\triangleq	SPACE($\log n$),
NL	\triangleq	NSPACE($\log n$).

Complements of Nondeterministic Classes

- Recall that the complement of L , or \bar{L} , is the language $\Sigma^* - L$.
 - SAT COMPLEMENT is the set of unsatisfiable boolean expressions.
- R, RE, and coRE are distinct (p. 158).
 - Again, coRE contains the complements of *languages* in RE, *not* languages that are not in RE.
- How about $\text{co}\mathcal{C}$ when \mathcal{C} is a complexity class?

The Co-Classes

- For any complexity class \mathcal{C} , $\text{co}\mathcal{C}$ denotes the class

$$\{ L : \bar{L} \in \mathcal{C} \}.$$

- Clearly, if \mathcal{C} is a *deterministic* time or space *complexity class*, then $\mathcal{C} = \text{co}\mathcal{C}$.
 - They are said to be **closed under complement**.
 - A deterministic TM deciding L can be converted to one that decides \bar{L} within the same time or space bound by reversing the “yes” and “no” states.^a
- Whether *nondeterministic* classes for time are closed under complement is not known (see p. 111).

^aSee p. 155.

Comments

- As

$$\text{co}\mathcal{C} = \{ L : \bar{L} \in \mathcal{C} \},$$

$L \in \mathcal{C}$ if and only if $\bar{L} \in \text{co}\mathcal{C}$.

- But it is *not* true that $L \in \mathcal{C}$ if and only if $L \notin \text{co}\mathcal{C}$.
 - $\text{co}\mathcal{C}$ is not defined as $\bar{\mathcal{C}}$.
- For example, suppose $\mathcal{C} = \{ \{ 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, \dots \}, \dots \}$.
- Then $\text{co}\mathcal{C} = \{ \{ 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, \dots \}, \dots \}$.
- But $\bar{\mathcal{C}} = 2^{\{ 1, 2, 3, \dots \}} - \{ \{ 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, \dots \}, \dots \}$.

The Quantified Halting Problem

- Let $f(n) \geq n$ be proper.
- Define

$$H_f \triangleq \{ M; x : M \text{ accepts input } x \\ \text{after at most } f(|x|) \text{ steps} \},$$

where M is deterministic.

- Assume the input is binary as usual.

$$H_f \in \text{TIME}(f(n)^3)$$

- For each input $M; x$, we simulate M on x with an alarm clock of length $f(|x|)$.
 - Use the single-string simulator (p. 83), the universal TM (p. 135), and the linear speedup theorem (p. 93).
 - Our simulator accepts $M; x$ if and only if M accepts x before the alarm clock runs out.
- From p. 90, the total running time is $O(\ell_M k_M^2 f(n)^2)$, where ℓ_M is the length to encode each symbol or state of M and k_M is M 's number of strings.
- As $\ell_M k_M^2 = O(n)$, the running time is $O(f(n)^3)$, where the constant is independent of M .

$$H_f \notin \text{TIME}(f(\lfloor n/2 \rfloor))$$

- Suppose TM M_{H_f} decides H_f in time $f(\lfloor n/2 \rfloor)$.

- Consider machine:

$$D_f(M) \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{if } M_{H_f}(M; M) = \text{“yes”} \\ \text{then “no”;} \\ \text{else “yes”;} \end{array} \right. \\ \left. \right\}$$

- D_f on input M runs in the same time as M_{H_f} on input $M; M$, i.e., in time $f(\lfloor \frac{2n+1}{2} \rfloor) = f(n)$, where $n = |M|$.^a

^aA student pointed out on October 6, 2004, that this estimation forgets to include the time to write down $M; M$.

The Proof (concluded)

- First,

$$D_f(D_f) = \text{“yes”}$$

$$\Rightarrow D_f; D_f \notin H_f$$

$$\Rightarrow D_f \text{ does not accept } D_f \text{ within time } f(|D_f|)$$

$$\Rightarrow D_f(D_f) = \text{“no”} \quad \text{as } D_f(D_f) \text{ runs in time } f(|D_f|),$$

a contradiction

- Similarly, $D_f(D_f) = \text{“no”} \Rightarrow D_f(D_f) = \text{“yes.”}$

The Time Hierarchy Theorem

Theorem 18 *If $f(n) \geq n$ is proper, then*

$$\text{TIME}(f(n)) \subsetneq \text{TIME}(f(2n + 1)^3).$$

- The quantified halting problem makes it so.

Corollary 19 $P \subsetneq E$.

- $P \subseteq \text{TIME}(2^n)$ because $\text{poly}(n) \leq 2^n$ for n large enough.
- But by Theorem 18,

$$\text{TIME}(2^n) \subsetneq \text{TIME}((2^{2n+1})^3) \subseteq E.$$

- So $P \subsetneq E$.

The Space Hierarchy Theorem

Theorem 20 (Hennie & Stearns, 1966) *If $f(n)$ is proper, then*

$$\text{SPACE}(f(n)) \subsetneq \text{SPACE}(f(n) \log f(n)).$$

Corollary 21 $L \subsetneq \text{PSPACE}$.

Nondeterministic Time Hierarchy Theorems

Theorem 22 (Cook, 1973) $\text{NTIME}(n^r) \subsetneq \text{NTIME}(n^s)$
whenever $1 \leq r < s$.

Theorem 23 (Seiferas, Fischer, & Meyer, 1978) *If*
 $T_1(n)$ *and* $T_2(n)$ *are proper, then*

$$\text{NTIME}(T_1(n)) \subsetneq \text{NTIME}(T_2(n))$$

whenever $T_1(n + 1) = o(T_2(n))$.

The Reachability Method

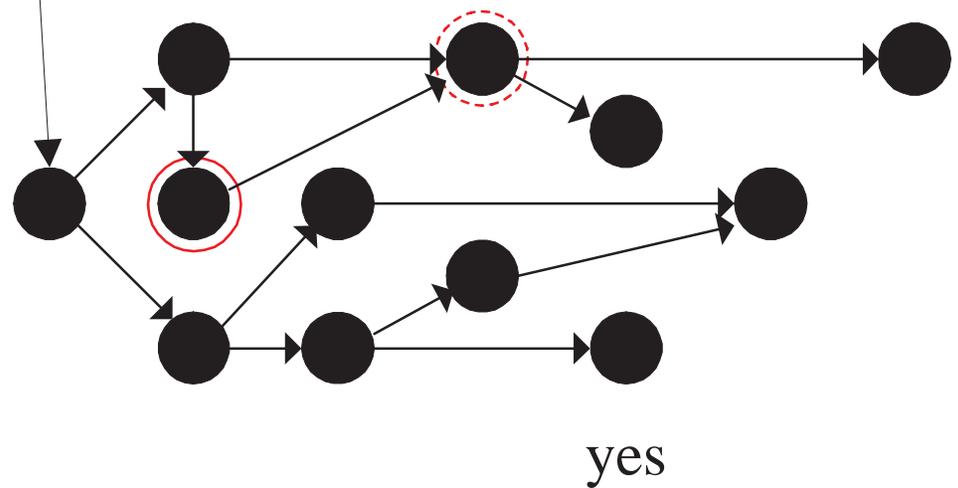
- The computation of a time-bounded TM can be represented by a directed graph.
- The TM's configurations constitute the nodes.
- There is a directed edge from node x to node y if x yields y in one step.
- The start node representing the initial configuration has zero in-degree.

The Reachability Method (concluded)

- When the TM is nondeterministic, a node may have an out-degree greater than one.
 - The graph is the same as the computation tree earlier.
 - But identical configurations are merged into one node.
- So M accepts the input if and only if there is a path from the start node to a node with a “yes” state.
- It is the reachability problem.

Illustration of the Reachability Method

Initial
configuration



Relations between Complexity Classes

Theorem 24 *Suppose $f(n)$ is proper. Then*

1. $\text{SPACE}(f(n)) \subseteq \text{NSPACE}(f(n))$,
 $\text{TIME}(f(n)) \subseteq \text{NTIME}(f(n))$.
 2. $\text{NTIME}(f(n)) \subseteq \text{SPACE}(f(n))$.
 3. $\text{NSPACE}(f(n)) \subseteq \text{TIME}(k^{\log n + f(n)})$.
- Proof of 2:
 - Explore the computation *tree* of the NTM for “yes.”
 - Specifically, generate an $f(n)$ -bit sequence denoting the nondeterministic choices over $f(n)$ steps.

Proof of Theorem 24(2)

- (continued)
 - Simulate the NTM based on the choices.
 - Recycle the space and repeat the above steps.
 - Halt with “yes” when a “yes” is encountered or “no” if the tree is exhausted.
 - Each path simulation consumes at most $O(f(n))$ space because it takes $O(f(n))$ time.
 - The total space is $O(f(n))$ because space is recycled.

Proof of Theorem 24(3)

- Let k -string NTM

$$M = (K, \Sigma, \Delta, s)$$

with input and output decide $L \in \text{NSPACE}(f(n))$.

- Use the reachability method on the configuration graph of M on input x of length n .
- A configuration is a $(2k + 1)$ -tuple

$$(q, w_1, u_1, w_2, u_2, \dots, w_k, u_k).$$

Proof of Theorem 24(3) (continued)

- We only care about

$$(q, i, w_2, u_2, \dots, w_{k-1}, u_{k-1}),$$

where i is an integer between 0 and n for the position of the *first* cursor.

- The number of configurations is therefore at most

$$|K| \times (n + 1) \times |\Sigma|^{2(k-2)f(n)} = O(c_1^{\log n + f(n)}) \quad (2)$$

for some $c_1 > 1$, which depends on M .

- Add edges to the configuration graph based on M 's transition function.

Proof of Theorem 24(3) (concluded)

- $x \in L \Leftrightarrow$ there is a path in the configuration graph from the initial configuration to a configuration of the form (“yes”, i, \dots).^a
- This is REACHABILITY on a graph with $O(c_1^{\log n + f(n)})$ nodes.
- It is in $\text{TIME}(c^{\log n + f(n)})$ for some $c > 1$ because $\text{REACHABILITY} \in \text{TIME}(n^j)$ for some j and

$$\left[c_1^{\log n + f(n)} \right]^j = (c_1^j)^{\log n + f(n)}.$$

^aThere may be many of them.

Space-Bounded Computation and Proper Functions

- In the definition of *space-bounded* computations earlier (p. 109), the TMs are not required to halt at all.
- When the space is bounded by a proper function f , computations can be assumed to halt:
 - Run the TM associated with f to produce a quasi-blank output of length $f(n)$ first.
 - The space-bounded computation must repeat a configuration if it runs for more than $c^{\log n + f(n)}$ steps for some $c > 1$.^a

^aSee Eq. (2) on p. 240.

Space-Bounded Computation and Proper Functions (concluded)

- (continued)
 - So an infinite loop occurs during simulation for a computation path longer than $c^{\log n + f(n)}$ steps.
 - Hence we only simulate up to $c^{\log n + f(n)}$ time steps per computation path.

A Grand Chain of Inclusions^a

- It is an easy application of Theorem 24 (p. 237) that

$$L \subseteq NL \subseteq P \subseteq NP \subseteq PSPACE \subseteq EXP.$$

- By Corollary 21 (p. 232), we know $L \subsetneq PSPACE$.
- So the chain must break somewhere between L and EXP .
- It is suspected that all four inclusions are proper.
- But there are no proofs yet.

^aWith input from Mr. Chin-Luei Chang (B89902053, R93922004, D95922007) on October 22, 2004.

What Is Wrong with the Proof?^a

- By Theorem 24(2) (p. 237),

$$\text{NL} \subseteq \text{TIME} \left(k^{O(\log n)} \right) \subseteq \text{TIME} (n^{c_1})$$

for some $c_1 > 0$.

- By Theorem 18 (p. 231),

$$\text{TIME} (n^{c_1}) \subsetneq \text{TIME} (n^{c_2}) \subseteq \text{P}$$

for some $c_2 > c_1$.

- So

$$\text{NL} \neq \text{P}.$$

^aContributed by Mr. Yuan-Fu Shao (R02922083) on November 11, 2014.

What Is Wrong with the Proof? (concluded)

- Recall from p. 222 that $\text{TIME}(k^{O(\log n)})$ is a shorthand for

$$\bigcup_{j>0} \text{TIME} \left(j^{O(\log n)} \right).$$

- So the correct proof runs more like

$$\text{NL} \subseteq \bigcup_{j>0} \text{TIME} \left(j^{O(\log n)} \right) \subseteq \bigcup_{c>0} \text{TIME} (n^c) = \text{P}.$$

- And

$$\text{NL} \neq \text{P}$$

no longer follows.

Nondeterministic and Deterministic Space

- By Theorem 6 (p. 116),

$$\text{NTIME}(f(n)) \subseteq \text{TIME}(c^{f(n)}),$$

an exponential gap.

- There is no proof yet that the exponential gap is inherent.
- How about NSPACE vs. SPACE?
- Surprisingly, the relation is only quadratic—a polynomial—by Savitch's theorem.

Savitch's Theorem

Theorem 25 (Savitch, 1970)

REACHABILITY \in SPACE($\log^2 n$).

- Let $G(V, E)$ be a graph with n nodes.
- For $i \geq 0$, let

PATH(x, y, i)

mean there is a path from node x to node y of length at most 2^i .

- There is a path from x to y if and only if

PATH($x, y, \lceil \log n \rceil$)

holds.

The Proof (continued)

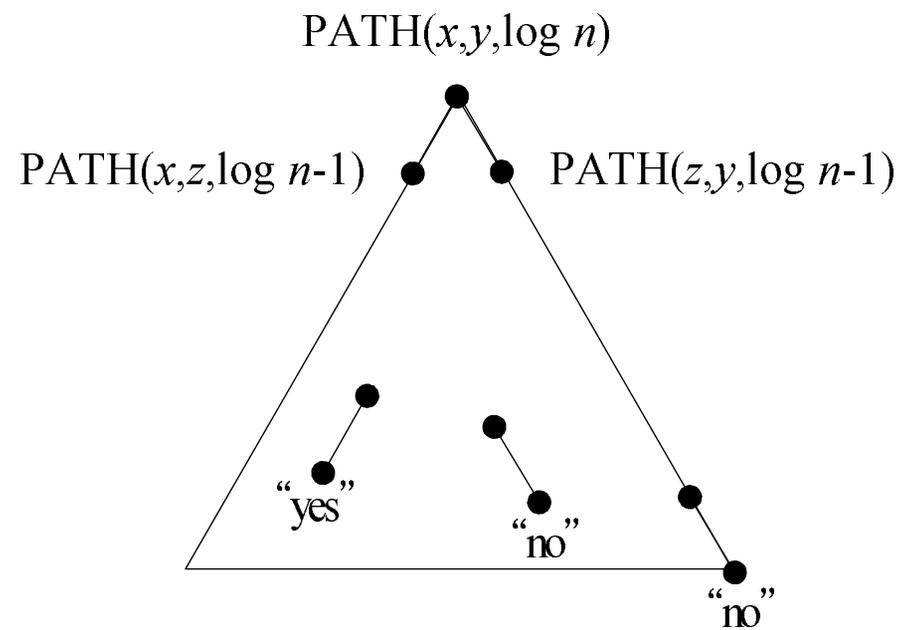
- For $i > 0$, $\text{PATH}(x, y, i)$ if and only if there exists a z such that $\text{PATH}(x, z, i - 1)$ and $\text{PATH}(z, y, i - 1)$.
- For $\text{PATH}(x, y, 0)$, check the input graph or if $x = y$.
- Compute $\text{PATH}(x, y, \lceil \log n \rceil)$ with a depth-first search on a graph with nodes (x, y, i) s (see next page).^a
- Like stacks in recursive calls, we keep only the current path's (x, y, i) s.
- The space requirement is proportional to the depth of the tree ($\lceil \log n \rceil$) times the size of the items stored at each node.

^aContributed by Mr. Chuan-Yao Tan on October 11, 2011.

The Proof (continued): Algorithm for $\text{PATH}(x, y, i)$

```
1: if  $i = 0$  then  
2:   if  $x = y$  or  $(x, y) \in E$  then  
3:     return true;  
4:   else  
5:     return false;  
6:   end if  
7: else  
8:   for  $z = 1, 2, \dots, n$  do  
9:     if  $\text{PATH}(x, z, i - 1)$  and  $\text{PATH}(z, y, i - 1)$  then  
10:      return true;  
11:    end if  
12:  end for  
13:  return false;  
14: end if
```

The Proof (continued)



The Proof (concluded)

- Depth is $\lceil \log n \rceil$, and each node (x, y, i) needs space $O(\log n)$.
- The total space is $O(\log^2 n)$.