Trade-Offs Between Entanglement and Communication

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- Abstract -

We study the advantages of quantum communication models over classical communication models that are equipped with a limited number of qubits of entanglement. In this direction, we give explicit partial functions on n bits for which reducing the entanglement increases the classical communication complexity exponentially. Our separations are as follows. For every $k \geq 1$:

 $\mathbf{Q}^{\parallel *}$ versus $\mathbf{R2^{*}}$: We show that quantum simultaneous protocols with $\tilde{\Theta}(k^{5}\log^{3} n)$ qubits of entanglement can exponentially outperform two-way randomized protocols with O(k) qubits of entanglement. This resolves an open problem from [11] and improves the state-of-the-art separations between quantum simultaneous protocols with entanglement and two-way randomized protocols without entanglement [12, 18].

 \mathbf{R}^{*} versus \mathbf{Q}^{*} : We show that classical simultaneous protocols with $\tilde{\Theta}(k \log n)$ qubits of entanglement can exponentially outperform quantum simultaneous protocols with O(k) qubits of entanglement, resolving an open question from [15, 12]. The best result prior to our work was a relational separation against protocols without entanglement [15].

 $\mathbf{R}^{\parallel *}$ versus $\mathbf{R1^{*}}$: We show that classical simultaneous protocols with $\tilde{\Theta}(k \log n)$ qubits of entanglement can exponentially outperform randomized one-way protocols with O(k) qubits of entanglement. Prior to our work, only a relational separation was known [11].

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1 Introduction

One of the central goals in complexity theory is to understand the power of different computational resources. In the past four decades, communication complexity has provided a successful toolbox to establish various results in different areas of research in theoretical computer science such as circuit complexity [26, 25], streaming algorithms [24], property testing [6], extension complexity [10], data structures [29], proof complexity [21]. In the standard two-player model of communication complexity introduced by Yao [40] there are two parties Alice and Bob whose goal is to compute a partial function $F: \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y} \to \{-1, 1, \star\}$. Alice receives $x \in \mathcal{X}$ (unknown to Bob) and Bob receives $y \in \mathcal{Y}$ (unknown to Alice) and their goal is to compute F(x,y) for all $(x,y) \in F^{-1}(1) \cup F^{-1}(-1)$, while minimizing the amount of communication. In this setting, there are three models of communication in increasing order of strength:



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- (i) Simultaneous message passing (SMP) model: Alice and Bob send a message to a referee Charlie, whose goal is to output F(x, y).
- (ii) One-way model: Alice sends a message to Bob, whose goal is to output F(x, y).
- (iii) Two-way model: Alice and Bob can exchange several rounds of messages and their goal is to output F(x, y).

In all these models, the complexity of the protocol is the total number of bits used to describe the message. It is not hard to see that the communication complexity in model (i) is at least the complexity in model (ii) which in turn is at least the complexity in model (iii).

One variant of these models is when the players are allowed to use *quantum resources*, for instance, the players could send quantum messages or share entanglement. Over the past two decades, several works have established the advantage of quantum over classical communication complexity in various settings. In a sequence of works [8, 7, 34, 15, 14, 27, 13], it has been shown that quantum communication can exponentially outperform classical communication. In particular, a few works [16, 12, 18] have demonstrated communication tasks that are easy to solve in the SMP model if the players share entanglement, however, every interactive randomized protocol without entanglement has exponentially larger cost. This leads to a natural and fundamental question (which has been asked many times before [22, 9, 37, 11]): *How much entanglement do quantum protocols really need?* Given any small-cost quantum protocol, can we simulate it by a small-cost quantum protocol that uses only a small amount of entanglement? Answering this question is one of the central questions in quantum communication complexity; in fact giving *any* upper bound on the number of qubits in a potentially helpful shared state has been open for decades.

A similar question of how much shared randomness is necessary in classical communication complexity is well understood. In a famous result, Newman [31] showed that to solve communication tasks on *n*-bit inputs, with an additive overhead of $O(\log n)$ bits in communication one can assume that the players only have private randomness. Jain et al. [23] showed that blackbox arguments similar to the one in [31] cannot be used to reduce the entanglement in a quantum protocol. Motivated by the question of how much entanglement protocols need, we study a fine-grained variant of this question, which will be the topic of this work.

Can we reduce the entanglement in a quantum communication protocol from k qubits to $k/\log n$ qubits using a classical protocol of only polynomially larger cost?

In this direction, Shi [37] showed that we can remove any amount of entanglement using a classical communication protocol of exponentially larger cost. Subsequently, [11, 22] showed that this exponential blowup is inevitable, in particular they constructed a *relational* problem for which we cannot reduce the entanglement with just a polynomial overhead using one-way communication alone. Their works left open the question of reducing entanglement in a quantum protocol computing a *partial* function, using two-way classical communication between the players.¹

1.1 Main Result

In this work, we provide a strong negative answer to this question. We give partial functions for which, reducing the entanglement by even a logarithmic factor, increases the communication cost by an exponential factor. To discuss our results, we set up some notation first. Let R_{\parallel}^*

¹ Relational separations are known as the "weakest" form of separations between communication models. A partial function separation immediately implies a relational separation, however, the converse is false [17].

(resp. $\mathbb{Q}||^*$) denote the SMP communication model where Alice and Bob share entanglement and send classical (resp. quantum) messages to the referee. Let $\mathbb{R}1^*, \mathbb{R}2^*$ be the one-way and two-way models of classical communication where Alice and Bob share entanglement. The models $\mathbb{R}1$ and $\mathbb{R}2$ are similarly defined with the difference being that Alice and Bob don't share entanglement. The model $\mathbb{Q}||^{\text{pub}}$ is also defined similarly to $\mathbb{Q}||^*$ but without entanglement, additionally, the players are allowed public randomness. We first summarize our results informally below. All these results hold for every $k \geq 1$ which is any parameter that is allowed to depend on n.

Our first result shows that for simultaneous quantum protocols, more entanglement cannot be simulated by two-way classical communication with less entanglement (and a polynomial overhead).

▶ **Result 1.** There is a partial function on $\tilde{O}(kn)$ bits that can be computed in $Q||^*$ with $\tilde{O}(k^5 \log^3 n)$ qubits of communication and entanglement, but if the players only share O(k) qubits of entanglement, requires $\Omega(n^{1/4})$ bits of communication in the $R2^*$ model.

There are two ways to view this result: (i) It shows that in the rather weak quantum SMP model, reducing the entanglement by a polylogarithmic factor increases the classical communication by an exponential factor, even if Alice and Bob are allowed to interact. This answers an open question in [11]. (ii) This result can also be viewed in the context of quantum versus classical separations in communication complexity. As we mentioned earlier, numerous works [8, 34, 14, 27, 13] have shown that quantum provides exponential savings for partial functions in various settings. The state-of-the-art separations between quantum and classical communication complexity for partial functions are due to [12, 18]; they show separations between Q_{\parallel}^* and R2. One drawback of the aforementioned works, in the context of our work, is that the lower bound can only be made to work for protocols where Alice and Bob share $\ll \log n$ qubits of entanglement. We improve upon this by showing separations between $\mathbb{Q}^{\parallel *}$ (with more entanglement) and $R2^*$ (with less entanglement). Our result can thus be seen as the current best-known separation between quantum and classical communication complexity for partial functions. In particular, we give a lower bound technique against $R2^*$ protocols with $O(\log^c n)$ qubits of entanglement for every $c \in \mathbb{N}$. To the best of our knowledge, there were no known lower bound techniques that distinguished $R2^*$ (with more entanglement) and $R2^*$ (with less entanglement) once the number of qubits of entanglement is $\gg \log n$, even for relational problems.

Our second result shows that for SMP protocols where the players share entanglement but only send classical messages, entanglement cannot be reduced even by quantum simultaneous protocols or by one-way classical protocols (with a polynomial overhead).

▶ **Result 2.** There is a partial function on $\tilde{O}(kn)$ bits that can be computed in $\mathbb{R}||^*$ using $\tilde{O}(k \log n)$ bits of communication and $\tilde{O}(k \log n)$ qubits of entanglement, but if the players share O(k) qubits of entanglement, requires $\Omega(n^{1/3})$ qubits of communication in the $\mathbb{Q}||^*$ model and $\Omega(\sqrt{n})$ bits in the $\mathbb{R}1^*$ model.

We remark that the trade-offs obtained in this result are more fine-grained in comparison to Result 1, i.e., our separations hold even if we reduce the entanglement by a $O(\log n)$ -factor. Prior to our work, the best known separation between \mathbb{R}^{*} (with more entanglement) and \mathbb{Q}^{*} (with less entanglement) was a relational separation between \mathbb{R}^{*} and \mathbb{Q}^{*} [15]. Their work left open two questions: (i) Does there exist a *partial function* separating \mathbb{R}^{*} and \mathbb{Q}^{*} The weaker question of showing a functional separation between \mathbb{Q}^{*} and \mathbb{Q}^{*} was also open and recently asked by [12]. (ii) Is there a *relational* separation between \mathbb{Q}^{*} (with more

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entanglement) and $Q \parallel^*$ (with less entanglement)? Our result answers both these questions. Firstly, we prove separations for partial functions improving upon the relational separations; secondly, we also show lower bounds for $Q \parallel^*$ with limited entanglement. With regards to separations between $R \parallel^*$ (with more entanglement) and $R1^*$ (with less entanglement), prior to our work these were established in [11, 22], again for relational problems. Gavinsky [11] left open the question of showing a similar separation for *partial* functions and our work resolves this.

In the next two sections, we discuss the problems witnessing these separations followed by the proof sketches. Our first result is based on the Forrelation problem and the second result is based on the Boolean Hidden Matching problem.

1.2 Result 1: Separations based on the Forrelation problem

1.2.1 Problem Definition: The Forrelation Problem

The Forrelation problem was first introduced by Aaronson in the context of query complexity [1] and subsequently has been studied again in the context of separating quantum and classical computation [35, 2]. Variants of the Forrelation problem have been used to show various quantum versus classical separations in communication complexity [18, 3, 36, 19]. The state-of-the-art separations for quantum versus classical communication complexity of partial functions are between $Q||^*$ and R2; one such separation is due to [18] and is based on the Forrelation problem, which we define now.

▶ Definition 1 (Forrelation Function). Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $n \geq 2$ be a power of two. Let H_n be the (unitary) $n \times n$ Hadamard matrix. For $z_1, z_2 \in \{-1, 1\}^{n/2}$, define the forrelation function as

forr
$$(z_1, z_2) = \frac{1}{n} \langle z_2, H_n(z_1) \rangle.$$

Let $\varepsilon \in (0, 1]$ be a parameter. We typically set $\varepsilon = \Theta\left(\frac{1}{\log n}\right)$ if it is not specified. We are interested in the communication complexity version of the Forrelation problem defined below.

▶ **Definition 2** (The Forrelation Problem). In the Forrelation problem, Alice is given $x \in \{-1, 1\}^n$, Bob is given $y \in \{-1, 1\}^n$. Their goal is to compute FORR(x, y) given by

$$FORR(x, y) = \begin{cases} -1 & \text{forr}(x \odot y) \ge \varepsilon/4\\ 1 & \text{forr}(x \odot y) \le \varepsilon/8. \end{cases}$$

Here, \odot denotes the pointwise product. Let $k \in \mathbb{N}$ be a parameter satisfying $k = o(n^{1/50})$. We are interested in the XOR of k copies of the Forrelation problem. This problem was first studied in [19] in the context of XOR lemmas.

▶ Definition 3 (⊕^k-Forrelation Problem). This problem is the XOR of k independent instances of the Forrelation problem where $\varepsilon = \frac{1}{60k^2 \ln n}$. To be precise, Alice and Bob receive $x = (x^{(1)}, \ldots, x^{(k)})$ and $y = (y^{(1)}, \ldots, y^{(n)})$ where $x^{(i)}, y^{(i)} \in \{-1, 1\}^n$ for all $i \in [k]$, and they need to compute

FORR<sup>(
$$\oplus k$$
)</sup> $(x, y) = \prod_{i=1}^{k} FORR\left(x^{(i)}, y^{(i)}\right).$

1.2.2 Main Theorem

We now state our main theorem. For $n \in \mathbb{N}$, let $k \in \mathbb{N}$ be a parameter satisfying $k = o(n^{1/50})$.

▶ **Theorem 1.** The \oplus^k -Forrelation problem can be solved with $\tilde{O}(k^5 \log^3 n)$ qubits of communication in the $Q||^*$ model if Alice and Bob share $\tilde{\Theta}(k^5 \log^3 n)$ EPR pairs. However, if they share O(k) qubits of entanglement, then this problem requires $\Omega(n^{1/4})$ bits of communication even in the $R2^*$ model.

We make a few remarks. Firstly, the upper bound holds provided Alice and Bob share $\tilde{\Theta}(k^5 \log^3 n)$ EPR pairs, however, the lower bound holds for all possible entangled states on O(k) qubits, not necessarily EPR pairs. (See Section 2.2 for a formal description of the models and EPR pairs.) Secondly, although Theorem 1 is stated for bounded-error models, our lower bound also holds for protocols with advantage $2^{-o(k)}$. To prove our lower bound, our main technical contribution is to show a *Fourier growth bound for R2*^{*} protocols with limited entanglement.² In the following lemma, $O_{\ell}(t)$ is a shorthand notation for $O(t \cdot 2^{O(\ell)})$.

▶ Lemma 1. Let $C : \{-1,1\}^n \times \{-1,1\}^n \rightarrow [-1,1]$ be an $R2^*$ protocol of cost c where Alice and Bob share an entangled state on at most 2d qubits for some parameter $d \in \mathbb{N}$. Let H be the XOR-fiber of C as in Definition 7. Then, for all $\ell \in \mathbb{N}$, we have

$$L_{1,\ell}(H) \triangleq \sum_{|S|=\ell} \left| \widehat{H}(S) \right| \le 2^{5d} \cdot O_{\ell}(c^{\ell}).$$

We also study lower bounds for the Forrelation problem in the quantum simultaneous model. Prior to our work, there was no partial function separating $Q \parallel^*$ with more entanglement and $Q \parallel^*$ with less entanglement. In particular, it was unknown whether the Forrelation problem can be solved in the $Q \parallel^{\text{pub}}$ model with small cost and no entanglement. Our result shows that this is not the case, and that the Forrelation problem separates $Q \parallel^*$ from $Q \parallel^{\text{pub}}$, resolving an open problem from [12].

▶ **Theorem 2.** The Forrelation problem requires $\Omega(n^{1/4})$ qubits of communication in the $Q \parallel^{\text{pub}}$ model.

This is also proved using a Fourier growth bound.

▶ Lemma 2. Let $C : \{-1,1\}^n \times \{-1,1\}^n \rightarrow [-1,1]$ be a $Q \parallel^{\text{pub}}$ protocol of cost c and let H be its XOR-fiber as in Definition 7. Then, for all $\ell \in \mathbb{N}$, we have

$$L_{1,\ell}(H) \le O_\ell(c^\ell).$$

We remark that our techniques can also show that for the \oplus^k -Forrelation problem, if Alice and Bob only share O(k) EPR pairs, they require $\Omega(n^{1/4})$ qubits of communication in the \mathbb{Q}_{*} model. We don't show the details of this proof, instead, we prove a stronger result, namely Theorem 3. We give an example of a partial function such that with $\Theta(k \log n)$ EPR pairs, it is solvable in the \mathbb{R}_{*} model with cost $O(k \log n)$, however, with only O(k) qubits of entanglement requires cost $\Omega(n^{1/3})$ even in the \mathbb{Q}_{*} model.

 $^{^2}$ For the introduction, we will loosely say "Fourier growth of communication protocols", when strictly speaking, we are referring to Fourier growth of *XOR-fibers* and other functions associated with communication protocols.

1.3 Result 2: Separations based on Boolean Hidden Matching

1.3.1 Problem Definition: The Boolean Hidden Matching Problem

We first define the Boolean Hidden Hatching problem. The (relational) Hidden Matching problem was first defined by Bar Yossef et al. [4]. The Boolean Hidden Matching problem was defined by Gavinsky et al. [14] in the context of one-way communication complexity and was used to separate the R \parallel^* and R1 models. Subsequently this problem and its variants have found several applications, especially in proving streaming lower bounds starting with the seminal work of Kapralov et al. [24]. The Boolean Hidden Matching problem, denoted BHM_{m,n}, is defined as follows. Let $n, m \in \mathbb{N}$ be parameters and $m = \alpha n$ for a small enough constant $\alpha \ll 1$.

▶ **Definition 4** (Boolean Hidden Matching). Alice gets $x \in \{-1, 1\}^n$, Bob gets a matching on [n] with m edges and a string $y \in \{-1, 1\}^m$. Their goal is to compute $BHM_{m,n}(x, y, M)$ given by

$$BHM_{m,n}(x, y, M) = \begin{cases} -1 & \text{if } Mx = \overline{y} \\ 1 & \text{if } Mx = y \end{cases}$$

Here, we use $Mx \in \{-1, 1\}^m$ to denote the vector whose k-th coordinate is $x_{i_k} \cdot x_{j_k}$ for $k \in [m]$, where the edges of M are $(i_1, j_1), \ldots, (i_m, j_m) \in [n]^2$. We also use \overline{y} to denote -y.

Below we will be concerned with computing the XOR of k independent copies of $BHM_{m,n}$.

▶ Definition 5 (\oplus^k -Boolean Hidden Matching Problem). This problem is the XOR of k independent instances of the Boolean Hidden Matching problem. To be precise, Alice receives $x = (x^{(1)}, \ldots, x^{(k)})$ and Bob receives $y = (y^{(1)}, \ldots, y^{(k)})$ and M_1, \ldots, M_k where $x^{(i)} \in$ $\{-1, 1\}^n, y^{(i)} \in \{-1, 1\}^m$ and M_i is a matching on [n] with m edges for all $i \in [k]$. They need to compute

$$BHM_{m,n}^{(\oplus k)}(x,y) = \prod_{i=1}^{k} BHM_{m,n}\left(x^{(i)}, y^{(i)}, M_{i}\right).$$

1.3.2 Main Theorem

We now state our main theorem. Here, $\alpha \ll 1$ is some absolute constant and $k \in \mathbb{N}$ is a parameter, possibly depending on $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

▶ **Theorem 3.** The \oplus^k -Boolean Hidden Matching problem can be solved with $\tilde{O}(k \log n)$ bits of communication in the $R||^*$ model if Alice and Bob share $\tilde{\Theta}(k \log n)$ EPR pairs. However, if Alice and Bob only share O(k) qubits of entanglement, then this problem requires

- \square $\Omega(k\sqrt{n})$ bits of communication in the R1^{*} model,
- $\Omega(kn^{1/3})$ qubits of communication in the $Q \parallel^*$ model.

Similarly to Theorem 1, we make a few remarks. Firstly, the upper bound holds provided Alice and Bob share $\tilde{\Theta}(k \log n)$ EPR pairs, however, the lower bound holds for all possible entangled states on O(k) qubits, not necessarily EPR pairs. Secondly, although Theorem 3 is stated for bounded-error models, our lower bound also holds for protocols with advantage $2^{-o(k)}$. The main technical contribution of this part is to argue that R1 and Q||^{pub} protocols satisfy an XOR lemma with respect to computing the Boolean Hidden Matching problem.

XOR Lemmas

XOR lemmas study the relation between the computational resources of F and the k-fold XOR of F on k independent inputs. In particular, XOR lemmas for communication complexity are of the following format: If cost-t protocols have advantage at most 2/3 in computing F, then cost-o(tk) protocols have advantage at most $2^{-\Theta(k)}$ in computing the k-fold XOR of F. XOR lemmas provide a framework to construct hard objects in a black-box way and have applications to several areas in theoretical computer science such as one-way functions, pseudorandom generators and streaming algorithms. We prove an XOR lemma for R1 and $Q||^{\text{pub}}$ protocols with respect to computing the Boolean Hidden Matching problem.

▶ Lemma 3. Let C be any $Q||^{\text{pub}}$ protocol of cost c. Then its advantage in computing the \oplus^k -Boolean Hidden Matching problem is at most $O_k \left(\frac{(c/k)^3}{n}\right)^{k/2} + O_k(n^{-k/2})$.

▶ Lemma 4. Let C be any R1 protocol of cost c. Then its advantage in computing the \oplus^k -Boolean Hidden Matching problem is at most $O_k \left(\frac{(c/k)^2}{n}\right)^{k/2} + O_k(n^{-k/2})$. Until very recently [41], we didn't have an XOD have a C D to be a set of the set o

Until very recently [41], we didn't have an XOR lemma for R1 and as far as we are aware we do not have *any* XOR lemmas for the quantum communication model. However we do have direct product and direct sum theorems for classical and quantum communication models (which are strictly weaker than XOR lemmas) and in fact this was used in the prior work of [15, 22]. Our main technical contribution here is an XOR lemma for R1 and $Q||^{\text{pub}}$ protocols for the Boolean Hidden Matching problem. Only during completion of this project, we were made aware of a recent work by Yu [41] proving an XOR lemma for all constant round classical protocols (hence implying Lemma 4). Given the technicality of his proof, in our paper we present a simple proof for an XOR lemma for the R1 model for the Boolean Hidden Matching problem.

1.4 Proof Sketch

One of the difficulties of proving lower bounds against classical models equipped with entanglement is that these models are quite powerful; using the quantum teleportation protocol, any quantum protocol with q qubits of communication can be classically simulated using q EPR pairs. Thus, all known partial functions that separate quantum and classical communication complexity are easy to classically simulate in the presence of $O(\log^c n)$ EPR pairs for some small constant c > 0.

One approach to show a fine-grained separation between protocols with more entanglement and protocols with less entanglement is the following. Consider any communication task F that exhibits an exponential separation between quantum and classical communication complexity. We have many examples of such tasks that are easy with $O(\log n)$ EPR pairs but exponentially harder in the absence of entanglement. Consider the problem of solving kindependent and parallel instances of F. Here, the players receive k pairs of inputs (x_i, y_i) and need to compute $F(x_i, y_i)$ for every $i \in [k]$. We denote this problem by $F^{(k)}$. The hope is that entanglement obeys a direct sum theorem of sorts, that is, if the players need at least $\Omega(\log n)$ qubits of entanglement to solve the original task, then to solve k independent and parallel instances, they need at least $\Omega(k \log n)$ qubits of entanglement. In particular, we might hope that protocols that compute $F^{(k)}$ using only O(k) qubits of entanglement require exponentially larger cost. There is a way to make this idea work and this was done in [11]. We describe this idea. Assume by contradiction that we have a small-cost protocol computing $F^{(k)}$ using only O(k) qubits of entanglement.

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Step 1: Remove entanglement. The first step is to remove all entanglement from this protocol. To do this, we replace the entangled state on O(k) qubits by the maximally mixed state on O(k) qubits. Since the maximally mixed state is unentangled, the resulting protocol effectively uses no entanglement. Furthermore, the mixed state can be viewed as a probability distribution over states, where the original entangled state occurs with probability $2^{-\Theta(k)}$. It follows that this protocol succeeds with probability at least $2^{-\Theta(k)}$.

Step 2: Direct Product Theorems. The second step is to prove a direct product theorem in the absence of entanglement. Direct product theorems in communication complexity are of the following form: If for cost-t protocols, the probability of solving one instance of F is at most 2/3, then for cost-o(tk) protocols, the probability of solving k parallel and independent instances of F is at most $2^{-\Theta(k)}$. Establishing such theorems is highly non-trivial and for one-way protocols, this was done by [11, 22].

Following this framework, the work of [11] gives examples of relational problems that are easy to solve with $\Theta(k \log n)$ EPR pairs but difficult with only O(k) EPR pairs. One drawback of this approach is that the task $F^{(k)}$ has many output bits, regardless of whether Fis a partial function or a relational problem. To get separations for functions with single-bit outputs, we need to modify this approach. We ask the players to solve the XOR of kindependent instances of F. Here, the players receive k pairs of inputs (x_i, y_i) and they need to compute $\prod_{i \in [k]} F(x_i, y_i)$. We denote this problem by $F^{(\oplus k)}$. We will show that there is no small-cost protocol solving $F^{(\oplus k)}$ using only O(k) qubits of entanglement. To do this, we assume by contradiction that there exists such a protocol.

Step 1: Remove entanglement. We produce a small-cost protocol for $F^{(\oplus k)}$ that uses no entanglement and has success probability at least $1/2 + 2^{-\Theta(k)}$, i.e., the advantage is at least $2^{-\Theta(k)}$.

Step 2: XOR Lemmas. We establish an XOR lemma for protocols without entanglement. We show that if for cost-*t* protocols, the probability of solving one instance is at most 2/3, then for cost-o(tk) protocols, the probability of solving the XOR of *k* independent instances is at most $1/2 + 2^{-\Theta(k)}$, i.e., the advantage is at most $2^{-\Theta(k)}$.

Together, this would establish the desired result. We now discuss some of the difficulties in executing these steps and present our solutions. We first present the details of step 2 and then step 1.

Details of Step 2. One difficulty with step 2 is that XOR lemmas are stronger than direct product theorems and are thus harder to establish. In this work, we present XOR lemmas that are tailored for particular functions. The functions we will be interested in are the Forrelation problem and the Boolean Hidden Matching problem. For the former problem, XOR lemmas for R2 protocols were established in [19]. For the Boolean Hidden Matching problem, we show an XOR lemma for the R1 and $Q \parallel^{\text{pub}}$ models (Lemma 4 and Lemma 3). We now describe this part in more detail.

Let F be the Boolean Hidden Matching problem. One central ingredient in our XOR lemmas for F is the construction of hard distributions. The result of [14] shows hard distributions \mathcal{Y} and \mathcal{N} on the YES and NO instances of F respectively, such that no smallcost protocol can distinguish these distributions with 1/3 advantage. We produce hard distributions $\mu_{-1}^{(k)}$ and $\mu_1^{(k)}$ for the $F^{(\oplus k)}$ problem such that no small-cost protocol can

distinguish them with advantage $2^{-\Theta(k)}$. To get bounds of the form $2^{-\Theta(k)}$, it turns out that our distributions need to agree on moments of size at most $\Theta(k)$. Motivated by this, we define the following distributions.

$$\mu_1^{(k)} := \frac{1}{2^{k-1}} \sum_{\substack{K \subseteq [k] \\ |K| \text{ is even}}} \mathcal{Y}_K \mathcal{N}_{\overline{K}} \quad \text{and} \quad \mu_{-1}^{(k)} := \frac{1}{2^{k-1}} \sum_{\substack{K \subseteq [k] \\ |K| \text{ is odd}}} \mathcal{Y}_K \mathcal{N}_{\overline{K}},$$

Here, $\mathcal{Y}_K \mathcal{N}_{\overline{K}}$ is a product of k independent distributions, where the *i*-th distribution is \mathcal{Y} if $i \in K$ and is \mathcal{N} . We show that the distributions $\mu_1^{(k)}$ and $\mu_{-1}^{(k)}$ are indeed distributions on the NO and YES instances respectively of the $F^{(\oplus k)}$ problem, furthermore, they agree on all moments of size at most k. To complete the argument, we need to show that small-cost protocols cannot distinguish these distributions with more than $2^{-\Theta(k)}$ advantage. This is fairly technical and involves the use of Fourier analysis. For R1 protocols, the k = 1 version of this was proved in [14]. Their work in particular makes use of the level-k inequality. We build on their work for R1 protocols and prove the desired XOR lemma for larger k (Lemma 4). For $\mathbf{Q} \parallel^{\text{pub}}$ protocols, we are not aware of any works that study the communication complexity of F or that analyze the Fourier spectrum of such protocols, which is a contribution in this paper. In particular we prove Fourier growth bounds for $\mathbf{Q} \parallel^{\text{pub}}$ protocols (Lemma 2) as well as an XOR lemma for the Boolean Hidden Matching problem (Lemma 3). For these, we make use of a matrix version of the level-k inequality [5].

Details of Step 1. One difficulty with step 1 is that the trick of replacing an entangled state by the maximally mixed state no longer works. It is possible for a protocol to be correct when using a particular entangled state, but wrong for every orthogonal state. In this case, executing the protocol on the maximally mixed state would bias the output towards the wrong answer. Thus, carrying out step 1 is non-trivial and in particular, difficult to do for R2^{*} protocols. We take an alternate approach for R2^{*} protocols to sidestep this difficulty, which we will describe later. We are able to carry out step 1 for R1^{*} and Q||* protocols. Given a cost c protocol for a function in the R1^{*} model or Q||* model using at most 2d qubits of entanglement, we produce a cost c + O(d) protocol in the R1 or Q|| model³ respectively; these protocols use no entanglement and have advantage $2^{-\Theta(d)}$. We now give an illustrative example of this simulation.

Consider a simple \mathbb{Q}_{i}^{*} protocol where the entangled state consists of d EPR pairs and Alice and Bob apply a unitary operator to their part of the entangled state and send all their qubits to Charlie. If Alice's and Bob's unitary operators map $|i\rangle$ to $|u_i(x)\rangle$ and $|v_i(y)\rangle$ respectively, then the state received by the referee is the pure state $\sum_{i \in \{-1,1\}^d} |u_i(x)\rangle |v_i(y)\rangle$ (ignoring the normalization). We now construct a \mathbb{Q}_{i} protocol that produces the same state with probability $2^{-\Theta(d)}$, furthermore, Charlie is able to detect when this state was successfully produced. We have Alice and Bob send the pure states $\sum_i |i\rangle |u_i(x)\rangle$ and $\sum_j |j\rangle |v_j(y)\rangle$ respectively to Charlie. Charlie first projects onto states such that i = j and obtains the pure state $\sum_{i \in \{-1,1\}^d} |i,i\rangle |u_i(x)\rangle |v_i(y)\rangle$ with probability 2^{-d} . He then applies Hadamard on the first 2d qubits and measures. He obtains the outcome $|0^{2d}\rangle$ with probability 2^{-2d} in which the resulting state is the pure state $\sum_i |u_i(x)\rangle |v_i(y)\rangle$ as in the original \mathbb{Q}_i^* protocol. We use similar ideas to remove entanglement from arbitrary \mathbb{Q}_i^* protocols. To remove entanglement from an \mathbb{R}_i^* protocol, we need to take a different approach which involves Alice sending Bob a random coordinate of a certain density matrix. We omit the details.

³ We use \mathbb{Q} to denote the private-coin version of the \mathbb{Q} $\|^{\text{pub}}$ model.

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Alternate Approach to Step 1 for R2^{*} Protocols. We now present an alternative to step 1 for R2^{*} protocols. The idea is to prove Fourier growth bounds for R2^{*} protocols. The results of [19] imply that for protocols whose level-2k Fourier growth is at most α , their advantage in solving the \oplus^k -Forrelation problem is at most $\alpha \cdot n^{-k/2} + o(n^{-k/2})$. We directly establish a Fourier growth bound on R2^{*} protocols. In particular, we show that for R2^{*} protocols of communication cost c that use d qubits of entanglement, their level- ℓ Fourier growth is at most $poly(2^d) \cdot O_{\ell}(c^{\ell})$ (Lemma 1). Choosing $\ell = 2k$, $d = \Theta(k)$ and $c = \Theta(n^{1/4})$ for appropriate constants, we have that the advantage is at most $poly(2^d) \cdot O_{\ell}(c^{\ell}) \cdot n^{-k/2} \ll 1$. This would complete the proof. We now describe how we prove the Fourier growth bound on R2^{*} protocols (Lemma 1).

(1) We first show that if the players share a 2*d*-qubit entangled state, then we can decompose the state into a small linear combination of $poly(2^d)$ many *two*-qubit quantum states that are either unentangled, or locally equivalent to $|\Phi^+\rangle\langle\Phi^+|$, the EPR state. (By locally equivalent we mean that the players can transform one state into the other using local unitaries and no communication.) This gives us the pre-factor of $poly(2^d)$ in Lemma 1.

(2) We analyze protocols where Alice and Bob share the EPR state and bound the Fourier growth of such protocols. Observe that if they share an unentangled state, the protocol is essentially an R2 protocol and the work of [18] showed Fourier growth for such protocols. We strengthen this result by proving similar Fourier growth for R2^{*} protocols where Alice and Bob share the EPR state. To do this, we study the structure of such protocols. We first show that the expected output of any R2^{*} protocol of cost c where Alice and Bob share the EPR state can be written as

$$C(x,y) = \sum_{z \in \{-1,1\}^c} \alpha_z \cdot \operatorname{Tr}((E_z(x) \otimes F_z(y)) \cdot \rho).$$

where $E_z(x)$ and $F_z(y)$ are positive semidefinite matrices, $\sum_{z \in \{-1,1\}^c} E_z(x) \otimes F_z(y) = \mathbb{I}$, $\alpha_z \in \{-1,1\}$, and $\rho = |\Phi^+\rangle \langle \Phi^+| \otimes |0^{2m}\rangle \langle 0^{2m}|_{AB}$ for some $m \in \mathbb{N}$ that is possibly large. We give some intuition on this expression. The qubits $|0^m\rangle \langle 0^m|_A$ and $|0^m\rangle \langle 0^m|_B$ in ρ correspond to Alice and Bob's private memory respectively and ρ captures the initial state of all the qubits in the system. The matrices $E_z(x) \otimes F_z(y)$ arise out of Alice's and Bob's sequence of quantum operations (i.e., POVMs) in the R2^{*} protocol and the quantity $\operatorname{Tr}(E_z(x) \otimes F_z(y) \cdot \rho)$ captures the probability of the transcript being $z \in \{-1,1\}^c$. The number $\alpha_z \in \{-1,1\}$ is 1 if and only if the transcript z results in the players outputting 1.

We now write out the Fourier expansion of the XOR fiber $H(z) = \mathbb{E}_{x \sim \{-1,1\}^n}[C(x, x+z)]$. Using the convolution property of Fourier coefficients, we can express the Fourier coefficients of H(z) in terms of the Fourier coefficients of $E_z(x)$, $F_z(y)$. In particular, we get

$$\sum_{|S|=\ell} |\widehat{H}(S)| = \sum_{|S|=\ell} \left| \sum_{z \in \{-1,1\}^c} \alpha_z \cdot \operatorname{Tr}\left(\left(\widehat{E_z}(S) \otimes \widehat{F_z}(S) \right) \cdot \rho \right) \right|.$$

We now use the fact that ρ has exactly four non-zero entries. This zeroes out all but four coordinates of $\hat{E}_z(S) \otimes \hat{F}_z(S)$ in the above expression. At this point, we use the level-kinequality by Lee [28] to bound each of the coordinates separately in terms of the entries of $E_z(x)$ and $F_z(y)$. Using the fact that $\{E_z(x) \otimes F_z(y)\}_z$ forms a POVM, we can bound the coordinates of these matrices and combine them with the bounds we obtain from the level-kinequality in a nice way.

1.5 Organization

In this version of the paper, we only prove the XOR lemmas for the Boolean Hidden Matching Problem in the R1 and $Q \parallel^{\text{pub}}$ models. For more details and the rest of the proofs, see the full version of this paper.

2 Preliminaries

Sets. For $n \in \mathbb{N}$, let $[n] = \{1, \ldots, n\}$. We use $\mathbb{1}$ to denote the indicator function, i.e., for a predicate E, $\mathbb{1}[E]$ is 1 if E is satisfied and 0 otherwise. For a subset $S \subseteq [n]$, we use $\overline{S} := [n] \setminus S$ to denote the complement of S. We denote the $n \times n$ identity matrix by \mathbb{I}_n , and we omit the subscript if it is implicit.

Big O Notation. For simplicity in notation, for every $f, g: \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0} \to \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ and $\ell \in \mathbb{N}$, we say that $g = O_{\ell}(f)$ if for some constant c > 0, we have $g = O(f \cdot 2^{c \cdot \ell})$. We say that $f = \tilde{O}(g)$ (respectively $f = \tilde{\Omega}(g)$) if for some constant c > 0, we have $f = O(g \cdot \log^{c}(g))$ (respectively $f = \Omega(g \cdot \log^{-c}(g))$). We say that $f = \tilde{\Theta}(g)$ if $f = \tilde{O}(g)$ and $f = \tilde{\Omega}(g)$.

Probability Distributions. Let Σ be an alphabet and \mathcal{D} be a probability distribution over Σ . We use $x \sim \mathcal{D}$ to denote x sampled according to \mathcal{D} . We use $\operatorname{supp}(\mathcal{D})$ to denote the support of the distribution \mathcal{D} . We use $x \sim \Sigma$ to denote a uniformly random sample from Σ . For a function $G: \Sigma \to \mathbb{R}^n$, we use $\mathbb{E}_{x\sim\mathcal{D}}[G(x)]$ to denote the expected value of G when the inputs are drawn according to \mathcal{D} . Let $k \in \mathbb{N}$, $S \subseteq [k]$ and $\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{D}'$ be two distributions over Σ . We use $\mathcal{D}_S \mathcal{D}'_S$ to denote the distribution over Σ^k which is a product of k independent distributions over Σ , where the *i*th distribution is \mathcal{D} if $i \in S$ and \mathcal{D}' if $i \notin S$ for all $i \in [k]$. For distributions, $\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{D}'$, define the total variation distance as $\|\mathcal{D} - \mathcal{D}'\|_1 := \sum_i |\mathcal{D}(i) - \mathcal{D}'(i)|$.

Norms. Let $k \in \mathbb{N}$. For a vector $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$, we use $\|v\|_k := \left(\sum_{i \in [n]} |v_i|^k\right)^{1/k}$ to denote the ℓ_k -norm of v. For any matrix $M \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, we use |M| to denote $\sqrt{MM^{\dagger}}$ and we denote by $\|M\|_1$ the trace norm of M, that is $\|M\|_1 := \operatorname{Tr}(\sqrt{MM^{\dagger}}) = \operatorname{Tr}(|M|)$. We use $\|M\|_{\text{op}} := \max_{\|v\|_2=1}(v^T M v)$ to denote the operator norm of M.

2.1 Quantum information

Quantum States. Let $d \in \mathbb{N}$ and let \mathcal{H} be a Hilbert space of dimension 2^d . This is a vector space defined by the \mathbb{R} -span of the orthonormal basis $\{|x\rangle : x \in \{0,1\}^d\}$. We also identify this basis with $\{|i\rangle : i \in [2^d]\}$ using the lexicographic ordering as the correspondence. We use $|0^d\rangle$ to denote the vector $|0, \ldots, 0\rangle$ with d zeroes. Let $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H})$ be the set of positive semidefinite matrices in $\mathbb{R}^{2^d \times 2^d}$. Let $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{H})$ be the set of density operators on \mathcal{H} , that is, matrices in $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H})$ with trace 1. We typically use ρ and σ to refer to elements of $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{H})$. The state of a quantum system on d qubits is described by a density operator $\rho \in \mathcal{S}(\mathcal{H})$. For states that are shared between Alice and Bob, we use the subscript A and B on qubits to denote whether Alice or Bob own those qubits.

Quantum State Evolution. Let $\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{H}'$ be Hilbert spaces. The evolution of a quantum state is described by a map $E : \mathcal{S}(\mathcal{H}) \to \mathcal{S}(\mathcal{H}')$ which is CPTP (i.e., completely positive and trace preserving). We use the notation $E(\rho)$ to denote the image of ρ under E. In particular, we will be interested in measurement operators. Any quantum measurement with k outcomes

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is specified by k matrices $M_1, \ldots, M_k \in \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H})$ such that $\sum_{i \in [k]} M_i^{\dagger} M_i = \mathbb{I}$. The probability of getting outcome $i \in [k]$ is precisely $\operatorname{Tr}(M_i \rho M_i^{\dagger})$ and the post measurement state upon obtaining the outcome i is $\frac{M_i \rho M_i^{\dagger}}{\operatorname{Tr}(M_i \rho M_i^{\dagger})}$. We have a correspondence between $\{0, 1\}$ and $\{1, -1\}$ defined by $0 \to 1, 1 \to -1$, hence, we will sometimes refer to measurement outcomes "1" and "0" as "-1" and "1" respectively.

Distance between States. Let $\rho, \sigma \in S(\mathcal{H})$ be density operators. We define the trace distance between ρ and σ to be $\frac{\|\rho - \sigma\|_1}{2}$. We will use the following standard facts about the trace distance. Firstly, the trace distance satisfies triangle inequality. Secondly, the trace distance between ρ and σ is equal to the maximum probability with which these states can be distinguished using any single projective measurement. Thirdly, the following inequality holds as a consequence of the Von-Neumann Inequality.

▶ Fact 6. For any matrices $M, \rho \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, we have $\operatorname{Tr}(M\rho) \leq \|M\|_{op} \cdot \|\rho\|_{1}$.

2.2 Communication Complexity

The goal in communication complexity is for Alice and Bob to compute a function $F : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y} \to \{-1, 1, \star\}$. We interpret -1 as a YES and 1 as a NO. We say F is a *total* function if $F(x, y) \in \{-1, 1\}$ for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$ and $y \in \mathcal{Y}$, otherwise F is a *partial* function. In this paper we will be mostly concerned with partial functions and denote $\mathsf{dom}(F) = F^{-1}(\{-1, 1\})$. Here Alice receives an input $x \in \mathcal{X}$ (unknown to Bob) and Bob receives an input $y \in \mathcal{Y}$ (unknown to Alice) promised that $(x, y) \in \mathsf{dom}(F)$ and their goal is to compute F(x, y) with high probability, i.e., probability at least 2/3. More formally, for any protocol \mathcal{P} , we let $\mathsf{cost}(\mathcal{P}, x, y)$ be the communication cost of \mathcal{P} when Alice and Bob are given x, y as inputs. We say that \mathcal{P} computes F, if, for every $(x, y) \in \mathsf{dom}(F)$, the output of the protocol is F(x, y) with probability at least 2/3 (where the probability is taken over the randomness/measurements of the protocol). The communication complexity of F is defined as

 $\min_{\mathcal{P} \text{ computes } F} \max_{F(x,y) \in \mathsf{dom}(F)} \mathrm{cost}(\mathcal{P}, x, y).$

The messages sent are referred to as the transcript of the protocol. We discuss a few models of communication of interest to us.

Simultaneous Message Passing Model. This is a general model of communication called the *simultaneous message passing* (SMP) model. In this model, Alice and Bob each send a single (possibly quantum or randomized) message to a referee Charlie. The goal is for Charlie to output F(x, y) with high probability, i.e., at least 2/3 probability. We measure the cost of a communication protocol by the total number of bits (or qubits) received by Charlie. There are many types of simultaneous protocols.

Quantum versus Classical protocols. We use \mathbb{R} to denote the SMP model where the players can only send classical messages to Charlie. We use \mathbb{Q} to denote the SMP model where the players can send a quantum message to Charlie.

Public-coin versus Private-coin Protocols. If we allow the players to use public coins, we use the superscript "pub". For instance, $Q\|^{\text{pub}}$ denotes the public-coin quantum SMP model and $Q\|$ denotes the private-coin quantum SMP model. Unless otherwise specified, all protocols are private coin protocols.

One-Way Model. In this model, Alice sends a single message to Bob, who should output F(x, y) with probability at least 2/3. The cost of the protocol is the size of message Alice sends. By a classical result of Newman [31], we can assume that all one-way protocols are private-coin protocols with an $O(\log n)$ additive overhead in the communication complexity. We use R1 to denote the one-way model of communication where Alice sends a classical message to Bob.

Two-Way Model. Here Alice and Bob are allowed to exchange messages, and Alice should finally output F(x, y) with probability at least 2/3. The cost of the protocol is the total size of the transcript. As before, by a result of Newman [31], we can assume that all two-way protocols are private-coin protocols with an $O(\log n)$ additive overhead in the communication complexity. We use R2 to denote the model of two-way communication where Alice and Bob exchange classical messages.

We now discuss protocols where Alice and Bob can share an entangled state that is independent of their inputs. One important type of entangled state is the EPR pair: This is the state $|\Phi^+\rangle\langle\Phi^+|$ where $|\Phi^+\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|0\rangle_A |0\rangle_B + |1\rangle_A |1\rangle_B$. Here, the subscript on the qubit denotes which player owns the qubit. The upper bound in all our theorems will be established using quantum protocols where the players share a certain number of EPR pairs. We typically specify the dimension of the state shared by Alice and Bob.

Protocols with entanglement. We use \mathbb{R}^{*} to denote the simultaneous model of communication where Alice and Bob share an entangled state and send classical messages to the referee. The model \mathbb{Q}^{*} is similarly defined, but Alice and Bob can send quantum messages to the referee. We use \mathbb{R}^{*} to denote the one-way model where Alice and Bob share entanglement and Alice sends a classical message to Bob. We use \mathbb{R}^{*} to denote the two-way model where Alice and Bob share entanglement and the messages are classical. In this model, by the quantum teleportation protocol, the players can exchange a limited number of qubits. Conversely, if the players can exchange a limited number of qubits, then Alice can create EPR pairs by herself and send the corresponding qubits to Bob.

For ease of readability, we summarize all the communication models in the table below.

Table 1 Table of Simultaneous Communication Models.

	Private Coins	Public Coins	Entanglement
Classical Messages	R∥	$R\ ^{ ext{pub}}$	R *
Quantum Messages	Q	$Q\ ^{\mathrm{pub}}$	Q *

Table 2 Table of One-Way & Two-Way Communication Models.

	One-way	Two-way	
	Private Coins	Private Coins	
	$(\equiv \text{Public Coins})$	$(\equiv \text{Public Coins})$	
Classical Messages	R1	R2	
Classical Messages	R1*	R2*	
& Entanglement			

2.3 XOR-Fibers of Communication Protocols

▶ Definition 7. Given a communication protocol $C : \{-1,1\}^n \times \{-1,1\}^n \rightarrow [-1,1]$, the XOR-fiber of C is a function $H : \{-1,1\}^n \rightarrow [-1,1]$ defined at $z \in \{-1,1\}^n$ by $H(z) = \mathbb{E}_{x \sim \{-1,1\}^n} [C(x,x \odot z)]$, where \odot denotes point-wise product.

The communication complexity of XOR functions are well-studied and have connections to the log-rank conjecture, parity decision trees, lifting theorems and separations between quantum and classical communication complexity [30, 20, 39, 38, 42]. XOR-fibers of communication protocols naturally arise in the study of communication complexity of XOR functions. Although we are not aware of any published works defining the term "XOR-fiber", this concept has been studied in many works, most notably [18] and [33].

2.4 Fourier analysis

Fourier Analysis on the Boolean Hypercube. We discuss some of the basics of Fourier analysis. Let $f : \{-1, 1\}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ be a function. The Fourier decomposition of f is

$$f(x) = \sum_{S \subseteq [n]} \widehat{f}(S) \chi_S(x),$$

where $\chi_S(x) = \prod_{i \in S} x_i$. The Fourier coefficients of f are defined as $\widehat{f}(S) = \mathbb{E}_{x \sim \{-1,1\}^n} [f(x) \cdot \chi_S(x)]$. For $\ell \in \mathbb{N}$, the level- ℓ Fourier mass of f is denoted by $L_{1,\ell}(f)$ and is defined as follows.

$$L_{1,\ell}(f) = \sum_{|S|=\ell} \left| \widehat{f}(S) \right|$$

By Fourier growth bounds, we typically mean upper bounds on $L_{1,\ell}(f)$. We will need the following technical lemma, often called the level-k inequality.

▶ Lemma 8 ([28, Lemma 10]). Let $f : \{-1, 1\}^n \to [-1, 1]$ be a function with $\mathbb{E}_x[|f(x)|] = \alpha$. Then for every $\ell \in \mathbb{N}$,

$$\sum_{|S|=\ell} \widehat{f}(S)^2 \le 4\alpha^2 \cdot (2e \cdot \ln(e/\alpha^{1/\ell}))^\ell.$$

Although Lemma 10 in [28] is only stated for functions with range [0, 1], the same proof technique can be applied for functions with range [-1, 1]. We remark that the bound often invoked [32, 14] is with the upper bound of $O(\alpha^2 \cdot \ln^{\ell}(1/\alpha))$ (i.e., without the $1/\ell$ exponent on α) which only holds for $\ell \leq 2\ln(1/\alpha)$. However this improved upper bound, proven recently in [28], holds for all $\ell \in \mathbb{N}$. This makes our proofs much simpler and saves some logarithmic factors.

Fourier analysis for Matrix-Valued Functions. The Fourier coefficients of a matrix-valued function $f : \{-1, 1\}^n \to \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$ are defined by

$$\widehat{f}(S) := \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{x \sim \{-1,1\}^n} \left[f(x) \cdot \chi_S(x) \right]$$

for all $S \subseteq [n]$. We also use a matrix version of the level-k inequality.

▶ Lemma 9 ([5, Theorem 7]). Let \mathcal{H} be a Hilbert space of dimension 2^c and let $f : \{-1, 1\}^n \to \mathcal{S}(\mathcal{H})$ be a density-matrix valued function. Then, for any $\ell \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\ell \leq 2 \ln(2)c$,

$$\sum_{|S|=\ell} \operatorname{Tr}^2\left(\left|\widehat{\rho}_S\right|\right) \le \left(\left(2e\ln 2\right) \cdot c/\ell\right)^\ell.$$

Let \mathcal{H}' be a Hilbert space that contains \mathcal{H} of dimension $c' \geq c$. We can view f as a function $f: \{-1,1\}^n \to \mathcal{S}(\mathcal{H}')$ by simply appending zeroes to the output matrix. Given any $\ell \in \mathbb{N}$ that is possibly larger than c, set $c' := c + \lceil \frac{\ell}{2 \ln 2} \rceil$ so that $\ell \leq 2 \ln(2) \cdot c'$. Using this setting of parameters and Lemma 9, we have the following corollary.

▶ Corollary 10. Let \mathcal{H} be a Hilbert space of dimension 2^c and let $f : \{-1, 1\}^n \to \mathcal{S}(\mathcal{H})$ be a density-matrix valued function. Then, for any $\ell \in \mathbb{N}$,

$$\sum_{|S|=\ell} \operatorname{Tr}^2\left(\left|\widehat{\rho}_S\right|\right) \le O_\ell\left((c/\ell)^\ell\right) + O_\ell(1).$$

3 XOR Lemma for $\mathbf{Q} \parallel^{\text{pub}}$ for the Boolean Hidden Matching Problem

Our main technical result in this section is an XOR lemma for $\mathbb{Q}\|^{\text{pub}}$ protocols with regards to the Boolean Hidden Matching problem.

▶ Lemma 3. Let C be any $Q||^{\text{pub}}$ protocol of cost c. Then its advantage in computing the \oplus^k -Boolean Hidden Matching problem is at most $O_k\left(\frac{(c/k)^3}{n}\right)^{k/2} + O_k(n^{-k/2})$.

To prove this lemma, we will make use of some properties which are very similar to those proved in [14]. The proofs of the facts are deferred to the full version of the paper. Let \mathcal{M} be the uniform distribution on matchings on [n] of size $m = \alpha n$ and \mathcal{U} be the uniform distribution on $\{-1, 1\}^n$.

▶ **Definition 11** (M matches S). Let $S \subseteq [nk]$ and $M \in \text{supp}(\mathcal{M}^{\otimes k})$. We say that M matches S if M is an induced perfect matching on S. If M matches S, we use $M(S) \subseteq [mk]$ to denote the subset of edges of this induced perfect matching.

Observe that the map T = M(S) defines a bijection between sets S that are matched by M and subsets $T \subseteq [mk]$. Furthermore, |T| = |S|/2 and for any $i \in [k]$, $|T_i|$ is odd if and only if $|S_i|/2$ is odd. We now define some sets that will be important in the proof.

▶ Definition 12. Let $S_{n,k} := \{S \subseteq [nk] : \forall i \in [k], |S_i|/2 \text{ is an odd integer}\}$ and $\mathcal{T}_{n,k} := \{T \subseteq [mk] : \forall i \in [k], |T_i| \text{ is an odd integer}\}$. Define $S_{n,k}^{\ell} := \{S \in S_{n,k} : |S| = 2\ell\}$ and $\mathcal{T}_{n,k}^{\ell} := \{T \in \mathcal{T}_{n,k} : |T| = \ell\}$ for all $\ell \in [mk]$.

The aforementioned map T = M(S) provides a bijection between sets $S \in \mathcal{S}_{n,k}^{\ell}$ that are matched by M and sets $T \in \mathcal{T}_{n,k}^{\ell}$. The following facts can be proved using techniques in [14]. The details are deferred to the full version of the paper.

▶ Fact 13. Let
$$S \subseteq [nk]$$
 and $M \in \text{supp}(\mathcal{M}^{\otimes k})$. Then, for any $w \in \{-1, 1\}^{mk}$, the quantity

$$\mathbb{E}_{x \sim \mathcal{U}^{\otimes k}} \left[\mathbb{1}[Mx = w] \cdot \chi_S(x) \right]$$

is non-zero if and only if M matches S. Furthermore, if it is non-zero, it equals $2^{-mk} \cdot \chi_{M(S)}(w)$.

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▶ Fact 14. Let $S \subseteq [nk]$ with $|S| = 2\ell$. Then,

$$\Pr_{M \sim \mathcal{M}^{\otimes k}}[M \text{ matches } S] \le O_{\ell}\left(\frac{\ell^{\ell}}{(nk)^{\ell}}\right).$$

We now prove our main lemma of this subsection.

Proof of Lemma 3. We assume that $(c/k)^{3/2} \leq \tau \cdot n^{1/2}$ for some small constant $\tau > 0$, otherwise the statement of the lemma is vacuously true. We will construct distributions on the YES and NO instances of the \oplus^k -Boolean Hidden Matching problem such that no small cost \mathbb{Q} protocol can distinguish them with considerable advantage. Consider the following two distributions.

- **•** \mathcal{N} is a distribution on NO-instances of BHM_{*m,n*}: A random sample of \mathcal{N} is of the form (x, M, y) where $x \sim \mathcal{U}, M \sim \mathcal{M}$ and y := Mx.
- \mathcal{Y} is a distribution on YES-instances of BHM_{*m,n*} defined similarly to \mathcal{N} except that $y := \overline{Mx}$.

Define two distribution $\mu_1^{(k)}, \mu_{-1}^{(k)}$ on inputs to the \oplus^k -Boolean Hidden Matching problem as follows.

$$\mu_1^{(k)} := \frac{1}{2^{k-1}} \sum_{\substack{K \subseteq [k] \\ |K| \text{ is even}}} \mathcal{Y}_K \mathcal{N}_{\overline{K}} \quad \text{and} \quad \mu_{-1}^{(k)} := \frac{1}{2^{k-1}} \sum_{\substack{K \subseteq [k] \\ |K| \text{ is odd}}} \mathcal{Y}_K \mathcal{N}_{\overline{K}}. \tag{1}$$

Recall that $\mathcal{Y}_K \mathcal{N}_{\overline{K}}$ is a product of k independent distributions, where the *i*-th distribution is \mathcal{Y} if $i \in K$ and is \mathcal{N} if $i \notin K$. Clearly $\mu_{-1}^{(k)}$ and $\mu_1^{(k)}$ are distributions on the YES and NO instances respectively of the \oplus^k -Boolean Hidden Matching problem.

Consider any Q|| protocol with c qubits of communication and let \mathcal{H} be a Hilbert space of dimension 2^c . Such a protocol can be described by density matrices $\rho(x) \in \mathcal{S}(\mathcal{H})$ and $\sigma_M(y) \in \mathcal{S}(\mathcal{H})$ for every $x \in \{-1, 1\}^{nk}, y \in \{-1, 1\}^{mk}$ and $M \in \operatorname{supp}(\mathcal{M}^{\otimes k})$. The state received by Charlie on these inputs is precisely $\rho(x) \otimes \sigma_M(y)$. We will show that the trace distance between the states $\mathbb{E}_{(x,M,y)\sim\mu_1^{(k)}}[\rho(x)\otimes\sigma_M(y)]$ and $\mathbb{E}_{(x,M,y)\sim\mu_{-1}^{(k)}}[\rho(x)\otimes\sigma_M(y)]$ is at most $O_k\left(\frac{(c/k)^{3k/2}}{n^{k/2}}\right)$. Since the trace distance measures the maximal distinguishing probability between the two states, this, along with Yao's principle would complete the proof. Towards this, define

$$\Delta := \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,M,y)\sim\mu_1^{(k)}} \left[\rho(x)\otimes\sigma_M(y)\right] - \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,M,y)\sim\mu_{-1}^{(k)}} \left[\rho(x)\otimes\sigma_M(y)\right].$$

Using the definition of $\mu_1^{(k)}$ and $\mu_{-1}^{(k)}$ in Eq. (1), we have

$$\Delta \triangleq \sum_{K \subseteq [k]} \frac{(-1)^{|K|}}{2^{k-1}} \cdot \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{\substack{x \sim \mathcal{U}^{\otimes k} \\ M \sim \mathcal{M}^{\otimes k}}} \left[\rho(x) \otimes \sigma_M \left(\overline{(Mx)}_K (Mx)_{\overline{K}} \right) \right].$$

We introduce a variable $w \in \{-1, 1\}^{mk}$ to represent Mx so that

$$\Delta = \sum_{\substack{w \in \{-1,1\}^{mk} \\ K \subseteq [k]}} \frac{(-1)^{|K|}}{2^{k-1}} \cdot \mathbb{E}_{\substack{x \sim \mathcal{U}^{\otimes k} \\ M \sim \mathcal{M}^{\otimes k}}} \left[\rho(x) \otimes \sigma_M\left(\overline{w}_K w_{\overline{K}}\right) \cdot \mathbb{1}[Mx = w] \right].$$

We expand $\rho(x)$ in the Fourier Basis to obtain

$$\Delta = \sum_{\substack{w \in \{-1,1\}^{mk} \\ K \subseteq [k] \\ S \subseteq [nk]}} \frac{(-1)^{|K|}}{2^{k-1}} \cdot \mathbb{E}_{\substack{x \sim \mathcal{U}^{\otimes k} \\ M \sim \mathcal{M}^{\otimes k}}} \left[\widehat{\rho}(S) \otimes \sigma_M\left(\overline{w}_K w_{\overline{K}}\right) \cdot \left[\mathbbm{1}[Mx = w] \cdot \chi_S(x)\right] \right].$$

Consider the term $\mathbb{E}_{x \sim \mathcal{U}^{\otimes k}}[\mathbb{1}[Mx = w] \cdot \chi_S(x)]$. By Fact 13, this term is non-zero if and only if M matches S, in which case the term evaluates to $2^{-mk} \cdot \chi_{M(S)}(w)$. Substituting this in the equation above, we have that Δ equals

$$\sum_{\substack{w \in \{-1,1\}^{mk} \\ K \subseteq [k] \\ S \subseteq [nk]}} \frac{(-1)^{|K|}}{2^{k-1}} \mathbb{E}_{M \sim \mathcal{M}^{\otimes k}} \left[\widehat{\rho}(S) \otimes \sigma_M \left(\overline{w}_K w_{\overline{K}} \right) \cdot 2^{-mk} \cdot \chi_{M(S)}(w) \cdot \mathbb{1}[M \text{ matches } S] \right].$$
(2)

We now expand $\sigma_M(\overline{w}_K w_{\overline{K}})$ in the Fourier basis with respect to w. Consider

$$\sum_{K\subseteq[k]} (-1)^{|K|} \cdot \sigma_M \left(\overline{w}_K w_{\overline{K}} \right) = \sum_{K\subseteq[k]} (-1)^{|K|} \cdot \sum_{T\subseteq[mk]} \widehat{\sigma_M}(T) \cdot \chi_T(\overline{w}_K, w_{\overline{K}})$$
$$= \sum_{\substack{K\subseteq[k]\\T\subseteq[mk]}} (-1)^{|K|} \cdot \widehat{\sigma_M}(T) \cdot \chi_T(w) \cdot (-1)^{\sum_{i\in K} |T_i|}$$
$$= \sum_{T\subseteq[mk]} \widehat{\sigma_M}(T) \cdot \chi_T(w) \cdot \sum_{K\subseteq[k]} \left[(-1)^{|K| + \sum_{i\in K} |T_i|} \right].$$

For $i \in [k]$, let $t_i = -1$ if $|T_i|$ is odd and $t_i = 1$ if $|T_i|$ is even. Observe that

$$\mathbb{E}_{K\subseteq[k]}\left[(-1)^{|K|+\sum_{i\in K}|T_i|}\right] = \mathbb{E}_{K\subseteq[k]}\left[\chi_K(-t_1,\ldots,-t_k)\right] = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \forall i\in[k], t_i=-1, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Hence, the quantity $\sum_{K \subseteq [k]} [(-1)^{|K| + \sum_{i \in K} |T_i|}]$ is non-zero if and only if $|T_i|$ is odd for all $i \in [k]$. Furthermore, if it is non-zero, then it equals 2^k . Recall that we defined $\mathcal{T}_{nk} := \{T \subseteq [mk] : \forall i \in [k], |T_i| \text{ is odd}\}$ in Definition 12. Using this, we have

$$\sum_{K \subseteq [k]} (-1)^{|K|} \cdot \sigma_M \left(\overline{w}_K w_{\overline{K}} \right) = 2^k \cdot \sum_{T \in \mathcal{T}_{n,k}} \widehat{\sigma_M}(T) \cdot \chi_T(w).$$
(3)

Substituting this in Eq. (2), we have that Δ equals

$$2\sum_{\substack{w \in \{-1,1\}^{mk} \\ S \subseteq [nk]}} \mathbb{E}_{\substack{M \sim \mathcal{M}^{\otimes k}}} \left[\widehat{\rho}(S) \otimes \sum_{T \in \mathcal{T}_{n,k}} \widehat{\sigma_M}(T) \cdot 2^{-mk} \cdot \chi_{M(S)}(w) \cdot \chi_T(w) \cdot \mathbb{1}[M \text{ matches } S] \right]$$
$$= 2\sum_{S \subseteq [nk]} \mathbb{E}_{\substack{M \sim \mathcal{M}^{\otimes k}}} \left[\widehat{\rho}(S) \otimes \sum_{T \in \mathcal{T}_{n,k}} \widehat{\sigma_M}(T) \cdot \mathbb{E}_{\substack{w \sim \{-1,1\}^{mk}}} [\chi_{M(S)+T}(w)] \cdot \mathbb{1}[M \text{ matches } S] \right].$$

Observe that if M matches S, then $\mathbb{E}_{w \sim \{-1,1\}^{mk}} [\chi_{M(S)+T}(w)]$ equals 1 if T = M(S) and 0 otherwise. Recall that the sets $S \subseteq [nk]$ such that M matches S and $M(S) \in \mathcal{T}_{n,k}$ are precisely those sets in $\mathcal{S}_{n,k}$ that are matched by M. Hence,

$$\Delta = \sum_{S \in \mathcal{S}_{n,k}} \widehat{\rho}(S) \otimes \mathbb{E}_M \left[\widehat{\sigma_M}(M(S)) \cdot \mathbb{1}[M \text{ matches } S] \right].$$

We now upper bound $\|\Delta\|_1$ by triangle inequality as follows.

$$\|\Delta\|_{1} \leq \sum_{S \in \mathcal{S}_{n,k}} \|\widehat{\rho}(S)\|_{1} \otimes \mathbb{E}_{M} \left[\|\widehat{\sigma_{M}}(M(S))\|_{1} \cdot \mathbb{1}[M \text{ matches } S] \right].$$

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We partition $S_{n,k}$ and $\mathcal{T}_{n,k}$ into $\sqcup_{\ell} S_{nk}^{\ell}$ and $\sqcup_{\ell} \mathcal{T}_{n,k}^{\ell}$ based on the size of the sets as in Definition 12. Observe that every set in $S_{n,k}$ has size at least 2k and every set in $\mathcal{T}_{n,k}$ has size at least k. Thus,

$$\|\Delta\|_{1} \leq \sum_{\ell=k}^{mk} \sum_{S \in \mathcal{S}_{k,n}^{\ell}} \|\widehat{\rho}(S)\|_{1} \otimes \mathbb{E}_{M} \left[\|\widehat{\sigma_{M}}(M(S))\|_{1} \cdot \mathbb{1}[M \text{ matches } S] \right].$$

$$\tag{4}$$

We now apply Cauchy-Schwarz to conclude that

$$\mathbb{E}_{M \sim \mathcal{M}^{\otimes k}} \left[\|\widehat{\sigma_{M}}(M(S))\|_{1} \cdot \mathbb{1}[M \text{ matches } S] \right] \\
\leq \sqrt{\mathbb{E}_{M \sim \mathcal{M}^{\otimes k}} \left[\|\widehat{\sigma_{M}}(M(S))\|_{1}^{2} \cdot \mathbb{1}[M \text{ matches } S] \right]} \cdot \sqrt{\frac{\Pr}{M \sim \mathcal{M}^{\otimes k}} [M \text{ matches } S]}.$$

Fact 14 implies that for any $S \in \mathcal{T}_{n,k}^{\ell}$, we have $\Pr_{M \sim \mathcal{M}^{\otimes k}}[M \text{ matches } S] \leq O_{\ell}\left(\frac{\ell^{\ell}}{(nk)^{\ell}}\right)$. Substituting this in Eq. (4) implies that

$$\|\Delta\|_{1} \leq \sum_{\ell=k}^{mk} \sum_{S \in \mathcal{S}_{nk}^{\ell}} \|\widehat{\rho}(S)\|_{1} \cdot \sqrt{\mathbb{E}_{M}\left[\|\widehat{\sigma_{M}}(M(S))\|_{1}^{2} \cdot \mathbb{1}[M \text{ matches } S]\right]} \cdot O_{\ell}\left(\frac{\ell^{\ell/2}}{(nk)^{\ell/2}}\right)$$

Again, by Cauchy-Schwarz, we have

$$\|\Delta\|_{1} \leq \sum_{\ell=k}^{mk} \sqrt{\sum_{S \in \mathcal{S}_{n,k}^{\ell}} \|\widehat{\rho}(S)\|_{1}^{2}} \cdot \sqrt{\sum_{S \in \mathcal{S}_{n,k}^{\ell}} \mathbb{E}_{M} \left[\|\widehat{\sigma}_{M}(M(S))\|_{1}^{2} \cdot \mathbb{1}[M \text{ matches } S] \right]} \cdot O_{\ell} \left(\frac{\ell^{\ell/2}}{(nk)^{\ell/2}} \right).$$

By the aforementioned correspondence between sets $S \in S_{n,k}^{\ell}$ such that M matches S and sets $T \in \mathcal{T}_{n,k}^{\ell}$, we have

$$\|\Delta\|_{1} \leq \sum_{\ell=k}^{mk} \sqrt{\sum_{S \in \mathcal{S}_{n,k}^{\ell}} \|\widehat{\rho}(S)\|_{1}^{2}} \cdot \sqrt{\sum_{T \in \mathcal{T}_{n,k}^{\ell}} \mathbb{E}_{M}\left[\|\widehat{\sigma_{M}}(T)\|_{1}^{2}\right]} \cdot O_{\ell}\left(\frac{\ell^{\ell/2}}{(nk)^{\ell/2}}\right).$$
(5)

We now apply the Matrix level-k inequality in Corollary 10 to the functions $\rho : \{-1, 1\}^n \to S(\mathcal{H})$ and $\sigma_M : \{-1, 1\}^m \to S(\mathcal{H})$ where \mathcal{H} is a Hilbert space of dimension 2^c . Corollary 10 implies that

$$\sum_{|S|=2\ell} \|\widehat{\rho}(S)\|_1^2 \le O_\ell\left((c/\ell)^{2\ell}\right) + O_\ell(1) \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{|T|=\ell} \|\widehat{\sigma_M}(T)\|_1^2 \le O_\ell\left((c/\ell)^\ell\right) + O_\ell(1).$$

Substituting this in Eq. (5), we get

$$\begin{split} \|\Delta\|_{1} &\leq \sum_{\ell=k}^{mk} \sqrt{\sum_{S:|S|=2\ell} \|\widehat{\rho}(S)\|_{1}^{2}} \cdot \sqrt{\sum_{T:|T|=\ell} \mathbb{E}_{M} \left[\|\widehat{\sigma_{M}}(T)\|_{1}^{2} \right]} \cdot O_{\ell} \left(\frac{\ell^{\ell/2}}{(nk)^{\ell/2}} \right) \\ &\leq \sum_{\ell=k}^{mk} \max \left(O_{\ell} \left(\frac{c^{3\ell/2}}{\ell^{3\ell/2}} \right), O_{\ell}(1) \right) \cdot O_{\ell} \left(\frac{\ell^{\ell/2}}{(nk)^{\ell/2}} \right) \\ &\leq \sum_{\ell=k}^{mk} O_{\ell} \left(\frac{c^{3\ell/2}}{\ell^{\ell}(nk)^{\ell/2}} \right) + \sum_{\ell=k}^{mk} O_{\ell} \left(\frac{\ell^{\ell/2}}{(nk)^{\ell/2}} \right). \end{split}$$

Since $\ell \leq mk = \alpha \cdot nk$ for a sufficiently small constant $\alpha > 0$, the function $\ell^{\ell/2}/(nk)^{\ell/2}$ is exponentially decaying for $\ell \in [k, mk]$ and hence the second term is at most $O_k(n^{-k/2})$. Our assumption that $(c/k)^{3/2} \leq \tau \cdot n^{1/2}$ for a sufficiently small constant $\tau > 0$ implies that the function $c^{3\ell/2}/(\ell^{\ell}(nk)^{\ell/2})$ is exponentially decaying for $\ell \in [k, mk]$ and hence, the first term above is at most $O_k\left(\frac{(c/k)^{3k/2}}{n^{k/2}}\right)$. Together, we have

$$\|\Delta\|_1 \le O_k\left(\frac{(c/k)^{3k/2}}{n^{k/2}}\right) + O_k(n^{-k/2}).$$

This completes the proof of Lemma 3.

◀

4 XOR Lemma for R1 for the Boolean Hidden Matching Problem

In this subsection, we prove Lemma 4 which we restate here for convenience.

▶ **Lemma 4.** Let C be any R1 protocol of cost c. Then its advantage in computing the \oplus^k -Boolean Hidden Matching problem is at most $O_k \left(\frac{(c/k)^2}{n}\right)^{k/2} + O_k(n^{-k/2}).$

Proof of Lemma 4. The proof of this lemma will be similar to the proof of Lemma 3 and hence we will follow similar notation. Let $z \in \{-1,1\}^c$ be any *c*-bit message sent by Alice and let $A_z \subseteq \{-1,1\}^{nk}$ be the set of Alice's inputs for which Alice would have sent *z* to Bob. Let $g(x) = \mathbb{1}[x \in A_z]$. Fix any $M \in \text{supp}(\mathcal{M}^{\otimes k})$. Similar to Lemma 3, let $\mathcal{N}^M(y)$ be the distribution on $y \in \{-1,1\}^{mk}$ induced by sampling $x \sim A_z$ and letting y = Mx. Let $\mathcal{Y}^M(y)$ be similarly defined with $y := \overline{Mx}$. So we have that $\mathcal{N}^M(y) = \frac{|\{x \in A_z | \overline{Mx} = y\}|}{|A_z|}$ and $\mathcal{Y}^M(y) = \frac{|\{x \in A_z | \overline{Mx} = y\}|}{|A_z|}$ for all $y \in \{-1,1\}^{mk}$. Define

$$\mu_1^{(k)} := \frac{1}{2^{k-1}} \sum_{\substack{K \subseteq [k] \\ |K| \text{ is even}}} \mathcal{Y}_K^M \mathcal{N}_{\overline{K}}^M \quad \text{and} \quad \mu_{-1}^{(k)} := \frac{1}{2^{k-1}} \sum_{\substack{K \subseteq [k] \\ |K| \text{ is odd}}} \mathcal{Y}_K \mathcal{N}_{\overline{K}}^M.$$
(6)

Below we show that for a typical $M \sim \mathcal{M}^{\otimes k}$, these two distributions are close in total variational distance. By arguments similar to [14], this would complete the proof. To this end, let

$$\Delta_{A_z} := \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{M \sim \mathcal{M}^{\otimes k}} \left[\left\| \mu_1^{(k)} - \mu_{-1}^{(k)} \right\|_1 \right].$$

By Eq. (6), we have $\mu_1^{(k)} - \mu_{-1}^{(k)} = 2^{1-k} \cdot \sum_{K \subseteq [k]} (-1)^{|K|} \mathcal{Y}_K^M \mathcal{N}_{\overline{K}}^M$. Hence

$$\Delta_{A_z}^2 \le 2^{mk} \cdot \mathbb{E}_M \left[\left\| \mu_1^{(k)} - \mu_{-1}^{(k)} \right\|_2^2 \right] = 2^{mk} \cdot \mathbb{E}_M \left[2^{-2k+2} \cdot \left\| \sum_{K \subseteq [k]} \mathcal{Y}_K^M \mathcal{N}_{\overline{K}}^M (-1)^{|K|} \right\|_2^2 \right],$$

where the first inequality is by the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality. By Parseval's theorem, we have

$$\Delta_{A_z}^2 \le 2^{2mk-2k+2} \cdot \mathbb{E}_M \left[\sum_{\substack{T \subseteq [mk] \\ T \neq \emptyset}} \left(\sum_{K \subseteq [k]} \widehat{\mathcal{Y}_K^M \mathcal{N}_K^M}(T)(-1)^{|K|} \right)^2 \right].$$
(7)

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Observe that

$$\begin{split} \widehat{\mathcal{Y}_{K}^{M}} & \widehat{\mathcal{N}_{K}^{M}}(T) \\ &= \frac{1}{2^{mk}} \sum_{y \in \{-1,1\}^{mk}} \left(\mathcal{Y}_{K}^{M} \mathcal{N}_{\overline{K}}^{M} \right)(y) \cdot \chi_{T}(y) \\ &= \frac{1}{2^{mk} \cdot |A_{z}|} \left(\left| \left\{ x \in A_{z} | \chi_{T} \left((Mx)_{\overline{K}} (\overline{Mx})_{K} \right) = 1 \right\} \right| \right. \\ &- \left| \left\{ x \in A_{z} | \chi_{T} \left((Mx)_{\overline{K}} (\overline{Mx})_{K} \right) = -1 \right\} \right| \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2^{mk} \cdot |A_{z}|} \left(\left| \left\{ x \in A_{z} | \chi_{T} (Mx) = (-1)^{\sum_{i \in K} |T_{i}|} \right\} \right| \right. \\ &- \left| \left\{ x \in A_{z} | \chi_{T} (Mx) \neq (-1)^{\sum_{i \in K} |T_{i}|} \right\} \right| \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2^{mk}} \sum_{y \in \{-1,1\}^{mk}} \mathcal{N}^{\otimes k}(y) \cdot \chi_{T}(y) \cdot (-1)^{\sum_{i \in K} |T_{i}|} \\ &= \widehat{\mathcal{N}^{\otimes k}}(T) \cdot (-1)^{\sum_{i \in K} |T_{i}|}. \end{split}$$

By an argument analogous to [14, Eq. (3)], we have $\widehat{\mathcal{N}^{\otimes k}}(T) = \frac{2^{nk}}{|A_z| \cdot 2^{mk}} \cdot \widehat{g}(M^{\dagger}T)$. Hence

$$\sum_{K \subseteq [k]} \widehat{\mathcal{Y}_K^M \mathcal{N}_K^M}(T) \cdot (-1)^{|K|} = \frac{2^{nk}}{2^{mk} \cdot |A_z|} \cdot \widehat{g}(M^{\dagger}T) \cdot \sum_{K \subseteq [k]} (-1)^{|K| + \sum_{i \in K} |T_i|}.$$
(8)

As we saw in Eq. (3), the term $\sum_{K \subseteq [k]} (-1)^{|K| + \sum_{i \in K} |T_i|}$ is 2^k if $|T_i|$ is odd for all $i \in [k]$ and zero otherwise. Hence, the R.H.S. of Eq. (8) is non-zero only if $T \in \mathcal{T}_{n,k}$ (defined in Definition 12), and in this case equals $\frac{2^{nk}}{2^{mk} \cdot |A_z|} \cdot \widehat{g}(M^{\dagger}T) \cdot 2^k$. Substituting this in Eq. (7), we have that $\Delta^2_{A_z}$ equals

$$2^{2mk-2k+2} \cdot \mathbb{E}_M\left[\sum_{T \in \mathcal{T}_{n,k}} \frac{2^{2nk+2k}}{2^{2mk} \cdot |A_z|^2} \widehat{g}(M^{\dagger}T)^2\right] = 4 \cdot \mathbb{E}_M\left[\sum_{T \in \mathcal{T}_{n,k}} \frac{2^{2n}}{|A_z|^2} \widehat{g}(M^{\dagger}T)^2\right].$$

Recall the correspondence between $\mathcal{T}_{n,k}$ and $\mathcal{S}_{n,k}$ as in Definition 12. For every $S \in \mathcal{S}_{n,k}$, there is at most one $T \in \mathcal{T}_{n,k}$ such that $M^{\dagger}T = S$, furthermore, such a T exists if and only if M matches S. Hence we have that

$$\begin{split} \Delta_{A_z}^2 &\leq 4 \cdot \mathbb{E}_M \left[\sum_{S \in \mathcal{S}_{n,k}} \frac{2^{2n}}{|A_z|^2} \widehat{g}(S)^2 \cdot \mathbb{1}[M \text{ matches } S] \right] \\ &= 4 \cdot \sum_{\ell=k}^{mk} \sum_{S \in \mathcal{S}_{n,k}^\ell} \frac{2^{2n}}{|A_z|^2} \widehat{g}(S)^2 \cdot \Pr_M[M \text{ matches } S] \\ &\leq \sum_{\ell=k}^{mk} \left(\sum_{|S|=2\ell} \frac{2^{2n}}{|A_z|^2} \widehat{g}(S)^2 \right) \cdot O_\ell \left(\frac{\ell^\ell}{(nk)^\ell} \right), \end{split}$$

where we used Fact 14. Let $\mu(A_z) = \frac{|A_z|}{2^n}$. Applying Lemma 8, we have

$$\Delta_{A_z}^2 \le \sum_{\ell=k}^{mk} \left(2e \cdot \ln\left(\frac{e}{\mu(A_z)^{1/(2\ell)}}\right) \right)^{2\ell} \cdot O_\ell\left(\frac{\ell^\ell}{(nk)^\ell}\right).$$

We now take square root on both sides (and use concavity of the square root function) to get

$$\Delta_{A_z} \le \sum_{\ell=k}^{mk} \left(2e \cdot \ln\left(\frac{e}{\mu(A_z)^{1/(2\ell)}}\right) \right)^{\ell} \cdot O_\ell\left(\frac{\ell^{\ell/2}}{(nk)^{\ell/2}}\right).$$

We now multiply both sides by $\mu(A_z)$ and add over all 2^c possibilities for the transcript $z \in \{-1, 1\}^c$.

$$\Delta := \sum_{z \in \{-1,1\}^c} \Delta_{A_z} \le \sum_{z \in \{-1,1\}^c} \mu(A_z) \cdot \sum_{\ell=k}^{mk} \left(2e \cdot \ln\left(\frac{e}{\mu(A_z)^{1/(2\ell)}}\right) \right)^{\ell} \cdot O_\ell\left(\frac{\ell^{\ell/2}}{(nk)^{\ell/2}}\right).$$

We now use the concavity of the function $h'(\gamma) = \gamma \cdot \ln(e/\gamma^{1/2\ell})^{\ell}$ for $\gamma \in [0, 1]$ and all $\ell \in \mathbb{N}$, to conclude that

$$\Delta \le \sum_{\ell=k}^{mk} \left(\sum_{z \in \{-1,1\}^c} \mu(A_z) \right) \cdot \left(2e \cdot \ln\left(\frac{e \cdot 2^{c/(2\ell)}}{\left(\sum_{z \in \{-1,1\}^c} \mu(A_z) \right)^{1/(2\ell)}} \right) \right)^{\ell} \cdot O_\ell\left(\frac{\ell^{\ell/2}}{(nk)^{\ell/2}} \right)$$

We use the fact that $\sum_{z \in \{-1,1\}^c} \mu(A_z) = 1$ to conclude that

$$\begin{split} \Delta &\leq \sum_{\ell=k}^{mk} \left(2e \cdot \ln\left(e \cdot 2^{c/(2\ell)}\right) \right)^{\ell} \cdot O_{\ell}\left(\frac{\ell^{\ell/2}}{(nk)^{\ell/2}}\right) \\ &\leq \sum_{\ell=k}^{mk} O_{\ell}\left(\frac{\ell^{\ell/2}}{(nk)^{\ell/2}}\right) + \sum_{\ell=k}^{mk} O_{\ell}\left(\frac{c^{\ell}}{(\ell nk)^{\ell/2}}\right). \end{split}$$

As before, the first term is at most $O(n^{-k/2})$. The assumption that $c \cdot k \leq \tau \cdot n^{1/2}$ for a small enough constant $\tau > 0$ implies that the function $\frac{c^{\ell}}{(\ell n k)^{\ell/2}}$ is exponentially decaying for $\ell \in [k, mk]$. Hence, the second term is at most $O_{\ell}\left(\frac{(c/k)^k}{n^{k/2}}\right)$. This, along with the techniques of [14] completes the proof of Lemma 4.

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