# Sub-Exponential Lower Bounds for Branch-and-Bound with General Disjunctions via Interpolation 

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#### Abstract

This paper investigates linear programming based branch-and-bound using general disjunctions, also known as stabbing planes, for solving integer programs. We derive the first subexponential lower bound (in the encoding length $L$ of the integer program) for the size of a general branch-and-bound tree for a particular class of (compact) integer programs, namely $2^{\Omega\left(L^{1 / 12-\epsilon}\right)}$ for every $\epsilon>0$. This is achieved by showing that general branch-and-bound admits quasi-feasible monotone real interpolation, which allows us to utilize sub-exponential lowerbounds for monotone real circuits separating the so-called clique-coloring pair. Moreover, this also implies that refuting $\Theta(\log (n))$-CNFs requires size $2^{n^{\Omega(1)}}$ branch-and-bound trees with high probability by considering the closely related notion of infeasibility certificates introduced by Hrubeš and Pudlák [18]. One important ingredient of the proof of our interpolation result is that for every general branch-and-bound tree proving integer-freeness of a product $P \times Q$ of two polytopes $P$ and $Q$, there exists a closely related branch-and-bound tree for showing integerfreeness of $P$ or one showing integer-freeness of $Q$. Moreover, we prove that monotone real circuits can perform binary search efficiently.


## 1 Introduction

In recent years, there has been renewed interest in the proof system associated to branch-andbound using general disjunctions for solving integer linear programs (ILPs) [4, 13, 2, 8, 12, 15]; the literature sometimes also uses the name "Stabbing Planes" (SP), see [4]. In each node, a general disjunction of the form $\alpha^{\top} x \leq \delta \vee \alpha^{\top} x \geq \delta+1$ for $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}^{n}, \delta \in \mathbb{Z}$ is used to create two child nodes.

Branching on general disjunctions lies at the core of Lenstra's algorithm for integer programming in fixed dimension [22]. It has also been used, for example, for special ordered sets [3], exploiting flatness [11], achieving feasibility [23], and symmetry handling [24].

Nevertheless, the dominant strategy in practice is to employ variable branching of the form $x_{i} \leq \delta \vee x_{i} \geq \delta+1$ for some variable $x_{i}$, which is the special case where $\alpha$ is the $i$ th unit vector. Some reasons for this choice are that the selection of a branching disjunction is easier, the sparsity of the constraint matrix is not increased, and it often allows to fix variables, e.g., if the variables are binary. This variable branching strategy is then usually enhanced by the application of cutting planes like Chvátal-Gomory cuts in a branch-and-cut framework, which has seen a tremendous improvement over the last decades.

As a proof system, branch-and-bound with general disjunctions is not only a generalization of branch-and-bound using variable disjunctions, but also branch-and-cut with variable disjunctions and Chvátal-Gomory cuts, see Beame et al. [4] (in fact it is even equivalent to branch-and-cut with general disjunctions and split-cuts). Hence, lower bounds on the size of a
branch-and-bound tree using general disjunctions are also lower bounds on the size of a branch-and-cut tree using Chvátal-Gomory cuts. This fact shows that branch-and-bound using general disjunctions form a quite general and important algorithm class.

It is thus surprising that so far no family of integer linear programs provably requiring branch-and-bound trees using general disjunctions of super-polynomial size (in the encoding length of the program) without some kind of caveat is known. In fact, no super-linear bounds are known. In this paper we close this gap by providing a class of compact integer programs requiring branch-and-bound trees using general disjunctions of size $2^{\Omega\left(L^{1 / 12-\epsilon}\right)}$ for every $\epsilon>0$, where $L$ denotes the encoding length of the ILP. This has been posed as an open problem by Dadush and Tiwari [7].

We briefly survey previous contributions: It is actually relatively easy to give families of ILPs which require branch-and-bound trees of exponential size in the number of variables of the ILP (but not the encoding size of the ILP). Here the two main strategies are the following: Dadush and Tiwari [7] argued that an ILP which is barely infeasible (i.e., removal of any constraint makes the ILP feasible) must require large branch-and-bound trees, since it is impossible to construct a certified branch-and-bound tree which does not use every constraint in at least one Farkas-certificate at its leaves. More accurately, the obtained bound is the number of constraints divided by the number of variables, which is only strong for a large number of constraints. This weakness is mitigated by an extended formulation of the ILP they use (with polynomial encoding size in the number of variables). However, this formulation also uses continuous variables. Their strategy was later generalized by Dey et al. [12]. The other strategy, as investigated by Gläser and Pfetsch [15], is based on finding a large set of points which have to be associated to different leaves of some given branch-and-bound trees. Formally, it considers hiding sets, which have been introduced by Kaibel and Weltge [19]. However, it seems impossible to derive bounds on the size of a branch-and-bound tree which exceed the number of the constraints of the ILP via either of these two strategies.

Despite the fact that no strong lower bounds on the size of a branch-and-bound tree have been available prior to this paper, Beame et al. [4] gave a family of unsatisfiable CNF formulas, such that refuting the corresponding ILP requires a branch-and-bound tree of depth $\Omega\left(n / \log ^{2} n\right)$. Note that since trees are not necessarily balanced, this does not yield a good lower bound on the size of a tree.

Besides lower bounds, there are some structural insights into branch-and-bound using general disjunctions: Dadush and Tiwari [7] have shown that branch-and-bound using general disjunctions does not become weaker (with respect to polynomial simulation) when restricting the coefficients of the disjunctions to have polynomial encoding length (cf. Theorem 1 below), which is crucial for our argument. If we restrict the coefficients of branch-and-bound using general disjunctions to polynomial size then branch-and-bound can be quasi-polynomially simulated by the Chvátal-Gomory cutting planes proof system (CG-CP), see Fleming et al. [13]. Thus, known lower bounds for CG-CP [25, 18, 14] can be lifted to branch-and-bound using general disjunctions with polynomially bounded coefficients.

The strategy we employ in this paper is to show that branch-and-bound using general disjunction admits quasi-feasible real monotone interpolation and then lift lower bounds for monotone real circuits separating the so-called clique-coloring pair given by Pudlák [25] (cf. Theorem 2) to lower bounds for branch-and-bound trees. This idea is explained in Section 2 and has already been successfully used for other proof systems. Most prominently, [25] derived sub-exponential lower bounds for CG-CP for the same ILP used below by showing that CG-CP admits real feasible monotone interpolation and a similar result for the resolution proof system. Dash showed an analogous result for the cutting plane proof system using lift-and-project cuts [9] and later for split cuts [10], which generalize both Chvátal-Gomory and lift-and-project cuts. The concept of feasible interpolation and the method in which it is used to derive lower bounds has been developed in the sequence of papers [ $20,27,21,6,25]$.

Note however, that feasible monotone interpolation can only be used to obtain lower bounds
for problems in a very specific form. This limitation has recently been addressed independently in [18] and [14], where it is shown that random $\Theta(\log (n))$-CNFs are hard for CG-CP. To this end, [18] introduced the concept of infeasibility certificates which are very closely related to the notion of feasible interpolation. We mimic their approach to lift real monotone circuit lower bounds for infeasibility certificates for random CNFs to establish that $\Theta(\log (n))$-CNFs require branch-and-bound trees with general disjunctions of size at least $2^{n^{\Omega(1)}}$ with high probability as well.

The rest of this paper is structured as follows: We first survey some necessary preliminaries in Section 2. Then we explicitly state our results in Section 3 and describe in which way they are related. The proofs are then given in Section 4.

## 2 Preliminaries

For polyhedra $P \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{n_{1}}$ and $Q \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{n_{2}}$, let $P \times Q=\left\{\left.\binom{x}{y} \in \mathbb{R}^{n_{1}+n_{2}} \right\rvert\, x \in P, y \in Q\right\}$ denote their Cartesian product. For $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we use $[n]:=\{1, \ldots, n\}$.

Systems of Linear Inequalities Let $A x \leq b$ with $A \in \mathbb{Q}^{m \times n}$ and $b \in \mathbb{Q}^{m}$ be a system of linear inequalities. By scaling, we can assume that $A$ and $b$ have integral entries. If a polyhedron $P$ is described by $A x \leq b$ we write $\{A x \leq b\}:=\{x \mid A x \leq b\}=P$ for brevity.

We say $A x \leq b$ is integer-feasible, if there is a point $\hat{x} \in \mathbb{Z}^{n}$ with $A \hat{x} \leq b$ and integer-infeasible otherwise. The polyhedron $\{A x \leq b\}$ is integer-free if $A x \leq b$ is integer-infeasible. Similarly, $A x \leq b$ is LP-feasible, if there is a point $\hat{x} \in \mathbb{Q}^{n}$ with $A \hat{x} \leq b$ and LP-infeasible otherwise.

A Farkas-certificate (of infeasibility) for the system $A x \leq b$ is a vector $f \in \mathbb{Z}_{+}^{m}$, such that $f^{\top} A=0$ and $f^{\top} b<0$. It is well known that a linear system $A x \leq b$ is LP-infeasible if and only if it admits a Farkas-certificate of infeasibility. Note that the restriction to integral $f$ is without loss of generality.

Branch-and-Bound Trees To fix notation, we formalize branch-and-bound trees. A disjunction is a pair of linear inequalities of the form ( $\alpha^{\top} x \leq \delta, \alpha^{\top} x \geq \delta+1$ ), where $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}^{n}$ and $\delta \in \mathbb{Z}$, which we denote $\alpha^{\top} x \leq \delta \vee \alpha^{\top} x \geq \delta+1$. Note that every integer point satisfies exactly one of them. A branch-and-bound proof (of integer-infeasibility) or branch-and-bound tree for an system of linear inequalities $(P)$ is a rooted binary directed tree $T$ with the following properties:

1. For every non-leaf node $N$ there is a disjunction $\alpha^{\top} x \leq \delta \vee \alpha^{\top} x \geq \delta+1$, such that the left outgoing edge of $N$ is labeled with the inequality $\alpha^{\top} x \leq \delta$ and the right edge is labeled with $\alpha^{\top} x \geq \beta+1$. The neighbor $N_{\leq}$of $N$ incident to the left edge is called the ( $\left.\alpha^{\top} x \leq \delta\right)$ child of $N$, whereas the neighbor $N_{\geq}$incident to the right edge is the ( $\alpha^{\top} x \geq \delta+1$ )-child. The $\left(\alpha^{\top} x \leq \delta\right)$-branch at a node $N$ is the directed subtree $T\left(N_{\leq}\right)$rooted at $N_{\leq}$and the ( $\alpha^{\top} x \geq \delta+1$ )-branch is the subtree $T\left(N_{\geq}\right)$rooted at $N_{\geq}$.
2. For a node $N$ in $T$, the problem $T_{N}(P)$ associated to $N$ in a branch-and-bound tree $T$ for $(P)$ is (the LP-relaxation) of $(P)$ and all constraints occurring as edge labels on the unique path from the root to $N$ in $T$. We say $N$ is feasible if $T_{N}(P)$ is LP-feasible and infeasible otherwise. We require $N$ to be infeasible for every leaf $N$ of $T$.
A branch-and-bound tree for an integer-free polyhedron $P$ is a branch-and-bound tree for a system $A x \leq b$ with $P=\{A x \leq b\}$.

We emphasize that we do not require non-leaf nodes of $T$ to be feasible. This is convenient, since then a branch-and-bound tree $T$ for a polyhedron $P$ is also a branch-and-bound tree for every polyhedron $Q \subseteq P$, see, e.g., Dey et al. [12]. Moreover, this does not alter the minimal size of a branch-and-bound tree for any infeasible integer problem.

A tree labeled as described in Property 1 which does not necessarily satisfy Property 2 will be called not necessarily valid branch-and-bound tree. For emphasis, we sometimes call trees that satisfy both properties valid. Note that with above definition only integer-infeasible systems of linear inequalities have valid branch-and-bound trees.

Since we consider only binary trees, the number of nodes of a tree will be asymptotically twice the number of its leaves. Hence, we may define the size $|T|$ of $T$ to denote the number of leaves of $T$, which turns out to be slightly more convenient. We let $\mathcal{T}(P)$ be the smallest size of a branch-and-bound tree using general disjunctions proving integer-freeness of $P$. For $P$ containing integral points, we define $\mathcal{T}(P):=+\infty$.

An important result about branch-and-bound trees is that they can be recompiled to reduce the encoding length of the coefficients used in the disjunctions at the nodes. This is stated in the following Theorem by Dadush and Tiwari [7]:
Theorem 1. (Theorem 1 in [7] and its proof) Let $P \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{n}$ be an integer-free polytope contained in the ball $B_{1}^{n}(R):=\left\{x \in \mathbb{R}^{n} \mid\|x\|_{1} \leq R\right\}$ with radius $R \in \mathbb{N}$ with respect to the $\ell_{1}$-norm. Let $T$ be a branch-and-bound tree showing the integer-freeness of $P$. Then, there exists a branch-andbound tree $T^{\prime}$ for $P$, such that $\left|T^{\prime}\right| \leq(4 n+5)|T|$, and for every disjunction $\alpha^{\top} x \leq \delta \vee \alpha^{\top} x \geq \delta+1$ which $T^{\prime}$ branches on we have $\max \left\{\|\alpha\|_{\infty},|\delta|\right\} \leq(10 n R)^{(n+2)^{2}}$.

A certified branch-and-bound tree (for a system of inequalities/polyhedron) $T$ is a branch-and-bound tree (for a system of inequalities/polyhedron), where attached to every leaf $L$ is a Farkas-certificate $f^{L}$ of infeasibility for the problem associated to $L$.

Monotone Real Circuits A monotone real circuit $C$ is an acyclic directed graph whose vertices are called gates, such that every gate has either zero or two incoming edges and the incoming edges at every gate are ordered. The number of incoming edges of a gate is called its fan-in. If gate $g$ has fan-in zero, it is called an input gate and is labeled with a variable $x_{i}$ and if $g$ has fan-in two, then $g$ is labeled by a non-decreasing function $f_{g}: \mathbb{R}^{2} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, which is the function applied at $g$. If $x=\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right)$ are the variables occurring as labels of input gates, we define (slightly abusing notation) the function $g: \mathbb{R}^{k} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ computed by $g$ inductively (along a topological order of the underlying graph) to be $g(x)=x_{j}$, if $g$ is an input gate labeled by $x_{j}$ and by $f_{g}\left(g_{1}(x), g_{2}(x)\right)$, if $g$ is a non-input gate and $g_{1}$ and $g_{2}$ are the first and second predecessors of $g$. Finally, there is a designated output gate $h$, and the value $C(x)$ computed by $C$ on input $x$ is $h(x)$. The size $|C|$ of a circuit $C$ is the number of its gates.

Note that bounded fan-in is essential, since monotone real circuits with unbounded fan-in of linear size can compute arbitrary monotone functions (consider the circuit with a unique non-input gate connected to all inputs). Moreover, the term 'real monotone' circuit is slightly misleading: the arithmetical structure of the real numbers $\mathbb{R}$ does not play a role in above definition - instead $\mathbb{R}$ merely plays the role of a sufficiently large linearly ordered domain (this has already been mentioned in [25]).

A circuit $C$ decides (the membership problem for) a set $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{k}$, if $C(x)=1$ for $x \in X$ and $C(x)=0$ otherwise. Similarly, $C$ separates two sets $Z_{1} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{k}$ and $Z_{2} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{k}$, if $C(z)=1$ for all $z \in Z_{1}$ and $C(z)=0$ for all $z \in Z_{2}$ or vice versa. While modifying a given circuit, post-composing the function $f_{g}$ applied at a gate $g$ with a function $\varphi: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ means replacing $f_{g}$ by $\varphi \circ f_{g}$, where $\circ$ denotes the composition of functions. Similarly, pre-composing the first [second] input means replacing the function $f_{g}: x, y \mapsto f_{g}(x, y)$ by $x, y \mapsto f_{g}(\varphi(x), y)$ $\left[x, y \mapsto f_{g}(x, \varphi(y))\right]$. The notion of monotone real circuits was introduced in [25].

Interpolation We briefly translate the notion of interpolation into the language of linear integer programs. For this, we consider integer-infeasible linear inequality systems of the following form:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\binom{A}{0} x+\binom{0}{B} y+\binom{C}{D} z \leq\binom{ a}{b}, \quad x, y, z \in\{0,1\}^{n_{1}+n_{2}+n_{3}}, \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $C \geq 0$ and $D \leq 0$ (entry-wise). Moreover, we let $A \in \mathbb{Z}^{m_{1} \times n_{1}}, B \in \mathbb{Z}^{m_{2} \times n_{2}}, C \in \mathbb{Z}^{m_{1} \times n_{3}}$, $D \in \mathbb{Z}^{m_{2} \times n_{3}}, a \in \mathbb{Z}^{m_{1}}, b \in \mathbb{Z}^{m_{2}}$ and $n:=n_{1}+n_{2}+n_{3}$.

Since (1) is integer-infeasible, at least one of the systems $A x \leq a-C z, x \in\{0,1\}^{n_{1}}$ or $B y \leq b-D z, y \in\{0,1\}^{n_{2}}$ is infeasible for every fixed $z \in\{0,1\}^{n_{3}}$. An interpolant for (1) is a binary function $I:\{0,1\}^{n_{3}} \rightarrow\{0,1\}$, such that $I(z)=1$ implies that the first system is infeasible and $I(z)=0$ implies that the second is infeasible. Note that there is a interpolant for every integer-infeasible system of the form (1). We say a proof system $\mathcal{S}$ admits (monotone/real monotone) [quasi-]feasible interpolation, if for any proof of infeasibility of (1) in $\mathcal{S}$ of size $S$ there exists a (monotone/real monotone) circuit of size [quasi-]polynomial in $S$ and the encoding size of (1) computing such an interpolant. Then, if every such monotone circuit must be large, also any proof for (1) in $\mathcal{S}$ must be large. This is the case for the examples described in the next paragraph.

The Clique-Coloring Pair and the Broken-Mosquito-Screen Pair The following construction is based on the observation that no $r$-vertex graph $G$ simultaneously admits both a $(k-1)$-coloring and a $k$-clique. This is expressed by the integer-infeasibility of:

$$
\begin{align*}
x_{i \ell}+x_{j \ell} \leq 2-z_{i j} & \forall\{i, j\} \in\binom{[r]}{2}, \forall \ell \in[k-1],  \tag{2a}\\
\sum_{\ell \in[k-1]} x_{i \ell} \geq 1 & \forall i \in[r], \\
y_{i}+y_{j} \leq 1+z_{i j} & \forall\{i, j\} \in\binom{[r]}{2},  \tag{2b}\\
\sum_{i \in[r]} y_{i} \geq k, & \tag{2c}
\end{align*}
$$

where we interpret $z \in\{0,1\} \begin{gathered}\binom{[r]}{2}\end{gathered}$ as an encoding of the graph $G=([r], E)$, with $z_{i j}=1$ if and only if $\{i, j\} \in E, x \in\{0,1\}^{r \times(k-1)}$ as a ( $k-1$ )-coloring of $G$, with $x_{i \ell}=1$ if and only if vertex $i$ gets assigned color $\ell$, and $y \in\{0,1\}^{r}$ as an $k$-clique of $G$, with $y_{i}=1$ if and only the clique contains vertex $i$.

If we write (2) in the form of (1), the pair of sets

$$
\begin{aligned}
& Z_{1}:=\left\{\left.z \in\{0,1\}^{\binom{(r n]}{2}} \right\rvert\, \exists x \in\{0,1\}^{r \times(k-1)}: A x \leq a-C z\right\} \text { and } \\
& Z_{2}:=\left\{z \in\{0,1\}^{\left(\begin{array}{c}
{\left[\begin{array}{c}
2] \\
2
\end{array}\right)}
\end{array} \exists y \in\{0,1\}^{r}: B y \leq b-D z\right\}}\right.
\end{aligned}
$$

is known as the clique-coloring pair or CC-pair. Note that $n_{1}=r(k-1), n_{2}=r$, and $n_{3}=$ $\binom{r}{2}=\left(r^{2}-r\right) / 2$ for later calculations. As already remarked, we have $Z_{1} \cap Z_{2}=\emptyset$.

Pudlák [25] gave the following lower-bound for any monotone real circuit separating the CC-pair:
Theorem 2. Every family of monotone real circuits separating the CC-pair with $r$ vertices and $k:=\left\lfloor\frac{1}{8}(r / \log r)^{2 / 3}\right\rfloor$ has size $2^{\Omega\left((r / \log r)^{1 / 3}\right)}$.

Note that $\log$ always refers to the logarithm with respect to base 2 in this paper.
Since $n_{3}=\left(r^{2}-r\right) / 2$ is the number of inputs to a circuit separating the CC-pair, we note

$$
2^{\Omega\left((r / \log r)^{1 / 3}\right)}=2^{\Omega\left(\left(n_{3} / \log n_{3}\right)^{1 / 6}\right)} \in 2^{\Omega\left(n_{3}^{1 / 6-\epsilon}\right)} \text { for every } \epsilon>0
$$

Theorem 2 is in contrast to the fact that the CC-Pair can be separated in polynomial time by semi-definite programming using Lovász' Theta body (cf., e.g., Remark 9.3.20(b) in [16]).

Another example of a disjoint pair of languages which requires a large monotone real circuit to be separated is the broken-mosquito-screen pair or BMS-pair. The BMS-pair is polynomially equivalent to the CC-pair [26] and is therefore also polynomial time separable. For the BMSpair, a slightly more explicit bound is available in the literature: Cook and Haken [17] show that any circuit separating the BMS-pair has at least $2^{K n_{3}}$ gates for some $K>0.32$.

Random CNFs and Infeasibility Certificates In this section we will consider Boolean variables $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$. A literal is a variable $x_{i}$ or its negation $\neg x_{i}$. A clause is a set of literals. A CNF (or formula in conjunctive normal form) is a set of clauses. A $k$-clause is a clause with $k$ variables and a $k-C N F$ is a CNF containing only $k$-clauses. The satisfiability problem is the problem of deciding whether there exists a satisfying assignment to a given CNF $\mathcal{C}$, i.e., an assignment $\alpha$ of binary values (or truth values) to $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$, such that every clause $C \in \mathcal{C}$ contains either a literal $x_{i}$ for a variable which is assigned to be true (i.e., $\alpha\left(x_{i}\right)=1$ ) or a literal $\neg x_{i}$ for a variable which is assigned to be false (i.e., $\alpha\left(x_{i}\right)=0$ ).

The satisfiability problem can be cast as an ILP in a straight-forward way:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{x_{i} \in C} x_{i}+\sum_{\neg x_{i} \in C}\left(1-x_{i}\right) \geq 1 \quad \forall C \in \mathcal{C}, \quad x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n} \in\{0,1\} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus we can speak about branch-and-bound trees refuting unsatisfiable CNFs.
A random $k$-CNF $\mathcal{C}$ in $n$ variables and $m$ clauses is obtained by picking $k$-clauses uniformly and independently at random from the $\binom{n}{k} 2^{k}$ possible $k$-clauses. Since we allow repetition, $\mathcal{C}$ may contain less than $m$ clauses. We are interested in choosing the parameters $m$ and $k$ in a way, such that the resulting CNFs are unsatisfiable, but hard to refute with high probability. Moreover, we are interested in choosing these parameters as small as possible. For this we follow the choices made in [18], where this is discussed in more detail. First observe that any random assignment to the variables satisfies $\mathcal{C}$ with probability $\left(1-2^{-k}\right)^{m}$. Hence, by the union bound there is a satisfying assignment with probability at most $\left(1-2^{-k}\right)^{m} 2^{n} \leq e^{-2^{-k} m} 2^{n}$. Hence, if we choose $m \geq(\ln 2+\varepsilon) 2^{k} n$ for some $\varepsilon>0$, then a random-formula is unsatisfiable with high probability, where $\ln$ refers to the natural logarithm. Note that if $k \in O(\log (n))$, then the number of clauses is polynomial in $n$.

Let $\mathcal{C}$ denote a CNF and $X_{0} \cup X_{1}=X:=\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\}$ denote a partition of its variables. Every clause $C_{i}$ in $\mathcal{C}$ can be written as as $C_{i}=C_{i}^{0} \cup C_{i}^{1}$, where $C_{i}^{j}$ contains only variables from $X_{j}$ and their negations. A monotone Boolean function $F:\{0,1\}^{m} \rightarrow\{0,1\}$ is an $\left(X_{0}, X_{1}\right)$ certificate (of infeasibility) for $\mathcal{C}$, if for every $A \subseteq[m]$ we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& F(A)=0 \Longrightarrow\left\{C_{i}^{1}: i \in[m] \backslash A\right\} \text { is unsatisfiable, } \\
& F(A)=1 \Longrightarrow\left\{C_{i}^{0}: i \in A\right\} \text { is unsatisfiable, }
\end{aligned}
$$

where we identify a set of (indices of) clauses with its characteristic vector. That is, given a subset $A$ of the clauses of $\mathcal{C}$ as input, $F$ determines one of the CNFs $\left\{C_{i}^{1}: i \in[m] \backslash A\right\}$ or $\left\{C_{i}^{0}: i \in A\right\}$ which is unsatisfiable. It is easy to see that, for any choice of $X_{0}$ and $X_{1}, \mathcal{C}$ admits an ( $X_{0}, X_{1}$ )-certificate if and only if it is unsatisfiable (Proposition 5 in [18]).

Similarly to interpolants, infeasibility certificates have high monotone real circuit complexity for some problems, among them the interesting case of random CNFs. We say that a sequence of events $(E(n))_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ holds with high probability if $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \operatorname{Pr}[E(n)]=1$. We then have:
Theorem 3 (Theorem 2 in [18]). Let $c>1$ be a constant and let $n \geq 1$ be given. Let $X_{0} \cup X_{1}$ be a partition of $2 n$ variables into two sets of equal size. If $\mathcal{C}$ is a random $k-C N F$ with $O\left(n 2^{k}\right)$ clauses, variables $X_{0} \cup X_{1}$, and $k \geq c \log (n)$, then every $\left(X_{0}, X_{1}\right)$-certificate for $\mathcal{C}$ requires monotone real circuits of size $2^{n^{\Omega(1)}}$ with high probability.

Note that the conditions in Theorem 3 do not ensure that $\mathcal{C}$ is unsatisfiable with high probability. Hence, for small values of $c$, the theorem states that with high probability either
every ( $X_{0}, X_{1}$ )-certificate requires large real monotone circuits or $\mathcal{C}$ is satisfiable (and thus there are no ( $X_{0}, X_{1}$ )-certificates at all). However, for $c>\ln 2$ almost all random CNFs as in the statement of the theorem are unsatisfiable, cf. the discussion above. A similar remark is true about most results about random CNFs in this paper.

The connection between infeasibility certificates and interpolation is explained via the observation that an infeasibility certificate for a CNF $\mathcal{C}=\left\{C_{1}, \ldots, C_{m}\right\}$ can be seen as an interpolant to a closely related CNF: Let $X_{0} \cup X_{1}$ be a partition of the variables in $\mathcal{C}$. We introduce additional variables $Y=\left\{y_{1}, \ldots, y_{m}\right\}$, one for every clause, and consider the CNF $\mathcal{D}$ with clauses

$$
C_{1}^{0} \cup\left\{\neg y_{1}\right\}, \ldots, C_{m}^{0} \cup\left\{\neg y_{m}\right\}, C_{1}^{1} \cup\left\{y_{1}\right\}, \ldots, C_{m}^{0} \cup\left\{y_{m}\right\} .
$$

Let $\mathcal{D}_{0}$ denote the CNF containing the first $m$ clauses (with variables $X_{0} \cup Y$ ) and $\mathcal{D}_{1}$ the CNF containing the second $m$ clauses (with variables $X_{1} \cup Y$ ). Let $Y_{i}$ (where $i \in\{0,1\}$ ) denote the collection of assignments $\alpha$ to the variables in $Y$ which make $\mathcal{D}_{i}$ satisfiable, if we fix a variable $y \in Y$ to $\alpha(y)$. It is then easy to see that any interpolant separating $Y_{0}$ and $Y_{1}$ is an ( $X_{0}, X_{1}$ )-certificate for $\mathcal{C}$ and vice versa. In particular, this observation implies that interpolation theorems also convert short proofs into infeasibility certificates with low monotone circuit complexity, which can be used to lift the lower bound given by Theorem 3 to a lower bound on the size of proofs, provided $\mathcal{D}$ is not significantly harder to refute than $\mathcal{C}$ (which typically does not seem to be the case).

## 3 Results

The central result of this work is that branch-and-bound using general disjunctions admits quasi-feasible monotone real interpolation, that is:
Theorem 4. Given a branch-and-bound tree $T$ for (1), there exists a monotone real circuit of size $50(n+1)^{2}|T|^{2} \cdot\left[(n+2)^{2} \log \left(10 n^{3}+3\right)\right]^{\log ((4 n+5)|T|)}$ with input $z$, which separates the sets $Z_{1}:=\left\{z \in\{0,1\}^{n_{3}} \mid \exists x \in\{0,1\}^{n_{1}}: A x \leq a-C z\right\}$ and $Z_{2}:=\left\{z \in\{0,1\}^{n_{3}} \mid \exists y \in\right.$ $\left.\{0,1\}^{n_{2}}: B y \leq b-D z\right\}$.

Choosing (1) to be integer linear programs expressing a separation problem for which we have lower bounds for separating monotone real circuits, we obtain lower bounds for branch-and-bound trees for (1). For example, combining Theorems 4 and 2 , we immediately obtain the following sub-exponential bound:
Theorem 5. Every family of branch-and-bound trees for (2), where $k:=\left\lfloor\frac{1}{8}(r / \log r)^{2 / 3}\right\rfloor$, has size at least $2^{\Omega\left(n^{1 / 6-\epsilon)}\right)}$, for every $\epsilon>0$, where $n$ is the number of variables.

We note that one could make this bound completely explicit, i.e., for fixed $\epsilon>0$, we can give $N \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\delta>0$, such that any branch-and-bound tree for (2) has size at least $2^{\delta n^{1 / 6-\epsilon}}$ for every $n \geq N$, by tracking the factor hidden in the $\Omega$-notation in Theorem 2 through its proof (see [25] building on [1] as presented in [28]). Alternatively, we can give a similar bound for the BMS-pair, which can then be made explicit by some elementary calculations.

Since the encoding length $L$ of (2) satisfies $L \in \Theta\left(n^{2}\right)$, we immediately obtain:
Corollary 6. Every family of branch-and-bound trees for (2), where $k:=\left\lfloor\frac{1}{8}(r / \log r)^{2 / 3}\right\rfloor$, has size at least $2^{\Omega\left(L^{1 / 12-\epsilon)}\right.}$, for every $\epsilon>0$, where $L$ is the encoding length (2).

We also obtain a similar result for random CNFs:
Theorem 7. If $\mathcal{C}$ is a random $k$-CNF with $2 n$ variables and $O\left(n 2^{k}\right)$-clauses, where $k \geq c \log n$ for a constant $c>1$, then any branch-and-bound tree for (3) for $\mathcal{C}$ has size at least $2^{n^{\Omega(1)}}$ with high probability.

The remainder of this section outlines how we prove Theorem 4. For this we will require three ingredients.

Let $P \in \mathbb{R}^{n_{1}}$ and $Q \in \mathbb{R}^{n_{2}}$ be two polytopes. Our first ingredient is the fact that given a certified branch-and-bound tree $T$ showing the integer-freeness of $P \times Q$, there is a branch-and-bound tree for the integer-freeness of $P$, which is structurally very close to $T$, or there is such a tree showing the integer-freeness of $Q$. This is helpful for showing Theorem 4, since after fixing the variables $z$, the feasible region of the LP-relaxation of (1) is a product of two lower-dimensional polytopes:

$$
\left\{x \in[0,1]^{n_{1}} \mid A x \leq a-C z\right\} \times\left\{y \in[0,1]^{n_{2}} \mid B y \leq b-D z\right\} .
$$

Given a branch-and-bound tree $T$ for showing integer-freeness of $P \times Q \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{n_{1} \times n_{2}}$, a branch-and-bound tree $T^{\prime}$ for $P$ conforms to $T$, if their underlying directed graphs (including the ordering of the children as $\leq$ - and $\geq$-children) are identical and, if the disjunction used by $T$ at a node $N$ is $\alpha^{\top} x+\beta^{\top} y \leq \delta \vee \alpha^{\top} x+\beta^{\top} y \geq \delta+1$, then the disjunction used by $T^{\prime}$ at $N$ is $\alpha^{\top} x \leq \delta^{\prime} \vee \alpha^{\top} x \geq \delta^{\prime}+1$ for some $\delta^{\prime} \in \mathbb{Z}$.

A precursor to our first ingredient will be the following Lemma.
Lemma 8. (Structural Interpolation Lemma) For every branch-and-bound tree $T$ for an integerfree product of polytopes $P \times Q$ there exits
(a) a branch-and-bound tree $T^{P}$ for $P$ conforming to $T$ or
(b) a branch-and-bound tree $T^{Q}$ for $Q$ conforming to $T$.

By applying Lemma 8 to a smallest branch-and-bound tree for $P \times Q$, we immediately obtain the following result, which is of independent interest.
Corollary 9. $\mathcal{T}(P \times Q)=\min (\mathcal{T}(P), \mathcal{T}(Q))$
Note that Lemma 8 does not give any information of what the right hand side of the disjunctions used at the nodes of $T^{P}$ or $T^{Q}$ should be, while almost every other property of the tree is preserved. The remaining two ingredients for the proof of Theorem 4 are intended to supply this information. To this end, it would be helpful, if Farkas-certificates maintain their validity when passing from $T$ to $T^{P}$ or $T^{Q}$. This is due to the fact that it is not clear how we can decide the LP-feasibility of a system of linear inequalities (even without integrality constraints), since we need to perform computations via monotone real circuits. However, it is easy to check whether a given Farkas-certificate is valid.

Unfortunately, Lemma 8 does not seem to hold for certified branch-and-bound trees. Indeed, the naive way to obtain Farkas-certificates for $T^{P}$ (or $T^{Q}$ ) from Farkas-certificates for $T$ does not work, i.e., for a leaf $L$ in $T^{P}$ using the projection of the Farkas-certificate $f^{L}$ attached to $L$ in $T$ onto constraints of $P$ and branching constraints. As a counter example, consider the square of the two-dimensional cross-polytope

$$
\begin{aligned}
C_{x}^{2} \times C_{y}^{2}:= & \left\{x_{1}, x_{2} \in[0,1]: \quad \sum_{i \in S} x_{i}+\sum_{i \notin S}\left(1-x_{i}\right) \leq \frac{3}{2} \quad \forall S \subseteq\{1,2\}\right\} \\
& \times\left\{y_{1}, y_{2} \in[0,1]: \sum_{i \in S} y_{i}+\sum_{i \notin S}\left(1-y_{i}\right) \leq \frac{3}{2} \quad \forall S \subseteq\{1,2\}\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

and the branch-and-bound tree shown in Figure 1a for $C_{x}^{2} \times C_{y}^{2}$. Here, let all Farkas-certificates at the leaves have the form

$$
\begin{array}{lll} 
& 1 \cdot & \left(\sum_{i \in S} x_{i}+\sum_{i \notin S}\left(1-x_{i}\right) \leq \frac{3}{2}\right) \\
+\sum_{i \in S} & 1 \cdot & \left(-x_{i} \leq-1\right) \\
+\sum_{i \notin S} & 1 \cdot & \left(x_{i} \leq 0\right) \\
\hline & & (0 \leq-0.5)
\end{array}
$$


(a) A branch-and-bound tree for $C_{x}^{2} \times C_{y}^{2}$.

(b) A conforming tree using quasi-Farkas-certificates.

Figure 1: A branch-and-bound tree for $C_{x}^{2} \times C_{y}^{2}$ showing that Lemma 8 does not hold for certified branch-and-bound trees. (b) shows a tree for $C_{y}^{2}$ conforming to the one in (a) using quasi-Farkascertificates. For the gray part of the tree, the second case from the definition of quasi-Farkascertificates holds, i.e., we do not require the validity of Farkas-certificates there.
for some $S \subseteq\{1,2\}$ or the analogous form for variables from $C_{y}^{2}$. For any leaf, there is only one such choice.

It is not hard to see that no choice of new right-hand-sides $\hat{\delta}$ can make every Farkascertificate $\hat{f}^{L}$ obtained as described above valid for all leaves simultaneously, when we try to obtain a conforming branch-and-bound tree for either $C_{x}^{2}$ or $C_{y}^{2}$ : For $C_{x}^{2}, \hat{\delta}_{r} \leq-1$ has to hold for the right-hand-side $\hat{\delta}_{r}$ used in the disjunction at the root $r$, if all Farkas-certificates in the $\leq$-branch at the root are to be valid. But then it is impossible for both Farkas-certificates at leaves in the $\geq$-branch to be valid simultaneously. The situation for $C_{y}^{2}$ is similar.

However, if we relax the notion of a Farkas-certificate very slightly, then Lemma 8 holds also for certified trees: Let $P$ be a polytope and $U$ an arbitrary set with $P \subseteq U$. A quasi-certified branch-and-bound tree $T$ for $P$ relative to $U$ is a branch-and-bound tree for $P$, such that to every leaf $L$ there is an attached quasi-Farkas-certificate $f^{L}$ relative to $U$, i.e., a vector $f^{L} \in \mathbb{Z}_{+}^{m_{L}}$ indexed by the $m_{L}$ constraints of the problem $T_{L}(P)$ associated to $L$, such that

1. $f^{L}$ is a valid Farkas-certificate for $T_{L}(P)$ or
2. an edge on the unique root-leaf path in $T$ to $L$ is labeled with a constraint $\alpha^{\top} x \leq \gamma$ $\left(\alpha^{\top} x \geq \gamma+1\right)$, such that $U \cap\left\{\alpha^{\top} x \leq \gamma\right\}=\emptyset\left(U \cap\left\{\alpha^{\top} x \geq \gamma+1\right\}=\emptyset\right)$.
Note that $f^{L}$ does not appear in the second condition. A quasi-certified branch-and-bound tree $T^{\prime}$ for $P$ conforms to a quasi-certified branch-and-bound tree $T$ for $P \times Q$, if it does so as (uncertified) branch-and-bound tree and moreover the quasi-Farkas-certificate $\left(f^{\prime}\right)^{L}$ attached to a leaf $L$ of $T^{\prime}$ is the projection of the quasi-Farkas-certificate $f^{L}$ attached to the leaf $L$ in $T$ onto variables corresponding to constraints of $P$ and branching constraints.

In the above example, there exists a quasi-certified branch-and-bound relative to $[0,1]^{2}$ conforming to the previously problematic tree, which is shown in Figure (1b). More generally, we have:
Lemma 10. (Certified Structural Interpolation Lemma) For every quasi-certified branch-andbound tree $T$ for an integer-free product of polytopes $P \times Q$ relative to $U=U_{P} \times U_{Q}$, where $P \subseteq$ $U_{P}, Q \subseteq U_{Q}$ and $U_{P}$ and $U_{Q}$ are bounded, there exists
(a) a quasi-certified branch-and-bound tree $T^{P}$ for $P$ relative to $U_{P}$ conforming to $T$ or
(b) a quasi-certified branch-and-bound tree $T^{Q}$ for $Q$ relative to $U_{Q}$ conforming to $T$.

Passing from certified trees to quasi-certified trees allows us to choose not to branch at a node $N$ of $T$ during construction of $T^{P}$ or $T^{Q}$ and instead immediately proceed as in one of the subtrees rooted at the children of $N$. Conceptually, it might seem cleaner to consider certified branch-and-bound trees which embed into $T$ for some suitable notion of embedding. However, this does not appear to work well with certificates. Moreover, we do not want to be forced to enumerate over all possible embedded trees later.

As previously mentioned, the last two ingredients for the proof of Theorem 4 instruct us how to reconstruct the right-hand-sides of the disjunctions in the tree $T^{P}$ or $T^{Q}$ given by Lemma 10 . The first ingredient is Theorem 1, which establishes that the set of possible right-hand-sides is not too large (if we recompile $T$ beforehand).

It then remains to show that if a tree $T^{P}$ as in Lemma 10 exits, we can search the space of possible right-hand-side - whose size is limited by Theorem 1 - efficiently via binary search, even in the quite restricted computational model of monotone real circuits.

More concretely, assume we have chosen values for the right-hand-sides of all disjunctions used at a descendant of a node $N$ in $T$ and are now choosing a value $\gamma_{N}$ for the disjunction used at $N$. If we consider (say) the ( $\alpha_{N}^{\top} x \geq \gamma_{N}+1$ )-branch at $N$, then we want to choose $\gamma_{N}$ as small as possible (i.e., we want to choose the inequality $\alpha_{N}^{\top} x \geq \gamma_{N}+1$ as weak as possible), such that we still obtain the validity of all quasi-Farkas-certificates in the $\left(\alpha_{N}^{\top} x \geq \gamma_{N}+1\right)$ branch (depending on the choices for the right-hand-sides for all disjunctions used at ancestors of $N$ ). Assume that we have already expressed the simultaneous validity of the quasi-Farkascertificates in the ( $\alpha_{N}^{\top} x \geq \gamma_{N}+1$ )-branch via a monotone real circuit computing values in $\{0,1\}$. The following result states we can efficiently compute the smallest possible value of $\gamma_{N}$ making these certificates valid via a monotone real circuit:
Lemma 11. (Oblivious Binary Search Lemma) For a monotone real circuit C computing values in $\{0,1\}$ with $k$ inputs, $\Lambda_{\max } \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $C\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k-1}, \Lambda_{\max }\right)=1$ for all $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k-1} \in \mathbb{R}$, and any $q \in \mathbb{N}$, there exists a monotone real circuit $\tilde{C}$ of size $|C| \cdot q$ which computes

$$
b:\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k-1}\right) \mapsto \max \left\{\lambda \in\left\{0, \ldots, 2^{q}-1\right\} \mid C\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k-1}, \Lambda_{\max }-\lambda\right)=1\right\}
$$

Note that $\tilde{C}$ uses $q$ invocations of $C$ to find the maximal $\lambda$ among the $2^{q}$ candidates in $\left\{0, \ldots, 2^{q}-1\right\}$ causing $C$ to accept on input $\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k-1}, \Lambda_{\max }-\lambda\right)$, which is the best we can reasonably expect while treating $C$ as a black box. In fact, the concrete form of the set of candidate values is irrelevant - we can search over any set of this cardinality with a circuit of the same size. This reflects the fact that the definition of monotone circuits does not make use of the arithmetical structure of the real numbers. Finally, we note that the assumption $C\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k-1}, \Lambda_{\max }\right)=1$ for all $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k-1} \in \mathbb{R}$ is purely for convenience and could be replaced by one more invocation of $C$ and a slightly less elegant definition of $b$.

A key observation is that we are able to choose the right-hand-side $\gamma_{N}$ of the disjunction at a node $N$ by querying the circuit corresponding to the smaller child subtree. We then have to invoke the circuit corresponding to the larger subtree only once, to ensure that this choice of $\gamma_{N}$ works for both subtrees. This will ensure the efficiency of our construction. Formally, we have:
Corollary 12. For $\kappa, \Lambda_{\min }, \Lambda_{\max } \in \mathbb{Z}$ and monotone real circuit $C_{1}$ and $C_{2}$ computing values in $\{0,1\}$ with $k$ inputs each, such that $C_{1}\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k-1}, \Lambda_{\max }\right)=1$ for all $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k-1} \in \mathbb{R}$ and $C_{2}\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k-1}, \kappa-\Lambda_{\min }\right)=1$ for all $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k-1} \in \mathbb{R}$, there exists a monotone real circuit $\tilde{C}$ with $k-1$ inputs which decides whether there exist integral values $x_{k}, x_{k}^{\prime} \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $x_{k}+x_{k}^{\prime}=\kappa$, such that $C_{1}\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right)=C_{2}\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k-1}, x_{k}^{\prime}\right)=1$ of size $\left|C_{1}\right| \cdot\lceil\log (L+1)\rceil+\left|C_{2}\right|$, where $L:=\Lambda_{\text {max }}-\Lambda_{\text {min }}$.

Note that above lemma and its corollary are the reason we consider monotone real circuit complexity. We do not see a way in which binary monotone circuits can achieve a similar result (when the inputs are provided in binary encoding).

Finally, for the proof of Theorem 4, we will construct a monotone real circuit which on input $z \in Z_{1} \cup Z_{2}$ decides whether after fixing the variables $z$ in (1), there exists a branch-and-bound tree $T^{P(z)}$ for $P(z)=\left\{x \in\{0,1\}^{n_{1}} \mid A x \leq a-C z\right\}$ as in Lemma 10 by efficiently searching the space of possible right-hand-sides using Corollary 12. Clearly, if such right-handsides exist, we have $z \in Z_{2}$ and $z \in Z_{1}$ otherwise.

## 4 Proofs

### 4.1 Proof of Lemmas 8 and 10

To showcase our technique, we begin by showing Lemma 8:
Proof of Lemma 8. Let $P:=\{x \mid A x \leq a\}$ and $Q:=\{y \mid B y \leq b\}$. We will proceed by induction on $|T|$. In case $|T|=1$, we have $P \times Q=\emptyset$, i.e., $P=\emptyset$ or $Q=\emptyset$, say $P=\emptyset$. Then there exists a branch-and-bound tree $T^{\prime}$ for $P$ with $\left|T^{\prime}\right|=1$ which conforms to $T$, since their common underlying directed graph does not contain any internal nodes.

Assume $|T|>1$ and that $\alpha^{\top} x+\beta^{\top} y \leq \delta \vee \alpha^{\top} x+\beta^{\top} y \geq \delta+1$ is the topmost disjunction of $T$. Let $N_{\leq}$denote the $\leq$-child of the root of $T$ and $T\left(N_{\leq}\right)$the subtree of $T$ rooted at $N_{\leq}$. For any $\gamma \in \mathbb{Z}$ the subtree $T\left(N_{\leq}\right)$is a valid branch-and-bound tree for

$$
(P \times Q)_{\leq \gamma}:=\left(P \cap\left\{\alpha^{\top} x \leq \delta+\gamma\right\}\right) \times\left(Q \cap\left\{\beta^{\top} y \leq-\gamma\right\}\right),
$$

since the two added constraints imply $\alpha^{\top} x+\beta^{\top} y \leq \delta$.
The induction hypothesis then implies that either (a) or (b) holds for $T\left(N_{\leq}\right)$and $(P \times Q)_{\leq \gamma}$. This allows us to define $\left(\mu_{\leq}(\gamma)\right)_{\gamma \in \mathbb{Z}}$ by

$$
\mu_{\leq}(\gamma):= \begin{cases}-1, & \text { if case (a) holds for } T\left(N_{\leq}\right) \text {and }(P \times Q)_{\leq \gamma}, \text { but case (b) does not, } \\ 0, & \text { if cases (a) and (b) both hold for } T\left(N_{\leq}\right) \text {and }(P \times Q)_{\leq \gamma}, \\ 1, & \text { if case (b) holds for } T\left(N_{\leq}\right) \text {and }(P \times Q)_{\leq \gamma}, \text { but case (a) does not. }\end{cases}
$$

Indeed, by the induction hypothesis, we have defined $\mu_{\leq}$for all possible cases. It is easy to see that $\mu \leq$ is non-decreasing. Moreover, $\mu \leq$ is neither identically -1 nor identically 1 , since sufficiently extreme values of $\gamma$ can render both $\left(P \cap\left\{\alpha^{\top} x \leq \delta+\gamma\right\}\right)$ and ( $Q \cap\left\{\beta^{\top} y \leq-\gamma\right\}$ ) empty (and hence any branch-and-bound tree is valid for them).

Similarly, we let $N_{\geq}$denote the $\geq$-child of the root of $T$ and $T\left(N_{\geq}\right)$the subtree of $T$ rooted at $N_{\geq}$. We define $(P \times Q)_{\geq \gamma}:=\left(P \cap\left\{\alpha^{\top} x \geq \delta+\gamma+1\right\}\right) \times\left(Q \cap\left\{\beta^{\top} y \geq-\gamma\right\}\right)$ and then $(\mu \geq(\gamma))_{\gamma \in \mathbb{Z}}$ by

$$
\mu_{\geq}(\gamma):= \begin{cases}-1, & \text { if case (a) holds for } T\left(N_{\geq}\right) \text {and }(P \times Q)_{\geq \gamma}, \text { but case (b) does not, } \\ 0, & \text { if cases (a) and (b) both hold for } T\left(N_{\geq}\right) \text {and }(P \times Q)_{\geq \gamma}, \\ 1, & \text { if case (b) holds for } T\left(N_{\geq}\right) \text {and }(P \times Q)_{\geq \gamma}, \text { but case (a) does not. }\end{cases}
$$

Note that $\mu_{\geq}(\gamma)$ is non-increasing and neither identically -1 nor identically 1 . We remark that this definition is not symmetric in $P$ and $Q$ (the ' +1 ' goes with $P$ ).

The noted properties of $\mu_{\leq}$and $\mu_{\geq}$imply that at least one of the following cases hold: Either (i) there is $\gamma \in \mathbb{Z}$, such that $\mu_{\leq}(\gamma) \leq 0$ and $\mu_{\geq}(\gamma) \leq 0$, or (ii) there is $\gamma \in \mathbb{Z}$, such that $\mu_{\leq}(\gamma)=\mu_{\geq}(\gamma-1)=1$.

If there exists $\gamma$ as in (i), we construct $T^{P}$ as desired by branching on $\alpha^{\top} x \leq \delta+\gamma \vee$ $\alpha^{\top} x \geq \delta+\gamma+1$ and attaching to the resulting children the trees for $\left(P \cap\left\{\alpha^{\top} x \leq \delta+\gamma\right\}\right)$ and ( $P \cap\left\{\alpha^{\top} x \geq \delta+\gamma+1\right\}$ ) conforming to $T\left(N_{\leq}\right)$and $T\left(N_{\geq}\right)$for which existence is guaranteed by $\mu_{\leq}(\gamma) \leq 0$ and $\mu_{\geq}(\gamma) \leq 0$.

Otherwise, there exists $\gamma$ as in (ii) and we construct $T^{Q}$ as desired by branching on $\beta^{\top} y \leq$ $-\gamma \vee \beta^{\top} y \geq-\gamma+1$ and attaching to the resulting children the trees for ( $Q \cap\left\{\beta^{\top} y \leq-\gamma\right\}$ ) and $\left(Q \cap\left\{\beta^{\top} y \geq-\gamma+1\right\}\right)$ conforming to $T\left(N_{\leq}\right)$and $T\left(N_{\geq}\right)$for which existence is guaranteed by $\mu_{\leq}(\gamma)=\mu_{\geq}(\gamma-1)=1$.

The proof of Lemma 10 follows the same arguments as Lemma 8, but we now need to track that the condition on the quasi-Farkas certificates holds as well.

Proof of Lemma 10. Let $P:=\{x \mid A x \leq a\}$ and $Q:=\{y \mid B y \leq b\}$, i.e.,

$$
P \times Q=\left\{\binom{x}{y} \left\lvert\,\left(\begin{array}{cc}
A & 0 \\
0 & B
\end{array}\right)\binom{x}{y} \leq\binom{ a}{b}\right.\right\} .
$$

We will proceed by induction on $|T|$. If we have $|T|=1$, then the root $r$ of $T$ is the unique node of $T$ and $T$ does not branch on any disjunctions. Hence, there is a valid Farkas-certificate $f^{r}$ attached to $r$. Let $f_{P}^{r}$ denote the projection of $f^{r}$ onto constraints belonging to $P$ and $f_{Q}^{r}$ the projection of $f^{r}$ onto constraints belonging to $Q$. We then have

$$
\binom{f_{P}^{r}}{f_{Q}^{r}}^{\top}\left(\begin{array}{cc}
A & 0 \\
0 & B
\end{array}\right)=0, \quad\binom{f_{P}^{r}}{f_{Q}^{r}}^{\top}\binom{a}{b}=\left(f_{P}^{r}\right)^{\top} a+\left(f_{Q}^{r}\right)^{\top} b<0
$$

It follows that $\left(f_{P}^{r}\right)^{\top} A=0,\left(f_{Q}^{r}\right)^{\top} B=0$, and that $\left(f_{P}^{r}\right)^{\top} a<0$ or $\left(f_{Q}^{r}\right)^{\top} b<0$. Hence, $f_{P}^{r}$ is a Farkas-certificate for the infeasibility of $P$ or $f_{Q}^{r}$ is a Farkas-certificate for the infeasibility of $Q$. Thus, the branch-and-bound tree with a single leaf and certificate $f_{P}^{r}$ for this leaf is a quasicertified branch-and-bound tree for $P$ relative to $U_{P}$ conforming to $T$ or the branch-and-bound tree with a single leaf and certificate $f_{Q}^{r}$ is a quasi-certified branch-and-bound tree for $Q$ relative for $U_{Q}$ conforming to $T$.

Assume $|T|>1$ and that $\alpha^{\top} x+\beta^{\top} y \leq \delta \vee \alpha^{\top} x+\beta^{\top} y \geq \delta+1$ is the topmost disjunction of $T$. Let $N_{\leq}$denote the $\leq$-child of the root of $T$ and $T\left(N_{\leq}\right)$the subtree of $T$ rooted at $N_{\leq}$. For any $\gamma \in \mathbb{Z}$ the subtree $T\left(N_{\leq}\right)$is a valid branch-and-bound tree for

$$
(P \times Q)_{\leq \gamma}:=\left(P \cap\left\{\alpha^{\top} x \leq \delta+\gamma\right\}\right) \times\left(Q \cap\left\{\beta^{\top} y \leq-\gamma\right\}\right)
$$

since the two added constraints imply $\alpha^{\top} x+\beta^{\top} y \leq \delta$. In order to use the induction hypothesis, we must turn $T\left(N_{\leq}\right)$into a quasi-certified branch-and-bound tree for $(P \times Q)_{\leq \gamma}$ relative to $U$. For every leaf $L$ in $T$ which is a descendant of $N_{\leq}$, there is a quasi-Farkas-certificate $f^{L}$ for the associated subproblem $T_{L}(P \times Q)$. To obtain the problem $T\left(N_{\leq}\right)_{L}\left((P \times Q)_{\leq \gamma}\right)$ associated to $L$ as a leaf of the branch-and-bound tree $T\left(N_{\leq}\right)$for $(P \times Q)_{\leq \gamma}$, we have to replace the constraint $\alpha^{\top} x+\beta^{\top} y \leq \delta$, which we denote by $\eta$, by $\alpha^{\top} x \leq \delta+\gamma$ and $\beta^{\top} y \leq-\gamma$, which we denote by $\eta_{P}$ and $\eta_{Q}$, respectively. We define $\tilde{f}^{L}$ indexed by the constraints of $T\left(N_{\leq}\right)_{L}\left((P \times Q)_{\leq \gamma}\right)$ by

$$
\tilde{f}_{\nu}^{L}= \begin{cases}f_{\nu}^{L}, & \text { if } \nu \notin\left\{\eta_{P}, \eta_{Q}\right\}, \\ f_{\eta}^{L}, & \text { if } \nu \in\left\{\eta_{P}, \eta_{Q}\right\} .\end{cases}
$$

We claim that $\tilde{f}^{L}$ is a Farkas-certificate for $T\left(N_{\leq}\right)_{L}\left((P \times Q)_{\leq \gamma}\right)$, if $f^{L}$ is one for $T_{L}(P \times Q)$. Indeed, let us consider the system $M\binom{x}{y} \leq m$, with

$$
M:=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
A & 0 \\
0 & B \\
E_{1} & E_{2}
\end{array}\right) \text { and } m:=\left(\begin{array}{l}
a \\
b \\
e
\end{array}\right),
$$

such that with $E:=\left[E_{1}, E_{2}\right]$ we have that $E\binom{x}{y} \leq e$ are the constraints of $T_{L}(P \times Q)$ which come from branching decisions in $T$ and additionally $\eta_{P}$ and $\eta_{Q}$. Moreover, extend $f^{L}$ and $\tilde{f}^{L}$ with zeros, so that the following computations are well-defined:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(f^{L}-\tilde{f}^{L}\right)^{\top} M & =f_{\eta}^{L} M_{\eta}-\tilde{f}_{\eta_{P}}^{L} M_{\eta_{P}}-\tilde{f}_{\eta_{Q}}^{L} M_{\eta_{Q}} \\
& =f_{\eta}^{L} M_{\eta}-f_{\eta}^{L} M_{\eta_{P}}-f_{\eta}^{L} M_{\eta_{Q}} \\
& =f_{\eta}^{L}\left(M_{\eta}-M_{\eta_{P}}-M_{\eta_{Q}}\right)=f_{\eta}^{L} \cdot 0=0
\end{aligned}
$$

and

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(f^{L}-\tilde{f}^{L}\right)^{\top} m & =f_{\eta}^{L} m_{\eta}-\tilde{f}_{\eta_{P}}^{L} m_{\eta_{P}}-\tilde{f}_{\eta_{Q}}^{L} m_{\eta_{Q}} \\
& =f_{\eta}^{L} m_{\eta}-f_{\eta}^{L} m_{\eta_{P}}-f_{\eta}^{L} m_{\eta_{Q}}=0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence, we have

$$
\left(\tilde{f}^{L}\right)^{\top} M=\left(f^{L}\right)^{\top} M=0 \text { and }\left(\tilde{f}^{L}\right)^{\top} m=\left(f^{L}\right)^{\top} m<0 .
$$

Thus, $\tilde{f}^{L}$ is a valid Farkas-certificate for the infeasibility of $T\left(N_{\leq}\right)_{L}\left((P \times Q)_{\leq \gamma}\right)$, if $f^{L}$ is one for $T_{L}(P \times Q)$. Furthermore, note that if there is an edge $e$ in the path from the root to $L$ in $T$ labeled with an inequality $\tilde{\alpha}^{\top} x+\tilde{\beta}^{\top} y \leq \tilde{\delta}$, such that $U \cap\left\{\tilde{\alpha}^{\top} x+\tilde{\beta}^{\top} y \leq \tilde{\delta}\right\}=\emptyset$ and $e$ is not the edge between the root and $N_{\leq}$, then $e$ is also contained in the path between the root and $L$ in $T\left(N_{\leq}\right)$.

Hence, if $U \cap\left\{\alpha^{\top} x+\beta^{\top} y \leq \delta\right\} \neq \emptyset$, then $T\left(N_{\leq}\right)$with the quasi-Farkas-certificates constructed above is indeed a valid quasi-certified branch-and-bound tree for $(P \times Q)_{\leq \gamma}$ relative to $U$ and thus, the induction hypothesis implies that (a) or (b) holds for $T\left(N_{\leq}\right)$as a branch-and-bound tree for $(P \times Q)_{\leq \gamma}$ relative to $U$. Moreover, if $U \cap\left\{\alpha^{\top} x+\beta^{\top} y \leq \delta\right\}=\emptyset$, then we have $U_{P} \cap\left\{\alpha^{\top} x \leq \delta+\gamma\right\}=\emptyset$ or $U_{Q} \cap\left\{\beta^{\top} y \leq-\gamma\right\}=\emptyset$.

Define the following cases:
(a') Case (a) holds for $T\left(N_{\leq}\right)$and $(P \times Q)_{\leq \gamma}$ or $U_{P} \cap\left\{\alpha^{\top} x \leq \delta+\gamma\right\}=\emptyset$.
(b') Case (b) holds for $T\left(N_{\leq}\right)$and $(P \times Q)_{\leq \gamma}$ or $U_{Q} \cap\left\{\beta^{\top} y \leq-\gamma\right\}=\emptyset$.
This allows us to define $\left(\mu_{\leq}(\gamma)\right)_{\gamma \in \mathbb{Z}}$ by

$$
\mu_{\leq}(\gamma):= \begin{cases}-1, & \text { if case }\left(\mathrm{a}^{\prime}\right) \text { holds, but case }\left(\mathrm{b}^{\prime}\right) \text { does not } \\ 0, & \text { if cases }\left(\mathrm{a}^{\prime}\right) \text { and }\left(\mathrm{b}^{\prime}\right) \text { both hold, } \\ 1, & \text { if case }\left(\mathrm{b}^{\prime}\right) \text { holds, but case }\left(\mathrm{a}^{\prime}\right) \text { does not. }\end{cases}
$$

Indeed, by the induction hypothesis and our previous considerations, we have defined $\mu_{\leq}$ for all possible cases. It is easy to see that $\mu_{\leq}$is non-decreasing. Moreover, $\mu_{\leq}$is neither identically -1 nor identically 1 , since sufficiently extreme values of $\gamma$ can render both ( $U_{P} \cap$ $\left.\left\{\alpha^{\top} x \leq \delta+\gamma\right\}\right)$ and ( $U_{Q} \cap\left\{\beta^{\top} y \leq-\gamma\right\}$ ) empty.

Similarly, one defines $(P \times Q)_{\geq \gamma}:=\left(P \cap\left\{\alpha^{\top} x \geq \delta+\gamma+1\right\}\right) \times\left(Q \cap\left\{\beta^{\top} y \geq-\gamma\right\}\right)$ and then the following cases:
( $\mathrm{a}^{\prime \prime}$ ) Case (a) holds for $T\left(N_{\geq}\right)$and $(P \times Q)_{\geq \gamma}$ or $U_{P} \cap\left\{\alpha^{\top} x \geq \delta+\gamma+1\right\}=\emptyset$.
( $\mathrm{b}^{\prime \prime}$ ) Case (b) holds for $T\left(N_{\geq}\right)$and ( $\left.P \times Q\right)_{\geq \gamma}$ or $U_{Q} \cap\left\{\beta^{\top} y \geq-\gamma\right\}=\emptyset$, and finally $\left(\mu_{\geq}(\gamma)\right)_{\gamma \in \mathbb{Z}}$ by

$$
\mu \geq(\gamma):= \begin{cases}-1, & \text { if case }\left(\mathrm{a}^{\prime \prime}\right) \text { holds, but case }\left(\mathrm{b}^{\prime \prime}\right) \text { does not, } \\ 0, & \text { if cases }\left(\mathrm{a}^{\prime \prime}\right) \text { and }\left(\mathrm{b}^{\prime \prime}\right) \text { both hold, } \\ 1, & \text { if case }\left(\mathrm{b}^{\prime \prime}\right) \text { holds, but case }\left(\mathrm{a}^{\prime \prime}\right) \text { does not. }\end{cases}
$$

One checks easily that $\mu \geq(\gamma)$ is non-increasing and neither identically -1 nor identically 1 .
The noted properties of $\mu \leq$ and $\mu \geq$ imply that at least one of the following cases hold: (i) There is $\gamma \in \mathbb{Z}$, such that $\mu_{\leq}(\gamma) \leq 0$ and $\mu_{\geq}(\gamma) \leq 0$, or (ii) there is $\gamma \in \mathbb{Z}$, such that $\mu_{\leq}(\gamma)=\mu_{\geq}(\gamma-1)=1$.

If there exists $\gamma$ as in case (i), i.e., cases ( $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$ ) and ( $\mathrm{a}^{\prime \prime}$ ) hold for this $\gamma$, we construct $T^{P}$ as desired by branching on $\alpha^{\top} x \leq \delta+\gamma \vee \alpha^{\top} x \geq \delta+\gamma+1$ and attaching to the resulting children $N_{\leq}$ and $N_{\geq}$the following trees: If (a) holds for $T\left(N_{\leq}\right)$and $(P \times Q)_{\leq \gamma}$, we attach the quasi-certified branch-and-bound tree $T\left(N_{\leq}\right)^{P}$ for $P \cap\left\{\alpha^{\top} x \leq \bar{\delta}+\gamma\right\}$ relative to $U_{P}$ conforming to $T\left(N_{\leq}\right)$given by (a). While doing so, we can keep the quasi-Farkas-certificates attached to leaves in $\bar{T}\left(N_{\leq}\right)^{P}$. For this, note that the set of constraints describing the problem $\left(T\left(N_{\leq}\right)^{P}\right)_{L}\left(P \cap\left\{\alpha^{\top} x \leq \gamma+\delta\right\}\right)$ associated to a leaf $L$ in the branch-and-bound tree $T\left(N_{\leq}\right)^{P}$ for $P \cap\left\{\alpha^{\top} x \leq \gamma+\delta\right\}$ is identical to the constraints describing the problem $\left(T^{P}\right)_{L}(P)$ associated to $L$ as a leaf of the branch-andbound tree $T^{P}$ for $P$. If (a) does not hold for $T\left(N_{\leq}\right)$and $(P \times Q)_{\leq \gamma}$, we have $U_{P} \cap\left\{\alpha^{\top} x \leq\right.$
$\delta+\gamma\}=\emptyset$, and we attach an arbitrary, not necessarily valid quasi-certified branch-and-bound tree conforming to $T\left(N_{\leq}\right)$.

Similarly, if (a) holds for $T\left(N_{\geq}\right)$and $(P \times Q)_{\geq \gamma}$, then we attach to $N_{\geq}$the quasi-certified branch-and-bound tree $T\left(N_{\geq}\right)^{P}$ relative to $U_{P}$ conforming to $T\left(N_{\geq}\right)$given by (a). Otherwise, we have $U_{P} \cap\left\{\alpha^{\top} x \geq \delta+\gamma+1\right\}=\emptyset$, and we attach an arbitrary, not necessarily valid quasicertified branch-and-bound tree for $P$ conforming to $T\left(N_{\geq}\right)$. Choose quasi-Farkas-certificates as in the previous case.

It is then easy to see that $T^{P}$ is conforming to $T$. It remains to check that $T^{P}$ is a valid quasi-certified branch-and-bound tree for $P$ relative to $U_{P}$. For this consider a leaf $L$ of $T^{P}$ in the subtree rooted at $N_{\leq}$. If we have $U_{P} \cap\left\{\alpha^{\top} x \leq \delta+\gamma\right\}=\emptyset$, there is nothing to check for $f^{L}$. Similarly, if there is an edge in $T\left(N_{\leq}\right)^{P}$ on the path from the root to $L$ labeled with an inequality $\tilde{\alpha}^{\top} x \leq \tilde{\delta}$, such that $U_{P} \cap\left\{\tilde{\alpha}^{\top} x \leq \tilde{\delta}\right\}=\emptyset$, then the same inequality appears on the path from the root to $L$ in $T^{P}$. The only remaining case is that the quasi-Farkas-certificate $f^{L}$ attached to $L$ in $T\left(N_{\leq}\right)^{P}$ is a Farkas-certificate for the associated problem $\left(T\left(N_{\leq}\right)^{P}\right)_{L}\left(P \cap\left\{\alpha^{\top} x \leq \delta+\gamma\right\}\right)$. But then $f^{L}$ is also a Farkas-certificate for the problem $\left(T^{P}\right)_{L}(P)$ associated to $L$ in $\bar{T}^{P}$, which is the same problem. For leaves in the subtree rooted at $N_{\geq}$we proceed similarly.

In case (ii) we proceed analogously.

### 4.2 Proofs of Lemma 11 and Corollary 12

Proof of Lemma 11. For ease of notation, we write $p:=q-1$ instead. Thus we have to compute

$$
b:\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k-1}\right) \mapsto \max \left\{\lambda \in\left\{0, \ldots, 2^{p+1}-1\right\} \mid C\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k-1}, \Lambda_{\max }-\lambda\right)=1\right\}
$$

We will construct a monotone real circuit $\tilde{C}$ of the desired size which works in $p+1$ phases $0, \ldots, p$. For each phase $i$, there will be a gate $h_{i}$ in $\tilde{C}$ representing the state of computation after phase $i$. The gate $h_{i}$ will compute the function

$$
b_{i}(x):=\lfloor b(x)\rfloor_{2^{p-i}},
$$

where $x=\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k-1}\right)$ and $\lfloor\cdot\rfloor_{2^{p-i}}$ denotes rounding down to the nearest integer divisible by $2^{p-i}$. Clearly, this suffices, since $h_{p}$ then computes the desired function. Moreover, $b_{0}$ can be computed by a copy $C_{0}$ of $C$, which receives $\left(x, \Lambda_{\max }-2^{p}\right)$ where the output gate $h_{0}$ is modified to compute $b_{0}(x)=2^{p} C\left(x, \Lambda_{\max }-2^{p}\right)$.

To construct the part of $\tilde{C}$ belonging to phase $i>0$, we will rely on the recurrence

$$
b_{i}(x)=b_{i-1}(x)+2^{p-i} C\left(x, \Lambda_{\max }-b_{i-1}(x)-2^{p-i}\right) .
$$

Unfortunately, this recurrence is not necessarily monotone in $x$ and $b_{i-1}$ due to the sign on the second occurrence of $b_{i-1}(x)$. However, since it is immediate from the definition that $b_{i-1}$ is divisible by $2^{p-(i-1)}$, we might as well consider the recurrence

$$
\begin{equation*}
b_{i}=\left\lfloor b_{i-1}\right\rfloor_{2^{p-(i-1)}}+2^{p-i} C\left(x, \Lambda_{\max }-\left\lfloor b_{i-1}\right\rfloor_{2^{p-(i-1)}}-2^{p-i}\right) \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note that we drop the dependence of $b_{i}$ and $b_{i-1}$ on $x$ to improve readability.
Unfortunately for us, the latter recurrence - while clearly monotone in $x$ and $b_{i-1}-$ still does not provide an obvious monotone real circuit, since the last summand applies a non-monotone function to $b_{i-1}$.

Thus, we have to give a version of $C$, which passes along the old bound $b_{i-1}$ from the $k$-th input gate to the output gate in the higher order bits, together with how $C$ behaves on input $\left(x, \Lambda_{\max }-b_{i-1}-2^{p-i}\right)$ in the lower order bits, in order to make our computation monotone.

We begin by assuming that every non-input gate in $C$ applies a function $f$ with range $f \subseteq$ $\left(0, \frac{1}{2}\right)$. This can be achieved by post-composing the function applied at every gate with the monotone bijection

$$
\varphi: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow\left(0, \frac{1}{2}\right), \quad y \mapsto\left(\arctan (y)+\frac{\pi}{2}\right) / 2 \pi
$$

and pre-composing every function applied at a gate, which takes as input such a modified gate, with $\varphi^{-1}$ for the respective input. Let $C^{\prime}$ be the monotone real circuit obtained from $C$ this way. We then have $C^{\prime}(x)=\varphi(C(x))$.

Next, we introduce a gate $\tilde{g}_{k}$, which provides both the $k$-th input (which is supposed to be $b_{i-1}$ ) and the transformed value of $\Lambda_{\max }-b_{i-1}-2^{p-i}$, i.e, both inputs to $\tilde{g}_{k}$ are the $k$-th input gate $g_{k}$ of $C^{\prime}$ and the function applied at $\tilde{g}_{k}$ is

$$
f^{i}\left(g_{k}, g_{k}\right):=\left\lfloor g_{k}\right\rfloor_{2^{p-(i-1)}}+\varphi\left(\Lambda_{\max }-\left\lfloor g_{k}\right\rfloor_{2^{p-(i-1)}}-2^{p-i}\right) .
$$

Then, for every gate $g$ which uses $g_{k}$ as input in $C^{\prime}$, we let $g$ use $\tilde{g}_{k}$ as input instead. We note $f^{i}$ is non-decreasing: If an increase of $g_{k}$ would cause the summand involving $\varphi$ to decrease, then it decreases by at most $\frac{1}{2}$, but the other summand then increases by at least 1 .

Let $S$ denote the set of gates in $C^{\prime}$ which are a descendant of $g_{k}$ (hence now of $\tilde{g}_{k}$ ) and consider a gate $g$ in $S$ with predecessors $g_{1}$ and $g_{2}$, such that $g_{1} \in S$, but $g_{2} \notin S$. We then replace the function $f_{g}\left(g_{1}, g_{2}\right)$ applied at $g$ by the function

$$
f_{g}^{i}\left(g_{1}, g_{2}\right):=\left\lfloor g_{1}\right\rfloor_{2^{p-(i-1)}}+f_{g}\left(\left\{g_{1}\right\}_{2^{p-(i-1)}}, g_{2}\right)
$$

where $\left\{g_{1}\right\}_{2^{p-(i-1)}}:=g_{1}-\left\lfloor g_{1}\right\rfloor_{2^{p-(i-1)}}$. We check that $f_{g}^{i}$ is non-decreasing: If an increase of $g_{1}$ would cause $\left\{g_{1}\right\}$ to decrease, then $f_{g}\left(\left\{g_{1}\right\}_{2^{p-(i-1)}}, g_{2}\right)$ decreases by at most $\frac{1}{2}$, since range $f_{g} \subseteq\left(0, \frac{1}{2}\right)$, while $\left\lfloor g_{1}\right\rfloor_{2^{p-(i-1)}}$ increases by at least 1 .

If $g$ is a gate with both predecessor $g_{1}$ and $g_{2}$ in $S$, we replace the function $f_{g}$ applied at $g$ by

$$
f_{g}^{i}\left(g_{1}, g_{2}\right):=\left(\left\lfloor g_{1}\right\rfloor_{2^{p-(i-1)}}+\left\lfloor g_{2}\right\rfloor_{2^{p-(i-1)}}\right) / 2+f_{g}\left(\left\{g_{1}\right\}_{2^{p-(i-1)}},\left\{g_{2}\right\}_{2^{p-(i-1)}}\right),
$$

Once again, $f_{g}^{i}$ is non-decreasing by an analogous argument.
Let $C_{i}$ denote the monotone real circuit obtained by applying these modifications to $C^{\prime}$. For a gate $g^{\prime}$ in $C^{\prime}$, let $g^{i}$ denote the corresponding gate of $C_{i}$. It is then easy to show by induction along a topological order on the gates of $C^{\prime}$ (or equivalently $C_{i}$ ) that

$$
g^{i}\left(x, b_{i-1}\right)= \begin{cases}g^{\prime}\left(x, \Lambda_{\max }-b_{i-1}-2^{p-i}\right), & \text { if } g \notin S, \\ b_{i-1}+g^{\prime}\left(x, \Lambda_{\max }-b_{i-1}-2^{p-i}\right) & \text { if } g \in S\end{cases}
$$

We note that this holds for the input gates $g_{1}, \ldots g_{k-1}$ and $\tilde{g}_{k}$. For a non-input gate $g^{\prime}$ in $C^{\prime}$, consider for example the case where $g$ has predecessors $g_{1}^{\prime}$ and $g_{2}^{\prime}$, such that $g_{1}^{\prime} \in S$ and $g_{2}^{\prime} \notin S$. Then a straight-forward computation yields

$$
\begin{aligned}
g^{i}\left(x, b_{i-1}\right)= & f_{g}^{i}\left(g_{1}^{i}\left(x, b_{i-1}\right), g_{2}^{i}\left(x, b_{i-1}\right)\right) \\
= & \left\lfloor g_{1}^{i}\left(x, b_{i-1}\right)\right\rfloor_{2}{ }_{2-(1-i)}+f_{g}\left(\left\{g_{1}^{i}\left(x, b_{i-1}\right)\right\}_{2^{p-(1-i)}}, g_{2}^{i}\left(x, b_{i-1}\right)\right) \\
= & \left\lfloor b_{i-1}+g_{1}^{\prime}\left(x, \Lambda_{\max }-b_{i-1}-2^{p-i}\right)\right\rfloor_{2^{p-(1-i)}} \\
& +f_{g}\left(\left\{b_{i-1}+g_{1}^{\prime}\left(x, \Lambda_{\max }-b_{i-1}-2^{p-i}\right)\right\}_{2^{p-(i-1)}}, g_{2}^{\prime}\left(x, \Lambda_{\max }-b_{i-1}-2^{p-i}\right)\right) \\
= & b_{i-1}+f_{g}\left(g_{1}^{\prime}\left(x, \Lambda_{\max }-b_{i-1}-2^{p-i}\right), g_{2}^{\prime}\left(x, \Lambda_{\max }-b_{i-1}-2^{p-i}\right)\right) \\
= & b_{i-1}+g^{\prime}\left(x, \Lambda_{\max }-b_{i-1}-2^{p-i}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

as desired, where the first and last identity are due to the definition of the computed function, the second due to the definition of $f_{g}^{i}$, the third due to the induction hypothesis and the fourth due to $b_{i-1}=\left\lfloor b_{i-1}\right\rfloor_{2^{p-(i-1)}}$ and range $g \in\left(0, \frac{1}{2}\right)$. The other cases are analogous.

By considering this identity for the output gate $h^{i}$ of $C_{i}$ (note that we can assume to be in the second case), we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
C_{i}\left(x, b_{i-1}\right) & =b_{i-(i-1)}+C^{\prime}\left(x, \Lambda_{\max }-b_{i-1}-2^{p-i}\right) \\
& =b_{i-(i-1)}+\varphi\left(C\left(x, \Lambda_{\max }-b_{i-1}-2^{p-i}\right)\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, by our recurrence (4), if we post-compose the function applied at $h_{i}$ with

$$
y \mapsto \begin{cases}\lfloor y\rfloor_{2^{p-(i-1)}} & \text { if }\{y\}_{2^{p-(i-1)}}<\varphi(1), \\ \lfloor y\rfloor_{2^{p-(i-1)}}+2^{p-i} & \text { if }\{y\}_{2^{p-(i-1)}} \geq \varphi(1),\end{cases}
$$

we obtain a monotone real circuit which on input $\left(x, b_{i-1}\right)$ computes $b_{i}$. For this, note that $\left\{C_{i}\left(x, b_{i-1}\right)\right\}_{2^{p-(i-1)} \tilde{C}}=\varphi\left(C\left(x, \Lambda_{\max }-b_{i-1}-2^{p-i}\right)\right)<\varphi(1)$ is equivalent to $C\left(x, \Lambda_{\max }-b_{i-1}-\right.$ $\left.2^{p-i}\right)=0$. Then $\tilde{C}$ can be constructed in the obvious way, i.e., by sequentially using the constructed circuits $C_{0}, \ldots, C_{p}$ to compute the values $b_{0}(x), \ldots, b_{p}(x)=b(x)$.

For the size bound, observe that we have used $q=p+1$ copies of $C$ and that the introduced auxiliary gates $\tilde{g}_{k}$ can be eliminated from the circuit, since the functions applied at the children of $\tilde{g}_{k}$ can instead be pre-composed with the function applied at $\tilde{g}_{k}$.
Proof of Corollary 12. Choose $q:=\lceil\log (L+1)\rceil$ and apply Lemma 11 to $C_{1}$ to construct $\tilde{C}_{1}$, such that the output gate $h$ of $\tilde{C}_{1}$ computes

$$
b:\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k-1}\right) \mapsto \max \left\{\lambda \in\left\{0, \ldots, 2^{q}-1\right\} \mid C\left(x_{1}, \ldots, \Lambda_{\max }-\lambda\right)=1\right\} .
$$

and use a copy of $C_{2}$ to compute $C_{2}\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k-1}, \kappa-\left(\Lambda_{\max }-b\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k-1}\right)\right)\right.$ ).
Clearly, if the output gate of this copy of $C_{2}$ computes 1 , then $x_{k}=\Lambda_{\max }-b\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k-1}\right)$ and $x_{k}^{\prime}=\kappa-x_{k}$ satisfy $C_{1}\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k-1}, x_{k}\right)=C_{2}\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k-1}, x_{k}^{\prime}\right)=1$ and $x_{k}+x_{k}^{\prime}=\kappa$. Otherwise, there are no possible such choices for $x_{k}$ and $x_{k}^{\prime}$, since for $x_{k}<\Lambda_{\max }-b\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k-1}\right)$ we have $C_{1}\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k-1}, x_{k}\right)=0$ and for $x_{k} \geq \Lambda_{\max }-b\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k-1}\right)$ and $x_{k}^{\prime}=\kappa-x_{k}$ we have $C_{2}\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k-1}, x_{k}^{\prime}\right)=0$. Hence, the constructed circuit decides the question posed in the corollary.

### 4.3 Proof of Theorem 4

For ease of notation, we assume that the variable bounds in (1) are incorporated into the constraints. Then the LP-relaxation of (1) is given by:

$$
\binom{A}{0} x+\binom{0}{B} y+\binom{C}{D} z \leq\binom{ a}{b},
$$

The basic structure of the proof is as follows: Given $z \in Z_{1} \cup Z_{2}$, where $Z_{1}=\left\{z \in\{0,1\}^{n_{3}} \mid \exists x \in\right.$ $\left.\{0,1\}^{n_{1}}: A x \leq a-C z\right\}$ and $Z_{2}=\left\{z \in\{0,1\}^{n_{3}} \mid \exists y \in\{0,1\}^{n_{2}}: B y \leq b-D z\right\}$, and a branch-and-bound tree $T$ for the infeasibility of (1), we compute Farkas-certificates for the leaves of $T$ and then obtain a certified branch-and-bound tree $\tilde{T}$ for $P(z) \times Q(z):=\{A x \leq a-C z\} \times\{B x \leq$ $b-D z\}$ by plugging in the values for $z$ in the disjunctions used in $T$. Then at least one of the alternatives in Lemma 10 holds. However, since $z \in Z_{1} \cup Z_{2}$, exactly one of $P(z)$ and $Q(z)$ is integer-feasible, and thus at most one of the alternatives in Lemma 10 holds. Clearly, we have $z \in Z_{2}$ if and only if there exists a quasi-certified branch-and-bound tree $(\tilde{T})^{P}$ for $P(z)$ conforming to $\tilde{T}$. Thus, if we construct a monotone real circuit $C$ that given values for the $z$ variables decides whether there exists such a tree $(\tilde{T})^{P}$, then $C$ separates $Z_{1}$ and $Z_{2}$. We work out the details below:

Proof of Theorem 4. We again assume that variable bounds in (1) are incorporated into the constraints as above. We begin by applying Theorem 1 to our branch-and-bound tree $T$ for (1) to obtain a certified branch-and-bound tree $T^{\prime}$ for (1) with bounded coefficients: Note that the linear programming relaxation of (1) is contained in the ball $B_{1}^{n}(n)=\left\{x \in \mathbb{R}^{n} \mid\|x\|_{1} \leq n\right\}$, where $n:=n_{1}+n_{2}+n_{3}$. Hence, we can assume that for every disjunction $d^{\top} w \leq \delta \vee d^{\top} w \geq \delta+1$ used in $T^{\prime}$, we have $\max \left\{\|d\|_{\infty},|\delta|\right\} \leq\left(10 n^{2}\right)^{(n+2)^{2}}$ and moreover we have $\left|T^{\prime}\right| \leq(4 n+5)|T|$. Then we fix some Farkas-certificates for $T^{\prime}$ which thus becomes a certified branch-and-bound tree.


Figure 2: Illustrations of $L_{\text {min }}, L_{\max }, \mathcal{U}(N)$ and $\mathcal{V}(N)$.

By fixing the values of $z$ in the disjunctions used in $T^{\prime}$, we obtain a certified branch-andbound tree $\tilde{T}$ for $P(z) \times Q(z):=\{A x \leq a-C z\} \times\{B y \leq b-D z\}$. Since $P(z) \times Q(z) \subseteq[0,1]^{n_{1}} \times$ $[0,1]^{n_{2}}$, we may also consider $\tilde{T}$ as a quasi-certified branch-and-bound tree for $P(z) \times Q(z)$ relative to $[0,1]^{n_{1}} \times[0,1]^{n_{2}}$.

Let $\mathcal{N}\left(T^{\prime}\right)$ denote the set of internal nodes of $T^{\prime}$ and let $\gamma \in \mathbb{Z}^{\mathcal{N}\left(T^{\prime}\right)}$. Consider the not necessarily valid quasi-certified branch-and-bound tree $\tilde{T}^{P}(\gamma)$ for $P(z)$ relative to $[0,1]^{n_{1}}$, which has the same underlying directed tree as $\tilde{T}$, and at a node $N$ branches on the disjunction $\alpha_{N}^{\top} x \leq \gamma_{N} \vee \alpha_{N}^{\top} x \geq \gamma_{N}+1$, when $\tilde{T}$ branches at $N$ on the disjunction $\alpha_{N}^{\top} x+\beta_{N}^{\top} y \leq \delta \vee \alpha_{N}^{\top} x+$ $\beta_{N}^{\top} y \geq \delta_{N_{\tilde{N}}}+1$. Similarly, the Farkas-certificate at a leaf $L$ of $\tilde{T}^{P}(\gamma)$ is the Farkas-certificate at leaf $L$ of $\tilde{T}$ with the entries corresponding to constraints from $Q(z)$ removed. We are interested in whether there exists a choice for $\gamma$ for which $\tilde{T}^{P}(\gamma)$ is a valid quasi-certified branch-and-bound tree for $P(z)$ relative to $[0,1]^{n_{1}}$.

For any candidate disjunction $\alpha_{N}^{\top} x \leq \gamma_{N} \vee \alpha_{N}^{\top} x \geq \gamma_{N}+1$ to be used at a node $N$ in $\tilde{T}^{P}(\gamma)$, the slab $\left\{x \in \mathbb{R}^{n_{1}}: \gamma_{N} \leq \alpha_{N}^{\top} x \leq \gamma_{N}+1\right\}$ has width $\frac{1}{\left\|\alpha_{N}\right\|_{2}} \geq \frac{1}{\sqrt{n_{1} \| \alpha_{N}} \|_{\infty}}$. Since

$$
\max \left\{\left.\left(\frac{\alpha_{N}}{\left\|\alpha_{N}\right\|_{2}}\right)^{\top} x \right\rvert\, x \in[0,1]^{n_{1}}\right\}-\min \left\{\left.\left(\frac{\alpha_{N}}{\left\|\alpha_{N}\right\|_{2}}\right)^{\top} x \right\rvert\, x \in[0,1]^{n_{1}}\right\} \leq \sqrt{n}_{1}
$$

we have that at most $\sqrt{n_{1}} \cdot \sqrt{n_{1}}\left\|\alpha_{N}\right\|_{\infty}+2 \leq n\left(10 n^{2}\right)^{(n+2)^{2}}+2$ of our slabs intersect $[0,1]^{n_{1}}$. Let $L_{\min }^{N}$ denote the maximal value for $\gamma$ for which $[0,1]^{n_{1}} \cap\left\{\alpha_{N}^{\top} x \leq \gamma\right\}=\emptyset$ (cf. Figure 2a). Similarly, let $L_{\max }^{N}$ denote the minimal $\gamma$ for which $[0,1]^{n_{1}} \cap\left\{\alpha_{N}^{\top} x \geq \gamma+1\right\}=\emptyset$. Moreover, let $L^{N}:=L_{\max }^{N}-L_{\min }^{N}$ and $L:=\max \left\{L^{N} \mid N\right.$ internal node of $\left.T^{\prime}\right\} \leq n\left(10 n^{2}\right)^{(n+2)^{2}}+2$.

Then, for every internal node $N$ of $T^{\prime}$, we introduce two variables $\gamma_{N}^{+}$and $\gamma_{N}^{-}$. Variable $\gamma_{N}^{+}$ represents how far the right-hand-side of the disjunction at $N$ is chosen away from the lower bound $L_{\min }^{N}$, while $\gamma_{N}^{-}$represents how far the right-hand-side of the disjunction at $N$ is chosen away from the upper bound $L_{\max }^{N}$. Thus, $\gamma_{N}=L_{\min }^{N}+\gamma_{N}^{+}=L_{\max }^{N}-\gamma_{n}^{-}$. Hence, in order for the pair $\left(\gamma_{N}^{+}, \gamma_{N}^{-}\right)$to represent a valid right-hand-side for the node $N$, we must have $\gamma_{N}^{+}+\gamma_{N}^{-}=L^{N}$. Note that this representation of $\gamma_{N}$ allows us to work with the usual definition of monotone real circuits and not deal with the case where a function is non-increasing in an input variable.

For every node $N$ of $T^{\prime}$, let anc $(N)$ denote the set of proper ancestors of $N$ (i.e., excluding $N$ ).

Then define

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathcal{V}(N):=\mathcal{V}^{+}(N) \cup \mathcal{V}^{-}(N):=\left\{\gamma_{M}^{+} \left\lvert\, \begin{array}{l}
M \in \operatorname{anc}(N) \text { and } N \text { is in the subtree } \\
\text { rooted at the } \alpha_{M}^{\top} x \geq \gamma_{M}+1 \text {-child of } M
\end{array}\right.\right\} \\
& \cup\left\{\gamma_{M}^{-} \left\lvert\, \begin{array}{l}
M \in \operatorname{anc}(N) \text { and } N \text { is in the subtree } \\
\text { rooted at the } \alpha_{M}^{\top} x \leq \gamma_{M} \text {-child of } M
\end{array}\right.\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

and

$$
\mathcal{U}(N):=\left\{\gamma_{M}^{-}, \gamma_{M}^{+} \mid M \text { internal node of } T^{\prime} \text { and descendant of } N\right\} .
$$

For this definition, we consider $N$ as a descendant of $N$. See Figure 2b for an example.
Then, for the sake of induction, we strengthen the statement of the theorem to:
Claim. For every node $N$ of $T^{\prime}$, there exists a monotone real circuit $C_{N}$ of size $\left|T^{\prime}(N)\right|$. $2\left(\left|T^{\prime}\right|+n_{3}\right) \cdot \log (L+1)^{\log \left|T^{\prime}(N)\right|}$, which receives as inputs values for the variables $\mathcal{Z} \cup \mathcal{V}(N)$, where $\mathcal{Z}:=\left\{z_{1}, \ldots, z_{n_{3}}\right\}$ and decides whether there exist values for the variables $\mathcal{U}(N)$, which obey $\gamma_{N}^{+}+\gamma_{N}^{-}=L^{N}$ and choosing

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\gamma_{N}:=L_{\min }^{N}+\gamma_{N}^{+} & \forall \gamma_{N}^{+} \in \mathcal{U}(N) \cup \mathcal{V}^{+}(N) \quad \text { and } \\
\gamma_{N}:=L_{\max }^{N}-\gamma_{N}^{-} & \forall \gamma_{N}^{-} \in \mathcal{V}^{-}(N)
\end{array}
$$

turns every $f^{L}$ attached to a leaf $L$ in the corresponding subtree $\tilde{T}^{P}(\gamma)(N)$ rooted at $N$ in $\tilde{T}^{P}(\gamma)$ into a valid quasi-Farkas-certificate for $L$ in the branch-and-bound tree $\tilde{T}^{P}(\gamma)$ for $P(z)$ relative to $[0,1]^{n_{1}}$.

Note that $\gamma$ is only partially defined by the definition given in the claim; however, all entries of $\gamma$ which are relevant for the validity of the quasi-Farkas-certificates in $\tilde{T}^{P}(\gamma)(N)$ are defined.

It suffices to show the claim, since then $C:=C_{r}$ (where $r$ denotes the root of $T^{\prime}$ ) decides whether there exists a branch-and-bound tree $(\tilde{T})^{P}$ for $P(z)$ conforming to $\tilde{T}$ and hence separates $Z_{1}$ and $Z_{2}$.

We begin by noting that for every input $\gamma_{M}^{ \pm}$of such a circuit $C_{N}$ corresponding to the right-hand-side of the disjunction used at a node $M$ in $\mathcal{V}(N)$, we have $C_{N}\left(z, \tilde{\gamma}, L^{M}\right)=1$ for all $(z, \tilde{\gamma}) \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{Z} \cup\left(\mathcal{V}(N) \backslash \gamma_{M}^{ \pm}\right)}$, since then the side of the disjunction at $M$ which corresponds to the branch containing $N$ does not intersect $[0,1]^{n_{1}}$ and hence all vectors attached to leaves in $\tilde{T}^{P}(\gamma)(N)$ are valid quasi-Farkas-certificates.

We prove the claim via induction on $|\tilde{T}(N)|$. If $|\tilde{T}(N)|=1$, then $N$ is a leaf. Hence, $\mathcal{U}(N)=\emptyset$ and since we are given values for all variables from $\mathcal{Z} \cup \mathcal{V}(N)$, we are given all right-hand-sides to the subproblem $\tilde{T}^{P}(\gamma)_{N}(P(z))=:\left\{x \in \mathbb{R}^{n_{1}} \mid E x \leq e\right\}$ associated to the leaf $N$ of the tree $\tilde{T}^{P}(\gamma)$ for $P(z)$. We have to test whether $f^{N}$ is a valid quasi-Farkas-certificate. To this end, it suffices to test if $\left(f^{L}\right)^{\top} e<0$, since we have $\left(f^{L}\right)^{\top} E=0$, because $T^{\prime}$ is a valid certified branch-and-bound tree for $P(z) \times Q(z)$ (see the proof of Lemma 10). Note that $\tilde{T}^{P}(\gamma)_{N}(P(z))$ contains constraints which are also contained in $P(z)$ and are indexed with numbers $i \in\left[m_{1}\right]$ and constraints of the form $\alpha_{M}^{\top} x \geq \gamma_{M}+1$ or $\alpha_{M}^{\top} x \leq \gamma_{M}$ coming from branching, which we will index with the node $M$ at which they appear in a disjunction. We then calculate:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(f^{L}\right)^{\top} e & =\sum_{i \in\left[m_{1}\right]} f_{i}^{N}\left(a_{i}-C_{i} z\right)+\sum_{\gamma_{M}^{+} \in \mathcal{V}^{+(N)}} f_{M}^{N}\left(-L_{\min }^{M}-\gamma_{M}^{+}-1\right)+\sum_{\gamma_{M}^{-} \in \mathcal{V}^{-}(N)} f_{M}^{N}\left(L_{\max }^{M}-\gamma_{M}^{-}\right) \\
& =: k^{N}-\sum_{\tau \in \mathcal{Z} \cup \mathcal{V}(N)} s_{\tau}^{N} \cdot \tau,
\end{aligned}
$$

where $C_{i}$ is the $i$-th row of $C$ and the second line is defined by aggregating variables and constants. We note that the resulting $s_{\tau}^{N}$ are non-negative (recall $C$ is non-negative). Evidently, the sum in the second line can be computed by a monotone real circuit with inputs corresponding to the elements of $\mathcal{Z} \cup \mathcal{V}(N)$ and $|\mathcal{Z} \cup \mathcal{V}(N)|-1$ further gates by iteratively adding summands.

Note that adding $s_{\tau}^{N}$ times the first input to the second input is a monotone operation, since $s_{\tau}^{N}$ is non-negative. By post-composing the function applied at the output gate with the function sending numbers larger than $k^{N}$ to 1 and numbers at most $k^{N}$ to 0 , we obtain a monotone real circuit $\hat{C}_{N}$ that decides whether $f^{N}$ is a Farkas-certificate.

We modify $\hat{C}_{N}$ to obtain a monotone real circuit $C_{N}$ which decides whether $f^{N}$ is a quasi-Farkas-certificate as follows: For every gate $g$ in $\hat{C}_{N}$ which adds $s_{\tau}^{N}$-times the value of an input $\gamma_{M}^{+} \in \mathcal{V}(N)$ (or $\gamma_{M}^{-}$) to our sum, we modify the function applied at this gate such that it adds a very large constant $K^{N}$ instead, if $\gamma_{M}^{+} \geq L_{M}\left(\gamma_{M}^{-} \geq L_{M}\right)$. By our definition of $L_{M}$ and $\gamma_{M}$, this is the case if and only if the side of the disjunction at the node $M$ corresponding to the subtree of $M$ containing $N$, does not intersect $[0,1]^{n_{1}}$, which makes $f^{N}$ a valid quasi-Farkas-certificate relative to $[0,1]^{n_{1}}$ by definition. Hence, if we choose $K^{N}$ sufficiently large, such that $C_{N}$ will certainly accept in this case, for example $K^{N}:=k^{N}+1$, then $C_{N}$ correctly decides whether $f^{N}$ is a valid quasi-Farkas-certificate. Moreover, $C_{N}$ satisfies the claimed bound on its size.

If $\left|T^{\prime}(N)\right|>1$, we appeal to Corollary 12: Let $N_{\leq}$and $N_{\geq}$denote the children of $N$. Then, by the induction hypothesis, there exist circuits $C_{N_{\leq}}$and $C_{N_{\geq}}$for these nodes as in the claim. Since $\mathcal{V}\left(N_{\leq}\right)=\mathcal{V}(N) \cup\left\{\gamma_{N}^{-}\right\}=\left(\mathcal{V}\left(N_{\geq}\right) \backslash\left\{\gamma_{N}^{+}\right\}\right) \cup\left\{\gamma_{N}^{-}\right\}$and $C_{N_{\leq}}^{\geq}\left(z, \tilde{\gamma}, L^{N}\right)=C_{N_{\geq}}\left(z, \tilde{\gamma}, L^{N}\right)=1$ for all $(z, \overline{\tilde{\gamma}}) \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{Z} \cup \mathcal{V}(N)}$, we may apply Corollary 12 to $C_{N_{\leq}}^{\leq}$and $C_{N_{\geq}}$(with $\Lambda_{\max }=L^{N}$, $\Lambda_{\min }=0$ and $\kappa=L^{N}$ ), in a way which invokes the larger circuit only once.

To see that $C_{N}$ is no larger than claimed, assume the subtree $T^{\prime}\left(N_{\leq}\right)$of $T^{\prime}$ rooted at $N_{\leq}$ is smaller than the one rooted at $N_{\geq}$, the other case is analogous. Hence, $T^{\prime}\left(N_{\leq}\right)$has size at most $\left|T^{\prime}(N)\right| / 2$ while $T^{\prime}\left(N_{\geq}\right)$has size at most $\left|T^{\prime}(N)\right|-1$. Then, compute

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left|C_{N}\right| \leq & \left|C_{N_{\leq}}\right| \cdot\left(\left\lceil\log \left(L^{N}+1\right)\right\rceil\right)+\left|C_{N_{\geq}}\right| \\
& \leq\left|T^{\prime}\left(N_{\leq}\right)\right| \cdot 2\left(\left|T^{\prime}\right|+n_{3}\right) \cdot(\lceil\log (L+1)\rceil)^{\log \left(\left|T^{\prime}(N)\right| / 2\right)} \cdot\left(\left\lceil\log \left(L^{N}+1\right)\right\rceil\right) \\
& +\left|T^{\prime}\left(N_{\geq}\right)\right| \cdot 2\left(\left|T^{\prime}\right|+n_{3}\right) \cdot(\lceil\log (L+1)\rceil)^{\log \left(\left|T^{\prime}(N)\right|-1\right)} \\
\leq & \left|T^{\prime}\left(N_{\leq}\right)\right| \cdot 2\left(\left|T^{\prime}\right|+n_{3}\right) \cdot(\lceil\log (L+1)\rceil)^{\log \left|T^{\prime}(N)\right|} \\
& +\left|T^{\prime}\left(N_{\geq}\right)\right| \cdot 2\left(\left|T^{\prime}\right|+n_{3}\right) \cdot(\lceil\log (L+1)\rceil)^{\log \left|T^{\prime}(N)\right|} \\
\leq & \left|T^{\prime}(N)\right| \cdot 2\left(\left|T^{\prime}\right|+n_{3}\right) \cdot(\lceil\log (L+1)\rceil)^{\log \left|T^{\prime}(N)\right|} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Finally, set $C:=C_{r}$ for the circuit $C_{r}$ given by the claim for the root node $r$ of $T^{\prime}$ and note $\lceil\log (L+1)\rceil=\left\lceil\log \left(n\left(10 n^{2}\right)^{(n+2)^{2}}+3\right)\right\rceil$ as well as $\left|T^{\prime}\right| \leq(4 n+5)|T|$. Hence $C_{r}$ has size at most

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left|T^{\prime}(r)\right| \cdot 2\left(\left|T^{\prime}\right|+n_{3}\right) \cdot(\lceil\log (L+1)\rceil)^{\log \left|T^{\prime}(r)\right|} \\
& \leq(4 n+5)|T| \cdot 2[(4 n+5)|T|+n] \cdot\left[(n+2)^{2} \log \left(10 n^{3}+3\right)\right]^{\log ((4 n+5)|T|)} \\
& \leq 2(5 n+5)^{2}|T|^{2} \cdot\left[(n+2)^{2} \log \left(10 n^{3}+3\right)\right]^{\log ((4 n+5)|T|)} \\
& \leq 50(n+1)^{2}|T|^{2} \cdot\left[(n+2)^{2} \log \left(10 n^{3}+3\right)\right]^{\log ((4 n+5)|T|)} .
\end{aligned}
$$

The computations bounding the circuit size in the recursive step are taken from Fleming et al. [13] where they are used to show that branch-and-bound with really small coefficients can be quasi-polynomially simulated by cutting planes. A very similar recursive formula already appears in [5], where it is used to show that branch-and-bound for variable disjunctions is quasi-automatizable.

### 4.4 Proof of Theorems 5 and 7

Proof of Theorem 5. Assume that we have a family of branch-and-bound trees $T$ for (2), one for each $r$, such that $|T| \in 2^{O\left(n^{1 / 6-\epsilon}\right)}$ for some $\epsilon>0$. Then Theorem 4 gives rise to a family of
circuits $C_{n}$ separating the CC-pair of size

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left|C_{n}\right| & =50(n+1)^{2}|T|^{2} \cdot\left[(n+2)^{2} \log \left(10 n^{3}+3\right)\right]^{\log ((4 n+5)|T|)} \\
& =50(n+1)^{2} 2^{2 O\left(n^{1 / 6-\epsilon}\right)} \cdot\left(2^{\log \left[(n+2)^{2} \log \left(10 n^{3}+3\right)\right]}\right)^{\log (4 n+5) O\left(n^{1 / 6-\epsilon}\right)} \\
& =2^{O\left(n^{1 / 6-\epsilon}\right)} \cdot 2^{\log \left[(n+2)^{2} \log \left(10 n^{3}+3\right)\right] \cdot \log (4 n+5) O\left(n^{1 / 6-\epsilon}\right)} \\
& =2^{O\left(n^{1 / 6-\epsilon}\right)} \cdot 2^{O\left(n^{\epsilon / 2}\right) \cdot O\left(n^{1 / 6-\epsilon}\right)}=2^{O\left(n^{1 / 6-\epsilon}\right)} \cdot 2^{O\left(n^{1 / 6-\epsilon / 2}\right)}=2^{O\left(n^{1 / 6-\epsilon / 2}\right)} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Since we have $n=n_{1}+n_{2}+n_{3}=r\left\lfloor\frac{1}{8}(r / \log r)^{2 / 3}\right\rfloor+r+\left(r^{2}-r\right) / 2$ and $n_{3}=r+\left(r^{2}-r\right) / 2$ we have

$$
1 \leq \frac{n}{n_{3}}=1+\frac{O\left(r^{5 / 3}\right)}{\Omega\left(r^{2}\right)}
$$

Since $n \rightarrow \infty$ implies $r \rightarrow \infty$, we have $n_{3} \in \Theta(n)$. But then we have

$$
\left|C_{n}\right| \in 2^{O\left(n^{1 / 6-\epsilon / 2}\right)}=2^{O\left(n_{3}^{1 / 6-\epsilon / 2}\right)}
$$

which contradicts Theorem 2.
For the proof of Theorem 7, we require an analog of Theorem 8 in [18].
Given an (unsatisfiable) CNF $\mathcal{C}=\left\{C_{1}, \ldots, C_{m}\right\}$ and a partition of its variables $X_{0} \cup X_{1}$, let $Y_{1}, Y_{2}$ and $\mathcal{D}$ be defined as in Section 2.
Observation 13. Every branch-and-bound tree for the ILP (3) for $\mathcal{C}$ and any partition $X_{0} \cup X_{1}$ is also a branch-and-bound tree for the ILP (3) for $\mathcal{D}$.
Proof. It suffices to note that linear constraints corresponding to the original clauses of $\mathcal{C}$ are valid inequalities for the LP-relaxation of (3) for $\mathcal{D}$.
Lemma 14. For every branch-and-bound tree $T$ for (3) for $\mathcal{C}$ and a partition $X_{0} \cup X_{1}$ of its variables, there is a monotone real circuit computing an ( $X_{0}, X_{1}$ )-infeasibility certificate for $\mathcal{C}$ of size quasi-polynomial in $n, m$ and $|T|$, i.e., size at most poly $(n+m+f(n))^{\log (n+m+f(n))}$.
Proof. By Observation 13, we can consider $T$ as a branch-and-bound tree for (3) for $\mathcal{D}$ and hence can apply Theorem 4 to obtain a monotone real circuit separating $Y_{0}$ and $Y_{1}$ of size

$$
50\left(n^{\prime}+1\right)^{2}|T|^{2} \cdot\left[\left(n^{\prime}+2\right)^{2} \log \left(10 n^{\prime 3}+3\right)\right]^{\log \left(\left(4 n^{\prime}+5\right)|T|\right)} \in \operatorname{poly}(n+m+T)^{\log (n+m+|T|)},
$$

where $n^{\prime}=2 m+n$. Since a monotone function separating $Y_{0}$ and $Y_{1}$ is an $\left(X_{0}, X_{1}\right)$-infeasibility certificate for $\mathcal{C}$, the lemma is shown.

Finally, combining Theorem 3 with Lemma 14, we obtain a proof for Theorem 7:
Proof of Theorem 7. Assume that there exists a function $f \in O\left(2^{n^{\circ(1)}}\right)$ such that for a random $k$ CNF $\mathcal{C}$ with $O\left(n 2^{k}\right)$ clauses and $2 n$ variables there exists a branch-and-bound tree $T$ refuting (3) for $\mathcal{C}$ of size at most $f(n)$ with non-negligible probability, i.e., the probability of this occurring does not tend to 0 for $n \rightarrow \infty$. Then, due to Lemma 14, for any fixed partition $X_{0} \cup X_{1}$ of the variables with $\left|X_{0}\right|=\left|X_{1}\right|=n$ there is a monotone real circuit computing an ( $X_{0}, X_{1}$ )certificate for $\mathcal{C}$ of size poly $(n+m+f(n))^{\log (n+m+f(n))}$ with non-negligible probability. We may assume that $f(n) \geq \max (n, m)$ for simplicity, hence $\mathcal{C}$ has size at most $g \in \operatorname{poly}(f(n))^{\log (f(n))}$. However, clearly poly $\left(O\left(2^{n^{\circ(1)}}\right)\right)=O\left(2^{n^{o(1)}}\right)$ and

$$
O\left(2^{n^{o(1)}}\right)^{\log \left(O\left(2^{n^{o(1)}}\right)\right)}=O\left(2^{n^{o(1)}}\right)^{O\left(n^{o(1)}\right)}=O\left(2^{n^{o(1)} \cdot O\left(n^{o(1)}\right)}\right)=O\left(2^{n^{o(1)}}\right)
$$

Hence, for a random $k$-CNF with $O\left(n 2^{k}\right)$ clauses and $2 n$ variables with partition $X_{0} \cup X_{1}$ such that $\left|X_{0}\right|=\left|X_{1}\right|=n$ and $k \geq c \log (n)$ there is an $\left(X_{0}, X_{1}\right)$-certificate with size at most $g(n)$ with non-negligible probability which contradicts Theorem 3.

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