

Randomized algorithms in computability theory

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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

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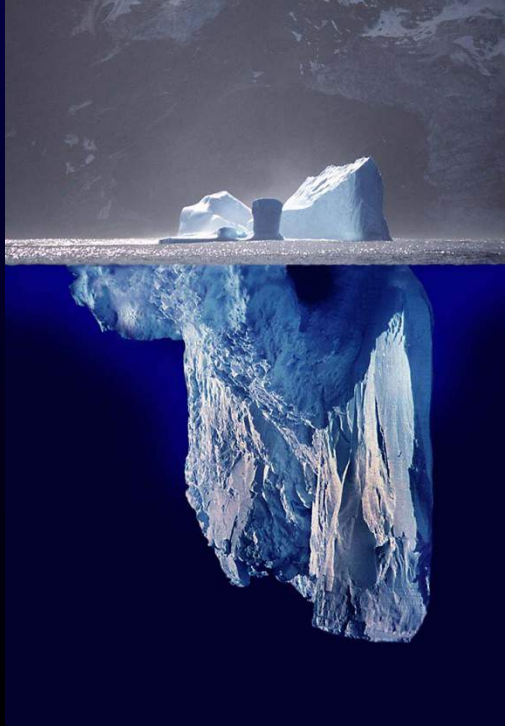
Then we can apply a version of 'majority vote': for each n , wait until $\Psi(R)(n)$ returns a value for $2/3$ of R 's. Take $g(n) =$ the maximum value seen over all those R 's. Then g is computable and for every n :

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

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').

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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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For any $x \in \mathbf{PA}_n$, $\mathbf{I}(x : \emptyset') \gtrsim n - O(1)$

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)

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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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Theorem (B., Porter)

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 Romyantsev, Khan).
- \mathbf{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)

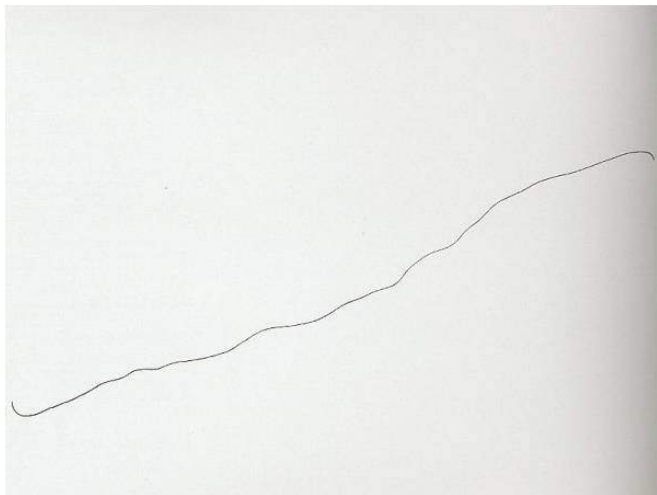
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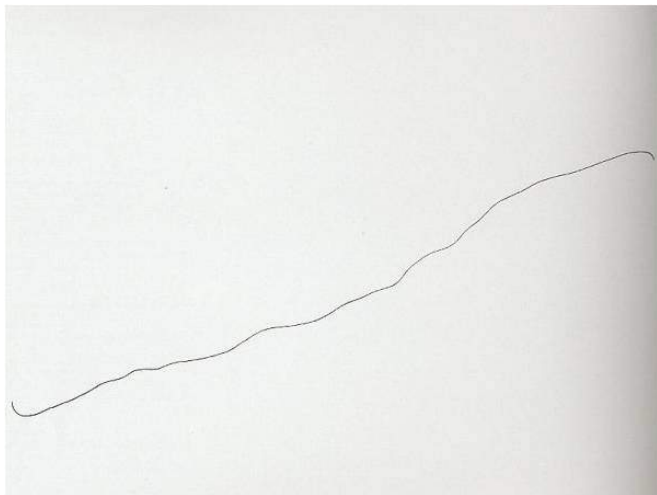
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This relates to an old idea due to Bennett, who argued that Kolmogorov complexity captures the idea of 'information', but not of 'depth'.

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shallow: too simple!

Why 'deep'? (3)



Why 'deep'? (3)



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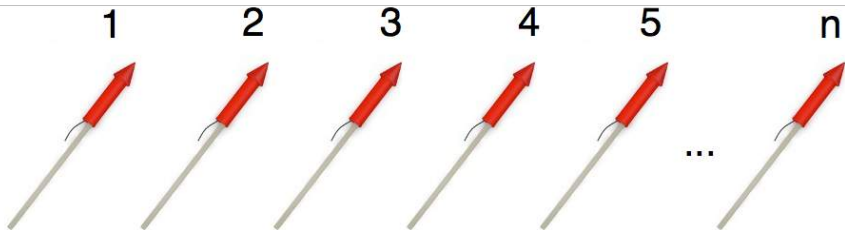
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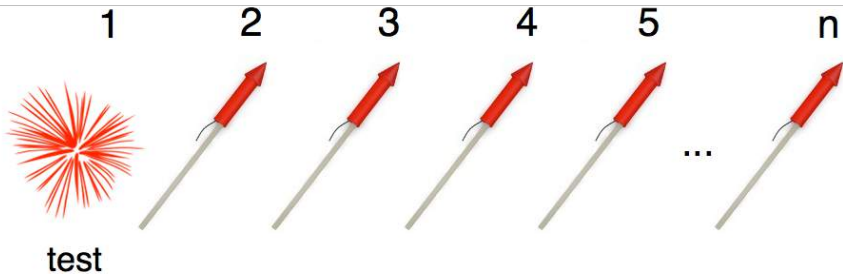
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This works because the only bad case is when $k + 1$ is the position of the first bad box.

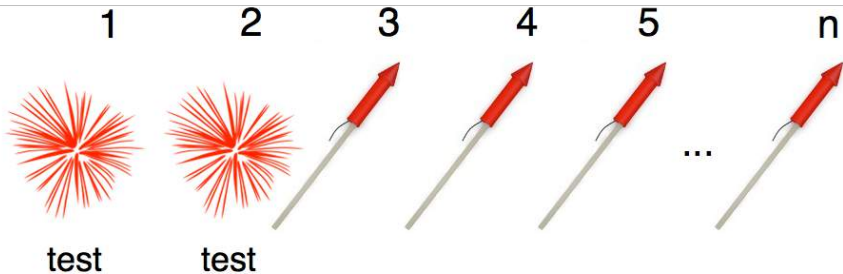
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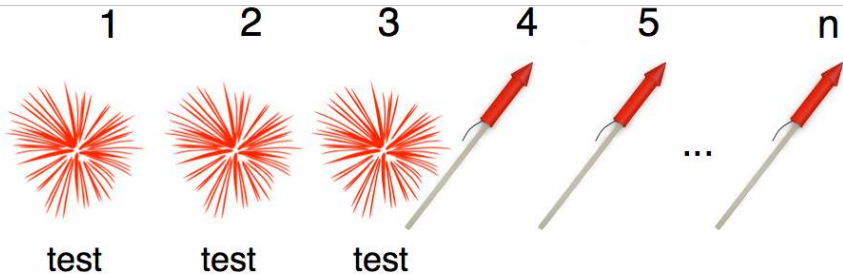
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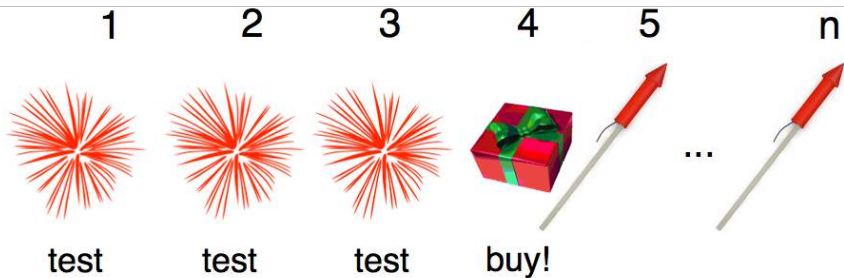
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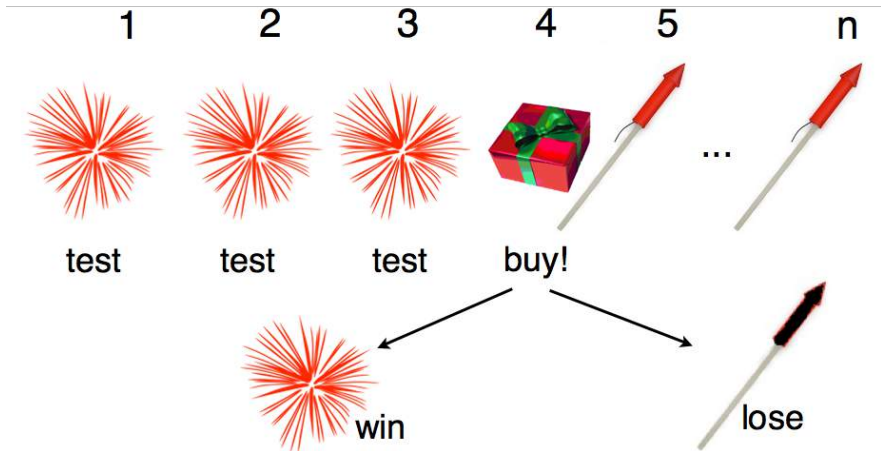
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$\prod_e (1 - 1/q(e)) > 0$. Set the 'error counter' to 0

- 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 :

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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

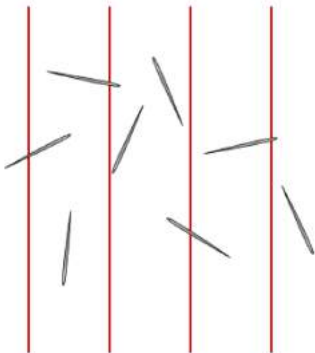
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Turning De Leeuw et al's theorem around

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)

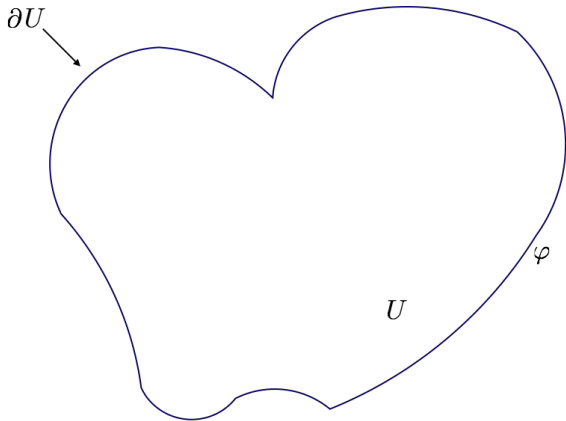


Dirichlet's problem (1)

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

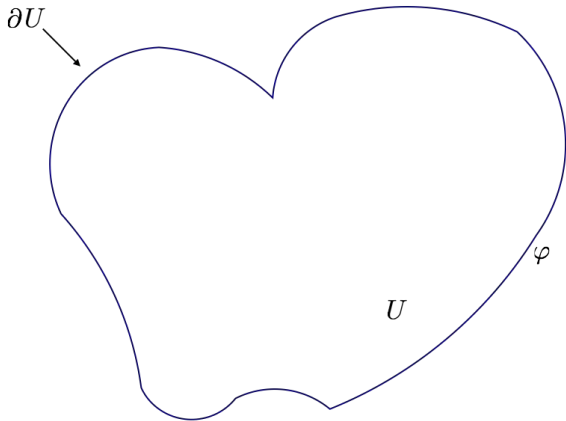
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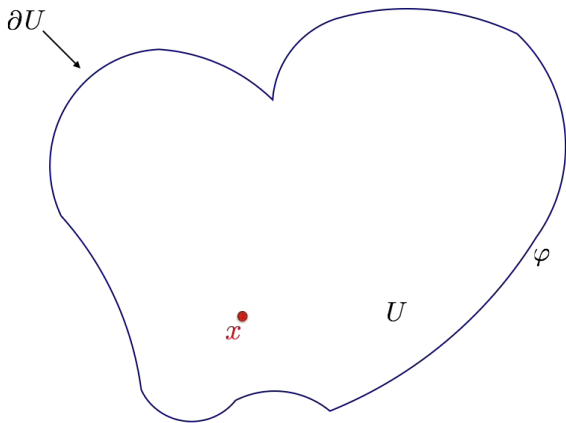
Is this solution computable? (= when $\partial U, \varphi$ are computable, is f computable?)

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

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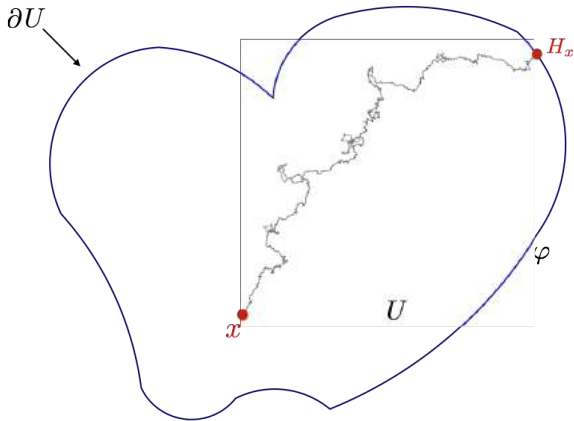
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In the computable setting:

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!