## DETERMINING IF X = Y

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- 1. Alice has x, Bob has y.
- 2. They want to see if x = y communicating as few bits as possible.

A (1) > (1)

3. We call this problem EQ.

- 1. Alice has  $a_1 \cdots a_n$ . Bob has  $b_1 \cdots b_n$ .
- 2. Alice sends  $a_1 \cdots a_n$  to Bob (*n* bits).
- 3. Bob compares  $a_1 \cdots a_n$  to  $b_1 \cdots b_n$ . If equal send 1, else send 0. (1 bit.)

So EQ can be solved with n + 1 bits.

- 1. EQ **REQUIRES**  $\sim n$  bits.
- 2. Can do EQ with  $\sim \sqrt{n}$  bits, but no better.
- 3. Can do EQ with  $\sim \log n$  bits, but no better.
- 4. Stewart/Colbert in 2016.

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## EQ **REQUIRES** n + 1 bits. So, for Alice and Bob to determine if two *n*-bit strings are equal **REQUIRES** n + 1 bits. (Proven by Andrew Yao in 1979.)

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What if we

- 1. Allow Alice and Bob to flip coins, and
- 2. allow a probability of error  $\leq \frac{1}{n}$ .

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- 1. Alice has  $a_1 \cdots a_n$ . Bob has  $b_1 \cdots b_n$ .
- 2. Alice rand  $S \subseteq \{1, ..., n\}$ , |S| = 10.
- 3. For  $i \in S$  Alice sends  $(i, a_i)$ . 10 log *n* bits.
- 4. For each  $(i, a_i)$  that Bob checks " $a_i = b_i$ ?".
- 5. If always YES, Bob sends 1, else sends 0.

- 1. Protocol is  $\sim \log n$  bits. **GOOD!**
- 2. Prob of error  $\rightarrow 1$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . **BAD!**
- 3. Does well if input is unif chosen. GOOD!
- 4. Not really what we want. BAD!
- 5. KEY PROBLEM: Protocol too local.

- 1. Alice has  $a_1 \cdots a_n$ . Bob has  $b_1 \cdots b_n$ .
- 2. Alice computes  $a_1 + \cdots + a_n$ . Sends 1 if sum is **ODD** Sends 0 if sum is **EVEN**.
- 3. Bob computes  $b_1 + \cdots + a_n$ . If **PARITY** agrees then send 1 (EQUAL) else 0 (NOT EQUAL)

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- 1. Only send  $\sim 1$  bit. GOOD.
- 2. Bit sent uses ALL of  $a_1 \cdots a_n$ . **GOOD**.
- 3. Protocol will be wrong alot. BAD.
- 4. Speculation: Can we use  $a_n + \cdots + a_1$  remainder when divided by 3? 4? 5?

 $a = b \pmod{c}$  means

- 1. a/c and b/c have same remainder.
- **2**.  $b \in \{0, 1, \ldots, c-1\}.$

EXAMPLES:

- 1. Any odd number is  $\equiv 1 \pmod{2}$ .
- 2.  $100 \equiv 9 \pmod{7}$  since  $100 = 7 \times 13 + 9$

 $Z_m = \{0, 1, \dots, m-1\}$  and all of the operations are mod m.

- 1. Everyday Example: Clock Arithmetic
- 2. For all *m* you can do +, -,  $\times$  in  $Z_m$ .
- 3. For *m* prime you can also do  $\div$  in  $Z_m$ .

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- 1. If *f* is a polynomial **over the reals** of degree *d* then *f* has at most *d* roots.
- 2. If f is a polynomial **over the complex numbers** of degree d then f has at most d roots. (d if you count multiplicities.)
- Let p be a prime. If f is a polynomial over Z<sub>p</sub> of degree d then f has at most d roots.

- 1. Alice has  $a_0a_1 \cdots a_{n-1}$ . Bob has  $b_0b_1 \cdots b_{n-1}$ . Alice sends Bob a prime  $p, n^2 \le p \le 2n^2$ .
- 2. Alice picks  $z \in \{1, ..., p-1\}$  RAND. Alice computes, mod p,  $y = a_0 + a_1z + a_2z^2 + \cdots + a_{n-1}z^{n-1}$ Alice sends (z, y) to Bob.
- 3. Bob computes, mod p,  $y' = b_0 + b_1 z + b_2 z^2 + \dots + b_{n-1} z^{n-1}$ If y = y' then send 1, else send 0.

- 1. Protocol exchanges  $\sim \log n$  bits.
- 2. Prob of error is  $\leq \frac{1}{n}$ . **WHY:** If there is an error then z is a root of the poly a(x) - b(x)There are only n such roots so the probability of this is very low.
- 3. This result is due to Melhorn and Schmidt, 1982.

## **COMMUNICATION COMPLEXITY**

by Kushilevitz and Nisan.

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