Parallel Computation: Many computations at once, we measure parallel time and amount of hardware.

Models: (time measure, hardware measure)

- Parallel RAM: number of steps, number of processors
- Alternating TM: alternations, $2^{\text {Space }}$
- Boolean Circuits: depth, size

Uniformity: The $n$-input circuit in the family must be easily ( $F(\mathbf{L})$ or $F(\mathrm{FO})$ ) computable from input $1^{n}$.

## Theorem: P equals uniform PSIZE.

NC Hierarchy: Classes of programs with fast $\left((\log n)^{O(1)}\right.$ time) parallel algorithms that use reasonable ( $n^{O(1)}$ ) hardware.

Definition 24.1 (The NC Hierarchy) Let $t(n)$ be a polynomially bounded function and let $S \subseteq\{0,1\}^{\star}$ Then $S$ is in the circuit complexity class $\mathbf{N C}[t(n)], \mathbf{A C}[t(n)]$, ThC $[t(n)]$, respectively iff there exists a uniform family of circuits $C_{1}, C_{2}, \ldots$ with the following properties:

1. For all $w \in\{0,1\}^{\star}, \quad w \in S \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad C_{|w|}(w)=1$
2. The depth of $C_{n}$ is $O(t(n))$.
3. $\left|C_{n}\right| \leq n^{O(1)}$
4. The gates of $C_{n}$ consist of,

NC<br>bounded fan-in and, or gates



AC
unbounded fan-in and, or gates

ThC
unbounded fan-in threshold gates

For $i=0,1, \ldots$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{N C}^{i} & =\mathbf{N C}\left[(\log n)^{i}\right] \\
\mathbf{A C}^{i} & =\mathbf{A C}\left[(\log n)^{i}\right] \\
\mathbf{T h C}^{i} & =\mathbf{T h C}\left[(\log n)^{i}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

$\mathbf{N C}=\bigcup_{i=0}^{\infty} \mathbf{N C} \mathbf{C}^{i}=\bigcup_{i=0}^{\infty} \mathbf{A C}^{i}=\bigcup_{i=0}^{\infty} \mathbf{T h C}^{i}$

We will see that the following inclusions hold:

$$
\begin{array}{rllll}
\mathbf{A C}^{0} & \subseteq & \mathbf{T h C}^{0} & \subseteq \mathbf{N C}^{1} \subseteq \mathbf{L} \subseteq \mathbf{N L} & \subseteq \mathbf{A C}^{1} \\
\mathbf{A C}^{1} & \subseteq & \subseteq \mathbf{T h C}^{1} & \subseteq \mathbf{N C}^{2} \\
\mathbf{A C}^{2} & \subseteq & \mathbf{T h C}^{2} & \subseteq \mathbf{N C}^{3} & \subseteq \mathbf{A C}^{3} \\
\vdots & \subseteq & \vdots & \subseteq \vdots & \subseteq: \\
\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} \mathbf{A C}^{i} & =\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} \mathbf{T h C}^{i} & =\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} \mathbf{N C}^{i} & & =\mathbf{N C}
\end{array}
$$

Overall, NC consists of those problems that can be solved in poly-log parallel time on a parallel computer with polynomially much hardware. The question of whether $\mathbf{P}=$ $\mathbf{N C}$ is the second most important open question in complexity theory, after the $\mathbf{P}=\mathbf{N P}$ question.

You wouldn't think that every problem in $\mathbf{P}$ can be sped up to polylog time by parallel processing. Some problems appear to be inherently sequential. If we prove that a problem is $\mathbf{P}$-complete, we know that it is not in $\mathbf{N C}$ unless $\mathbf{P}=\mathbf{N C}$.

> Theorem: CVP, MCVP and HORN-SAT are all $\mathbf{P}$ complete.

Proof: CVP by analysis of $\mathbf{P}=$ uniform PSIZE proof. The other two by reduction from CVP.

## Proposition 24.2 Every regular language is in $\mathbf{N C}^{1}$.

There are several different ways to prove this. The basic idea is to use divide-and-conquer to determine the behavior of a DFA on a string.
One way to look at it is that we know the behavior of the DFA on each letter, as a function from the state set to itself. We need to compose together these $n$ different behaviors to get the benavior of the DFA on the whole string. We can compose two functions from an $O(1)$-size set to itself in $\mathbf{N C}^{0}(O(1)$ size and depth). A binary tree of these composition operations gets the whole behavior in $\mathbf{N C}^{1}$.
Another way to prove it is to draw a levelled graph of length $n$ and width $O(1)$, with a node for each state of the DFA at each time, and and edge for the transition that the DFA will make at that time looking at that letter of $w$. We now have a REACH problem on a constant-width graph, and we can adapt the Savitch argument to do this in $\mathbf{N C}^{1}$.

This Savitch argument may be easier to see in the following very similar result:

## Theorem 24.3 Every regular language is in ATIME $(\log n)$.

Proof: We are given the input string $w$ of length $n$ and a DFA $D$ for the language. White initially names the final state in which $D$ finishes on input $w$. In general White has a claim of the form $(q, i, j, r)$ meaning "if $D$ starts in state $q$ and reads the string $w_{i} \ldots w_{j}$, it ends in state $r "$. White advances her claim by naming the state of $D$ in the middle of the current string. Black challenges either the first half or second half of White's claimed behavior. When the claim is about one letter of $w$ it can be tested against the table of $D$ and that letter from the input tape. There are $\log n$ rounds, and in each White names a state $(O(1)$ bits) and Black names a bit.

Actually, with a suitable uniformity condition,

## Theorem: (Ruzzo) $\mathbf{N C}^{1}=$ ATIME $(\log n)$.

We'll prove this later in this lecture, though without the uniformity details.

## Theorem 24.4 (Barrington-Immerman-Straubing) FO $\mathbf{A C}^{0}$ <br> Proof: (Sketch of one direction, with some uniformity details skipped)



Proposition 24.5 For $i=0,1, \ldots$,

$$
\mathbf{N C}^{i} \subseteq \mathbf{A C}^{i} \subseteq \mathbf{T h C}^{i} \subseteq \mathbf{N C}^{i+1}
$$

## Proof:

All inclusions but $\mathbf{T h C}{ }^{i} \subseteq \mathbf{N C}^{i+1}$ are clear.
$\mathbf{M A J}=\left\{w \in\{0,1\}^{\star} \mid w\right.$ has more than $\left.|w| / 2 " 1 " \mathrm{~s}\right\} \in \mathbf{T h C}^{0}$
Lemma 24.6 $\quad \mathrm{MAJ} \in \mathbf{N C}^{1}$
(and the same for any other threshold gate).

The obvious way to try to build an $\mathbf{N C}^{1}$ circuit for majority is to add the $n$ input bits via a full binary tree of height $\log n$. The problem with this, is that while the sums being added have more and more bits, we must still add them in constant depth each.
It's actually provably impossible to add two numbers of more than constant length in constant depth if we use standard binary notation and gates of fan-in two. This is because the highest-order output bit might depend on any of the input bits, and so needs to be connected to all of them via wires.


A solution to this problem is via redundant arithmetic notation. Consider a representation of natural numbers in binary, except that digits $0,1,2,3$ may be used. For example 3213 and 3221 are different representations of the decimal number 37 in this redundant notation:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 3213=3 \cdot 2^{3}+2 \cdot 2^{2}+1 \cdot 2^{1}+3 \cdot 2^{0}=37 \\
& 3221=3 \cdot 2^{3}+2 \cdot 2^{2}+2 \cdot 2^{1}+1 \cdot 2^{0}=37
\end{aligned}
$$

Lemma 24.7 Adding two $n$ bit numbers with input and output in redundant notation can be done with an $\mathbf{N C}^{0}$ circuit, i.e., with constant depth and constant fan-in.

Example:
carries: 3223

| 3213 |
| ---: |
| $+\quad 3213$ |
| 32210 |

This is doable in $\mathbf{N C}^{0}$ because the carry from column $i$ can be computed by looking only at columns $i$ and $i+1$. Details will be on HW\#8.

Translating from redundant notation back to binary, which must be done only once at the end, is just an addition problem. This is first-order, and thus $\mathbf{A C}^{0}$, and thus $\mathbf{N C}^{1}$.

## Theorem 24.8 (Borodin) $\mathbf{N C}^{1} \subseteq \mathbf{L}$

Proof: Use a recursive evaluation of the circuit:

```
boolean eval()
{// a method in the Gate class
    if (type == OR)
        return left.eval() || right.eval();
    if (type == AND)
        return left.eval() && right.eval();
    if (type == INPUT)
        return inputValue;}
```

We must save $O(1)$ bits each time we recurse, and our recursion depth is the depth of the circuit, $O(\log n)$. Thus we use $O(\log n)$ space.

## Theorem 24.9 (Savitch) $\mathbf{N L} \subseteq \mathbf{A C}^{1}$

Proof: Express the Savitch middle-first search algorithm for REACH as a circuit. For every two nodes $u$ and $v$ and every number $d$ up to $\log n$, have a gate $G(u, v, d)$ that will evaluate to true iff there is a path from $u$ to $v$ of length at most $2^{d}$.

Then $G(u, v, d+1)$ is the OR , over all nodes $w$, of $G(u, w, d)$ AND $G(w, v, d) . G(u, v, 0)$ is the input bit $E(u, v)$ OR'ed with " $u=v$ ". There are only polynomially many gates and our depth (using unbounded fan-in) is clearly $O(\log n)$.

Note that this circuit uses unbounded fan-in only for OR gates, so it is in a subclass of $\mathbf{A C}^{1}$ called $\mathbf{s A C}{ }^{1}$. By a proof similar to Immerman-Szelepcsenyi, it can be shown that $\mathbf{S A C}^{1}$ is closed under complement - it can be defined either with big-ORs-only or big-ANDs-only.

We know that $\mathbf{A S P A C E}(\log n)=\mathbf{P}$, and we have defined subclasses of $\mathbf{P}$ in terms of circuits with limited depth. It turns out that these same subclasses can also be defined in terms of alternating Turing machines. We define subclasses of ASPACE $(\log n)$ in terms of limited time and limited number of alternations.

## Theorem 24.10 (Ruzzo) For all $i \geq 1$,

- $\mathbf{N C}^{i}$ equals the languages of ATM's with space $O(\log n)$ and time $O\left(\log ^{i} n\right)$.
- AC ${ }^{i}$ equals the languages of ATM's with space $O(\log n)$ and $O\left(\log ^{i} n\right)$ alternations.

Proof: (This is a sketch, omitting many uniformity details. For example, the exact uniformity definition used for $\mathbf{N C}^{1}$ is a messy one designed specifically to make $\mathbf{N C}^{1}$ equal ATIME $(\log n)$.)

First, consider simulating ATM's by circuits. If we make a gate for each of the $n^{O(1)}$ configurations, we can connect these gates into a circuit in an obvious way. The type of the gate for configuration $c$ is AND if $c$ is a Blackmove (universal) configuration and OR if it is Whitemove (existential). A terminal configuration becomes an constant gate. The children of $c$ are the two configurations that the ATM can move to from $c$. The output gate is the start configuration.

But we have a problem in that the children of a gate depend on the input, and we can't let the structure of the circuit depend on the input (only on its size). However, following Problem 5 on Spring 2003's HW\#7, we can assume that the ATM is a one-look machine, that only queries its input tape once, at the end of the computation. (To be complete we would need to prove a lemma that we can enforce the one-look restriction preserving time or preserving alternations - I may or may not put this on HW\#8.)

What is the depth of the resulting circuit? It is equal to the running time of the ATM, assuming we make the circuit have fan-in two. This shows the $\mathbf{N C}^{i}$ part of this half of the theorem, that the ATM with $O(\log n)$ space and $O\left(\log ^{i} n\right)$ time can be simulated in $\mathbf{N C}^{1}$. (Note that the circuit to simulate the ATM will be very uniform.)

If we take the circuit we have constructed and collapse it to an unbounded fan-in circuit by merging ANDs with ANDs or ORs with ORs on consecutive levels, then our depth is reduced from the running time to the number of alternations. Each phase of all-AND or all-OR gates becomes a single level of the new circuit. There are some details to check to make sure that this construction is sufficiently uniform. But we only care in the case of $\mathbf{A C}^{1}$ and above, and in $\mathbf{A C}^{1}$ we can test REACH and thus decide whether one gate can be reached from another by a path of all AND or all OR gates.

This (with some details missing) concludes the simulation of ATM's by circuits.

We now need to show the other half of the theorem, that we can simulate a circuit with an ATM. But we've really already done this, in defining the Circuit Game to solve MCVP in ASPACE $(\log n)$. (Why can we assume monotone circuits? See HW\#8.)

If the input circuit is fan-in two and depth $O\left(\log ^{i} n\right)$ (an $\mathbf{N C}^{i}$ circuit), the exact same Circuit Game will be completed in $O\left(\log ^{i} n\right)$ moves of the game. But can we implement a move of the game in $O(1)$ time on the machine? We can have the players make their choices by writing down a bit for each move. But how do we know whose move it is, and where we are in the circuit? If we wrote down the new gate number each time, we would necessarily take $O\left(\log ^{i+1} n\right)$ time in all as each gate number has $O(\log n)$ bits.

The trick is to amortize the cost of writing down the gate number by doing it only every $\log n$ moves. In between, the players operate by looking at the last gate number recorded and the sequence of moves since then. We allow challenges to any claims about whose move it is, or what the new gate number should be, so we need the circuit to be uniform enough that we can decide these challenges.

If the input circuit has unbounded fan-in, the player in the Circuit Game picking a child must write down its entire gate number, and then claim (subject to challenge) that this gate is really a child. Now the moves of the game take time $O(\log n)$ each, but each move is only a single alternation so the number of alternations is bounded by the depth of the circuit.

This completes the proof of the theorem.

We'll conclude our discussion of parallel complexity by showing where another one of our existing classes, the context-free languages, fits into the NC hierarchy.

Theorem 24.11 (Ruzzo) If $G$ is any context-free grammar, $\mathcal{L}(G) \in \mathbf{s A C}^{1}$.

Proof: Using the Alternation/Circuit theorem, we'll prove this by designing an ATM game for $\mathcal{L}(G)$ that has the following properties:

- White wins the game on input $w$ iff $w \in \mathcal{L}(G)$,
- the game uses $O(\log n)$ space,
- the number of alternations is $O(\log n)$, and
- all Black's alternation phases consist of a single bit move.

When we covert this game to a circuit, the last clause ensures that all the AND gates have fan-in two, so we are in $\mathbf{S A C}^{1}$. (Though our best upper bound for REACH is also $\mathbf{S A C}^{1}$, it is believed that REACH is not complete for $\mathbf{s A C}^{1}$ while there are CFL's that are complete for it.)

Let's assume that $G$ is in Chomsky normal form (only rules of the form $A \rightarrow B C, A \rightarrow a$, or $S \rightarrow \epsilon$ ). We have an input string $w$, and White claims there is a way to derive $S \rightarrow w$ using the rules of $G$. Black, as usual, disputes this.

White advances her claim by naming a node in the middle of the parse tree and saying what it does. Specifically, for some $i, j$, and $A$ she says $S \rightarrow w_{1} \ldots w_{i} A w_{j+1} \ldots w_{n}$ and $A \rightarrow w_{i+1} \ldots w_{j}$. Black picks one of these two claims to challenge.

If White is telling the truth about the orginal claim, she can get two true claims by telling the truth. But if she is lying, one of her two subsidiary claims must be a lie. We continue the process until we have a claim about a single input letter, such as $A \rightarrow w_{i}$, which can be verified by looking up the input letter and checking the rules of $G$.

This is a valid ATM game that decides whether $w \in$ $\mathcal{L}(G)$, but it does not yet meet our specification. There are two problems:

- The game could last as long as $n-1$ moves, rather than the $O(\log n)$ we need, and
- The subclaim under dispute might not be specifiable in space $O(\log n)$, as it has the form

$$
A \rightarrow w_{i_{1}} \ldots w_{i_{2}} B w_{i_{3}} \ldots w_{i_{4}} C w_{i_{5}} \ldots w_{i_{k}}
$$

We need $O(\log n)$ bits to record each "scar" in the string.

We solve the first problem by setting a fair time limit on White. If she has not reduced the claim to one letter in $O(\log n)$ moves, she loses. But why is this fair? On her move, she is dividing the parse tree of $w$ into two pieces by cutting an edge.

Lemma: (Lipton-Tarjan) Any binary tree can be cut on some edge into two pieces, each at most $2 / 3$ the original size. (Proof on Spring 2003 HW\#8, solutions on my web site.)

So since White is so smart, she can choose her division to leave smaller subtrees, and after $O(\log n)$ moves she can reduce the subtree to one node.

To solve the second problem, we force White to make sure that the current claim is about a tree with at most three scars, giving her $O(\log n)$ more moves to spend on this goal.

Lemma: Let $T$ be any rooted binary tree and let $a, b$, and $c$ be any three nodes none of which is an ancestor of another. Then there exists a node $d$ that is an ancestor of exactly two of $a, b$, and $c$. (Proof on Spring 2003 HW\#8, with posted solutions.)

Now if White is faced with a tree with scars at $a, b$, and $c$, we force her to find some $d$ and divide the tree there. This may not shrink the tree under dispute very much, but it makes sure that on the next move, the two subclaims have only two scars each.

White still wins the revised game iff she should, and the revised game now fits all the specifications.


