CS 710: Complexity Theory
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## Lecture 9: Polynomial Approximations

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Last time, we proved that no constant depth circuit can evaluate the parity function. We used random restrictions to obtain a bound on the complexity of a circuit evaluating the parity of $n$ inputs. In this lecture, we give an alternative proof of a slightly weaker bound.

Using the random restriction method, we showed that $C_{d}\left(\oplus_{n}\right) \geq 2^{\Omega\left(n^{\left.\frac{1}{d-1}\right)}\right.}$. This is a tight bound and uses the property that the parity function is sensitive to every bit of its input. We can also derive a similar bound for the $\bmod _{m}$ function defined as follows:

$$
\bmod _{m}(x)=\left\{\begin{array}{ll}
0 & \text { if }|x| \equiv 0  \tag{1}\\
1 & \text { otherwise }
\end{array} \quad(\bmod m)\right.
$$

where $|x|$ is the number of non-zero bits in the input. Parity is a special case of $\bmod _{m}$ at $m=2$. Another function that we can prove is not in $\mathrm{AC}^{0}$ is the majority function, which returns 1 when more than half of the input bits are 1 , and 0 otherwise. This can be proved by using the parity function as a black box and is left as an exercise.

In this lecture, we use low degree polynomial approximations to show that $C_{d}\left(\oplus_{n}\right) \geq 2^{\Omega\left(n^{\frac{1}{2 d}}\right)}$. Even though this is a weaker bound, the technique itself is interesting. Moreover, this result applies even if we allow $\bmod _{3}$ gates in the circuit. Finally, prove that constant-depth circuits are unable to approximately evaluate parity.

## 1 Polynomial approximation method

Theorem 1. $\oplus_{n} \notin \mathrm{AC}^{0}$. Specifically, $C_{d}\left(\oplus_{n}\right) \geq 2^{\Omega\left(n^{\frac{1}{2 d}}\right)}$
Proof. We prove this in two steps. First, we show that any constant-depth circuit can be approximated using a low degree multivariate polynomial over the field $\mathbb{Z}_{3}$. Using $\mathbb{Z}_{3}$ gives, for free, the ability to mimic $\bmod _{3}$ gates. In general, if we use $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$ for a prime number $p$, we can handle $\bmod _{p}$ gates. Second, we show that the parity function cannot be approximated using a multivariate polynomial of sufficiently low degree over the field $\mathbb{Z}_{3}$.

Step 1: Consider a circuit $C$ made of AND, OR, NOT and $\mathrm{MOD}_{3}$ gates. It can always be represented as a multivariate polynomial of degree $n$ where $n$ is the size of the input. Our goal is to represent it using a polynomial of lower degree, allowing errors if required. A literal $x$ that is directly passed as input to a gate can be represented using the polynomial $x$. This is the base case of our construction. Now, we can assume that a polynomial $P_{i}$ can be associated with the $i^{\text {th }}$ input of other gate types (AND, OR, NOT, $\mathrm{MOD}_{3}$ ). The goal is to construct a polynomial $P^{\prime}$ that represents the output of the gate. Note that the number of inputs to any gate is at most $|C|$. Construct each of the gates as follows:

NOT: If $P^{\prime}$ is the polynomial representing the input of a NOT gate, then $1-P^{\prime}$ represents the output. Notice that this representation doesn't increase the degree of the polynomial or introduce any additional error.
$M O D_{3}$ : The output of the gate is zero when $\sum_{i=1}^{m} P_{i} \equiv 0(\bmod 3)$. If the summation is 1 or 2 , the output is 1 . Note that in the field $\mathbb{Z}_{3}, 2 \cdot 2=1$. So, we can model the gate using the polynomial $P^{\prime}=\left(\sum_{i=1}^{m} P_{i}\right)^{2}$. This polynomial accurately models the gate and its degree is at most twice the degree of any of its inputs.

OR: The output of the OR gate is 0 if $(\forall i) P_{i}=0$. Or, in other words, $(\forall i)\left(1-P_{i}=1\right)$. Otherwise its output is one. This can be represented as follows:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha: P^{\prime}=1-\prod_{i=1}^{m}\left(1-P_{i}\right) \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

This representation is accurate but the degree of $P^{\prime}$ may be up to $m$ times the degree of the $P_{i}$ with the largest degree. This can be much higher than the trivial bound $n$ if there are many gates and many levels in the circuit. To tackle this, we model $P^{\prime}$ as a random linear combination of $P_{i}$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$. Let $r_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}_{3}$ be the coefficient associated with $P_{i}$, chosen uniformly random. As with $\mathrm{MOD}_{m}$, we square the linear combination to keep the value of $P^{\prime}$ boolean. This leaves us with:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\beta: P^{\prime}=\left(\sum_{i=1}^{m} r_{i} \cdot P_{i}\right)^{2} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

This makes the degree of $P^{\prime}$ at most twice that of the degree of its inputs. But it is definitely not an accurate description of an OR gate. Evaluate the probability of $P_{i}$ being different from the boolean expression $\vee_{i=1}^{n} P_{i}$. If $P_{i}=0$ for all $i$, then irrespective of the values picked for the coefficients, the output is correct. If $P_{i}=1$ for at least one $i$, then $\sum_{i=1}^{m} r_{i} \cdot P_{i}$ is $\sum_{i \mid P_{i}=1} r_{i}$. This is the wrong value, 0 , in one out of three cases for a random assignment of the coefficients. Thus, $P^{\prime}$ can introduce errors in the representation with a probability at most $\frac{1}{3}$. As with any randomized algorithm, we can repeat the above calculation for, say, $t$ independent trials and see if the output of at least one of the trials is one. (Note: An output of one will always be correct but an output of zero may be wrong). This leads us to the third, and final, formulation of $P^{\prime}$.

$$
\begin{equation*}
P^{\prime}=P_{\alpha}^{\prime}\left(P_{\beta_{1}}^{\prime}(\hat{P}), \ldots P_{\beta_{t}}^{\prime}(\hat{P})\right) \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Here, $P_{\alpha}^{\prime}$ is the application of $P^{\prime}$ as described in eqn. 2 on $t$ inputs. $P_{\beta_{k}}^{\prime}$ is the $k^{t h}$ trial using the formulation of $P^{\prime}$ in eqn. 3. $\hat{P}$ is a shorthand for $P_{1}, P_{2}, \ldots P_{m}$. The above formulation produces a wrong output if all the trials produce the wrong output, i.e. with probability at most $\frac{1}{3^{t}}$. The degree of $P^{\prime}$ increases by a factor of $2 t$ : a factor $t$ for the $\alpha$-formulation and a factor of 2 for the $\beta$-formulation.
$A N D$ : We can handle an AND gate in a similar way, resulting in an approximation $P^{\prime}$ with at most a factor of $2 t$ blow-up in the degree, and giving an imprecise value with probability at most $\frac{1}{3^{2}}$.

If the depth of the circuit is $d$, the degree of the polynomial $P$ representing the entire circuit will be at most $(2 t)^{d}$. $P$ gives the wrong value only if the output of at least one of the gates in $C$ was wrong. This happens with probability at most $\frac{|C|}{3^{t}}$. Note, this is not a very tight upper bound
but it is enough for this proof. A tighter bound would depend on the number of OR gates in $C$. By averaging, the expected number of inputs for which $P$ will give the wrong value is at most $\frac{|C|}{3^{t}} 2^{n}$ since there are $2^{n}$ possible inputs of length $n$. There exists a choice for the random coefficients for which $P$ is wrong in no more than the expected number, derived above. More formally,
Lemma 1. There exists a choice of $r_{i}$ 's such that there exists a set $G \subseteq\{0,1\}^{n}$ of relative size $\mu(G) \geq 1-\frac{|C|}{3^{t} \mid}$ such that $(\forall x \in G) P(x)=C(x)$, where $P$ is a polynomial of degree at most $(2 t)^{d}$ constructed as described above.

Here, $\mu(G)$ is the relative size of $G$ with respect to the set of all possible inputs to $C$ and is equal to $\frac{|G|}{2^{n}}$. This construction can be generalized to work over any field $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$ for prime $p$, thus allowing $\bmod _{p}$ gates. The property of $\mathbb{Z}_{3}$ we used is that $a^{2} \equiv 1(\bmod 3)$ for all $a \not \equiv 0(\bmod 3)$. Thus, squaring a polynomial ensures boolean values. To work over $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$, we would instead raise polynomials to the power $p-1$ as $a^{p-1} \equiv 1(\bmod p)$ for all $a \not \equiv 0(\bmod p)$. The degree of the resulting polynomial is at most $(p \cdot t)^{d}$ rather than $(2 t)^{d}$.

Step 2: In this step, given a polynomial $P$ of some degree that approximates $\oplus_{n}$ on a subset $G$ of inputs, we establish an upper bound below which every function of $n$ inputs has a corresponding polynomial approximating it over $G$. By equating the number of such functions to the number of polynomials with degrees not greater than the established upper bound, we derive the lower bound on the depth of circuit $C$.

As a first step, we transform the inputs to a slightly more convenient domain: $\{-1,1\}$ instead of $\{0,1\}$.

Proposition 1. Suppose there exists a polynomial $P$ of degree at most $\Delta$ that computes $\oplus_{n}$ on a set $G \subseteq\{0,1\}^{n}$. Then there exists a polynomial $P^{\prime}$ of degree at most $\Delta$ and a set $G^{\prime} \subseteq\{-1,1\}^{n}$ such that $\mu\left(G^{\prime}\right)=\mu(G)$ and $\left(\forall x \in G^{\prime}\right) \prod_{i=1}^{n} x_{i}=P^{\prime}(x)$.

The reason is that parity on boolean inputs is equivalent to multiplication over $\{-1,1\}$.
Lemma 2. Suppose there exists a polynomial $P^{\prime}$ of degree at most $\Delta$ that represents multiplication in a set $G^{\prime} \subseteq\{-1,1\}^{n}$. Then each function $f: G^{\prime} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{3}$ has a multivariate polynomial $Q$ over $\mathbb{Z}_{3}$ of degree at most $\frac{n+\Delta}{2}$ such that it represents $f$, i.e. $\left(\forall x \in G^{\prime}\right) f(x)=Q(x)$.

Proof. Every function $f$ has a multivariate polynomial of degree at most $n$. This is trivial because we can hardwire every possible input using monomials of degree $n$. Let us start from one such polynomial $Q^{\prime}$ (such that $f=Q^{\prime}$ on $G^{\prime}$ ). Consider a monomial in $Q^{\prime}$ of the form $\prod_{i \in I} x_{i}$ where $I$ is a subset of the input bits. Because we are only concerned with $\pm 1$ inputs, we can rewrite it as:

$$
\begin{align*}
\prod_{i \in I} x_{i} & =\left(\prod_{i \notin I} x_{i}^{2}\right)\left(\prod_{i \in I} x_{i}\right) \\
& =\left(\prod_{i \notin I} x_{i}\right)\left(\prod_{i=1}^{n} x_{i}\right)  \tag{5}\\
\Longrightarrow \prod_{i \in I} x_{i} & =\left(\prod_{i \notin I} x_{i}\right) P^{\prime}(x) \tag{6}
\end{align*}
$$

Eqn. 5 holds for any input $x$ of $n$ bits but eqn. 6 holds only for the inputs in the set $G^{\prime}$. The LHS of 6 has degree $|I|$. The RHS has a degree at most $\Delta+|\bar{I}|=\Delta+n-|I|$. Averaging these gives a minimum degree $\leq \frac{n+\Delta}{2}$. Thus, we can make the degree of every monomial in $Q^{\prime}$ to not exceed $\frac{n+\Delta}{2}$.

Given the lemmas, we are now ready to prove the theorem. Suppose there exists a circuit $C$ of depth $d$ computing $\oplus_{n}$. From Lemma 1 , there exists a polynomial $P^{\prime}$ of degree at most $\Delta=(2 t)^{d}$ that computes parity on a set $G$ of relative size at least $1-\frac{|C|}{3^{t}}$. Consequently, from Lemma 2, all functions $f: G^{\prime} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{3}$ for some $G^{\prime}$ such that $|G|=\left|G^{\prime}\right|$ can be represented using a multivariate polynomial of degree at most $\frac{n+\Delta}{2}$. The total number of such polynomials must be at least the number of functions $f$ from $G^{\prime}$ to $\mathbb{Z}_{3}$.

The number of multivariate polynomials with degree at most $\frac{n+\Delta}{2}$ is exactly $3^{M}$ where $M$ is the number of monomials of degree at most $\frac{n+\Delta}{2}$. There are $\binom{n}{i}$ monomials of degree $i$, so

$$
M=\sum_{i}^{\frac{n+\Delta}{2}}\binom{n}{i}
$$

The number of monomials of degree $\leq \frac{n}{2}$ will be $2^{n-1}$ - half of the $2^{n}$ possible monomials. The remaining $\frac{\Delta}{2}=\Theta(\Delta)$ terms in the summation will be lower than $\binom{n}{\frac{n}{2}}$ - the maximum possible number for any degree. Using Stirling's approximation, we can show that:

$$
\binom{n}{\frac{n}{2}}=\Theta\left(\frac{2^{n}}{\sqrt{n}}\right)
$$

Thus, $M=2^{n-1}+2^{n} \cdot \Theta\left(\frac{\Delta}{\sqrt{n}}\right)=2^{n}\left(\frac{1}{2}+\Theta\left(\frac{\Delta}{\sqrt{n}}\right)\right)$.
The number of functions of the form $G^{\prime} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{3}$ is $3^{\left|G^{\prime}\right|}$ as one of 3 possible values can be assigned to each element of $G^{\prime}$. Because the number of functions of this form must be at most the number of polynomials of degree at most $(n+\Delta) / 2,3^{\left|G^{\prime}\right|} \leq 3^{M}$ or, in other words, $\left|G^{\prime}\right| \leq M$. This gives us the following bound on the size of $G^{\prime}$.

$$
\mu\left(G^{\prime}\right)=\frac{\left|G^{\prime}\right|}{2^{n}} \leq \frac{M}{2^{n}} \leq \frac{1}{2}+\Theta\left(\frac{\Delta}{\sqrt{n}}\right)
$$

From Lemma 1, $\mu\left(G^{\prime}\right) \geq 1-\frac{|C|}{3^{t}}$ when $\Delta=(2 t)^{d}$. Thus,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 1-\frac{|C|}{3^{t}} \leq \mu\left(G^{\prime}\right) \leq \frac{1}{2}+\Theta\left(\frac{(2 t)^{d}}{\sqrt{n}}\right) \\
& \Longrightarrow|C| \geq 3^{t}\left[\frac{1}{2}-\Theta\left(\frac{(2 t)^{d}}{\sqrt{n}}\right)\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

Setting $(2 t)^{d}=O(\sqrt{n})$ gives a tight value for the RHS in the last equation. Thus, $t=\Theta\left(n^{\frac{1}{2 d}}\right)$. This gives $|C| \geq 2^{\Omega\left(\frac{1}{2 d}\right)}$.

The only part of the above analysis that changes when working over $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$ rather than $\mathbb{Z}_{3}$ is that $\Delta=(p \cdot t)^{d}$ rather than $(2 t)^{d}$. Thus the result holds with the same lower bound on $|C|$ for
boolean circuits with $\bmod _{p}$ gates for any prime $p$. In fact, the argument in the above proof can be generalized to give a lower bound for circuits with $\bmod _{p}$ gates to compute $\bmod _{q}$ (recall that parity is the special case of $q=2$ ). This is achieved by viewing Step 2 as harmonic analysis over $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$ and then generalizing that to harmonic analysis over $\mathbb{Z}_{q}$. As this generalization takes a bit of work to prove, we leave it at that.

Because the lower bound for parity was proved by viewing parity as multiplication, we get a lower bound for multiplication as well.

Corollary 1. The decision variant of binary multiplication is not in $\mathrm{AC}^{0}$.
We further use the proof above to give a lower bound on circuits that even approximate parity.
Corollary 2. A depth $d$ unbounded fan-in circuit that agrees with parity on a fraction at least $\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{n^{(1-\epsilon) / 2}}$ of $\{0,1\}^{n}$ must have size $2^{\Omega\left(n^{\epsilon / 2 d}\right)}$.

Proof. Suppose we have a circuit that is correct on at least $\frac{1}{2}+\rho$ of the inputs. Similar to Theorem 1 , we can prove that there exists a polynomial of degree $\Delta=(2 t)^{d}$ that is correct on a set $G^{\prime}$ that is at least $\frac{1}{2}+\rho-\frac{|C|}{3^{t}}$ of $\{0,1\}^{n}$. From Step 2 of the proof above,

$$
\begin{align*}
\frac{1}{2}+\rho-\frac{|C|}{3^{t}} \leq \frac{1}{2}+\Theta\left(\frac{(2 t)^{d}}{\sqrt{n}}\right) \Longrightarrow \rho-\frac{|C|}{3^{t}} & \leq \Theta\left(\frac{\Delta}{\sqrt{n}}\right)  \tag{7}\\
& \Longrightarrow|C| \tag{8}
\end{align*}
$$

Note that the $(2 t)^{d} / \sqrt{n}$ term is $\Omega(1 / \sqrt{n})$, so $\rho$ must also be $\Omega(1 / \sqrt{n})$ to ensure the lower bound we get is even positive. If we let $\rho=1 / n^{(1-\epsilon) / 2}$, we set $(2 t)^{d}=\Theta\left(n^{\epsilon / 2}\right)$ to optimize the RHS of 8 . So $t=\Theta\left(n^{\epsilon /(2 d)}\right)$, and we get that $|C| \geq 2^{\Omega\left(n^{\epsilon /(2 d)}\right)}$.

The above corollary proves the inapproximability of the parity function using constant depth circuits. There is another such result that can be proved using random restrictions. It is as follows:

Theorem 2. A depth $d$ unbounded fan-in circuit that agrees with parity on a fraction at least $\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{2^{\Omega\left(n^{1 / d}\right)}}$ of $\{0,1\}^{n}$ must have size $2^{\Omega\left(n^{1 / d}\right)}$.

This is interesting because even trivial functions can guess parity correctly on half of the inputs. This is slightly weaker than the $2^{\Omega\left(n^{\left.\frac{1}{d-1}\right)}\right.}$ bound we derived last lecture but it disproves approximability rather than computability of the parity function. We will see more such results of inapproximability when we discuss pseudo-randomness.

## 2 Next lecture

Next lecture, we will discuss parallelism where we distribute the computational task among multiple processors to reduce the time complexity.

