## CS 4510 : Automata and Complexity Randomized Communication Complexity

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April 26, 2010

We shall see a randomized algorithm for equality, which has an  $O(\log n)$  communication complexity. We need the following basic theorem from algebra.

**Theorem 1.** A univariate polynomial of degree d over  $\mathbb{F}$  has at most d roots, unless it is the zero polynomial.

We saw in class that any deterministic algorithm requires a communication complexity of n to compute the equality function. Here we use a *randomized algorithm*. What this means is that the algorithm would perform differently for the same inputs. You could think of the computer tossing a coin, and deciding between several possible computation paths. Unlike in nondeterminism, here we want a good probability of success, we want that the algorithm succeeds on most inputs.

Alice and Bob have two numbers  $a, b \in \{0, 1\}^n$  respectively. They need to check if a = b. For the algorithm, they decide<sup>1</sup> on a prime number p such that  $n^2 \leq p \leq 2n^2$ . Alice and Bob may view their numbers in the following manner. Let  $a = a_0a_1a_2...a_{n-1}$  and  $b = b_0b_1b_2...b_{n-1}$  be the bit expansions of a, b. Define polynomials  $A(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + ... + a_{n-1}x^{n-1}$  and  $B(x) = b_0 + b_1x + ... + b_{n-1}x^{n-1}$  over  $\mathbb{F}_p$ . (Evaluating a polynomial over  $\mathbb{F}_p$  can be thought of as evaluating over integers and then taking modulo p.) The protocol is the following:

- Alice picks a random r from  $\mathbb{F}_p$ , the finite field with p elements.
- Alice computes A(r) and sends r, A(r) to Bob.
- Bob computes B(r) and checks if A(r) = B(r).
- If they are equal, Bob sends 1 back to Alice, else he sends a 0 back.

Notice that if a = b, then A(x) = B(x) and hence A(r) = B(r). So the protocol always succeeds, irrespective of the choice of r. However, when  $a \neq b$ , there is a chance that A(r) and B(r) evaluates to the same number. But we shall show that this is not that likely to happen. That is

$$\operatorname{Prob}[A(r) = B(r) \mid a \neq b] \le \frac{1}{n}$$

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Primes always exist between a number and twice that number.

If  $a \neq b$ , then the polynomials  $A(x) \neq B(x)$ , so the polynomial  $C(x) = A(x) - B(x) \neq 0$ . By theorem 1, C(x) has at most n-1 roots. That is, there are at most n-1 choices for r which would have made A(r) = B(r). The total number of choices for r is  $p = O(n^2)$ . So the probability of choosing a *bad* r is at most 1/n. Hence when  $a \neq b$ , the protocol succeeds with probability  $\geq 1 - 1/n$ . This concludes the proof of correctness.

Note that all that needs to be communicated is r, A(r) and a 0/1 bit. r, A(r) are elements of  $\mathbb{F}_p$  and can be communicated using  $\log p \leq 2 \log n$  bits. So the total communication required is  $\leq 4 \log n + 1$  which is  $O(\log n)$ .

Next, we state a generalization of Theorem 1.

**Theorem 2.** (Schwartz Lemma) Let  $P(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)$  be a nonzero polynomial over n variables with degree at most d over a finite field  $\mathbb{F}$ . Then for any set  $S \subseteq \mathbb{F}$ , there are at most  $d|S|^{n-1}$ n-tuples  $(a_1, a_2, ..., a_n) \in S^n$  which satisfy  $P(a_1, a_2, ..., a_n) = 0$ .

This theorem is stated in Sipser as Lemma 10.15 (page 379). Refer to Sipser for the proof.