Wizards vs. Time Machines

Jalex Stark

Department of Mathematics California Institute of Technology

Caltech Undergraduate Math Seminar, 6 January 2017

Outline

1 What is Complexity Theory?

- Models of computation
- Complexity classes
- Interactive Proofs
- Closed Timelike Curves

Decision problems

Informally, a computational *decision problem* is a yes/no question asked about an input which can be encoded as a string. Some examples:

Informally, a computational *decision problem* is a yes/no question asked about an input which can be encoded as a string. Some examples:

• Given three matrices A, B, C, does AB = C?

< ∃ >

Informally, a computational *decision problem* is a yes/no question asked about an input which can be encoded as a string. Some examples:

- Given three matrices A, B, C, does AB = C?
- Given two graphs, are they isomorphic?

3 1 4 3

Informally, a computational *decision problem* is a yes/no question asked about an input which can be encoded as a string. Some examples:

- Given three matrices A, B, C, does AB = C?
- Given two graphs, are they isomorphic?
- Given a graph, is it possible to assign one of three colors to each vertex such that no adjacent vertices have the same color?

B b d B b

Informally, a computational *decision problem* is a yes/no question asked about an input which can be encoded as a string. Some examples:

- Given three matrices A, B, C, does AB = C?
- Given two graphs, are they isomorphic?
- Given a graph, is it possible to assign one of three colors to each vertex such that no adjacent vertices have the same color?
- Given a state in the board game Hex, does the first player win under optimal play?

A B M A B M

Informally, a computational *decision problem* is a yes/no question asked about an input which can be encoded as a string. Some examples:

- Given three matrices A, B, C, does AB = C?
- Given two graphs, are they isomorphic?
- Given a graph, is it possible to assign one of three colors to each vertex such that no adjacent vertices have the same color?
- Given a state in the board game Hex, does the first player win under optimal play?

A B M A B M

Decision problems, II

One of the main goals of complexity theory is to classify how *hard* problems are to solve. In order to give a notion of *solving a problem*, let's be more precise about what a problem is.

< ≣ > <

Decision problems, II

One of the main goals of complexity theory is to classify how *hard* problems are to solve. In order to give a notion of *solving a problem*, let's be more precise about what a problem is.

Definition (Decision problem)

Fix some finite alphabet Σ . Let Σ^* be the set of finite strings with characters from Σ . A *decision problem* or *language L* is a subset of Σ^* .

Decision problems, II

One of the main goals of complexity theory is to classify how *hard* problems are to solve. In order to give a notion of *solving a problem*, let's be more precise about what a problem is.

Definition (Decision problem)

Fix some finite alphabet Σ . Let Σ^* be the set of finite strings with characters from Σ . A *decision problem* or *language L* is a subset of Σ^* .

For example, let $\Sigma = \{(,), 0, 1\}$ and let MATRIX MULTIPLICATION be the set of strings (A, B, C) for which each of A, B, C is an n^2 -length list of binary strings, and AB = C when these are interpreted as $n \times n$ matrices of binary integers.

《曰》 《圖》 《문》 《문》 문법

Models of computation Complexity classes Interactive Proofs Closed Timelike Curves

Outline

1 What is Complexity Theory?

Models of computation

- Complexity classes
- Interactive Proofs
- Closed Timelike Curves

3

э

-

Models of computation Complexity classes Interactive Proofs Closed Timelike Curves

What should a model of computation be?

 Fix a process that takes in an input string x ∈ Σ^{*} and has some output behavior.

글 🖌 🖌 글 🕨

= 200

Models of computation Complexity classes Interactive Proofs Closed Timelike Curves

What should a model of computation be?

- Fix a process that takes in an input string x ∈ Σ* and has some output behavior.
- Informally, we say that a process *decides L* if it has some behavior for x ∈ L and a different behavior for x ∉ L.

Models of computation Complexity classes Interactive Proofs Closed Timelike Curves

What should a model of computation be?

- Fix a process that takes in an input string x ∈ Σ* and has some output behavior.
- Informally, we say that a process *decides L* if it has some behavior for x ∈ L and a different behavior for x ∉ L.
- A *model of computation* is a way to specify what kind of thing the computational process can be.

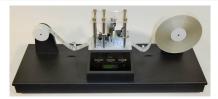
医下子 医下

Models of computation Complexity classes Interactive Proofs Closed Timelike Curves

A precise model of computation

Definition (Turing Machine)

A Turing machine T consists of...



(Photo from http://www.aturingmachine.com/)

Jalex Stark Wizards vs. Time Machines

Models of computation Complexity classes Interactive Proofs Closed Timelike Curves

A precise model of computation

Definition (Turing Machine)

A Turing machine T consists of...

 $\bullet\,$ A finite set of states $\Gamma\,$



Models of computation Complexity classes Interactive Proofs Closed Timelike Curves

A precise model of computation

Definition (Turing Machine)

A Turing machine T consists of...

- A finite set of states Γ
- An infinite tape for symbols to sit on



Models of computation Complexity classes Interactive Proofs Closed Timelike Curves

A precise model of computation

Definition (Turing Machine)

A Turing machine T consists of...

- \bullet A finite set of states Γ
- An infinite tape for symbols to sit on
- A "head" which points to some square on the tape.



Models of computation Complexity classes Interactive Proofs Closed Timelike Curves

A precise model of computation

Definition (Turing Machine)

A Turing machine T consists of...

- $\bullet\,$ A finite set of states Γ
- An infinite tape for symbols to sit on
- A "head" which points to some square on the tape.
- \bullet A finite list of instructions, one for each element of $\Gamma \times \Sigma$



Models of computation Complexity classes Interactive Proofs Closed Timelike Curves

A precise model of computation, II

Definition (Turing Machine)

At time-step, the Turing machine reads its internal state and the symbol at its current head, and does some of the following:

• Write a symbol to the current head spot



Jalex Stark Wizards vs. Time Machines

Models of computation Complexity classes Interactive Proofs Closed Timelike Curves

A precise model of computation, II

Definition (Turing Machine)

At time-step, the Turing machine reads its internal state and the symbol at its current head, and does some of the following:

- Change the state
- Write a symbol to the current head spot
- Move the head to a spot on the tape



Jalex Stark Wizards vs. Time Machines

Models of computation Complexity classes Interactive Proofs Closed Timelike Curves

A precise model of computation, II

Definition (Turing Machine)

At time-step, the Turing machine reads its internal state and the symbol at its current head, and does some of the following:

- Change the state
- Write a symbol to the current head spot
- Move the head to a spot on the tape

Computation *halts* when the machine enters the *accept state* or the *reject state*.



Models of computation Complexity classes Interactive Proofs Closed Timelike Curves

Outline

What is Complexity Theory? Models of computation

Complexity classes

- Interactive Proofs
- Closed Timelike Curves

∃ → < ∃</p>

-

Polynomial time

Definition

Decidability We say that a language L is *decidable* by Turing machine T if

< ∃ >

P.

-

ъ

Polynomial time

Definition

Decidability We say that a language L is *decidable* by Turing machine T if

• when T is run on $x \in L$, T halts and accepts, and

- ₹ 🖹 🕨

Definition

Decidability We say that a language L is *decidable* by Turing machine T if

- when T is run on $x \in L$, T halts and accepts, and
- when T is run on $x \notin L$, T halts and rejects.

< ∃ >

Definition

Decidability We say that a language L is *decidable* by Turing machine T if

- when T is run on $x \in L$, T halts and accepts, and
- when T is run on $x \notin L$, T halts and rejects.

< ∃ >

Definition

Decidability We say that a language L is *decidable* by Turing machine T if

- when T is run on $x \in L$, T halts and accepts, and
- when T is run on $x \notin L$, T halts and rejects.
- Let $f : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$. We say that T decides L in time f if
 - T decides L.

★ ∃ →

Definition

Decidability We say that a language L is *decidable* by Turing machine T if

- when T is run on $x \in L$, T halts and accepts, and
- when T is run on $x \notin L$, T halts and rejects.

Let $f : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$. We say that T decides L in time f if

- T decides L.
- When T is run on an input of length at most n, T halts within f(n) steps.

A B + A B +

Definition

Decidability We say that a language L is *decidable* by Turing machine T if

- when T is run on $x \in L$, T halts and accepts, and
- when T is run on $x \notin L$, T halts and rejects.

Let $f : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$. We say that T decides L in time f if

- T decides L.
- When T is run on an input of length at most n, T halts within f(n) steps.

A B + A B +

Definition

Decidability We say that a language L is *decidable* by Turing machine T if

- when T is run on $x \in L$, T halts and accepts, and
- when T is run on $x \notin L$, T halts and rejects.

Let $f : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$. We say that T decides L in time f if

- T decides L.
- When T is run on an input of length at most n, T halts within f(n) steps.

Definition

P We say that $L \in P$ or L is *decidable in polynomial time* if there is some polynomial p and Turing machine T such that T decides Lin time p

Models of computation Complexity classes Interactive Proofs Closed Timelike Curves

P is robust

Our definition of Turing machine is arbitrary.

< 同 ▶

A B M A B M

ELE DQA

Models of computation Complexity classes Interactive Proofs Closed Timelike Curves

P is robust

Our definition of Turing machine is arbitrary. The class of polynomials is closed under multiplication and composition.

= 200

P is robust

Our definition of Turing machine is arbitrary.

The class of polynomials is closed under multiplication and composition.

So P is closed under subroutines and poly-length for-loops.

ъ

P is robust

Our definition of Turing machine is arbitrary.

The class of polynomials is closed under multiplication and composition.

So P is closed under subroutines and poly-length for-loops. In particular, any two sufficiently powerful models of a computer can simulate each other in polynomial time.

P is robust

Our definition of Turing machine is arbitrary.

The class of polynomials is closed under multiplication and composition.

So P is closed under subroutines and poly-length for-loops. In particular, any two sufficiently powerful models of a computer can simulate each other in polynomial time.

P would be the same if we replace our Turing machine with a multi-tape Turing machine, a Python program, DNA-based computation, etc.

4 B N 4 B N

Models of computation Complexity classes Interactive Proofs Closed Timelike Curves

A problem in P

Example

MATRIXMULTIPLICATION is in P.

Jalex Stark Wizards vs. Time Machines

31= 9QQ

- 4 同 6 4 日 6 4 日 6

Models of computation Complexity classes Interactive Proofs Closed Timelike Curves

A problem in P

Example

MATRIXMULTIPLICATION is in P.

Proof.

The standard matrix multiplication algorithm for two $n \times n$ matrices takes about n^3 arithmetic operations.

- ₹ 🖬 🕨

Models of computation Complexity classes Interactive Proofs Closed Timelike Curves

A problem in P

Example

MATRIXMULTIPLICATION is in P.

Proof.

The standard matrix multiplication algorithm for two $n \times n$ matrices takes about n^3 arithmetic operations. Implement this algorithm in your favorite programming language.

Models of computation Complexity classes Interactive Proofs Closed Timelike Curves

Beyond P

P captures the notion of "solvable in a reasonable amount of time on a normal computer". For our purposes, we will consider polytime computations as a "baseline" upon which everything else rests.

3 N

Models of computation Complexity classes Interactive Proofs Closed Timelike Curves

Beyond P

P captures the notion of "solvable in a reasonable amount of time on a normal computer". For our purposes, we will consider polytime computations as a "baseline" upon which everything else rests. In the rest of the talk, we'll discuss different ways to augment the power of polytime Turing machines by providing additional resources.

Models of computation Complexity classes Interactive Proofs Closed Timelike Curves

Randomness as a resource

Randomness is a useful resource!

・ 同 ト ・ ヨ ト ・ ヨ ト

EL OQO

Randomness as a resource

Randomness is a useful resource!

Definition

We say $L \in BPP$ if there is a deterministic polynomial time algorithm M such that when r is chosen uniformly at random,

• If $x \in L$, then M(x, r) accepts with probability at least $\frac{2}{3}$.

It is believed that P = BPP, however, there are problems known to be in BPP not currently known to be in P.

Randomness as a resource

Randomness is a useful resource!

Definition

We say $L \in BPP$ if there is a deterministic polynomial time algorithm M such that when r is chosen uniformly at random,

- If $x \in L$, then M(x, r) accepts with probability at least $\frac{2}{3}$.
- If $x \notin L$, then M(x, r) accepts with probability at most $\frac{1}{3}$.

It is believed that P = BPP, however, there are problems known to be in BPP not currently known to be in P.

Randomness as a resource

Randomness is a useful resource!

Definition

We say $L \in BPP$ if there is a deterministic polynomial time algorithm M such that when r is chosen uniformly at random,

- If $x \in L$, then M(x, r) accepts with probability at least $\frac{2}{3}$.
- If $x \notin L$, then M(x, r) accepts with probability at most $\frac{1}{3}$.

It is believed that P = BPP, however, there are problems known to be in BPP not currently known to be in P.

Randomness as a resource

Randomness is a useful resource!

Definition

We say $L \in BPP$ if there is a deterministic polynomial time algorithm M such that when r is chosen uniformly at random,

- If $x \in L$, then M(x, r) accepts with probability at least $\frac{2}{3}$.
- If $x \notin L$, then M(x, r) accepts with probability at most $\frac{1}{3}$.

It is believed that P = BPP, however, there are problems known to be in BPP not currently known to be in P. Before 2002, primality testing was such a problem.

Models of computation Complexity classes Interactive Proofs Closed Timelike Curves

A problem for which randomness helps.

Definition

Polynomial Identity Testing PIT is the decision problem: given a parenthesized expression describing a multivariate polynomial p over a finite field F, is p identically zero?

・ 同 ト ・ ヨ ト ・ ヨ ト

Models of computation Complexity classes Interactive Proofs Closed Timelike Curves

A problem for which randomness helps.

Definition

Polynomial Identity Testing PIT is the decision problem: given a parenthesized expression describing a multivariate polynomial p over a finite field F, is p identically zero?

By *identically zero*, we mean that all of the coefficients of the monomials are 0.

★ ∃ →

A problem for which randomness helps.

Definition

Polynomial Identity Testing PIT is the decision problem: given a parenthesized expression describing a multivariate polynomial p over a finite field F, is p identically zero?

By *identically zero*, we mean that all of the coefficients of the monomials are 0. For example, let F be the field with two elements. Then

A problem for which randomness helps.

Definition

Polynomial Identity Testing PIT is the decision problem: given a parenthesized expression describing a multivariate polynomial p over a finite field F, is p identically zero?

By *identically zero*, we mean that all of the coefficients of the monomials are 0. For example, let F be the field with two elements. Then

•
$$x^4 + y^4 + (x + y)^4$$
 is identically 0,

A problem for which randomness helps.

Definition

Polynomial Identity Testing PIT is the decision problem: given a parenthesized expression describing a multivariate polynomial p over a finite field F, is p identically zero?

By *identically zero*, we mean that all of the coefficients of the monomials are 0. For example, let F be the field with two elements. Then

•
$$x^4 + y^4 + (x + y)^4$$
 is identically 0,

• while
$$x^{3} + y^{3} + (x + y)^{3} = x^{2}y + xy^{2}$$
 is not identically 0

A randomized algorithm

Lemma (Schwartz-Zippel)

Let $p = p(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)$ be a polynomial of degree d over a field F.

・ 同 ト ・ ヨ ト ・ ヨ ト ・ ヨ

= 200

A randomized algorithm

Lemma (Schwartz-Zippel)

Let $p = p(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)$ be a polynomial of degree d over a field *F*. Let *S* be a finite subset of *F* (e.g. if *F* is finite, we can set S = F).

・同 ・ ・ ヨ ・ ・ ヨ ・ ・ ヨ

= 200

A randomized algorithm

Lemma (Schwartz-Zippel)

Let $p = p(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)$ be a polynomial of degree d over a field F. Let S be a finite subset of F (e.g. if F is finite, we can set S = F). Choose $r_1, ..., r_n$ independently and uniformly from S. Then

(4月) (日) (日) (日)

ъ.

A randomized algorithm

Lemma (Schwartz-Zippel)

Let $p = p(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)$ be a polynomial of degree d over a field F. Let S be a finite subset of F (e.g. if F is finite, we can set S = F). Choose $r_1, ..., r_n$ independently and uniformly from S. Then

$$\Pr_{r_1,\ldots,r_n}[p(r_1,\ldots,r_n)=0] \leq \frac{d}{|S|}$$

・同・・ヨ・ ・ヨ・ ヨ

ъ.

A randomized algorithm

Lemma (Schwartz-Zippel)

Let $p = p(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)$ be a polynomial of degree d over a field *F*. Let *S* be a finite subset of *F* (e.g. if *F* is finite, we can set S = F). Choose $r_1, ..., r_n$ independently and uniformly from *S*. Then

$$\Pr_{r_1,\ldots,r_n}[p(r_1,\ldots,r_n)=0] \leq \frac{d}{|S|}$$

If a nonzero polynomial has degree which is small compared to the size of the field, then a random point is not a zero with high probability.

(4月) (日) (日) (日)

A randomized algorithm

Lemma (Schwartz-Zippel)

Let $p = p(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)$ be a polynomial of degree d over a field F. Let S be a finite subset of F (e.g. if F is finite, we can set S = F). Choose $r_1, ..., r_n$ independently and uniformly from S. Then

$$\Pr_{r_1,\ldots,r_n}[p(r_1,\ldots,r_n)=0] \leq \frac{d}{|S|}$$

If a nonzero polynomial has degree which is small compared to the size of the field, then a random point is not a zero with high probability.

This suggests a BPP algorithm for PIT: pick a random point and evaluate the polynomial. If it's a zero, declare that the polynomial is zero. If not, declare that it's not.

A randomized algorithm

Lemma (Schwartz-Zippel)

Let $p = p(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)$ be a polynomial of degree d over a field *F*. Let *S* be a finite subset of *F* (e.g. if *F* is finite, we can set S = F). Choose $r_1, ..., r_n$ independently and uniformly from *S*. Then

$$\Pr_{r_1,\ldots,r_n}[p(r_1,\ldots,r_n)=0] \leq \frac{d}{|S|}$$

If a nonzero polynomial has degree which is small compared to the size of the field, then a random point is not a zero with high probability.

This suggests a BPP algorithm for PIT: pick a random point and evaluate the polynomial. If it's a zero, declare that the polynomial is zero. If not, declare that it's not. (If the degree is not small 2 = 200

A randomized algorithm

Lemma (Schwartz-Zippel)

Let $p = p(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)$ be a polynomial of degree d over a field *F*. Let *S* be a finite subset of *F* (e.g. if *F* is finite, we can set S = F). Choose $r_1, ..., r_n$ independently and uniformly from *S*. Then

$$\Pr_{r_1,\ldots,r_n}[p(r_1,\ldots,r_n)=0] \leq \frac{d}{|S|}$$

If a nonzero polynomial has degree which is small compared to the size of the field, then a random point is not a zero with high probability.

This suggests a BPP algorithm for PIT: pick a random point and evaluate the polynomial. If it's a zero, declare that the polynomial is zero. If not, declare that it's not. (If the degree is not small 2 = 200

Models of computation Complexity classes Interactive Proofs Closed Timelike Curves

Outline

1 What is Complexity Theory?

- Models of computation
- Complexity classes

Interactive Proofs

• Closed Timelike Curves

글 🕨 🖌 글

ъ.

Models of computation Complexity classes Interactive Proofs Closed Timelike Curves

One-way, one-round proof system

You want to solve a decision problem. You show the problem to Merlin and he gives you a piece of advice.

∃ >

One-way, one-round proof system

You want to solve a decision problem. You show the problem to Merlin and he gives you a piece of advice. You don't trust him, so you have to check it yourself.

Definition (NP)

A language L is in NP if there is a poly time algorithm V (the *verifier*) such that

If x ∈ L, then there is some witness w such that M(x, w) accepts.

→ □ → → □ →

One-way, one-round proof system

You want to solve a decision problem. You show the problem to Merlin and he gives you a piece of advice. You don't trust him, so you have to check it yourself.

Definition (NP)

A language L is in NP if there is a poly time algorithm V (the *verifier*) such that

- If x ∈ L, then there is some witness w such that M(x, w) accepts.
- If $x \notin L$, then for any candidate witness w, M(x, w) rejects.

One-way, one-round proof system

You want to solve a decision problem. You show the problem to Merlin and he gives you a piece of advice. You don't trust him, so you have to check it yourself.

Definition (NP)

A language L is in NP if there is a poly time algorithm V (the *verifier*) such that

- If x ∈ L, then there is some witness w such that M(x, w) accepts.
- If $x \notin L$, then for any candidate witness w, M(x, w) rejects.

One-way, one-round proof system

You want to solve a decision problem. You show the problem to Merlin and he gives you a piece of advice. You don't trust him, so you have to check it yourself.

Definition (NP)

A language L is in NP if there is a poly time algorithm V (the *verifier*) such that

If x ∈ L, then there is some witness w such that M(x, w) accepts.

• If $x \notin L$, then for any candidate witness w, M(x, w) rejects. Additionally, we require that the length of w is bounded by a polynomial in the length of x.

・ロト ・同ト ・ヨト ・ヨ

One-way, one-round proof system

You want to solve a decision problem. You show the problem to Merlin and he gives you a piece of advice. You don't trust him, so you have to check it yourself.

Definition (NP)

A language L is in NP if there is a poly time algorithm V (the *verifier*) such that

If x ∈ L, then there is some witness w such that M(x, w) accepts.

• If $x \notin L$, then for any candidate witness w, M(x, w) rejects. Additionally, we require that the length of w is bounded by a polynomial in the length of x.

We'll refer to w variously as a witness, proof, or certificate.

Two-way, one-round proof system

You want to solve a decision problem. You start by generating a question which you ask to Merlin. Merlin gives you an answer, and then you use his answer to come to a decision.

Example (Graph non-isomorphism)

Two-way, one-round proof system

You want to solve a decision problem. You start by generating a question which you ask to Merlin. Merlin gives you an answer, and then you use his answer to come to a decision.

Example (Graph non-isomorphism)

You have two graphs, G and H, which you suspect are isomorphic. You want to prove this with Merlin's help. You undertake the following protocol:

• Flip a coin to pick one of the graphs.

Two-way, one-round proof system

You want to solve a decision problem. You start by generating a question which you ask to Merlin. Merlin gives you an answer, and then you use his answer to come to a decision.

Example (Graph non-isomorphism)

- Flip a coin to pick one of the graphs.
- Randomly permute the graph you picked; hand it to Merlin.

Two-way, one-round proof system

You want to solve a decision problem. You start by generating a question which you ask to Merlin. Merlin gives you an answer, and then you use his answer to come to a decision.

Example (Graph non-isomorphism)

- Flip a coin to pick one of the graphs.
- Randomly permute the graph you picked; hand it to Merlin.
- Ask Merlin to tell you which graph you handed him.

Two-way, one-round proof system

You want to solve a decision problem. You start by generating a question which you ask to Merlin. Merlin gives you an answer, and then you use his answer to come to a decision.

Example (Graph non-isomorphism)

- Flip a coin to pick one of the graphs.
- Randomly permute the graph you picked; hand it to Merlin.
- Ask Merlin to tell you which graph you handed him.

Two-way, one-round proof system

You want to solve a decision problem. You start by generating a question which you ask to Merlin. Merlin gives you an answer, and then you use his answer to come to a decision.

Example (Graph non-isomorphism)

You have two graphs, G and H, which you suspect are isomorphic. You want to prove this with Merlin's help. You undertake the following protocol:

- Flip a coin to pick one of the graphs.
- Randomly permute the graph you picked; hand it to Merlin.
- Ask Merlin to tell you which graph you handed him.
- If $G \ncong H$, then Merlin can always distinguish.

Two-way, one-round proof system

You want to solve a decision problem. You start by generating a question which you ask to Merlin. Merlin gives you an answer, and then you use his answer to come to a decision.

Example (Graph non-isomorphism)

You have two graphs, G and H, which you suspect are isomorphic. You want to prove this with Merlin's help. You undertake the following protocol:

- Flip a coin to pick one of the graphs.
- Randomly permute the graph you picked; hand it to Merlin.
- Ask Merlin to tell you which graph you handed him.

If $G \ncong H$, then Merlin can always distinguish.

If $G \cong H$, then the situation is identical from Merlin's point of view, regardless of which graph you picked. He will be right with probability exactly ¹

AM

Definition

We say a language is in AM if there is a randomized poly-time algorithm A, a function M, and a verifier V such that when x is an input of length at most n,

• If $x \in L$, then V(x, A(x), M(x, A(x))) accepts with probability at least $1 - \varepsilon$

We require that the gap between ε and η is at least 1/p(n) for some polynomial p.

(4月) (3) (4) (4) (5) (5) (5)

AM

Definition

We say a language is in AM if there is a randomized poly-time algorithm A, a function M, and a verifier V such that when x is an input of length at most n,

- If $x \in L$, then V(x, A(x), M(x, A(x))) accepts with probability at least 1ε
- If x ∈ L, then V(x, A(x), M(x, A(x))) accepts with probability at most 1 − η

We require that the gap between ε and η is at least 1/p(n) for some polynomial p.

・ロ・・得・・ミ・・ミト ショー うくつ

AM

Definition

We say a language is in AM if there is a randomized poly-time algorithm A, a function M, and a verifier V such that when x is an input of length at most n,

- If $x \in L$, then V(x, A(x), M(x, A(x))) accepts with probability at least 1ε
- If x ∈ L, then V(x, A(x), M(x, A(x))) accepts with probability at most 1 − η

We require that the gap between ε and η is at least 1/p(n) for some polynomial p.

・ロ・・得・・ミ・・ミト ショー うくつ

AM

Definition

We say a language is in AM if there is a randomized poly-time algorithm A, a function M, and a verifier V such that when x is an input of length at most n,

- If $x \in L$, then V(x, A(x), M(x, A(x))) accepts with probability at least 1ε
- If x ∈ L, then V(x, A(x), M(x, A(x))) accepts with probability at most 1 − η

We require that the gap between ε and η is at least 1/p(n) for some polynomial p.



AM

Definition

We say a language is in AM if there is a randomized poly-time algorithm A, a function M, and a verifier V such that when x is an input of length at most n,

- If $x \in L$, then V(x, A(x), M(x, A(x))) accepts with probability at least 1ε
- If x ∈ L, then V(x, A(x), M(x, A(x))) accepts with probability at most 1 − η

We require that the gap between ε and η is at least 1/p(n) for some polynomial p.



Models of computation Complexity classes Interactive Proofs Closed Timelike Curves

PSPACE

Space is more valuable than time!

三日 のへで

(日) (同) (日) (日) (日)

PSPACE

Space is more valuable than time!

Definition

We say that a Turing machine T decides L in space s if T decides L and whenever T is run on an input of length at most n, it touches only s(n) squares on its tape.

∃ ▶ ∢

PSPACE

Space is more valuable than time!

Definition

We say that a Turing machine T decides L in space s if T decides L and whenever T is run on an input of length at most n, it touches only s(n) squares on its tape. We say that a language L is in PSPACE if there is a polynomial p and a Turing machine deciding L in space p.

PSPACE

Space is more valuable than time!

Definition

We say that a Turing machine T decides L in space s if T decides L and whenever T is run on an input of length at most n, it touches only s(n) squares on its tape. We say that a language L is in PSPACE if there is a polynomial p and a Turing machine deciding L in space p.

Theorem (PSPACE is big)

$\bigcirc P \subseteq \mathsf{NP} \subseteq \mathsf{PSPACE}$

《曰》《御》《曰》《曰》 드님

PSPACE

Space is more valuable than time!

Definition

We say that a Turing machine T decides L in space s if T decides L and whenever T is run on an input of length at most n, it touches only s(n) squares on its tape. We say that a language L is in PSPACE if there is a polynomial p and a Turing machine deciding L in space p.

Theorem (PSPACE is big)

- $\textcircled{O} P \subseteq \mathsf{NP} \subseteq \mathsf{PSPACE}$

《曰》《御》《曰》《曰》 드님

PSPACE

Space is more valuable than time!

Definition

We say that a Turing machine T decides L in space s if T decides L and whenever T is run on an input of length at most n, it touches only s(n) squares on its tape. We say that a language L is in PSPACE if there is a polynomial p and a Turing machine deciding L in space p.

Theorem (PSPACE is big)

- $\ \, \bullet P \subseteq \mathsf{NP} \subseteq \mathsf{PSPACE}$
- $\bigcirc \mathsf{P} \subseteq \mathsf{coNP} \subseteq \mathsf{PSPACE}$
- $\textbf{3} \ \mathsf{P} \subseteq \mathsf{BPP} \subseteq \mathsf{PSPACE}$

(日本) 《四》 《曰》 《曰》

Proof that PSPACE is big, I

Idea: Polynomial space is big enough to do brute-force search.

Proof of NP \subseteq PSPACE.

Suppose that $L \in NP$. Let V be a verifier and let q be a polynomial such that for $x \in L$ of length at most n, there is a witness w of length at most q(n).

Proof that PSPACE is big, I

Idea: Polynomial space is big enough to do brute-force search.

Proof of NP \subseteq PSPACE.

1 Initialize
$$w \leftarrow 0^{q(n)}$$

Proof that PSPACE is big, I

Idea: Polynomial space is big enough to do brute-force search.

Proof of NP \subseteq PSPACE.

- **1** Initialize $w \leftarrow 0^{q(n)}$.
- **2** Try V(x, w). Note whether it accepts or rejects, and then erase the memory used in the computation.

Proof that PSPACE is big, I

Idea: Polynomial space is big enough to do brute-force search.

$\mathsf{Proof of NP} \subseteq \mathsf{PSPACE}.$

- **1** Initialize $w \leftarrow 0^{q(n)}$.
- **2** Try V(x, w). Note whether it accepts or rejects, and then erase the memory used in the computation.
- \bigcirc If V accepted, halt and accept.

Proof that PSPACE is big, I

Idea: Polynomial space is big enough to do brute-force search.

Proof of NP \subseteq PSPACE.

- **1** Initialize $w \leftarrow 0^{q(n)}$.
- **2** Try V(x, w). Note whether it accepts or rejects, and then erase the memory used in the computation.
- \bigcirc If V accepted, halt and accept.
- If V rejected and w is at the largest possible value, halt and reject.

Proof that PSPACE is big, I

Idea: Polynomial space is big enough to do brute-force search.

Proof of NP \subseteq PSPACE.

- **1** Initialize $w \leftarrow 0^{q(n)}$.
- **2** Try V(x, w). Note whether it accepts or rejects, and then erase the memory used in the computation.
- \bigcirc If V accepted, halt and accept.
- If V rejected and w is at the largest possible value, halt and reject.
- Solution Otherwise, increment w and return to step 2.

Models of computation Complexity classes Interactive Proofs Closed Timelike Curves

Proof that PSPACE is big, II

Lemma

PSPACE is closed under complement.

< 一型

∃ → < ∃</p>

-

Models of computation Complexity classes Interactive Proofs Closed Timelike Curves

Proof that PSPACE is big, II

Lemma

PSPACE is closed under complement.

This establishes that NP \subseteq PSPACE iff coNP \subseteq PSPACE.

▲ □ ▶ ▲ □ ▶ ▲

Models of computation Complexity classes Interactive Proofs Closed Timelike Curves

Proof that PSPACE is big, II

Lemma

PSPACE is closed under complement.

This establishes that NP \subseteq PSPACE iff coNP \subseteq PSPACE.

Proof.

Given a PSPACE-algorithm for problem L, switch the accept and reject states. This is a PSPACE-algorithm for \overline{L} .

A B + A B +

Proof that PSPACE is big, III

In our previous brute force search, we only cared about finding a single point in the search space with a specified property. PSPACE-computations can do much more than that, however.

Proof.

Proof that BPP \subseteq PSPACE Let $L \in$ BPP with algorithm M such that $\Pr_r[M(x, r)accepts] \ge \frac{2}{3}$ for $x \in L$ and $\Pr_r[M(x, r)accepts] \le \frac{1}{3}$ for $x \notin L$. We give a PSPACE-algorithm deciding M:

 Initialize r to the all-zeroes string. Initialize counters "accept" and "reject".

Proof that PSPACE is big, III

In our previous brute force search, we only cared about finding a single point in the search space with a specified property. PSPACE-computations can do much more than that, however.

Proof.

Proof that BPP \subseteq PSPACE Let $L \in$ BPP with algorithm M such that $\Pr_r[M(x, r)accepts] \ge \frac{2}{3}$ for $x \in L$ and $\Pr_r[M(x, r)accepts] \le \frac{1}{3}$ for $x \notin L$. We give a PSPACE-algorithm deciding M:

- Initialize r to the all-zeroes string. Initialize counters "accept" and "reject".
- 2 Run M(x, r). If it accepts, increment the

Proof that PSPACE is big, III

In our previous brute force search, we only cared about finding a single point in the search space with a specified property. PSPACE-computations can do much more than that, however.

Proof.

Proof that BPP \subseteq PSPACE Let $L \in$ BPP with algorithm M such that $\Pr_r[M(x, r)accepts] \ge \frac{2}{3}$ for $x \in L$ and $\Pr_r[M(x, r)accepts] \le \frac{1}{3}$ for $x \notin L$. We give a PSPACE-algorithm deciding M:

- Initialize r to the all-zeroes string. Initialize counters "accept" and "reject".
- **2** Run M(x, r). If it accepts, increment the
- If r is not the maximum value, increment r and return to step 2.

Proof that PSPACE is big, III

In our previous brute force search, we only cared about finding a single point in the search space with a specified property. PSPACE-computations can do much more than that, however.

Proof.

Proof that BPP \subseteq PSPACE Let $L \in$ BPP with algorithm M such that $\Pr_r[M(x, r)accepts] \ge \frac{2}{3}$ for $x \in L$ and $\Pr_r[M(x, r)accepts] \le \frac{1}{3}$ for $x \notin L$. We give a PSPACE-algorithm deciding M:

- Initialize r to the all-zeroes string. Initialize counters "accept" and "reject".
- **2** Run M(x, r). If it accepts, increment the
- If r is not the maximum value, increment r and return to step 2.

If the accent counter is larger halt and accent. Otherwise Jalex Stark Wizards vs. Time Machines

Models of computation Complexity classes Interactive Proofs Closed Timelike Curves

Outline

1 What is Complexity Theory?

- Models of computation
- Complexity classes
- Interactive Proofs
- Closed Timelike Curves

3

э

-

Models of computation Complexity classes Interactive Proofs Closed Timelike Curves

In 1949, Kurt Gödel proved that the equations of general relativity allow for the existence of *closed timelike curves*.

A B M A B M

< 17 ▶

-

= 200

In 1949, Kurt Gödel proved that the equations of general relativity allow for the existence of *closed timelike curves*. These are regions of spacetime where you can travel in a spatial loop and end up back at the beginning *before* you started.

In 1949, Kurt Gödel proved that the equations of general relativity allow for the existence of *closed timelike curves*. These are regions of spacetime where you can travel in a spatial loop and end up back at the beginning *before* you started. How can we use these to do computation?

The grandfather paradox

Here is a "proof" that interaction with CTCs is impossible.

• Travel along the CTC until you come out 50 years before you enter.

The grandfather paradox

- Travel along the CTC until you come out 50 years before you enter.
- Shoot your grandparent in the head, killing them.

The grandfather paradox

- Travel along the CTC until you come out 50 years before you enter.
- Shoot your grandparent in the head, killing them.
- Fail to be born.

The grandfather paradox

- Travel along the CTC until you come out 50 years before you enter.
- Shoot your grandparent in the head, killing them.
- Fail to be born.
- Fail to step into the CTC.

The grandfather paradox

- Travel along the CTC until you come out 50 years before you enter.
- Shoot your grandparent in the head, killing them.
- Fail to be born.
- Fail to step into the CTC.
- Contradiction!

The Markov chain model

Consider two states of the universe, corresponding to whether or not you are alive.

∃ → < ∃</p>

= 200

The Markov chain model

Consider two states of the universe, corresponding to whether or not you are alive. Let each of these states be a basis element in a two-dimensional vector space:

$$\left(\begin{array}{c} 1 \\ 0 \end{array}
ight)$$
 is "you are alive" and $\left(\begin{array}{c} 0 \\ 1 \end{array}
ight)$ is "you are dead".

The Markov chain model

Consider two states of the universe, corresponding to whether or not you are alive. Let each of these states be a basis element in a two-dimensional vector space:

 $\left(\begin{array}{c}1\\0\end{array}\right)$ is "you are alive" and $\left(\begin{array}{c}0\\1\end{array}\right)$ is "you are dead". Consider the "perform the shoot-my-grandparent experiment" operator which interchanges these:

$$\left(\begin{array}{cc} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{array}\right) \left(\begin{array}{c} 1 \\ 0 \end{array}\right) = \left(\begin{array}{c} 0 \\ 1 \end{array}\right); \quad \left(\begin{array}{c} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{array}\right) \left(\begin{array}{c} 0 \\ 1 \end{array}\right) = \left(\begin{array}{c} 1 \\ 0 \end{array}\right).$$

The Markov chain model

Consider two states of the universe, corresponding to whether or not you are alive. Let each of these states be a basis element in a two-dimensional vector space:

 $\begin{pmatrix} 1\\0 \end{pmatrix}$ is "you are alive" and $\begin{pmatrix} 0\\1 \end{pmatrix}$ is "you are dead". Consider the "perform the shoot-my-grandparent experiment" operator which interchanges these:

$$\left(\begin{array}{cc} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{array}\right) \left(\begin{array}{c} 1 \\ 0 \end{array}\right) = \left(\begin{array}{c} 0 \\ 1 \end{array}\right); \quad \left(\begin{array}{cc} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{array}\right) \left(\begin{array}{c} 0 \\ 1 \end{array}\right) = \left(\begin{array}{c} 1 \\ 0 \end{array}\right).$$

The apparent contradiction arises because we want this experiment to *not* change the state of the world.

() <) <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <)
 () <

The Markov chain model

Consider two states of the universe, corresponding to whether or not you are alive. Let each of these states be a basis element in a two-dimensional vector space:

 $\begin{pmatrix} 1\\0 \end{pmatrix}$ is "you are alive" and $\begin{pmatrix} 0\\1 \end{pmatrix}$ is "you are dead". Consider the "perform the shoot-my-grandparent experiment" operator which interchanges these:

$$\left(\begin{array}{cc} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{array}\right) \left(\begin{array}{c} 1 \\ 0 \end{array}\right) = \left(\begin{array}{c} 0 \\ 1 \end{array}\right); \quad \left(\begin{array}{cc} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{array}\right) \left(\begin{array}{c} 0 \\ 1 \end{array}\right) = \left(\begin{array}{c} 1 \\ 0 \end{array}\right).$$

The apparent contradiction arises because we want this experiment to *not* change the state of the world.

This contradiction is easily resolved: set the state of the world as

Models of computation Complexity classes Interactive Proofs Closed Timelike Curves

Stable distributions of Markov chains

Say that a finite-dimensional matrix A is a Markov chain if:

• It takes probability distributions to probability distributions.

ъ.

Say that a finite-dimensional matrix A is a Markov chain if:

- It takes probability distributions to probability distributions.
- It is irreducible, i.e. it cannot be written in block diagonal form with more than 1 block.

Say that a finite-dimensional matrix A is a Markov chain if:

- It takes probability distributions to probability distributions.
- It is irreducible, i.e. it cannot be written in block diagonal form with more than 1 block.

Say that a finite-dimensional matrix A is a Markov chain if:

- It takes probability distributions to probability distributions.
- It is irreducible, i.e. it cannot be written in block diagonal form with more than 1 block.

Theorem

If A is a Markov chain, then A has a unique +1-eigenvalue eigenvector, called its stable distribution.

Say that a finite-dimensional matrix A is a Markov chain if:

- It takes probability distributions to probability distributions.
- It is irreducible, i.e. it cannot be written in block diagonal form with more than 1 block.

Theorem

If A is a Markov chain, then A has a unique +1-eigenvalue eigenvector, called its stable distribution. Furthermore, it has the following explicit form:

$$v = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} A^{i} v_{0}, \qquad (1)$$

for any starting distribution v_0 .

A BPP_{CTC} algorithm for NP

Definition

A language L is in BPP_{CTC} if it can be decided in polynomial time by a randomized algorithm which can find stable distributions of implicitly-defined Markov chains as a unit time operation.

→ 3 → < 3</p>

A BPP_{CTC} algorithm for NP

Definition

A language L is in BPP_{CTC} if it can be decided in polynomial time by a randomized algorithm which can find stable distributions of implicitly-defined Markov chains as a unit time operation.

Markov chains can encode brute force searches in much the same way as PSPACE algorithms.

A BPP_{CTC} algorithm for NP

Definition

A language L is in BPP_{CTC} if it can be decided in polynomial time by a randomized algorithm which can find stable distributions of implicitly-defined Markov chains as a unit time operation.

Markov chains can encode brute force searches in much the same way as PSPACE algorithms. Suppose we have $L \in NP$ with verifier V with an input of length n. Let there be one basis state $|w\rangle$ for each possible witness w, along with one extra "accept basis state" $|accept\rangle$.

A B + A B +

A BPP_{CTC} algorithm for NP

Definition

A language L is in BPP_{CTC} if it can be decided in polynomial time by a randomized algorithm which can find stable distributions of implicitly-defined Markov chains as a unit time operation.

Markov chains can encode brute force searches in much the same way as PSPACE algorithms. Suppose we have $L \in NP$ with verifier V with an input of length n. Let there be one basis state $|w\rangle$ for each possible witness w, along with one extra "accept basis state" $|accept\rangle$.

Let
$$A |w\rangle = |w + 1\rangle$$
 if $V(x, w)$ rejects and $A |w\rangle = |accept\rangle$ if $V(x, w)$ accepts. Let $A |accept\rangle = |accept\rangle$.

A B + A B +

Models of computation Complexity classes Interactive Proofs Closed Timelike Curves

Wizards = Time Machines

$$QIP \stackrel{[Jai+10]}{=} IP$$

Jalex Stark Wizards vs. Time Machines

三日 のへで

- 4 同 2 4 回 2 4 回 2 4

Models of computation Complexity classes Interactive Proofs Closed Timelike Curves

Wizards = Time Machines

$$QIP \stackrel{[Jai+10]}{=} IP \stackrel{[Sha92]}{=} PSPACE$$

Jalex Stark Wizards vs. Time Machines

三日 のへで

- 4 同 2 4 回 2 4 回 2 4

Models of computation Complexity classes Interactive Proofs Closed Timelike Curves

Wizards = Time Machines

$QIP \stackrel{[Jai+10]}{=} IP \stackrel{[Sha92]}{=} PSPACE \stackrel{[AW09]}{=} BPP_{CTC} = BQP_{CTC} \quad (2)$

Jalex Stark Wizards vs. Time Machines

◆□▶ ◆帰▶ ◆∃▶ ◆∃▶ ∃|= のQ@

Bibliography I

Scott Aaronson and John Watrous. "Closed timelike curves make quantum and classical computing equivalent". In: *Proceedings of the Royal Society of London A: Mathematical, Physical and Engineering Sciences.* Vol. 465. 2102. The Royal Society. 2009, pp. 631–647.

Rahul Jain et al. "Qip= pspace". In: *Communications of the* ACM 53.12 (2010), pp. 102–109.



Adi Shamir. "Ip= pspace". In: *Journal of the ACM (JACM)* 39.4 (1992), pp. 869–877.

★ ■ ▶ ★ ■ ▶ ■