Recursion schemes, discrete differential equations and characterization of polynomial time computation

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Introduction

- Ordinary Differential Equations (ODE) is a natural way to express properties of many systems in applied science
- Very active field of maths, abundant litterature
- We are interested here in its discrete counterpart : discrete ODE
- Built on a notion of derivative, *finite differences*, widely studied in numerical optimization and combinatorial analysis

Introduction

- Study the expressive and computational power of discrete ODE
- Appears
 - to be a convenient tool for algorithm design
 - to elegantly capture complexity notions
- Believe it help to better understand computation for both the discrete and the continuous settings

Plan

- Introduction to discrete ODE
- A short survey on recursion scheme for complexity
- ODE and complexity classes : characterizing polynomial time computation

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Discrete derivative

Definition

Let $f : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{Z}$, the discrete derivative (a.k.a finite difference) is defined as:

$$\Delta \mathbf{f}(x) = \mathbf{f}(x+1) - \mathbf{f}(x).$$

When
$$f: \mathbb{N}^p \to Z^q$$
, set:

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{f}(x, \mathbf{y})}{\partial x} = \mathbf{f}(x+1, \mathbf{y}) - \mathbf{f}(x, \mathbf{y})$$

Sometimes use $\mathbf{f}'(x)$ instead of $\Delta(\mathbf{f}(x))$

Discrete integral

Definition (Discrete Integral) we write $\int_a^b \mathbf{f}(x)\delta x$ as a synonym for $\int_a^b \mathbf{f}(x)\delta x = \sum_{x=a}^{x=b-1} \mathbf{f}(x)$ with the conventions: $\int_a^a \mathbf{f}(x)\delta x = 0$ and $\int_a^b \mathbf{f}(x)\delta x = -\int_b^a \mathbf{f}(x)\delta x$ when a > b.

It follows easily by the telescope formula that:

Theorem (Fundamental Theorem of Finite Calculus) Let $\mathbf{F}(x)$ be some function. Then, $\int_a^b \mathbf{F}'(x) \delta x = \mathbf{F}(b) - \mathbf{F}(a)$.

Discrete integral and basics of integration

Not surprisingly, basic notions from the continous setting adapts easily:

- derivation of a composition , integration by parts, etc
- Example of the Product rule: $(\mathbf{f}(x) \cdot \mathbf{g}(x))' = \mathbf{f}(x+1) \cdot \mathbf{g}'(x) + \mathbf{f}(x)' \cdot \mathbf{g}(x)$
- \blacktriangleright Let f be some function, C some constant. Then the function

$$\mathbf{F}(x) = \mathbf{C} + \sum_{x=0}^{x-1} \mathbf{f}(x)$$

is such that $\mathbf{F}'(x) = \mathbf{f}(x)$ and $\mathbf{F}(0) = \mathbf{C}$. As expected, \mathbf{F} is called a primitive of $\mathbf{f}(x)$.

Discrete Ordinary Differential Equation (ODE)

Discrete ODE: System of equations of the form, where h is some function:

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{f}(x, \mathbf{y})}{\partial x} = \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{f}(x, \mathbf{y}), x, \mathbf{y}), \tag{1}$$

With initial value f(0, y) = g(y): Initial Value Problem (IVP) or a Cauchy Problem.

Integral form:

$$\mathbf{f}(x, \mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{f}(0, \mathbf{y}) + \int_0^x \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{f}(x, \mathbf{y}), x, \mathbf{y}) \delta x.$$

- Hence, a discrete ODE always have a solution $f: \mathbb{N}^p \to \mathbb{Z}^q$
- Not always true if one wants $f: \mathbb{Z}^p \to \mathbb{Z}^q$

Linear system of discrete ODE

Linear ODE: system of the form

$$\begin{cases} \mathbf{f}'(x, \mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{A}(x, \mathbf{y}) \cdot \mathbf{f}(x, \mathbf{y}) + \mathbf{B}(x, \mathbf{y}) \\ \mathbf{f}(0, \mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{y}) \text{ (initial conditions)} \end{cases}$$

For matrices ${\bf A}$ and vectors ${\bf B}$ and ${\bf G}.$

- Well known and simple kind of system
- Easy to solve in the continous setting

Linear system of discrete ODE

Easy to see that solution is of the form:

$$\mathbf{f}(x,\mathbf{y}) = \left(\overline{2}^{\int_0^x \mathbf{A}(t,\mathbf{y})\delta t}\right) \cdot \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{y}) + \int_0^x \left(\overline{2}^{\int_{u+1}^x \mathbf{A}(t,\mathbf{y})\delta t}\right) \cdot \mathbf{B}(u,\mathbf{y})\delta u.$$

Or, alternatively:

$$\mathbf{f}(x, \mathbf{y}) = \sum_{u=-1}^{x-1} \left(\prod_{t=u+1}^{x-1} (1 + \mathbf{A}(t, \mathbf{y})) \right) \cdot \mathbf{B}(u, \mathbf{y})$$

with the conventions that $\prod_{x}^{x-1} \kappa(x) = 1$ and $\mathbf{B}(-1, \mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{y})$ Computational content is clear: the solution can be computed

Bounded sum and product

Arithmetic is used freely below. Let $g: \mathbb{N}^{p+1} \to \mathbb{N}$,

▶ Let $f(x, \mathbf{y}) = \sum_{z < x} g(z, \mathbf{y})$ for $x \neq 0$, and 0 for x = 0. Function f is the unique solution of :

$$\begin{cases} \frac{\partial f(x,\mathbf{y})}{\partial x} = g(x,\mathbf{y})\\ f(0,\mathbf{y}) = 0 \end{cases}$$

► Let $f(x, y) = \prod_{z < x} g(z, y)$ for $x \neq 0$, and 1 for x = 0. Function f is the unique solution of :

$$\begin{cases} \frac{\partial f(x,\mathbf{y})}{\partial x} = f(x,\mathbf{y}) \cdot (g(x,\mathbf{y}) - 1) \\ f(0,\mathbf{y}) = 1 \end{cases}$$

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Primitive recursive functions

Let $p \in \mathbb{N}$, $g : \mathbb{N}^p \to \mathbb{N}$ and $h : \mathbb{N}^{p+2} \to \mathbb{N}$. The function $f = \operatorname{REC}(g, h) : \mathbb{N}^{p+1} \to \mathbb{N}$ is defined by primitive recursion from g and h if:

$$\begin{cases} f(0, \mathbf{y}) = g(\mathbf{y}) \\ f(x+1, \mathbf{y}) = h(f(x, \mathbf{y}), x, \mathbf{y}) \end{cases}$$

- High complexity functions
- How to restrict the recursion scheme to lower complexity?

Bounded recursion

Let $g: \mathbb{N}^p \to \mathbb{N}$, $h: \mathbb{N}^{p+2} \to \mathbb{N}$ and $i: \mathbb{N}^{p+1} \to \mathbb{N}$. The function $f = BR(g, h): \mathbb{N}^{p+1} \to \mathbb{N}$ is defined by bounded recursion from g, h and i if

$$\begin{array}{rcl} f(0,\mathbf{y}) &=& g(\mathbf{y}) \\ f(x+1,\mathbf{y}) &=& h(f(x,\mathbf{y}),x,\mathbf{y}) \\ \text{under the condition that:} \\ f(x,\mathbf{y}) &\leq& i(x,\mathbf{y}). \end{array}$$

Key ingredient to capture elementary function and Grzegorczyk's hierarchy

Recursion on notation (Cobham)

Consider $\mathbf{s}_0, \mathbf{s}_1 : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$

$$s_0(x) = 2 \cdot x$$
 and $s_1(x) = 2 \cdot x + 1$.

Definition

Function f defined by bounded recursion on notations, i.e. BRN, from functions g, h_0, h_1 et k when:

$$\begin{cases} f(0, \mathbf{y}) = g(\mathbf{y}) \\ f(\mathbf{s}_0(x), \mathbf{y}) = h_0(x, \mathbf{y}, f(x, \mathbf{y})) \text{ for } x \neq 0 \\ f(\mathbf{s}_1(x), \mathbf{y}) = h_1(x, \mathbf{y}, f(x, \mathbf{y})) \\ f(x, \mathbf{y}) \leq k(x, \mathbf{y}) \end{cases}$$

Cobham's approach

 \mathscr{F}_P smallest subset of primitive recursive functions

- Containing basis functions : Function0, projections p_i^k , successor functions $\mathbf{s}_0(x) = 2 \cdot x$ and $\mathbf{s}_1(x) = 2 \cdot x + 1$, "smash" function $x \sharp y = 2^{|x| \times |y|}$
- Closed by composition
- Closed by bounded recursion on notations

Cobham (62) : \mathscr{F}_P is equal to **FP**, the class of polynomial time computable functions

Why it works

$$\begin{cases} f(0, \mathbf{y}) = g(\mathbf{y}) \\ f(\mathbf{s}_0(x), \mathbf{y}) = h_0(x, \mathbf{y}, f(x, \mathbf{y})) \text{ for } x \neq 0 \\ f(\mathbf{s}_1(x), \mathbf{y}) = h_1(x, \mathbf{y}, f(x, \mathbf{y})) \\ f(x, \mathbf{y}) \le k(x, \mathbf{y}) \end{cases}$$

Why it works

$$\begin{cases} f(0, \mathbf{y}) = g(\mathbf{y}) \\ f(\mathbf{s}_0(x), \mathbf{y}) = h_0(x, \mathbf{y}, f(x, \mathbf{y})) \text{ for } x \neq 0 \\ f(\mathbf{s}_1(x), \mathbf{y}) = h_1(x, \mathbf{y}, f(x, \mathbf{y})) \\ f(x, \mathbf{y}) \leq k(x, \mathbf{y}) \end{cases}$$

- f is defined from h_0, h_1 and k.
- If $|k(x, \mathbf{y})|$ is polynomial in |x| + |y|, then so is $|f(x, \mathbf{y})|$
- Hence, inner terms do not grow too fast!

Why it works

$$\begin{cases} f(0, \mathbf{y}) = g(\mathbf{y}) \\ f(\mathbf{s}_0(x), \mathbf{y}) = h_0(x, \mathbf{y}, f(x, \mathbf{y})) \text{ for } x \neq 0 \\ f(\mathbf{s}_1(x), \mathbf{y}) = h_1(x, \mathbf{y}, f(x, \mathbf{y})) \\ f(x, \mathbf{y}) \le k(x, \mathbf{y}) \end{cases}$$

•
$$|\mathbf{s}_1(x)| = |\mathbf{s}_0(x)| = |x| + 1$$

• Then the number of induction steps is in O(|x|).

Going further: syntactic restriction, ramified recursion

- Cobham's work was the starting point of numerous attempts to capture complexity classes by recursion algebras
- Generalize to \mathbf{L} , NC^i , AC^i classes
- Alternative approaches that do not require to bound the function a priori.
 - Predicative recursion (Bellantoni, Cook)
 - Ramified recurrence (Leivant, Leivant-Marion)
 - ▶

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Discrete ODE for elementary functions

Definition (Discrete ODE schemata)

Let $g: \mathbb{N}^p \to \mathbb{N}$ and $h: \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{N}^{p+1} \to \mathbb{Z}$.

Function f is defined by discrete ODE solving from g and h, denoted by f = ODE(g, h), if $f : \mathbb{N}^{p+1} \to \mathbb{Z}$ if f solution of:

$$\begin{cases} \frac{\partial f(x,\mathbf{y})}{\partial x} = h(f(x,\mathbf{y}), x, \mathbf{y})\\ f(0, \mathbf{y}) = g(\mathbf{y}) \end{cases}$$

When h is linear : LI schemata.

Discrete ODE for elementary functions

What about the smallest classes of functions

- \blacktriangleright that contains 0, the projections π^p_i , the successor s, addition +, subtraction -
- that is closed under composition and discrete linear ODE schemata LI.
- Result: Corresponds to elementary functions

Remark: recall the definition of bounded sum and bounded product.

ODE for complexity classes ?

- Elementary functions are of high complexity
- But linear systems is the simplest kind of system
- What can we do (i.e. what can we restrict more) to capture smaller complexity classes and in particular the class of polynomial time computable functions FP?

Derivation along a function

Definition (\mathcal{L} -ODE)

Let $\mathcal{L}: \mathbb{N}^{p+1} \to \mathbb{Z}$. We write

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{f}(x, \mathbf{y})}{\partial \mathcal{L}} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}(x, \mathbf{y})}{\partial \mathcal{L}(x, \mathbf{y})} = \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{f}(x, \mathbf{y}), x, \mathbf{y}),$$
(2)

as a formal synonym for $\mathbf{f}(x+1,\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{f}(x,\mathbf{y}) + (\mathcal{L}(x+1,\mathbf{y}) - \mathcal{L}(x,\mathbf{y})) \cdot \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{f}(x,\mathbf{y}),x,\mathbf{y}).$

Inspired by the classical formula:

$$\frac{\delta f(x, \mathbf{y})}{\delta x} = \frac{\delta \mathcal{L}(x, \mathbf{y})}{\delta x} \cdot \frac{\delta f(x, \mathbf{y})}{\delta \mathcal{L}(x, \mathbf{y})}$$

\mathcal{L} -ODE

The equality

$$\frac{\delta f(x, \mathbf{y})}{\delta x} = (\mathcal{L}(x+1, \mathbf{y}) - \mathcal{L}(x, \mathbf{y})) \cdot \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{f}(x, \mathbf{y}), x, \mathbf{y})$$

implies that the value of the derivative i.e. the variation of the function has to be considered only when

$$\mathcal{L}(x+1,\mathbf{y}) - \mathcal{L}(x,\mathbf{y}) \neq 0$$

Consequence: only as many values to consider to compute $f(x, \mathbf{y})$ as the number of times $\mathcal{L}(t, \mathbf{y})$ changes between t = 0 and t = x...

Application: if $\mathcal{L}(x,\mathbf{y})=\ell(x)$ then only a logarithmic in x number of values

Towards capturing ${\rm FP}$

Deriving along the logarithm function is not sufficient to capture ${\bf FP}$

It is easily seen that the solution of

$$\frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial \ell(x)} = f(x) \cdot (f(x) - 1) \tag{3}$$

is a fast growing function (output is exponential in size)

Idea: combine linearity and derivation along some particular function *L* i.e. systems :

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{f}(x, \mathbf{y})}{\partial \mathcal{L}} = \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{f}(x, \mathbf{y}), x, \mathbf{y}), \tag{4}$$

where

- ► h is "linear"
- \blacktriangleright ${\cal L}$ has a polylogarithmic number of values

\mathbb{DL}

Definition (\mathbb{DL})

Let \mathbb{DL} be the smallest subset of functions,

- ▶ that contains 0, 1, projections π_i^p , the length $\ell(x)$, functions x+y, x-y, $x \times y$, the sign function sg(x)
- closed under composition (when defined) and linear length-ODE scheme:

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{f}(x,\mathbf{y})}{\partial \ell} = \mathbf{u}(\mathbf{f}(x,\mathbf{y}),x,\mathbf{y}) \quad \text{ and } \mathbf{f}(0,\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{y})$$

where **u** is *essentially linear* in $\mathbf{f}(x, \mathbf{y})$.

A characterization of FP

Theorem: $\mathbb{DL} = \mathbf{FP}$

Proof of (\subseteq **):** Roughly speaking

- ► The derivation along ℓ(x) (or any L with polylog "jumps") permits to control the number of steps
- Linearity of the system permits to control the size of the output

Proof of (\supseteq **):** By a direct expression of a polynomial computation of a register machine.

Conclusion, questions and work in progress

- Study the expressive and computational power of discrete ODE
- Appears
 - to be a convenient tool for algorithm design
 - to elegantly capture complexity notions
- Extend the work to other classes (FPSPACE, NP, circuit classes)
- smaller derivation steps and allowing errors
- Generalize to the continuous setting