Harvard CS 121 and CSCI E-207 Lecture 19: Computational Complexity

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November 8, 2012

• Reading: Sipser §7.1

Objective of Complexity Theory

- To move from a focus:
 - on what it is possible in principle to compute
 - to what is feasible to compute given "reasonable" resources
- For us the principle "resource" is time, though it could also be memory ("space") or hardware (switches)

What is the "speed" of an algorithm?

- **Def:** A TM *M* has running time $t : \mathcal{N} \to \mathcal{N}$ iff for all n, t(n) is the maximum number of steps taken by *M* over *all* inputs of length *n*.
 - \rightarrow implies that M halts on every input
 - \rightarrow in particular, every decision procedure has a running time
 - \rightarrow time used as a function of size n
 - \rightarrow worst-case analysis

Example running times

• Running times are generally increasing functions of n

$$\begin{split} t(n) &= 4n. \\ t(n) &= 2n \cdot \lceil \log n \rceil \\ \lceil x \rceil = \text{least integer} \geq x \text{ (running times must be integers)} \\ t(n) &= 17n^2 + 33. \\ t(n) &= 2^n + n. \\ t(n) &= 2^{2^n}. \end{split}$$

"Table lookup" provides speedup for finitely many inputs

Claim: For every decidable language *L* and every constant *k*, there is a TM *M* that decides *L* with running time satisfying t(n) = n for all $n \le k$.

Proof:

 \Rightarrow study behavior only of Turing machines M deciding infinite languages, and only by analyzing the running time t(n) as $n \to \infty$.

Why bother measuring TM time, when TMs are so miserably inefficient?

• **Answer:** Within limits, multitape TMs are a reasonable model for measuring computational speed.

• The trick is to specify the right amount of "slop" when stating that two algorithms are "roughly equivalent".

• Even coarse distinctions can be very informative.

Complexity Classes

- **Def:** Let $t : \mathcal{N} \to \mathcal{R}^+$. Then TIME(t) is the class of languages L that can be decided by some multitape TM with running time $\leq t(n)$.
 - e.g. $\mathsf{TIME}(10^{10} \cdot n), \mathsf{TIME}(n \cdot 2^n)$

 \mathcal{R}^+ = positive real numbers

- Q: Is it true that with more time you can solve more problems?
 i.e., if g(n) < f(n) for all n, is TIME(g) ⊊ TIME(f)?
- A: Not exactly ...

Linear Speedup Theorem

Let $t : \mathcal{N} \to \mathcal{R}^+$ be any function s.t. $t(n) \ge n$ and $0 < \varepsilon < 1$, Then for every $L \in \mathsf{TIME}(t)$, we also have $L \in \mathsf{TIME}(\varepsilon \cdot t(n) + n)$

- *n* = time to read input
- Note implied quantification:

 $(\forall \mathsf{TM} \ M)(\forall \varepsilon > 0)(\exists \mathsf{TM} \ M') \ M' \text{ is equivalent to } M \text{ but runs}$ in fraction ε of the time.

 "Given any TM we can make it run, say, 1,000,000 times faster on all inputs."

Proof of Linear Speedup

- Let M be a TM deciding L in time T.
- A new, faster machine M':

(1) Copies its input to a second tape, in compressed form.

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c & b & a & a & b & c & b & \sqcup \\ \\ \hline abc & baa & bcb & \sqcup & \sqcup & \sqcup & \sqcup & \\ \end{bmatrix}$$

- (Compression factor = 3 in this example—actual value TBD at end of proof)
- (2) Moves head to beginning of compressed input.
- (3) Simulates the operation of M treating all tapes as compressed versions of M's tapes.

Analysis of linear speedup

- Let the "compression factor" be c (c = 3 here), and let n be the length of the input.
- Running time of M':
- (1) n steps
- (2) $\lceil n/c \rceil$ steps.
 - $\cdot \ \lceil x \rceil =$ smallest integer $\ge x$
- (3) takes ?? steps.

How long does the simulation (3) take?

• M' remembers in its finite control which of the c "subcells" M is scanning.

- M' keeps simulating c steps of M by 8 steps of M':
- (1) Look at current cell on either side.

(4 steps to read 3c symbols)

(2) Figure out the next c steps of M.

(can't depend on anything outside these 3c subcells)

(3) Update these 3 cells and reposition the head.

(4 steps)

End of simulation analysis

- It must do this $\lceil t(n)/c \rceil$ times, for a total of $8 \cdot \lceil t(n)/c \rceil$ steps.
- Total of $\leq (10/c) \cdot t(n) + n$ steps of M' for sufficiently large n.
- If c is chosen so that $c \ge 10/\varepsilon$ then M' runs in time $\varepsilon \cdot t(n) + n$.

Implications/Rationalizations of Linear Speedup

- "Throwing hardware at a problem" can speed up any algorithm by any desired constant factor
- E.g. moving from 8 bit \rightarrow 16 bit \rightarrow 32 bit \rightarrow 64 bit parallelism
- Our theory does not "charge" for huge capital expenditures to build big machines, since they can be used for infinitely many problems of unbounded size
- This complexity theory is too weak to be sensitive to multiplicative constants so we study growth rate

Growth Rates of Functions

We need a way to compare functions according to how <u>fast</u> they increase not just how large their values are.

Def: For $f : \mathcal{N} \to \mathcal{R}^+$, $g : \mathcal{N} \to \mathcal{R}^+$, we write g = O(f) if there exist $c, n_0 \in \mathcal{N}$ such that $g(n) \leq c \cdot f(n)$ for all $n \geq n_0$.

- Binary relation: we could write g = O(f) as $g \preccurlyeq f$.
- "If *f* is scaled up uniformly, it will be above *g* at all but finitely many points."
- "g grows no faster than f."
- Also write $f = \Omega(g)$.

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Examples of Big-*O* **notation**

• If
$$f(n) = n^2$$
 and $g(n) = 10^{10} \cdot n$
 $g = O(f)$ since $g(n) \le 10^{10} \cdot f(n)$ for all $n \ge 0$
where $c = 10^{10}$ and $n_0 = 0$

• Usually we would write: " $10^{10} \cdot n = O(n^2)$ "

i.e. use an expression to name a function

• By Linear Speedup Theorem, TIME(t) is the class of languages L that can be decided by some multitape TM with running time O(t(n)) (provided $t(n) \ge 1.01n$).

Examples

- $10^{10} \cdot n = O(n^2)$.
- 1764 = O(1).

1: The constant function 1(n) = 1 for all n.

- $n^3 \neq O(n^2)$.
- Time $O(n^k)$ for fixed k is considered "fast" ("polynomial time")
- Time $\Omega(k^n)$ is considered "slow" ("exponential time")
- Does this really make sense?

More Relations

Def: We say that g = o(f) iff for every $\varepsilon > 0$, $\exists n_0$ such that $g(n) \le \varepsilon \cdot f(n)$ for all $n \ge n_0$.

- Equivalently, $\lim_{n\to\infty} g(n)/f(n) = 0$.
- "g grows more slowly than f."
- Also write $f = \omega(g)$.

Def: We say that $f = \Theta(g)$ iff f = O(g) and g = O(f).

- "g grows at the same rate as f"
- An equivalence relation between functions.
- The equivalence classes are called growth rates.
- Note: If $\lim_{n\to\infty} g(n)/f(n) = c$ for some $0 < c < \infty$, then $f = \Theta(g)$, but the converse is not true. (Why?)

More Examples

Polynomials (of degree d):

$$f(n) = a_d n^d + a_{d-1} n^{d-1} + \dots + a_1 n + a_0$$
, where $a_d > 0$.

•
$$f(n) = O(n^c)$$
 for $c \ge d$.

•
$$f(n) = \Theta(n^d)$$

- "If *f* is a polynomial, then lower order terms don't matter to the growth rate of *f*"
- $f(n) = o(n^c)$ for c > d.
- $f(n) = n^{O(1)}$. (This means: $f(n) = n^{g(n)}$ for some function g(n) such that g(n) = O(1).)

More Examples

Exponential Functions:
$$g(n) = 2^{n^{\Theta(1)}}$$
.

- Then f = o(g) for any polynomial f.
- $2^{n^{\alpha}} = o(2^{n^{\beta}})$ if $\alpha < \beta$.

What about $n^{\lg n} = 2^{\lg^2 n}$?

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Here \lg x = \log_2 x
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Logarithmic Functions:

 $\log_a x = \Theta(\log_b x)$ for any a, b > 1

Asymptotic Notation within Expressions

When we use asymptotic notation within an expression, the asymptotic notation is shorthand for an unspecified function satisfying the relation.

- $n^{O(1)}$
- $n^2 + \Omega(n)$ means n/2 + g(n) for some function g(n) such that $g(n) = \Omega(n)$.
- $2^{(1-o(1))n}$ means $2^{(1-\epsilon(n))\cdot g(n)}$ for some function $\epsilon(n)$ such that $\epsilon(n) \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$.

Asymptotic Notation on Both Sides

When we use asymptotic notation on both sides of an equation, it means that for all choices of the unspecified functions in the left-hand side, we get a valid asymptotic relation.

- $n^2/2 + O(n) = \Omega(n^2)$ because for every function f such that f(n) = O(n), we have $n^2/2 + f(n) = \Omega(n^2)$.
- But it is not true that $\Omega(n^2) = n^2/2 + O(n)$.