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Abstract. The two-party communication complexity of Boolean function *f* is known to be at least log rank(M_f), i.e., the logarithm of the rank of the communication matrix of f [19]. Lovász and Saks [17] asked whether the communication complexity of f can be bounded from above by $(\log \text{rank}(M_f))^c$, for some constant *c*. The question was answered affirmatively for a special class of functions *f* in [17], and Nisan and Wigderson proved nice results related to this problem [20], but, for *arbitrary f*, it remained a difficult open problem.

We prove here an analogous polylogarithmic upper bound in the stronger multiparty communication model of Chandra et al. [6], which, instead of the rank of the communication matrix, depends on the L_1 norm of function *f* , for *arbitrary* Boolean function *f* .

Key Words. Complexity of Boolean functions, Communication complexity, Fourier coefficients.

1. Introduction

1.1. *Communication Complexity*. In the *two-party communication game*, introduced by Yao [23], two players, P_1 and P_2 , attempt to compute a Boolean function $f(x_1, x_2)$: ${0, 1}^n \rightarrow {0, 1}$, where $x_1, x_2 \in {0, 1}^{n'}$, $2n' = n$. Player P_1 knows the value of x_2 , P_2 knows the value of x_1 , but P_i does not know the value of x_i , for $i = 1, 2$. The minimum number of bits that must be communicated by the players to compute *f* is the *communication complexity* of f , denoted by $\kappa(f)$.

This model has been widely studied and was applied to prove time–area tradeoffs for VLSI circuits, and has other numerous applications and remarkable properties (e.g., [1], [10], [11], [17], [19], or see [16] for a survey).

An important problem in complexity theory is giving lower and upper estimations for the communication complexity of function *f* . The following general lower bound to $\kappa(f)$ was introduced in [19]:

$$
\kappa(f) \ge \log \text{rank}(M_f),
$$

where M_f is a binary $2^{n'} \times 2^{n'}$ matrix, containing the value of $f(x_1, x_2)$ in the intersection of the row of x_1 and the column of x_2 .

Lovász and Saks asked in $[17]$ whether there existed an integer c such that, for all

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Boolean functions *f* ,

(1)
$$
\kappa(f) \leq (\log \text{rank}(M_f))^c.
$$

In [17], (1) was proved for a special class of functions. Nisan and Wigderson [20] also have nice results concerning this inequality. However, for general *f* , (1) is open, and seems to be a difficult problem.

The main contribution of this paper is an analogous polylogarithmic upper bound for *arbitrary f* , in the stronger *k*-party communication model of [6]:

$$
C^{(k)}(f) = O((\log (nL_1(f)))^3),
$$

for $k = c \log(n \mathcal{L}_1(f))$ players, where $C^{(k)}(f)$ is the *k*-party communication complexity of f , and $L_1(f)$ is the L_1 *spectral norm* of Boolean function f (both are defined below).

REMARK. Recently, Lu [18] observed that a slight modification in our ODDCOUNT protocol (Lemma 11) yields an $O({(\log(nL_1(f)))}^2)$ upper bound to $C^{(k)}(f)$.

1.2. *Multiparty Games*. The *multiparty communication game*, defined by Chandra et al. [6], is a generalization of the two-party case. In this game, *k* players, P_1, P_2, \ldots, P_k , intend to compute a Boolean function $f(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n)$: {0, 1}^{*n*} \rightarrow {0, 1}. On set *S* = ${x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n}$ of variables there is a fixed partition *A* of *k* classes A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_k , and player P_i knows every variable, *except* those in A_i , for $i = 1, 2, \ldots, k$. The players have unlimited computational power, and they communicate with the help of a blackboard, viewed by all players. The goal is to compute $f(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n)$, such that at the end of the computation, every player knows this value. The cost of the computation is the number of bits written on the blackboard for the given $x = (x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n)$ and $A =$ (A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_k) . The cost of a multiparty protocol is the maximum number of bits communicated for any x from $\{0, 1\}^n$ and the given A . The k -party communication complexity, $C_A^{(k)}(f)$, of a function f , with respect to partition A , is the minimum of costs of those *k*-party protocols which compute *f* . The *k*-party symmetric communication complexity of *f* is defined as

$$
C^{(k)}(f) = \max_{A} C_A^{(k)}(f),
$$

where the maximum is taken over all *k*-partitions of set $\{x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n\}$.

This model was used by Babai et al. [3] for constructing pseudorandom generators. Håstad and Goldmann [13] and the author [7], [12] have used it for proving lower bounds to the size of hard-to-handle circuit classes.

For a general upper bound for both two and more players, we suppose that *A*¹ is one of the smallest classes of A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_k . Then P_1 can compute any Boolean function of *S* with $|A_1|+1$ bits of communication: P_2 writes down the $|A_1|$ bits of A_1 on the blackboard, *P*₁ reads it, and computes and announces the value $f(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n) \in \{0, 1\}$. So

(2)
$$
C^{(k)}(f) \leq \left\lfloor \frac{n}{k} \right\rfloor + 1.
$$

For certain functions, much better upper bounds were proven in [6], [9], and [7]. However, to the author's knowledge, before the present paper, no general upper bounds were known, other than (2).

1.3. *Spectral Norms*. There is a vast literature on representing the Boolean functions by polynomials over some field or ring (see, e.g., [2], [5], [22], [15], [14], or [4] for a survey). One reason for this may be that the polynomials offer a more developed machinery than the "pure" Boolean functions. One tool in this machinery is the Fourier expansion of Boolean functions [15], [5]:

We represent the Boolean function *f* as a function *f* : {-1, 1}^{*n*} \rightarrow {-1, 1} where −1 stands for "true." The set of all real-valued functions over {−1, 1}*ⁿ* forms a 2*ⁿ*dimensional vector space over the reals with an inner product:

$$
\langle g, h \rangle = 2^{-n} \sum_{x \in \{-1,1\}^n} g(x)h(x).
$$

We define, for $\alpha = (\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \ldots, \alpha_n) \in \{0, 1\}^n$,

$$
x^{\alpha} = \prod_{i=1}^{n} x_i^{\alpha_i}.
$$

The monomials x^{α} for $\alpha \in \{0, 1\}^n$ form an *orthonormal basis* in this 2^n -dimensional vector space; consequently, any function $h: \{-1, 1\}^n \to \mathbf{R}$ can be uniquely expressed as

(3)
$$
h(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n) = \sum_{\alpha \in \{0,1\}^n} a_{\alpha} x^{\alpha}.
$$

The right-hand side of (3) is called the *Fourier expansion* of *h*, and numbers a_{α} for $\alpha \in \{0, 1\}^n$ are called *the spectral (or Fourier) coefficients* of *h*. The L₁ norm of *h* is

$$
L_1(h) = \sum_{\alpha \in \{0,1\}^n} |a_{\alpha}|.
$$

The L_2 norm is

$$
L_2(h) = \left(\sum_{\alpha \in \{0,1\}^n} a_{\alpha}^2\right)^{1/2} = \langle h, h \rangle^{1/2}.
$$

1.3.1. *Examples*

- The PARITY function in this setting is $x_1x_2 \cdots x_n$, its L_1 norm is 1, while its degree is *n*.
- It is easy to verify that

$$
\begin{aligned}\n\bigvee_{i=1}^{n} x_i &= -\frac{1}{2^{n-1}} \left(2^{n-1} - \prod_{i=1}^{n} (x_i + 1) \right) \\
&= -\frac{1}{2^{n-1}} (2^{n-1} - (1 + x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n + x_1 x_2 + \dots + x_1 x_2 \dots x_n))\n\end{aligned}
$$

and

$$
\begin{aligned}\n\bigwedge_{i=1}^{n} x_i &= \frac{1}{2^{n-1}} \left(2^{n-1} - \prod_{i=1}^{n} (1 - x_i) \right) \\
&= \frac{1}{2^{n-1}} (2^{n-1} - (1 - x_1 - x_2 - \dots - x_n + x_1 x_2 + \dots + (-1)^n x_1 x_2 \dots x_n)).\n\end{aligned}
$$

Observe that both the *n*-fan-in OR and AND have exponentially many nonzero Fourier coefficients, their degree is n , while their L_1 norms are less than three.

• The inner product mod 2 function (IP) is defined as follows:

$$
IP(x_1, x_2, ..., x_{2n}) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} (x_{2i-1} \wedge x_{2i}).
$$

It is easy to verify that $L_1(I)$ is the highest possible for any 2*n* variable Boolean functions: 2*ⁿ*.

Bruck and Smolensky [5] established a relation between the L_1 norm and the computability of *f* by polynomial threshold function. A generalization of one of their results plays a main role (Lemma 8) in the present work.

2. Main Results. First we present a general theorem, which implies several corollaries in a more natural setting. Theorem 1 shows that if a Boolean function can be approximated by a *real* function with small error, then there exists a *k*-party protocol which computes the Boolean function, and the number of communicated bits in this protocol depends only on the L1 norm of the *approximating real function*.

THEOREM 1. Let f be a Boolean function $f: \{-1, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{-1, 1\}$, and let g be a real *function g*: $\{-1, 1\}^n \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$. *Suppose that, for all x* ∈ $\{-1, 1\}^n$,

$$
|g(x) - f(x)| < \frac{1}{5}.
$$

Then the k-party symmetric communication complexity of f is

$$
O\left(k^2\log(nL_1(g))\left\lceil\frac{nL_1^2(g)}{2^k}\right\rceil\right).
$$

In particular, choosing $g = f$ in Theorem 1:

COROLLARY 2. Let f be a Boolean function $f: \{-1, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{-1, 1\}$. Then the k-party *symmetric communication complexity of f is*

$$
O\left(k^2\log(nL_1(f))\left\lceil\frac{nL_1^2(f)}{2^k}\right\rceil\right).
$$

Or, setting *k* large enough:

COROLLARY 3. Let f be an arbitrary Boolean function of n variables. Let $k =$ $c \log(nL_1(f))$ *with* $c > 0$ *. Then*

$$
C^{(k)}(f) = O\left(\log^3\left(nL_1(f)\right)\right).
$$

In other words, if the L_1 spectral norm of f is bounded by a polynomial in *n*, then the *symmetric k*-party communication complexity of f is at most $O(\log^3 n)$, with $k =$ $c \log n$.

Let *f* and *g* be two functions, such that $|f - g| < \frac{1}{5}$. Then their L₁ norms may differ even exponentially, e.g., $f \equiv 0$, g' is a Boolean function of exponential L₁ norm, then $g = \frac{1}{6}g'$ also has exponential L₁ norm, while $|f - g| \leq \frac{1}{6}$. So the following corollary of Theorem 1 may yield a much better bound than Corollary 3:

COROLLARY 4. *Let*

$$
\gamma = \inf\{L_1(g) | g : \{-1, 1\}^n \to \mathbf{R}, \text{ and } \forall x \in \{-1, 1\}^n : |g(x) - f(x)| < \frac{1}{5}\}.
$$

Then

$$
C^{(k)}(f) = O\left(k^2 \log(n\gamma) \left\lceil \frac{n\gamma^2}{2^k} \right\rceil\right).
$$

Suppose that f is a Boolean function of large (say, exponential) L_1 norm in *n*. Our Corollary 3 can guarantee only a communication protocol with too many communicated bits: the trivial $\lfloor n/k \rfloor + 1$ protocol may be better. However, if the Fourier coefficients of *f* are distributed "unevenly enough," i.e., they can be divided into two parts, one with small L_1 , the other with small L_2 norms, then we can do much better:

THEOREM 5. *Let*

$$
f(x) = \sum_{\alpha \in \{0,1\}^n} a_{\alpha} x^{\alpha},
$$

and let $S \subset \{0, 1\}^n$ *such that*

$$
\sum_{\alpha \in S} a_{\alpha}^2 \le \varepsilon,
$$

for some $\varepsilon < \frac{1}{2500}$. Let

$$
g(x) = \sum_{\alpha \in \{0,1\}^n - S} a_{\alpha} x^{\alpha}.
$$

Then, for all $k \geq 2$ *and for all k-partitions of the inputs, there exists a k-party protocol with*

$$
O\left(k^2\log(nL_1(g))\left\lceil\frac{nL_1^2(g)}{2^k}\right\rceil\right)
$$

bits of communication, and this protocol computes f correctly on at least $(1-25\varepsilon) > \frac{99}{100}$ *fraction of the inputs*.

The following results of [8] show the power of our upper bounds in Theorems 1 and 5, proving that almost all Boolean functions have very high multiparty communication complexity:

THEOREM 6 [8]. *Let f be a uniformly chosen random member of set*

$$
\{f \mid f: \{-1, 1\}^n \to \{-1, 1\}\}.
$$

Then the probability that, for some A k-equipartition of $x = \{x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n\}$ *, there exists a* k-party protocol which computes f with communication of at most $\lfloor n/k \rfloor - \log n$ bits, *is less than*

 $2^{-2^{\Omega(n)}}$.

The communication complexity remains high even if we compute *f* on *most* of the inputs:

THEOREM 7. *Let f be a uniformly chosen random member of set*

$$
\{f \mid f : \{-1, 1\}^n \to \{-1, 1\}\}.
$$

Then the probability that, for some A k-equipartition of $x = \{x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n\}$ *, there exists a k-party protocol which correctly computes f on a fraction of at least* $\frac{1}{2} + \varepsilon$ *of inputs*, *with communication of at most* $\lfloor n/k \rfloor - \log(n/\varepsilon)$ *bits, is less than*

$$
2^{-2^{\Omega(n)}}
$$

.

Comparing Theorem 1 with Theorem 6, and Theorem 5 with Theorem 7, we have that for almost all Boolean functions *f* :

- f has exponential L_1 norm,
- if *f* is approximated by a real function *g* with error less than $\frac{1}{5}$, then the L₁ norm of *g* is exponential in *n*,
- the Fourier coefficients of *f* are "evenly distributed": they cannot be divided into two sets, one with subexponential L_1 norm, the other with a small L_2 norm.

3. The Proof of Theorem 1. The following lemma is a generalization of a lemma of Bruck and Smolensky [5].

LEMMA 8. *Let U* ⊂ {−1, 1}^{*n*} *such that* $|U|$ ≥ (1 − $\frac{1}{100}$) 2^n *. Let g*: {−1, 1}^{*n*} → **R**. *Suppose that, for all* $x \in U$, $\frac{4}{5} < |g(x)| < \frac{6}{5}$ *is satisfied. Then there exists polynomial* $G_0(x)$ *with integer coefficients and with* L_1 *norm*

$$
L_1(G_0)\leq 400nL_1^2(g)
$$

such that

$$
sgn(G_0(x)) = sgn(g(x))
$$

for all $x \in U$.

PROOF. The Fourier expansion of *g*:

$$
g(x) = \sum_{\alpha \in \{0,1\}^n} a_{\alpha} x^{\alpha},
$$

where a_{α} , for $\alpha \in \{0, 1\}^n$, are the Fourier coefficients of *g*. Then by definition

$$
L_1(g) = \sum_{\alpha \in \{0,1\}^n} |a_{\alpha}|
$$

and

$$
L_2^2(g) = \langle g, g \rangle = 2^{-n} \sum_{x \in \{-1, 1\}^n} g^2(x) = \sum_{\alpha \in \{0, 1\}^n} a_\alpha^2,
$$

using the Parseval identity.

Since $|g(x)| \ge \frac{4}{5}$ for $x \in U$, and $|U| \ge (1 - \frac{1}{100})2^n$,

$$
L_2(g) \ge (1 - \frac{1}{100})\frac{16}{25}.
$$

Our next step is giving a lower bound to the L_1 norm of g .

(i) Suppose that there exists an α such that $|a_{\alpha}| > \frac{1}{2}$. If sgn(x^{α}) = sgn($g(x)$) for all $x \in U$, then we are done, $G_0(x) = x^\alpha$ suffices. Otherwise, for some $x \in U$, $sgn(x^{\alpha}) \neq sgn(g(x))$. Then the other terms of *g* must compensate for x^{α} , so the sum of the absolute values of their coefficients should be greater than $\frac{4}{5}$. So

$$
L_1(g) \ge \frac{4}{5} + |a_\alpha| \ge \frac{13}{10}.
$$

(ii) Otherwise, if all $|a_{\alpha}| \leq \frac{1}{2}$, then

$$
(1 - \frac{1}{100}) \frac{16}{25} \le \sum_{\alpha \in \{0,1\}^n} a_{\alpha}^2 \le \frac{1}{2} \sum_{\alpha \in \{0,1\}^n} |a_{\alpha}|,
$$

so

$$
(1 - \frac{1}{100})\frac{32}{25} \leq \sum_{\alpha \in \{0,1\}^n} |a_{\alpha}| = L_1(g).
$$

Consequently, either we have found a suitable $G_0(x)$, or we have concluded that

(4)
$$
L_1(g) \ge (1 - \frac{1}{100}) \frac{32}{25} \ge \frac{127}{100}.
$$

We define random monomials $Z_i(x)$ as follows:

$$
Z_i(x) = \text{sgn}(a_{\alpha})x^{\alpha} \qquad \text{with probability } \frac{|a_{\alpha}|}{L_1(g)}.
$$

Let random polynomial $G(x)$ be defined as the sum of $N = \lfloor 400n \binom{2}{3} \rfloor$ monomials *Zi*(*x*):

$$
G(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} Z_i(x).
$$

Computing the expectation of $Z_i(x)$:

$$
E(Z_i(x)) = \sum_{\alpha \in \{0,1\}^n} \frac{|a_{\alpha}|}{L_1(g)} \operatorname{sgn}(a_{\alpha}) x^{\alpha} = \frac{g(x)}{L_1(g)},
$$

where we used the fact that $sgn(v)|v| = v$. The expectation of $G(x)$ is

(5)
$$
E(G(x)) = \frac{Ng(x)}{L_1(g)}.
$$

The variance of $Z_i(x)$ is

$$
Var(Z_i(x)) = E(Z_i^2(x)) - E^2(Z_i(x)) = 1 - \frac{g^2(x)}{L_1^2(g)}.
$$

The variance of $G(x)$ is

$$
\text{Var}(G(x)) = N\left(1 - \frac{g^2(x)}{\mathcal{L}_1^2(g)}\right).
$$

Since $|g(x)| \leq \frac{6}{5}$, and because of (4),

$$
\frac{g^2(x)}{L_1^2(g)} \le (\frac{120}{127})^2 \le \frac{9}{10},
$$

so

$$
\frac{N}{10} \leq \text{Var}(G(x)) \leq N
$$

or

(6)
$$
\sqrt{\frac{N}{10}} \le D(G(x)) \le \sqrt{N},
$$

where $D(G(x)) = \sqrt{\text{Var}(G(x))}$, the standard deviation of $G(x)$.

From (5), the sign of $E(G(x))$ is the same as the sign of $g(x)$. Consequently,

$$
\begin{aligned} \Pr(\text{sgn}(G(x)) \neq \text{sgn}(g(x)) &= \Pr(\text{sgn}(G(x)) \neq \text{sgn}\left(\mathbb{E}(G(x))\right)) \\ &\leq \Pr\left(\left|G(x) - \mathbb{E}(G(x))\right| \geq \frac{N|g(x)|}{\mathcal{L}_1(g)}\right) \\ &\leq \Pr\left(\left|G(x) - \mathbb{E}(G(x))\right| \geq \frac{4N}{5\mathcal{L}_1(g)}\right). \end{aligned}
$$

From the Bernstein inequality (see [21]) (or from the Central Limit Theorem), with $D = D(G(x))$, we get

(7)
$$
Pr(|G(x) - E(G(x))| \ge \mu D) \le 2 \exp\left(-\frac{\mu^2}{2(1 + \mu/D)^2}\right),
$$

where $0 < \mu < D/2$.

For $\mu = 3\sqrt{n}$, $N = \lfloor 400n \frac{1^2}{(g)} \rfloor$ we get that the probability in (7) is less than e^{-n} . On the other hand,

$$
\mu D \leq \frac{4N}{5 \mathrm{L}_1(g)},
$$

so

$$
Pr(sgn(G(x)) \neq sgn(g(x))) < e^{-n}.
$$

Consequently,

$$
\Pr(\exists x \in U : \text{sgn}(G(x)) \neq \text{sgn}(g(x)))
$$

\$\leq \sum_{x \in U} \Pr(\text{sgn}(G(x)) \neq \text{sgn}(g(x))) \leq |U|e^{-n} \leq 2^n e^{-n} < 1\$,

and since this probability is less than one, there exists a polynomial $G_0(x)$ for which $sgn(G_0(x)) = sgn(g(x))$ for all $x \in U$. The coefficients of this G_0 are integers, and its L_1 norm is at most N. \Box

PROOF OF THEOREM 1. Function *g* satisfies the requirements of Lemma 8, for $U =$ ${-1, 1}^n$. Then there exists a polynomial $G_0(x)$ with integer coefficients and an L₁ norm of at most $400nL_1^2(g)$, such that

$$
sgn(g(x)) = sgn(G_0(x))
$$

for all $x \in \{-1, 1\}^n$. Since $sgn(g(x)) = f(x)$, we have that $sgn(G_0(x)) = f(x)$, for all $x \in \{-1, 1\}^n$. By Theorem 9, $G_0(x)$ has the required symmetric *k*-party communication complexity. 口

THEOREM 9. *Let*

$$
G(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} Z_i(x),
$$

where $Z_i(x) = x^{\alpha}$ *or* $Z_i(x) = -x^{\alpha}$, *for some* $\alpha \in \{0, 1\}^n$, *and for* $x \in \{-1, 1\}^n$. *Then the symmetric k–party communication complexity of G is*

$$
O\left(k^2\log(nN)\left\lceil\frac{nN}{2^k}\right\rceil\right).
$$

PROOF OF THEOREM 9. Let $G_1(x)$ be the sum of the Z_i 's with positive sign, and let $G_2(x)$ be the sum of the $(-Z_i)$'s, where Z_i has a negative sign. So

$$
G(x) = G1(x) - G2(x),
$$

and G_1 has N_1 terms, G_2 has N_2 terms, $N_1 + N_2 = N$.

Observe that $G_i(x)$ is the sum of N_i terms of the form

$$
x^{\alpha} = \prod_{i=1}^{n} x_i^{\alpha_i} = \prod_{i:\alpha_i=1} x_i
$$

for $j = 1, 2$. Clearly,

$$
x^{\alpha} = \begin{cases} -1 & \text{if } | \{i : x_i = -1, \alpha_i = 1\} | \text{ is odd,} \\ 1 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}
$$

For $j = 1, 2$, let b_j denote the number (counting the possible multiplicities) of those terms *x*^α in *G_j*(*x*), for which |{*i* : *x_i* = −1, α_{*i*} = 1}| is odd. Then *G_j*(*x*) = (*N_j* − *b_j*) − *b_j* = $N_i - 2b_i$, so

(8)
$$
G(x) = G_1(x) - G_2(x) = N_1 - N_2 + 2b_2 - 2b_1.
$$

We denote

$$
y_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x_i = -1, \\ 0 & \text{if } x_i = 1, \end{cases}
$$

then

$$
x^{\alpha} = -1 \quad \Longleftrightarrow \quad \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i \alpha_i = 1 \text{ mod } 2.
$$

We form a matrix $M^{(j)}$ with N_j rows and *n* columns, for $j = 1, 2$. Each row corresponds to a term x^{α} in $G_i(x)$, and the *i*th entry of that row is $y_i \alpha_i$. Obviously, the number of those rows of $M^{(j)}$ which have an odd sum is equal to b_j . Suppose now that we are given polynomial $G(x)$, players P_1, P_2, \ldots, P_k , and a *k*-partition $A = (A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_k)$ of the set $\{x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n\}$. We assume that player P_ℓ knows function $G(x)$, partition *A*, functions $G_1(x)$, $G_2(x)$, and the values of all variables, except those in A_ℓ , for $\ell = 1, 2, \ldots, k$. Then the players, without any communication, can privately compute matrices $M^{(1)}$ and $M^{(2)}$, and exactly those entries of these matrices will not be known to player P_ℓ , which correspond to variables in class A_ℓ . The set of these entries is called B_{ℓ} , for $\ell = 1, 2, \ldots, k$. The following lemma shows a protocol by which the players can first compute b_1 and then b_2 , and, consequently, $G(x)$, by (8).

LEMMA 10. *Let M* ∈ {0, 1}^{*m*×*n*}, *M* = { m_{ij} }, *and let B* = { $B_1, B_2, ..., B_k$ } *be a partition of the set* $\{m_{ij}: 1 \le i \le m, 1 \le j \le n\}$, *such that player* P_ℓ *knows every* m_{ij} *except those in* B_ℓ *, for* $\ell = 1, 2, \ldots, k$ *. Then there exists a k-party protocol which computes the number of the rows with an odd sum in M by communicating*

$$
O\left(k^2\log m\left\lceil\frac{m}{2^k}\right\rceil\right)
$$

bits.

PROOF. First, the players compute a matrix $Q \in \{0, 1\}^{m \times k}$ from *M*, with no communication: a row of *Q* is associated with each row of *M*; the first element of row *j* of *Q* is the mod 2 sum of those entries of the *j*th row of *M* which are the elements of B_1 at the same time. Analogously, the *i*th element of row *j* of *Q* is the mod 2 sum of those entries of the *j*th row of *M* which are the elements of B_i at the same time. Clearly, the number of rows with an odd sum in *M* and in *O* is the same. Moreover, player P_ℓ knows every column of matrix Q, except column ℓ , for $\ell = 1, 2, \ldots, k$.

With an additional assumption, Lemma 11 gives a protocol with $O(k^2 \log m)$ communication. This protocol is implicit in [2], in [9], and is used in a more general form in [7].

LEMMA 11. *Let* $β ∈ {0, 1}^k$. *Suppose it is known to each player that* $β$ *does not occur as a row of Q*. *Then there exists a k-party protocol which computes the number of rows with an odd sum with a communication of* $O(k^2 \log m)$ *bits.*

PROOF OF LEMMA 11. Without restricting the generality we may suppose that β is the all-1 vector of length *k*. Let $ODD(\gamma_1\gamma_2 \cdots \gamma_\ell)$ and $EVEN(\gamma_1\gamma_2 \cdots \gamma_\ell)$ denote the number of those rows of *Q* which have odd (resp. even) sums, and they begin with $\gamma_1 \gamma_2 \cdots \gamma_\ell$, $\ell \leq k$, $\gamma_i \in \{0, 1\}$. Clearly, ODD($\gamma_1 \gamma_2 \cdots \gamma_{\ell-1}, 0$) + ODD($\gamma_1 \gamma_2 \cdots \gamma_{\ell-1}, 1$) = ODD $(\gamma_1 \gamma_2 \cdots \gamma_{\ell-1})$. For example, P_1 does not know the first column of Q , but he can communicate $ODD(0) + EVEN(1)$ if P_1 counts those rows which have an odd sum in their second through *k*th position. Similarly P_2 can communicate ODD(10) + EVEN(11) if he counts those rows which begin with 1, and the sum of their first, third, fourth,..., *k*th elements is odd.

This observation motivates the following protocol:

Protocol ODDCOUNT

The goal: to compute *b*, the number of rows with an odd sum in *Q*. Observe that $b = ODD(1) + ODD(0)$. Number *b* will be computed as the sum of values u_i announced by player P_i , $i = 1, 2, ..., k$.

 P_1 announces $u_1 = ODD(0) + EVEN(1)$.

Note: $b = u_1 - EVEN(1) + ODD(1)$.

 P_2 announces $u_2 = ODD(10) + EVEN(11) - EVEN(10) - ODD(11)$.

Note: $b = u_1 + u_2 - 2$ EVEN(11) + 2ODD(11)

 P_3 announces $u_3 = 20DD(110) + 2EVEN(111) - 2EVEN(110) - 20DD(111)$.

Note: $b = u_1 + u_2 + u_3 - 4$ EVEN(111) + 4ODD(111)

$$
\vdots
$$
\n
$$
P_i \text{ announces } u_i = 2^{i-2} \text{ODD}(1 \cdots 10) + 2^{i-2} \text{EVEN}(1 \cdots 11) - 2^{i-2} \text{EVEN}(1 \cdots 10)
$$
\n
$$
-2^{i-2} \text{ODD}(1 \cdots 11)
$$

Note: $b = \sum_{j=1}^{i} u_j - 2^{i-1}$ EVEN(*i* times $\overline{11\cdots 1}$) + 2^{i-1} ODD(*i* times $\overline{11 \cdots 1}$.

After P_k announces u_k , the players privately add up the u_i 's from $i = 1$ through k. Note that

$$
b = \sum_{j=1}^{k} u_j - 2^{k-1} \text{EVEN}(\overbrace{11\cdots 1}^{k \text{ times}}) + 2^{k-1} \text{ODD}(\overbrace{11\cdots 1}^{k \text{ times}}).
$$

However, as we assumed at the beginning, there are no all-1 rows in *Q*, so

$$
b=\sum_{j=1}^k u_j
$$

and we are done. Each u_i can be communicated using $O(k \log m)$ bits, so the total communication is $O(k^2 \log m)$. \Box

Now we return to the proof of Lemma 10. We divide the rows of matrix *Q* into blocks of $2^{k-1} - 1$ contiguous rows plus a leftover of at most $2^{k-1} - 1$ rows. The players cooperatively determine the number of the odd rows in each block, and then privately add up the results.

Next we show how to obtain the number of odd rows for a single block at the cost of $O(k^2 \log m)$ bits of communication. P_1 knows all the columns, except the first, so he knows at most $2^{k-1} - 1$ rows of length $k - 1$ in a block, so he can find a $\beta' \in \{0, 1\}^{k-1}$, $\beta' = (\beta_2, \beta_3, \dots, \beta_k)$, which is not a row of the $k - 1$ column wide part of the block seen by P_1 . Let $\beta = (1, \beta_2, \beta_3, \dots, \beta_k)$. Then β does not occur as a row in this block. So if P_1 communicates β , and they play protocol ODDCOUNT of Lemma 11 in a given block, they use $k^2 \log m$ bits for the block, and, since there are at most $\lceil m/(2^{k-1}-1) \rceil$ blocks, the total communication is

$$
O\left(k^2\log m\left\lceil\frac{m}{2^k}\right\rceil\right).
$$

4. Proof of Theorem 5

LEMMA 12. Let *f* be a Boolean function and let h : {−1, 1}ⁿ → **R** *such that*

$$
L_2^2(f-h) = \langle f-h, f-h \rangle \le \varepsilon.
$$

Then

$$
Pr_x(|f(x) - h(x)| > \frac{1}{5}) \leq 25\varepsilon,
$$

where Pr*^x is the probability measure associated with the uniform distribution over* {−1, 1}*ⁿ*.

PROOF.

$$
\varepsilon \ge \langle f(x) - h(x), f(x) - h(x) \rangle
$$

= E_x(f(x) - h(x))² \ge \frac{1}{25} Pr_x(|f(x) - h(x)| > \frac{1}{5}).

Now we prove Theorem 5. Let *U* be defined as

$$
U = \{x \in \{-1, 1\}^n : |f(x) - g(x)| \le \frac{1}{5}\}.
$$

From Lemma 12, $|U| \ge (1 - 25\varepsilon)2^n$. If $\varepsilon \le \frac{1}{2500}$, then we can apply Lemma 8 for *g*. The proof then proceeds exactly as the proof of Theorem 1.

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