TECHNISCHE UNIVERSITÄT DRESDEN

COMPLEXITY THEORY

Lecture 19: Circuit Complexity

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Computing with Circuits

Motivation

One might imagine that P ≠ NP, but **Sat** is tractable in the following sense: for every ℓ there is a very short program that runs in time ℓ^2 and correctly treats all instances of size ℓ. – Karp and Lipton, 1982

Some questions:

- Even if it is hard to find a universal algorithm for solving all instances of a problem, couldn't it still be that there is a simple algorithm for every fixed problem size?
- What can complexity theory tell us about parallel computation?
- Are there any meaningful complexity classes below LogSpace? Do they contain relevant problems?

$\leadsto$ circuit complexity provides some answers

Intuition: use circuits with logical gates to model computation

Boolean Circuits

Definition 19.1: A Boolean circuit is a finite, directed, acyclic graph where

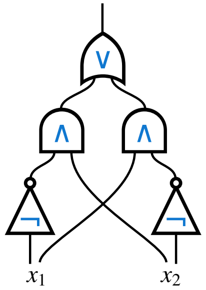
- each node that has no predecessor is an input node
- each node that is not an input node is one of the following types of logical gate:
  - AND with two input wires
  - OR with two input wires
  - NOT with one input wire
- one or more nodes are designated output nodes

The outputs of a Boolean circuit are computed in the obvious way from the inputs.
$\leadsto$ circuits with k inputs and ℓ outputs represent functions $\{0, 1\}^k \to \{0, 1\}^\ell$

We often consider circuits with only one output.

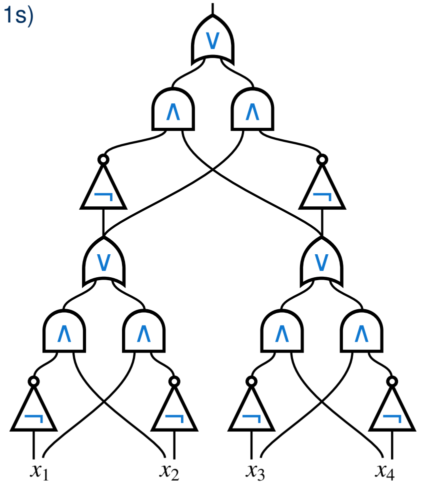
Example 1

XOR function:



Example 2

Parity function with four inputs:
(true for odd number of 1s)

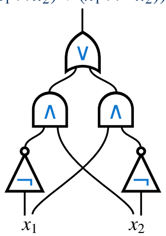


Alternative Ways of Viewing Circuits (1)

Propositional formulae

- propositional formulae are special circuits:
  each non-input node has only one outgoing wire
- each variable corresponds to one input node
- each logical operator corresponds to a gate
- each sub-formula corresponds to a wire

$((\neg x_1 \wedge x_2) \vee (x_1 \wedge \neg x_2))$

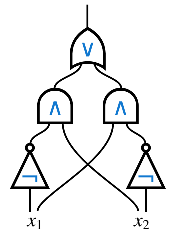


Alternative Ways of Viewing Circuits (2)

Straight-line programs

- are programs without loops and branching (if, goto, for, while, etc.)
- that only have Boolean variables
- and where each line can only be an assignment with a single Boolean operator

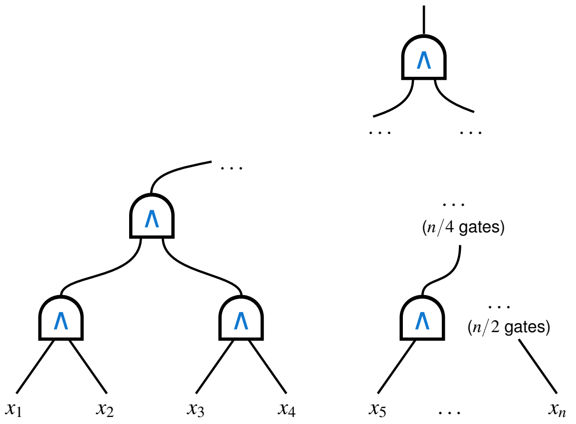
$\leadsto$ n-line programs correspond to n-gate circuits



01 z_1 := $\neg x_1$
02 z_2 := $\neg x_2$
03 z_3 := $z_1 \wedge x_2$
04 z_4 := $z_2 \wedge x_1$
05 return $z_3 \vee z_4$

Example: Generalised AND

The function that tests if all inputs are 1 can be encoded by combining binary AND gates:



- works similarly for OR gates
- number of gates: $n - 1$
- we can use n-way AND and OR (keeping the real size in mind)

Solving Problems with Circuits

Circuits are not universal: they have a fixed number of inputs!
How can they solve arbitrary problems?

Definition 19.2: A circuit family is an infinite list $C = C_1, C_2, C_3, \ldots$ where each C_i is a Boolean circuit with i inputs and one output.
We say that C decides a language **L** (over $\{0, 1\}$) if

$$w \in \mathbf{L} \quad \text{if and only if} \quad C_n(w) = 1 \text{ for } n = |w|.$$

Example 19.3: The circuits we gave for generalised AND are a circuit family that decides the language $\{1^n \mid n \geq 1\}$.

Circuit Complexity

To measure difficulty of problems solved by circuits, we can count the number of gates needed:

Definition 19.4: The size of a circuit is its number of gates.

Let $f : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{R}^+$ be a function. A circuit family C is f-size bounded if each of its circuits C_n is of size at most $f(n)$.

Size($f(n)$) is the class of all languages that can be decided by an $O(f(n))$-size bounded circuit family.

Example 19.5: Our circuits for generalised AND show that $\{1^n \mid n \geq 1\} \in$ Size(n).

Examples

Many simple operations can be performed by circuits of polynomial size:

- Boolean functions such as parity (=sum modulo 2), sum modulo n, or majority
- Arithmetic operations such as addition, subtraction, multiplication, division (taking two fixed-arity binary numbers as inputs)
- Many matrix operations

See exercise for some more examples

Polynomial Circuits

Polynomial Circuits

A natural class of problems to consider are those that have polynomial circuit families:

Definition 19.6: $\mathsf{P}_{/\mathrm{poly}} = \bigcup_{d \geq 1} \mathsf{Size}(n^d)$.

Note: A language is in $\mathsf{P}_{/\mathrm{poly}}$ if it is solved by some polynomial-sized circuit family. There may not be a way to compute (or even finitely represent) this family.

How does $\mathsf{P}_{/\mathrm{poly}}$ relate to other classes?

Quadratic Circuits for Deterministic Time

Theorem 19.7: For $f(n) \geq n$, we have $\mathsf{DTime}(f) \subseteq \mathsf{Size}(f^2)$.

Proof sketch (see also Sipser, Theorem 9.30)

- We can represent the DTime computation as in the proof of Theorem 16.10: as a list of configurations encoded as words

$$* \, \sigma_1 \, \cdots \, \sigma_{i-1} \, \langle q, \sigma_i \rangle \, \sigma_{i+1} \, \cdots \, \sigma_m \, *$$

  of symbols from the set $\Omega = \{*\} \cup \Gamma \cup (Q \times \Gamma)$.
  $\leadsto$ Tableau (i.e., grid) with $O(f^2)$ cells.
- We can describe each cell with a list of bits (wires in a circuit).
- We can compute one configuration from its predecessor by $O(f)$ circuits (idea: compute the value of each cell from its three upper neighbours as in Theorem 16.10)
- Acceptance can be checked by assuming that the TM returns to a unique configuration position/state when accepting □

From Polynomial Time to Polynomial Size

From $\mathsf{DTime}(f) \subseteq \mathsf{Size}(f^2)$ we get:

Corollary 19.8: $\mathsf{P} \subseteq \mathsf{P}_{/\mathrm{poly}}$.

This suggests another way of approaching the P vs. NP question:

If any language in NP is not in $\mathsf{P}_{/\mathrm{poly}}$, then $\mathsf{P} \neq \mathsf{NP}$.
(but nobody has found any such language yet)

CIRCUIT-SAT

Input: A Boolean Circuit C with one output.

Problem: Is there any input for which C returns 1?

Theorem 19.9: CIRCUIT-SAT is NP-complete.

Proof: Inclusion in NP is easy (just guess the input).

For NP-hardness, we use that NP problems are those with a P-verifier:

- The DTM simulation of Theorem 19.7 can be used to implement a verifier (input: $(w\#c)$ in binary)
- We can hard-wire the w-inputs to use a fixed word instead (remaining inputs: c)
- The circuit is satisfiable iff there is a certificate for which the verifier accepts w □

Note: It would also be easy to reduce **SAT** to **CIRCUIT-SAT**, but the above yields a proof from first principles.

A New Proof for Cook-Levin

Theorem 19.10: 3SAT is NP-complete.

Proof: Membership in NP is again easy (as before).

For NP-hardness, we express the circuit that was used to implement the verifier in Theorem 19.9 as propositional logic formula in 3-CNF:

- Create a propositional variable X for every wire in the circuit
- Add clauses to relate input wires to output wires, e.g., for AND gate with inputs X_1 and X_2 and output X_3, we encode $(X_1 \wedge X_2) \leftrightarrow X_3$ as:

$$(\neg X_1 \vee \neg X_2 \vee X_3) \wedge (X_1 \vee \neg X_3) \wedge (X_2 \vee \neg X_3)$$

- Fixed number of clauses per gate = constant factor size increase
- Add a clause (X) for the output wire X □

The Power of Circuits

Is P = $\mathsf{P}_{/\mathrm{poly}}$?

We showed P ⊆ $\mathsf{P}_{/\mathrm{poly}}$. Does the converse also hold?

No!

Theorem 19.11: $\mathsf{P}_{/\mathrm{poly}}$ contains undecidable problems.

Proof: We define the unary Halting problem as the (undecidable) language:

$$\textbf{UHALT} := \{1^n \mid \text{the binary encoding of } n \text{ encodes a pair } \langle \mathcal{M}, w\rangle \text{ where } \mathcal{M} \text{ is a TM that halts on word } w\}$$

For a number $1^n \in$ **UHALT**, let C_n be the circuit that computes a generalised AND of all inputs. For all other numbers, let C_n be a circuit that always returns 0. The circuit family $C_1, C_2, C_3, \ldots$ accepts **UHALT**. □

Uniform Circuit Families

$P_{/poly}$ is too powerful, since we do not require the circuits to be computable.
We can add this requirement:

Definition 19.12: A circuit family $C_1, C_2, C_3, \ldots$ is log-space-uniform if there is a log-space computable function that maps words 1^n to (an encoding of) C_n.

Note: We could also define similar notions of uniformity for other complexity classes.

Theorem 19.13: The class of all languages that are accepted by a log-space-uniform circuit family of polynomial size is exactly P.

Proof sketch: A detailed analysis shows that our earlier reduction of polytime DTMs to circuits is log-space-uniform.
Conversely, a polynomial-time procedure can be obtained by first computing a suitable circuit (in log-space) and then evaluating it (in polynomial time). □

Turing Machines That Take Advice

One can also describe $P_{/poly}$ using TMs that take "advice":

Definition 19.14: Consider a function $a : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$. A language **L** is accepted by a Turing Machine $\mathcal{M}$ with a bits of advice if there is a sequence of advice strings $\alpha_0, \alpha_1, \alpha_2, \ldots$ of length $|\alpha_i| = a(i)$ and $\mathcal{M}$ accepts inputs of the form $(w\#\alpha_{|w|})$ if and only if $w \in$ **L**.

$P_{/poly}$ is equivalent to the class of problems that can be solved by a PTime TM that takes a polynomial amount of "advice" (where the advice can be a description of a suitable circuit).

(This is where the notation $P_{/poly}$ comes from.)

Summary and Outlook

Circuits provide an alternative model of computation

$P \subseteq P_{/poly}$

Circuit-Sat is NP-complete.

$P_{/poly}$ is very powerful – uniform circuit families help to restrict it

What's next?

- Circuits for parallelism
- Complexity classes (strictly!) below P
- Randomness