

# Computational Complexity

(Lectures on Solution Methods for Economists II)

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Jesús Fernández-Villaverde<sup>1</sup> and Pablo Guerrón<sup>2</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>University of Pennsylvania

<sup>2</sup>Boston College

# Computational complexity

- We now visit the main concepts of computational complexity.
- Discrete computational complexity deals with problems that:
  1. Can be described by a finite number of parameters.
  2. Can be solved in a finite number of step.
- It is based on the *Turing model of computation*.
- Assumes that a computer can compute a finite number of operations on a finite number of symbols (with unbounded memory and/or storage space).

# A Turing machine

- A Turing Machine is a generic model of a computer that can compute functions defined over domains of finitely representative objects.
- A function is computable if exists a computer program that can compute  $f(x)$  for any input  $x$  in a finite number of time using a finite amount of memory.
- Problem: it can take very long and a lot of memory.
- The theory of computational complexity classifies the problems in terms of time and memory needed.

## A metric to measure complexity.

- Let us give a look to the traveling salesman problem.
  1.  $x$  is a finite list  $\{c_1 \dots c_n\}$  and a list of distance  $\{d(c_i, c_j)\}$ .
  2.  $f$  is an ordering  $\{c_{\pi(1)} \dots c_{\pi(n)}\}$  that minimizes the length of a trip from  $\pi(1)$ , visiting all the cities and ending at  $\pi(1)$ .
- The natural metric of “size” is  $n$ , the number of cities.
- $comp(n)$  returns the minimal time required by any algorithm to compute a problem of size  $n$ .

## Polynomial-time versus exponential-time problems

- A polynomial-time problem has  $comp(n) = O(P(n))$  for some polynomial.
- For example, a multiplication of two  $n \times n$  matrices has  $comp(n) = O(n^{2376})$ .
- Polynomial-time problems are said to be tractable.
- If a problem is not bounded by any  $P(n)$  is said to be an exponential-time problem.
- Exponential-time problems are said to be intractable.
- It will be shown that a  $n$ -dimensional DP problem is a polynomial-time problem.

# Continuous computational complexity

- It deals with continuous mathematical problems.
- This type of problems cannot be solved exactly in a computer.
- We can only compute arbitrarily closed solutions.
- The theory of continuous computational complexity is based on the real number of model instead of the Turing model.

## A real number of model

- A real number model is a machine that can compute infinite precision computations and store exact values of real numbers as  $2^{1/2}$ .
- It does not consider approximation error and/or round-off error.

## Information-based complexity

- Since continuous time problems depend on an infinite number of parameters.
- Since a computer can only store a finite number of parameters, any algorithm trying to solve a has to deal with partial information.
- For example an integral.
- We have been able to characterize the complexity of some continuous problems as the DP with continuous state variables.



- A continuous mathematical problem can be defined as:

$$\Lambda : F \rightarrow B$$

where  $F$  and  $B$  are infinite dimensional.

## Example I: A multivariate integral

- For example:

$$\Lambda(f) = \int_{[0,1]^d} f(s) \lambda(ds)$$

where  $F$  and  $B$  are infinite dimensional.

- $B = R$  and

$$F = \left\{ f : [0,1]^d \rightarrow R \mid D^r f \text{ is continuous and } \|D^r f\| \leq 1 \right\}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} \|D^r f\| &= \max_{k_1, \dots, k_d} \sup_{s_1, \dots, s_d} \left| \frac{\partial^r f(s_1, \dots, s_d)}{\partial^{k_1} s_1 \dots \partial^{k_d} s_d} \right| \\ r &= k_1 + \dots + k_d \end{aligned}$$

## Example II: A MPD problem

- $F$  consists in all the pairs  $f = (u, p)$ .
- The operator  $\Lambda : F \rightarrow B$  can be written as  $V = \Lambda(u, p)$ .
- Where in the finite case  $V = (V_0, \dots, V_T)$  as described in the recursive algorithm described the other day.
- An in the infinite order case  $V$  is the unique solution to the Bellman equation.

# The approximation I

- Since  $f \in F$  an infinite dimensional space, we can only compute an approximation using a computable mapping  $U : F \rightarrow B$  can be computed only using a finite amount of information about  $f$  and can be computed using a finite number of algebraic operations.
- Given a norm in  $B$ , we can define  $\|\Lambda(f) - U(f)\|$ .
- $U(f)$  is an  $\varepsilon$ -approximation of  $f$  if  $\|\Lambda(f) - U(f)\| \leq \varepsilon$ .
- Let us analyze deterministic algorithms.
- $U : F \rightarrow B$  can be represented as the composition of:

$$U(f) = \phi_N(I_N(f))$$

where  $I_N(f) : F \rightarrow R^N$  maps information about  $f$  into  $R^N$ .

- In general  $I_N(f) = (L_1(f), \dots, L_N(f))$  where  $L_i(f)$  is a functional of  $f$ .

## The approximation II

- Consider  $I_N(f) : F \rightarrow R$  and  $L_i(f) = f(s_i)$  for some  $s_i \in S$ .
- In this case,  $I_N(f)$  is called the standard information

$$I_N(f) = (f(s_1), \dots, f(s_N))$$

where  $s_1, \dots, s_N$  can be thought as the “grid points.”

- $\phi_N(I_N(f))$  is a function that maps  $I_N(f)$  into  $B$ .
- $I_N$ ,  $\phi_N$ , and  $N$  are choice variables to get an accuracy  $\varepsilon$ .

# The computational cost

- Call  $c(U, f)$  the computational cost of computing and approximation solution  $U(f)$ .

$$c(U, f) = c_1(I_N, f) + c_2(\phi_N, I_N(f))$$

where  $c_1(I_N, f)$  is the cost of computing  $f$  at  $s_1, \dots, s_N$  and  $c_2(\phi_N, I_N(f))$  is the cost of using  $f(s_1), \dots, f(s_N)$  to compute  $U(f) = \phi_N(I_N(f))$ .

## The computational cost of example

- The multivariate integration problem.
- Step 0: Chose  $s_1, \dots, s_N$  in  $[0, 1]^d$ .
- Step 1: Calculate  $f(s_1), \dots, f(s_N)$ .
- Step 2:

$$\phi_N(I_N(f)) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N f(s_i)}{N}$$

- It can be shown that in this case  $c_1(I_N, f)$  and  $c_2(\phi_N, I_N(f))$  are proportional to  $N$ .

- $\varepsilon$  – *Complexity* is the minimal cost of computing an  $\varepsilon$ -approximation to  $\Lambda(f)$ .
- *The worst case deterministic complexity* of a problem  $\Lambda$  is:

$$\text{comp}^{\text{wor-det}}(\varepsilon) = \inf_U \{c(U) \mid e(U) \leq \varepsilon\}$$

where  $c(U) = \sup_{f \in F} c(U, f)$  and  $e(U) = \sup_{f \in F} \|\Lambda(f) - U(f)\|$ .

- For the multivariate integration problem, it can be shown that:

$$\text{comp}^{\text{wor-det}}(\varepsilon) = O\left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon^{d/r}}\right)$$

- Given  $\Theta$ ,  $\varepsilon$ , and  $r$ , exponential function on  $d \rightarrow$  curse of dimensionality.
- **Chow and Tsitsiklis (1989,1991)** show that the MPD problem is also subject to the course of dimensionality.



# Random algorithms

- Random algorithms break the curse of dimensionality.
- $\tilde{U} : F \rightarrow B$  can be represented as the composition of:

$$\tilde{U}(f) = \tilde{\phi}_N(\tilde{I}_N(f))$$

where  $\tilde{I}_N(f)$  is a random information operator and  $\tilde{\phi}_N(\tilde{I}_N(f))$  is a random algorithm.

- The multivariate integration problem:
  1. *IID* draws  $\tilde{s}_1, \dots, \tilde{s}_N$  from  $[0, 1]^d$ .
  2. Calculate  $f(\tilde{s}_1), \dots, f(\tilde{s}_N)$ .
  3. We compute:

$$\phi_N(I_N(f)) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N f(\tilde{s}_i)}{N}$$

## $\varepsilon$ -complexity of random algorithms I

- $\tilde{U}$  is a random variable.
- Let us define the underlying probability space  $(\Omega, \text{Borel}(\Omega), \mu)$ .
- $\tilde{I}_N : \Omega \rightarrow R^N$ .
- $\tilde{\phi}_N : \Omega \times R^N \rightarrow B$ .
- So that  $\tilde{U}$  is a well-defined random variable for each  $f \in F$ .
- *The worst case randomized complexity* of a problem  $\Lambda$  is:

$$\text{comp}^{\text{wor-ran}}(\varepsilon) = \inf_{\tilde{U}} \left\{ c(\tilde{U}) \mid e(\tilde{U}) \leq \varepsilon \right\}$$

where

$$e(\tilde{U}) = \sup_{f \in F} \int \left\| \Lambda(f) - \tilde{U}(\omega, f) \right\| \mu(d\omega)$$

$$c(\tilde{U}) = \sup_{f \in F} \int c(\tilde{U}(\omega, f), f) \mu(d\omega).$$

## $\epsilon$ -complexity of random algorithms II

- For the multivariate integration problem, it can be shown that

$$\mathit{comp}^{\mathit{wor-ran}}(\epsilon) = O\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon^2}\right).$$

- There is not curse of dimensionality.
- However: are random variables really random?
- We know that this is not the case: we only have pseudo-random numbers.
- Therefore, random algorithms are deterministic algorithms.
- A problem?

## Random algorithms not always a solution

- Sometimes even random algorithms cannot solve the curse of dimensionality when we evaluate algorithms using the worst case.
- Examples nonlinear optimization and the solution to PDE.
- An option is to evaluate the algorithm on basis of the average rather than the worst case.
- *The average case deterministic complexity* of a problem  $\Lambda$  is:

$$\text{comp}^{\text{ave-ran}}(\varepsilon) = \inf_U \{c(U) \mid e(U) \leq \varepsilon\}$$

where

$$e(U) = \int \| \Lambda(f) - U(f) \| \mu(df)$$

$$c(U) = \int c(U(f), f) \mu(df).$$

- Why deterministic? They are equivalent.
- It is difficult to define priors:  $\mu$ .