

Computation and Reasoning Laboratory National Technical University of Athens

2013-2014

2st Part

Oracles - Polynomial Hierarchy - Randomization - Nonuniform Complexity - Interaction - Counting Complexity

Professors:

S. Zachos, Professor

A. Pagourtzis, Ass. Professor

TA-Slides: Antonis Antonopoulos

Bibliography

Textbooks

- ① C. Papadimitriou, **Computational Complexity**, Addison Wesley, 1994
- ② S. Arora, B. Barak, **Computational Complexity: A Modern Approach**, Cambridge University Press, 2009
- ③ O. Goldreich, **Computational Complexity: A Conceptual Perspective**, Cambridge University Press, 2008

Lecture Notes

- ① L. Trevisan, **Lecture Notes in Computational Complexity**, 2002, UC Berkeley
- ② E. Allender, M. Loui, and K. Regan, **Three chapters for the CRC Handbook on Algorithms and Theory of Computation** (M.J. Atallah, ed.), (Boca Raton: CRC Press, 1998).

Contents

- Introduction
- Turing Machines
- Undecidability
- Complexity Classes
- **Oracles & Optimization Problems**
- Randomized Computation
- Non-Uniform Complexity
- Interactive Proofs
- Counting Complexity

Introduction

TSP Versions

- 1 *TSP* (D)
- 2 *EXACT TSP*
- 3 *TSP COST*
- 4 *TSP*

$$(1) \leq_P (2) \leq_P (3) \leq_P (4)$$

DP Class Definition

Definition

A language L is in the class **DP** if and only if there are two languages $L_1 \in \mathbf{NP}$ and $L_2 \in \mathit{coNP}$ such that $L = L_1 \cap L_2$.

- **DP** is *not* $\mathbf{NP} \cap \mathit{coNP}$!
- Also, **DP** is a *syntactic* class, and so it has complete problems.

SAT-UNSAT Definition

Given two Boolean expressions ϕ , ϕ' , both in 3CNF. Is it true that ϕ is satisfiable and ϕ' is not?

Complete Problems for DP

Theorem

$SAT-UNSAT$ is **DP**-complete.

Proof

- Firstly, we have to show it is in **DP**.

So, let:

$$L_1 = \{(\phi, \phi') : \phi \text{ is satisfiable}\}.$$

$$L_2 = \{(\phi, \phi') : \phi' \text{ is unsatisfiable}\}.$$

It is easy to see, $L_1 \in \mathbf{NP}$ and $L_2 \in \mathbf{coNP}$, thus

$$L \equiv L_1 \cap L_2 \in \mathbf{DP}.$$

- For completeness, let $L \in \mathbf{DP}$. We have to show that $L \leq_P SAT-UNSAT$. $L \in \mathbf{DP} \Rightarrow L = L_1 \cap L_2$, $L_1 \in \mathbf{NP}$ and $L_2 \in \mathbf{coNP}$.

SAT **NP**-complete $\Rightarrow \exists R_1 : L_1 \leq_P SAT$ and $R_2 : \overline{L_2} \leq_P SAT$.

Hence, $L \leq_P SAT-UNSAT$, by $R(x) = (R_1(x), R_2(x))$

Complete Problems for DP

Theorem

EXACT TSP is **DP**-complete.

Proof

- $EXACT\ TSP \in \mathbf{DP}$, by $L_1 \equiv TSP \in \mathbf{NP}$ and $L_2 \equiv TSP\ COMPLEMENT \in \mathbf{coNP}$
- Completeness: we'll show that $SAT\text{-}UNSAT \leq_P EXACT\ TSP$.
 $3SAT \leq_P HP$: $(\phi, \phi') \rightarrow (G, G')$
Broken Hamilton Path (2 node-disjoint paths that cover all nodes)
Almost Satisfying Truth Assignment (*satisfies all clauses except for one*)

Complete Problems for DP

Proof

We define distances:

- ① If $(i, j) \in E(G)$ or $E(G')$: $d(i, j) \equiv 1$
- ② If $(i, j) \notin E(G)$, but i and $j \in V(G)$: $d(i, j) \equiv 2$
- ③ Otherwise: $d(i, j) \equiv 4$

Let n be the size of the graph.

- ① If ϕ and ϕ' satisfiable, then $optCost = n$
- ② If ϕ and ϕ' **unsatisfiable**, then $optCost = n + 3$
- ③ If ϕ satisfiable and ϕ' not, then $optCost = n + 2$
- ④ If ϕ' satisfiable and ϕ not, then $optCost = n + 1$

“yes” instance of SAT-UNSAT $\Leftrightarrow optCost = n + 2$

Let $B \equiv n + 2!$

Other DP-complete problems

Also:

- *CRITICAL SAT*: Given a Boolean expression ϕ , is it true that it's **unsatisfiable**, but deleting any clause makes it satisfiable?
- *CRITICAL HAMILTON PATH*: Given a graph, is it true that it has **no** Hamilton path, but addition of any edge creates a Hamilton path?
- *CRITICAL 3-COLORABILITY*: Given a graph, is it true that it is **not** 3-colorable, but deletion of any node makes it 3-colorable?

are **DP**-complete!

Oracle TMs and Oracle Classes

Definition

A Turing Machine $M^?$ with *oracle* is a multi-string deterministic TM that has a special string, called **query string**, and three special states: $q_?$ (*query state*), and q_{YES} , q_{NO} (*answer states*). Let $A \subseteq \Sigma^*$ be an arbitrary language. The computation of oracle machine M^A proceeds like an ordinary TM except for transitions from the query state:

From the $q_?$ moves to either q_{YES} , q_{NO} , depending on whether the current query string is in A or not.

- The answer states allow the machine to use this answer to its further computation.
- The computation of $M^?$ with oracle A on input x is denoted as $M^A(x)$.

Oracle TMs and Oracle Classes

Definition

Let \mathcal{C} be a time complexity class (deterministic or nondeterministic).

Define \mathcal{C}^A to be the class of all languages decided by machines of the same sort and time bound as in \mathcal{C} , only that the machines have now oracle A .

Theorem

There exists an oracle A for which $\mathbf{P}^A = \mathbf{NP}^A$

Proof

Take A to be a **PSPACE**-complete language. Then:
 $\mathbf{PSPACE} \subseteq \mathbf{P}^A \subseteq \mathbf{NP}^A \subseteq \mathbf{NPSPACE} \subseteq \mathbf{PSPACE}$.

Theorem

There exists an oracle B for which $\mathbf{P}^B \neq \mathbf{NP}^B$

The Classes P^{NP} and FP^{NP}

Alternative DP Definition

DP is the class of languages that can be decided by an oracle machine which makes 2 queries to a *SAT* oracle, and accepts iff the 1st answer is **yes**, and the 2nd is **no**.

- P^{SAT} is the class of languages decided in pol time with a *SAT* oracle.
 - Polynomial number of queries
 - Queries computed adaptively
- *SAT* **NP**-complete $\Rightarrow P^{SAT} = P^{NP}$
- FP^{NP} is the class of functions that can be computed by a pol-time TM with a *SAT* oracle.
- Goal: $MAX OUTPUT \leq_P MAX-WEIGHT SAT \leq_P SAT$

FP^{NP} -complete Problems

MAX OUTPUT Definition

Given NTM N , with input 1^n , which halts after $\mathcal{O}(n)$, with output a string of length n . Which is the largest output, of any computation of N on 1^n ?

Theorem

MAX OUTPUT is FP^{NP} -complete.

Proof

$MAX OUTPUT \in FP^{NP}$.

Let $F : \Sigma^* \rightarrow \Sigma^* \in FP^{NP} \Rightarrow \exists$ pol-time TM $M^?$, s.t.

$M^{SAT}(x) = F(x)$. We'll show: $F \leq MAX OUTPUT!$

Reductions R and S (*log space computable*) s.t.:

- $\forall x, R(x)$ is a instance of *MAX OUTPUT*
- $S(\text{max output of } R(x)) \rightarrow F(x)$

FP^{NP} -complete Problems**Proof (cont.)**NTM N :Let $n = p^2(|x|)$, $p(\cdot)$, is the pol bound of SAT . $N(1^n)$ generates x on a string. M^{SAT} query state (ϕ_1):

- If $z_1 = 0$ (ϕ_1 unsat), then continue from q_{NO} .
- If $z_1 = 1$ (ϕ_1 sat), then guess assignment T_1 :
 - If test succeeds, continue from q_{YES} .
 - If test fails, output= 0^n and **halt**. (Unsuccessful computation)

Continue to all guesses (z_i), and **halt**, with output= $\underbrace{z_1 z_2 \dots 00}_n$

(Successful computation)

FP^{NP} -complete Problems**Proof (cont.)**

We claim that the successful computation that outputs the largest integer, correspond to a correct simulation:

Let j the smallest integer, s.t.: $z_j = 0$, while ϕ_j was satisfiable.

Then, \exists another successful computation of N , s.t.: $z_j = 1$.

The computations agree to the first $j - 1$ digits, \Rightarrow the 2^{nd} represents a larger number.

The S part: $F(x)$ can be read off the end of the largest output of N .

FP^{NP} -complete Problems

MAX-WEIGHT SAT Definition

Given a set of clauses, each with an integer weight, find the truth assignment that satisfies a set of clauses with the most total weight.

FP^{NP} -complete Problems

MAX-WEIGHT SAT Definition

Given a set of clauses, each with an integer weight, find the truth assignment that satisfies a set of clauses with the most total weight.

Theorem

MAX-WEIGHT SAT is FP^{NP} -complete.

Proof

MAX-WEIGHT SAT is in FP^{NP} : By binary search, and a *SAT* oracle, we can find the largest possible total weight of satisfied clauses, and then, by setting the variables 1-1, the truth assignment that achieves it.

MAX OUTPUT \leq *MAX-WEIGHT SAT*:

FP^{NP} -complete Problems

Proof (cont.)

- $NTMN(1^n) \rightarrow \phi(N, m)$:
Any satisfying truth assignment of $\phi(N, m) \rightarrow$ legal comp. of $N(1^n)$
- Clauses are given a huge weight (2^n), so that any t.a. that aspires to be optimum satisfy all clauses of $\phi(N, m)$.
- Add more clauses: $(y_i): i = 1, ..n$ with weight 2^{n-i} .
- Now, optimum t.a. must *not* represent any legal computation, but this which produces the *largest* possible output value.
- S part: From optimum t.a. of the resulting expression (or the weight), we can recover the optimum output of $N(1^n)$.

FP^{NP} -complete Problems

And the main result:

Theorem

TSP is FP^{NP} -complete.

The Class $P^{NP[\log n]}$

Definition

$P^{NP[\log n]}$ is the class of all languages decided by a polynomial time oracle machine, which on input x asks a total of $\mathcal{O}(\log |x|)$ SAT queries.

- $FP^{NP[\log n]}$ is the corresponding class of functions.

The Class $P^{NP}[\log n]$

Definition

$P^{NP}[\log n]$ is the class of all languages decided by a polynomial time oracle machine, which on input x asks a total of $\mathcal{O}(\log |x|)$ SAT queries.

- $FP^{NP}[\log n]$ is the corresponding class of functions.

CLIQUE SIZE Definition

Given a graph, determine the size of his *largest* clique.

The Class $P^{NP}[\log n]$

Definition

$P^{NP}[\log n]$ is the class of all languages decided by a polynomial time oracle machine, which on input x asks a total of $\mathcal{O}(\log |x|)$ SAT queries.

- $FP^{NP}[\log n]$ is the corresponding class of functions.

CLIQUE SIZE Definition

Given a graph, determine the size of his *largest* clique.

Theorem

CLIQUE SIZE is $FP^{NP}[\log n]$ -complete.

Conclusion

- ① $TSP(D)$ is **NP**-complete.
- ② $EXACT TSP$ is **DP**-complete.
- ③ $TSP COST$ is **FP^{NP}**-complete.
- ④ TSP is **FP^{NP}**-complete.

And now,

- **P^{NP}** → **NP^{NP}** ?
- Oracles for **NP^{NP}** ?

The Polynomial Hierarchy

Polynomial Hierarchy Definition

- $\Delta_0^P = \Sigma_0^P = \Pi_0^P = \mathbf{P}$
- $\Delta_{i+1}^P = \mathbf{P}^{\Sigma_i^P}$
- $\Sigma_{i+1}^P = \mathbf{NP}^{\Sigma_i^P}$
- $\Pi_{i+1}^P = \mathbf{coNP}^{\Sigma_i^P}$
-

$$\mathbf{PH} \equiv \bigcup_{i \geq 0} \Sigma_i^P$$

- $\Sigma_0^P = \mathbf{P}$
- $\Delta_1^P = \mathbf{P}$, $\Sigma_1^P = \mathbf{NP}$, $\Pi_1^P = \mathbf{coNP}$
- $\Delta_2^P = \mathbf{P}^{\mathbf{NP}}$, $\Sigma_2^P = \mathbf{NP}^{\mathbf{NP}}$, $\Pi_2^P = \mathbf{coNP}^{\mathbf{NP}}$

Basic Theorems

Theorem

Let L be a language, and $i \geq 1$. $L \in \Sigma_i^P$ iff there is a polynomially balanced relation R such that the language $\{x; y : (x, y) \in R\}$ is in Π_{i-1}^P and

$$L = \{x : \exists y, s.t. : (x, y) \in R\}$$

Proof (by Induction)

- For $i = 1$

$\{x; y : (x, y) \in R\} \in \mathbf{P}$, so $L = \{x | \exists y : (x, y) \in R\} \in \mathbf{NP}$

- For $i > 1$

If $\exists R \in \Pi_{i-1}^P$, we must show that $L \in \Sigma_i^P \Rightarrow$

\exists NTM with Σ_{i-1}^P oracle: NTM(x) guesses a y and asks Π_{i-1}^P oracle whether $(x, y) \notin R$.

Basic Theorems

Proof (cont.)

- If $L \in \Sigma_i^P$, we must show the existence of R .

$L \in \Sigma_i^P \Rightarrow \exists$ NTM M^K , $K \in \Sigma_{i-1}^P$, which decides L .

$K \in \Sigma_{i-1}^P \Rightarrow \exists S \in \Pi_{i-2}^P : (z \in K \Leftrightarrow \exists w : (z, w) \in S)$

We must describe a relation R (we know: $x \in L \Leftrightarrow$ accepting comp of $M^K(x)$)

Query Steps: “yes” $\rightarrow z_i$ has a certificate w_i st $(z_i, w_i) \in S$.

So, $R(x) =$ “ $(x, y) \in R$ iff y records an accepting computation of $M^?$ on x , together with a certificate w_i for each **yes** query z_i in the computation.”

We must show $\{x; y : (x, y) \in R\} \in \Pi_{i-1}^P$.

Basic Theorems

Corollary

Let L be a language, and $i \geq 1$. $L \in \Pi_i^P$ iff there is a polynomially balanced relation R such that the language $\{x; y : (x, y) \in R\}$ is in Σ_{i-1}^P and

$$L = \{x : \forall y, |y| \leq |x|^k, \text{ s.t. } : (x, y) \in R\}$$

Corollary

Let L be a language, and $i \geq 1$. $L \in \Sigma_i^P$ iff there is a polynomially balanced, polynomially-time decidable $(i + 1)$ -ary relation R such that:

$$L = \{x : \exists y_1 \forall y_2 \exists y_3 \dots Q y_i, \text{ s.t. } : (x, y_1, \dots, y_i) \in R\}$$

where the i^{th} quantifier Q is \forall , if i is even, and \exists , if i is odd.

Basic Theorems

Theorem

If for some $i \geq 1$, $\Sigma_i^P = \Pi_i^P$, then for all $j > i$:

$$\Sigma_j^P = \Pi_j^P = \Delta_j^P = \Sigma_i^P$$

Or, the polynomial hierarchy *collapses* to the i^{th} level.

Proof

It suffices to show that: $\Sigma_i^P = \Pi_i^P \Rightarrow \Sigma_{i+1}^P = \Sigma_i^P$

Let $L \in \Sigma_{i+1}^P \Rightarrow \exists R \in \Pi_i^P: L = \{x \mid \exists y : (x, y) \in R\}$

Since $\Pi_i^P = \Sigma_i^P \Rightarrow R \in \Sigma_i^P$

$(x, y) \in R \Leftrightarrow \exists z : (x, y, z) \in S, S \in \Pi_{i-1}^P.$

Thus, $x \in L \Leftrightarrow \exists y; z : (x, y, z) \in S, S \in \Pi_{i-1}^P$, which means

$L \in \Sigma_i^P.$

Basic Theorems

Corollary

If $\mathbf{P}=\mathbf{NP}$, or even $\mathbf{NP}=\mathbf{coNP}$, the Polynomial Hierarchy collapses to the first level.

Basic Theorems

Corollary

If $\mathbf{P}=\mathbf{NP}$, or even $\mathbf{NP}=\mathbf{coNP}$, the Polynomial Hierarchy collapses to the first level.

MINIMUM CIRCUIT Definition

Given a Boolean Circuit C , is it true that there is no circuit with fewer gates that computes the same Boolean function

- *MINIMUM CIRCUIT* is in Π_2^P , and not known to be in any class below that.
- It is open whether *MINIMUM CIRCUIT* is Π_2^P -complete.

Theorem

If *SAT* has Polynomial Circuits, then the Polynomial Hierarchy collapses to the second level.

Basic Theorems

QSAT_i Definition

Given expression ϕ , with Boolean variables partitioned into i sets X_i , is ϕ satisfied by the overall truth assignment of the expression:

$$\exists X_1 \forall X_2 \exists X_3 \dots Q X_i \phi$$

, where Q is \exists if i is *odd*, and \forall if i is *even*.

Theorem

For all $i \geq 1$ QSAT_i is Σ_i^P -complete.

Basic Theorems

Theorem

If there is a **PH**-complete problem, then the polynomial hierarchy collapses to some finite level.

Proof

Let L is **PH**-complete.

Since $L \in \mathbf{PH}$, $\exists i \geq 0 : L \in \Sigma_i^P$.

But any $L' \in \Sigma_{i+1}^P$ reduces to L . Since PH is closed under reductions, we imply that $L' \in \Sigma_i^P$, so $\Sigma_i^P = \Sigma_{i+1}^P$.

Basic Theorems

Theorem

If there is a **PH**-complete problem, then the polynomial hierarchy collapses to some finite level.

Proof

Let L is **PH**-complete.

Since $L \in \mathbf{PH}$, $\exists i \geq 0 : L \in \Sigma_i^P$.

But any $L' \in \Sigma_{i+1}^P$ reduces to L . Since **PH** is closed under reductions, we imply that $L' \in \Sigma_i^P$, so $\Sigma_i^P = \Sigma_{i+1}^P$.

Theorem

PH \subseteq **PSPACE**

- **PH** $\stackrel{?}{=} \mathbf{PSPACE}$ (Open). If it was, then **PH** has complete problems, so it collapses to some finite level.

Contents

- Introduction
- Turing Machines
- Undecidability
- Complexity Classes
- Oracles & Optimization Problems
- **Randomized Computation**
- Non-Uniform Complexity
- Interactive Proofs
- Counting Complexity



Warmup: Randomized Quicksort

Deterministic Quicksort

Input: A list L of integers;

If $n \leq 1$ then return L .

Else {

- let $i = 1$;
- let L_1 be the sublist of L whose elements are $< a_i$;
- let L_2 be the sublist of L whose elements are $= a_i$;
- let L_3 be the sublist of L whose elements are $> a_i$;
- Recursively Quicksort L_1 and L_3 ;
- return $L = L_1 L_2 L_3$;

Probabilistic Turing Machines

- A Probabilistic Turing Machine is a TM as we know it, but with access to a “random source”, that is an extra (read-only) tape containing *random-bits!*
- Randomization on:
 - **Output** (one or two-sided)
 - **Running Time**

Definition (Probabilistic Turing Machines)

A Probabilistic Turing Machine is a TM with two transition functions δ_0, δ_1 . On input x , we choose in each step with probability $1/2$ to apply the transition function δ_0 or δ_1 , independently of all previous choices.

- We denote by $M(x)$ the *random variable* corresponding to the output of M at the end of the process.
- For a function $T : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$, we say that M runs in $T(|x|)$ -time if it halts on x within $T(|x|)$ steps (*regardless of the random choices it makes*).

BPP Class

Definition (Alternative Definition of BPP)

A language $L \in \mathbf{BPP}$ if there exists a poly-time TM M and a polynomial $p \in poly(n)$, such that for every $x \in \{0, 1\}^*$:

$$\Pr_{r \in \{0,1\}^{p(n)}} [M(x, r) = L(x)] \geq \frac{2}{3}$$

- $\mathbf{P} \subseteq \mathbf{BPP}$
- $\mathbf{BPP} \subseteq \mathbf{EXP}$
- The “**P** vs **BPP**” question.

Quantifier Characterizations

Definition

We denote as $\mathcal{C} = (Q_1/Q_2)$, where $Q_1, Q_2 \in \{\exists, \forall, \exists^+\}$, the class \mathcal{C} of languages L satisfying:

- $x \in L \Rightarrow Q_1y R(x, y)$
- $x \notin L \Rightarrow Q_2y \neg R(x, y)$

- **P** = (\forall/\forall)
- **NP** = (\exists/\forall)
- **coNP** = (\forall/\exists)
- **BPP** = $(\exists^+/\exists^+) = \text{coBPP}$

RP Class

- In the same way, we can define classes that contain problems with one-sided error:

Definition

The class **RTIME** $[T(n)]$ contains every language L for which there exists a PTM M running in $\mathcal{O}(T(|x|))$ time such that:

- $x \in L \Rightarrow \Pr[M(x) = 1] \geq \frac{2}{3}$
- $x \notin L \Rightarrow \Pr[M(x) = 0] = 1$

We define

$$\mathbf{RP} = \bigcup_{c \in \mathbb{N}} \mathbf{RTIME}[n^c]$$

- Similarly we define the class **coRP**.

Quantifier Characterizations

- **RP** \subseteq **NP**, since every accepting “branch” is a certificate!
- **RP** \subseteq **BPP**, **coRP** \subseteq **BPP**
- **RP** = (\exists^+/\forall)

Quantifier Characterizations

- **RP** \subseteq **NP**, since every accepting “branch” is a certificate!
- **RP** \subseteq **BPP**, **coRP** \subseteq **BPP**
- **RP** = $(\exists^+/\forall) \subseteq (\exists/\forall) =$ **NP**

Quantifier Characterizations

- **RP** \subseteq **NP**, since every accepting “branch” is a certificate!
- **RP** \subseteq **BPP**, **coRP** \subseteq **BPP**
- **RP** = $(\exists^+/\forall) \subseteq (\exists/\forall) =$ **NP**
- **coRP** = $(\forall/\exists^+) \subseteq (\forall/\exists) =$ **coNP**

Quantifier Characterizations

- **RP** \subseteq **NP**, since every accepting “branch” is a certificate!
- **RP** \subseteq **BPP**, **coRP** \subseteq **BPP**
- **RP** = $(\exists^+/\forall) \subseteq (\exists/\forall) =$ **NP**
- **coRP** = $(\forall/\exists^+) \subseteq (\forall/\exists) =$ **coNP**

Theorem (Decisive Characterization of BPP)

$$\mathbf{BPP} = (\exists^+/\exists^+) = (\exists^+\forall/\forall\exists^+) = (\forall\exists^+/\exists^+\forall)$$

Quantifier Characterizations

Proof:

- Let $L \in \mathbf{BPP}$. Then, by definition, there exists a polynomial-time computable predicate Q and a polynomial q such that for all x 's of length n :

$$x \in L \Rightarrow \exists^+ y Q(x, y)$$

$$x \notin L \Rightarrow \exists^+ y \neg Q(x, y)$$

Swapping Lemma

- i $\forall y \exists^+ z R(x, y, z) \Rightarrow \exists^+ C \forall y \bigvee_{z \in C} R(x, y, z)$
- ii $\forall z \exists^+ y R(x, y, z) \Rightarrow \forall C \exists^+ y \bigwedge_{z \in C} R(x, y, z)$

- By the above Lemma: $x \in L \Rightarrow \exists^+ z Q(x, z) \Rightarrow \forall y \exists^+ z Q(x, y \oplus z) \Rightarrow \exists^+ C \forall y [\exists(z \in C) Q(x, y \oplus z)]$, where C denotes (as in the Swapping's Lemma formulation) a set of $q(n)$ strings, each of length $q(n)$.

Quantifier Characterizations

Proof (cont'd):

- On the other hand, $x \notin L \Rightarrow \exists^+ y \neg Q(x, z) \Rightarrow \forall z \exists^+ y \neg Q(x, y \oplus z) \Rightarrow \forall C \exists^+ y [\forall (z \in C) \neg Q(x, y \oplus z)]$.
- Now, we only have to assure that the appeared predicates $\exists z \in C Q(x, y \oplus z)$ and $\forall z \in C \neg Q(x, y \oplus z)$ are computable in polynomial time
- Recall that in Swapping Lemma's formulation we demanded $|C| \leq p(n)$ and that for each $v \in C$: $|v| = p(n)$. This means that we seek if a string of polynomial length *exists*, or if the predicate holds *for all* such strings in a set with polynomial cardinality, procedure which can be surely done in polynomial time.

Quantifier Characterizations

Proof (cont'd):

- Conversely, if $L \in (\exists^+ \forall / \forall \exists^+)$, for each string w , $|w| = 2p(n)$, we have $w = w_1 w_2$, $|w_1| = |w_2| = p(n)$. Then:
 $x \in L \Rightarrow \exists^+ y \forall z R(x, y, z) \Rightarrow \exists^+ w R(x, w_1, w_2)$
 $x \notin L \Rightarrow \forall y \exists^+ z R(x, y, z) \Rightarrow \exists^+ w \neg R(x, w_1, w_2)$
- So, $L \in \mathbf{BPP}$. \square
- The above characterization is *decisive*, in the sense that if we replace \exists^+ with \exists , the two predicates are still complementary (i.e. $R_1 \Rightarrow \neg R_2$), so they still define a complexity class.
- In the above characterization of **BPP**, if we replace \exists^+ with \exists , we obtain very easily a well-known result:

Corollary (Sipser-Gács Theorem)

$$\mathbf{BPP} \subseteq \Sigma_2^P \cap \Pi_2^P$$

BPP and PH

Theorem (Sipser-Gács)

$$\mathbf{BPP} \subseteq \Sigma_2^P \cap \Pi_2^P$$

Proof (*Lautemann*)

Because $\text{coBPP} = \mathbf{BPP}$, we prove only $\mathbf{BPP} \subseteq \Sigma_2^P$.

Let $L \in \mathbf{BPP}$ (L is accepted by “clear majority”).

For $|x| = n$, let $A(x) \subseteq \{0, 1\}^{p(n)}$ be the set of *accepting* computations.

We have:

- $x \in L \Rightarrow |A(x)| \geq 2^{p(n)} \left(1 - \frac{1}{2^n}\right)$
- $x \notin L \Rightarrow |A(x)| \leq 2^{p(n)} \left(\frac{1}{2^n}\right)$

Let U be the set of all bit strings of length $p(n)$.

For $a, b \in U$, let $a \oplus b$ be the XOR:

$a \oplus b = c \Leftrightarrow c \oplus b = a$, so “ $\oplus b$ ” is 1-1.

BPP and PH

Proof (cont.)

For $t \in U$, $A(x) \oplus t = \{a \oplus t : a \in A(x)\}$ (translation of $A(x)$ by t). We imply that: $|A(x) \oplus t| = |A(x)|$

If $x \in L$, consider a *random* (drawing $p^2(n)$ bits) sequence of translations: $t_1, t_2, \dots, t_{p(n)} \in U$.

For $b \in U$, these translations *cover* b , if $b \in A(x) \oplus t_j$, $j \leq p(n)$.

$$b \in A(x) \oplus t_j \Leftrightarrow b \oplus t_j \in A(x) \Rightarrow \Pr[b \notin A(x) \oplus t_j] = \frac{1}{2^n}$$

$$\Pr[b \text{ is not covered by any } t_j] = 2^{-np(n)}$$

$$\Pr[\exists \text{ point that is not covered}] \leq 2^{-np(n)} |U| = 2^{-(n-1)p(n)}$$

BPP and PH

Proof (cont.)

So, $T = (t_1, \dots, t_{p(n)})$ has a positive probability that it covers all of U .

If $x \notin L$, $|A(x)|$ is exp small, and (for large n) there's not T that cover all U .

$(x \in L) \Leftrightarrow (\exists T \text{ that cover all } U)$

So,

$$L = \{x \mid \exists (T \in \{0, 1\}^{p^2(n)}) \forall (b \in U) \exists (j \leq p(n)) : b \oplus t_j \in A(x)\}$$

which is precisely the form of languages in $\Sigma_2\mathbf{P}$.

The last existential quantifier $(\exists(j \leq p(n))\dots)$ affects only polynomially many possibilities, so it doesn't "count" (can be tested in polynomial time by trying all t_j 's).



ZPP Class

- And now something completely different:
- What is the random variable was the running time and not the output?

ZPP Class

- And now something completely different:
- What is the random variable was the running time and not the output?
- We say that M has expected running time $T(n)$ if the expectation $\mathbf{E}[T_{M(x)}]$ is at most $T(|x|)$ for every $x \in \{0, 1\}^*$. ($T_{M(x)}$ is the running time of M on input x , and it is a **random variable!**)

Definition

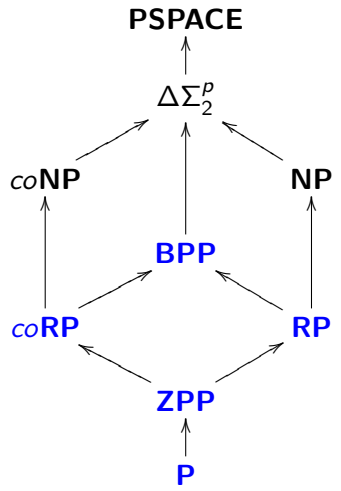
The class **ZTIME** $[T(n)]$ contains all languages L for which there exists a machine M that runs in an expected time $\mathcal{O}(T(|x|))$ such that for every input $x \in \{0, 1\}^*$, whenever M halts on x , the output $M(x)$ it produces is exactly $L(x)$. We define:

$$\mathbf{ZPP} = \bigcup_{c \in \mathbb{N}} \mathbf{ZTIME}[n^c]$$

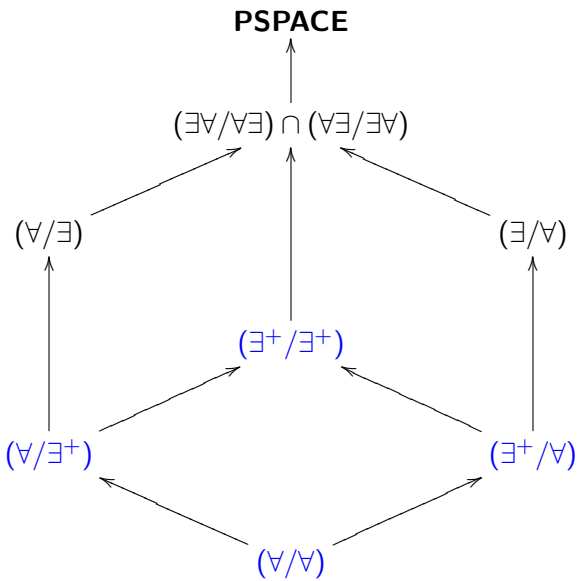
ZPP Class

- The output of a **ZPP** machine is always correct!
- The problem is that we aren't sure about the running time.
- We can easily see that **ZPP** = **RP** \cap **coRP**.
- The next Hasse diagram summarizes the previous inclusions:
(Recall that $\Delta\Sigma_2^P = \Sigma_2^P \cap \Pi_2^P = \mathbf{NP}^{\mathbf{NP}} \cap \mathbf{coNP}^{\mathbf{NP}}$)

BPP and PH



BPP and PH



Error Reduction for BPP

Theorem (Error Reduction for BPP)

Let $L \subseteq \{0, 1\}^$ be a language and suppose that there exists a poly-time PTM M such that for every $x \in \{0, 1\}^*$:*

$$\Pr[M(x) = L(x)] \geq \frac{1}{2} + |x|^{-c}$$

Then, for every constant $d > 0$, \exists poly-time PTM M' such that for every $x \in \{0, 1\}^$:*

$$\Pr[M'(x) = L(x)] \geq 1 - 2^{-|x|^d}$$

Proof: The machine M' does the following:

- Run $M(x)$ for every input x for $k = 8|x|^{2c+d}$ times, and obtain outputs $y_1, y_2, \dots, y_k \in \{0, 1\}$.
- If the majority of these outputs is 1, return 1
- Otherwise, return 0.

We define the r.v. X_i for every $i \in [k]$ to be 1 if $y_i = L(x)$ and 0 otherwise.

X_1, X_2, \dots, X_k are independent Boolean r.v.'s, with:

$$\mathbf{E}[X_i] = \Pr[X_i = 1] \geq p = \frac{1}{2} + |x|^{-c}$$

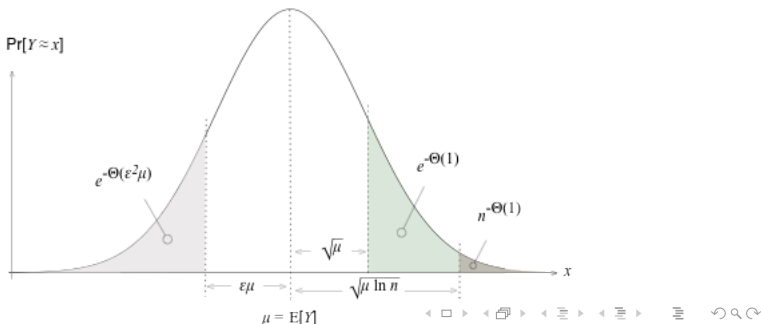
Applying a Chernoff Bound we obtain:

$$\Pr \left[\left| \sum_{i=1}^k X_i - pk \right| > \delta pk \right] < e^{-\frac{\delta^2}{4} pk} = e^{-\frac{1}{4|x|^{2c}} \frac{1}{2} 8|x|^{2c+d}} \leq 2^{-|x|^d}$$



Intermission: Chernoff Bounds

- *How many* samples do we need in order to estimate μ up to an *error* of $\pm\varepsilon$ with *probability* at least $1 - \delta$?
- Chernoff Bound tells us that this number is $\mathcal{O}(\rho/\varepsilon^2)$, where $\rho = \log(1/\delta)$.
- The probability that k is $\rho\sqrt{n}$ far from μn decays **exponentially** with ρ .



Intermission: Chernoff Bounds

$$\Pr \left[\sum_{i=1}^n X_i \geq (1 + \delta)\mu \right] \leq \left[\frac{e^\delta}{(1 + \delta)^{1+\delta}} \right]^\mu$$

$$\Pr \left[\sum_{i=1}^n X_i \leq (1 - \delta)\mu \right] \leq \left[\frac{e^{-\delta}}{(1 - \delta)^{1-\delta}} \right]^\mu$$

Other useful form is:

$$\Pr \left[\left| \sum_{i=1}^n X_i - \mu \right| \geq c\mu \right] \leq 2e^{-\min\{c^2/4, c/2\} \cdot \mu}$$

- This probability is bounded by $2^{-\Omega(\mu)}$.

Error Reduction for BPP

- From the above we can obtain the following interesting corollary:

Corollary

For $c > 0$, let $\mathbf{BPP}_{1/2+n^{-c}}$ denote the class of languages L for which there is a polynomial-time PTM M satisfying $\Pr[M(x) = L(x)] \geq 1/2 + |x|^{-c}$ for every $x \in \{0, 1\}^*$. Then:

$$\mathbf{BPP}_{1/2+n^{-c}} = \mathbf{BPP}$$

- Obviously, $\exists^+ = \exists^+_{1/2+\varepsilon} = \exists^+_{2/3} = \exists^+_{3/4} = \exists^+_{0.99} = \exists^+_{1-2^{-p(|x|)}}$

Complete Problems for BPP?

- The defining property of **BPTIME** machines is **semantic!**
- We cannot test whether a TM can accept every input string with probability $\geq 2/3$ or with $\leq 1/3$ (**why?**)
- In contrast, the defining property of **NP** is **syntactic!**
- We have:
 - **Syntactic Classes**
 - **Semantic Classes**
- If finally **P = BPP**, then **BPP** will have complete problems!!

Complete Problems for BPP?

- The defining property of **BPTIME** machines is **semantic!**
- We cannot test whether a TM can accept every input string with probability $\geq 2/3$ or with $\leq 1/3$ (**why?**)
- In contrast, the defining property of **NP** is **syntactic!**
- We have:
 - **Syntactic Classes**
 - **Semantic Classes**
- If finally **P = BPP**, then **BPP** will have complete problems!!

- For the same reason, in semantic classes we cannot prove Hierarchy Theorems using Diagonalization.

The Class PP

Definition

A language $L \in \mathbf{PP}$ if there exists a poly-time TM M and a polynomial $p \in \text{poly}(n)$, such that for every $x \in \{0, 1\}^*$:

$$\Pr_{r \in \{0,1\}^{p(n)}} [M(x, r) = L(x)] \geq \frac{1}{2}$$

- Or, more “syntactically”:

Definition

A language $L \in \mathbf{PP}$ if there exists a poly-time TM M and a polynomial $p \in \text{poly}(n)$, such that for every $x \in \{0, 1\}^*$:

$$x \in L \Leftrightarrow \left| \left\{ y \in \{0, 1\}^{p(|x|)} : M(x, y) = 1 \right\} \right| \geq \frac{1}{2} \cdot 2^{p(|x|)}$$

The Class PP

- Due to the lack of a gap between the two cases, we cannot amplify the probability with polynomially many repetitions, as in the case of **BPP**.
- **PP** is closed under complement.
- A breakthrough result of R. Beigel, N. Reingold and D. Spielman is that **PP** is closed under *intersection*!

The Class PP

- Due to the lack of a gap between the two cases, we cannot amplify the probability with polynomially many repetitions, as in the case of **BPP**.
- **PP** is closed under complement.
- A breakthrough result of R. Beigel, N. Reingold and D. Spielman is that **PP** is closed under *intersection*!
- The syntactic definition of **PP** gives the possibility for *complete problems*:
- Consider the problem MAJSAT:
Given a Boolean Expression, is it true that the majority of the 2^n truth assignments to its variables (that is, at least $2^{n-1} + 1$ of them) satisfy it?

The Class PP

Theorem

*MAJSAT is **PP**-complete!*

- MAJSAT is not likely in **NP**, since the (*obvious*) certificate is not very succinct!

The Class PP

Theorem

*MAJSAT is **PP**-complete!*

- MAJSAT is not likely in **NP**, since the (*obvious*) certificate is not very succinct!

Theorem

$NP \subseteq PP \subseteq PSPACE$

The Class PP

Theorem

MAJSAT is **PP**-complete!

- MAJSAT is not likely in **NP**, since the (*obvious*) certificate is not very succinct!

Theorem

$$\mathbf{NP} \subseteq \mathbf{PP} \subseteq \mathbf{PSPACE}$$

Proof:

It is easy to see that **PP** \subseteq **PSPACE**:

We can simulate any **PP** machine by enumerating all strings y of length $p(n)$ and verify whether **PP** machine accepts. The **PSPACE** machine accepts if and only if there are more than $2^{p(n)-1}$ such y 's (by using a counter).

The Class PP

Proof (cont'd):

Now, for $\mathbf{NP} \subseteq \mathbf{PP}$, let $A \in \mathbf{NP}$. That is, $\exists p \in \text{poly}(n)$ and a poly-time and balanced predicate R such that:

$$x \in A \Leftrightarrow (\exists y, |y| = p(|x|)) : R(x, y)$$

Consider the following TM:

M accepts input (x, by) , with $|b| = 1$ and $|y| = p(|x|)$, if and only if $R(x, y) = 1$ or $b = 1$.

- If $x \in A$, then \exists at least one y s.t. $R(x, y)$.
Thus, $\Pr[M(x) \text{ accepts}] \geq 1/2 + 2^{-(p(n)+1)}$.
- If $x \notin A$, then $\Pr[M(x) \text{ accepts}] = 1/2$.



Other Results

Theorem

If $\mathbf{NP} \subseteq \mathbf{BPP}$, then $\mathbf{NP} = \mathbf{RP}$.

Other Results

Theorem

If $\mathbf{NP} \subseteq \mathbf{BPP}$, then $\mathbf{NP} = \mathbf{RP}$.

Proof:

- \mathbf{RP} is closed under \leq_m^P -reducibility.
- It suffices to show that if $\text{SAT} \in \mathbf{BPP}$, then $\text{SAT} \in \mathbf{RP}$.
- Recall that SAT has the **self-reducibility** property:

$$\phi(x_1, \dots, x_n): \phi \in \text{SAT} \Leftrightarrow (\phi|_{x_1=0} \in \text{SAT} \vee \phi|_{x_1=1} \in \text{SAT}).$$
- $\text{SAT} \in \mathbf{BPP}$: \exists PTM M computing SAT with error probability bounded by $2^{-|\phi|}$.
- We can use the *self-reducibility* of SAT to produce a truth assignment for ϕ as follows:

Other Results

Proof (cont'd):

Input: A Boolean formula ϕ with n variables

If $M(\phi) = 0$ **then** reject ϕ ;

For $i = 1$ **to** n

→ **If** $M(\phi|_{x_1=\alpha_1, \dots, x_{i-1}=\alpha_{i-1}, x_i=0}) = 1$ **then** let $\alpha_i = 0$

→ **Elseif** $M(\phi|_{x_1=\alpha_1, \dots, x_{i-1}=\alpha_{i-1}, x_i=1}) = 1$ **then** let $\alpha_i = 1$

→ **Else** reject ϕ and halt;

If $\phi|_{x_1=\alpha_1, \dots, x_n=\alpha_n} = 1$ **then** accept F

Else reject F

Other Results

Proof (cont'd):

Input: A Boolean formula ϕ with n variables

If $M(\phi) = 0$ **then reject** ϕ ;

For $i = 1$ **to** n

→ **If** $M(\phi|_{x_1=\alpha_1, \dots, x_{i-1}=\alpha_{i-1}, x_i=0}) = 1$ **then let** $\alpha_i = 0$

→ **Elseif** $M(\phi|_{x_1=\alpha_1, \dots, x_{i-1}=\alpha_{i-1}, x_i=1}) = 1$ **then let** $\alpha_i = 1$

→ **Else reject** ϕ **and halt**;

If $\phi|_{x_1=\alpha_1, \dots, x_n=\alpha_n} = 1$ **then accept** F

Else reject F

- Note that M_1 accepts ϕ *only if* a t.a. $t(x_i) = \alpha_i$ is found.
- Therefore, M_1 never makes mistakes if $\phi \notin \text{SAT}$.
- If $\phi \in \text{SAT}$, then M rejects ϕ on each iteration of the loop w.p. $2^{-|\phi|}$.
- So, $\Pr[M_1 \text{ accepting } x] = (1 - 2^{-|\phi|})^n$, which is greater than $1/2$ if $|\phi| \geq n > 1$. \square

Relativized Results

Theorem

Relative to a random oracle A , $\mathbf{P}^A = \mathbf{BPP}^A$. That is,

$$\Pr_A[\mathbf{P}^A = \mathbf{BPP}^A] = 1$$

Also,

- $\mathbf{BPP}^A \subsetneq \mathbf{NP}^A$, relative to a *random* oracle A .
- There exists an A such that: $\mathbf{P}^A \neq \mathbf{RP}^A$.
- There exists an A such that: $\mathbf{RP}^A \neq \mathbf{coRP}^A$
- There exists an A such that: $\mathbf{RP}^A \neq \mathbf{NP}^A$.

Relativized Results

Theorem

Relative to a random oracle A , $P^A = BPP^A$. That is,

$$\Pr_A[P^A = BPP^A] = 1$$

Also,

- $BPP^A \subsetneq NP^A$, relative to a *random* oracle A .
- There exists an A such that: $P^A \neq RP^A$.
- There exists an A such that: $RP^A \neq coRP^A$
- There exists an A such that: $RP^A \neq NP^A$.

Corollary

There exists an A such that:

$$P^A \neq RP^A \neq NP^A \not\subseteq BPP^A$$

Contents

- Introduction
- Turing Machines
- Undecidability
- Complexity Classes
- Oracles & Optimization Problems
- Randomized Computation
- **Non-Uniform Complexity**
- Interactive Proofs
- Counting Complexity

Boolean Circuits

- A Boolean Circuit is a natural model of *nonuniform* computation, a generalization of hardware computational methods.
- A non-uniform computational model allows us to use a different “algorithm” to be used for every input size, in contrast to the standard (or *uniform*) Turing Machine model, where the same T.M. is used on (infinitely many) input sizes.
- Each circuit can be used for a fixed input size, which limits or model.

Definition (Boolean circuits)

For every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ an n -input, single output Boolean Circuit C is a directed acyclic graph with n sources and *one* sink.

- All nonsource vertices are called *gates* and are labeled with one of \wedge (and), \vee (or) or \neg (not).
- The vertices labeled with \wedge and \vee have *fan-in* (i.e. number or incoming edges) 2.
- The vertices labeled with \neg have *fan-in* 1.
- The *size* of C , denoted by $|C|$, is the number of vertices in it.
- For every vertex v of C , we assign a value as follows: for some input $x \in \{0, 1\}^n$, if v is the i -th input vertex then $val(v) = x_i$, and otherwise $val(v)$ is defined recursively by applying v 's logical operation on the values of the vertices connected to v .
- The *output* $C(x)$ is the value of the output vertex.
- The *depth* of C is the length of the longest directed path from an input node to the output node.

- To overcome the fixed input length size, we need to allow families (or sequences) of circuits to be used:

Definition

Let $T : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ be a function. A $T(n)$ -size circuit family is a sequence $\{C_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ of Boolean circuits, where C_n has n inputs and a single output, and its size $|C_n| \leq T(n)$ for every n .

- These infinite families of circuits are defined arbitrarily: There is **no** pre-defined connection between the circuits, and also we haven't any "guarantee" that we can construct them efficiently.
- Like each new computational model, we can define a complexity class on it by imposing some restriction on a *complexity measure*:

Definition

We say that a language L is in **SIZE**($T(n)$) if there is a $T(n)$ -size circuit family $\{C_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$, such that $\forall x \in \{0, 1\}^n$:

$$x \in L \Leftrightarrow C_n(x) = 1$$

Definition

P_{/poly} is the class of languages that are decidable by polynomial size circuits families. That is,

$$\mathbf{P}_{/\text{poly}} = \bigcup_{c \in \mathbb{N}} \mathbf{SIZE}(n^c)$$

Theorem (Nonuniform Hierarchy Theorem)

For every functions $T, T' : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ with $\frac{2^n}{n} > T'(n) > 10T(n) > n$,

$$\mathbf{SIZE}(T(n)) \subsetneq \mathbf{SIZE}(T'(n))$$

Turing Machines that take advice

Definition

Let $T, a : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$. The class of languages decidable by $T(n)$ -time Turing Machines with $a(n)$ bits of advice, denoted

$$\mathbf{DTIME}(T(n)/a(n))$$

contains every language L such that there exists a sequence $\{a_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ of strings, with $a_n \in \{0, 1\}^{a(n)}$ and a Turing Machine M satisfying:

$$x \in L \Leftrightarrow M(x, a_n) = 1$$

for every $x \in \{0, 1\}^n$, where on input (x, a_n) the machine M runs for at most $\mathcal{O}(T(n))$ steps.

Turing Machines that take advice

Theorem (Alternative Definition of $\mathbf{P}_{/\text{poly}}$)

$$\mathbf{P}_{/\text{poly}} = \bigcup_{c,d \in \mathbb{N}} \mathbf{DTIME}(n^c/n^d)$$

Turing Machines that take advice

Theorem (Alternative Definition of $\mathbf{P}_{/poly}$)

$$\mathbf{P}_{/poly} = \bigcup_{c,d \in \mathbb{N}} \mathbf{DTIME}(n^c/n^d)$$

Proof: (\subseteq) Let $L \in \mathbf{P}_{/poly}$. Then, $\exists \{C_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}} : C_{|x|} = L(x)$.
We can use C_n 's encoding as an advice string for each n .

Turing Machines that take advice

Theorem (Alternative Definition of $\mathbf{P}_{/\text{poly}}$)

$$\mathbf{P}_{/\text{poly}} = \bigcup_{c,d \in \mathbb{N}} \mathbf{DTIME}(n^c/n^d)$$

Proof: (\subseteq) Let $L \in \mathbf{P}_{/\text{poly}}$. Then, $\exists \{C_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}} : C_{|x|} = L(x)$.

We can use C_n 's encoding as an advice string for each n .

(\supseteq) Let $L \in \mathbf{DTIME}(n^c/n^d)$. Then, since CVP is \mathbf{P} -complete, we construct for every n a circuit D_n such that, for $x \in \{0, 1\}^n$, $a_n \in \{0, 1\}^{a(n)}$:

$$D_n(x, a_n) = M(x, a_n)$$

Then, let $C_n(x) = D_n(x, a_n)$ (**We hard-wire the advice string!**)

Since $a(n) = n^d$, the circuits have polynomial size. \square .

Theorem

$$\mathbf{P} \subsetneq \mathbf{P}/\text{poly}$$

- For " \subseteq ", recall that CVP is \mathbf{P} -complete.
- **But why proper inclusion?**
- Consider the following language:

$$U = \{1^n \mid n\text{'s binary expression encodes a pair } \langle M, x \rangle \text{ s.t. } M(x) \downarrow\}$$

- It is easy to see that $U \in \mathbf{P}/\text{poly}$, but....

Theorem (Karp-Lipton Theorem)

If $\mathbf{NP} \subseteq \mathbf{P}/\text{poly}$, then $\mathbf{PH} = \Sigma_2^P$.

Theorem (Meyer's Theorem)

If $\mathbf{EXP} \subseteq \mathbf{P}/\text{poly}$, then $\mathbf{EXP} = \Sigma_2^P$.

Uniform Families of Circuits

- We saw that $\mathbf{P}_{/poly}$ contains an undecidable language.
- The root of this problem lies in the “weak” definition of such families, since it suffices that \exists a circuit family for L .
- We haven’t a way (or an algorithm) to construct such a family.
- So, may be useful to restric or attention to families we can construct efficiently:

Theorem (P-Uniform Families)

A circuit family $\{C_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is \mathbf{P} -uniform if there is a polynomial-time T.M. that on input 1^n outputs the description of the circuit C_n .

- But...

Theorem

A language L is computable by a \mathbf{P} -uniform circuit family iff $L \in \mathbf{P}$.

Theorem

$$\mathbf{BPP} \subset \mathbf{P}_{/\text{poly}}$$

Proof: Recall that if $L \in \mathbf{BPP}$, then \exists PTM M such that:

$$\Pr_{r \in \{0,1\}^{\text{poly}(n)}} [M(x, r) \neq L(x)] < 2^{-n}$$

Then, taking the union bound:

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[\exists x \in \{0,1\}^n : M(x, r) \neq L(x)] &= \Pr \left[\bigcup_{x \in \{0,1\}^n} M(x, r) \neq L(x) \right] \leq \\ &\leq \sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^n} \Pr[M(x, r) \neq L(x)] < 2^{-n} + \dots + 2^{-n} = 1 \end{aligned}$$

So, $\exists r_n \in \{0,1\}^{\text{poly}(n)}$, s.t. $\forall x \in \{0,1\}^n: M(x, r_n) = L(x)$.

Using $\{r_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ as advice string, we have the non-uniform machine. □

Theorem

The following are equivalent:

- ① $A \in \mathbf{P}/\text{poly}$.
- ② *There exists a sparse set S such that $A \leq_T^P S$.*

Corollary

Every sparse set has polynomial-size circuits.

Definition (Circuit Complexity or Worst-Case Hardness)

For a finite Boolean Function $f : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$, we define the (circuit) *complexity* of f as the size of the smallest Boolean Circuit computing f (that is, $C(x) = f(x), \forall x \in \{0, 1\}^n$).

Definition (Average-Case Hardness)

The minimum S such that there is a circuit C of size S such that:

$$\Pr [C(x) = f(x)] \geq \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{S}$$

is called the (average-case) hardness of f .

Hierarchies for Semantic Classes with advice

- We have argued why we can't obtain Hierarchies for semantic measures using classical diagonalization techniques. But using small advice we can have the following results:

Theorem ([Bar02], [GST04])

For $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, with $1 \leq a < b$:

$$\mathbf{BPTIME}(n^a)/1 \not\subseteq \mathbf{BPTIME}(n^b)/1$$

Theorem ([FST05])

For any $1 \leq a \in \mathbb{R}$ there is a real $b > a$ such that:

$$\mathbf{RTIME}(n^b)/1 \not\subseteq \mathbf{RTIME}(n^a)/\log(n)^{1/2a}$$

Circuit Lower Bounds

- The significance of proving lower bounds for this computational model is related to the famous "**P** vs **NP**" problem, since:

$$\mathbf{NP} \setminus \mathbf{P}_{/poly} \neq \emptyset \Rightarrow \mathbf{P} \neq \mathbf{NP}$$

- But...after decades of efforts, The best lower bound for an **NP** language is $5n - o(n)$, proved very recently (2005).
- There are better lower bounds for some special cases, i.e. some restricted classes of circuits, such as: bounded depth circuits, monotone circuits, and bounded depth circuits with "counting" gates.

Definition

Let $PAR : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ be the *parity* function, which outputs the modulo 2 sum of an n -bit input. That is:

$$PAR(x_1, \dots, x_n) \equiv \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \pmod{2}$$

Theorem

For all constant d , PAR has no polynomial-size circuit of depth d .

- The above result (improved by Håstad and Yao) gives a relatively tight lower bound of $\exp(\Omega(n^{1/(d-1)}))$, on the size of n -input PAR circuits of depth d .

Definition

For $x, y \in \{0, 1\}^n$, we denote $x \preceq y$ if every bit that is 1 in x is also 1 in y . A function $f : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ is *monotone* if $f(x) \leq f(y)$ for every $x \preceq y$.

Definition

A Boolean Circuit is *monotone* if it contains only AND and OR gates, and no NOT gates. Such a circuit can only compute monotone functions.

Theorem (Monotone Circuit Lower Bound for CLIQUE)

Denote by $CLIQUE_{k,n} : \{0, 1\}^{\binom{n}{2}} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ the function that on input an adjacency matrix of an n -vertex graph G outputs 1 iff G contains a k -clique. There exists some constant $\epsilon > 0$ such that for every $k \leq n^{1/4}$, there is no monotone circuit of size less than $2^{\epsilon\sqrt{k}}$ that computes $CLIQUE_{k,n}$.

- So, we proved a significant lower bound ($2^{\Omega(n^{1/8})}$)
- The significance of the above theorem lies on the fact that there was some alleged connection between monotone and non-monotone circuit complexity (e.g. that they would be polynomially related). Unfortunately, Éva Tardos proved in 1988 that the gap between the two complexities is exponential.
- Where is the problem finally?
Today, we know *that a result for a lower bound using such techniques would imply the inversion of strong one-way functions:*

*Natural Proofs [Razborov, Rudich 1994]

Definition

Let \mathcal{P} be the predicate:

"A Boolean function $f : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ doesn't have n^c -sized circuits for some $c \geq 1$."

$\mathcal{P}(f) = 0, \forall f \in \mathbf{SIZE}(n^c)$ for a $c \geq 1$. We call this n^c -usefulness.

A predicate \mathcal{P} is natural if:

- There is an algorithm $M \in \mathbf{E}$ such that for a function $g : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$: $M(g) = \mathcal{P}(g)$.
- For a random function g : $\Pr[\mathcal{P}(g) = 1] \geq \frac{1}{n}$

Theorem

If strong one-way functions exist, then there exists a constant $c \in \mathbb{N}$ such that there is no n^c -useful natural predicate \mathcal{P} .

Contents

- Introduction
- Turing Machines
- Undecidability
- Complexity Classes
- Oracles & Optimization Problems
- Randomized Computation
- Non-Uniform Complexity
- **Interactive Proofs**
- Counting Complexity

Probabilistic Verifier: The Class IP

- We saw that if the verifier is a simple deterministic TM, then the interactive proof system is described precisely by the class **NP**.
- Now, we let the *verifier* be probabilistic, i.e. the verifier's queries will be computed using a probabilistic TM:

Definition (Goldwasser-Micali-Rackoff)

For an integer $k \geq 1$ (that may depend on the input length), a language L is in **IP** $[k]$ if there is a probabilistic polynomial-time T.M. V that can have a k -round interaction with a T.M. P such that:

- $x \in L \Rightarrow \exists P : Pr[\langle V, P \rangle(x) = 1] \geq \frac{2}{3}$ (*Completeness*)
- $x \notin L \Rightarrow \forall P : Pr[\langle V, P \rangle(x) = 1] \leq \frac{1}{3}$ (*Soundness*)

The class IP

Probabilistic Verifier: The Class IP

Definition

We also define:

$$\text{IP} = \bigcup_{c \in \mathbb{N}} \text{IP}[n^c]$$

- The “output” $\langle V, P \rangle(x)$ is a random variable.
- We’ll see that IP is a very large class! ($\supseteq \text{PH}$)
- As usual, we can replace the completeness parameter $2/3$ with $1 - 2^{-n^s}$ and the soundness parameter $1/3$ by 2^{-n^s} , without changing the class for any fixed constant $s > 0$.
- We can also replace the completeness constant $2/3$ with 1 (**perfect completeness**), without changing the class, but replacing the soundness constant $1/3$ with 0, is equivalent with a *deterministic verifier*, so class IP collapses to NP .

Interactive Proof for Graph Non-Isomorphism

Definition

Two graphs G_1 and G_2 are *isomorphic*, if there exists a permutation π of the labels of the nodes of G_1 , such that $\pi(G_1) = G_2$. If G_1 and G_2 are isomorphic, we write $G_1 \cong G_2$.

- GI: Given two graphs G_1, G_2 , decide if they are isomorphic.
- GNI: Given two graphs G_1, G_2 , decide if they are *not* isomorphic.

- Obviously, $\text{GI} \in \mathbf{NP}$ and $\text{GNI} \in \mathbf{coNP}$.
- This proof system relies on the Verifier's access to a *private* random source which cannot be seen by the Prover, so we confirm the crucial role the private coins play.

The class IP

Interactive Proof for Graph Non-Isomorphism

Verifier: Picks $i \in \{1, 2\}$ uniformly at random.

Then, it permutes randomly the vertices of G_i to get a new graph H . It sends H to the Prover.

Prover: Identifies which of G_1, G_2 was used to produce H . Let G_j be the graph. Sends j to V .

Verifier: Accept if $i = j$. Reject otherwise.

- If $G_1 \not\cong G_2$, then the powerful prover can (nondeterministically) guess which one of the two graphs is isomorphic to H , and so the Verifier accepts with probability 1.
- If $G_1 \cong G_2$, the prover can't distinguish the two graphs, since a random permutation of G_1 looks exactly like a random permutation of G_2 . So, the best he can do is guess randomly one, and the Verifier accepts with probability (at most) $1/2$, which can be reduced by additional repetitions.

Babai's Arthur-Merlin Games

Definition (Extended (FGMSZ89))

An Arthur-Merlin Game is a pair of interactive TMs A and M , and a predicate R such that:

- On input x , exactly $2q(|x|)$ messages of length $m(|x|)$ are exchanged, $q, m \in poly(|x|)$.
- A goes first, and at iteration $1 \leq i \leq q(|x|)$ chooses u.a.r. a string r_i of length $m(|x|)$.
- M 's reply in the i^{th} iteration is $y_i = M(x, r_1, \dots, r_i)$ (M 's strategy).
- For every M' , a **conversation** between A and M' on input x is $r_1y_1r_2y_2 \cdots r_{q(|x|)}y_{q(|x|)}$.
- The set of all conversations is denoted by $CONV_x^{M'}$,
 $|CONV_x^{M'}| = 2^{q(|x|)m(|x|)}$.

Babai's Arthur-Merlin Games

Definition (*cont'd*)

- The predicate R maps the input x and a conversation to a Boolean value.
- The set of accepting conversations is denoted by $ACC_x^{R,M}$, and is the set:

$$\{r_1 \cdots r_q \mid \exists y_1 \cdots y_q \text{ s.t. } r_1 y_1 \cdots r_q y_q \in CONV_x^M \wedge R(r_1 y_1 \cdots r_q y_q) = 1\}$$

- A language L has an Arthur-Merlin proof system if:
 - **There exists** a strategy for M , such that for all $x \in L$:

$$\frac{ACC_x^{R,M}}{CONV_x^M} \geq \frac{2}{3} \text{ (Completeness)}$$
 - **For every** strategy for M , and for every $x \notin L$:
$$\frac{ACC_x^{R,M}}{CONV_x^M} \leq \frac{1}{3}$$

(Soundness)

Definitions

- So, with respect to the previous **IP** definition:

Definition

For every k , the complexity class $\mathbf{AM}[k]$ is defined as a subset to $\mathbf{IP}[k]$ obtained when we restrict the verifier's messages to be *random bits*, and not allowing it to use any other random bits that are not contained in these messages.

We denote $\mathbf{AM} \equiv \mathbf{AM}[2]$.

Definitions

- So, with respect to the previous **IP** definition:

Definition

For every k , the complexity class **AM**[k] is defined as a subset to **IP**[k] obtained when we restrict the verifier's messages to be *random bits*, and not allowing it to use any other random bits that are not contained in these messages.

We denote **AM** \equiv **AM**[2].

- **Merlin** \rightarrow **Prover**
- **Arthur** \rightarrow **Verifier**

Definitions

- So, with respect to the previous **IP** definition:

Definition

For every k , the complexity class **AM** $[k]$ is defined as a subset to **IP** $[k]$ obtained when we restrict the verifier's messages to be *random bits*, and not allowing it to use any other random bits that are not contained in these messages.

We denote **AM** \equiv **AM** $[2]$.

- **Merlin** \rightarrow **Prover**
- **Arthur** \rightarrow **Verifier**
- Also, the class **MA** consists of all languages L , where there's an interactive proof for L in which the prover first sending a message, and then the verifier is "tossing coins" and computing its decision by doing a deterministic polynomial-time computation involving the input, the message and the random output.

Public vs. Private Coins

Theorem

$$\text{GNI} \in \mathbf{AM}[2]$$

Theorem

For every $p \in \text{poly}(n)$:

$$\mathbf{IP}(p(n)) = \mathbf{AM}(p(n) + 2)$$

- So,

$$\mathbf{IP}[\text{poly}] = \mathbf{AM}[\text{poly}]$$

Properties of Arthur-Merlin Games

- **MA** \subseteq **AM**
- **MA**[1] = **NP**, **AM**[1] = **BPP**
- **AM** could be intuitively approached as the probabilistic version of **NP** (usually denoted as **AM** = $\mathcal{BP} \cdot \mathbf{NP}$).
- **AM** $\subseteq \Pi_2^P$ and **MA** $\subseteq \Sigma_2^P \cap \Pi_2^P$.
- $\mathbf{NP}^{\mathbf{BPP}} \subseteq \mathbf{MA}$, $\mathbf{MA}^{\mathbf{BPP}} = \mathbf{MA}$, $\mathbf{AM}^{\mathbf{BPP}} = \mathbf{AM}$ and $\mathbf{AM}^{\Delta \Sigma_1^P} = \mathbf{AM}^{\mathbf{NP} \cap \mathbf{coNP}} = \mathbf{AM}$
- If we consider the complexity classes **AM**[k] (the languages that have Arthur-Merlin proof systems of a bounded number of rounds, they form an hierarchy:

$$\mathbf{AM}[0] \subseteq \mathbf{AM}[1] \subseteq \cdots \subseteq \mathbf{AM}[k] \subseteq \mathbf{AM}[k+1] \subseteq \cdots$$

- Are these inclusions proper ? ? ?

Properties of Arthur-Merlin Games

- Proper formalism (*Zachos et al.*):

Definition (Majority Quantifier)

Let $R : \{0, 1\}^* \times \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ be a predicate, and ε a rational number, such that $\varepsilon \in (0, \frac{1}{2})$. We denote by $(\exists^+ y, |y| = k)R(x, y)$ the following predicate:

"There exist at least $(\frac{1}{2} + \varepsilon) \cdot 2^k$ strings y of length m for which $R(x, y)$ holds."

We call \exists^+ the *overwhelming majority* quantifier.

- \exists_r^+ means that the fraction r of the possible certificates of a certain length satisfy the predicate for the certain input.
- Obviously, $\exists^+ = \exists_{1/2+\varepsilon}^+ = \exists_{2/3}^+ = \exists_{3/4}^+ = \exists_{0.99}^+ = \exists_{1-2^{-p(|x|)}}^+$

Properties of Arthur-Merlin Games

Definition

We denote as $\mathcal{C} = (Q_1/Q_2)$, where $Q_1, Q_2 \in \{\exists, \forall, \exists^+\}$, the class \mathcal{C} of languages L satisfying:

- $x \in L \Rightarrow Q_1 y R(x, y)$
 - $x \notin L \Rightarrow Q_2 y \neg R(x, y)$
-
- So: **P** = (\forall/\forall), **NP** = (\exists/\forall), **coNP** = (\forall/\exists)
BPP = (\exists^+/\exists^+), **RP** = (\exists^+/\forall), **coRP** = (\forall/\exists^+)

Properties of Arthur-Merlin Games

Definition

We denote as $\mathcal{C} = (Q_1/Q_2)$, where $Q_1, Q_2 \in \{\exists, \forall, \exists^+\}$, the class \mathcal{C} of languages L satisfying:

- $x \in L \Rightarrow Q_1 y R(x, y)$
- $x \notin L \Rightarrow Q_2 y \neg R(x, y)$

- So: **P** = (\forall/\forall) , **NP** = (\exists/\forall) , **coNP** = (\forall/\exists)
BPP = (\exists^+/\exists^+) , **RP** = (\exists^+/\forall) , **coRP** = (\forall/\exists^+)

Arthur-Merlin Games

$$\mathbf{AM} = \mathbf{BP} \cdot \mathbf{NP} = (\exists^+ \exists / \exists^+ \forall)$$

$$\mathbf{MA} = \mathbf{N} \cdot \mathbf{BPP} = (\exists \exists^+ / \forall \exists^+)$$

- Similarly: **AMA** = $(\exists^+ \exists \exists^+ / \exists^+ \forall \exists^+)$ etc.

Properties of Arthur-Merlin Games

Theorem

i **MA** = $(\exists V/\forall E^+)$

ii **AM** = $(\forall^+ E/EA)$

Proof:

Lemma

• **BPP** = $(\exists^+ E/\exists^+ E) = (\exists^+ E/\forall^+ E) = (\forall^+ E/\exists^+ E) \text{ (1) (BPP-Theorem)}$

• $(\forall^+ E/EA) \subseteq (\forall^+ E/EA) \text{ (2)}$

i) **MA** = **N · BPP** = $(\exists \exists^+ E/\forall^+ E) \stackrel{(1)}{=} (\exists \exists^+ E/\forall^+ E) \subseteq (\exists E/\forall E^+) \text{ (the last inclusion holds by quantifier contraction). Also,}$

$(\exists E/\forall E^+) \subseteq (\exists \exists^+ E/\forall^+ E) = \mathbf{MA}$.

ii) Similarly,

AM = **BP · NP** = $(\exists E/\forall^+ E) = (\forall^+ E/\exists E) \subseteq (\forall^+ E/EA)$.

Also, $(\forall^+ E/EA) \subseteq (\forall^+ E/EA) = \mathbf{AM}$.

Also, $(\forall^+ E/EA) \subseteq (\forall^+ E/EA) = \mathbf{AM}$.

Properties of Arthur-Merlin Games

Theorem

i **MA** = $(\exists V/\forall E^+)$

ii **AM** = $(\forall^+ E/EA)$

Proof:

Lemma

• **BPP** = $(\exists^+ E/\exists^+ E) = (\exists^+ E/\forall^+ E) = (\forall^+ E/\exists^+ E) \text{ (1) (BPP-Theorem)}$

• $(\forall^+ E/EA) \subseteq (\forall^+ E/EA) \text{ (2)}$

i) **MA** = **N · BPP** = $(\exists E^+/\forall E^+) \stackrel{(1)}{=} (\exists E^+/\forall^+ E) \subseteq (\exists E/\forall E) \text{ (the last inclusion holds by quantifier contraction). Also,}$

$(\exists E/\forall E) \subseteq (\exists E^+/\forall E^+) = \mathbf{MA}$.

ii) Similarly,

AM = **BP · NP** = $(\exists E/\forall E) \subseteq (\forall^+ E/\exists^+ E) = \mathbf{AM}$.

Also, $(\forall^+ E/EA) \subseteq (\forall^+ E/EA) = \mathbf{AM}$.

Also, $(\forall^+ E/EA) \subseteq (\forall^+ E/EA) = \mathbf{AM}$.

Properties of Arthur-Merlin Games

Theorem

i **MA** = $(\exists V/\forall E^+)$

ii **AM** = $(\forall^+ E/EA)$

Proof:

Lemma

• **BPP** = $(\exists^+ E/\exists^+ E) = (\exists^+ V/\forall^+ E) = (\forall^+ E/\exists^+ E)$ (1) (BPP-Theorem)

• $(\forall^+ E/EA) \subseteq (\forall^+ E/EA)$ (2)

i) **MA** = **N · BPP** = $(\exists E^+/\forall E^+) \stackrel{(1)}{=} (\exists E^+/\forall^+ E) \subseteq (\exists E/\forall^+ E)$

(the last inclusion holds by quantifier contraction). Also,

$(\exists E/\forall^+ E) \subseteq (\exists E^+/\forall^+ E) = \mathbf{MA}$.

ii) Similarly,

AM = **BP · NP** = $(\forall^+ E/\exists^+ E) = (\forall^+ E/\exists^+ E) \subseteq (\forall^+ E/EA)$.

Also, $(\forall^+ E/EA) \subseteq (\forall^+ E/\exists^+ E) = \mathbf{AM}$.

Properties of Arthur-Merlin Games

Theorem

i **MA** = $(\exists V/\forall E^+)$

ii **AM** = $(\forall^+ E/EA)$

Proof:

Lemma

• **BPP** = $(\exists^+ E/\exists^+ E) = (\exists^+ E/\forall^+ E) = (\forall^+ E/\exists^+ E) \text{ (1) (BPP-Theorem)}$

• $(\forall^+ E/EA) \subseteq (\forall^+ E/EA) \text{ (2)}$

i) **MA** = **N · BPP** = $(\exists \exists^+ E/\forall^+ E) \stackrel{(1)}{=} (\exists \exists^+ E/\forall^+ E) \subseteq (\exists E/\forall E^+) \text{ (the last inclusion holds by quantifier contraction). Also,}$

$(\exists E/\forall E^+) \subseteq (\exists \exists^+ E/\forall^+ E) = \mathbf{MA}$.

ii) Similarly,

AM = **BP · NP** = $(\exists E/\forall^+ E) = (\forall^+ E/\exists E) \subseteq (\forall^+ E/EA)$.

Also, $(\forall^+ E/EA) \subseteq (\forall^+ E/EA) = \mathbf{AM}$.

Also, $(\forall^+ E/EA) \subseteq (\forall^+ E/EA) = \mathbf{AM}$.

Properties of Arthur-Merlin Games

Theorem

$$\mathbf{MA} \subseteq \mathbf{AM}$$

Proof:

Obvious from (2): $(\forall E/\forall E^+) \subseteq (\exists E/\exists E^+)$. \square

Theorem

i $\mathbf{AM} \subseteq \Pi_2^P$

ii $\mathbf{MA} \subseteq \Sigma_2^P \cup \Pi_2^P$

Proof:

i) $\mathbf{AM} = (\forall E/\exists E^+) \subseteq (\forall E/\forall E^+) = \Pi_2^P$

ii) $\mathbf{MA} = (\exists E/\forall E^+) \subseteq (\exists E/\forall E^+) = \Sigma_2^P$, and

$\mathbf{MA} \subseteq \mathbf{AM} \Rightarrow \mathbf{MA} \subseteq \Pi_2^P$. So, $\mathbf{MA} \subseteq \Sigma_2^P \cup \Pi_2^P$. \square

Properties of Arthur-Merlin Games

Theorem (Speedup Theorem)

For $t(n) \geq 2$:

$$\mathbf{AM}[2t(n)] = \mathbf{AM}[t(n)]$$

- The Arthur-Merlin Hierarchy collapses at its second level:

Theorem (Collapse Theorem)

For every $k \geq 2$:

$$\mathbf{AM} = \mathbf{AM}[k] = \mathbf{MA}[k + 1]$$

Example

$$\mathbf{MAM} = (A^+E/EAE) \stackrel{(1)}{\subseteq} (A^+EAE/E+EE) \subseteq (A^+EAA/EAA+EE) \subseteq (A^+EAE/EAE) \stackrel{(2)}{\subseteq} (A^+E/EAE) = \mathbf{AM}$$

Properties of Arthur-Merlin Games

Theorem (Speedup Theorem)

For $t(n) \geq 2$:

$$\mathbf{AM}[2t(n)] = \mathbf{AM}[t(n)]$$

- The Arthur-Merlin Hierarchy collapses at its second level:

Theorem (Collapse Theorem)

For every $k \geq 2$:

$$\mathbf{AM} = \mathbf{AM}[k] = \mathbf{MA}[k + 1]$$

Example

$$\mathbf{MAM} = (A^+EA/EA) \stackrel{(1)}{\subseteq} (A^+EA/EA^+EE) \subseteq (A^+EAA/EA^+EE) \subseteq (A^+EA/EA) \stackrel{(2)}{\subseteq} (A^+E/EA) \subseteq (A^+E/EA) = \mathbf{AM}$$

Properties of Arthur-Merlin Games

Theorem (Speedup Theorem)

For $t(n) \geq 2$:

$$\mathbf{AM}[2t(n)] = \mathbf{AM}[t(n)]$$

- The Arthur-Merlin Hierarchy collapses at its second level:

Theorem (Collapse Theorem)

For every $k \geq 2$:

$$\mathbf{AM} = \mathbf{AM}[k] = \mathbf{MA}[k + 1]$$

Example

$$\mathbf{MAM} = (E^+E/E^+E) \stackrel{(1)}{\subseteq} (A^+EA/E^+EE) \subseteq (A^+EAA/E^+EA) \subseteq (A^+EA/E^+EA) \stackrel{(2)}{\subseteq} (A^+E/E^+EA) = \mathbf{AM}$$

Properties of Arthur-Merlin Games

Theorem (Speedup Theorem)

For $t(n) \geq 2$:

$$\mathbf{AM}[2t(n)] = \mathbf{AM}[t(n)]$$

- The Arthur-Merlin Hierarchy collapses at its second level:

Theorem (Collapse Theorem)

For every $k \geq 2$:

$$\mathbf{AM} = \mathbf{AM}[k] = \mathbf{MA}[k + 1]$$

Example

$$\mathbf{MAM} = (\exists E/E \exists E/E \exists E/E) \stackrel{(1)}{\subseteq} (\exists E/E \exists E/E \exists E/E) \subseteq (\exists E/E \exists E/E \exists E/E) \subseteq (\exists E/E \exists E/E \exists E/E) \stackrel{(2)}{\subseteq} (\exists E/E \exists E/E \exists E/E) \subseteq (\exists E/E \exists E/E \exists E/E) = \mathbf{AM}$$

Properties of Arthur-Merlin Games

Theorem (Speedup Theorem)

For $t(n) \geq 2$:

$$\mathbf{AM}[2t(n)] = \mathbf{AM}[t(n)]$$

- The Arthur-Merlin Hierarchy collapses at its second level:

Theorem (Collapse Theorem)

For every $k \geq 2$:

$$\mathbf{AM} = \mathbf{AM}[k] = \mathbf{MA}[k + 1]$$

Example

$$\mathbf{MAM} = (\exists E/E^+ \exists E/E^+) \stackrel{(1)}{\subseteq} (\exists E/E^+ \exists E/E^+ \exists E/E^+) \subseteq (\exists E/E^+ \exists E/E^+ \exists E/E^+) \subseteq (\exists E/E^+ \exists E/E^+ \exists E/E^+) \stackrel{(2)}{\subseteq} (\exists E/E^+ \exists E/E^+ \exists E/E^+) = \mathbf{AM}$$

Properties of Arthur-Merlin Games

Theorem (Speedup Theorem)

For $t(n) \geq 2$:

$$\mathbf{AM}[2t(n)] = \mathbf{AM}[t(n)]$$

- The Arthur-Merlin Hierarchy collapses at its second level:

Theorem (Collapse Theorem)

For every $k \geq 2$:

$$\mathbf{AM} = \mathbf{AM}[k] = \mathbf{MA}[k + 1]$$

Example

$$\mathbf{MAM} = (A^+E/EAE) \stackrel{(1)}{\subseteq} (A^+EA/EAE) \subseteq (A^+EA/EAE) \stackrel{(2)}{\subseteq} (A^+E/EAE) = \mathbf{AM}$$

Properties of Arthur-Merlin Games

Proof:

- The general case is implied by the generalization of BPP-Theorem **(1)** & **(2)**:
- $(Q_1 \exists^+ Q_2 / Q_3 \exists^+ Q_4) = (Q_1 \exists^+ \forall Q_2 / Q_3 \forall \exists^+ Q_4) = (Q_1 \forall \exists^+ Q_2 / Q_3 \exists^+ \forall Q_4)$ **(1')**
- $(Q_1 \exists \forall Q_2 / Q_3 \exists^+ Q_4) \subseteq (Q_1 \forall \exists \forall Q_2 / Q_3 \exists^+ \forall Q_4)$ **(2')**
- Using the above we can easily see that the Arthur-Merlin Hierarchy collapses at the second level. (*Try it!*) \square

Properties of Arthur-Merlin Games

Theorem (BHZ)

If $\text{coNP} \subseteq \text{AM}$ (that is, if GI is **NP**-complete), then the Polynomial Hierarchy collapses at the second level, and $\text{PH} = \Sigma_2^P = \text{AM}$.

Proof: Our hypothesis states: $(\forall/\exists) \subseteq (\forall/\exists)^+$

Then:

$$\Sigma_2^P = (\exists/\forall/\exists) \stackrel{\text{Hyp.}}{\subseteq} (\exists/\forall/\exists)^+ \stackrel{(2)}{\subseteq} (\forall/\exists/\forall/\exists)^+ = (\forall/\exists/\forall/\exists)^+ = \text{AM} \subseteq (\forall/\exists/\forall/\exists) = \Pi_2^P. \quad \square$$

Properties of Arthur-Merlin Games

Theorem (BHZ)

If $\text{coNP} \subseteq \text{AM}$ (that is, if GI is **NP**-complete), then the Polynomial Hierarchy collapses at the second level, and $\text{PH} = \Sigma_2^P = \text{AM}$.

Proof: Our hypothesis states: $(\forall/\exists) \subseteq (\forall/\exists)^+$

Then:

$$\Sigma_2^P = (\exists \forall / \forall \exists) \stackrel{\text{Hyp.}}{\subseteq} (\exists \forall / \forall \exists)^+ \stackrel{(2)}{\subseteq} (\forall \exists / \exists \forall) = (\forall \exists / \exists \forall)^+ = \text{AM} \subseteq (\forall \exists / \exists \forall) = \Pi_2^P. \quad \square$$

Properties of Arthur-Merlin Games

Theorem (BHZ)

If $\text{coNP} \subseteq \text{AM}$ (that is, if GI is **NP**-complete), then the Polynomial Hierarchy collapses at the second level, and $\text{PH} = \Sigma_2^P = \text{AM}$.

Proof: Our hypothesis states: $(\forall/\exists) \subseteq (\forall/\exists)^+$

Then:

$$\Sigma_2^P = (\exists \forall / \forall \exists) \stackrel{\text{Hyp.}}{\subseteq} (\exists \forall / \exists \forall) \stackrel{(2)}{\subseteq} (\forall \exists / \forall \exists) = (\forall \exists / \exists \forall) = \text{AM} \subseteq (\forall \exists / \forall \exists) = \Pi_2^P. \quad \square$$

Properties of Arthur-Merlin Games

Theorem (BHZ)

If $\text{coNP} \subseteq \text{AM}$ (that is, if GI is **NP**-complete), then the Polynomial Hierarchy collapses at the second level, and $\text{PH} = \Sigma_2^P = \text{AM}$.

Proof: Our hypothesis states: $(\forall/\exists) \subseteq (\forall/\exists)^+$

Then:

$$\Sigma_2^P = (\exists \forall / \forall \exists) \stackrel{\text{Hyp.}}{\subseteq} (\exists \forall \exists / \forall \exists \forall) \stackrel{(2)}{\subseteq} (\forall \exists \forall \exists / \exists \forall \forall \exists) = (\forall \exists / \exists \forall)^+ = \text{AM} \subseteq (\forall \exists / \exists \forall) = \Pi_2^P. \quad \square$$

Properties of Arthur-Merlin Games

Theorem (BHZ)

If $\text{coNP} \subseteq \text{AM}$ (that is, if GI is **NP**-complete), then the Polynomial Hierarchy collapses at the second level, and $\text{PH} = \Sigma_2^P = \text{AM}$.

Proof: Our hypothesis states: $(\forall/\exists) \subseteq (\forall/\exists)^+$

Then:

$$\Sigma_2^P = (\exists/\forall/\exists) \stackrel{\text{Hyp.}}{\subseteq} (\exists/\forall/\exists)^+ \stackrel{(2)}{\subseteq} (\forall/\exists/\forall/\exists)^+ = (\forall/\exists/\forall/\exists)^+ = \text{AM} \subseteq (\forall/\exists/\forall/\exists) = \Pi_2^P. \quad \square$$

Measure One Results

- $\mathbf{P}^A \neq \mathbf{NP}^A$, for almost all oracles A .
- $\mathbf{P}^A = \mathbf{BPP}^A$, for almost all oracles A .
- $\mathbf{NP}^A = \mathbf{AM}^A$, for almost all oracles A .

Definition

$$\text{almost } \mathcal{C} = \left\{ L \mid \Pr_{A \in \{0,1\}^*} [L \in \mathcal{C}^A] = 1 \right\}$$

Theorem

- i $\text{almost } \mathbf{P} = \mathbf{BPP}$ [BG81]
- ii $\text{almost } \mathbf{NP} = \mathbf{AM}$ [NW94]
- iii $\text{almost } \mathbf{PH} = \mathbf{PH}$

Measure One Results

Theorem (Kurtz)

For almost every pair of oracles B, C :

- i $\mathbf{BPP} = \mathbf{P}^B \cap \mathbf{P}^C$
- ii $\mathbf{almostNP} = \mathbf{NP}^B \cap \mathbf{NP}^C$

Indicative Open Questions

- Does exist an oracle separating \mathbf{AM} from $\mathbf{almostNP}$?
- Is $\mathbf{almostNP}$ contained in some finite level of Polynomial-Time Hierarchy?
- Motivated by [BHZ]: If $\mathbf{coNP} \subseteq \mathbf{almostNP}$, does it follow that \mathbf{PH} collapses?

The power of Interactive Proofs

- As we saw, **Interaction** alone does not give us computational capabilities beyond **NP**.
- Also, **Randomization** alone does not give us significant power (we know that $\mathbf{BPP} \subseteq \Sigma_2^P$, and many researchers believe that $\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{BPP}$, which holds under some plausible assumptions).
- How much power could we get by their *combination*?
- We know that for fixed $k \in \mathbb{N}$, $\mathbf{IP}[k]$ collapses to

$$\mathbf{IP}[k] = \mathbf{AM} = \mathbf{BP} \cdot \mathbf{NP}$$

a class that is “close” to **NP** (under similar assumptions, the non-deterministic analogue of **P** vs. **BPP** is **NP** vs. **AM**.)

- If we let k be a polynomial in the size of the input, how much more power could we get?

The power of Interactive Proofs

- Surprisingly:

Theorem (L.F.K.N. & Shamir)

$$\mathbf{IP = PSPACE}$$

The power of Interactive Proofs

Lemma 1

$$\mathbf{IP} \subseteq \mathbf{PSPACE}$$

Warmup: Interactive Proof for UNSAT

Lemma 2

$$\text{PSPACE} \subseteq \text{IP}$$

- For simplicity, we will construct an Interactive Proof for UNSAT (a **coNP**-complete problem), showing that:

Theorem

$$\text{coNP} \subseteq \text{IP}$$

- Let N be a prime.
- We will translate a **formula** ϕ with m clauses and n variables x_1, \dots, x_n to a **polynomial** p over the field ($\text{mod}N$) (where $N > 2^n \cdot 3^m$), in the following way:

Arithmetization

- Arithmetic generalization of a CNF Boolean Formula.

$$\begin{array}{lcl}
 \mathbf{T} & \longrightarrow & 1 \\
 \mathbf{F} & \longrightarrow & 0 \\
 \neg x & \longrightarrow & 1 - x \\
 \wedge & \longrightarrow & \times \\
 \vee & \longrightarrow & +
 \end{array}$$

Example

$$\begin{array}{c}
 (x_3 \vee \neg x_5 \vee x_{17}) \wedge (x_5 \vee x_9) \wedge (\neg x_3 \vee x_4) \\
 \downarrow \\
 (x_3 + (1 - x_5) + x_{17}) \cdot (x_5 + x_9) \cdot ((1 - x_3) + (1 - x_4))
 \end{array}$$

- Each literal is of degree 1, so the polynomial p is of degree at most m .
- Also, $0 < p < 3^m$.

Warmup: Interactive Proof for UNSAT

Prover

Sends primality proof for N

→

Verifier

checks proof

Warmup: Interactive Proof for UNSAT

Prover

Sends primality proof for N

→

Verifier

checks proof

$$q_1(x) = \sum p(x, x_2, \dots, x_n)$$

→

checks if $q_1(0) + q_1(1) = 0$

Warmup: Interactive Proof for UNSAT

Prover

Sends primality proof for N

$$q_1(x) = \sum p(x, x_2, \dots, x_n)$$

Verifier

checks proof

checks if $q_1(0) + q_1(1) = 0$

← sends $r_1 \in \{0, \dots, N - 1\}$

Warmup: Interactive Proof for UNSAT

Prover

Sends primality proof for N

$$q_1(x) = \sum p(x, x_2, \dots, x_n)$$

$$q_2(x) = \sum p(r_1, x, x_3, \dots, x_n)$$

Verifier

checks proof

checks if $q_1(0) + q_1(1) = 0$

← sends $r_1 \in \{0, \dots, N-1\}$

checks if $q_2(0) + q_2(1) = q_1(r_1)$

Warmup: Interactive Proof for UNSAT

Prover

Sends primality proof for N

$$q_1(x) = \sum p(x, x_2, \dots, x_n)$$

$$q_2(x) = \sum p(r_1, x, x_3, \dots, x_n)$$

Verifier

checks proof

checks if $q_1(0) + q_1(1) = 0$

← sends $r_1 \in \{0, \dots, N - 1\}$

checks if $q_2(0) + q_2(1) = q_1(r_1)$

← sends $r_2 \in \{0, \dots, N - 1\}$

Warmup: Interactive Proof for UNSAT

Prover

Sends primality proof for N

$$q_1(x) = \sum p(x, x_2, \dots, x_n)$$

$$q_2(x) = \sum p(r_1, x, x_3, \dots, x_n)$$

$$q_n(x) = p(r_1, \dots, r_{n-1}, x)$$

Verifier

checks proof

checks if $q_1(0) + q_1(1) = 0$

← sends $r_1 \in \{0, \dots, N-1\}$

checks if $q_2(0) + q_2(1) = q_1(r_1)$

← sends $r_2 \in \{0, \dots, N-1\}$

⋮

checks if $q_n(0) + q_n(1) = q_{n-1}(r_{n-1})$

Warmup: Interactive Proof for UNSAT

Prover

Sends primality proof for N

$$q_1(x) = \sum p(x, x_2, \dots, x_n)$$

$$q_2(x) = \sum p(r_1, x, x_3, \dots, x_n)$$

$$q_n(x) = p(r_1, \dots, r_{n-1}, x)$$

Verifier

checks proof

checks if $q_1(0) + q_1(1) = 0$

← sends $r_1 \in \{0, \dots, N-1\}$

checks if $q_2(0) + q_2(1) = q_1(r_1)$

← sends $r_2 \in \{0, \dots, N-1\}$

⋮

checks if $q_n(0) + q_n(1) = q_{n-1}(r_{n-1})$
picks $r_n \in \{0, \dots, N-1\}$

Warmup: Interactive Proof for UNSAT

Prover

Sends primality proof for N

$$q_1(x) = \sum p(x, x_2, \dots, x_n)$$

$$q_2(x) = \sum p(r_1, x, x_3, \dots, x_n)$$

$$q_n(x) = p(r_1, \dots, r_{n-1}, x)$$

Verifier

checks proof

checks if $q_1(0) + q_1(1) = 0$

← sends $r_1 \in \{0, \dots, N-1\}$

checks if $q_2(0) + q_2(1) = q_1(r_1)$

← sends $r_2 \in \{0, \dots, N-1\}$

⋮

checks if $q_n(0) + q_n(1) = q_{n-1}(r_{n-1})$

picks $r_n \in \{0, \dots, N-1\}$

checks if $q_n(r_n) = p(r_1, \dots, r_n)$

Warmup: Interactive Proof for UNSAT

- If ϕ is **unsatisfiable**, then

$$\sum_{x_1 \in \{0,1\}} \sum_{x_2 \in \{0,1\}} \cdots \sum_{x_n \in \{0,1\}} p(x_1, \dots, x_n) \equiv 0 \pmod{N}$$

and the protocol will succeed.

- Also, the arithmetization can be done in polynomial time, and if we take $N = 2^{\mathcal{O}(n+m)}$, then the elements in the field can be represented by $\mathcal{O}(n+m)$ bits, and thus an evaluation of p in any point of $\{0, \dots, N-1\}$ can be computed in polynomial time.
- We have to show that if ϕ is satisfiable, then the verifier will **reject** with high probability.
- If ϕ is satisfiable, then

$$\sum_{x_1 \in \{0,1\}} \sum_{x_2 \in \{0,1\}} \cdots \sum_{x_n \in \{0,1\}} p(x_1, \dots, x_n) \neq 0 \pmod{N}$$

- So, $p_1(0) + p_1(1) \neq 0$, so if the prover send p_1 we 're done.
- If the prover send $q_1 \neq p_1$, then the polynomials will agree on at most m places. So, $\Pr[p_1(r_1) \neq q_1(r_1)] \geq 1 - \frac{m}{N}$.
- If indeed $p_1(r_1) \neq q_1(r_1)$ and the prover sends $p_2 = q_2$, then the verifier will reject since $q_2(0) + q_2(1) = p_1(r_1) \neq q_1(r_1)$.
- Thus, the prover must send $q_2 \neq p_2$.
- **We continue in a similar way:** If $q_i \neq p_i$, then with probability at least $1 - \frac{m}{N}$, r_i is such that $q_i(r_i) \neq p_i(r_i)$.
- Then, the prover must send $q_{i+1} \neq p_{i+1}$ in order for the verifier not to reject.
- At the end, if the verifier has not rejected before the last check, $\Pr[p_n \neq q_n] \geq 1 - (n - 1)\frac{m}{N}$.
- If so, with probability at least $1 - \frac{m}{N}$ the verifier will reject since, $q_n(x)$ and $p(r_1, \dots, r_{n-1}, x)$ differ on at least that fraction of points.
- **The total probability that the verifier will accept is at most $\frac{nm}{N}$.**

Arithmetization of QBF

$$\begin{array}{l} \exists \longrightarrow \sum \\ \forall \longrightarrow \prod \end{array}$$

Example

$$\forall x_1 \exists x_2 [(x_1 \wedge x_2) \vee \exists x_3 (\bar{x}_2 \wedge x_3)]$$

$$\downarrow$$

$$\prod_{x_1 \in \{0,1\}} \sum_{x_2 \in \{0,1\}} \left[(x_1 \cdot x_2) + \sum_{x_3 \in \{0,1\}} (1 - x_2) \cdot x_3 \right]$$

Theorem

A closed QBF is true if and only if the value of its arithmetic form is non-zero.

Arithmetization of QBF

- If a QBF is true, its value could be quite large:

Theorem

Let A be a closed QBF of size n . Then, the value of its arithmetic form cannot exceed $\mathcal{O}(2^{2^n})$.

- Since such numbers cannot be handled by the protocol, we reduce them modulo some -smaller- prime p :

Theorem

Let A be a closed QBF of size n . Then, there exists a prime p of length polynomial in n , such that its arithmetization

$$A' \neq 0(\text{mod } p) \Leftrightarrow A \text{ is true.}$$

Arithmetization of QBF

- A QBF with all the variables quantified is called **closed**, and can be evaluated to either True or False.
- An **open** QBF with $k > 0$ free variables can be interpreted as a boolean function $\{0, 1\}^k \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$.
- Now, consider the language of all true quantified boolean formulas:

$$\text{TQBF} = \{\Phi \mid \Phi \text{ is a true quantified Boolean formula}\}$$

- It is known that TQBF is a **PSPACE**-complete language!
- So, if we have a interactive proof protocol recognizing TQBF, then we have a protocol for every **PSPACE** language.

Protocol for TQBF

- Given a quantified formula

$$\Psi = \forall x_1 \exists x_2 \forall x_3 \cdots \exists x_n \phi(x_1, \dots, x_n)$$

we use *arithmetization* to construct the polynomial P_ϕ . Then, $\Psi \in \text{TQBF}$ if and only if

$$\prod_{b_1 \in \{0,1\}^*} \sum_{b_2 \in \{0,1\}^*} \prod_{b_3 \in \{0,1\}^*} \cdots \sum_{b_n \in \{0,1\}^*} P_\phi(b_1, \dots, b_n) \neq 0$$

Epilogue: Probabilistically Checkable Proofs

- But if we put a **proof** instead of a Prover?

Epilogue: Probabilistically Checkable Proofs

- But if we put a **proof** instead of a Prover?
- The alleged proof is a string, and the (probabilistic) verification procedure is given direct (**oracle**) access to the proof.
- The verification procedure can access only *few* locations in the proof!
- We parameterize these Interactive Proof Systems by two complexity measures:
 - **Query** Complexity
 - **Randomness** Complexity
- The effective proof length of a PCP system is upper-bounded by $q(n) \cdot 2^{r(n)}$ (in the non-adaptive case).
(How long can be in the adaptive case?)

PCP Definitions

Definition

PCP Verifiers Let L be a language and $q, r : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$. We say that L has an $(r(n), q(n))$ -**PCP** verifier if there is a probabilistic polynomial-time algorithm V (the **verifier**) satisfying:

- *Efficiency*: On input $x \in \{0, 1\}^*$ and given random oracle access to a string $\pi \in \{0, 1\}^*$ of length at most $q(n) \cdot 2^{r(n)}$ (which we call the **proof**), V uses at most $r(n)$ random coins and makes at most $q(n)$ non-adaptive queries to locations of π . Then, it accepts or rejects. Let $V^\pi(x)$ denote the random variable representing V 's output on input x and with random access to π .
- *Completeness*: If $x \in L$, then $\exists \pi \in \{0, 1\}^* : \Pr [V^\pi(x) = 1] = 1$
- *Soundness*: If $x \notin L$, then $\forall \pi \in \{0, 1\}^* : \Pr [V^\pi(x) = 1] \leq \frac{1}{2}$

We say that a language L is in **PCP** $(r(n), q(n))$ if L has a $(\mathcal{O}(r(n)), \mathcal{O}(q(n)))$ -**PCP** verifier.

Main Results

- Obviously:

$$\mathbf{PCP}(0, 0) = ?$$

$$\mathbf{PCP}(0, \mathit{poly}) = ?$$

$$\mathbf{PCP}(\mathit{poly}, 0) = ?$$

Main Results

- Obviously:

$$\mathbf{PCP}(0, 0) = \mathbf{P}$$

$$\mathbf{PCP}(0, \mathit{poly}) = \mathbf{NP}$$

$$\mathbf{PCP}(\mathit{poly}, 0) = \mathbf{?}$$

Main Results

- Obviously:

$$\mathbf{PCP}(0, 0) = \mathbf{P}$$

$$\mathbf{PCP}(0, \textit{poly}) = \mathbf{NP}$$

$$\mathbf{PCP}(\textit{poly}, 0) = \mathit{coRP}$$

- A surprising result from Arora, Lund, Motwani, Safra, Sudan, Szegedy states that:

The PCP Theorem

$$\mathbf{NP} = \mathbf{PCP}(\log n, 1)$$

Main Results

- The restriction that the proof length is at most $q2^r$ is inconsequential, since such a verifier can look on at most this number of locations.
- We have that $\mathbf{PCP}[r(n), q(n)] \subseteq \mathbf{NTIME}[2^{\mathcal{O}(r(n))}q(n)]$, since a NTM could guess the proof in $2^{\mathcal{O}(r(n))}q(n)$ time, and verify it deterministically by running the verifier for all $2^{\mathcal{O}(r(n))}$ possible choices of its random coin tosses. If the verifier accepts for all these possible tosses, then the NTM accepts.

Contents

- Introduction
- Turing Machines
- Undecidability
- Complexity Classes
- Oracles & Optimization Problems
- Randomized Computation
- Non-Uniform Complexity
- Interactive Proofs
- **Counting Complexity**

Why counting?

- So far, we have seen two versions of problems:
 - Decision Problems (if a solution *exists*)
 - Function Problems (if a solution can be *produced*)
- A very important type of problems in Complexity Theory is also:
 - Counting Problems (*how many* solution exist)

Example (#SAT)

Given a Boolean Expression, compute the number of different truth assignments that satisfy it.

- Note that if we can solve #SAT in polynomial time, we can solve SAT also.
- Similarly, we can define #HAMILTON PATH, #CLIQUE, etc.

Basic Definitions

Definition ($\#\mathbf{P}$)

A function $f : \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ is in $\#\mathbf{P}$ if there exists a polynomial $p : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ and a polynomial-time Turing Machine M such that for every $x \in \{0, 1\}^*$:

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

- The definition implies that $f(x)$ can be expressed in $poly(|x|)$ bits.
- Each function f in $\#\mathbf{P}$ is equal to the number of paths from an initial configuration to an accepting configuration, or **accepting paths** in the configuration graph of a poly-time NDTM.
- $\mathbf{FP} \subseteq \#\mathbf{P} \subseteq \mathbf{PSPACE}$
- If $\#\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{FP}$, then $\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{NP}$.
- If $\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{PSPACE}$, then $\#\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{FP}$.

- In order to formalize a notion of completeness for $\#\mathbf{P}$, we must define proper reductions:

Definition (Cook Reduction)

A function f is $\#\mathbf{P}$ -complete if it is in $\#\mathbf{P}$ and every $g \in \#\mathbf{P}$ is in \mathbf{FP}^g .

- As we saw, for each problem in \mathbf{NP} we can define the associated counting problem: If $A \in \mathbf{NP}$, then $\#A(x) = |\{y \in \{0, 1\}^{P(|x|)} : R_A(x, y) = 1\}| \in \#\mathbf{P}$

- In order to formalize a notion of completeness for $\#\mathbf{P}$, we must define proper reductions:

Definition (Cook Reduction)

A function f is $\#\mathbf{P}$ -complete if it is in $\#\mathbf{P}$ and every $g \in \#\mathbf{P}$ is in \mathbf{FP}^g .

- As we saw, for each problem in \mathbf{NP} we can define the associated counting problem: If $A \in \mathbf{NP}$, then $\#A(x) = |\{y \in \{0, 1\}^{p(|x|)} : R_A(x, y) = 1\}| \in \#\mathbf{P}$
- We now define a more strict form of reduction:

Definition (Parsimonious Reduction)

We say that there is a parsimonious reduction from $\#A$ to $\#B$ if there is a polynomial time transformation f such that for all x :

$$|\{y : R_A(x, y) = 1\}| = |\{z : R_B(f(x), z) = 1\}|$$

Completeness Results

Theorem

#CIRCUIT SAT is #P-complete.

Proof:

- Let $f \in \#P$. Then, $\exists M, p$:
 $f = |\{y \in \{0, 1\}^{p(|x|)} : M(x, y) = 1\}|$.
- Given x , we want to construct a circuit C such that:

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

- We can construct a circuit \hat{C} such that on input x, y simulates $M(x, y)$.
- We know that this can be done with a circuit with size about the square of M 's running time.
- Let $C(y) = \hat{C}(x, y)$.

Completeness Results

Theorem

$\#SAT$ is $\#P$ -complete.

Proof:

- We reduce $\#CIRCUIT SAT$ to $\#SAT$:
- Let a circuit C , with x_1, \dots, x_n input gates and $1, \dots, m$ gates.
- We construct a Boolean formula ϕ with variables $x_1, \dots, x_n, g_1, \dots, g_m$, where g_i represents the output of gate i .
- A gate can be completely described by simulating the output for each of the 4 possible inputs.
- In this way, we have reduced C to a formula ϕ with $n + m$ variables and $4m$ clauses. □

The Permanent

Definition (PERMANENT)

For a $n \times n$ matrix A , the permanent of A is:

$$\text{perm}(A) = \sum_{\sigma \in S_n} \prod_{i=1}^n A_{i, \sigma(i)}$$

- Permanent is similar to the determinant, but it seems more difficult to compute.
- Combinatorial interpretation: If A has entries $\in \{0, 1\}$, it can be viewed as the adjacency matrix of a bipartite graph $G(X, Y, E)$ with $X = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$, $Y = \{y_1, \dots, y_n\}$ and $\{x_i, y_j\} \in E$ iff $A_{i,j} = 1$.

The Permanent

Definition (PERMANENT)

For a $n \times n$ matrix A , the permanent of A is:

$$\text{perm}(A) = \sum_{\sigma \in S_n} \prod_{i=1}^n A_{i,\sigma(i)}$$

- Permanent is similar to the determinant, but it seems more difficult to compute.
- Combinatorial interpretation: If A has entries $\in \{0, 1\}$, it can be viewed as the adjacency matrix of a bipartite graph $G(X, Y, E)$ with $X = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$, $Y = \{y_1, \dots, y_n\}$ and $\{x_i, y_i\} \in E$ iff $A_{i,j} = 1$.
- The term $\prod_{i=1}^n A_{i,\sigma(i)}$ is 1 iff σ has a perfect matching.

The Permanent

Definition (PERMANENT)

For a $n \times n$ matrix A , the permanent of A is:

$$\text{perm}(A) = \sum_{\sigma \in S_n} \prod_{i=1}^n A_{i,\sigma(i)}$$

- Permanent is similar to the determinant, but it seems more difficult to compute.
- Combinatorial interpretation: If A has entries $\in \{0, 1\}$, it can be viewed as the adjacency matrix of a bipartite graph $G(X, Y, E)$ with $X = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$, $Y = \{y_1, \dots, y_n\}$ and $\{x_i, y_i\} \in E$ iff $A_{i,j} = 1$.
- The term $\prod_{i=1}^n A_{i,\sigma(i)}$ is 1 iff σ has a perfect matching.
- So, in this case $\text{perm}(A)$ is the number of perfect matchings in the corresponding graph!

Valiant's Theorem

Theorem (Valiant's Theorem)

PERMANENT is #**P**-complete.

- Notice that the decision version of PERMANENT is in **P** ! !

Quantifiers vs Counting

- An important open question in the 80s concerned the relative power of Polynomial Hierarchy and $\#\mathbf{P}$.
- Both are natural generalizations of \mathbf{NP} , but it seemed that their features were not directly comparable to each other.
- But, in 1989, S. Toda showed the following theorem:

Quantifiers vs Counting

- An important open question in the 80s concerned the relative power of Polynomial Hierarchy and $\#\mathbf{P}$.
- Both are natural generalizations of \mathbf{NP} , but it seemed that their features were not directly comparable to each other.
- But, in 1989, S. Toda showed the following theorem:

Theorem (Toda's Theorem)

$$\mathbf{PH} \subseteq \mathbf{P}^{\#\mathbf{P}[1]}$$

The Class $\oplus\mathbf{P}$

Definition

A language L is in the class $\oplus\mathbf{P}$ if there is a NDTM M such that for all strings x , $x \in L$ iff the *number of accepting paths* on input x is odd.

- The problems $\oplus\text{SAT}$ and $\oplus\text{HAMILTON PATH}$ are $\oplus\mathbf{P}$ -complete.
- $\oplus\mathbf{P}$ is closed under complement.

Theorem

$$\mathbf{NP} \subseteq \mathbf{RP}^{\oplus\mathbf{P}}$$