

Lecture 10

Lower bounds for constant-depth circuits

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Notes:

Let R_n^ℓ be the set of all restrictions on n variables that leave precisely ℓ variables unset. Since decision tree complexity $D(f) = D(\neg f)$, we can restate the decision tree version of Håstad Switching Lemma as follows:

Lemma 10.1 (Håstad's Switching Lemma) Let $b \in \{0, 1\}$ and $f : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ be a function with $C_b(f) \leq r$ then for ρ chosen uniformly at random from R_n^ℓ ,

$$\Pr[D(f|_\rho) \geq s] < \left(\frac{8\ell r}{n - \ell}\right)^s.$$

We use this to derive lower bounds for AC circuits computing Parity.

Theorem 10.2 Any AC circuit computing $Parity_n$ using size S and depth d satisfies $S \geq 2^{n^{1/(d-1)}/17}$.

Proof Let C be any AC circuit of size S and depth d . For each node v in C let f_v be the function of the inputs computed at node v . We count the height of a node v to be the maximum number of AND or OR gates on any path from v to an input node.

Define $n_1 = n/17$ and, more generally, let

$$n_{i+1} = \frac{n}{17(17 \log_2 S)^i}$$

for $0 \leq i < d$. We will show that for each $1 \leq i \leq d$ there is a restriction $\rho_i \in R_n^{n_i}$ such that for every node v at height at most i above the leaves of C , $D(f_v|_{\rho_i}) \leq \log_2 S$.

For any node v of height 1, either $C_0(f_v) = 1$ or $C_1(f_v) = 1$. Therefore we can apply the switching lemma with $r = 1$, $s = \log_2 S$ and $\ell = n_1 = n/17$ to say that for $\rho \in R_n^{n_1}$, the probability

$$\Pr[D(f_v|_\rho) \geq \log_2 S] < \left(\frac{8n/17}{n - n/17}\right)^s = 2^{-s} = 1/S.$$

Therefore by a union bound over the at most S nodes of the probability that there exists a node v of height 1 with $D(f_v|_\rho) \geq \log_2 S$ is strictly less than 1. By the probabilistic method there must exist a restriction ρ satisfying this property for all gates of height 1. Call this restriction ρ_1 .

For the inductive step, consider nodes u of height $i + 1$ for $i > 0$. Observe that if u is an OR node then by the inductive hypothesis, $D(f_u|_{\rho_i}) \leq \log_2 S$ for some $\rho_i \in R_n^{n_i}$ and all nodes v that are

inputs to u . It follows that $C_1(f_v|_{\rho_i}) \leq \log_2 S$ for all such nodes and therefore $C_1(f_u|_{\rho_i}) \leq \log_2 S$. We apply the switching lemma with $r = \log_2 S$, $s = \log_2 S$ and $\ell = n_{i+1}$ to say that for ρ chosen randomly from $R_{n_i}^{n_{i+1}}$,

$$\Pr[D(f_v|_{\rho_i\rho}) \geq \log_2 S] = \Pr[D((f_v|_{\rho_i})|_{\rho}) \geq \log_2 S] < \left(\frac{8n_{i+1} \log_2 S}{n_i - n_{i+1}}\right)^s = \left(\frac{8n_i/17}{n_i(1 - 1/(17 \log_2 S))}\right)^s < 2^{-s} = 1/S.$$

Similarly, if v is an AND gate we use C_0 and if v is a NOT gate we simply complement the decision tree of its child. Since $(f_v|_{\rho_i}|_{\rho} = f_v|_{\rho_i\rho}$ the probability that a random ρ fails at some node of height $i + 1$, given that lower heights have all been successful, is then < 1 . Again using the probabilistic method we obtain an $\rho_{i+1} = \rho_i\rho$ in $R_{n_i}^{n_{i+1}}$ as required.

Now $D((Parity_n)|_{\rho_d}) = n_d$ since $(Parity_n)|_{\rho_d}$ is another parity function or its negation and therefore must have decision tree height n_d . Therefore $\log_2 S \geq n_d = \frac{n}{17^d(\log_2 S)^{d-1}}$. Rewriting we obtain that $(17 \log_2 S)^d \geq n$ and therefore $S \geq 2^{n^{1/d}/17}$.

We can do a little better by only applying ρ_{d-1} and using the fact that $C_0(Parity_{n_{d-1}}) = C_1(Parity_{n_{d-1}}) = n_{d-1}$. If the output gate is an AND gate, say, then each node v at height $d - 1$ has $C_0((f_v)|_{\rho_{d-1}}) \leq \log_2 S$ and therefore the output has C_0 value at most $\log_2 S$. If the output is an OR gate then we use that $C_1((f_v)|_{\rho_{d-1}}) \leq \log_2 S$ and so the output has 1-certificate complexity C_1 at most $\log_2 S$. Therefore $\log_2 S \geq n_{d-1} = \frac{n}{17^{d-1}(\log_2 S)^{d-2}}$. It follows that $(17 \log_2 S)^{d-1} \geq n$. Therefore $S \geq 2^{n^{1/(d-1)}/17}$ as required. \square

In particular, this proves that Parity is not in AC^0 . In fact, polynomial-size AC circuits for parity must have much more than constant depth.

Corollary 10.3 The depth complexity of polynomial-size AC circuits for *Parity* is $\Theta(\log n / \log \log n)$

Proof If we set the circuit size S to be polynomial in n then we must have that $n^{1/(d-1)}/17$ is at most $\log_2 S$ which is $O(\log n)$. Therefore d is $\Omega(\log_{\log n} n) = \Omega(\log n / \log \log n)$. Previously, we showed that there are AC circuits of polynomial size and $O(\log n / \log \log n)$ depth for any NC^1 function. \square

Here's one important corollary that I did not get to in class. It was part of the original motivation for Furst, Saxe, and Sipser.

Lemma 10.4 There is an oracle A such that $PH^A \neq PSPACE^A$.

Proof Define the language

$$Parity(A) = \{1^n : |A \cap \{0, 1\}^n| \text{ is odd}\}.$$

Clearly $Parity(A) \in PSPACE^A$ since a Turing machine with $O(n)$ space can make all 2^n calls to A on elements of $\{0, 1\}$ and count the number of accepted strings.

Now, as we have seen, we can view each Σ_k^p or Π_k^p algorithm as an unbounded fan-in circuit with \vee 's of fan-in $2^{q(n)}$ for each \exists quantifier and \wedge 's of the same fan-in for each \forall quantifier for some polynomial q . Moreover, when we add the ability to make oracles calls we can extend the

last \exists quantifier to guess the values of all oracle calls so that polynomial-time predicate depends only on the conjunction of the answers to its oracle calls. We can view each oracle answer $A(y)$ for $y \in \{0, 1\}^n$ as an input variable to our circuits. Therefore since the input a Σ_k^p or Π_k^p algorithm with oracle for A computing $Parity(A)$ yields an unbounded fan-in circuit of depth $k + 2$ and size $2^{O(kq(n))}$ that computes $Parity_{2^n}$. Letting $N = 2^n$, these have size $2^{\log^{O(1)} N}$ which is impossible for any constant k so $Parity(A) \in PSPACE^A - PH^A$. \square

10.1 Unbounded fan-in circuits with modular counting gates

In the above we have seen that Parity is hard for unbounded fan-in circuits. What happens if we add unbounded fan-in parity gates \oplus to the circuits? These gates compute the sum of the inputs modulo 2. We can generally think about the analogous computation modulo p but since we need Boolean values for the other gates we consider the MOD_p gates given by

$$MOD_p(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \equiv 0 \pmod{p} \\ 1 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Definition 10.5 Let $AC^0[p]$ denote the set of functions $f : \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^*$ computable by constant-depth unbounded fan-in circuits of \neg , \vee , and MOD_p gates. (For convenience we don't include unbounded fan-in \wedge gates since they are not necessary.) A common alternative notation this is ACC_p^0 where ACC stands for alternative circuits with counters. Also define $ACC = \bigcup_p AC[p] = \bigcup_p ACC_p^0$.

Theorem 10.6 (Razborov, Smolensky) $MOD_p \notin AC^0[q]$ for all primes $p \neq q$.

Since we easily have $MOD_p \leq_{AC^0} Majority$ we easily have:

Corollary 10.7 $Majority \notin AC^0[p]$ for all primes p .

Both of the above statements can be extended to prime powers involving distinct primes. We will not prove this in its full generality. For simplicity we will just show that $\oplus \notin AC^0[q]$ for any odd prime q . We will obtain a lower bound nearly as strong as for AC^0 .

Theorem 10.8 Any $AC[p]$ circuit computing \oplus on n bits in size S and depth d must have $S \geq \frac{1}{50} q^{n^{1/(2d)/(q-1)}}$.

Proof The proof of this theorem introduces the Method of Approximation. The general idea of this method is to consider a class of approximating functions and to define an approximator \tilde{g} for each gate g in the given circuit C . If gate g has inputs y_1, \dots, y_ℓ where the y_i themselves depend on the input x then we require that $\tilde{g}(y) = g(y)$ for all but at most an ϵ fraction of x . If we denote the output of the circuit C by $C(x)$ then the above will show that $\tilde{C}(x) = C(x)$ except for at most an $S\epsilon$ fraction of inputs x . If one can show that any approximator in the class must disagree from the function to be computed in at least a δ fraction of inputs, then $S\epsilon \geq \delta$ which yields a lower bound of $S \geq \delta/\epsilon$.

The class of approximators we will consider will be polynomials over \mathbb{F}_q of somewhat small total degree.

Observe that by Fermat's Little Theorem since q is prime

$$\text{MOD}_q(y_1, \dots, y_\ell) = (y_1 + \dots + y_\ell)^{q-1}.$$

In this case there is loss at all and if we have polynomials of degree d for each of the y_i then the degree of $\text{MOD}_q(y_1, \dots, y_\ell)$ is at most $(q-1)d$.

Similarly $\neg y = (1-y)$ which is also exact.

The place we will approximate is in computing $\vee(y_1, \dots, y_\ell)$. If we wanted to do this exactly we would use the polynomial $1 - \prod_{i=1}^{\ell} (1 - y_i)$ which has degree equal to the sum of the degrees of the y_i which might be very large.

Instead, we use the following trick using the probabilistic method due to Razborov, which is a simpler form of the construction of Valiant-Vazirani.

Choose \vec{r} uniformly at random from \mathbb{F}_q^ℓ and consider $\sum_i r_i y_i$ in \mathbb{F}_q . Now if $\vee_{i=1}^{\ell} y_i = 0$ then $\sum_{i=1}^{\ell} r_i y_i = 0$. On the other hand if $\vee_{i=1}^{\ell} y_i = 1$ then $\Pr[\sum_{i=1}^{\ell} r_i y_i = 0] = 1/q$. Therefore $\Pr[\sum_{i=1}^{\ell} r_i y_i)^{q-1} \neq \vee_{i=1}^{\ell} y_i] \leq 1/q$.

To improve the approximation for this \vee gate well we will do this k times independently and take the \vee of the result. Therefore,

$$\Pr[1 - \prod_{j=1}^k (1 - \sum_{i=1}^{\ell} r_{ij} y_i)^{q-1} \neq \vee_{i=1}^{\ell} y_i] \leq q^{-k}.$$

Now the y_i depend on the input vector x so for any fixed input over a random choice of the k vectors \vec{r} , the expected fraction of errors is at most q^{-k} . Therefore averaging over all inputs and random vectors we get an error fraction at most q^{-k} . It follows that there is some choice of the random vectors that makes an error on at most a q^{-k} fraction of inputs. Fix that random choice and define the approximator for that gate to be $1 - \prod_{j=1}^k (1 - \sum_{i=1}^{\ell} r_{ij} y_i)^{q-1}$. This increases the degree by at most a $k(q-1)$ factor. Putting this all together we have proved the following lemma:

Lemma 10.9 (Approximation Lemma) For any integer k and any $\text{AC}[q]$ circuit C of size S and depth d there is a polynomial over \mathbb{F}_q of degree at most $[(q-1)k]^d$ that agrees with C on all but at most an S/q^k fraction of input vectors.

For a circuit C computing Parity_n we choose $k = n^{1/(2d)}/(q-1)$ which implies that there is a degree \sqrt{n} polynomial that agrees with C on all but an $S/q^{n^{1/(2d)}/(q-1)}$ fraction of inputs. We obtain a lower bound on S by the following lemma.

Lemma 10.10 No polynomial of degree \sqrt{n} over \mathbb{F}_q agrees with Parity_n on more than $\sum_{i \leq n/2 + \sqrt{n}} \binom{n}{i} \leq \frac{49}{50} 2^n$ inputs in $\{0, 1\}^n$.

Proof Let P be a polynomial of degree \sqrt{n} . Let $G \subseteq \{0, 1\}^n$ be the set of inputs x on which $P(x) = \text{Parity}_n(x)$. We find it convenient to use $\{1, -1\}$ rather than $\{0, 1\}$ in the representation of the inputs and outputs of our functions where the mapping ϕ from $\{0, 1\}$ to $\{1, -1\}$ takes bit b to $(-1)^b$. (This representation is also convenient for Fourier analysis of Boolean functions.) Note that

$\phi(\text{Parity}_n(x_1, \dots, x_n)) = (-1)^{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i} = \prod_{i=1}^n \phi(x_i)$. In particular, setting $y_i = \phi(x_i) = (-1)^{x_i}$, note that

$$\text{Parity}'_n(y_1, \dots, y_n) = \phi(\text{Parity}_n(\phi^{-1}(y_1), \dots, \phi^{-1}(y_n))) = y_1 y_2 \cdots y_n,$$

computes a canonical monomial.

Now, despite the fact that it looks like exponentiation, the function ϕ is a degree 1 map over \mathbb{F}_q ; for $x \in \{0, 1\}$, we have $\phi(x) = 1 - 2x$. The same is true for ϕ^{-1} , since $\phi^{-1}(y) = 2^{-1}(1 - y)$ and 2 is invertible in \mathbb{F}_q . Let $G' \subseteq \{1, -1\}^n = \{(\phi(x_1), \dots, \phi(x_n)) \mid (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in G\}$. Since ϕ is 1-1, $|G'| = |G|$. Since ϕ and ϕ^{-1} are degree 1 maps we can compose them with the polynomial P to produce a polynomial P' in the y_i that has degree \sqrt{n} and equals $\text{Parity}'_n(y_1, \dots, y_n) = y_1 y_2 \cdots y_n$ on all inputs in G' .

We use this strange ability to approximate a generic high degree function by the low degree polynomial P' to derive the bound. Let $F_{G'} = \{f : G' \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_q\}$ so $|F_{G'}| = q^{|G'|}$. Now by simple interpolation, any function defined on $G' \subseteq \{1, -1\}^n$ can be written as a polynomial in the y_1, \dots, y_n with coefficients in \mathbb{F}_q . Moreover, this polynomial's monomials can be assumed to be multilinear in the y_i since $y_i^2 = 1$ for $y_i \in \{1, -1\}$. We use P' to reduce the degree of any such polynomial. We can use the correctness of P' on G' to express any monomial $\prod_{i \in T} y_i$ with $|T| > n/2$ as $y_1 y_2 \cdots y_n \cdot \prod_{i \notin T} y_i = P' \cdot \prod_{i \notin T} y_i$ on G' . This shows that any function in $F_{G'}$ can be expressed as a multilinear polynomial of degree at most $n/2 + \sqrt{n}$. The number of such polynomials is $q^{\sum_{i \leq n/2 + \sqrt{n}} \binom{n}{i}}$. Therefore $|G| \leq \sum_{i \leq n/2 + \sqrt{n}} \binom{n}{i} \leq (1 - \gamma)2^n$ where $\gamma \geq 1/50$ is a fixed constant by standard properties of the binomial distribution. \square

We now complete the proof of the theorem using the two lemmas and choice of $k = n^{1/(2d)}/(q - 1)$. Combining the lemmas we have that that $(1 - S/q^k)2^n \leq \frac{49}{50}2^n$ and thus $S/q^k \geq 1/50$. Therefore $S \geq \frac{1}{50}q^{n^{1/(2d)}/(q-1)}$ as required. \square

The above proof completely breaks down when considering moduli. In fact the following question is still open.

Open Problem 10.11 Is $\text{NP} \subseteq \text{AC}^0[6]$?

The only lower bound we have for all of ACC^0 applies in the uniform case and uses a clever downward translation and diagonalization.

Theorem 10.12 (Allender-Gore) $\text{PERM} \notin \text{uniform} - \text{ACC}^0$.

10.2 Threshold Circuits

Since *Majority* is not in any $\text{AC}^0[p]$ it is natural to ask what happens if one allows unbounded fan-in *Majority* gates. One can make this more general still by allowing arbitrary *threshold gate* of the form

$$g(x_1, \dots, x_\ell) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \sum_i w_i x_i \geq \theta \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Such circuits with smoothed threshold behavior are sometimes called *neural nets*.

Definition 10.13 Let TC^0 be the set of a functions computed by constant-depth polynomial-size threshold circuits.

It is not hard to show that Iterated-Addition is in TC^0 . One can extend this to all the basic arithmetic functions, though the case for Division is fairly complicated. Clearly we also have that $ACC^0 \subseteq TC^0$.

It is also known that one can convert any polynomial-size threshold circuit into one that only uses majority gates (all constants w_i are 1) by adding 1 to the depth. Current lower bounds say little beyond depth 2 circuits.

The following theorem was first proved by Allender for AC^0 using little more than the construction from the Razborov-Smolensky proof and then it was extended to ACC^0 by Yao and Beigel-Tarui.

Theorem 10.14 Any function in ACC^0 can be expressed as a depth 3 TC circuit of size $2^{\log^{O(1)} n}$ and bottom fan-in $\log^{O(1)} n$. In particular it can be expressed as a symmetric function of $2^{\log^{O(1)} n}$ ANDs of fan-in $\log^{O(1)} n$ of variables and their negations.