# On the Power of Randomized Branching Programs

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#### Abstract

We define the notion of a randomized branching program in the natural way similar to the definition of a randomized circuit. We exhibit an explicit function  $f_n$  for which we prove that:

1)  $f_n$  can be computed by polynomial size randomized read-once ordered branching program with a small one-sided error;

2)  $f_n$  cannot be computed in polynomial size by deterministic readonce branching programs;

3)  $f_n$  cannot be computed in polynomial size by deterministic readk-times ordered branching program for  $k = o(n/\log n)$  (the required deterministic size is  $\exp\left(\Omega\left(\frac{n}{k}\right)\right)$ ).

## **1** Preliminaries

Different models of branching programs introduced in [13, 15], have been studied extensively in the last decade (see for example [19]). A survey of known lower bounds for different models of branching programs can be found in [17].

Developments in the field of digital design and verification have led to the introduction of restricted forms of branching programs. In particular, ordered read-once branching programs are now commonly used in the circuit verification [9], [20]. But many important functions cannot be computed by read-once branching programs of polynomial size. For more information see the survey [9] and papers [18], [16].

It is known that different models of randomized circuits with weak enough restrictions on the error of randomized computation have only polynomial advantage over nonuniform deterministic models (see [2], [4], [3], and survey

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[6]). In the paper we define the notion of a randomized branching program in a natural way similar to the definition of a randomized circuit. Our goal is to show that randomized computation with a small error for read-once polynomial branching programs can be more powerful than deterministic ones. The argument that can help the intuition in this direction is that amplification method does not work for the case of restricted number of input verifications. Note that in the paper [7] it is presented an explicit function which needs exponential size for presentation by a nondeterministic read-k-times branching program for  $k = o(\log n)$ .

We use the variant of a definition of a branching program from the paper [7]. A deterministic branching program P for computing a function  $g: \Sigma^n \to \{0,1\}$ , where  $\Sigma$  is a finite set, is a directed acyclic multi-graph with a single source node, distinguished sink nodes labeled "accept" and "reject". For each non-sink node there is a variable  $x_i$  such that all out-edges from this node are labeled by " $x_i = \delta$ " for some  $\delta \in \Sigma$  and for each  $\delta$  there is exactly one such labeled edge. The label " $x_i = \delta$ " indicates that only inputs satisfying  $x_i = \delta$  may follow this edge in the computation. We call a node v an  $x_i$ -node if all output edges of the node v are labeled by " $x_i = \delta$ ",  $\delta \in \Sigma$ .

A deterministic branching program P computes a function  $g: \Sigma^n \to \{0, 1\}$ , in the obvious way; that is,  $g(\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_n) = 1$  iff there is a computation on  $\langle \sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_n \rangle$  starting in the source state and leading to the accepting state.

A randomized branching program is a one which has in addition to its standard (deterministic) inputs some specially designated inputs called random inputs. When these random inputs are chosen from the uniform distribution, the output of the branching program is a random variable. We call a node vof the randomized branching program a "random generator" node if output edges of the node v are labeled by random inputs.

We say a randomized branching program (a,b)-computes a function g if it outputs 1 with probability at most a for input x such that g(x) = 0 and outputs 1 with probability at least b for inputs x such that g(x) = 1. A randomized branching program computes the function g with one-sided  $\varepsilon$ -error if it  $(\varepsilon, 1)$ computes the function q.

For a branching program P, we define size(P) (complexity of the branching program P) as the number of internal nodes in P.

From the definition of the complexity of a branching program it follows that the size of randomized branching program is the sum of random generator nodes and  $x_i$ -nodes.

Read-once branching programs are branching programs in which for every path, every variable is tested no more than once. A read-once ordered branching program is a read-once branching program which respects a fixed ordering  $\pi$  of the variables, i.e. if an edge leads from an  $x_i$ -node to an  $x_j$ -node, the condition  $\pi(i) < \pi(j)$  has to be fulfilled.

A read-k-times branching program is a branching program with the prop-

erty that no input variable  $x_i$  appears more than k times on any path in the program. A read-k-times ordered branching program is a read-k-times branching program which is partitioned into k layers such that the each layer is a read-once ordered respecting the same ordering  $\pi$ . In [5] it is proved that deterministic ordered read-(k + 1)-times branching programs are more powerful than deterministic ordered read-k-times branching programs. Namely classes of functions computed by deterministic polynomial-size read-k-times ordered branching programs form proper hierarchy for  $k = o(n^{1/2}/\log^2 n)$ .

We exhibit an explicit function  $f_n : \{0, 1, \hat{0}, \hat{1}\}^{2n} \to \{0, 1\}$ , for which we prove that:

(i) Function  $f_n$  can be computed with one sided  $\varepsilon(n)$ -error by randomized read-once ordered branching program with the size  $O\left(\frac{n^6}{\varepsilon^3(n)}\log^2\frac{n}{\varepsilon(n)}\right)$  (Theorem 1).

(ii) Any deterministic read-once branching program that computes function  $f_n$  has the size no less than  $2^n$  (Theorem 2).

(iii) Any deterministic read-k-times ordered branching program for computing function  $f_n$  has size no less than  $2^{(n-1)/(2k-1)}$  (Theorem 3).

Function  $f_n$  can be easily defined as a boolean function. For technical reasons in the proofs we prefer to use the above notation.

Note that one can think of each internal node of a branching program as a state of a computation. This point of view is essential for the investigation of the amount of space necessary to compute functions. Restricted models of branching programs are useful for the investigation of time-space tradeoffs. We can think of read-k-time  $(k \ge 1)$  restrictions as a restriction on time, say time  $\le kn$  (see survey [8] for more information). This approach draws timespace tradeoff point of view to our results. Recent results on the general lower bounds on randomized space and time can be found in [1] and [11].

# 2 Function

Consider the finite alphabet  $\Sigma = \{0, 1, \hat{0}, \hat{1}\}$ . As usual  $\Sigma^*$  and  $\Sigma^n$  denote the set of all words of finite length and the length *n* over  $\Sigma$  respectively.

For  $\sigma_1, \sigma_2 \in \Sigma$ ,  $x \in \Sigma^*$  define  $Proj_{\sigma_1,\sigma_2}(x)$  to be the longest subsequence x' of the sequence x that consists only of symbols  $\sigma_1$  and  $\sigma_2$ .

Define function  $f_n: \Sigma^{2n} \to \{0, 1\}$  as follows: f(x) = 1 iff

1)  $Proj_{0,1}(x)$  and  $Proj_{\hat{0},\hat{1}}(x)$  have the same length and

2) *i*-th symbol in  $Proj_{0,1}(x)$  is  $\sigma_i$  iff the *i*-th symbol in  $Proj_{\hat{0},\hat{1}}(x)$  is  $\hat{\sigma}_i$  for all *i*.

Informally speaking inputs of  $f_n$  are words over the alphabet  $\Sigma$  which consists of two kinds of zeroes and two kinds of ones.  $f_n(x) = 1$  iff a subsequence z of x formed by the first kind of zeroes and ones and a subsequence y of x formed by the second kind of zeroes and ones are binary notations of the same natural number.

As it is mentioned in the section above, function  $f_n$  can be easily defined as a boolean function  $f'_n : \{0,1\}^{4n} \to \{0,1\}$ . One can encode, for example, 0 by 00, 1 by 01, 0 by 10, and 1 by 11. Our presentation help us to make main ideas of proof methods more clear and help us to avoid several technical details in proofs.

### 3 Results

**Theorem 1.** Function  $f_n$  can be computed with one sided  $\varepsilon(n)$ -error by randomized read-once ordered branching program of size

$$O\left(\frac{n^6}{\varepsilon^3(n)}\log^2\frac{n}{\varepsilon(n)}\right).$$

**Proof:** Randomized read-once ordered branching program P that computes  $f_n$  works as follows:

Phase 1. (probabilistic). Choose d(n) to be some function in O(n), s.t. d(n) > 2n. P randomly selects a prime number p from the set  $Q_{d(n)} = \{p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_{d(n)}\}$  of first d(n) prime numbers.

*P* selects a prime number *p* in the following way. *P* use  $t = \lceil \log d(n) \rceil$  random variables  $y_1, y_2, \ldots, y_t$ , where  $y_i \in \{0, 1\}$  and  $Prob(y_i = 1) = Prob(y_i = 0) = 1/2$ . The branching program *P* reads its random inputs in the fixed order  $y_1, y_2, \ldots, y_t$ . Sequence  $y = y_1y_2 \ldots y_t$  is interpreted as binary notation of the number N(y). *P* selects *i*-th prime number  $p_i \in Q_{d(n)}$  iff  $N(y) = i \mod d(n)$ .

Phase 2. (deterministic). Let  $\sigma \in \Sigma^{2n}$  be a valuation of x. Denote  $\alpha = Proj_{0,1}(\sigma), \beta = Proj_{0,\hat{1}}(\sigma)$ . We treat  $\hat{\sigma}_i$  to be the number 0 if  $\hat{\sigma}_i = \hat{0}$ , and to be the number 1 if  $\hat{\sigma}_i = \hat{1}$ . Sequences  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are interpreted as binary notations of numbers  $N(\alpha)$  and  $N(\beta)$ . P reads input sequence  $x = \sigma$  in the order  $x_1, \ldots, x_{2n}$ .

Along the computation path, P

a) verifies if  $|\alpha| = |\beta|$ ,

b) counts modulo p the numbers  $N(\alpha)$  and  $N(\beta)$   $(a = N(\alpha) \mod p$  and  $b = N(\beta) \mod p$ ) in the following way. In the beginning of computation a := 0 and b := 0. When P reads *i*-th input symbol  $\sigma_i \in \{0, 1\}$  of the sequence  $\alpha$  (respectively *i*-th input symbol  $\hat{\sigma}_i \in \{\hat{0}, \hat{1}\}$  of the sequence  $\beta$ ) then  $a := a + \sigma_i 2^i \mod p$  (respectively  $b := b + \hat{\sigma}_i 2^i \mod p$ ).

Let  $\alpha'$  and  $\beta'$  be first parts of the length t and k respectively of subsequences  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  that were tested during the path from the source to the internal node (state) v. For the realization of the procedure described in the phase 2 it is sufficient to store in the state v four numbers:  $t, k \in \{0, 1, \ldots, n\}$ ,  $a = N(\alpha') \pmod{p}$ , and  $b = N(\beta') \pmod{p}$ .

If  $|\alpha| \neq |\beta|$  then P outputs 1 correct answer with probability 1. Consider the case  $|\alpha| = |\beta|$ . If  $N(\alpha) = N(\beta) \pmod{p}$  then P outputs 1 else P outputs 0.

From the description of P it follows that if  $N(\alpha) = N(\beta)$  then P with probability 1 outputs correct answer. If  $N(\alpha) \neq N(\beta)$  then it can happen that  $N(\alpha) = N(\beta) \pmod{p}$  for some  $p \in Q_{d(n)}$ . In these cases P make error output.

For  $x = \sigma$  it holds that  $|N(\alpha) - N(\beta)| \leq 2^n < p_1 p_2 \cdots p_n$  where  $p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_n$  are first *n* prime numbers. This means that in the case when  $N(\alpha) \neq N(\beta)$  the probability  $\varepsilon(n)$  of the error of *P* on the input  $x = \sigma$  is no more than 2n/d(n).

The size of P is no more than

$$2^{t+1} - 1 + \sum_{p \in Q_{d(n)}} \sum_{l=1}^{n} (n+1)^2 p^2.$$

It is known from the number theory that the value of the *i*-th prime is of order  $O(i \log i)$ . Therefore from the above upper bound for the size(P) and from the upper bound for  $\varepsilon(n)$  it follows that

$$size(P) \le O(n^3 d^3(n) \log^2 d(n)) \le O\left(\frac{n^6}{\varepsilon^3(n)} \log^2 \frac{n}{\varepsilon(n)}\right).$$

**Theorem 2.** Any deterministic read-once branching program that computes the function  $f_n$  has the size of no less than  $2^n$ .

**Proof:** Consider an arbitrary deterministic read-once branching program P that computes function  $f_n$ . Let v be a node of the P. Let  $\sigma = \sigma_1 \sigma_2 \dots \sigma_l$  be a sequence of symbols over  $\Sigma$ . We will write  $v = v(\sigma)$  if there is a sequence  $x_{i_1}, x_{i_2}, \dots, x_{i_l}$  of variables such that edges  $x_{i_1} = \sigma_1, x_{i_2} = \sigma_2, \dots, x_{i_l} = \sigma_l$  form a path P from the source to the node v. Denote  $x(\sigma) = \{x_{i_1}, x_{i_2}, \dots, x_{i_l}\}$ .

For the node  $v(\sigma)$  denote  $f_{v(\sigma)}$  the function which is computed by P when the node  $v(\sigma)$  is considered as a source node.  $f_{v(\sigma)}$  is the sub function of  $f_n$ where we have replaced the variables read on  $x(\sigma)$  by the proper constants from  $\sigma$ .

For proving the lower bound of the theorem it is enough to show that for any  $\sigma, \sigma' \in \{0, 1\}^n, \sigma \neq \sigma'$  it holds that  $v(\sigma) \neq v(\sigma')$ .

Assume that there are sequences  $\sigma = \sigma_1 \sigma_2 \dots \sigma_n \in \{0,1\}^n$  and  $\sigma' = \sigma'_1 \sigma'_2 \dots \sigma'_n \in \{0,1\}^n$  such that  $\sigma \neq \sigma'$  and  $v(\sigma) = v(\sigma') = v$ . *P* is read-once. This means that  $f_{v(\sigma)}$  and  $f_{v(\sigma')}$  are functions over the same set of variables and  $f_{v(\sigma)} = f_{v(\sigma')}$ . From the definition of the function  $f_n$  we have that there exists a sequence  $\hat{\sigma} \in \{\hat{0}, \hat{1}\}^n$  such that  $f_{v(\sigma)}(\hat{\sigma}) = 1$  but  $f_{v(\sigma')}(\hat{\sigma}) = 0$ . This means that  $f_{v(\sigma)} \neq f_{v(\sigma')}$ .

Note that the proof of the theorem 2 can be also obtained as a corollary from theorem 2.1 [18].

Below we prove an exponential lower bound for the complexity of presentation of the function  $f_n$  by deterministic read-k-times ordered branching program. For proving it we use a method based on two-way communication game. We present this method in the lemma below for a more common notion of ordering variables for a branching program than the traditional ones.

Note that the method based on communication game is used in the paper [12] and later in [5] for proving lower bound for deterministic read-k-times ordered branching programs.

**Definition 1.** Call a read-once branching program a  $\pi$ -weak-ordered readonce branching program if it respects an ordered partition  $\pi$  of the variables into two parts  $X_1$  and  $X_2$ , i.e. if an edge leads from an  $x_i$ -node to an  $x_j$ -node, where  $x_i \in X_t$  and  $x_j \in X_m$ , then the condition  $t \leq m$  has to be fulfilled.

Call a read-k-times branching program read-k-times  $\pi$ -weak-ordered if it is partitioned to k layers such that the each layer is a  $\pi$ -weak-ordered read-once respecting the same ordered partition  $\pi$  of variables in each layer.

A  $\pi$ -weak-ordering of variables of a branching program P means that if some input  $x_i \in X_2$  is tested by P, then on the rest part of computation path no variables from  $X_1$  can be tested.

We call branching program P a read-k-times weak-ordered if it is read-ktimes  $\pi$ -weak-ordered for some ordered partition  $\pi$  of the set of variables of Pinto two sets.

From the definition it follows that if read-once (read-k-times) branching program is ordered then it is weak-ordered.

For a function  $g: \Sigma^n \to \{0, 1\}$  and for a partition  $\pi$  of the set of variables x of g into two parts  $X_1$  and  $X_2$ , denote by  $C_{k,\pi}(g)$  a k-round deterministic communication complexity of g for the communication game with two players A and B where A obtains variables from the first part  $X_1$  of variables and B obtains variables from the second part  $X_2$  of variables of g.

**Lemma 1.** Let for a function  $g: \Sigma^n \to \{0, 1\}$  P be a deterministic readk-times  $\pi$ -weak-ordered branching program that computes g. Then

$$size(P) \ge 2^{(C_{2k-1,\pi}(g)-1)/(2k-1)}.$$

**Proof:** Consider the following communication game with two players A and B for computing function  $f_n$ . Let  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  be two sets determined by partition  $\pi$  of a set of variables x of P. Part of the input corresponding to  $X_1$  is known to A, and part of the input corresponding to  $X_2$  is known to B. Players A and B have the copy of P. In order to compute  $f_n$ , A and B communicate with each other in (2k-1) rounds by sending messages in each round according to the following protocol  $\phi$ . Player A is the first one to send a message. The output is produced by B. Let  $\sigma \in \Sigma^{2n}$  be a valuation of x. Denote  $\sigma_A$  and  $\sigma_B$  parts of input  $\sigma$  which correspond to variables from  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  (inputs of A and B), respectively.

For each  $i, 1 \le i \le k-1$ , communication protocol  $\phi$  simulates computation on the *i*-th layer of P by two communication rounds 2i - 1 and 2i.

First round: Player A starts simulation of P on his part  $\sigma_A$  of input  $\sigma$  from the source of P. Let  $v_1$  be a node which is reachable by P on  $\sigma_A$  from the source. Player A sends node  $v_1$  to B.

Second round: Player B on obtaining message  $v_1$  form A starts its simulation of P on his part  $\sigma_B$  of input  $\sigma$  from the node  $v_1$ . Let  $v_2$  be a node which is reachable by P on  $\sigma_B$  from the  $v_1$ . Player B sends node  $v_2$  to A.

Last round (round 2k - 1): Player A on obtaining message  $v_{2k-2}$  from B starts its computation from the node  $v_{2k-2}$  on his part  $\sigma_A$  of input  $\sigma$ . Let  $v_{2k-1}$ be a node which is reachable by P on  $\sigma_A$  from the node  $v_{2k-2}$ . Player A sends node  $v_{2k-1}$  to B. Player B on obtaining  $v_{2k-1}$  starts its part of simulation of P from the  $v_{2k-1}$  on  $\sigma_B$  and then outputs the result of computation.

The message that A and B has exchanged during the computation is  $m = v_1v_2 \dots v_{2k-1}$ . Call m a full message.

Denote by  $V_i$  the set of all internal nodes which can be send on the *i*-th round by player A to B if *i* is odd (by player B to A if *i* is even) during the computations on  $\Sigma^{2n}$ . Denote  $d_i = |V_i|$ . From our notation it follows that the number of all full messages that can be exchanged on inputs from  $\Sigma^{2n}$  according to protocol  $\phi$  is no more than  $\prod_{i=1}^{2k-1} d_i$ .

The number of full messages used by  $\phi$  cannot be less than  $2^{C_{2k-1,\pi}(g)-1}$ 

$$\prod_{i=1}^{2k-1} d_i \ge 2^{C_{2k-1,\pi}(g)-1}$$

The lower bound of the lemma follows from the inequality above (with  $d = \max\{d_i : i \in \{1, 2, \dots, 2k - 1\}\}$ ) for which it holds that

$$d^{2k-1} \ge \prod_{i=1}^{2k-1} d_i \ge 2^{C_{2k-1,\pi}(g)-1}$$

and hence

$$d > 2^{(C_{2k-1,\pi}(g)-1)/(2k-1)}.$$

**Theorem 3.** Any deterministic ordered read-k-times branching program that computes function  $f_n$  has the size no less than  $2^{(n-1)/(2k-1)}$ .

**Proof:** Let P be an ordered read-k-times branching program with an ordering  $\pi$  of variables which computes the function  $f_n$ . Consider the following partition  $\hat{\pi}$  of variables x of  $f_n$  into two parts  $X_1 = \{x_{\pi(1)}, x_{\pi(2)}, \ldots, x_{\pi(n)}\}$  and  $X_2 = \{x_{\pi(n+1)}, x_{\pi(n+2)}, \ldots, x_{\pi(2n)}\}$ . It is obvious that P is read-k-times  $\hat{\pi}$ -weak-ordered.

Denote CM a communication matrix of the function  $f_n$  for the partition  $\hat{\pi}$  of the variables x. Consider the  $2^n \times 2^n$  sub-matrix CM' of CM which

is formed by strings that correspond to the part of inputs from  $\{0,1\}^n$  and columns that correspond to the part of inputs from  $\{\hat{0},\hat{1}\}^n$ . Matrix CM' is the E matrix (elements of the main diagonal are 1 and all rest elements are 0). This means that

$$C_{t,\pi}(f_n) \ge n$$

for  $t \geq 1$ . From the lower bound for  $C_{t,\pi}(f_n)$  above and the lemma 1 it follows that

$$size(P) \ge 2^{(n-1)/(2k-1)}.$$

The lower bound of the theorem follows from considering the best read-k-times ordered branching program that computes  $f_n$ .

**Corollary.**  $f_n$  cannot be computed by any deterministic read-k-times ordered branching programs in polynomial size for  $k = o(n/\log n)$ .

# 4 Further Research and Open Problems

We conclude with two open problems:

1. It will be interesting to describe how to separate "hard functions" (functions for which *randomization* does not improve their branching program complexity for the restricted number of testing variables) from the functions which can be computed more efficiently using randomization. Another words it is an interesting open problem to develop new randomized lower bound techniques for branching programs.

2. What is the exact dependence of the size of randomized branching programs on the error of computation?

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