# Parity Graph-driven Read-Once Branching Programs and an Exponential Lower Bound for Integer Multiplication 

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#### Abstract

Branching programs are a well-established computation model for Boolean functions, especially read-once branching programs have been studied intensively. Exponential lower bounds for deterministic and nondeterministic read-once branching programs are known for a long time. On the other hand, the problem of proving superpolynomial lower bounds for parity read-once branching programs is still open. In this paper restricted parity read-once branching programs are considered. Parity graph-driven readonce branching programs introduced by Bollig [5] have been investigated intensively by Brosenne, Homeister, and Waack [8]. Here, the first strongly exponential lower bound for integer multiplication on the size of a parity nonoblivious read-once branching program model is proven.


Keywords: Computational complexity, binary decision diagrams, branching programs, integer multiplication, lower bounds, parity nondeterminism.

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## 1 Introduction

Branching programs (BPs) or Binary Decision Diagrams (BDDs) are a well-established representation type or computation model for Boolean functions.

Definition 1. A branching program (BP) or binary decision diagram ( BDD ) on the variable set $X_{n}=\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\}$ is a directed acyclic graph with one source and two sinks labeled by the constants 0 or 1, respectively. Each non-sink node (or inner node) is labeled by a Boolean variable and has two outgoing edges, one labeled by 0 and the other by 1. At each node $v$ a Boolean function $f_{v}:\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow\{0,1\}$ is represented. A c-sink represents the constant function c. If $f_{v_{0}}$ and $f_{v_{1}}$ are the functions at the 0- or 1-successor of $v$, resp., and $v$ is labeled by $x_{i}$, then $f_{v}$ is defined by Shannon's decomposition rule $f_{v}(a):=\overline{a_{i}} f_{v_{0}}(a) \vee a_{i} f_{v_{1}}(a)$. A BP with source $q$ represents the Boolean function $f_{q}$. An input $a \in\{0,1\}^{n}$ activates all edges consistent with $a$, i.e., the edges labeled by $a_{i}$ which leave nodes labeled by $x_{i}$. A computation path for the input $a$ in a BP $G$ is a path of edges activated by a which leads from the source to a sink

The size of a branching program $G$ is the number of its nodes and is denoted by $|G|$. The depth of a branching program is the maximum length of a path from the source to one of the sinks.

The branching program size of a Boolean function $f$ is known to be a measure for the space complexity of nonuniform Turing machines and known to lie between the circuit size of $f$ and its $\{\wedge, \vee, \neg\}$-formula size (see, e.g., [22]). Hence, one is interested in exponential lower bounds for more and more general types of BPs (for the latest breakthrough for semantic linear depth BPs see [1] and [4]). In order to develop and strengthen lower bound techniques one considers restricted computation models.

Definition 2. i) A branching program is called read $k$ times $(\mathrm{BP} k)$ if each variable is tested on each path at most $k$ times.
ii) A BP is called oblivious if the node set can be partitioned into levels such that edges lead from lower to higher levels and all inner nodes of one level are labeled by the same variable.

Borodin, Razborov, and Smolensky [7] have proved one of the first exponential lower bounds for $\mathrm{BP} k$ s. For oblivious branching programs of restricted depth exponential lower bounds have been proven, e.g., by Alon and Maass [3]. Nondeterminism is one of the most powerful concepts in computer science. In analogy to the definition for Turing machines, different modes of acceptance can be studied for branching programs (for more details we refer to [18]).

Definition 3. Let $\Omega$ be a set of binary Boolean operations. An $\Omega$-branching program on the variable set $X_{n}=\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\}$ is a directed acyclic graph with decision nodes for Boolean variables and nondeterministic nodes. Each nondeterministic node is labeled by some function $\omega \in \Omega$ and has two outgoing edges labeled by 0 and 1, resp. A c-sink represents the constant c. Shannon's decomposition rule is applied at decision nodes. If $f_{v_{0}}$ and $f_{v_{1}}$ are the functions at the 0 - or 1 -successor of $v$, resp., and $v$ is labeled by $\omega$, the function $f_{v}=\omega\left(f_{v_{0}}, f_{v_{1}}\right)$ is represented at $v$.

Definitions of nondeterministic variants of restricted BPs are derived in a straightforward way by requiring that the decision nodes fulfill the usual restrictions as for deterministic BPs. The results of Borodin, Razborov, and Smolensky [7] for BPks hold (and have been stated by the authors) also for $\{\mathrm{OR}\}$-BP $k s$.

Besides this complexity theoretical viewpoint people have used branching programs in applications. Representations of Boolean functions which allow efficient algorithms for many operations, in particular synthesis (combine two functions by a binary operation) and equality test (do two representations represent the same function?) are necessary. Bryant [9] introduced ordered binary decision diagrams (OBDDs) which are up to now the most popular representation for formal circuit verification.

Definition 4. Let $X_{n}=\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\}$ be a set of Boolean variables. A variable ordering $\pi$ on $X_{n}$ is a permutation of $\{1, \ldots, n\}$ leading to the ordered list $x_{\pi(1)}, \ldots, x_{\pi(n)}$ of the variables.
i) $A \pi-\mathrm{OBDD}$ for a variable ordering $\pi$ is a BP where the sequence of tests on each path is restricted by the variable ordering $\pi$, i.e., if an edge leads from an $x_{i}$-node to an $x_{j}$-node, the condition $\pi^{-1}(i)<\pi^{-1}(j)$ has to be fulfilled.
ii) An OBDD is a $\pi$ - OBDD for some variable ordering $\pi$.

Unfortunately, several important and also quite simple functions have exponential OBDD size. Therefore, more general representations with good algorithmic behavior are necessary. Gergov and Meinel [15] and Sieling and Wegener [21] have shown independently how read-once branching programs can be used for verification. In order to obtain efficient algorithms for many operations they have generalized the concept of variable orderings to graph orderings.

Definition 5. A graph ordering is a branching program with a single sink. On each path from the source to the sink there is for each variable $x_{i}$ exactly one node labeled by $x_{i}$. A graph ordering $G_{0}$ is called a tree ordering if $G_{0}$ becomes a tree of polynomial size by eliminating the sink and replacing multi-edges between nodes by simple edges.

A graph-driven BP 1 with respect to a graph ordering $G_{0}, G_{0}$ - BP 1 for short, is a BP 1 with the following additional property. For an arbitrary input $a \in\{0,1\}^{n}$, let $\mathcal{L}(a)$ be the list of labels at the nodes on the computation path for $a$ in the BP1 and similarly let $\mathcal{L}_{0}(a)$ be the list of labels on the computation path for $a$ in $G_{0}$. We require that $\mathcal{L}(a)$ is a subsequence of $\mathcal{L}_{0}(a)$.

It is easy to see that an arbitrary read-once branching program is ordered with respect to a suitably chosen graph ordering.

Nondeterministic concepts also may be useful for applications. But one has to restrict nondeterminism in the right way or choose an appropriate mode of nondeterminism.

Definition 6. A parity ordered decision diagram, or $\oplus-\mathrm{OBDD}$ for short, is a generalized OBDD where the number of edges leaving a node is not restricted. The output value for an input $a$ is defined as 1 iff the number of paths between the source and the 1-sink activated by $a$ is odd.

Here, nondeterminism (inputs can activate many paths) is combined with the $\oplus$-acceptance mode.

Bollig [5] has introduced a new restricted nondeterministic read-once branching program model.

Definition 7. A nondeterministic graph-driven BP1 (tree-driven BP1) is a nondeterministic BP1 where the Boolean variables labeling the decision nodes are ordered according to a graph ordering (tree ordering).

Brosenne, Homeister, and Waack [8] have investigated parity graph-driven read-once branching programs which are defined in a very similar way (for a formal definition see Definition 10 in Section 2). As for $\oplus$-OBDDs there are no nondeterministic nodes but the number of edges leaving a node is not restricted. The output value for an input $a$ is defined to be 1 iff the number of paths between the source and the 1 -sink activated by $a$ is odd. The 0 -sink is useless.

For a branching program model $M$ we denote by $P(M)$ the class of all Boolean functions representable in polynomial size by the respective model $M$. It is well known that there exist explicitly defined Boolean functions which are in $P(\oplus$-OBDD $)$ but which are not contained in $P(\mathrm{BP} 1)$ and vice versa (see, e.g., [23]). Furthermore, it is not difficult to prove that there are explicitly defined Boolean functions which need parity tree-driven BP 1 s of exponential size but are contained in $P(\mathrm{BP} 1)$. Therefore, parity graph-driven BP 1 s are a proper generalization of $\oplus-\mathrm{OBDDs}, \mathrm{BP} 1 \mathrm{~s}$, and parity tree-driven BP1s. But obviously not each parity BP 1 is a graph-driven BP 1 . It is not possible to allow arbitrary orderings of the variables for different inputs in graph orderings, e.g., the variables tested first has to be the same for all inputs. It is still open if there exist Boolean functions which need parity graph-driven BP1s of exponential size but can be represented by (general) parity BP1s of polynomial size.

For many restricted (nondeterministic) variants of branching programs exponential lower bounds are known. But the problem of proving superpolynomial lower bounds for parity read-once branching programs is still open. Our results could be one step further towards an exponential lower bound for parity BP1s. Krause [17] has proved the first exponential lower bounds for oblivious parity branching programs with bounded depth. Savický and Sieling [20] have recently presented exponential lower bounds for restricted parity read-once branching programs. In their model only at the top of the read-once branching program parity nodes are allowed. Brosenne, Homeister, and Waack [8] have proved the first exponential lower bound of order $2^{\Omega\left(n^{1 / 2}\right)}$ on the size of graph-driven parity BP 1 s representing the characteristic function of linear codes.

Furthermore, the proof of exponential lower bounds on the size of BDD models for natural functions is often a challenge.

Definition 8. Integer multiplication is the Boolean function $\operatorname{MULT}_{n}:\{0,1\}^{2 n} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{2 n}$ that maps two $n$-bit integers to their product. That is, $\operatorname{MULT}_{n}(x, y)=z_{2 n-1} \ldots z_{0}$ where $x=x_{n-1} \ldots x_{0}$ and $y=y_{n-1} \ldots y_{0}$ and $x \cdot y=z=z_{2 n-1} \ldots z_{0}$. MULT $_{i, n}$ denotes the Boolean function defined as the ith bit of $\mathrm{MULT}_{n}$.

For some models integer multiplication is a quite simple function. It is contained in $N C^{1}$ and even in $T C^{0,3}$ (polynomial-size threshold circuits of depth 3) but neither in $A C^{0}$ (polynomial-size $\{\vee, \wedge, \neg\}$-circuits of unbounded fan-in and constant depth) nor in $T C^{0,2}$ [16]. Until now it is open whether there exist multiplication circuits of linear size. For OBDDs Bryant [10] has presented an exponential lower bound of size $2^{n / 8}$
for $\operatorname{MULT}_{n-1, n}$. Incorporating Ramsey theoretic arguments of Alon and Maass [3] and using the rank method of communication complexity Gergov [14] has extended the lower bound to arbitrary nondeterministic linear-depth oblivious BPs. Recently Woelfel [25] has improved Bryant's lower bound up to $\Omega\left(2^{n / 2}\right)$. The first exponential lower bound on the size of deterministic read-once branchig programs has been proven by Ponzio [19]. His lower bound is of order $2^{\Omega\left(n^{1 / 2}\right)}$ and has been improved by Bollig and Woelfel [6] to the first strongly exponential lower bound of size $\Omega\left(2^{n / 4}\right)$ for $\operatorname{MULT}_{n-1, n}$. Bollig [5] has presented the first (not strongly) exponential lower bound on the size of $\mathrm{MULT}_{n-1, n}$ for nondeterministic tree-driven read-once branching programs. Her result also holds (and has been stated by the author) for parity tree-driven read-once branching programs. But this model is very restricted. Until now exponential lower bounds on the size of $\mathrm{MULT}_{n-1, n}$ for general nondeterministic read-once branching programs or read $k$ times branching programs with $k \geq 2$ are unknown. Here, we present an exponential lower bound on the size of restricted parity graph-driven BP1s for $\mathrm{MULT}_{n-1, n}$. This is the first strongly exponential lower bound for this branching program model. In addition, we yield more insight into the structure of integer multplication.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. In Section 2 we carefully define parity graph-driven BP1s. Similar to the deterministic case [21] two different models of parity graph-driven BP1s are distinguished. Brosenne, Homeister, and Waack [8] have applied methods from linear algebra to describe which functions have to be represented in a parity well-structured graph-driven BP1 for a Boolean function $f$. (For a formal definition of the model see Section 2.) This has led to an exact characterization of the number of (decision) nodes in a parity well-structured graph-driven BP1 for $f$ depending on the chosen graph ordering. We restate some of their results and investigate the relationship between the size of a well-structured parity graph-driven BP1 $G$ and the size of a graph ordering $G_{0}$ of minimal size such that $G$ is $G_{0}$-driven. Afterwards we generalize the lower bound method presented in [8]. In Section 3 we consider the function MULT ${ }_{n-1, n}$ in more detail. Using results on universal hashing interesting properties of integer multiplication are obtained. Finally, in Section 4 we apply the lower bound method described in Section 2 to $\operatorname{MULT}_{n-1, n}$ and prove the first strongly exponential lower bound for well-structured parity graph-driven BP1s.

## 2 Algebraic Characterization and Lower Bounds for Parity Graph-driven BP1s

Sieling and Wegener [21] have introduced graph-driven BP1s as data structure for Boolean functions and have proved that the usual operations on OBDDs can be performed efficiently also for graph-driven BP1s. They have distinguished two different models, the second one, well-structured graph-driven BP1s, is a restricted variant of graph-driven BP1s.

Definition 9. A graph-driven BP1 with respect to a graph ordering $G_{0}$, or $G_{0}-\mathrm{BP} 1$ for short, is called $a$ well-structured graph-driven BP1 if there exists a representation function $\alpha: V \rightarrow V_{0}$ with the following properties. The nodes $v$ and $\alpha(v)$ are labeled by the same variable and for all inputs a such that $v$ is contained in $\mathcal{L}(a)$ the node $\alpha(a)$ is contained in $\mathcal{L}_{0}(a)$.

The reason for the two models is a time-space trade-off between graph-driven and well-structured graph-driven BP1s. A special property of the last one leads to the design of simpler and faster algorithms. The difference is the following one. If we reach the node $v$ of a well-structured $G_{0}$-BP1 for some input $a$, then it follows that the node $\alpha(v)$ of the graph ordering $G_{0}$ is also reached for this input. In the general model it is possible that the node $v$ with label $x_{i}$ is reached for the inputs $a$ and $b$ while the nodes with label $x_{i}$ in $\mathcal{L}_{0}(a)$ and $\mathcal{L}_{0}(b)$ are different.

Brosenne, Homeister, and Waack [8] have realized how this property can be used for parity graph-driven BP1s to determine the number of nodes which is necessary to represent a Boolean function $f$. We use the parity graph-driven BP1 model where all inner nodes are labeled by Boolean variables and may have an unbounded number of outgoing 0 -edges and 1 -edges. The function $f_{v}$ represented at an inner node $v$ of a parity graph-driven BP1 computes 1 on input $a$ iff the number of paths activated by $a$ and leading from $v$ to the 1 -sink is odd. More precisely, if an $x_{i}$-node $v$ has 0 -edges leading to $u_{1}, \ldots, u_{k}$ and 1 -edges leading to $w_{1}, \ldots, w_{l}$, we define

$$
f_{v}=\left[\overline{x_{i}} \wedge\left(f_{u_{1}} \oplus \cdots \oplus f_{u_{k}}\right)\right] \oplus\left[x_{i} \wedge\left(f_{w_{1}} \oplus \cdots \oplus f_{w_{l}}\right)\right] .
$$

Unlike for deterministic BP1s the source can also have incoming edges. It is obvious that edges to the 0 -sink can be eliminated and the constant 0 is represented by an empty branching program. Double edges can always be eliminated without changing the represented function. More precisely, if $r$ edges with the same label lead from $v$ to $w$, they could be replaced by ( $r$ mod 2 ) edges of the same kind. Parity branching programs may contain inner nodes without outgoing edges. These nodes represent the constant 0 and are always eliminated together with their incoming edges.

Definition 10. A parity graph-driven BP1 $G$ with respect to a graph ordering $G_{0}$, parity $G_{0}-\mathrm{BP} 1$ for short, is a parity BP 1 with the following additional property. For an arbitrary input $a \in\{0,1\}^{n}$, let $\mathcal{L}(a, p)$ be the list of labels at the nodes on a computation path $p$ for $a$ in $G$ and similarly let $\mathcal{L}_{0}(a)$ be the list of labels on the computation path for $a$ in $G_{0}$. We require that $\mathcal{L}(a, p)$ is a subsequence of $\mathcal{L}_{0}(a)$ for each computation path $p$ for $a$.

Similar to the deterministic case well-structured parity $G_{0}$-BP1s can be defined. Brosenne, Homeister, and Waack [8] have shown that the maximal quotient of the minimal size well-structured parity $G_{0}-\mathrm{BP} 1$ and the minimal size parity $G_{0}-\mathrm{BP} 1$ representing a function $f$ is bounded by $O\left(\left|G_{0}\right|\right)$, the size of the graph ordering (similar to the deterministic case). We will see that for each well-structured parity graph-driven BP1 $G$ there exists a graph ordering $G_{0}$ such that $G$ is $G_{0}$-driven and $\left|G_{0}\right| \leq 2 n|G|$. Therefore, the wellstructured parity graph-driven BP1 size of a function $f$ and the parity graph-driven BP1 size are polynomially related.

The following lemma is a slight generalization of a result from [21].
Lemma 1 (Brosenne, Homeister, and Waack [8]). Let $G_{0}$ be a graph ordering, $v$ a node in a well-structured parity $G_{0}-\mathrm{BP} 1 G, \alpha$ the representation function, and $c \in\{0,1\}$. If $w$ is one of the $c$-successors of $v$ in $G$ then all paths to the sink in $G_{0}$ which leave $\alpha(v)$ via the $c$-edge pass through $\alpha(w)$.

Now we are able to prove the following proposition.

Proposition 1. Let $G$ be a well-structured parity graph driven BP1. There exists a graph ordering $G_{0}$ such that $G$ is $G_{0}$-driven and $\left|G_{0}\right| \leq 2 n|G|$.

Proof. Let $G_{0}^{\prime}$ be a graph ordering such that $G$ is $G_{0}^{\prime}$-driven and let $\mathcal{N}_{v}(G)$ be the set of nodes $u$ in $G$ such that $\alpha(u)=v$. First, we mark all nodes $v$ in $G_{0}^{\prime}$ for which $\mathcal{N}_{v}(G)$ is not empty. Afterwards we eliminate all nodes which have not been marked in $G_{0}^{\prime}$. An edge leading to one of theses nodes $v$ is redirected to the first successor of $v$ which has been marked. Because of Lemma 1 this node is uniquely determined. The resulting graph is a read-once branching program with one sink and at most $|G|$ nodes. Finally, we use the usual algorithm (see also [23]) to insert nodes such that on each path from the source to the sink there exist for each variable $x_{i}$ exactly one node labeled by $x_{i}$. According to a topological ordering of the nodes, for each node $v$ the set $V(v)$ of variables tested on some path from the source to $v$ excluding the label of $v$ is computed. Afterwards on each edge $(v, w)$ dummy tests of the variables in $V(w) \backslash V(v)$ excluding the variable tested at $v$ are added. A dummy test is a node where the 0 - and the 1 -edge lead to the same node.

The resulting graph ordering $G_{0}$ consists of at most $2 n|G|$ nodes. It is easy to see that $G$ is $G_{0}$-driven.

Now we consider the representation of a Boolean function $f$ by its value table as an element of $\left(\mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)^{2 n}$. This set is a $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$ vector space where the addition is a componentwise parity and scalar multiplication by 0 or 1 is defined in the obvious way.

In the following, let $v$ be a node in the graph ordering $G_{0}, G$ a well-structured parity $G_{0}$-driven BP1, $\mathcal{N}_{v}(G)$ the set of nodes $u$ in $G$ such that $\alpha(u)=v$, and $f$ a Boolean function. It is known that on all paths from the source to $v$ the same set of variables is tested. Without loss of generality let $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{i-1}$ be the previously tested variables. Let $A(v) \subseteq\{0,1\}^{i-1}$ be the set of vectors $\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{i-1}\right)$ such that $v$ is reached for all inputs $a$ starting with $\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{i-1}\right)$. We define $\mathcal{F}_{v}:=\left\{f_{\mid x_{1}=a_{1}, \ldots, x_{i-1}=a_{i-1}} \mid\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{i-1}\right) \in A(v)\right\}$.

Now let $\mathcal{P}_{v}$ be the set of all nodes which lie on a path leaving $v$ in $G_{0}$. (Note, that $v$ lies on all paths from $v$ to the sink.) Then we define $\mathbb{B}_{f, v}^{G_{0}}$ as the Boolean vector space spanned by all functions

$$
\bigcup_{w \in \mathcal{P}_{v}} \mathcal{F}_{w} .
$$

Lemma 2 (Brosenne, Homeister, and Waack [8]). Let $G$ be a well-structured parity $G_{0}$-driven BP1 representing $f, v$ a node in $G_{0}$, and $J(v)$ the first successor of $v$ in $G_{0}$, $J(v) \neq v$, which lies on all paths leaving $v$. Then

$$
\left|\mathcal{N}_{v}(G)\right|=\operatorname{dim}_{\mathbb{Z}_{2}} \mathbb{B}_{f, v}^{G_{0}}-\operatorname{dim}_{\mathbb{Z}_{2}} \mathbb{B}_{f, J(v)}^{G_{0}} .
$$

The following observation will be helpful. W.l.o.g. let $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{i-1}$ be the set of variables tested on any path from the source of $G_{0}$ to $v$ and let $v$ be labeled by the variable $x_{i}$. Then it follows that the vector space $\mathbb{B}_{f, J(v)}^{G_{0}}$ is a subspace of the vector space spanned by all Boolean functions not essentially depending on $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{i}$.

Now our idea to prove stronger lower bounds is the following one. Let $V$ be a vector space and $V_{1}, V_{2}$ be sub-vector spaces of $V . V_{1}$ is said to be linearly independent modulo $V_{2}$, if $V_{1} \cap V_{2}=\{0\}$, i.e., $\operatorname{dim} V_{1}+\operatorname{dim} V_{2}=\operatorname{dim}\left(V_{1}+V_{2}\right)$. This means that no vector in $V_{1} \backslash\{\mathrm{o}\}$ can be represented by a linear combination in $V_{2}$ and vice versa.

Lemma 3. Let $A^{\prime}(v)$ be a subset of $A(v)$ such that the subfunctions $f_{\mid x_{1}=a_{1}, \ldots, x_{i-1}=a_{i-1}}$, where $\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{i-1}\right) \in A^{\prime}(v)$, are linearly independent, and let $\mathbb{B}_{f, A^{\prime}}^{G_{0}}$ be the vector space spanned by these subfunctions. If $\mathbb{B}_{f, A^{\prime}}^{G_{0}}$ is linearly independent modulo the vector space of all subfunctions in $\mathbb{B}_{f, v}^{G_{0}}$ not essentially depending on $x_{i}$, then

$$
\left|\mathcal{N}_{v}(G)\right|=\operatorname{dim}_{\mathbb{Z}_{2}} \mathbb{B}_{f, v}^{G_{0}}-\operatorname{dim}_{\mathbb{Z}_{2}} \mathbb{B}_{f, J(v)}^{G_{0}} \geq\left|A^{\prime}(v)\right| .
$$

Proof. Since all functions in $\mathbb{B}_{f, J(v)}^{G_{0}} \subseteq \mathbb{B}_{f, v}^{G_{0}}$ are obviously not essentially depending on $x_{i}, \mathbb{B}_{f, A^{\prime}}^{G_{0}}$ is also linearly independent modulo $\mathbb{B}_{f, J(v)}^{G_{0}}$. Hence,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{dim}_{\mathbb{Z}_{2}} \mathbb{B}_{f, A^{\prime}}^{G_{0}}+\operatorname{dim}_{\mathbb{Z}_{2}} \mathbb{B}_{f, J(v)}^{G_{0}}=\operatorname{dim}_{\mathbb{Z}_{2}}\left(\mathbb{B}_{f, A^{\prime}}^{G_{0}}+\mathbb{B}_{f, J(v)}^{G_{0}}\right) \leq \operatorname{dim}_{\mathbb{Z}_{2}} \mathbb{B}_{f, v}^{G_{0}}, \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the inequality follows from the fact that $\mathbb{B}_{f, A^{\prime}}^{G_{0}}+\mathbb{B}_{f, J(v)}^{G_{0}} \subseteq \mathbb{B}_{f, v}^{G_{0}}$. Since all the subfunctions defined by $A^{\prime}(v)$ as above are linearly independent, $\operatorname{dim}_{\mathbb{Z}_{2}} \mathbb{B}_{f, A^{\prime}}^{G_{0}}$ equals $\left|A^{\prime}(v)\right|$ and the desired result follows from inequality (1).

In the last section we will apply Lemma 3 to prove the first strongly exponential lower bound for well-structured parity graph-driven BP1s.

## 3 Integer Multiplication

We start our investigations with two technical lemmas which provide important properties of the function $\operatorname{MULT}_{n-1, n}$.

In the rest of the paper we use the following notation. Let $x \in\left\{0, \ldots, 2^{n}-1\right\}$. Then $[x]_{i}$ denotes the $i$ th bit in the binary representation of the integer $x$, i.e., $x=\sum_{i=0}^{n-1}[x]_{i} 2^{i}$. Furthermore, let $[x]_{r}^{l}, l \geq r$, denote the bits $x_{l} \ldots x_{r}$ in the binary representation of $x$. For the ease of description we use the notation $[x]_{r}^{l}=z$ if $\left(x_{l}, \ldots, x_{r}\right)$ is the binary representation of the integer $z \in\left\{0, \ldots, 2^{l-r+1}-1\right\}$. Sometimes, we identify $[x]_{r}^{l}$ with $z$ if the meaning is clear from the context.

### 3.1 The Covering Lemma

Using universal hashing Bollig and Woelfel [6, proof of Lemma 5] have shown the following.

Lemma 4. Let $X \subseteq \mathbb{Z}_{2^{n}}$ and $Y \subseteq \mathbb{Z}_{2^{n}}^{*}:=\left\{1,3, \ldots, 2^{n}-1\right\}$. If $|X| \cdot|Y| \geq 2^{n+2 k+1}$, $k \geq 0$, then there exists an element $y^{*} \in Y$ such that

$$
\forall z \in\left\{0, \ldots, 2^{k}-1\right\} \quad \exists x \in X:\left[x y^{*}\right]_{n-k}^{n-1}=z .
$$

The lemma states that if $X$ and $Y$ are large enough sets of (odd) $n$-bit integers, then by choosing an appropriate $y \in Y$, the possible outcomes in the bits $n-1, \ldots, n-k$ of the products $x y$ for $x \in X$ cover all possible $k$-bit values.

Since Bollig and Woelfel [6] have proved this statement only implicitly and to ensure that our paper is self-contained we prove this lemma here once more using universal hashing.

The concept of universal hashing introduced by Carter and Wegman in 1979 has been proven to be very successful in a large number of applications, which range from complexity theoretical investigations over message authentication to standard applications like dictionary implementations or integer sorting. Universal hash families are usually defined by using the following notation. Let $\mathcal{H}$ be a family of hash functions $U \rightarrow R . U$ and $R$ are called universe and range, respectively. For arbitrary $x, x^{\prime} \in U$ and $h \in \mathcal{H}$, we define

$$
\delta_{h}\left(x, x^{\prime}\right):= \begin{cases}1 & \text { if } x \neq x^{\prime} \text { and } h(x)=h\left(x^{\prime}\right) \\ 0 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

If $h, x$, and $x^{\prime}$ are replaced in $\delta_{h}\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)$ by sets, then the sum is taken over the elements from these sets, e.g., for $H \subseteq \mathcal{H}, V \subseteq U$, and $x \in U$

$$
\delta_{H}(x, V)=\sum_{h \in H} \sum_{x^{\prime} \in V} \delta_{h}\left(x, x^{\prime}\right) .
$$

Definition 11. A family $\mathcal{H}$ of hash functions $U \rightarrow R$ is universal if for any $x, x^{\prime} \in U$ with $x \neq x^{\prime}$

$$
\delta_{\mathcal{H}}\left(x, x^{\prime}\right) \leq \frac{|\mathcal{H}|}{|R|}
$$

In order to prove Lemma 4, we show a similar covering lemma for universal hash families. Consider a universal hash family $\mathcal{H}$ and a subset $V$ of the universe. The following lemma states that there is a large fraction of hash functions $h$ in $\mathcal{H}$ under which the function values of the elements from $V$ cover the whole range $R$, i.e.

$$
h(V):=\{y \in R \mid \exists x \in V: h(x)=y\}=R .
$$

Using this result and the known fact that the mappings $x \mapsto[a x+b]_{n-k}^{n-1}$ (for $a$ and $b$ being elements from appropriate sets) form a universal hash family (see Lemma 6), we can then easily derive Lemma 2.

Note that a simpler version of the following lemma has already been known (see, e.g., [2]).

Lemma 5. Let $\mathcal{H}$ be a universal family of hash functions $U \rightarrow R, r:=|R|, V \subseteq U$ and $v:=|v|$. Then it follows that

$$
\frac{|\{h \in \mathcal{H} \mid h(V) \neq R\}|}{|\mathcal{H}|} \leq \frac{(r-1)^{2}}{v} .
$$

Proof. Since $\mathcal{H}$ is universal, we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
\delta_{\mathcal{H}}(V, V) & =\sum_{x, x^{\prime} \in V} \delta_{\mathcal{H}}\left(x, x^{\prime}\right) \leq \sum_{\substack{x, x^{\prime} \in V \\
x \neq x^{\prime}}} \frac{|\mathcal{H}|}{r} \\
& =\frac{|\mathcal{H}|}{r} v(v-1) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Now we define $F:=\{h \in \mathcal{H} \mid h(V) \neq R\}$. We know by definition that

$$
\forall h \in F \exists y_{h} \in R \forall x \in V: h(x) \neq y_{h} .
$$

First, we prove lower bounds for $\delta_{F}(V, V)$ and $\delta_{\mathcal{H} \backslash F}(V, V)$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\delta_{F}(V, V) & =\sum_{h \in F} \delta_{h}(V, V) \\
& =\sum_{h \in F} \sum_{y \in R \backslash\left\{y_{h}\right\}}\left|h^{-1}(y) \cap V\right|\left(\left|h^{-1}(y) \cap V\right|-1\right) \\
& \geq \sum_{h \in F} \sum_{y \in R \backslash\left\{y_{h}\right\}} \frac{v}{r-1}\left(\frac{v}{r-1}-1\right) \\
& =|F| v\left(\frac{v}{r-1}-1\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

In a similar way we obtain $\delta_{\mathcal{H} \backslash F}(V, V) \geq|\mathcal{H} \backslash F| v\left(\frac{v}{r}-1\right)$.
Using the fact that $\delta_{\mathcal{H}}(V, V)=\delta_{F}(V, V)+\delta_{\mathcal{H} \backslash F}(V, V)$ it follows that

$$
\frac{|\mathcal{H}|}{r} v(v-1) \geq|F| v\left(\frac{v}{r-1}-1\right)+|\mathcal{H} \backslash F| v\left(\frac{v}{r}-1\right) .
$$

Since $|\mathcal{H} \backslash F|$ equals $|\mathcal{H}|-|F|$ we get

$$
|\mathcal{H}|\left(\frac{v-1}{r}-\left(\frac{v}{r}-1\right)\right) \geq|F|\left(\frac{v}{r-1}-1-\left(\frac{v}{r}-1\right)\right)
$$

and thus

$$
\begin{aligned}
& |\mathcal{H}|\left(1-\frac{1}{r}\right) \geq|F| v \frac{1}{r(r-1)} \\
\Rightarrow & |\mathcal{H}| r(r-1)\left(1-\frac{1}{r}\right) \geq|F| v \\
\Rightarrow & |\mathcal{H}|(r-1)^{2} \geq|F| v \\
\Rightarrow & |F| /|\mathcal{H}| \leq(r-1)^{2} / v .
\end{aligned}
$$

Now we consider hash functions which map the $n$-bit universe $U:=\mathbb{Z}_{2^{n}}$ to the $k$-bit range $R_{k}:=\left\{0, \ldots, 2^{k}-1\right\}, 1 \leq k \leq n$. For $a, b \in U$ let

$$
h_{a, b}^{k}: U \rightarrow R_{k}, \quad x \mapsto\left((a x+b) \bmod 2^{n}\right) \operatorname{div} 2^{n-k},
$$

where div is the integer division, i.e., $x$ div $y=\lfloor x / y\rfloor$. Note that in our notation we can write $h_{a, b}(x)$ as $[a x+b]_{n-k}^{n-1}$.
Lemma 6 (Woelfel [24]). Let $B=\left\{0, \ldots, 2^{n-k}-1\right\} \subseteq U$. The family of hash functions $\mathcal{H}_{k}:=\left\{h_{a, b}^{k} \mid a \in \mathbb{Z}_{2^{n}}^{*}, b \in B\right\}$ is universal.

Similar hash classes have been investigated by Dietzfelbinger [12], Dietzfelbinger, Hagerup, Katajainen, and Penttonen [13], and Woelfel [24].

We can now use Lemma 5 together with the hash family $\mathcal{H}_{k}$ to prove the Covering Lemma.

Proof of Lemma 4. Let $1 \leq k<n / 2$ and consider the hash family $\mathcal{H}_{k+1}$ as defined in Lemma 6. Let $r:=\left|R_{k+1}\right|$ and $F:=\left\{h_{y, b}^{k+1} \mid y \in Y, b \in B\right\} \subseteq \mathcal{H}_{k+1}$. Then by definition

$$
\frac{|F| \cdot|X|}{|B|}=|Y| \cdot|X| \geq 2^{n+2 k+1}
$$

Furthermore,

$$
\frac{\left|\mathcal{H}_{k+1}\right| \cdot(r-1)^{2}}{|B|}<2^{n-1} \cdot 2^{2 k+2}=2^{n+2 k+1}
$$

Therefore, it follows that $|F| /\left|\mathcal{H}_{k+1}\right|>(r-1)^{2} /|X|$. Using Lemma 5 we can conclude that there exists a hash function $h_{y, b}^{k+1} \in F$ such that $\left\{h_{y, b}^{k+1}(x) \mid x \in X\right\}=R_{k+1}$. Hence, there exist an $y \in Y$ and an element $b \in B$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\{[x y+b]_{n-k-1}^{n-1} \mid x \in X\right\}=\left\{0, \ldots, 2^{k+1}-1\right\} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let these $y$ and $b$ be fixed. It suffices to show that for any $z \in\left\{0, \ldots, 2^{k}-1\right\}$ we can find an $x \in X$ such that $[x y]_{n-k}^{n-1}=z$.

Let the binary representation of $z$ be $z_{k-1} \ldots z_{0}$ and $x \in X$ such that

$$
[x y+b]_{n-k-1}^{n-1}=z_{k-1} \ldots z_{0} 1
$$

Equation (2) ensures the existence of such an element $x$. Since $b<2^{n-k-1}$, it follows that $[x y]_{n-k-1}^{n-1}=z_{k-1} \ldots y_{0} q$, where $q \in\{0,1\}$, and we get $[x y]_{n-k}^{n-1}=z$.

### 3.2 The Distance Lemma

The following lemma is needed for technical reasons.

Lemma 7. Let $Y \subseteq \mathbb{Z}_{2^{n-1}}^{*}, 1 \leq k \leq n-3$, and $\left(z_{i}, z_{i}^{\prime}\right) \in \mathbb{Z}_{2^{n-1}} \times \mathbb{Z}_{2^{n-1}}$, where $z_{i} \neq z_{i}^{\prime}$, $1 \leq i \leq t$. Then there exists a subset $Y^{\prime} \subseteq Y$ with

$$
\forall y \in Y^{\prime}: 4 \cdot 2^{n-k-1} \leq\left(\left(z_{i}-z_{i}^{\prime}\right) y\right) \bmod 2^{n-1} \leq 2^{n-1}-4 \cdot 2^{n-k-1}
$$

such that $\left|Y^{\prime}\right| \geq|Y|-t \cdot 2^{n-k+1}$.
Proof. Let $\delta_{i}:=\left(z_{i}-z_{i}^{\prime}\right) \bmod 2^{n-1}, 1 \leq i \leq t$, and

$$
\begin{aligned}
M^{\prime} & :=\left\{0, \ldots, 4 \cdot 2^{n-k-1}-1\right\} \text { and } \\
M^{\prime \prime} & :=\left\{2^{n-1}-4 \cdot 2^{n-k-1}+1, \ldots, 2^{n-1}-1\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

Let $Y^{\prime}$ be the set of all $y \in Y$ where $\left(y \delta_{i}\right) \bmod 2^{n-1} \notin M^{\prime} \cup M^{\prime \prime}$ for all $i \in\{1, \ldots, t\}$. Bollig and Woelfel [6, proof of Lemma 4] have shown that the number of $y \in Y$ with $\left(y \delta_{i}\right) \bmod 2^{n-1} \in M^{\prime} \cup M^{\prime \prime}$ for a fixed $i \in\{1, \ldots, t\}$ is bounded above by $2^{n-k+1}$. Therefore, for at most $t \cdot 2^{n-k+1}$ elements $y \in Y$ there exists at least one element $i \in\{1, \ldots, t\}$ such that $\left(y \delta_{i}\right) \bmod 2^{n-1} \in M^{\prime} \cup M^{\prime \prime}$. Altogether, we have proved that the size of $Y^{\prime}$ is at least $|Y|-t \cdot 2^{n-k+1}$.

### 3.3 The Matrix Game

First, we motivate our investigations. (In Section 4 we will make the following ideas more precise.) Let $G_{0}$ be a graph ordering which is not too large. Then we can prove that there exists a node $v$ such that w.l.o.g. at least as many $x$ - as $y$-variables habe been tested from the source to $v, v$ is labeled by a variable $x_{i}$, and there is a partial assignment $a^{*}$ to the $y$-variables tested on the paths to $v$ such that many paths which agree for the tested $y$-variables with $a^{*}$ lead to $v$. Let $A^{\prime}(v)$ be the set of these assignments. Now our aim is to prove that the Boolean vector space spanned by the subfunctions of $\mathrm{MULT}_{n-1, n}$ according to $A^{\prime}(v)$ is linearly independent modulo the vector space spanned by all subfunctions not essentially depending on $V^{*}$, where $V^{*}$ contains $x_{i}$ and the variables which have been tested on the paths to $v$. Then we can conclude using Lemma 3 that the size of parity $G_{0}-\mathrm{BP} 1 \mathrm{~s}$ representing $\mathrm{MULT}_{n-1, n}$ is large.

In the following, we investigate integer multiplication for two binary numbers $x=$ $\left(x_{n-1}, \ldots, x_{0}\right)$ and $y=\left(y_{n-1}, \ldots, y_{0}\right)$, where $x_{n-1}=y_{n-1}=0$ and $x_{0}=y_{0}=1$. Let $V_{x}$ be the set of variables $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n-2}$ and $V_{y}=\left\{y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n-2}\right\}$. Furthermore, let $V_{x}^{\prime} \subseteq V_{x}$ ( $V_{y}^{\prime} \subseteq V_{y}$ ) be a set of $m x$-variables ( $y$-variables), where $m \leq\lfloor(n-17) / 6\rfloor$. We fix an arbitrary assignment of the $V_{y}^{\prime}$-variables. Now we consider a $2^{m} \times 2^{2 n-2 m-4}$ matrix $M$. Each row is associated with one assignment of the $V_{x}^{\prime}$-variables and each column with an assignment of the variables from $V_{x} \backslash V_{x}^{\prime}$ and $V_{y} \backslash V_{y}^{\prime}$. Together with the fixed assignment of the $V_{y}^{\prime}$-variables, $x_{n-1}=y_{n-1}=0$, and $x_{0}=y_{0}=1$ we obtain two well-defined $n$-bit numbers $x_{r, c}$ and $y_{c}$ for each pair $(r, c)$ of a row and a column. We define $M_{r, c}$ as $\operatorname{MULT}_{n-1, n}\left(x_{r, c}, y_{c}\right)$. Finally, we define for an arbitrary fixed variable $x_{i} \in V_{x} \backslash V_{x}^{\prime}$ and a column $c$ the column $c^{\prime}$ as that one which only differs from $c$ by the assignment to the variable $x_{i}$.

Now our aim is to show that for an arbitrary choice of rows $r^{1}, \ldots, r^{l}$ there exists a column $c$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\bigoplus_{j=1}^{l} M_{r^{j}, c} \neq \bigoplus_{j=1}^{l} M_{r^{j}, c^{\prime}}, \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

which means that the number of rows $r^{j}, 1 \leq j \leq l$, where $M_{r^{j}, c} \neq M_{r^{j}, c^{\prime}}$, is odd. Before we show (3) we illustrate how this property can be used to prove lower bounds using Lemma 3. The set of all possible assignments of the $V_{x^{\prime}}^{\prime}$ and $V_{y}^{\prime}$-variables is a superset of the set $A(v)$. By fixing the $V_{y}^{\prime}$-variables by an arbitrary assignment, we obtain a set $A^{*}(v)$. For an assignment $\alpha$ determined by $A^{*}(v)$, the matrix $M$ as described above represents the subfunctions $\operatorname{MULT}_{\mid \alpha}$ in the following way. The number of a row of $M$ identifies an assignment $\alpha$ determined by an element in $A^{*}(v)$ and the row itself represents the function vector of the subfunction $\mathrm{MULT}_{\mid \alpha}$. In this setting, (3) is the following. If we take an arbitrary linear combination of subfunctions (represented by the rows $r^{1}, \ldots, r^{l}$ ), then there exist two assignments to the variables in $\left(V_{x} \backslash V_{x}^{\prime}\right) \cup\left(V_{y} \backslash V_{y}^{\prime}\right)$ differing only in their setting to $x_{i}$ such that the function value of the linear combination is different for both assignments. Hence, no subfunction not essentially depending on the $V_{x}^{\prime}$ - and $V_{y}^{\prime}$-variables and $x_{i}$ can be represented as a linear combination of the subfunctions determined by $A^{*}(v)$. By Lemma 3 this allows the conclusion that

$$
\left|\mathcal{N}_{v}(G)\right| \geq\left|A^{\prime}(v)\right|,
$$

where $A^{\prime}(v) \subseteq A^{*}(v)$.
Let $x_{r, c}$ be the number $x \in \mathbb{Z}_{2^{n-1}}^{*}$ defined by the choice of a row $r$ and a column $c$ and $y_{c}$ the number $y \in \mathbb{Z}_{2^{n-1}}^{*}$ defined by the choice of the column $c$ and the fixed assignment of the $V_{y}^{\prime}$-variables. Therefore,

$$
M_{r, c}=\left[x_{r, c} \cdot y_{c}\right]_{n-1} .
$$

The number $x_{r, c}$ can be written as the sum of two components $x_{r}^{r o w}+x_{c}^{c o l}$, where $x_{r}^{\text {row }}$ is the number defined by the partial assignment of the $V_{x}^{\prime}$-variables given by the row $r$ and the 0 -assignment of the variables from $V_{x} \backslash V_{x}^{\prime}$ and $x_{c}^{c o l}$ is the number defined by the partial assignment of the variables from $V_{x} \backslash V_{x}^{\prime}, x_{0}=1$, and the 0 -assignment of the $V_{x}^{\prime}$-variables. It follows

$$
M_{r, c}=\left[\left(x_{r}^{r o w}+x_{c}^{c o l}\right) \cdot y_{c}\right]_{n-1} .
$$

We take a look at the columns where for an arbitrary $i$ the variable $x_{i}$ is set to 0 . Obviously the set of all pairs $\left(x_{c}^{c o l}, y_{c}\right)$ of theses columns $c$ corresponds to a set $X \times Y$ where $X, Y \subseteq \mathbb{Z}_{2^{n-1}}^{*},|X|=2^{n-m-3}$, and $|Y|=2^{n-m-2}$. Furthermore, $x_{c^{\prime}}^{r o w}-x_{c}^{r o w}=2^{i}$. Finally, the choice of $l$ rows $r^{1}, \ldots, r^{l}$ corresponds to the numbers $x_{r^{1}}^{\text {row }}, \ldots, x_{r^{l}}^{\text {row }}$. For the ease of description we denote these numbers by $x^{1}, \ldots, x^{l}$.

Summarizing, our aim is to prove that under the assumption discussed above for arbitrarily chosen $x^{1}, \ldots, x^{l}$ there exists a pair $(x, y) \in X \times Y$ such that the number of indices $j \in\{1, \ldots, l\}$ for which

$$
\left[\left(x^{j}+x\right) y\right]_{n-1} \neq\left[\left(x^{j}+x+2^{i}\right) y\right]_{n-1}
$$

is odd. Formally this leads to the statement of Lemma 8.
Lemma 8. Let $m \leq\lfloor(n-17) / 6\rfloor, 1 \leq l \leq 2^{m}, X, Y \subseteq \mathbb{Z}_{2^{n-1}}^{*}, d \neq 0$, and let $x^{1}, \ldots x^{l}$ be elements from $\mathbb{Z}_{2^{n}-1}$ with the follwing properties:
i) $|X| \geq 2^{n-m-3}$ and $|Y| \geq 2^{n-m-2}$,
ii) for all $x \in X$ and all $2 \leq j \leq l: x^{1} \neq x^{j}$ and all $1 \leq j \leq l: x^{1} \neq x^{j}+d$,
iii) for all $x \in X$ and all $1 \leq j \leq l$ : $x+x^{j}+d<2^{n-1}$.

Let $(x, y) \in X \times Y$ and let $\sigma(x, y)$ be the number of indices $j \in\{1, \ldots, l\}$ where

$$
\left[\left(x^{j}+x\right) y\right]_{n-1} \neq\left[\left(x^{j}+x+d\right) y\right]_{n-1} .
$$

Then there exists a pair $(x, y) \in X \times Y$, such that $\sigma(x, y)$ is odd.
Obviously, the conditions of Lemma 8 are fulfilled for $d=2^{i}$ and our choice of $x^{1}, \ldots, x^{l}$ and $X$ and $Y$ as described above. (Note, that we have achieved (iii) by setting $x_{n-1}=y_{n-1}=0$.)

Proof. Let $k=2 m+5$ and $X^{\prime}:=\left\{x^{1}+x \mid x \in X\right\}$. Clearly $\left|X^{\prime}\right|=|X| \geq 2^{n-m-3}$. Because of condition iii) $X^{\prime}$ is a subset of $\mathbb{Z}_{2^{n-1}}$. First, we consider the $2 l-1$ pairs $\left(x^{1}, z\right)$ where $z \in Z:=\left\{x^{2}, \ldots, x^{l}\right\} \cup\left\{x^{1}+d, \ldots, x^{l}+d\right\}$. Because of condition iii) all $z \in Z$ are
elements of $\mathbb{Z}_{2^{n-1}}$ and because of condition ii) they are all different from $x^{1}$. Let $Y^{\prime}$ be the set of all $y \in Y$ such that for all pairs $\left(x^{1}, z\right), z \in Z$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
4 \cdot 2^{n-k-1} \leq\left(\left(z-x^{1}\right) y\right) \bmod 2^{n-1} \leq 2^{n-1}-4 \cdot 2^{n-k-1} \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

## According to Lemma 7

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left|Y^{\prime}\right| & \geq|Y|-(2 l-1) 2^{n-k+1}>|Y|-2^{m+1+n-k+1}=2^{n-m-2}-2^{n-m-3} \\
& \geq 2^{n-m-3}
\end{aligned}
$$

Here, we have used the fact that $2 l \leq 2^{m+1}$. Using $m \leq\lfloor(n-17) / 6\rfloor$ we can conclude that

$$
\left|X^{\prime}\right| \cdot\left|Y^{\prime}\right| \geq 2^{2 n-2 m-6} \geq 2^{2 n-n / 3+17 / 3-6}=2^{n+(2 / 3) n-1 / 3}
$$

Since $k=2 m+5$ it follows that

$$
2^{n+2 k+1}=2^{n+4 m+11} \leq 2^{n+(2 / 3) n-34 / 3+11}=2^{n+(2 / 3) n-1 / 3}
$$

such that we obtain $\left|X^{\prime}\right| \cdot\left|Y^{\prime}\right| \geq 2^{n+2 k+1}$. Now we can apply Lemma 4. According to this there exists an element $y^{*} \in Y^{\prime}$ and $x^{*}, x^{* *} \in X^{\prime}$ such that

$$
\left[x^{*} y^{*}\right]_{n-k}^{n-1}=2^{k-1}-1 \quad \text { and } \quad\left[x^{* *} y^{*}\right]_{n-k}^{n-1}=2^{k-1}
$$

Let $y=y^{*}$. According to the definition of $X^{\prime}$ we can write $x^{*}$ as $x^{1}+x$ and $x^{* *}$ as $x^{1}+x^{\prime}$ for two elements $x, x^{\prime} \in X$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left[\left(x^{1}+x\right) y\right]_{n-k}^{n-1}=2^{k-1}-1 \quad \text { and } \quad\left[\left(x^{1}+x^{\prime}\right) y\right]_{n-k}^{n-1}=2^{k-1} \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Next we prove the following claims for $x$ and $x^{\prime}$ :
(C1) $\left[\left(x^{1}+x\right) y\right]_{n-1} \neq\left[\left(x^{1}+x^{\prime}\right) y\right]_{n-1}$.
(C2) For all $2 \leq i \leq l:\left[\left(x^{i}+x\right) y\right]_{n-1}=\left[\left(x^{i}+x^{\prime}\right) y\right]_{n-1}$.
(C3) For all $1 \leq i \leq l:\left[\left(x^{i}+x+d\right) y\right]_{n-1}=\left[\left(x^{i}+x^{\prime}+d\right) y\right]_{n-1}$.
Using these claims we can prove in the following way that either $\sigma(x, y)=\sigma\left(x^{\prime}, y\right)-1$ or $\sigma(x, y)=\sigma\left(x^{\prime}, y\right)+1$. From C1 and C3 for $i=1$ we can conclude that

$$
\left[\left(x^{1}+x\right) y\right]_{n-1}=\left[\left(x^{1}+x+d\right) y\right]_{n-1} \Leftrightarrow\left[\left(x^{1}+x^{\prime}\right) y\right]_{n-1} \neq\left[\left(x^{1}+x^{\prime}+d\right) y\right]_{n-1}
$$

and from C2 and C3 that

$$
\left[\left(x^{i}+x\right) y\right]_{n-1}=\left[\left(x^{i}+x+d\right) y\right]_{n-1} \Leftrightarrow\left[\left(x^{i}+x^{\prime}\right) y\right]_{n-1}=\left[\left(x^{i}+x^{\prime}+d\right) y\right]_{n-1}
$$

for $i=2, \ldots, l$.
Therefore, exactly one of the values $\sigma(x, y)$ or $\sigma\left(x^{\prime}, y\right)$ is odd and we can complete our proof by proving C1-C3. C1 follows immediately from equation (5). To prove C 2 and C3 we reconsider the pairs $\left(x^{1}, z\right), z \in Z=\left\{x^{2}, \ldots, x^{l}, x^{1}+d, \ldots, x^{l}+d\right\}$. Obviously it is sufficient to prove that $[(z+x) y]_{n-1}=\left[\left(z+x^{\prime}\right) y\right]_{n-1}$, for all $z \in Z$. We assume that this is not the case, w.l.o.g. $[(z+x) y]_{n-1}=0$ and $\left[\left(z+x^{\prime}\right) y\right]_{n-1}=1$ (the other case follows similarly).

According to equation (5) it follows that

$$
\begin{align*}
2^{n-1}-2^{n-k} & \leq\left(\left(x^{1}+x\right) y\right) \bmod 2^{n}<2^{n-1} \quad \text { and }  \tag{6}\\
2^{n-1} & \leq\left(\left(x^{1}+x^{\prime}\right) y\right) \bmod 2^{n}<2^{n-1}+2^{n-k} \tag{7}
\end{align*}
$$

From this it follows that

$$
\begin{equation*}
1 \leq\left(\left(x^{\prime}-x\right) y\right) \bmod 2^{n}<2 \cdot 2^{n-k} \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

From our assumption $[(z+x) y]_{n-1}=0$ and $\left[\left(z+x^{\prime}\right) y\right]_{n-1}=1$ we know that

$$
((z+x) y) \bmod 2^{n}<2^{n-1} \quad \text { and } \quad\left(\left(z+x^{\prime}\right) y\right) \bmod 2^{n} \geq 2^{n-1}
$$

Since $\left(\left(z+x^{\prime}\right) y\right) \bmod 2^{n}-((z+x) y) \bmod 2^{n}=\left(\left(x^{\prime}-x\right) y\right) \bmod 2^{n}$, we can conclude using inequality (8)

$$
2^{n-1}-2 \cdot 2^{n-k} \leq((z+x) y) \bmod 2^{n}<2^{n-1}
$$

Together with the inequality (6) we obtain

$$
-2 \cdot 2^{n-k}<((z+x) y) \bmod 2^{n}-\left(\left(x^{1}+x\right) y\right) \bmod 2^{n}<2^{n-k}
$$

Considering all terms in this inequality modulo $2^{n-1}$ it follows that

$$
\left(\left(z-x^{1}\right) y\right) \bmod 2^{n-1}<2^{n-k} \quad \text { or }\left(\left(z-x^{1}\right) y\right) \bmod 2^{n-1}>2^{n-1}-2 \cdot 2^{n-k}
$$

But this is a contradiction to inequality (4) and we are done.
Altogether, we have proved that the vector space spanned by all subfunctions of MULT $_{n-1, n}$ according to all assignments of the $m V_{x}^{\prime}$-variables and an arbitrary assignment $a^{*}$ of the $m V_{y}^{\prime}$-variables is linearly independent modulo the vector space spanned by all subfunctions of $\mathrm{MULT}_{n-1, n}$ according to all assignments of the $V_{x}^{\prime}$ - and $V_{y}^{\prime}$-variables not essentially depending on a variable $x_{i}$ from $V_{x} \backslash V_{x}^{\prime}$.

## 4 A Strongly Exponential Lower Bound for Integer Multiplication

In this section, we combine the lower bound technique for well-structured parity graphdriven BP1s presented in Section 2 with Lemma 8 in order to prove the first strongly exponential lower bound on the size of a nonoblivious parity branching program model.

Theorem 1. The size of well-structured parity graph-driven BP1s representing $\mathrm{MULT}_{n-1, n}$ is bounded below by $2^{1 / 2\lfloor(n-17) / 6\rfloor} /(2 n)$.

Proof. Let $G$ be a well-structured parity graph-driven BP1 representing MULT $_{n-1, n}$ and $G_{0}$ be a graph ordering of minimal size such that $G$ is $G_{0}$-driven. We may assume that the size of $G_{0}$ is at most $2^{1 / 2\lfloor(n-17) / 6\rfloor}$, otherwise using Proposition 1 we can conclude that the size of parity graph-driven BP1s representing $\mathrm{MULT}_{n-1, n}$ is bounded below by $2^{1 / 2\lfloor(n-17) / 6\rfloor} /(2 n)$.

Let $m:=\lfloor(n-17) / 6\rfloor, V_{x}=\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n-2}\right\}$, and $V_{y}=\left\{y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n-2}\right\}$. Since on all paths in $G_{0}$ all variables have to be tested, it is obvious that on all paths from the source
to a node $v$ the same set of variables is tested. In the following we only investigate paths where $x_{0}=y_{0}=1$ and $x_{n-1}=y_{n-1}=0$. We define a cut in the graph ordering $G_{0}$ in the following way. The cut consists of all nodes $v$ where $v$ is labeled by a $V_{x}$-variable and on all paths to $v$ exactly $m V_{x}$-variables and at most $m V_{y}$-variables have been tested (or vice versa). On each path in $G_{0}$ there is exactly one node of the cut. Using the pigeonhole principle there exists one node $v$ which lies on at least $2^{2 n-4} /\left|G_{0}\right|$ paths from the source to the sink. W.l.o.g. $v$ is labeled by $x_{i}, m V_{x}$-variables and $m^{\prime} V_{y}$-variables, $m^{\prime} \leq m$, have been tested. Using the pigeonhole principle again there exists one partial assignment $a^{*}$ to the $V_{y}$-variables tested on the paths from the source to $v$ such that there are at least $2^{m} /\left|G_{0}\right|$ paths to $v$ which agree for the $V_{y}$-variables with the partial assignment $a^{*}$. Let $A^{\prime}(v)$ be the set of all assignments associated with these paths, $V_{x}^{\prime}\left(V_{y}^{\prime}\right)$ be the set of the $x$-variables ( $y$-variables) which have been tested, and let $v$ be labeled by $x_{i}$. Clearly the requirements from Lemma 8 are fulfilled and we can conclude that the vector space spanned by all subfunctions according to $A^{\prime}(v)$ is linearly independent modulo the vector space of all subfunctions not essentially depending on the $V_{x}^{\prime-}$ and the $V_{y}^{\prime}$-variables and $x_{i}$. Therefore, we obtain the result

$$
\left|\mathcal{N}_{v}(G)\right|=\operatorname{dim}_{\mathbb{Z}_{2}} \mathbb{B}_{f, v}^{G_{0}}-\operatorname{dim}_{\mathbb{Z}_{2}} \mathbb{B}_{f, J(v)}^{G_{0}} \geq\left|A^{\prime}(v)\right| \geq 2^{1 / 2\lfloor(n-17) / 6\rfloor}
$$

Altogether, we have proved a lower bound of $2^{1 / 2\lfloor(n-17) / 6\rfloor} / 2 n$ on the size of wellstructured parity graph-driven read-once branching programs representing MULT $_{n-1, n}$.

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