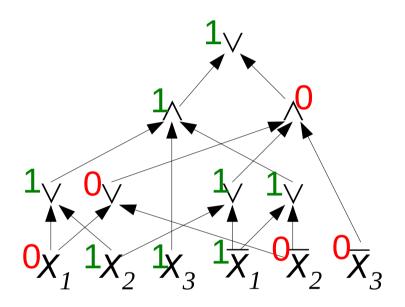
Computational complexity

lecture 5

Boolean circuits



- class \mathbf{AC}^k languages recognizable by a sequence of circuits of depth $O((\log(n))^k)$, and of polynomial size
- most interesting cases: AC^0 (constant depth), AC^1 (logarithmic depth)
- $AC = \bigcup_{k \in \mathbb{N}} AC^k$

- class \mathbf{AC}^k languages recognizable by a sequence of circuits of depth $O((\log(n))^k)$, and of polynomial size
- most interesting cases: AC^0 (constant depth), AC^1 (logarithmic depth)
- $AC = \bigcup_{k \in \mathbb{N}} AC^k$
- class NC^k languages recognizable by a sequence of circuits of depth $O((log(n))^k)$, of polynomial size, and of fan-in 2 (i.e., every gate has at most 2 predecessors)
- class NC^0 is not interesting (only a constant number of bits is checked)
- $NC = \bigcup_{k \in \mathbb{N}} NC^k$

Uniform variant:

- class \mathbf{u} - \mathbf{AC}^k languages recognizable by a <u>uniform</u> (i.e., computable in logarithmic space) sequence of circuits of depth $O((\log(n))^k)$
- u-AC= $\bigcup_{k\in\mathbb{N}}u$ - AC^k

- implies polynomial size
- class \mathbf{u} - \mathbf{NC}^k languages recognizable by a <u>uniform</u> sequence of circuits of depth $O((\log(n))^k)$ and <u>of fan-in 2</u>
- $u-NC=\cup_{k\in\mathbb{N}}u-NC^k$

Remark: Different names are used for these classes: **uniform-AC**^k or **u-AC**^k or **U**_L-AC^k or AC^k (i.e., some authors already in the definition of AC^k assume that the sequence of circuits is uniform)

Example:

Binary matrix multiplication is in **u-AC**⁰ [more precisely: the language of tuples (M,N,i,j) such that $(M \cdot N)_{i,j} = 1$]

$$(M \cdot N)_{i,j} = \bigvee_{k} M_{i,k} \wedge N_{k,j}$$

- level 1: compute $M_{i,k} \wedge N_{k,j}$ for every (i,j,k)
- level 2: for every (i,j) compute a big disjunction
- additional two levels: select the cell (i,j) specified on input
- it is easy to generate this circuit in logarithmic space

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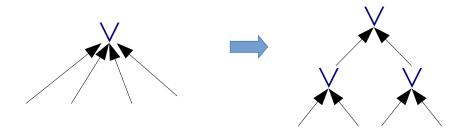
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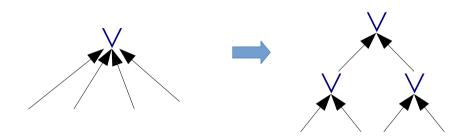
Binary matrix multiplication is in **u-NC**¹ as well

• a disjunction of n values (on level 2) can be realized as a tree of depth log(n) consisting of n-1 disjunctions of fan-in 2



The same can be done in general:

every disjunction (conjunction) of m values can be replaced by a tree of depth $log(m) \le c \cdot log(n)$ consisting of m-1 disjunctions (conjunctions) of fan-in 2



Thus we obtain that:

$$AC^k \subseteq NC^{k+1} \& u-AC^k \subseteq u-NC^{k+1}$$

By definition we also have that:

$$NC^k \subseteq AC^k \& u-NC^k \subseteq u-AC^k$$

Thus in particular:

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An open problem: does **u-NC**≠**P**?

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We have a sequence of inclusions:

 $\textbf{u-AC}^0 \subseteq \textbf{u-NC}^1 \subseteq \textbf{u-AC}^1 \subseteq \textbf{u-NC}^2 \subseteq ... \subseteq \textbf{u-AC} = \textbf{u-NC} \subseteq \textbf{P} \subseteq \textbf{NP} \subseteq \textbf{PSPACE}$

It is <u>conjectured</u> that all of them are strict, but it is only known that:

- u-AC⁰≠u-NC¹
- u-NC≠PSPACE

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Why **u-NC**≠**PSPACE**?

Follows from the hierarchy theorem, because \mathbf{u} - $\mathbf{NC} \subseteq \mathbf{polyL}$ (on tutorials you will prove that \mathbf{u} - $\mathbf{NC}^1 \subseteq \mathbf{L}$)

Why u-AC⁰≠u-NC¹?

Following slides

The parity language

PARITY – the language of those words $\{0,1\}$ in which the number of ones is even

Fact: PARITY∈u-NC¹

We count ones modulo 2 – circuit of tree-like shape.

Theorem (1986): PARITY ∉AC⁰

Proof – the following part of the lecture

- It is one of quite rare nontrivial proofs saying that some problem cannot be solved in some complexity class.
- (Mostly hardness theorems are relative if a problem A is hard, then a problem B is hard, e.g. NP-completeness)

- We are going to consider multi-variable polynomials over the field $\mathbb{Z}_3=\{0,1,2\}$ (we will use them to approximate the behavior of a circuit)
- A polynomial p (of n variables) is called <u>proper</u> if for arguments in $\{0,1\}^n$ it gives results in $\{0,1\}$ (we are interested only in such polynomials they define a boolean function of n variables, like circuits)

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Fix a depth d. We will prove that PARITY cannot be recognized by a sequence (even not necessarily uniform) of circuits of depth d and polynomial size.

General idea:

- Every circuit of small depth can be approximated by a proper polynomial of low degree (Lemma 1)
- The parity function cannot be approximated by a polynomial of low degree (Lemma 2)

Lemma 1. For every t>0 and n, for every circuit C with n input gates and depth d there exists a proper polynomial of n variables and total degree $\leq (2t)^d$, which differs from C on at most $\frac{|C|}{2^t}2^n$ inputs (where |C| denotes the number of gates in C)

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<u>Lemma 2.</u> For large enough n every polynomial of n variables and total degree $\leq \sqrt{n}$ differs from the parity function on at least $\frac{1}{100}2^n$ inputs.

Lemma 1 + Lemma 2 → polynomial circuits of constant depth cannot recognize PARITY

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Proof.

- Fix n, t and a circuit C of depth d.
- Assume w.l.o.g. that C uses only OR and NOT gates.
- To every gate of C we will assign a proper polynomial of n variables $x_1,...,x_n$, by induction on the depth of the gate, so that it will compute the value of this gate C for relatively many inputs

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- <u>i-th input gate</u> take the polynomial x_i , which always computes a correct value
- NOT gate. If we have assigned a polynomial p to its predecessor, we take polynomial 1-p, which computes a correct value precisely when p computed a correct value
- it remains to handle OR gates the only nontrivial case

Consider an <u>OR gate</u> of fan-in k. To its arguments we have assigned some polynomials $p_1,...,p_k$.

- we could take the polynomial: $1-(1-p_1)\cdot...\cdot(1-p_k)$
- it works well whenever $p_1,...,p_k$ worked well
- but its degree is too large: if $p_1,...,p_k$ have degrees at most s, then its degree is ks we rather need to obtain $\le 2ts$, as then on the output gate we will have degree $(2t)^d$
- we thus have to proceed in a more clever way

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- we thus have to proceed in a more clever way
- in a moment, we will appropriately choose sets $S_1,...,S_t \subseteq \{1,...,k\}$
- we will take the polynomial:

$$p=1-(1-q_1)\cdot...\cdot(1-q_t)$$
 where $q_i=(\sum_{j\in S_i} p_j)^2$

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- if degrees of $p_1,...,p_k$ are $\le s$, then the degree of p is $\le 2ts$; then for the output gate of C we obtain degree $\le (2t)^d$ as required in the lemma
- it remains to see that p approximates well the value of the gate (for an appropriate choice of the sets $S_1,...,S_t$)

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• If all p_j give value θ , then p also gives value θ – correctly

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- If all p_i give value 0, then p also gives value 0 correctly
- If some p_j gives value 1, then for a chosen set S_i the polynomial q_i gives value 1 if in this set S_i the number of polynomials with value 1 is not divisible by 3. This is the case for at least half of choices of S_i . Thus the probability that for a random S_i the polynomial q_i gives value 1 is ≥ 0.5 (then the whole p also gives value 1).

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- Thus, if the sets $S_1,...,S_t \subseteq \{1,...,k\}$ are chosen randomly, the probability that p will give an incorrect value is at most $1/2^t$

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- Thus: for an input <u>chosen randomly</u> among those inputs for which all $p_1,...,p_k$ give correct values, and for sets $S_1,...,S_t \subseteq \{1,...,k\}$ <u>chosen randomly</u>, the probability that p gives an incorrect value is at most $1/2^t$

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- Thus: for an input <u>chosen randomly</u> among those inputs for which all $p_1,...,p_k$ give correct values, and for sets $S_1,...,S_t \subseteq \{1,...,k\}$ <u>chosen randomly</u>, the probability that p gives an incorrect value is at most $1/2^t$
- Thus: there <u>exist</u> sets $S_1,...,S_t \subseteq \{1,...,k\}$ such that for an input <u>chosen randomly</u> among those inputs for which all $p_1,...,p_k$ give correct values, the probability that p gives an incorrect value is at most $1/2^t$

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- We take an arbitrary list of sets having this property
- The considered gate introduces a mistake on at most $2^n/2^t$ inputs
- Altogether, the value will be incorrect (for some gate) for at most $|C| \cdot 2^n/2^t$ inputs

[THE END OF THE PROOF OF LEMMA 1]

General idea:

- Every circuit of small depth can be approximated by a proper polynomial of low degree (Lemma 1 – already showed)
- The parity function cannot be approximated by a polynomial of low degree (Lemma 2 – now)

<u>Lemma 2.</u> For large enough n every polynomial of n variables and total degree $\leq \sqrt{n}$ differs from the parity function on at least $\frac{1}{100}2^n$ inputs.

A general idea:

- We assume that there exists a polynomial of low degree which agrees with the parity function on a large set *S* of inputs.
- Using this polynomial, for every function we will construct a polynomial of low degree which agrees with this function on the same set S.
- There are many functions, but significantly less polynomials.
- Thus the set *S* cannot be too large.

<u>Lemma 2.</u> For large enough n every polynomial of n variables and total degree $\leq \sqrt{n}$ differs from the parity function on at least $\frac{1}{100}2^n$ inputs.

- Let $PAR(x_1,...,x_n)$ denote the parity function
- Consider the "shifted" parity function $PAR':\{-1,1\}^n \rightarrow \{-1,1\}$ $PAR'(x_1,...,x_n)=PAR(x_1-1,...,x_n-1)+1=x_1\cdot x_2\cdot...\cdot x_n$

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- If there exists a polynomial which agrees with PAR on some set of inputs, then there exists a polynomial of the same degree, which agrees with PAR on the same set
- Thus take a polynomial p of degree $\leq \sqrt{n}$ approximating PAR' Let $S \subseteq \{-1,1\}^n$ be the set of those inputs in which p agrees with PAR'.

- A polynomial p of degree $\leq \sqrt{n}$ agrees with PAR' on a set $S \subseteq \{-1,1\}^n$.
- Take any function $f: S \to \mathbb{Z}_3$
- We can always represent *f* as a polynomial:

$$p_f(x_1,...,x_n) = \sum_{(y_1,...,y_n) \in S} f(y_1,...,y_n) \cdot (2-x_1y_1) \cdot ... \cdot (2-x_ny_n)$$

- This polynomial has degree n, too large for us
- We will correct it so that the degree will be $\le n/2 + \sqrt{n}$

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- To this end, in p_f we replace every monomial $\prod_{i \in T} x_i$ of degree |T| > n/2 by $p(x_1,...,x_n) \cdot \prod_{i \notin T} x_i$

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- Now the degree is indeed $\le n/2 + \sqrt{n}$
- Thus (using the hypothetical polynomial p) for every function $f: S \to \mathbb{Z}_3$ we have constructed a polynomial of degree $\le n/2 + \sqrt{n}$, which on S gives the same values as f

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- For every function $f: S \to \mathbb{Z}_3$ we have constructed a polynomial of degree $\le n/2 + \sqrt{n}$, which on S gives the same values as f
- For inputs in $\{-1,1\}^n$ we have that $x^2=1$, so we can assume that in the polynomial there are no exponents greater than 1.

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Let us compute the number of such polynomials:

- For large enough n, there are $\le 0.99 \cdot 2^n$ monomials of n variables and degree $\le n/2 + \sqrt{n}$, using every variable at most once (next slide)
- Thus the number of polynomials is $\leq 3^{0.99 \cdot 2^n}$
- The number of functions $f:S \to \mathbb{Z}_3$ is $3^{|S|}$, to each of them we have assigned a different polynomial
- Thus $|S| \le 0.99 \cdot 2^n$

Why the number of monomials (using variables $x_1,...,x_n$, each of them either with exponent 0 or 1) of degree $\le n/2 + \sqrt{n}$ is $\le 0.99 \cdot 2^n$, for large enough n?

- Choose a monomial in random
- Let X_i =(does x_i appear in the monomial)
- Random variables X_i are independent and $P(X_i=0)=P(X_i=1)=0.5$
- <u>Central limit theorem</u>: for every $z \in \mathbb{R}$, $P(Z_n \le z) \xrightarrow{n \to \infty} \Phi(z)$

where
$$Z_n = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \mu)}{\sqrt{n}\sigma}$$

and $\mu = EX_i = 0.5$, $\sigma = sd(X_i) = 0.5$, and Φ is the cumulative distribution function of the normal distribution N(0,1)

- Notice that $X_1 + ... + X_n \le n/2 + \sqrt{n} \Leftrightarrow Z_n \le 2$, and $\Phi(2) \approx 0.97725$
- Thus for large enough n, the probability that the degree is $\le n/2 + \sqrt{n}$ i.e., $P(Z_n \le 2)$ is at most 0.99

[THE END OF THE PROOF OF LEMMA 2]

Extensions of **AC**⁰

Consider circuits like in **AC**⁰, where additionally we can use the XOR gate. Then we can recognize PARITY. Is it enough to recognize, e.g., all regular languages?

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- Class $AC^0[m]$ like AC^0 , but where we can additionally use gates counting the number of ones modulo m
- It is known that: if p,q are different <u>prime</u> numbers, then $AC^0[p]$ cannot count modulo q
- An open problem: we cannot show any language, even from NP, which cannot be recognized in AC⁰[6]
 (gates "mod 6" ⇔ gates "mod 2" i gates "mod 3")