

Lecture 16

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1 Today

1. Depth reduction in arithmetic circuits
2. Lower bounds on circuit size

2 Depth Reduction in Arithmetic Formulae

Recall the theorem of Ben-Or and Cleve [BOC92] from last time.

Theorem 1 *If f is computed by a polynomial size formula, then f can also be computed by a polynomial size register machine using only 3 registers.*

Let us write $\text{BP-size}(f)$ (for branching process size) to denote the size of the smallest such 3 register machine computing f .

We essentially proved Theorem 1 by noting that

$$f = f_1 + f_2 \Rightarrow \text{BP-size}(f) \leq \text{BP-size}(f_1) + \text{BP-size}(f_2)$$

and

$$f = f_1 \times f_2 \Rightarrow \text{BP-size}(f) \leq 2[\text{BP-size}(f_1) + \text{BP-size}(f_2)].$$

This is not quite enough to prove the theorem, however, since it is not clear at this point how many times we will incur this factor 2 blow-up in the BP-size. In particular, this will only imply the result if we can argue that f is in fact computed by a low depth formula.

The idea for depth reduction in arithmetic formulae is essentially the same as in the boolean case, which goes as follows. First, find an interior gate v such that $(2/3)\text{size}(f) \geq \text{size}(v) \geq (1/3)\text{size}(f)$. This is always possible due to the tree structure of the circuit. Intuitively, the size conditions ensure that the sub-formula computing v and the sub-formula computing f conditioned on the value of v are of comparable size, and so we should try to compute these in parallel.

To be precise, we create two copies of the sub-circuit computing f conditioned on the value of v : one hard-wired with the value $v = 0$, and the other with $v = 1$. To compute f , then, we compute v along with the conditional values of f in parallel and output the correct value once v is observed.

We cannot apply this program directly in the arithmetic setting, since the gate v may take an infinite set of values, but the idea is essentially the same.

If we condition on knowing the value of v , then f is a linear function of v , i.e., $f = Av + B$ for polynomials A and B . Now we can compute A , v , and B in parallel as before to achieve the depth reduction. Thus, in the setting of Theorem 1, we may assume that the formula computing f has logarithmic depth, and hence we incur only a polynomial blow-up in the BP-size.

Things will be much more difficult with arithmetic circuits (as opposed to formulae) because in this case f may depend on a gate v in a significantly non-linear fashion.

3 Depth Reduction in Arithmetic Circuits

The main result here is the following theorem from [VSBR83].

Theorem 2 *If f is a polynomial of degree $\leq d$ and is computed by a circuit of size $\leq s$, then f can also be computed by a circuit of size $\text{poly}(s, d)$ with depth $\leq (\log s)(\log d)$.*

We would like to proceed analogously to the case of arithmetic formulae, but in order to do this, we need a way to quantify how useful the partial functions f_v are for computing f . The key here is to introduce a notion of partial derivative.

Definition 3 *Given an arithmetic circuit computing a function f , and two gates v and w , we write*

$$\partial_w(v) = \left. \frac{\partial \tilde{f}_{v,w}}{\partial w} \right|_{w=f_w},$$

where $\tilde{f}_{v,w}(x_1, \dots, x_n, w)$ denotes the partial function f_v as a function of the value of the gate w .

It is instructive to think of $\partial_w(v)$ as a measure of the number of paths from w to v in the circuit. We will not make this statement entirely precise, but one useful fact is that if there are no paths from w to v , then we do indeed have $\partial_w(v) = 0$.

Now, to compute f , we will compute all the f_w and all the $\partial_w(v)$ in some order. In particular, at stage i , we will compute:

1. all the f_w with $2^i \leq \deg(f_w) \leq 2^{i+1}$
2. all the $\partial_w(v)$ with v and w satisfying $2^i \leq \deg(f_v) - \deg(f_w) \leq 2^{i+1}$ and $\deg(f_w) \leq \deg(v) \leq 2 \deg(w)$.

If we can manage to do this, it is clear we will have computed f by stage $\log d$ since f has degree $\leq d$. Before we can specify the details of this computation, we need one more definition.

Definition 4 *We write*

$$\mathcal{G}_m = \{t \mid \deg(f_t) > m, f_t = f_{t_1} \times f_{t_2}, \deg(f_{t_i}) \leq m \forall i\}.$$

Now, Theorem 2 will follow from the following claim.

Claim 5 *For all v, w such that $m < \deg(f_v) \leq 2m$ and $\deg(f_w) \leq m < \deg(f_v) \leq 2 \deg(f_w)$, we have*

1. $f_v = \sum_{t \in \mathcal{G}_m} f_t \partial_t(v)$
2. $\partial_w(v) = \sum_{t \in \mathcal{G}_m} \partial_w(t) \partial_t(v)$

Notice that, if we have computed all the values f_w and $\partial_w(v)$ from stage i above, then it follows from Claim 5 that we can compute all the values in stage $i + 1$ using a circuit of depth at most $\log s$ (this is to compute a sum of at most s values). Hence, since there can be at most $\log d$ stages, the theorem follows.

Proof The proof will be by a fairly simple induction on the depth of the circuit. Also, note that it will suffice to prove (1), since (2) follows by applying ∂_w to both sides.

An easy case to pick off is when v itself lies in \mathcal{G}_m . In this case, we can write (1) as

$$f_v = f_v \partial_v(v) + \sum_{t \in \mathcal{G}_m \setminus \{v\}} f_t \partial_t(v).$$

But since there are no paths among elements of \mathcal{G}_m , $\partial_t(v) = 0$ for every t , and further, $\partial_v(v) = 1$, and so (1) reduces simply to $f_v = f_v$.

Now, there are two distinct cases to check for the induction, depending on whether gate v is an addition or a multiplication gate.

First, if $f_v = f_{v_1} + f_{v_2}$, then by induction on v_1 and v_2 (here we assume that the circuit is suitably homogenized so that f_{v_1} and f_{v_2} both satisfy the degree conditions)

$$f_v = f_{v_1} + f_{v_2} = \sum_{t \in \mathcal{G}_m} f_t \partial_t(v_1) + \sum_{t \in \mathcal{G}_m} f_t \partial_t(v_2) = \sum_{t \in \mathcal{G}_m} f_t \partial_t(v),$$

since ∂_t is a linear operator when we conflate v with f_v .

Next, if $f_v = f_{v_1} \times f_{v_2}$, then either v_1 and v_2 both have degree $\leq m$, in which case $v \in \mathcal{G}_m$ and we are done (see above), or one of the two gates (say, v_1) has degree $> m$ which in turn implies that v_2 has degree $\leq m$. Thus, by induction we have

$$f_{v_1} = \sum_{t \in \mathcal{G}_m} f_t \partial_t(v_1).$$

However, by the product rule for partial derivatives, for any $t \in \mathcal{G}_m$ we have

$$\partial_t(v) = f_{v_1} \partial_t(v_2) + \partial_t(v_1) f_{v_2} = \partial_t(v_1) f_{v_2},$$

since there are certainly no paths from t to v_2 (by considering degrees). Hence, (1) follows from $f_{v_1} = \sum_{t \in \mathcal{G}_m} f_t \partial_t(v_1)$ by multiplying through by f_{v_2} . ■

4 Lower Bounds

At this point, we have seen some upper bounds on circuit size and depth by explicitly constructing or manipulating a circuit. On the other hand, it is generally much more difficult to give super-linear lower bounds for any reasonably expressive model of computation. For arithmetic circuits, at least, we will see that it is not so hard.

Consider a circuit computing the function $f : \mathbb{F}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{F}^n$ that maps (x_1, \dots, x_n) to (x_1^r, \dots, x_n^r) for some fixed integer r . One of the main results of Strassen

[Str75] is that this function has no arithmetic circuit of size smaller than $n \log r$. From this result, one can also show (see [BS83]) that the function sending $(x_1, \dots, x_n, y_1, \dots, y_r)$ to $\sum_{i=1}^r y_i x_i^r$ has no size $n \log r$ circuit.

The proof of Strassen is almost trivial, although it does rely on some (still reasonably easy) results from algebraic geometry. The idea is to write the gates of a circuit computing f as polynomial constraints that equate their input to their output. Precisely, for an addition gate $v = u + w$ we add the constraint

$$y_v - (y_u + y_w) = 0,$$

and for a multiplication gate $v' = u' \times w'$ we add the constraint

$$y_{v'} - y_{u'} y_{w'} = 0.$$

Finally we add constraints enforcing the values of the output gates (to some fixed values).

If a circuit of size s can compute f , then in this manner we obtain a system of s polynomial equations that are either linear or quadratic. Now consider a primitive r -th root of unity ω in the field (this is essentially the only assumption that needs to be made on the field). The powers $1, \omega, \omega^2, \dots, \omega^{r-1}$ are all distinct, and taking any n of these (with replacement) as inputs to f will evaluate to $(1, \dots, 1)$. Hence, if we set all of the output gates to 1 in our polynomial constraints, the resulting system of polynomial equations has at least r^n common zeros.

However, it follows from a result in algebraic geometry known as Bézout's Theorem that a system of s polynomial equations of degree ≤ 2 has either $\leq 2^s$ common zeros, or else has an infinite number. Since all the solutions to $f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = (1, \dots, 1)$ are roots of unity, of which there are a finite number, the former case of Bézout's Theorem applies and we obtain

$$r^n \leq 2^s \Rightarrow s \geq n \log r.$$

References

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