

Average Case Complexity Theory

Sriram Venkatesh
sriramvenkatesh739@gmail.com

July 17, 2023

What We Will Cover

- 1 Computational problems
- 2 Standard definitions and theorems of worst case complexity theory
- 3 Distributional problems
- 4 Reductions between distributional problems
- 5 distNP completeness
- 6 Bounded halting in distNP complete

What is Complexity Theory?

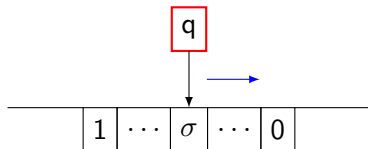
Classifying computational problems according to their resource usage into problem classes.

Examples:

- 1 Check if a list is sorted.
- 2 Add two numbers together.
- 3 Find the shortest path between two nodes in a graph.
- 4 Given a graph, check if it is two colorable.
- 5 Given a graph, check if it is three colorable.

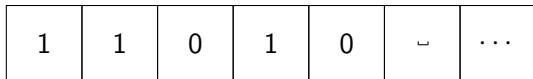
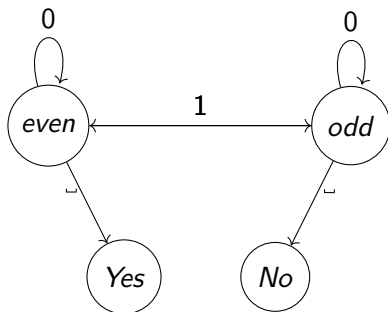
Turing Machines

- The fundamental model of computation we use to solve problems.
- A Turing machine consists of an infinite tape and a tape head, which can read, write, and move along the tape.



Turing Machines

Given an n bit string, check if the number of 1 bits are even.



Types of Turing Machines

Definition

In a *deterministic Turing machine*, the set of rules prescribes at most one action to be performed for any given situation.

Types of Turing Machines

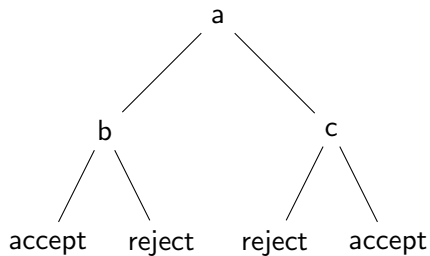
Definition

In a *deterministic Turing machine*, the set of rules prescribes at most one action to be performed for any given situation.

Definition

In a *nondeterministic Turing machine*, the set of rules may prescribe more than one action to be performed for any given situation.

Nondeterministic Turing Machines



Classes P vs NP

Definition

The class P consists of all computational problems that can be solved by a deterministic Turing machine in polynomial time.

Definition

The class NP consists of all computational problems that can be solved by a nondeterministic Turing machine in polynomial time.

- P vs NP problem.

Problems in class P

- Connected graph
- Three sum
- Two colorable

Boolean Satisfiability Problem

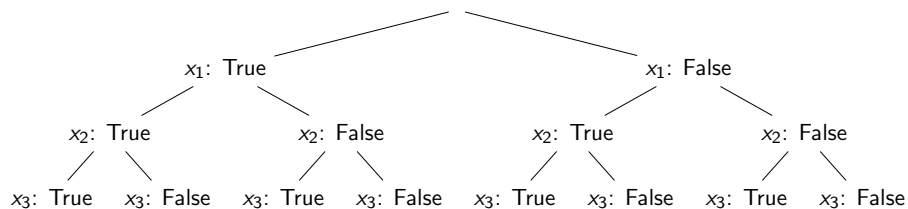
Definition

A *boolean formula* is built from boolean variables, operators AND (\wedge), OR (\vee), NOT (negation, \neg), and parentheses. A formula is said to be satisfiable if it can be made TRUE by assigning boolean values to its variables. The Boolean satisfiability problem (SAT) is, given a formula, to check whether it is satisfiable.

Example formula: $(x_1 \vee x_2) \wedge (\neg x_1 \wedge x_3)$

Assignment: x_1 : False; x_2 : True; x_3 : True

Boolean Satisfiability Problem



Polynomial Time Reductions

Definition

Problem A is reducible to problem B if an algorithm for solving problem B efficiently could also be used as a subroutine to solve problem A efficiently.

Polynomial Time Reductions

Definition

Problem A is reducible to problem B if an algorithm for solving problem B efficiently could also be used as a subroutine to solve problem A efficiently.

- Used to establish relationships between computational problems.
- We can now solve one problem by solving another problem.

NP complete problems

Definition

A problem is NP complete if it is in NP and every other NP problem is reducible to it.

NP complete problems

Definition

A problem is NP complete if it is in NP and every other NP problem is reducible to it.

Theorem

Cook Levin Theorem: The boolean satisfiability problem is NP complete.

Average Case Complexity Problems

Definition

An average case complexity problem consists of a problem D and a probability distribution μ , written as (D, μ) .

Average Case Complexity Problems

Definition

An average case complexity problem consists of a problem D and a probability distribution μ , written as (D, μ) .

- $\mu'(x) = \mu(x) - \mu(x - 1)$
- Inputs to distributional problems are always binary numbers. Any efficient ordering of binary numbers is viable, although we will use standard lexicographic ordering of binary numbers.

A Problem with Traditional Definitions

Let us say an algorithm is efficient if it runs in expected polynomial time.

A Problem with Traditional Definitions

Let us say an algorithm is efficient if it runs in expected polynomial time.

- Let algorithm A run in time $O(2^n)$ on $\frac{1}{2^n}$ of the inputs, and run in $O(n^2)$ on $1 - \frac{1}{2^n}$ of the inputs.

A Problem with Traditional Definitions

Let us say an algorithm is efficient if it runs in expected polynomial time.

- Let algorithm A run in time $O(2^n)$ on $\frac{1}{2^n}$ of the inputs, and run in $O(n^2)$ on $1 - \frac{1}{2^n}$ of the inputs.
- Let problem B have running time $t_a(x)^2$. i.e. $O(2^{2n})$ on $\frac{1}{2^n}$ of the inputs and $O(n^4)$ on $1 - \frac{1}{2^n}$ of the inputs.

A Problem with Traditional Definitions

Let us say an algorithm is efficient if it runs in expected polynomial time.

- Let algorithm A run in time $O(2^n)$ on $\frac{1}{2^n}$ of the inputs, and run in $O(n^2)$ on $1 - \frac{1}{2^n}$ of the inputs.
- Let problem B have running time $t_a(x)^2$. i.e. $O(2^{2n})$ on $\frac{1}{2^n}$ of the inputs and $O(n^4)$ on $1 - \frac{1}{2^n}$ of the inputs.
- $\mathbb{E}(t_a(x)) = O(n^2)$.

A Problem with Traditional Definitions

Let us say an algorithm is efficient if it runs in expected polynomial time.

- Let algorithm A run in time $O(2^n)$ on $\frac{1}{2^n}$ of the inputs, and run in $O(n^2)$ on $1 - \frac{1}{2^n}$ of the inputs.
- Let problem B have running time $t_a(x)^2$. i.e. $O(2^{2n})$ on $\frac{1}{2^n}$ of the inputs and $O(n^4)$ on $1 - \frac{1}{2^n}$ of the inputs.
- $\mathbb{E}(t_a(x)) = O(n^2)$.
- $\mathbb{E}(t_b(x)) = O(2^n)$.

A Problem with Traditional Definitions

Let us say an algorithm is efficient if it runs in expected polynomial time.

- Let algorithm A run in time $O(2^n)$ on $\frac{1}{2^n}$ of the inputs, and run in $O(n^2)$ on $1 - \frac{1}{2^n}$ of the inputs.
- Let problem B have running time $t_a(x)^2$. i.e. $O(2^{2n})$ on $\frac{1}{2^n}$ of the inputs and $O(n^4)$ on $1 - \frac{1}{2^n}$ of the inputs.
- $\mathbb{E}(t_a(x)) = O(n^2)$.
- $\mathbb{E}(t_b(x)) = O(2^n)$.
- This is a problem!

Levin's Definition of Efficient on Average

Definition

An algorithm is said to have running time polynomial on the average if

$$\sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^*} \mu'(x) \frac{t(x)^\epsilon}{|x|} = k,$$

where $t(x)$ represents the running time of the algorithm.

Levin's Definition of Efficient on Average

Definition

An algorithm is said to have running time polynomial on the average if

$$\sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^*} \mu'(x) \frac{t(x)^\epsilon}{|x|} = k,$$

where $t(x)$ represents the running time of the algorithm.

- $\mathbb{E}\left(\frac{t_a(x)^\epsilon}{|x|}\right) = k$

Levin's Definition of Efficient on Average

Definition

An algorithm is said to have running time polynomial on the average if

$$\sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^*} \mu'(x) \frac{t(x)^\epsilon}{|x|} = k,$$

where $t(x)$ represents the running time of the algorithm.

- $\mathbb{E}\left(\frac{t_a(x)^\epsilon}{|x|}\right) = k$
- $\mathbb{E}\left(\frac{t_b(x)^\frac{\epsilon}{2}}{|x|}\right) = \mathbb{E}\left(\frac{(t_a(x))^2^\frac{\epsilon}{2}}{|x|}\right) = k$

Reductions Between Distributional Problems

- We reduce problem (D_1, μ_1) to (D_2, μ_2) .
- Input x for D_1 is mapped to input $M(x)$ for D_2 .
- What happens if $\mu'_1(x) \gg \mu'_2(M(x))$?
- Solving (D_2, μ_2) does not mean we can solve (D_1, μ_1) .

Reductions Between Distributional Problems

Efficiency, Validity, and Domination

Reductions Between Distributional Problems

Efficiency, Validity, and Domination

- Domination: High probability inputs map to high probability inputs, and low probability inputs map to low probability inputs.

$$\sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^*} \mathbb{P}[M(x) = y] \cdot \mu'_1(x) \leq \mu'_2(y) \cdot |y|^c,$$

Usefulness of Reductions

Theorem

If (D_1, μ_1) is reducible to (D_2, μ_2) through a deterministic polynomial time oracle Turing machine and (D_2, μ_2) is solvable by a deterministic Turing machine with a polynomial on average running time, then so is (D_1, μ_1) .

Bounded Halting Problem

Halting Problem

Given a program and an input, will the program terminate?

Bounded Halting Problem

Halting Problem

Given a program and an input, will the program terminate?

Bounded Halting Problem

Given a program, an input, and k , will the program halt within k steps?

Bounded Halting Problem

Theorem

Bounded halting problem(BH) is NP complete.

Bounded Halting Problem

Theorem

Bounded halting problem (BH) is NP complete.

Proof.

A generic *NP* problem asks whether a nondeterministic Turing machine M accepts an input x in polynomial time. Pass in $(M, x, |x|^k)$ for some arbitrarily large constant k as input into bounded halting problem to solve the generic *NP* problem. ■

Bounded Halting Problem

Theorem

Bounded halting problem is distributional NP complete.

Bounded Halting Problem

Theorem

Bounded halting problem is distributional NP complete.

- $\mu'_{BH}(M, x, 1^k) = \frac{1}{|M|^{2.2}|M|} \cdot \frac{1}{|x|^{2.2}|x|} \cdot \frac{1}{k^2}$

Bounded Halting Problem

Theorem

Bounded halting problem is distributional NP complete.

- $\mu'_{BH}(M, x, 1^k) = \frac{1}{|M|^{2.2|M|}} \cdot \frac{1}{|x|^{2.2|x|}} \cdot \frac{1}{k^2}$
- Given an input x to a generic NP problem, we need to compress x into $c(x)$ such that the domination condition is satisfied

Bounded Halting Problem

Theorem

Bounded halting problem is distributional NP complete.

- $\mu'_{BH}(M, x, 1^k) = \frac{1}{|M|^{2 \cdot 2^{|M|}}} \cdot \frac{1}{|x|^{2 \cdot 2^{|x|}}} \cdot \frac{1}{k^2}$
- Given an input x to a generic *NP* problem, we need to compress x into $c(x)$ such that the domination condition is satisfied
- Compression $c(x)$ is the prefix of $\mu(x)$ which differentiates $\mu(x)$ from $\mu(x - 1)$.

Bounded Halting Problem

Theorem

Bounded halting problem is distributional NP complete.

- $\mu'_{BH}(M, x, 1^k) = \frac{1}{|M|^{2.2|M|}} \cdot \frac{1}{|x|^{2.2|x|}} \cdot \frac{1}{k^2}$
- Given an input x to a generic NP problem, we need to compress x into $c(x)$ such that the domination condition is satisfied
- Compression $c(x)$ is the prefix of $\mu(x)$ which differentiates $\mu(x)$ from $\mu(x-1)$.

$$\mu(x-1) = 0.101101010010$$

$$\mu(x) = 0.101101011110$$

$$\mu(x+1) = 0.101101101010$$

- Pass in $(M', c(x), |x|^k)$ as input to BH .

Bounded Halting Problem

Proof.

The size of $c(x)$ is at most $\log_2 \left(\frac{1}{\mu'(x)} \right)$. The reduction from x to $c(x)$ is efficient due to the distributions being polynomially computable. The reduction is valid as well. For the domination condition, we have

$$\begin{aligned}\mu'_{BH}(M', c(x), 1^{|x|^k}) &= \frac{1}{|M'|^2 \cdot 2^{|M'|}} \cdot \frac{1}{|c(x)|^2 \cdot 2^{|c(x)|}} \cdot \frac{1}{|x|^{k^2}} \\ &\leq k \cdot \frac{1}{c(x)^2} \cdot \frac{1}{|x|^{k^2}} \cdot \mu'(x) \\ &\leq \frac{1}{\text{poly}(|(M, c(x), 1^{|x|^k})|)} \cdot \mu'(x).\end{aligned}$$



Things We Don't Know

- Completeness of classical NP complete problems i.e. interesting problems under interesting distributions
- Reductions between classical problems extended to their distributional analogues.