

Randomized algorithms in computability theory

Laurent Bienvenu (CNRS & University of Paris 7)

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1. How useful is randomness?



How useful is randomness? (1)

Whether having access to a 'random source' can help us achieve more than what we could do without is perhaps one of the most fundamental questions in theoretical computer science.

P: Class of languages which can be decided in (deterministic) polynomial time.

BPP: Class of languages which can be decided in polynomial time if given access to a random source, with probability, say, 0.99.

Open question: Does $P = BPP$?

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Theorem (De Leeuw-Moore-Shannon-Shapiro, 1956)

Let X be an infinite binary sequence (or language). If there is an algorithm (machine) Φ with access to a random source R (also a sequence of bits) such that

$$\Pr[\Phi(R) = X] > 0,$$

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Proof. If the probability is $> 1/2$, find the value of each bit of X by a ‘majority vote’. If not, apply the Lebesgue density theorem to get a relative probability $> 1/2$ and do the same.

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But the story does not end here if we consider **mass problems** (computability analogue of search problems in complexity theory).

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\mathcal{A} is easier (not harder) to solve than \mathcal{B} if we can computably get *some* solution of \mathcal{A} from *any* solution of \mathcal{B} .

Non-uniform version, noted $\mathcal{A} \leq_w \mathcal{B}$:

for every $X \in \mathcal{B}$ there is Φ such that $\Phi(X) \in \mathcal{A}$

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DNC_{bis}: functions $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ such that $\mathbf{K}(f(n)) > n$.

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- Much more interesting is the case of **HI** (functions $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ not dominated by any computable one)... We will come back to it later.

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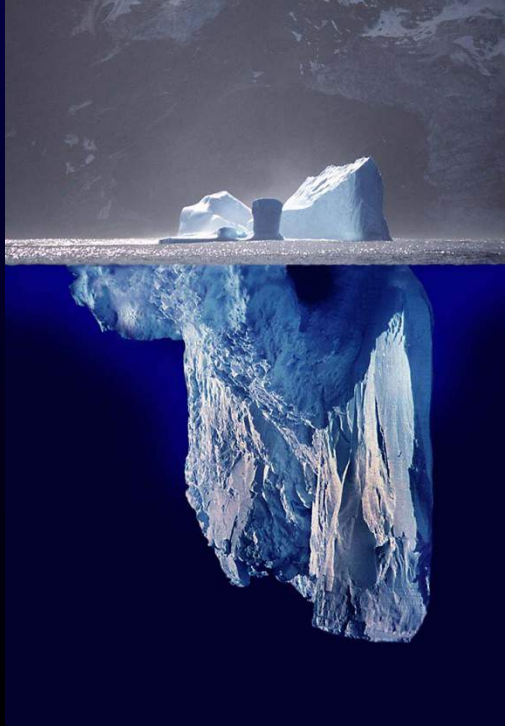
Then we can apply a version of 'majority vote': for each n , wait until $\Psi(R)(n)$ returns a value for $2/3$ of R 's. Take $g(n) =$ the maximum value seen over all those R 's. Then g is computable and for every n :

$$\Pr[\Psi(R)(n) > g(n)] \leq 1/3$$

and by Fatou's lemma,

$$\Pr[\Psi(R) \text{ dominates } g] \leq 1/3$$

2. Randomness vs depth



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(A later improvement by F. Stephan: if R is Martin-Löf random and computes a member of **PA**, then R computes the halting problem \emptyset').

Measuring the difficulty

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There is a **universal probabilistic algorithm** Ξ , that is, for any probabilistic algorithm Φ , for some constant c all every class \mathcal{C} of finite and infinite objects:

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Levin's coding theorem: $\mathbf{M}(\{x\}) = 2^{-K(x)} \cdot O(1)$

Measuring the difficulty (2)

Let \mathbf{PA}_n be the set of coherent finite theories of arithmetical formulas such that for every formula ψ encodable in n bits, ψ or $\neg\psi$ is in the theory (think of \mathbf{PA}_n as the set of strings of length 2^n which can be extended into a member of \mathbf{PA}).

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This is better since, for Φ a randomized algorithm and Z a finite or infinite object,

$$\mathbb{E}\left(2^{\mathbf{I}(\Phi(R):Z)}\right) = O(1)$$

(Zvonkin-Levin's information conservation theorem)

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In particular, for x physically obtainable, $\mathbf{I}(x : \emptyset')$ is small. On the other hand completions of PA have high common information with \emptyset' (Levin's theorem). Thus they cannot be physically obtainable!

Deep classes (1)

Regardless of whether one believes in the IP, one can see that Levin's argument works under more general assumptions:

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Definition (B., Porter)

Let \mathcal{P} be a Π_1^0 class. Let \mathcal{P}_n be a set of finite strings of length n which can be extended to an element of \mathcal{P} . We say that \mathcal{P} is **deep** if

$$\mathbf{M}(\mathcal{P}_n) \leq \frac{1}{h(n)}$$

for some computable h which tends to infinity.

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The following Π_1^0 classes are deep:

- Levin complex sequences: binary sequences such that $\mathbb{K}(X_n \dots X_{n+k}) \geq 0.9k$ for all n and all $k \geq c$ (after Rumyantsev, Khan).
- **DNC** $_q$, with $\prod_n (1 - 1/q(n)) = 0$: functions $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ such that $f(e) \neq \phi_e(e)$ and $f(e) \leq q(e)$ (after Miller).
- Sequences of sets (F_0, F_1, \dots) where F_i is a finite set of strings of length i , and $\text{card}(F_i) \geq f(i)$ for some computable non-decreasing f tending to ∞ .
- ...

Deep classes (3)

The interesting thing is that even when the corresponding mass problem is easier than \mathbf{PA} , a deep Π_1^0 class ‘behaves like \mathbf{PA} ’ in its interactions with randomness. For example:

Theorem (B., Porter)

- If R is Martin-Löf random and does not compute \emptyset' , then R does not compute any element of a deep Π_1^0 class (Stephan for \mathbf{PA}).
- This remains true for $R \oplus A$, when A is K -trivial (Miller-Day for \mathbf{PA}).

Why 'deep'? (1)

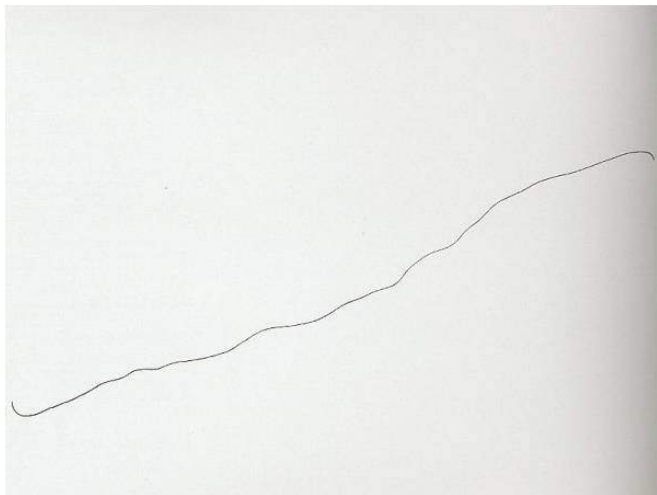
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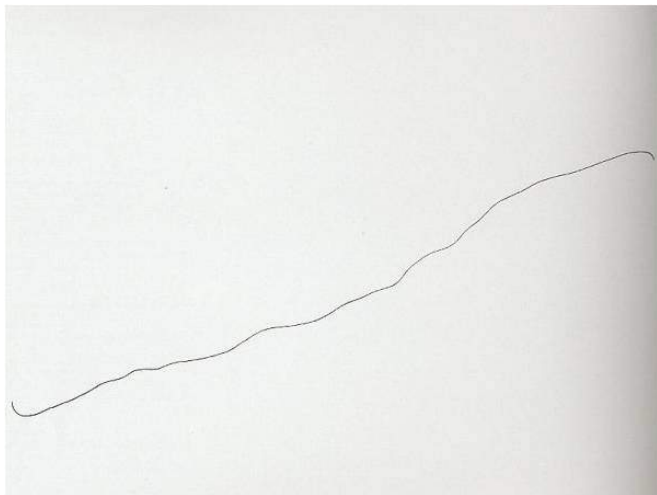
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This relates to an old idea due to Bennett, who argued that Kolmogorov complexity captures the idea of 'information', but not of 'depth'.

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shallow: too simple!

Why 'deep'? (3)



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shallow: too random!

Why 'deep'? (4)



Why 'deep'? (4)



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non-random / compressible... but deep!

Logical depth

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Definition (after Bennett 1988)

An infinite binary sequence X is *logically deep* if for every computable time bound (function) T ,

$$K^T(X_0 \dots X_n) - K(X_0 \dots X_n) \rightarrow \infty$$

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Every member of a deep Π_1^0 class is logically deep.

(It is not true however that a Π_1^0 class whose members are all logically deep must be deep).

3. When randomness helps



Getting a hyperimmune function 'at random' (1)

We come back to the mass problem

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This one **does** admit a probabilistic algorithm, due to Kautz (1991), and clarified by Gács and Shen (2012).

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However, there is a probabilistic way to do this, via a **fireworks argument**.

Fireworks (1)

Suppose we walk into a fireworks shop.

- The fireworks sold there are very cheap so we are suspicious that some of them are defective.
- Since they are cheap we can ask the owner to test a few of them before buying one.
- **Our goal: either buy a good one (untested) and take it home OR get the owner to fail a test, and then sue him.**

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- Buy the $(k + 1)$ -st box (unless $k = n$)

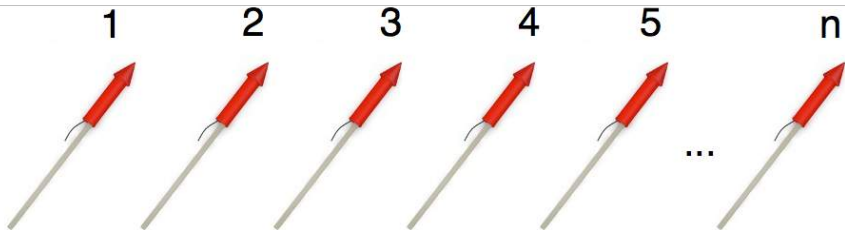
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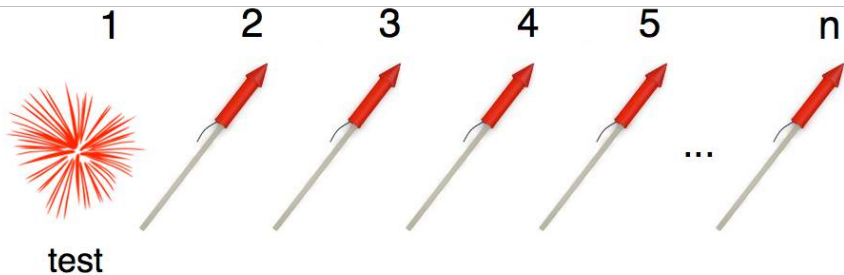
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This works because the only bad case is when $k + 1$ is the position of the first bad box.

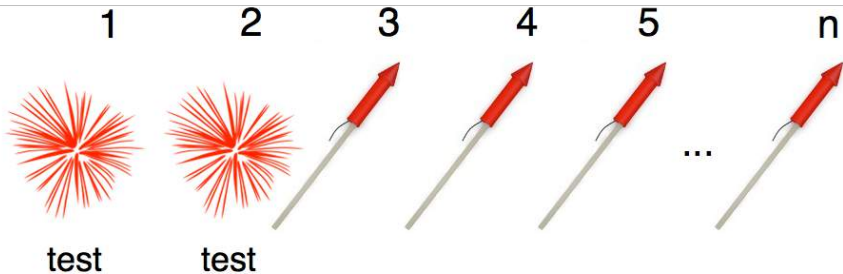
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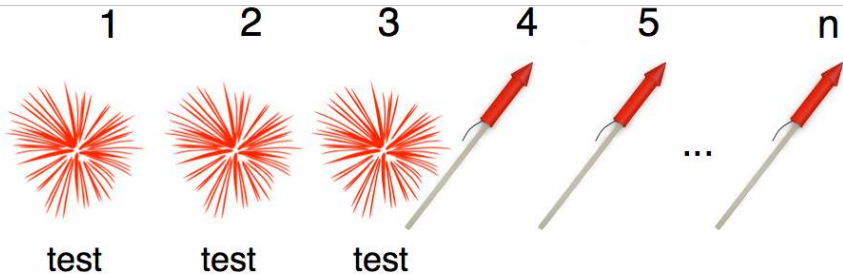
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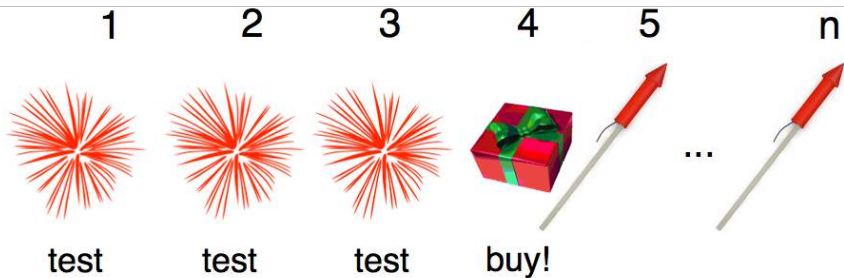
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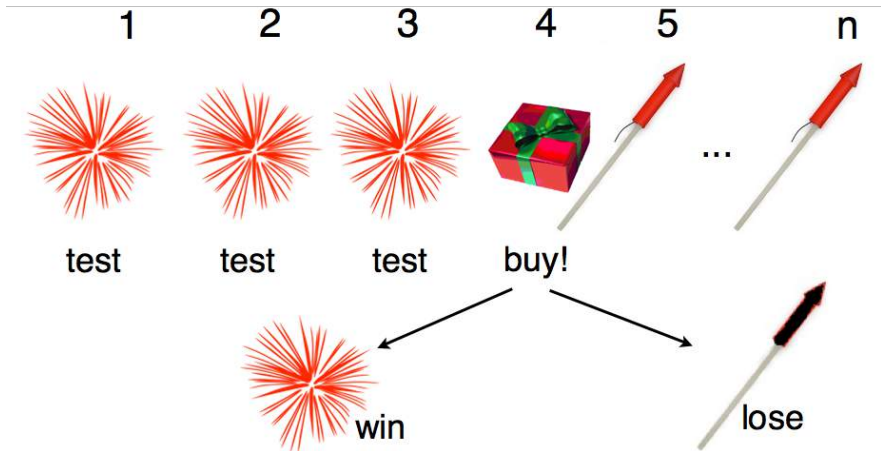
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Step 1 Pick a number k_e between 1 and $q(e)$ at random, with $\prod_e (1 - 1/q(e)) > 0$. Set the 'error counter' to 0

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$\prod_e (1 - 1/q(e)) > 0$. Set the 'error counter' to 0

- Step 2
- ▶ Pick the smallest n on which f has not yet been defined.
 - ▶ Set $f(n) = 0$ (here we are 'guessing' that $\phi_e(n)$ is undefined)
 - ▶ Start handling other requirements until we see that $\phi_e(n)$ is in fact defined, then increase the error counter by 1
 - ▶ If the error counter is $< k_e$, go back to the beginning of Step 2; if it is $= k_e$, go to Step 3.

Fireworks (4)

Back to our construction of $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$, where we want to satisfy for all e :

(\mathcal{R}_e) : either ϕ_e is partial or ϕ_e does not dominate f .

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Step 3 Pick a fresh m , and define $f(m) = \phi_e(m)$

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Thus we have:

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There is Φ such that

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In fact, Kautz showed: **Every sequence which is Martin-Löf random relative to \emptyset' computes a function in \mathbf{HI} .**

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Question: are there other types of non-trivial probabilistic algorithms which could apply to computability theory? (currently no other known type)

Turning De Leeuw et al's theorem around

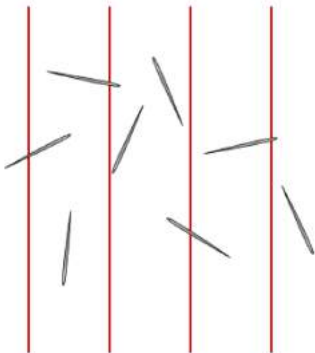
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Turning De Leeuw et al's theorem around

One last interesting aspect of randomized algorithms: showing computability!

Buffon's needle shows that π is a computable number ;-)

(one can use the needle to get a probabilistic algorithm to compute π , thus by De Leeuw et al's theorem π is computable)

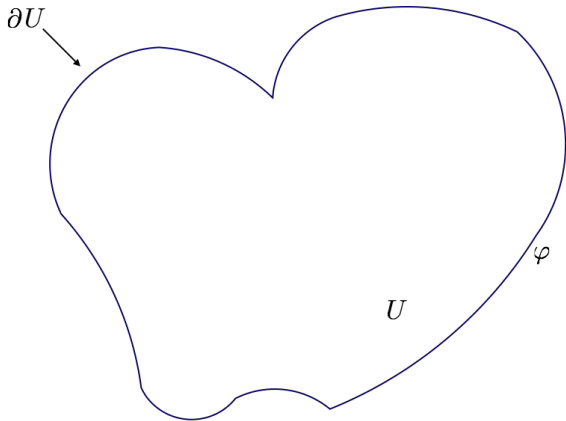


Dirichlet's problem (1)

More interestingly, consider the computable version of **Dirichlet's problem**:

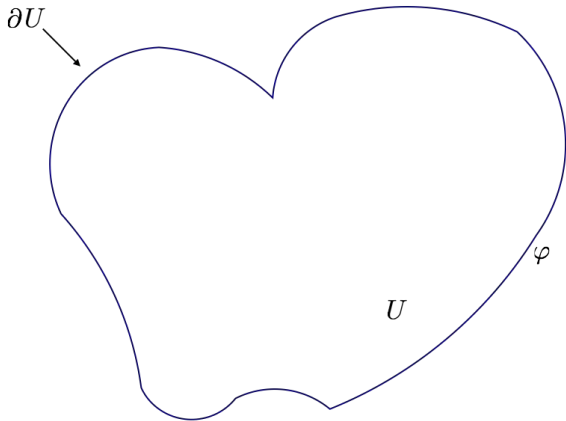
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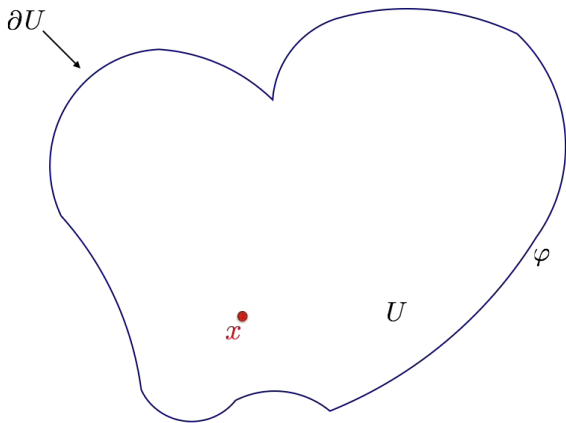
Is this solution computable? (= when $\partial U, \varphi$ are computable, is f computable?)

Dirichlet's problem (3)

A fascinating result of random processes is that the unique solution can be found via **Brownian motion**.

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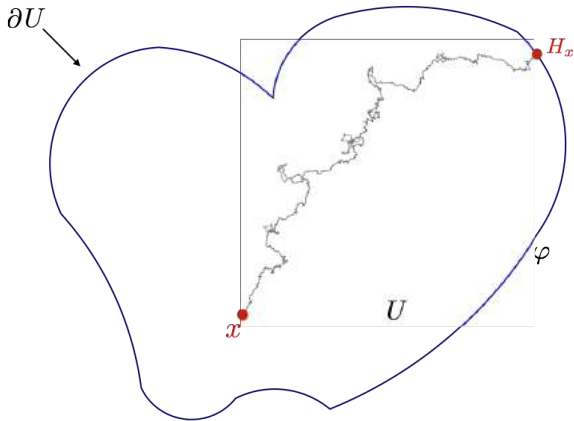
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In the computable setting:

Theorem (Allen-B.-Slaman)

Given x and a random source R , one can compute a Brownian path starting from x and compute its first intersection with ∂U .

Thus, we have a probabilistic algorithm to compute $f(x)$ given x !

Thus f is computable! (by De Leeuw et al's theorem, essentially)

In conclusion...

S. Barry Cooper (1943-2015)



Thank you, Barry!