On the Computational Complexity of Solving Ordinary Differential Equations

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 Computational hardness of solving an Initial Value Problem (also called Cauchy's problem) of the form:

$$\mathbf{y}' = \mathbf{f}(t, \mathbf{y})$$

 $\mathbf{y}(t_0) = \mathbf{y}_0$

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but what means computer?

how complexity is measured?

Menu

What is a computer?

Back to our question: some maths

Computable analysis point of view

Parameterized complexity

Analog models compared to digital models

Conclusions



Laptop





Supercomputer

The highest-selling single computer model of all time

source: Guinness World Records

Servers



Laptop





Supercomputer



Commodore 64

Servers



ENIAC



Admiralty Fire Control Table



Kelvin's Tide Predicter



Differential Analyzer



Difference Engine



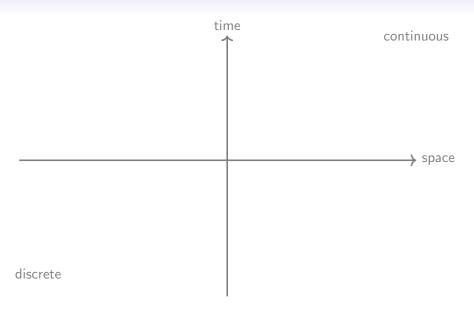
Linear Planimeter

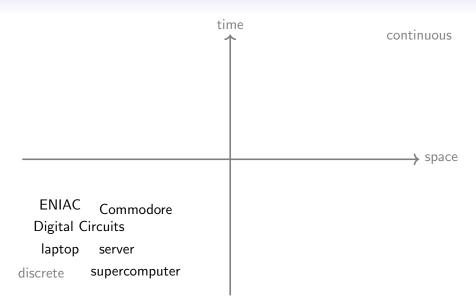


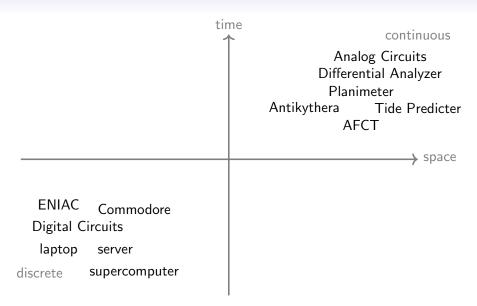
Slide Rule

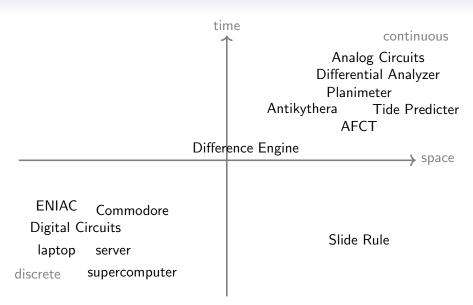


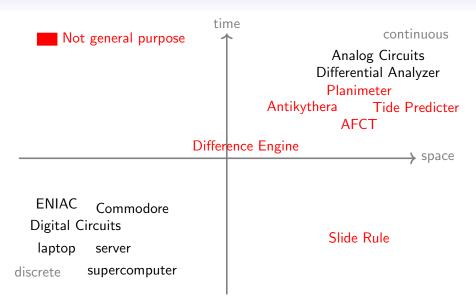
Antikythera mechanism

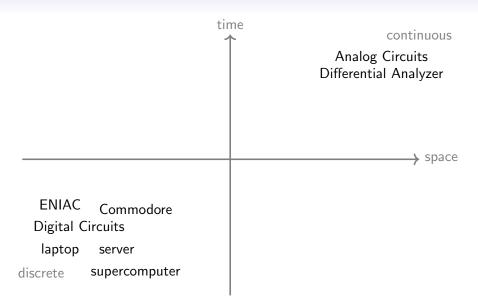


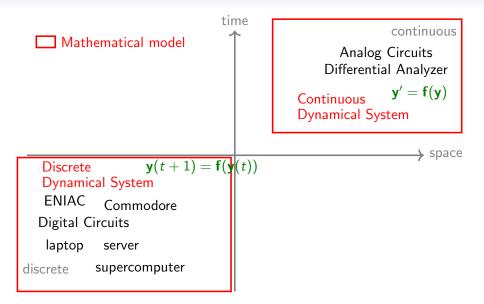


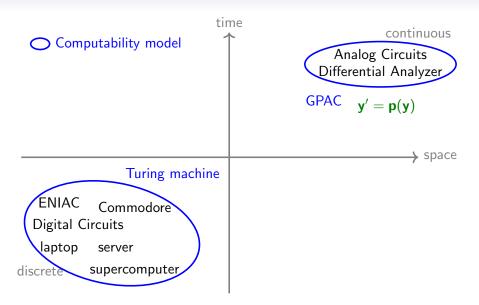












Our actual motivation

 Understand how analog models compare to classical digital models of computation.

- At computability level
- At complexity level.
- Continuous time analog models correspond to various classes of ordinary differential equations.
- Discussing hardness of solving IVP according to various classes of dynamics is basically discussing the computational power of various classes of analog models.

Sub-menu

What is a computer? The GPAC Programming with the GPAC

Shannon's General Purpose Analog Computer

• The **GPAC** is a mathematical abstraction from Claude Shannon (1941) of the **Differential Analyzers**.



 [Graça Costa 03]: This corresponds to polynomial Ordinary Differential Equations (pODEs), i.e.

$$\mathbf{y}' = \mathbf{p}(t, \mathbf{y})$$

 $\mathbf{y}(t_0) = \mathbf{y}_0$

where

p is a (vector of) polynomials.

A machine from 20th Century: Differential analyzers



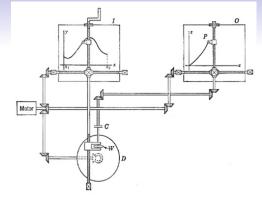
Vannevar Bush's 1938 mechanical Differential Analyser

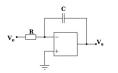
- Underlying principles: Lord Kelvin 1876.
- First ever built: V. Bush 1931 at MIT.
- Applications: from gunfire control up to aircraft design
- Intensively used during U.S. war effort.
 - Electronic versions from late 40s, used until 70s

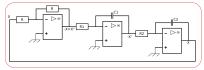
A machine from 21th Century: Analog Paradigm Model-1

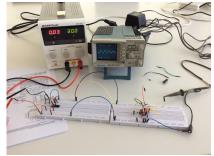


- http://analogparadigm.com
- Fully modular
- Basic version.
 - 4 integrators, 8 constants, 8 adders, 8 multipliers.
 - 14 kgs.







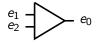


The General Purpose Analog Computer Shannon's 41 presentation:

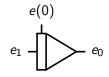
Basic units:

$$e_1 - \underbrace{k}_{k-1} e_0$$

constant: $e_0 = ke_1$
 $e_1 - \underbrace{k}_{l-1} e_0$
product: $e_0 = e_1e_2$



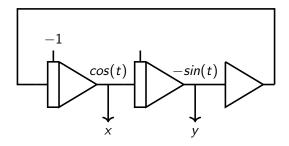
summer: $e_0 = -(e_1 + e_2)$



integrator: $e_0 = -\int_0^t (e_1(u)du + e(0))$

- (Feedback connections are allowed).
- A function is GPAC-generated if it corresponds to the output of some unit of a GPAC.

Cosinus and sinus: x = cos(t), y = sin(t)



$$\begin{cases} x'(t) = -y(t) \\ y'(t) = x(t) \\ x(0) = 1 \\ y(0) = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} x(t) = \cos(t) \\ y(t) = \sin(t) \end{cases}$$

Sub-menu

What is a computer? The GPAC Programming with the GPAC

How to transform initial-value problem

$$\begin{cases} y_1' = \sin^2 y_2 \\ y_2' = y_1 \cos y_2 - e^{e^{y_1} + t} \end{cases} \begin{cases} y_1(0) = 0 \\ y_2(0) = 0 \end{cases}$$

How to transform initial-value problem

$$\begin{cases} y'_1 = \sin^2 y_2 \\ y'_2 = y_1 \cos y_2 - e^{e^{y_1} + t} \end{cases}$$

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into a polynomial initial value problem

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into a polynomial initial value problem

$$\left\{\begin{array}{cccc}
y_1' &=& y_3^2 \\
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considering $y_3 = \sin y_2$

How to transform initial-value problem

$$\begin{cases} y_1' = \sin^2 y_2 \\ y_2' = y_1 \cos y_2 - e^{e^{y_1} + t} \end{cases} \begin{cases} y_1(0) = 0 \\ y_2(0) = 0 \end{cases}$$

into a polynomial initial value problem

considering $y_3 = \sin y_2, y_4 = \cos y_2$, $y_5 = e^{e^{y_1} + t}$

(a)

How to transform initial-value problem

$$\begin{cases} y_1' = \sin^2 y_2 \\ y_2' = y_1 \cos y_2 - e^{e^{y_1} + t} \end{cases} \begin{cases} y_1(0) = 0 \\ y_2(0) = 0 \end{cases}$$

into a polynomial initial value problem

$$\begin{cases} y_1' = y_3^2 \\ y_2' = y_1 y_4 - y_5 \\ y_3' = y_4 (y_1 y_4 - y_5) \end{cases} \begin{cases} y_1(0) = 0 \\ y_2(0) = 0 \\ y_3(0) = 0 \end{cases}$$

considering $y_3 = \sin y_2, y_4 = \cos y_2$, $y_5 = e^{e^{y_1} + t}$

How to transform initial-value problem

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into a polynomial initial value problem

$$\begin{cases} y_1' = y_3^2 \\ y_2' = y_1 y_4 - y_5 \\ y_3' = y_4 (y_1 y_4 - y_5) \\ y_4' = -y_3 (y_1 y_4 - y_5) \end{cases} \begin{cases} y_1(0) = 0 \\ y_2(0) = 0 \\ y_3(0) = 0 \\ y_4(0) = 1 \end{cases}$$

(a)

considering $y_3 = \sin y_2, y_4 = \cos y_2$, $y_5 = e^{e^{y_1} + t}$

How to transform initial-value problem

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into a polynomial initial value problem

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considering $y_3 = \sin y_2, y_4 = \cos y_2$, $y_5 = e^{e^{y_1} + t}, y_6 = e^{y_1}$

How to transform initial-value problem

$$\begin{cases} y_1' = \sin^2 y_2 \\ y_2' = y_1 \cos y_2 - e^{e^{y_1} + t} \end{cases} \begin{cases} y_1(0) = 0 \\ y_2(0) = 0 \end{cases}$$

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 $\langle \alpha \rangle$

considering $y_3 = \sin y_2, y_4 = \cos y_2$, $y_5 = e^{e^{y_1} + t}, y_6 = e^{y_1}$

Closure Properties

- The class of generated functions include all (analytic) common functions.
- It is stable by many operations:
 - ▶ if f and g can be generated, then f + g, f g, fg, $\frac{1}{f}$, $f \circ g$ can be generated.
- It is stable by ODE solving:
 - if f can be generated, and y satisfies y' = f(y) then y can be generated.
- A generated function must be analytic.
 - Famous analytic non-generable functions: [Shannon 41]
 - Euler's Gamma function $\Gamma(x) = \int_0^\infty t^{x-1} e^{-t} dt$ [Hölder 1887]
 - Riemann's Zeta function $\zeta(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^{x}}$ [Hilbert].
- The set of pODE computable constants (of the form f(1)) is a field.

Menu

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Computable analysis point of view

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Analog models compared to digital models

Conclusions

Our question

Computational hardness of solving an Initial Value Problem (also called Cauchy's problem) of the form:

$$\mathbf{y}' = \mathbf{f}(t, \mathbf{y})$$

 $\mathbf{y}(t_0) = \mathbf{y}_0$

Various classes of functions f:

f is continuous \leftarrow **f** is (locally) Lipchitz¹ \Leftarrow **f** is \mathcal{C}^k . $k \ge 1$. \leftarrow **f** is analytic² \leftarrow **f** is polynomial

$$\begin{array}{l} {}^{1}||\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{y}) - \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{y}')|| \leq L||\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{y}'|| \text{ for some } L. \\ {}^{2}\mathbf{f} \text{ is equal to its Taylor's expansion in every point.} \end{array}$$

Maths: Back to school

$$\begin{cases} \mathbf{y}' = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{y}(t)) \\ \mathbf{y}(0) = \mathbf{x} \end{cases}$$
(1)

Famous theorems:

Peano-Ascoli	if	f is continuous	then	existence of solutions
Cauchy - Lipschitz	if	f is Lipchitz ³		+ unicity of solutions
Picard - Lindelöf				
		f is \mathcal{C}^k , $k \ge 1$.		
Cauchy-Kowalevski	if	f is analytic ⁴		+ solutions are analytic
		f is polynomial		

Other facts:

• No restriction in considering ODEs in this form $\mathbf{y}' = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{y}(t))$.

 $||\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{y}) - \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{y}')|| \le L||\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{y}'||$ for some *L*.

⁴**f** is equal to its Taylor's expansion in every point.

Important preliminary

Discussing the hardness of the problem

• over $t \in [0, 1]$ (or any compact domain) is really different from



Classical numerical methods

Euler's method:

$$y_{i+1} = y_i + f(t_i, y_i)h \qquad (2)$$

$$t_{i+1} = t_i + h \tag{3}$$

Runge Kutta's 4th oder method:

$$y_{i+1} = y_i + 1/6(k_1 + 2k_2 + 2k_3 + k_4)$$
 (4)

$$k_1 = hf(t_i, y_i) \tag{5}$$

$$k_2 = hf(t_i + h/2, y_i + k_1/2)$$
(6)

$$k_3 = hf(t_i + h/2, y_i + k_2/2)$$
 (7)

$$k_4 = hf(t_i + h, y_i + k_3)$$
 (8)

<your prefered method >

. . .

Work well and are efficient over a compact domain $t \in [0, 1]$, assuming f Lipschitz

But are **NOT polynomial** in *t* when $t \in \mathbb{R}$.

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Sub-menu

Computable analysis point of view Basic definitions from computable analysis

- Computable analysis point of view
- About proofs
- About complexity

The Starting Point of Recursive Analysis⁵

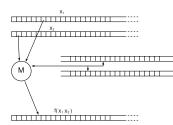
The "computable" numbers may be described briefly as the real numbers whose expressions as a decimal are calculable by a finite means.



Cited from A. M. Turing, "On computable numbers, with an application to the Entscheidungsproblem". Proc. London Math. Soc. 42 (1936) 230-265.

⁵This part is mostly borrowed from Vasko Brattka's Tutorial, CIE 2005

Computable Functions: informal presentation for $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$



A tape represents a real number Each real number x is represented via an infinite sequence $(x_n)_n \in \mathbb{Q}$,

$$||x_n-x|| \leq 2^{-n}.$$

M behaves like a Turing Machine Read-only one-way input tapes Write-only one-way output tape. M outputs a representation of $f(x_1, x_2)$ from representations of x_1 , x_2 .

Sub-menu

Computable analysis point of view Basic definitions from computable analysis Computable analysis point of view About proofs About complexity

Computable analysis point of view: impossible in the general case.

Theorem (Pour-El Richards 79)

There exists some computable $f : [0,1] \times [-1,1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that ordinary differential equation y' = f(t,y), has no computable solution over any closed domain.

Computable analysis point of view: impossible in the general case.

Theorem (Pour-El Richards 79)

There exists some computable $f : [0,1] \times [-1,1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that ordinary differential equation y' = f(t,y), has no computable solution over any closed domain.

However:

- Imposing unicity and existence of solutions leads to computability [Ruohonen 96].
- ► If f is continuous and y is the unique solution of x' = f(t, x), x(t₀) = x₀, then the operator which maps (f, t₀, x₀) to y is computable [Graça Collins 09]

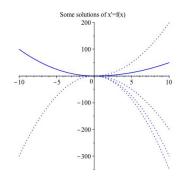
Sub-menu

Computable analysis point of view

- Basic definitions from computable analysis Computable analysis point of view
- About proofs
- About complexity

Non unicity: a classical counter-example Solutions over \mathbb{R} of f continuous such that:

$$\begin{cases} y' = f(t, y) \\ y(0) = 0 \end{cases} \quad \text{with} \quad \begin{cases} f(t, y) = \frac{2y}{t} \text{ for } t \neq 0 \\ f(0, y) = 0 \end{cases}$$



all functions y_{C_1,C_2} with $C_1, C_2 \in \mathbb{R}$, where

$$y_{C_1,C_2}(t) = \begin{cases} C_1 t^2 & \text{if } t < 0 \\ C_2 t^2 & \text{if } t \ge 0 \end{cases}$$

:

Proof IDEA of uncomputability result: Dispersers/Collectors

• A Disperser: consider K(x, y) given by



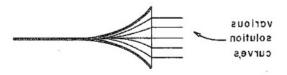
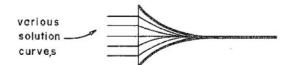
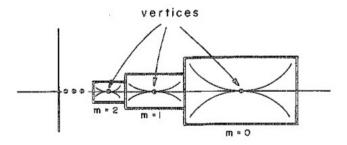


Fig. 1b. A typical collector.

A Collector:



Proof idea of uncomputability result: How the considered function looks like?



A sequence of "boxes" that become progressively smaller as m increases, and the vertexes converge to the

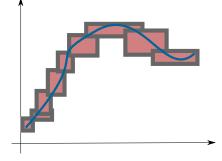
origin.

- Each box is made of a "collector" and of a "disperser".
- This provides computability of the function.
- A small "pulse" is placed at the vertex of some of the box:
 - For the mth box, this pulse is positive, negative, or zero, depending on whether m ∈ A, m ∈ B, or m ∉ A ∪ B
 - where (A, B) is a fixed recursively inseparable pair of sets.
- By reading $x = x_m$ at the aperture of disperser *m* within an error less than half the size of the aperture, one knows whether $x \in A$ or $x \in B$.

Proof idea of computability: Why unicity suffices to get computability Exhaustive algorithm:

- Generate all possible (partial) coverings of the state space
- Coverings of arbitrary small diameters exist.
- By a reasoning (similar to Peano-Ascoli's theorem), they must contain at least a solution.
- So just keep testing coverings until you find an appropriate one





Sub-menu

Computable analysis point of view

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Computational complexity over a compact domain

Summary:

Assumptions on <i>f</i>	Upper bound	Lower bound
ODE with unique solution	Computable	Arbitrary high complex
Lipschitz ODE <i>f</i>	PSPACE	PSPACE
f is of class \mathcal{C}^1	PSPACE	PSPACE
f is of class \mathcal{C}^k , $k>1$	PSPACE	СН
f is analytic	Р	Р

Results due to [Miller 1970], [Ko 1983], [Müller, 1987]
 [Kawamura, 2010] and [Kawamura et al., 2014]

Over non-compact domains?

- The previous results are only valid in compact sets.
- Actually, this is provably impossible to do it in polynomial time over non-compact sets: consider

$$\begin{cases} y_1' = y_1 \\ y_2' = y_1 y_2 \\ y_3' = y_2 y_3 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ y_n' = y_{n-1} y_n \end{cases}$$

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 is solution of
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► This cannot be computed in a time polynomial over R,

• since just writing this value in binary cannot be done in polynomial time.

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Parameterized complexity

This is then natural to use parameterized complexity

 i.e. complexity is measured against one or more extra parameters.

Example:

Proposition

If (α, β) is the maximal interval of existence of the solution y of an ODE y' = f(t, y) and $\beta < +\infty$ then y(t) is unbounded as $t \to \beta$

Some natural examples:

- Growth of functions or of their derivatives.
- Length of the solution curve y between y(0) := y(0; 0, y(0))and y(t) := y(t; 0, y(0)).

Parameterized complexity for analytic functions

Fact: Assume **f** is analytic on some compact $K \subset dom f$. Then

$$|D^{\beta}\mathbf{f}(x)| \le C_{\mathcal{K}}^{|\beta|+1}\beta! \tag{9}$$

for some C_K for all $\beta \in \mathbb{N}^d$ and $x \in K$.

Theorem (Kawamura Thies Ziegler 2018)

Assume:

- 1. The right-hand side $f: D \subset \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}^d$ is analytic and computable
- 2. The solution $\mathbf{y}(t) := \mathbf{y}(t; 0, y_0)$ exists for all $t \in [0, 1]$
- Restricted to K := y([0,1]; 0, y₀) the integer C is a derivative bound for f (i.e. (9) holds).
- 4. The algorithm computing **f** gives a 2^{-n} approximation of $\mathbf{f}(x)$ in time poly(n + C) on any $\mathbf{x} \in K$.

Then $\mathbf{y}(t)$ can be computed in polynomial time from \mathbf{y}_0 , $t \in [0, 1]$ and $C(\mathbf{y}_0)$.

Idea of the proof

- 1. Idea 1: **Computing a local solution**: A simple truncation of power series based approach suffices to compute a local solution on some small time interval $[t_0, t_0 + \delta]$ in time polynomial in $n + C(y_0)$.
 - See complexity analysis from [Moiske Müller 93] of computing an analytic function from the coefficients of its power series.

• Key remark for the slide to come: $\delta = \frac{1}{2(d+1)C^2}$ is ok.

- 2. Idea 2: Extending to a global solution: To get a solution on a bigger interval this algorithm is iterated several times.
 - it suffices to show that polynomially in C(y₀) many iterations suffice and that it suffices to compute the intermediate values in each iteration with polynomial precision.

Idea 2: Extending to a global solution

Algorithm $SOLVE - IVP(\mathbf{f}, y_0, t, n, C)$ $t_{curr} \leftarrow 0$ **y** \leftarrow APPROX(\mathbf{y}_0, m) • $h \leftarrow \frac{1}{2(d+1)C^2}$ • while $t_{curr} + h < t$ do ► v ← $LOCALSOLUTION(\mathbf{y}, h, m, C)$ \blacktriangleright $t_{curr} \leftarrow t_{curr} + h$ return LOCALSOLUTION($\mathbf{f}, \mathbf{y}, t$ t_{curr}, m, C

Idea 2: Extending to a global solution Analysis:

Algorithm

 $SOLVE - IVP(\mathbf{f}, y_0, t, n, C)$

- $t_{curr} \leftarrow 0$
- **y** \leftarrow APPROX(**y**₀, m)
- $h \leftarrow \frac{1}{2(d+1)C^2}$
- while $t_{curr} + h \leq t$ do
 - **y** \leftarrow LOCALSOLUTION(**y**, h, m, C)
 - $t_{curr} \leftarrow t_{curr} + h$

return

 $LOCALSOLUTION(\mathbf{f}, \mathbf{y}, t - t_{curr}, m, C)$

- $N = 2(d+1)C^2$ steps.
- Error of type 1: precision 2^{-m}
- Error of type 2: instead of solving with initial value y_i we start from an approximation z_i:
 - From Gronwall's Lemma, if $\|\mathbf{y}_0 - \mathbf{z}_0\| \le \epsilon$ then $\|\mathbf{y}(t; y_0) - \mathbf{y}(t, z_0)\| \le 2\epsilon$ for $t < \frac{1}{2(d+1)C^2}$.
- The total error E satisfies $E \leq 2^{N+1-m}$.
 - by induction $E_N \leq 2^{N+1-m} 2^{-m}$ since $E_0 \leq 2^{-m}$, and $E_{k+1} \leq 2E_k + 2^{-m}$
- It suffices to choose $m \ge n + 2(d+1)C^2 + 1$ to prove the theorem.

Parameterized complexity for **f** polynomial

Consider

.

$$\mathbf{y}' = \mathbf{p}(t, \mathbf{y})$$
$$\mathbf{y}(0) = \mathbf{y}_0$$

where \mathbf{p} is (some vector of) polynomials.

Theorem (Bournez Graça Pouly 2012) Then $\mathbf{y}(t)$ can be computed in $poly(t + \log ||y_0|| + \ell)$ time from $t \in \mathbb{R}$, \mathbf{y}_0 , \mathbf{p} , $||y_0||$ and ℓ . where

$$\ell = \int_{t_0}^t \max(1, \left\|y(u)
ight\|_\infty)^{\mathsf{deg}(p)} du pprox \textit{length of y over}\left[t_0, t
ight]$$

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And conversely ...

Turing machines can be simulated by Ordinary Differential Equations of type:

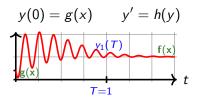
$$\mathbf{y}' = \mathbf{p}(t, \mathbf{y})$$

 $\mathbf{y}(t_0) = \mathbf{y}_0$

What about complexity?

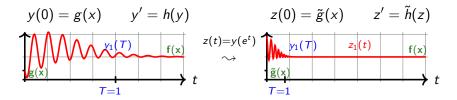
Time complexity for continuous systems

Variable *t* is rather arbitrary.



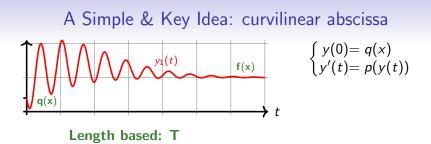
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Time complexity for continuous systems

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$$\ell(t) = \text{length of } y \text{ over } [0, t]$$
$$= \int_0^t \|p(y(u))\|_{\infty} du$$

Consider parameterization

$$t =$$
length of y over $[0, t]$

I.e.: Follow curve at constant speed.

Main Statement: Complexity

 Theorem⁶ Any polynomial time computable function can be computed in polynomial length, and conversely.

⁶OB, D. Graça, A. Pouly ICALP Track B Best Paper Award [?], Journal of the ACM [?]

Main Statement: Complexity

- **Theorem⁶** Any polynomial time computable function can be computed in polynomial length, and conversely.
- The notion of polynomial time computable function can be defined using pODE only !!

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Main Statement: Complexity

- **Theorem**⁶ Any polynomial time computable function can be computed in polynomial length, and conversely.
- The notion of polynomial time computable function can be defined using pODE only !!
 - No need to talk of Turing machines, or equivalent concept to define polynomial time computable functions.

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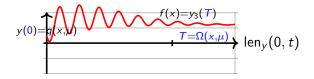
Formal Theorem

Let a, b ∈ Q.
f ∈ C⁰([a, b], ℝ) is polynomial-time computable iff

▶ y satisfies a pODE

▶ $y_{1..m}$ is $e^{-\mu}$ -close to f(x) after a polynomial length

Picture:

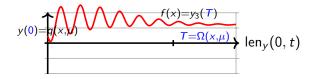


Formal Theorem

Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Q}$. • $f \in C^0([a, b], \mathbb{R})$ is polynomial-time computable iff

∃ polynomials p, q, Ω s.t. $\forall x \in \text{dom } f$, there exists a (unique) y satisfying for all $t \in \mathbb{R}_+$: ▶ $y(0) = q(x, \mu)$ and y'(t) = p(y(t)) with $||y'(t)||_{\infty} \ge 1$ ▶ y satisfies a pODE ▶ if $\text{len}_y(0, t) \ge \Omega(||x||_{\infty}, \mu)$ then $||y_{1..m}(t) - f(x)||_{\infty} \le e^{-\mu}$ ▶ $y_{1..m}$ is $e^{-\mu}$ -close to f(x) after a polynomial length

Picture:



For Discrete People

Fix a "reasonable" way to encode words w, length of input, and decision:

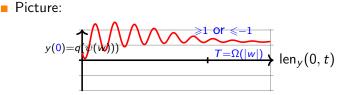
For example $\psi(w) = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{|w|} w_i k^{-i}, |w|\right)$, and $\geq 1, \leq -1$. Then:

• $\mathcal{L} \subseteq \{0,1\}^*$ is polynomial-time computable iff

▶ y satisfies a pODE

decision is made after a polynomial length

 \blacktriangleright and corresponds to $\mathcal L$



For Discrete People

Fix a "reasonable" way to encode words w, length of input, and decision:

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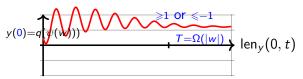
• $\mathcal{L} \subseteq \{0,1\}^*$ is polynomial-time computable iff

 \blacksquare \exists polynomials p, q, Ω s.t. $\forall w, q$ there exists a (unique) y satisfying for all $t \in \mathbb{R}_+$: • $y(0) = q(\psi(w))$ and y'(t) = p(y(t)) with $||y'(t)||_{\infty} \ge 1$ ► y satisfies a pODE • if $\operatorname{len}_{v}(0,t) \ge \Omega(|w|)$ then $|y_{1}(t)| \ge 1$ decision is made after a polynomial length

 \blacktriangleright and corresponds to $\mathcal L$

Picture:

 \blacktriangleright $w \in \mathcal{L}$ iff $y_1(t) \ge 1$



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Conclusion/Take Home Message

- Programming with/Solving ODEs is simple and fun.
- Solving ODEs over $t \in \mathbb{R}$ is not polynomial.
- Needs for some parameterized algorithms.
 - polynomial in C(y)
 polynomial in length

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 - Computable functions.
 - Polynomial Time Computable Functions
 - ▶ NP, PSPACE, ...?

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 - Revisiting computation theory with pODEs