LOWER BOUNDS FOR QUANTUM COMMUNICATION COMPLEXITY*

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Abstract. We prove lower bounds on the bounded error quantum communication complexity. Our methods are based on the Fourier transform of the considered functions. First we generalize a method for proving classical communication complexity lower bounds developed by Raz [35] to the quantum case. Applying this method we give an exponential separation between bounded error quantum communication complexity and nondeterministic quantum communication complexity. We develop several other lower bound methods based on the Fourier transform, notably showing that $\sqrt{\overline{s}(f)/\log n}$, for the average sensitivity $\overline{s}(f)$ of a function f, yields a lower bound on the bounded error quantum communication complexity of $f((x \wedge y) \oplus z)$, where x is a Boolean word held by Alice and y, z are Boolean words held by Bob. We then prove the first large lower bounds on the bounded error quantum communication complexity of functions, for which a polynomial quantum speedup is possible. For all the functions we investigate, the only previously applied general lower bound method based on discrepancy yields bounds that are $O(\log n)$.

Key words. communication complexity, quantum computing, lower bounds, computational complexity

AMS subject classifications. 68Q17, 68Q10, 81P68, 03D15

1. Introduction. Quantum mechanical computing and communication has been studied extensively during the last decade. Communication has to be a physical process, so an investigation of the properties of physically allowed communication is desirable, and the fundamental theory of physics available to us is quantum mechanics.

The theory of communication complexity deals with the question how efficiently communication problems can be solved, and has various applications to lower bound proofs for other resources (an introduction to (classical) communication complexity can be found in Kushilevitz and Nisan's excellent monograph [29]).

In a quantum protocol (as defined by Yao [41]) two players Alice and Bob each receive an input, and have to compute some function defined on the pair of inputs cooperatively. To this end they exchange messages consisting of qubits, until the result can be produced from some measurement done by one of the players (for surveys about quantum communication complexity see [39, 10, 25]).

It is known that quantum communication protocols can sometimes be substantially more efficient than classical probabilistic protocols: The most prominent example of such a function is the disjointness problem $DISJ_n$, in which the players receive incidence vectors x, y of subsets of $\{1, \ldots, n\}$, and have to decide whether the sets are disjoint: $\neg \bigvee (x_i \land y_i)$. By an application of Grover's search algorithm [19] to communication complexity given by Buhrman et al. [11] an upper bound of $O(\sqrt{n} \log n)$ holds for the bounded error quantum communication complexity of $DISJ_n$. This upper bound has been improved to $O(\sqrt{n}c^{\log^* n})$ for a constant c by Høyer and de Wolf [22] and finally to $O(\sqrt{n})$ by Aaronson and Ambainis [1]. The classical bounded error communication complexity of $DISJ_n$ on the other hand is $\Omega(n)$ by a bound due to Kalyanasundaram and Schnitger [24]. The quantum protocol for $DISJ_n$ yields the

^{*}The results in this paper have previously appeared in its conference version [26] at FOCS'01.

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largest gap between quantum and classical communication complexity known so far for a total function. For partial functions and so-called sampling problems even exponential gaps between quantum and classical communication complexity are known, see [36, 11, 3].

Unfortunately only few lower bound methods for quantum communication complexity are known: the logarithm of the rank of the communication matrix is known as a lower bound for exact (i.e., errorless) quantum communication [11, 12], the (in applications often weak) discrepancy method can be used to give lower bounds for protocols with error as shown by Kremer [28]. Buhrman and de Wolf [12] observed that lower bounds on the minimum rank of matrices approximating the communication matrix give bounded error quantum lower bounds, but were not able to apply this method to any explicit function¹. In this paper we introduce several lower bound methods for bounded error quantum communication complexity exploiting algebraic properties of the communication matrix.

Let IP_n denote the inner product modulo 2 function, i.e.,

$$IP_n(x,y) = \bigoplus_{i=1}^n (x_i \wedge y_i).$$

Known results about the discrepancy of the inner product function under the uniform distribution then imply that quantum protocols for IP_n with error $1/2-\epsilon$ have complexity $\Omega(n/2 - \log(1/\epsilon))$, see [28] (actually only a linear lower bound assuming constant error is proved there, but minor modifications give the stated result). The inner product function appears to be the only explicit function, for which a large lower bound on the bounded error quantum communication complexity has been published prior to the present paper.

We prove new lower bounds on the bounded error quantum communication complexity of several functions. These bounds are exponentially bigger than the bounds obtainable by the discrepancy method. Note that we do not consider the model of quantum communication with prior entanglement here (as defined by Cleve and Buhrman [13]).

Our results are as follows. First we generalize a lower bound method developed by Raz [35] for classical bounded error protocols to the quantum case. The lower bound is given in terms of the sum of absolute values of selected Fourier coefficients of the function. To be able to generalize this method we have to decompose the quantum protocol into a "small" set of weighted monochromatic rectangles, so that the sum of these approximates the communication matrix. Opposed to the classical case the weights may be negative, but all weights have absolute value at most 1.

Applying the method we get a lower bound of $\Omega(n/\log n)$ for the bounded error quantum communication complexity of the Boolean function $HAM_n^{n/2}$, where

$$HAM_n^t(x,y) = 1 \iff dist(x,y) \neq t \iff \sum_i (x_i \oplus y_i) \neq t,$$

for binary strings x, y of length n and the Hamming distance *dist*. We then show, using methods of de Wolf [40], that the nondeterministic (i.e., one-sided unbounded

¹A recent result by Razborov [37] (published subsequently to the conference version of the present paper) implies such lower bounds for a limited class of functions, and gives a tight characterization of the bounded error quantum communication complexity of functions $f(x, y) = g(x \land y)$, also settling the complexity of the Disjointness problem to $\Theta(\sqrt{n})$.

error) quantum communication complexity of $HAM_n^{n/2}$ is $O(\log n)$. So we get an exponential gap between the nondeterministic quantum and bounded error quantum complexities. Since it is also known that the equality function EQ_n has (classical) bounded error protocols with $O(\log n)$ communication [29], while its nondeterministic quantum communication complexity is $\Theta(n)$ [40], we get the following separation.

Let BQP denote the bounded error quantum communication complexity, NQP the nondeterministic quantum communication complexity (see section 2.2 for definitions).

COROLLARY 1.1. There are total Boolean functions $HAM_n^{n/2}$, EQ_n on 2n inputs each, such that

- 1. $NQC(HAM_n^{n/2}) = O(\log n)$ and $BQC(HAM_n^{n/2}) = \Omega(n/\log n)$,
- 2. $BQC(EQ_n) = O(\log n)$ and $NQC(EQ_n) = \Omega(n)$.

Furthermore we give quite tight lower and upper bounds for HAM_n^t for general values of t, establishing that bounded error quantum communication does not give a significant speedup compared to classical bounded error communication for these problems. These bounds also hold for testing whether the Hamming distance is at most t instead of equal to t.

COROLLARY 1.2. Let $t : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$ be any monotone increasing function with $t(n) \leq n/2$. Then

1.
$$BQC(HAM_n^{t(n)}) \ge \Omega\left(\frac{t(n)}{\log t(n)} + \log n\right).$$

2. $BPC(HAM_n^{t(n)}) = O(t(n)\log n).$

We then turn to several other techniques for proving lower bounds, which are also based on the Fourier transform. We concentrate on functions $f(x, y) = g(x \diamond y)$, for $\diamond \in \{\land, \oplus\}$, the bitwise conjunction and parity operators. We prove that for $\diamond = \land$, if we choose any Fourier coefficient \hat{g}_z of g, then $|z|/(1 - \log |\hat{g}_z|)$ yields a lower bound on the bounded error quantum communication complexity of f. Averaging over all coefficients leads to a bound given by the average sensitivity of g divided by the entropy of the squared Fourier coefficients. We then show another bound for $\diamond = \oplus$ in terms of the entropy of the Fourier coefficients and obtain a result solely in terms of the average sensitivity by combining both results.

COROLLARY 1.3. For all functions f, so that both $g(x \wedge y)$ and $g(x \oplus y)$ with $g: \{0,1\}^n \to \{0,1\}$ reduce to f:

$$BQC(f) = \Omega\left(\sqrt{\frac{\bar{s}(g)}{\log n}}\right)$$

If e.g. $f(x, y, z) = g((x \land y) \oplus z)$, with x held by Alice and y, z held by Bob, the required reductions are trivial. For many functions, e.g. for g being the majority function, it is easy to reduce $g(x \oplus y)$ on $2 \cdot n$ inputs directly to $g(x \land y)$ on slightly more inputs using $x_i \oplus y_i = \neg x_i \land y_i + x_i \land \neg y_i$ (plus the addition of a few dummy variables), and so the lower bound of Corollary 1.3 can sometimes be used for $g(x \land y)$. Note that unlike in Razborov's recent bounds in [37] the function g does not need to be symmetric.

We then modify the lower bound methods, and show how we may replace the Fourier coefficients by the singular values of the communication matrix (divided by 2^n). This means that we may replace the Fourier transform by other unitary transforms and sometimes get much stronger lower bounds.

Application of the new methods to the Boolean function

$$MAJ_n(x,y) = 1 \iff \sum_i (x_i \wedge y_i) \ge n/2$$

yields a lower bound of $\Omega(n/\log n)$ for its bounded error quantum communication complexity. MAJ_n is a function for which neither bounded error quantum nor nondeterministic quantum protocols are efficient, while the discrepancy bound is still only $O(\log n).$

We apply the same approach to

$$COUNT_n^t(x,y) = 1 \iff \sum_i (x_i \wedge y_i) = t.$$

These functions have a classical complexity of $\Theta(n)$ for all $t \leq n/2$, since one can easily reduce the disjointness problem to these functions $(DISJ_n \text{ is } COUNT_n^0)$. We show the following:

Corollary 1.4.

- 1. $\Omega(n^{1-\epsilon}/\log n) \leq BQC(COUNT_n^{n^{1-\epsilon}}) \leq O(n^{1-\epsilon/2}\log n).$ 2. $BPC(COUNT_n^t) = \Theta(n)$ for all $t \leq n/2.$

These are the first lower bounds for functions which allow a polynomial quantum speedup.

Prior to this paper the only known general method for proving lower bounds for the bounded error quantum communication complexity has been the discrepancy method. We show that for any application of the discrepancy bound to HAM_n^t, MAJ_n and $COUNT_n^t$, the result is only $O(\log n)$. To do so we characterize the discrepancy bound within a constant multiplicative factor and an additive log-factor as the classical weakly unbounded error communication complexity UPC (see sections 2.2/2.4 for definitions).

COROLLARY 1.5. For all $f : \{0,1\}^n \times \{0,1\}^n \to \{0,1\}$:

$$\max_{\mu} \log(1/disc_{\mu}(f)) \le O(UPC(f)) \le O(\max_{\mu} \log(1/disc_{\mu}(f)) + \log n),$$

where μ denotes distributions on $\{0,1\}^n \times \{0,1\}^n$.

This explains why the discrepancy bound is usually not a good lower bound for bounded error communication complexity, since the weakly unbounded error complexity is always asymptotically at most as large as e.g. the classical nondeterministic complexity. For our examples the new lower bound methods are exponentially better than the discrepancy bound. In the light of Corollary 1.5 it becomes clear that lower bounds using discrepancy implicitly follow the approach of simulating quantum bounded error protocols by classical unbounded error protocols and subsequent application of a classical lower bound method.

We conclude also that the discrepancy bound subsumes other methods for proving lower bounds on the weakly unbounded error communication complexity [16]. Furthermore we investigate quantum protocols with weakly unbounded error and show that quantum and classical weakly unbounded error communication complexity are asymptotically equivalent.

The organization of the paper is as follows. In section 2 we describe the necessary technical background. Section 3 shows how we can decompose quantum protocols into weighted rectangle covers of the communication matrix. Sections 4 and 6 then describe our main lower bound techniques, while sections 5 and 7 show how to apply these to specific functions and derive Corollaries 1.1, 1.2, and 1.4. Section 8 is concerned with the power of classical and quantum weakly unbounded error protocols. Section 9 discusses recent developments and open problems.

2. Preliminaries. Note that we consider functions with range $\{0, 1\}$ as well as with range $\{-1, 1\}$. If a result is stated for functions with range $\{0, 1\}$ then it also holds for $\{-1, 1\}$. Some results are stated only for functions with range $\{-1, 1\}$. The communication complexity does not depend on that choice, so this means that certain parameters in the lower bounds are dependent on the range.

2.1. Quantum States and Transformations. Quantum mechanics is usually formulated in terms of states and transformations of states. See [32] for general information on this topic with an orientation on quantum computing.

In quantum mechanics pure states are unit vectors in a Hilbert space, usually \mathbb{C}^k . We use the Dirac notation for pure states. So a pure state is denoted $|\phi\rangle$ or $\sum_{x\in\{0,\ldots,k-1\}} \alpha_x |x\rangle$ with $\sum_{x\in\{0,\ldots,k-1\}} |\alpha_x|^2 = 1$ and with $\{|x\rangle | x \in \{0,\ldots,k-1\}\}$ being an orthonormal basis of \mathbb{C}^k .

Inner products in the Hilbert space are denoted $\langle \phi | \psi \rangle$.

If $k = 2^l$ then the basis is also denoted $\{ |x\rangle | x \in \{0,1\}^l \}$. In this case the space \mathbb{C}^{2^l} is the *l*-wise tensor product of the space \mathbb{C}^2 . The latter space is called a qubit, the former space consists of *l* qubits.

As usual measurements of observables and unitary transformations are considered as basic operations on states, see [32] for definitions.

2.2. The Communication Model. Now we provide definitions of the computational models considered in the paper. We begin with the model of classical communication complexity.

DEFINITION 2.1. Let $f : X \times Y \to \{0,1\}$ be a function. In as classical communication protocol player Alice and Bob receive $x \in X$ and $y \in Y$ and compute f(x, y). The players exchange binary encoded messages.

In a deterministic protocol all computations of Alice and Bob are deterministic. The communication complexity of a protocol is the worst case number of bits exchanged for any input. The deterministic communication complexity DC(f) of f is the complexity of an optimal protocol for f.

In a randomized protocol both players have access to private random bits. In the bounded error model the output is required to be correct with probability $1 - \epsilon$ for some constant $1/2 > \epsilon \ge 0$. The bounded error randomized communication complexity of a function $BPC_{\epsilon}(f)$ is then defined analogously to the deterministic communication complexity, where worst case communication refers to both inputs and random bits. We set $BPC(f) = BPC_{1/3}(f)$.

In a weakly unbounded error protocol the output has to be correct with probability exceeding 1/2. If the worst case error of the protocol (over inputs and coin tosses) is $1/2 - \delta$ and the worst case communication is c, then the cost of the protocol is defined as $c - \lfloor \log \delta \rfloor$. The cost of an optimal weakly unbounded error protocol for a function is called UPC(f).

DEFINITION 2.2. The communication matrix of a function $f : X \times Y \to Z$ is a matrix with rows labeled by $x \in X$, columns labeled by $y \in Y$, and the entry in row x and column y is $f(x, y) \in Z$. A rectangle in the communication matrix is a product set of inputs labeled by $A \times B$ with $A \subseteq X$ and $B \subseteq Y$. Such a rectangle is monochromatic, iff all of its entries are equal.

It is easy to see that a deterministic protocol partitions the communication matrix into a set of monochromatic rectangles, each corresponding to the set of inputs sharing the same communication string produced in the run of the protocol.

The above notion of weakly unbounded error protocols coincides with another type of protocol, namely majority nondeterministic protocols, which accept an input, whenever there are more nondeterministic computations leading to acceptance than to rejection. For a proof see theorem 10 in [20]. So weakly unbounded error protocols correspond to certain majority covers for the communication matrix as follows:

FACT 2.3. There is a weakly unbounded error protocol with cost O(c), iff there is a set of $2^{O(c)}$ rectangles each labeled either 1 or 0, such that for every input at least one half of the adjacent rectangles have the label f(x, y).

Note that there is another type of protocols, truly unbounded error protocols, in which the cost is not dependent on the error, defined by Paturi and Simon [34]. Recently a linear lower bound for the unbounded error communication complexity of IP_n has been obtained in [17]. It is not hard to see that the same bound holds for quantum communication as well. An interesting observation is that the lower bound method of [17] is actually equivalent to the discrepancy lower bound restricted to the uniform distribution.

Now we turn to quantum communication protocols. For a more formal definition of quantum protocols see [41].

DEFINITION 2.4. In a quantum protocol both players have a private set of qubits. Some of the qubits are initialized to the input before the start of the protocol, the other qubits are in state $|0\rangle$. In a communication round one of the players performs some unitary transformation on the qubits in his/her possession and then sends some of these qubits to the other player (the latter step does not change the global state but rather the possession of individual qubits). The choices of the unitary operations and of the qubits to be sent are fixed in advance by the protocol.

At the end of the protocol the state of some qubit belonging to one player is measured and the result is taken as the output and communicated to the other player. The communication complexity of the protocol is the number of qubits exchanged.

In a (bounded error) quantum protocol the correct answer must be given with probability $1 - \epsilon$ for some $1/2 > \epsilon \ge 0$. The (bounded error) quantum complexity of a function, called $BQC_{\epsilon}(f)$, is the complexity of an optimal protocol with error ϵ for f. $BQC(f) = BQC_{1/3}(f)$.

In a weakly unbounded error quantum protocol the output has to be correct with probability exceeding 1/2. If the worst case error of the protocol (over all inputs) is $1/2 - \delta$ and the communication is c, then the cost of the protocol is defined as $c - \lfloor \log \delta \rfloor$. The cost of an optimal weakly unbounded error protocol for a function is called UQC(f).

In a nondeterministic quantum protocol for a Boolean function f all inputs in $f^{-1}(0)$ have to be rejected with certainty, while all other inputs have to be accepted with positive probability. The corresponding complexity is denoted NQC(f).

We have to note that in the defined model no intermediate measurements are allowed to control the choice of qubits to be sent or the time of the final measurement. Thus for all inputs the same amount of communication and the same number of message exchanges are used. As a generalization one could allow intermediate measurements, whose results could be used to choose (several) qubits to be sent and possibly when to stop the communication protocol. One would have to make sure that the receiving player knows when a message ends. While the model in our definition is in the spirit of the "interacting quantum circuits" definition given by Yao [41], the latter definition would more closely resemble "interacting quantum Turing machines". Obviously the latter model can be simulated by the former such that in each communication round exactly one qubit is communicated. All measurements can then be deferred to the end by standard techniques. This increases the overall communication by a factor of 2 (and the number of message exchanges by a lot).

2.3. Fourier Analysis. We consider functions $f : \{0, 1\}^n \to \mathbb{R}$. Define

$$\langle f,g\rangle = \frac{1}{2^n} \sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^n} f(x) \cdot g(x)$$

as inner product and use the norm $||f||_2 = \sqrt{\langle f, f \rangle}$. We identify $\{0, 1\}^n$ with \mathbb{Z}_2^n and describe the Fourier transform. A basis for the space of functions from $\mathbb{Z}_2^n \to \mathbb{R}$ is given by

$$\chi_z(x) = (-1)^{IP_n(x,z)}$$

for all $z \in \mathbb{Z}_2^n$. Then the Fourier transform of f with respect to that basis is

$$\sum_{z} \hat{f}_{z} \chi_{z},$$

where the $\hat{f}_z = \langle f, \chi_z \rangle$ are called the Fourier coefficients of f. If the functions are viewed as vectors, this is closely related to the Hadamard transform widely used in quantum computing.

The following facts are well-known.

FACT 2.5 (Parseval). For all $f: ||f||_2^2 = \sum_z \hat{f}_z^2$. FACT 2.6 (Cauchy-Schwartz).

$$\sum_{z} \hat{f}_{z}^{2} \cdot \sum_{z} \hat{g}_{z}^{2} \ge \left(\sum_{z} |\hat{f}_{z} \cdot \hat{g}_{z}|\right)^{2}.$$

When we consider (communication) functions $f : \mathbb{Z}_2^n \times \mathbb{Z}_2^n \to \mathbb{R}$, we use the basis functions

$$\chi_{z,z'}(x,x') = (-1)^{IP_n(x,z) + IP_n(x',z')}$$

for all $z, z' \in \mathbb{Z}_2^n \times \mathbb{Z}_2^n$ in Fourier transforms. The Fourier transform of f with respect to that basis is

$$\sum_{z,z'} \hat{f}_{z,z'} \chi_{z,z'},$$

where the $\hat{f}_{z,z'} = \langle f, \chi_{z,z'} \rangle$ are the Fourier coefficients of f.

We will decompose communication protocols into sets of weighted rectangles. For each rectangle $R_i = A_i \times B_i \subseteq \{0,1\}^n \times \{0,1\}^n$ let R_i, A_i, B_i also denote the characteristic functions associated to the rectangle. Then let $\alpha_i = |A_i|/2^n$ be the uniform probability of x being in the rectangle, and $\beta_i = |B_i|/2^n$ be the uniform probability of y being in the rectangle. Let $\hat{\alpha}_{z,i}$ denote the Fourier coefficients of A_i and $\hat{\beta}_{z,i}$ the Fourier coefficients of B_i . It is easy to see that $\hat{\alpha}_{z,i} \cdot \hat{\beta}_{z',i}$ is the z, z'-Fourier coefficient of the rectangle function R_i .

For technical reasons we will sometimes work with functions f, whose range is $\{-1,1\}$. Note that we can set f = 2g - 1 for a function g with range $\{0,1\}$. Since the Fourier transform is linear, the effect on the Fourier coefficients is that they get multiplied by 2 except for the coefficient of the constant basis function, which is also decreased by 1.

2.4. Discrepancy, Sensitivity, and Entropy. We now define the discrepancy bound.

DEFINITION 2.7. Let μ be any distribution on $\{0,1\}^n \times \{0,1\}^n$ and f be any function $f: \{0,1\}^n \times \{0,1\}^n \to \{0,1\}$. Then let

$$disc_{\mu}(f) = \max_{R} |\mu(R \cap f^{-1}(0)) - \mu(R \cap f^{-1}(1))|,$$

where R runs over all rectangles in the communication matrix of f.

Then denote $disc(f) = \min_{\mu} disc_{\mu}(f)$.

The application to communication complexity is as follows (see [28] for a less general statement, for completeness we also provide a proof at the end of section 3): EXAMPLE 2.8 For all f:

FACT 2.8. For all f:

$$BQC_{1/2-\epsilon}(f) = \Omega(\log(\epsilon/disc(f))).$$

A quantum protocol which computes a function f correctly with probability $1/2 + \epsilon$ over a distribution μ on the inputs (and over its measurements) needs at least $\Omega(\log(\epsilon/disc_{\mu}(f)))$ communication.

We will prove a lower bound on quantum communication complexity in terms of average sensitivity. The average sensitivity of a function measures how many of the n possible bit flips in a random input change the function value. We define this formally for functions with range $\{-1, 1\}$.

DEFINITION 2.9. Let $f : \{0,1\}^n \to \{-1,1\}$ be a function. For $a \in \{0,1\}^n$ let $s_a(f) = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{2} |f(a) - f(a \oplus e_i)|$ for the vector e_i containing a one at position i and zeroes elsewhere. $s_a(f)$ is the sensitivity of f at a. Then the average sensitivity of f is defined $\bar{s}(f) = \sum_{a \in \{0,1\}^n} \frac{1}{2^n} s_a(f)$.

The connection to Fourier analysis is made by the following fact first observed in [23].

FACT 2.10. For all $f : \{0,1\}^n \to \{-1,1\}$:

$$\bar{s}(f) = \sum_{z \in \{0,1\}^n} |z| \cdot \hat{f}_z^2.$$

So the average sensitivity can be expressed in terms of the expected "height"/" sequency" of Fourier coefficients under the distribution induced by the squared co-efficients.

One more notion we will use in lower bounds is entropy.

DEFINITION 2.11. The entropy of a vector (f_1, \ldots, f_m) with $f_i \ge 0$ for all i and $\sum f_i \le 1$ is $H(f) = -\sum_{i=1}^m f_i \log f_i$.

We follow the convention $0 \log 0 = 0$. We will consider the entropy of the vector of squared Fourier coefficients $H(\hat{f}^2) = -\sum_z \hat{f}_z^2 \log(\hat{f}_z^2)$. This quantity has the following useful property.

LEMMA 2.12. For any $f : \{0, 1\}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ with $||f||_2 \leq 1$:

$$H(\hat{f}^2) \le 2\log\left(1 + \sum_{z \in \{0,1\}^n} |\hat{f}_z|\right).$$

Proof.

$$\begin{split} H(\hat{f}^2) &= \sum_z \hat{f}_z^2 \log \frac{1}{|\hat{f}_z|^2} \\ &= 2 \left(\sum_z \hat{f}_z^2 \log \frac{1}{|\hat{f}_z|} + (1 - \sum_z \hat{f}_z^2) \cdot \log 1 \right) \\ &\leq 2 \log \left(\sum_z \hat{f}_z^2 \frac{1}{|\hat{f}_z|} + (1 - \sum_z \hat{f}_z^2) \cdot 1 \right) \quad \text{by Jensen's inequality} \\ &\leq 2 \log \left(1 + \sum_z |\hat{f}_z| \right). \end{split}$$

3. Decomposing Quantum Protocols. In this section we show how to decompose a quantum protocol into a set of weighted rectangles, whose sum approximates the communication matrix.

LEMMA 3.1. For all Boolean functions $f : \{0,1\}^n \times \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}$, and for all $1/2 > \epsilon > 0$:

If there is a quantum protocol for f with communication c and error 1/3,

then there is a real $\alpha \in [0,1]$, and a set of $2^{O(c \log(1/\epsilon))}/\epsilon^4$ rectangles R_i with weights $w_i \in \{-\alpha, \alpha\}$, so that

$$\sum_{i} w_i R_i[x, y] \in \begin{cases} [1 - \epsilon, 1] & \text{for } f(x, y) = 1\\ [0, \epsilon] & \text{for } f(x, y) = 0. \end{cases}$$

Proof. First we perform the usual success amplification to boost the success probability of the quantum protocol to $1 - \epsilon/4$, increasing the communication to $c' = O(c \log(1/\epsilon))$ at most. Using standard techniques [7] we can assume that all amplitudes used in the protocol are real. Now we employ the following fact proved in [28] and [41].

FACT 3.2. The final state of a quantum protocol exchanging c' qubits on an input (x, y) can be written

$$\sum_{m \in \{0,1\}^{c'}} \alpha_m(x) \beta_m(y) |A_m(x)\rangle |m_{c'}\rangle |B_m(y)\rangle,$$

where $|A_m(x)\rangle, |B_m(y)\rangle$ are pure states and $\alpha_m(x), \beta_m(y)$ are real numbers from the interval [-1, 1].

Now let the final state of the protocol on (x, y) be

$$\sum_{m \in \{0,1\}^{c'}} \alpha_m(x) \beta_m(y) |A_m(x)| m_{c'} \rangle |B_m(y)\rangle,$$

and let $\phi(x, y) =$

$$\sum_{m \in \{0,1\}^{c'-1}} \alpha_{m1}(x) \beta_{m1}(y) |A_{m1}(x)\rangle |1\rangle |B_{m1}(y)\rangle$$

be the part of the state which yields output 1. The acceptance probability of the protocol on (x, y) is now the inner product $\langle \phi(x, y) | \phi(x, y) \rangle$. Using the convention

$$a_{mp}(x) = \alpha_{m1}(x)\alpha_{p1}(x)\langle A_{m1}(x)|A_{p1}(x)\rangle,$$

$$b_{mp}(y) = \beta_{m1}(y)\beta_{p1}(y)\langle B_{m1}(y)|B_{p1}(y)\rangle,$$

this can be written as $\sum_{m,p} a_{mp}(x)b_{mp}(y)$. Viewing a_{mp} and b_{mp} as 2^n -dimensional vectors, and summing their outer products over all m, p yields a sum of $2^{2c'}$ rank 1 matrices containing reals between -1 and 1. Rewrite this sum as $\sum_i \alpha_i \beta_i^T$ with $1 \leq i \leq 2^{2c'}$ to save notation. The resulting matrix is an approximation of the communication matrix within componentwise error $\epsilon/4$.

In the next step define for all *i* a set $P_{\alpha,i}$ of the indices of positive entries in α_i , and the set $N_{\alpha,i}$ of the indices of negative entries of α_i . Define $P_{\beta,i}$ and $N_{\beta,i}$ analogously. We want to have that all rank 1 matrices either have only positive or only negative entries. For this we split the matrices into 4 matrices each, depending on the positivity/negativity of α_i and β_i . Let

$$\alpha_i'(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \in N_{\alpha,i} \\ \alpha_i(x) & \text{if } x \in P_{\alpha,i} \end{cases}$$

and analogously for β'_i , then set the positive entries in α_i and β_i to 0. Consider the sum $\sum_i (\alpha_i \beta_i^T) + \sum_i (\alpha'_i \beta_i^T) + \sum_i (\alpha_i \beta_i'^T) + \sum_i (\alpha'_i \beta_i'^T)$. This sum equals the previous sum, but here all matrices are either nonnegative or nonpositive. Again rename the indices so that the sum is written $\sum_i \alpha_i \beta_i^T$ (to save notation). At this point we have a set of $C = 2^{2c'+2}$ rank one matrices which are either

At this point we have a set of $C = 2^{2c'+2}$ rank one matrices which are either nonnegative or nonpositive with the above properties. We want to round entries and split matrices into uniformly weighted matrices.

Consider the intervals $[0, \epsilon/(16C)]$, and $[\epsilon/(16C) \cdot k, \epsilon/(16C) \cdot (k+1)]$, for all k up to the least k for which the interval includes 1. Obviously there are $O(C/\epsilon)$ such intervals. Round every positive $\alpha_i(x)$ and $\beta_i(x)$ to the upper bound of the first interval it is included in, and change the negative entries analogously by rounding to the upper bounds of the corresponding negative intervals. The overall error introduced on an input (x, y) in the approximating sum $\sum_i \alpha_i(x)\beta_i(y)$ is at most

$$\sum_{i} \alpha_{i}(x) \cdot \epsilon / (16C) + \sum_{i} \beta_{i}(y) \cdot \epsilon / (16C) + C \cdot \epsilon^{2} / (16C)^{2} \leq \epsilon / 4.$$

The sum of the matrices is now between $1 - \epsilon/2$ and $1 + \epsilon/4$ for inputs in $f^{-1}(1)$ and between $-\epsilon/4$ and $\epsilon/2$ for inputs in $f^{-1}(0)$. Add a rectangle with weight $\epsilon/4$ covering all inputs. Dividing all weights by $1 + \epsilon/2$ renormalizes again without increasing the error beyond ϵ . Now we are left with C rank 1 matrices $\alpha_i \beta_i^T$ containing entries from a $O(C^2/\epsilon^2)$ size set only. Splitting the rank 1 matrices into rectangles containing only the entries with one of the values yields $O(C^3/\epsilon^2)$ weighted rectangles, whose (weighted) sum approximates the communication matrix within error ϵ .

In a last step we replace any rectangle with weight $\epsilon^2/(256C^2(1+\epsilon/2)) \cdot k \cdot l$ by kl rectangles with weights $\pm \alpha$ for $\alpha = \epsilon^2/(256C^2(1+\epsilon/2))$. The rectangle weighted $\epsilon/4$ can be replaced by a set of rectangles with weight α each, introducing negligible error. So the overall number of rectangle is at most $O(C^5/\epsilon^4) = O(2^{10c'}/\epsilon^4)$.

At first glance the covers obtained in this section seem to be very similar to majority covers: we have a set of rectangles with either negative or positive weights of absolute value α , and if the weighted sum of rectangles adjacent to some input exceeds a threshold, then it is a 1-input. But we have one more property, namely that summing the weights of the adjacent rectangles approximates the function value. Actually the lower bounds in the next sections and the characterization of majority covers (and weakly unbounded error protocols and the discrepancy bound) in section 8 show that there is an exponential difference between the sizes of the two types of covers.

Now we state another form of the lemma, this time if the error is close to 1/2, the proof is essentially the same as for Lemma 3.1, omitting the success amplification at the beginning.

LEMMA 3.3. For all Boolean functions $f : \{0,1\}^n \times \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}$, and for all $1/2 > \epsilon > 0$:

If there is a quantum protocol for f with communication c and error $1/2 - \epsilon$,

then there is a real $\alpha \in [0,1]$, and a set of $2^{O(c)}/\epsilon^4$ rectangles R_i with weights $w_i \in \{-\alpha, \alpha\}$, so that

$$\sum_{i} w_{i} R_{i}[x, y] \in \begin{cases} [1/2 + \epsilon/2, 1] & \text{for } f(x, y) = 1\\ [0, 1/2 - \epsilon/2] & \text{for } f(x, y) = 0. \end{cases}$$

Note that all results of this section easily generalize to functions with range $\{-1, +1\}$. Furthermore all the results generalize to partial functions, i.e., the functions may be undefined on some inputs. For those inputs the weighted covers produce an arbitrary weight between 0 and 1.

As an application of the decomposition results we now prove Fact 2.8. A proof of this result seems to be available only in the thesis of Kremer [28] and is stated in less generality there, so we include a proof here.

Proof of Fact 2.8. Obviously it suffices to prove the second statement. Let μ be any distribution on the inputs. Assume there is a protocol with communication c so that the average correctness probability over μ and the measurements of the protocol is at least $1/2 + \epsilon$.

Let P(x, y) denote the probability that the protocol accepts x, y and K(x, y) denote the probability that the protocol is correct on x, y. W.l.o.g. we assume that $\mu(f^{-1}(1)) \ge \mu(f^{-1}(0))$. Then we have

$$\sum_{\substack{x,y \in f^{-1}(1) \\ -\sum_{x,y \in f^{-1}(0)} \mu(x,y) P(x,y)} \mu(x,y) P(x,y)$$

$$= \sum_{\substack{x,y \in f^{-1}(1) \\ + \sum_{x,y \in f^{-1}(0)} \mu(x,y) K(x,y) - \mu(f^{-1}(0))}} \mu(x,y) K(x,y) - \mu(f^{-1}(0))$$

$$\geq 1/2 + \epsilon - 1/2 = \epsilon.$$

Following the construction of Lemma 3.3 we get a set of $C = 2^{O(c)}/\epsilon^4$ rectangles R_i with weights w_i so that the sum of these approximates the acceptance probability of the protocol with componentwise additive error $\epsilon/2$. Then

$$\sum_{\substack{x,y\in f^{-1}(1)\\x,y\in f^{-1}(0)}} \mu(x,y) \sum_{1\leq i\leq C} w_i R_i(x,y)$$
$$-\sum_{\substack{x,y\in f^{-1}(0)\\x,y\in C}} \mu(x,y) \sum_{1\leq i\leq C} w_i R_i(x,y) \geq \epsilon - \epsilon/2.$$

Exchanging sums gives us

$$\sum_{1 \le i \le C} w_i \left(\sum_{x, y \in f^{-1}(1)} \mu(x, y) R_i(x, y) - \sum_{x, y \in f^{-1}(0)} \mu(x, y) R_i(x, y) \right) \ge \epsilon/2$$

and

$$\sum_{1 \le i \le C} w_i(\mu(f^{-1}(1) \cap R_i) - \mu(f^{-1}(0) \cap R_i)) \ge \epsilon/2.$$

Thus there is a rectangle R_i with $\mu(f^{-1}(1) \cap R_i) - \mu(f^{-1}(0) \cap R_i) \ge (\epsilon/2)/C$, since $|w_i| \le 1$. But for all rectangles we have $\mu(f^{-1}(1) \cap R_i) - \mu(f^{-1}(0) \cap R_i) \le disc_{\mu}(f)$, hence $disc_{\mu}(f) \ge (\epsilon/2)/C$ and finally

$$\frac{2^{O(c)}}{\epsilon^4} = C \ge (\epsilon/2)/disc_{\mu}(f) \Rightarrow c \ge \Omega\left(\log\frac{\epsilon}{disc_{\mu}(f)}\right).$$

4. A Fourier Bound. In this section we describe a lower bound method first developed by Raz [35] for classical bounded error communication complexity. We prove that the same method is applicable in the quantum case, using the decomposition results from the previous section. The lower bound method is based on the Fourier transform of the function.

As in section 2.3 we consider the Fourier transform of a communication function. The basis functions are labeled by pairs of strings (z, z'). Denote by V the set of all pairs (z, z). Let $E \subseteq V$ denote some subset of indices of Fourier coefficients.

The basic idea of the lower bound is that the communication must be large, when the sum of the absolute values of a small set of Fourier coefficients is large.

THEOREM 4.1. Let f be a total Boolean function $f : \{0,1\}^n \times \{0,1\}^n \to \{0,1\}$. Let $E \subseteq V$. Denote $\kappa_0 = |E|$ (the number of coefficients considered) and $\kappa_1 = \sum_{(z,z)\in E} |\hat{f}_{z,z}|$ (the absolute value sum of coefficients considered). Then:

If $\kappa_1 \ge \Omega(\sqrt{\kappa_0})$, then $BQC(f) = \Omega(\log(\kappa_1))$. If $\kappa_1 \le O(\sqrt{\kappa_0})$, then $BQC(f) = \Omega(\log(\kappa_1)/(\log(\sqrt{\kappa_0}) - \log(\kappa_1) + 1))$.

Proof. We are given any quantum protocol for f with error 1/3 and some worst case communication c. We have to put the stated lower bound on c. Following Lemma 3.1 we can find a set of $2^{O(cd)}$ weighted rectangles, so that the sum of these approximates the communication matrix up to error $1/2^d$ for any d > 1, where the weights are either α , or $-\alpha$ for some real α between 0 and 1. We will fix d later. Let $\{(R_i, w_i)|1 \leq i \leq 2^{O(cd)}\}$ denote that set. Furthermore let g(x, y) denote the function that maps (x, y) to $\sum_i w_i R_i(x, y)$.

First we give a lower bound on the sum of absolute values of the Fourier coefficients in E for g, in terms of the respective sum for f, using the fact that g approximates f. Obviously $||f - g||_2 \leq 1/2^d$. The identity of Parseval then gives us

$$\sum_{(z,z)\in E} (\hat{f}_{z,z} - \hat{g}_{z,z})^2 \le ||f - g||_2^2 \le 2^{-2d}.$$

We make use of the following simple consequence of Fact 2.6. FACT 4.2. Let $|||v|||_2 = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^m v_i^2}$, and $|||v|||_1 = \sum_{i=1}^m |v_i|$. Then $|||v - w|||_2 \ge |||v - w|||_1/\sqrt{m} \ge (|||v|||_1 - |||w|||_1)/\sqrt{m}$.

Hence

$$\sum_{E} |\hat{g}_{z,z}| \ge \sum_{E} |\hat{f}_{z,z}| - \sqrt{|E|} \cdot \sum_{E} (\hat{f}_{z,z} - \hat{g}_{z,z})^{2}$$
$$\ge \kappa_{1} - \sqrt{\kappa_{0}} \cdot 2^{-d}.$$

Thus the sum of absolute values of the chosen Fourier coefficients of q must be large, if there are not too many such coefficients, or if the error is small enough to suppress their number in the above expression. Call $P = (\kappa_1 - \sqrt{\kappa_0} \cdot 2^{-d})$, so $\sum_{E} |\hat{g}_{z,z}| \ge P.$

Now due to the decomposition of the quantum protocol used to obtain g, the function is the weighted sum of $C = 2^{O(cd)}$ rectangles. Since the Fourier transform is a linear transformation, the Fourier coefficients of q are weighted sums of the Fourier coefficients of the rectangles. Furthermore the Fourier coefficients of a rectangle are the products of the Fourier coefficients of the characteristic functions of the sets constituting the rectangle, as argued in section 2.3. So $\hat{g}_{z,z} = \sum_i w_i \cdot \hat{\alpha}_{z,i} \cdot \hat{\beta}_{z,i}$ and

(4.1)
$$\sum_{E} |\hat{g}_{z,z}| \leq \sum_{E} \sum_{i} |w_i \cdot \hat{\alpha}_{z,i} \cdot \hat{\beta}_{z,i}|$$

For all rectangles R_i we have $\sum_E \hat{\alpha}_{z,i}^2 \leq ||A_i||_2^2 \leq 1$ by the identity of Parseval. Using the Cauchy-Schwartz inequality (Fact 2.6) we get $\sum_{E} |\hat{\alpha}_{z,i}\hat{\beta}_{z,i}| \leq 1$. But according to (4.1) the weighted sum of these values, with weights between -1 and 1, adds up to at least P, and so at least $C \ge P$ rectangles are there, thus $cd = \Omega(\log P)$.

If now $\kappa_1 \geq \Omega(\sqrt{\kappa_0})$, then let d = O(1), and we get the lower bound c = $\Omega(\log(\kappa_1))$. Otherwise set $d = O(\log\sqrt{\kappa_0} - \log\kappa_1 + 1)$ to get $P = \kappa_1/2$ as well as $c = \Omega(\log(P)/d) = \Omega(\log(\kappa_1)/(\log(\sqrt{\kappa_0}) - \log(\kappa_1) + 1)).$

Let us note one lemma that is implicit in the above proof, and which will be used later.

LEMMA 4.3. Let $g: \{0,1\}^n \times \{0,1\}^n \to [-1,1]$ be any function such that there is a set of Q rectangles R_i with weights $w_i \in [-1,1]$ so that $g(x,y) = \sum_{i=1}^{Q} w_i R_i(x,y)$ for all x, y. Then

$$\sum_{z \in \{0,1\}^n} |\hat{g}_{z,z}| \le Q.$$

5. Applications. In this section we give applications of the lower bound method.

5.1. Quantum Nondeterminism versus Bounded Error. We first use the lower bound method to prove that nondeterministic quantum protocols may be exponentially more efficient than bounded error quantum protocols. Raz has shown the following [35]:

FACT 5.1. For the function $HAM_n^{n/2}$ (with n divisible by 4) consider the set of Fourier coefficients with labels from a set E containing those strings z, z with z having n/2 ones. Then

$$\kappa_0 = \binom{n}{n/2}, \kappa_1 = \binom{n}{n/2} \binom{n/2}{n/4} \frac{1}{2^n}.$$

Thus $\log(\sqrt{\kappa_0}) - \log(\kappa_1) = O(\log n)$. Also $\kappa_1 = \Theta(2^{n/2}/n)$ and thus $\log \kappa_1 = \Theta(n)$.

Applying the lower bound method we get

THEOREM 5.2. $BQC(HAM_n^{n/2}) = \Omega(n/\log n).$

Now we prove that the nondeterministic quantum complexity of $HAM_n^{n/2}$ is small. We use the following technique by de Wolf [40, 22].

FACT 5.3. Let the nondeterministic rank of a Boolean function f be the minimum rank of a matrix that contains 0 at positions corresponding to inputs (x, y) with f(x, y) = 0 and nonzero reals elsewhere. Then $NQC(f) = \log nrank(f) + 1$.

THEOREM 5.4. $NQC(HAM_n^{n/2}) = O(\log n).$

Proof. It suffices to prove that the nondeterministic rank is polynomial. Define rectangles M_i , which include inputs with $x_i = 1$ and $y_i = 0$, and N_i , which include inputs with $x_i = 0$ and $y_i = 1$. Let E denote the all one matrix. Then let $M = \sum_i (M_i + N_i) - n/2 \cdot E$. This is a matrix which is 0 exactly at those inputs with $\sum_i (x_i \oplus y_i) = n/2$. Furthermore M is composed of 2n + 1 weighted rectangles and thus the nondeterministic rank of $HAM_n^{n/2}$ is O(n). \Box

5.2. The Complexity of the Hamming Distance Problem. Now we determine the complexity of HAM_n^t , and show that quantum bounded error communication does not allow a significant speedup.

THEOREM 5.5. Let $t : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$ be any monotone increasing function with $t(n) \leq n/2$. Then

$$BQC(HAM_n^{t(n)}) \ge \Omega\left(\frac{t(n)}{\log t(n)} + \log n\right).$$

Proof. We already know that the complexity of $HAM_n^{n/2}$ is $\Omega(n/\log n)$. Now consider functions HAM_n^t for smaller t. The logarithmic lower bound is obvious from the at most exponential speedup obtainable by quantum protocols [28] compared to deterministic protocols.

Fixing n - 2t pairs of inputs variables to the same values leaves us with 2t pairs of free variables and the function accepts if HAM_{2t}^t accepts on these inputs. Thus the lower bound follows.

Theorem 5.6.

$$BPC(HAM_n^t) = O(t \log n).$$

Proof. The protocol determines (and removes) positions in which x, y are different, until no more such positions are present, or until t + 1 such positions are found, in both cases the function value can be decided.

Nisan [33] has given a protocol in which Alice and Bob, given *n*-bit strings x, y, compute the leftmost bit in which x, y differ. The protocol needs communication $O(\log n - \log \epsilon)$ to solve this problem with error ϵ . Hence we can find such a position with error 1/(3t) and communication $O(\log n)$, since $t \leq n$. So Alice and Bob can determine with error 1/3, whether there are exactly t differences between x and y, using communication $O(t \log n)$ as claimed. \Box

There is another way to prove this upper bound, based on the standard fingerprinting protocol for EQ_n (see [29]): Alice sends a fingerprint for input x to Bob such that this fingerprint allows to check equality between x and strings z with success probability $1 - 1/n^{2t}$. Such fingerprints can have length $O(t \log n)$. Bob can then go through all z in Hamming distance t from y and check equality to x. With high probability all the tests are performed correctly and Bob knows the result. Note that this protocol needs only one message exchange.

6. More Fourier Bounds. In this section we develop more methods for proving lower bounds on quantum communication complexity in terms of properties of their Fourier coefficients. Combining them yields a bound in terms of average sensitivity.

6.1. A Bound Employing One Fourier Coefficient. Consider functions of the type $f(x, y) = g(x \land y)$. The Fourier coefficients of g measure how well the parity function on a certain set of variables is approximated by g. But if g is correlated with a parity (hopefully on a large set of variables), then f should be correlated with an inner product function. In this case the hardness result stated in Fact 2.8 is indirectly applicable (even though f might have low discrepancy).

THEOREM 6.1. For all total functions $f : \{0,1\}^n \times \{0,1\}^n \to \{0,1\}$ with $f(x,y) = g(x \land y)$ and all $z \in \{0,1\}^n$:

$$BQC(f) = \Omega\left(\frac{|z|}{1 - \log|\hat{g}_z|}\right).$$

Proof. We prove the bound for g with range $\{-1,1\}$. Obviously the bound itself changes only by a constant factor with this change and the communication complexity is unchanged.

Let z be the index of any Fourier coefficient of g. Let |z| = m. Basically \hat{g}_z measures how well g approximates χ_z , the parity function on the m variables which are 1 in z. Consider the following distribution μ_m on $\{0,1\}^m \times \{0,1\}^m$: Each variable is independently set to one with probability $\sqrt{1/2}$ and to zero with probability $1-\sqrt{1/2}$. Then every $x_i \wedge y_i$ is one resp. zero with probability 1/2. So under this distribution on the inputs (x, y) to f we get the uniform distribution on the inputs $z = x \wedge y$ to g.

We will get an approximation of IP_m under μ_m with error $1/2 - |\hat{g}_z|/4$ by taking the outputs of a protocol for f under a suitable distribution. We then use a hardness result for IP_m given by the following lemma.

LEMMA 6.2. Let μ_m be the distribution on $\{0,1\}^m \times \{0,1\}^m$, that is the 2*m*-wise product of the distribution on $\{0,1\}$, in which 1 is chosen with probability $\sqrt{1/2}$. Then

$$disc_{\mu_m}(IP_m) \le O(2^{-m/4}).$$

Clearly with Fact 2.8 we get that computing IP_m with error $1/2 - \epsilon$ under the distribution μ_m needs quantum communication $\Omega(m/4 + \log \epsilon)$.

Let us prove the lemma. Lindsey's Lemma (see e.g. [4]) states the following.

FACT 6.3. Let R be any rectangle with $a \times b$ entries in the communication matrix of IP_m . Then let

$$||R \cap IP_m^{-1}(1)| - |R \cap IP_m^{-1}(0)|| \le \sqrt{ab2^m}.$$

The above fact allows to compute the discrepancy of IP_n under the uniform distribution, and will also be helpful for μ_m .

 μ_m is uniform on the subset of all inputs x, y containing k ones. Consider any rectangle R. There are at most $\binom{2m}{k}$ inputs with exactly k ones in that rectangle. Furthermore if we intersect the rectangle of all inputs x, y containing i ones in x and j ones in y with R we get a rectangle containing at most $\binom{m}{i} \cdot \binom{m}{j} \leq \binom{2m}{i+j}$ inputs. In this way R is partitioned into m^2 rectangles, on which μ_m is uniform and Lindsey's lemma can be applied. Note that we partition the set of inputs with overall k ones into up to m rectangles.

Let $\alpha = \sqrt{1/2}$. The probability of any input with k ones is $(1 - \alpha)^{2m-k} \cdot \alpha^k$. We get the following upper bound on discrepancy under μ_m :

$$\sum_{i,j=0}^{m} \alpha^{i+j} \cdot (1-\alpha)^{2m-i-j} \cdot \sqrt{\binom{m}{i}\binom{m}{j}2^{m}}$$

$$\leq m2^{m/2} \cdot \sum_{k=0}^{2m} \alpha^{k} \cdot (1-\alpha)^{2m-k} \cdot \sqrt{\binom{2m}{k}}$$

$$\leq m2^{m/2} \cdot \sqrt{2m+1} \cdot \sqrt{\sum_{k=0}^{2m} \alpha^{2k} \cdot (1-\alpha)^{4m-2k} \cdot \binom{2m}{k}}$$

$$\leq m\sqrt{2m+1}2^{m/2}(\alpha^{2}+(1-\alpha)^{2})^{m}$$

$$\leq m\sqrt{2m+1}2^{m/2}(2-\sqrt{2})^{m}$$

$$\leq O(2^{-m/4}).$$

This concludes the proof of Lemma 6.2.

To describe the way we use this hardness result we first assume that the quantum protocol for f is errorless. The Fourier coefficient for z measures the correlation between g and the parity function χ_z on the variables that are ones in z. We first show that χ_{1^m} can be computed with error $1/2 - |\hat{g}_z|/2$ from g (or its complement). To see this consider $\hat{g}_z = \langle g, \chi_z \rangle = \sum_a \frac{1}{2^n} g(a) \cdot \chi_z(a)$. W.l.o.g. assume that the first m variables of z are its ones. So we can rewrite to

$$\hat{g}_z = \sum_{b \in \{0,1\}^{n-m}} \frac{1}{2^{n-m}} \sum_{a \in \{0,1\}^m} \frac{1}{2^m} g(ab) \cdot \chi_z(ab).$$

Note that χ_z depends only on the first *m* variables. In other words, if we fix a random *b*, the output of *g* has an expected advantage of $|\hat{g}_z|$ over a random choice in computing parity on the cube spanned by the first *m* variables. Consequently there must be some

b realizing that advantage. We fix that *b*, and use g(ab) (or -g(ab)) to approximate χ_{1^m} . The error of this approximation is $1/2 - |\hat{g}_z|/2$.

Next we show that IP_m resp. $\chi_{1^m}(x \wedge y) = \chi_z((x \wedge y) \circ b)$ is correlated with $g((x \wedge y) \circ b)$ under some distribution.

Let μ'_n be a distribution resulting from μ_n , if all x_i and y_i for i = m + 1, ..., n are fixed so that $x_i \wedge y_i = b_{i-m}$ and all other variables are chosen as for μ_n . Then

$$|\sum_{(x,y)\in\{0,1\}^{2\cdot n}} \mu'_n(x,y) \cdot g(x \wedge y) \cdot \chi_z(x \wedge y)|$$

= $|\sum_{a\in\{0,1\}^m} g(ab) \cdot \chi_z(ab) \cdot \sum_{x,y:x \wedge y=ab} \mu'_n(x,y)|$
= $|\sum_{a\in\{0,1\}^m} g(ab) \cdot \chi_z(ab) \cdot \frac{1}{2^m}| \ge |\hat{g}_z|.$

Hence computing f on μ'_n with no error is at least as hard as computing IP_m on distribution μ_m with error $1/2 - |\hat{g}_z|/2$, which needs at least $\Omega(|z|/4 + \log |\hat{g}_z|)$ qubits of communication due to the discrepancy bound.

We assumed so far that f is computed without error. Now assume the error of a protocol for f is 1/3. Then reduce the error probability to $|\hat{g}_z|/4$ by repeating the protocol $d = O(1-\log |\hat{g}_z|)$ times and taking the majority output. Computing f on μ'_n with error $|\hat{g}_z|/4$ is at least as hard as computing IP_m on distribution μ_m with error $1/2 - |\hat{g}_z|/2 + |\hat{g}_z|/4$, which needs at least $\Omega(|z|/4 + \log |\hat{g}_z|)$ qubits communication. The error introduced by the protocol is smaller than the advantage of the function fin computing IP_m .

So a lower bound of $\Omega(|z|/4 + \log |\hat{g}_z|)$ holds for the task of computing f with error $|\hat{g}_z|/4$. This implies a lower bound of

$$\frac{\Omega(|z|/4 + \log|\hat{g}_z|)}{d} = \Omega\left(\frac{|z|}{1 - \log|\hat{g}_z|}\right).$$

for the task of computing f with error 1/3.

Note that the discrepancy of f in the above theorem may be much higher than the discrepancy of IP_m (leading to weak lower bounds for f), but that f approximates IP_m well enough to transfer the lower bound known for IP_m (which happens to be provable via low discrepancy).

6.2. A Sensitivity Bound. A weaker, averaged form of the bound in the above subsection is the following.

LEMMA 6.4. For all functions $f : \{0,1\}^n \times \{0,1\}^n \to \{-1,1\}$ with $f(x,y) = g(x \land y)$:

$$BQC(f) = \Omega\left(\frac{\bar{s}(g)}{H(\hat{g}^2) + 1}\right)$$

Proof. First note that $\bar{s}(g) = \sum_{z} \hat{g}_{z}^{2}|z|$ by Fact 2.10. So we can read the bound

$$BQC(f) = \Omega\left(\frac{\sum_{z} \hat{g}_{z}^{2}|z|}{\sum_{z} \hat{g}_{z}^{2}(1-2\log|\hat{g}_{z}|)}\right).$$

The \hat{g}_z^2 define a probability distribution on $z \in \{0, 1\}^n$. If we choose a z randomly then the expected Hamming weight of z is $\bar{s}(g)$. Also the expectation of $1 - 2 \log |\hat{g}_z|$ is $1 + H(\hat{g}^2)$. We use the following lemma.

LEMMA 6.5. Let a_1, \ldots, a_m be nonnegative and b_1, \ldots, b_m be positive numbers and let p_1, \ldots, p_m be a probability distribution. Then there is an i with:

$$rac{a_i}{b_i} \ge rac{\sum_j p_j a_j}{\sum_j p_j b_j}.$$

To see the lemma let $a = \sum_j p_j a_j$ and $b = \sum_j p_j b_j$ and assume that for all i we have $a_i b < b_i a$. Then also for all i with $p_i > 0$ we have $p_i a_i b < p_i b_i a$ and hence $b \sum_{i} p_{i} a_{i} < a \sum_{i} p_{i} b_{i}$, a contradiction.

So there must be one z, such that $|z|/(1 - \log \hat{g}_z^2) \ge \bar{s}(g)/(1 + H(\hat{g}^2))$. Using that z in the bound of Theorem 6.1 yields the lower bound. Π

The above bound decreases with the entropy of the squared Fourier coefficients. This seems unnecessary, since the method of Theorem 4.1 suggests that functions with highly disordered Fourier coefficients should be hard. This leads us to the next bound.

LEMMA 6.6. For all functions $f : \{0,1\}^n \times \{0,1\}^n \to \{-1,1\}$:

$$BQC(f) = \Omega\left(\frac{H_D(\hat{f}^2)}{\log n}\right),$$

where $H_D(\hat{f}^2) = -\sum_z \hat{f}_{z,z}^2 \log \hat{f}_{z,z}^2$. *Proof.* Consider any quantum protocol for f with communication c. As described in Lemma 3.1, we can find a set of $2^{O(c \log n)}$ weighted rectangles so that their sum yields a function h(x, y) that approximates f componentwise within error $1/n^2$.

Consequently, due to Lemma 4.3, the sum of certain Fourier coefficients of h is bounded:

$$\log \sum_{z \in \{0,1\}^n} |\hat{h}_{z,z}| \le O(c \log n).$$

Also $-\sum_{z \in \{0,1\}^n} \hat{h}_{z,z}^2 \log \hat{h}_{z,z}^2 \le 2\log(1+\sum_{z \in \{0,1\}^n} |\hat{h}_{z,z}|) \le O(c \log n)$ due to Lemma 2.12. But on the other hand $||f - h||_2 \leq 1/n^2$, which we will use to relate $H_D(\hat{f}^2)$ to

 $H_D(\hat{h}^2)$. We employ the following lemma.

LEMMA 6.7. Let $f, h: \{0, 1\}^n \times \{0, 1\}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ with $||f||_2, ||h||_2 \leq 1$. Then

$$\sum_{z \in \{0,1\}^n} |\hat{f}_{z,z}^2 - \hat{h}_{z,z}^2| \le 3||f - h||_2.$$

Let us prove the lemma. Define

$$Min_z = \begin{cases} \hat{f}_{z,z} & \text{if } |\hat{f}_{z,z}| \le |\hat{h}_{z,z}|\\ \hat{h}_{z,z} & \text{if } |\hat{h}_{z,z}| < |\hat{f}_{z,z}| \end{cases}$$

and

$$Max_z = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \hat{f}_{z,z} & \text{ if } |\hat{f}_{z,z}| > |\hat{h}_{z,z}| \\ \hat{h}_{z,z} & \text{ if } |\hat{h}_{z,z}| \geq |\hat{f}_{z,z}|. \end{array} \right.$$

Then $\sum_{z \in \{0,1\}^n} |\hat{f}_{z,z}^2 - \hat{h}_{z,z}^2| = \sum_z Max_z^2 - Min_z^2$ and

$$||f - h||_2^2 \ge \sum_z (\hat{f}_{z,z} - \hat{h}_{z,z})^2 = \sum_z (Min_z - Max_z)^2$$

Due to the triangle inequality we have

1

$$\left|\sum_{z} Min_{z}^{2} + ||f - h||_{2} \ge \sqrt{\sum_{z} Max_{z}^{2}}\right|$$

and

$$\sqrt{\sum_{z} Min_{z}^{2}} \geq \sqrt{\sum_{z} Max_{z}^{2}} - ||f - h||_{2}$$

which implies

$$\sum_{z} Min_z^2 \ge \sum_{z} Max_z^2 - 2\sqrt{\sum_{z} Max_z^2} \cdot ||f - h||_2$$

and

$$\begin{split} \sum_{z} Max_{z}^{2} - Min_{z}^{2} &\leq 2\sqrt{\sum_{z} Max_{z}^{2} \cdot ||f - h||_{2}} \\ &\leq 2\sqrt{\sum_{z} \hat{f}_{z,z}^{2} + \hat{h}_{z,z}^{2}} \cdot ||f - h||_{2} \\ &\leq 2\sqrt{2}||f - h||_{2}. \end{split}$$

Lemma 6.7 is proved.

So the distribution given by the squared z, z-Fourier coefficients of f is close to the vector of the squared z, z-Fourier coefficients of h. Then also the entropies are quite close, by the following fact (see Theorem 16.3.2 in [15]).

FACT 6.8. Let p, q be distributions on $\{0, 1\}^n$ with $d = \sum_z |p_z - q_z| \le 1/2$. Then $|H(p) - H(q)| \le d \cdot n - d \log d$.

Actually the fact also holds if p, q are arbitrary vectors of 2^n real numbers that are each between 0 and 1. So we get

$$H_D(\hat{h}^2) \ge H_D(\hat{f}^2) - O(1/n).$$

Remembering that $H_D(\hat{h}^2) = O(c \log n)$ we get

$$H_D(\hat{f}^2) \le O(c\log n + 1/n).$$

This concludes the proof.

If $f(x, y) = g(x \oplus y)$, then $H_D(\hat{f}^2) = H(\hat{f}^2) = H(\hat{g}^2)$. Now we would like to completely remove the entropies from our lower bounds, since the entropy of the squared Fourier coefficients is in general hard to estimate. To this end we combine the bounds of Lemmas 6.4 and 6.6. The first holds for functions $g(x \wedge y)$, the second for functions $g(x \oplus y)$.

DEFINITION 6.9. A communication problem $f : \{0,1\}^n \times \{0,1\}^n \to \{-1,1\}$ can be reduced to another problem $h : \{0,1\}^m \times \{0,1\}^m \to \{-1,1\}$, if there are functions a,b so that f(x,y) = h(a(x),b(y)) for all x, y.

In this case the communication complexity of h is at least as large as the communication complexity of f. Note that if m is much larger than n, a lower bound which is a function of n translates into a lower bound which is a function of m, and is thus "smaller". For more general types of reductions in communication complexity see [4].

If we can reduce $g(x \wedge y)$ and $g(x \oplus y)$ to some f, then combining the bounds of Lemmas 6.4 and 6.6 gives a lower bound of $\Omega(\bar{s}(g)/(1+H(\hat{g}^2))+H(\hat{g}^2)/\log n)$, which yields Corollary 1.3.

6.3. A Bound Involving Singular Values. We return to the technique of Lemma 6.6. For many functions, like IP_m , the entropy of the squared diagonal Fourier coefficients is small, because these coefficients are all very small. We consider the entropy of a vector of values that sum to something much smaller than 1 in cases. Consequently it may be useful to consider other unitary transformations instead of the Fourier transform.

It is well known that any square matrix M can be brought into diagonal form by multiplying with unitary matrices, i.e., there are unitary U, V so that $M = UDV^*$ for some positive diagonal D. The entries of D are the singular values of M, they are unique and equal to the eigenvalues of $\sqrt{MM^*}$, see [8].

Consider a communication matrix for a function $f : \{0,1\}^n \times \{0,1\}^n \to \{-1,1\}$. Then let M_f denote the communication matrix divided by 2^n . Let $\sigma_1(f), \ldots, \sigma_{2^n}(f)$ denote the singular values of M_f in some decreasing order. In case M_f is symmetric these are just the absolute values of its eigenvalues. Let $\sigma^2(f)$ denote the vector of squared singular values of M_f . Note that the sum of the squared singular values is 1. The following theorem is a modification of Lemma 6.6 and Theorem 4.1.

THEOREM 6.10. Let $f: \{0,1\}^n \times \{0,1\}^n \to \{-1,1\}$ be a total Boolean function. Then $BQC(f) = \Omega(H(\sigma^2(f))/\log n)$.

Let $\kappa_k = \sigma_1(\underline{f}) + \dots + \sigma_k(f)$.

If $\kappa_k \ge \Omega(\sqrt{k})$, then $BQC(f) = \Omega(\log(\kappa_k))$.

If $\kappa_k \leq O(\sqrt{k})$, then $BQC(f) = \Omega(\log(\kappa_k)/(\log(\sqrt{k}) - \log(\kappa_k) + 1))$.

Proof. We first consider the entropy bound and proceed similarly as in the proof of Lemma 6.6. Let f be the considered function and let h be the function computed by a protocol decomposition with error $1/n^2$ consisting of P rectangles with $\log P = O(c \log n)$ for the communication complexity c of some protocol computing f with error 1/3.

 M_f denotes the communication matrix of f divided by 2^n , let M_h be the corresponding matrix for h. Using the Frobenius norm on the matrices we have $||M_f - M_h||_F = ||f - h||_2 \leq 1/n^2$. Then also the singular values of the matrices are close due to the Hoffmann-Wielandt Theorem for singular values, see Corollary 7.3.8 in [21].

FACT 6.11. Let A, B be two square matrices with singular values $\sigma_1 \geq \cdots \geq \sigma_m$ and $\mu_1 \geq \cdots \geq \mu_m$. Then

$$\sqrt{\sum_i (\sigma_i - \mu_i)^2} \le ||A - B||_F.$$

As in Lemma 6.6 we can use Lemma 6.7 to show that the L_1 -distance between the vector of squared singular values of M_f and the corresponding vector for M_h is bounded and Fact 6.8 to show that the entropies of the squared singular values of M_f and M_h are at most o(1) apart.

It remains to show that $H(\sigma^2(h))$ is upper bounded by log P. Due to Lemma 2.12 $H(\sigma^2(h)) \leq 2\log(1 + \sum_i \sigma_i(h))$. Due to the Cauchy Schwartz inequality we have

$$2\log(1+\sum_i \sigma_i(h))$$

$$\leq 2 \log \sqrt{\sum_{i} \sigma_{i}^{2}(h)} \sqrt{rank(M_{h})} + O(1)$$

$$\leq \log rank(M_{h}) + O(1) \leq \log P + O(1).$$

The last step holds since M_h is the sum of P rank 1 matrices. We get the desired lower bound.

To prove the remaining part of the theorem we argue as in the proof of Theorem 4.1 that the sum of the selected singular values of M_h is large compared to the sum of the selected singular values of M_f , then upper bound the former as above by the rank of M_h and thus by P. The remaining argument is as in the proof of Theorem 4.1. \Box

Note that for IP_n all singular values are $1/2^{n/2}$, so the entropy of their squares is *n*, while the entropy of the squared diagonal Fourier coefficients is close to 0, since these are all $\langle IP_n, \chi_{z,z} \rangle^2 = 1/2^{2n}$. The log of the sum of all singular values yields a linear lower bound. In this case the bounds of Lemma 6.6 and Theorem 4.1 are very small, while Theorem 6.10 gives large bounds.

Ambainis [2] has observed that Theorem 6.10 can also be deduced from a lower bound on the quantum communication complexity of sampling [3], using success amplification and an argument relating the smallest number of singular values whose sum is at least $1 - \kappa_k^2/(4k)$ to the sum of the first k singular values in the presence of sufficiently small error.

It is not clear whether Theorem 6.10 yields bounds that are always as large as the bounds obtained by using other methods from this paper, i.e., whether the bounds from Theorem 6.10 are always as good as the bounds from Theorems 4.1 of 6.1, or might be significantly smaller for some functions.

The quantity $\sigma_1 + \cdots + \sigma_k$ is known as the Ky Fan k-norm of a matrix [8]. Well known examples of such norms are the cases k = 1, which is the spectral norm, and the case of maximal k, known as the trace norm. The Ky Fan norms are unitarily invariant for all k, and there is a remarkable fact saying that if matrix A has smaller Ky Fan k-norm than B for all k, then the same holds for every unitarily invariant norm. This leads to the interesting statement that the Raz-type bound in Theorem 6.10 for a function g is smaller than the respective bound for f for all k, iff for all unitarily invariant matrix norms $|||M_g||| \leq |||M_f|||$. Under the same condition the distribution $(\sigma_1^2(f), \ldots, \sigma_{2^n}^2(f))$ induced by the singular values of M_f majorizes the distribution $(\sigma_1^2(g), \ldots, \sigma_{2^n}^2(g))$ induced by M_g . This implies that $H(\sigma^2(f)) \leq H(\sigma^2(g))$. Conversely we get an observation regarding the bounds in Theorem 6.10: if the entropy bound for g is smaller than the entropy bound for f, then there is a k, so that the Raz type bound for k applied to g is bigger than the corresponding bound for f.

6.4. Examples. To conclude this section we give examples of lower bounds provable using the methods described by Theorem 6.1 and Corollary 1.3.

THEOREM 6.12. $BQC(MAJ_n) = \Omega(n/\log n)$.

Proof. We change the range of MAJ_n to $\{-1, +1\}$. Now consider the Fourier coefficient with index $z = 1^n$. $MAJ_n = g(x \land y)$ for a function g that is 1, if at least n/2 of its inputs are one. W.l.o.g. let n/2 be an odd integer. Thus any input to g with n/2 ones is accepted by both g and χ_z . Call the set of these inputs I. Similarly every input to g with an odd number of ones larger than n/2 is accepted by both g and χ_z and every input to g with an even number of ones smaller than n/2 is rejected by both d and χ_z . On all other inputs g and χ_z disagree. Thus there are |I| inputs more being classified correctly by χ_z than those being classified wrong. The Fourier coefficient

 \hat{g}_z is $\binom{n}{n/2}/2^n = \Omega(1/\sqrt{n})$. So the method of Theorem 6.1 gives the claimed lower bound. \Box

Note also that the average sensitivity of the function g with $MAJ_n(x, y) = g(x \wedge y)$ is $\Theta(\sqrt{n})$.

As another example we consider a function $g((x \land y) \oplus z)$ with a nonsymmetric g. Let MED(a) be the middle bit of the median of $n/(2 \log n)$ numbers of $2 \log n$ bits given in a. Let us compute a lower bound on the average sensitivity of MED. For all inputs a there are $\Theta(n/\log n)$ numbers bigger than the median and smaller than the median each. For each number p different from the median we can switch a single bit to put the changed number below resp. above the median, shifting the median in the sorted sequence by one position. For a random a such a bit flip entails a change of the middle bit of the median with constant probability. Hence the average sensitivity of MED is at least $\Omega(n/\log n)$. With Corollary 1.3 this gives us a lower bound of $\Omega(\sqrt{n}/\log n)$ on the bounded error quantum communication complexity of $MED((x \land y) \oplus z)$.

7. Application: Limits of Quantum Speedup. Consider $COUNT_n^t(x, y)$. These functions do admit some speedup by quantum protocols, this follows from a black box algorithm given in [9] (see also [5]), and the results of [11] connecting the black box and the communication model.

LEMMA 7.1. $BQC(COUNT_n^t) = O(\sqrt{nt}\log n).$

Note that the classical bounded error communication complexity of all $COUNT_n^t$ is $\Theta(n)$, by a reduction from $DISJ_n$.

THEOREM 7.2. Let $t : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$ be any monotone increasing function with $t(n) \leq n/2$. Then

$$BQC(COUNT_n^{t(n)}) \ge \Omega\left(\frac{t(n)}{\log t(n)} + \log n\right).$$

Proof. First consider $COUNT_n^{n/2}$. This function is equivalent to a function $g(x \wedge y)$, in which g is 1 if the number of ones in its input is n/2, and -1 else. Consider the Fourier coefficient for $z = 1^n$. For simplicity assume that n is even and n/2 is odd. Then $\hat{g}_z = 2\binom{n}{n/2}/2^n = \Omega(1/\sqrt{n})$. Thus the method of Theorem 6.1 gives us the lower bound $\Omega(n/\log n)$. Note that finding this lower bound is much easier than the computations in section 5 for $HAM_n^{n/2}$, since we have to consider only one coefficient.

Now consider functions $COUNT_n^t$ for smaller t. The logarithmic lower bound is obvious from the at most exponential speedup obtainable by quantum protocols [28].

Fixing n/2-t pairs of inputs variables to ones and n/2-t pairs of input variables to zeroes leaves us with 2t pairs of free variables and the function accepts if $COUNT_{2t}^t$ accepts on these inputs. Thus the lower bound follows.

Computing the bounds for $t = n^{1-\epsilon}$ yields Corollary 1.4.

8. Discrepancy and Weakly Unbounded Error. The only general method for proving lower bounds on the quantum bounded error communication complexity used prior to this work has been the discrepancy method. We now characterize the parameter disc(f) in terms of the communication complexity of f. Due to Fact 2.8 we get for all $\epsilon > 0$

$$BQC_{1/2-\epsilon}(f) = \Omega(\log(\epsilon/disc(f)))$$

$$\Rightarrow BQC_{1/2-\epsilon}(f) - \log(\epsilon) = \Omega(\log(1/disc(f))).$$

Thus $UPC(f) \ge UQC(f) = \Omega(\log(1/disc(f))).$

THEOREM 8.1. For all $f : \{0,1\}^n \times \{0,1\}^n \to \{0,1\} :$ $UPC(f) = O(\log(1/disc(f)) + \log n).$

Proof. Let $disc(f) = 1/2^c$. We first construct a protocol with public randomness, constant communication, and error $1/2 - 1/2^{c+1}$, using the Yao principle, and then switch to a usual weakly unbounded protocol (with private randomness) with communication $O(c + \log n)$ and the same error using a result of Newman.

We know that for all distributions μ there is a rectangle with discrepancy at least $1/2^c$. Then the weight of ones is $\alpha + 1/2^{c+1}$ and the weight of zeroes is $\alpha - 1/2^{c+1}$ or vice versa on that rectangle (for some $\alpha \in [0, 1/2]$).

We take that rectangle and partition the rest of the communication matrix into 2 more rectangles. Assign to each rectangle the label 0 or 1 depending on the majority of function values in that rectangle according to μ . The error of the rectangles is at most 1/2. If a protocol outputs the label of the adjacent rectangle for every input, the error according to μ is only $1/2 - 1/2^{c+1}$.

This holds for all μ . Furthermore the rectangle partitions lead to deterministic protocols with O(1) communication and error $1/2 - 1/2^{c+1}$: Alice sends the names of the rectangles that are consistent with her input. Bob then picks the label of the only rectangle consistent with both inputs.

We now invoke the following lemma due to Yao (as in [29]).

FACT 8.2. The following statements are equivalent for all f:

1. For each distribution μ there is a deterministic protocol for f with error ϵ and communication d.

2. There is a randomized protocol in which both players can access a public source of random bits, so that f is computed with error probability ϵ (over the random coins), and the communication is d.

So we get an O(1) communication randomized protocol with error probability $1/2 - 1/2^{O(c)}$ using public randomness. We employ the following result from [31] to get a protocol with private randomness.

FACT 8.3. Let f be computable by a probabilistic protocol with error ϵ , that uses public randomness and d bits of communication. Then $BPC_{(1+\delta)\epsilon}(f) = O(d + \log(\frac{n}{\epsilon\delta}))$.

We may now choose $\delta = 1/2^{O(c)}$ small enough to get a weakly unbounded error protocol for f with cost $O(c + \log n)$.

Let us also consider the quantum version of weakly unbounded error protocols. THEOREM 8.4. For all $f: UPC(f) = \Theta(UQC(f))$.

Proof. The lower bound is trivial, since the quantum protocol can simulate the classical protocol.

For the upper bound we have to construct a classical protocol from a quantum protocol. Consider a quantum protocol with error $1/2 - \epsilon \leq 1/2 - 1/2^c$ and communication c. Due to Lemma 3.3 this gives us a set of $2^{O(c)}$ weighted rectangles, such that the sum of the rectangles approximates the communication matrix componentwise within error $1/2 - \epsilon/2$. The weights are real $\pm \alpha$ with absolute value smaller than 1. Label the $-\alpha$ weighted rectangles with 0 and the other rectangles with 1, and add $(1/2)/\alpha$ rectangles covering all inputs and bearing label 0. This clearly yields a majority cover of size $2^{O(c)}$, which is equivalent to a classical weakly unbounded error protocol using communication O(c) due to Fact 2.3.

It is easy to see that there are weakly unbounded error protocols for MAJ_n , HAM_n^t , and $COUNT_n^t$ with cost $O(\log n)$. For MAJ_n consider the protocol where Alice picks a random *i* from 1 to *n* and sends *i*, x_i . If $x_i = y_i = 1$ they accept. Clearly, if *n* is odd this protocol is correct with probability 1/2 + 1/(2n). For even n > 2 the protocol must be modified by accepting every input with probability 1/n beforehand. Other threshold predicates can be computed similarly.

For HAM_n^t we have w.l.o.g. that $t \le n/2$, since otherwise we can just complement x and use a protocol for t' = n - t. If we have a protocol that works for t = n/2 and even n, we can just add n - 2t dummy inputs (which are all different for Alice and Bob) to solve the problem for other t, since t + (n - 2t) = n - t = (n + n - 2t)/2. The protocol for $HAM_n^{n/2}$ goes as follows: Alice rejects unconditionally with probability $1/3 + 1/(8n^2)$, and otherwise picks i_1, i_2 from 1 to n and sends them along with the corresponding x_i . Bob now accepts if $x_{i_1} \ne y_{i_1} \lor x_{i_2} = y_{i_2}$. For inputs with Hamming distance d the acceptance probability is $(2/3 - 1/(8n^2)) \cdot (1 - (d/n) \cdot (1 - d/n))$. So inputs with d = n/2 are accepted with probability $1/2 - 1/O(n^2)$, all other inputs are accepted with probability $1/2 + 1/O(n^2)$. The protocol for $COUNT_n^t$ is similar.

So all these problems allow only small discrepancy bounds.

LEMMA 8.5. For $f \in \{MAJ_n, HAM_n^t, COUNT_n^t\}$: $\max_{\mu} \log(1/disc_{\mu}(f)) = O(\log n).$

 MAJ_n is even a complete problem for the class of problems computable with polylogarithmic cost by weakly unbounded error protocols. To see this note that this class is equal to the class of majority nondeterministic protocols with polylogarithmic communication [20] and so MAJ_n is complete by the techniques of [4].

9. Discussion. In this paper we have investigated the problem of proving lower bounds on the bounded error quantum communication complexity. As opposed to previous approaches our methods are both general and make use of the quantum properties of the protocols (i.e., do not implicitly follow the pattern of simulating a bounded error quantum protocol by an unbounded error classical protocol and employing a lower bound method suitable for the latter). Our results are strong enough to show separations between unbounded error classical and bounded error quantum communication resp. between quantum nondeterministic and quantum bounded error communication.

Our results do not address the more powerful model of quantum communication complexity with prior entanglement [13, 14]. It would be interesting to obtain similar results for this model. Recently an improved lower bound (compared to [14]) for the complexity of IP_n in this model has been obtained in Nayak and Salzman [30]. This bound does not show hardness under a distribution like in the second statement of Fact 2.8, though. So constructions similar to that of Theorem 6.1 remain unknown for the model with prior entanglement.

More recently Razborov [37] has obtained much stronger lower bounds on the quantum communication complexity of $g(x \wedge y)$ for symmetric functions g, almost tightly characterizing the quantum bounded error communication complexity of these functions, even in the model with prior entanglement. This gives a $\Omega(\sqrt{n})$ lower bound for $DISJ_n$, while previously superlogarithmic bounds for this function were known only for the cases when strong restrictions on the interaction are imposed [27] or when the error probability is extremely small [12]. Razborov's techniques are based on showing good lower bounds on the minimal trace norm (sum of singular values) of matrices approximating the communication matrix, similar to the approach in

Theorem 6.10. These new results can be used to show that in our Corollary 1.4 actually the upper bounds for $COUNT_n^t$ are almost tight.

The lower bound methods of this paper can also be applied to other types of functions, see sections 5 and 6.4. It would be interesting to find tighter lower bounds for these functions and to extend our results to the model with prior entanglement.

A major open problem in the area is to determine whether quantum bounded error communication can ever be more than quadratically smaller than classical bounded error communication for total functions. A first step to resolve this problem would be to show a lower bound in terms of (one-sided) block sensitivity on the quantum bounded error complexity of all functions $g(x \wedge y)$ (with nonsymmetric g).

Regarding unbounded error protocols, a result of Forster [17] can easily be extended to show that the discrepancy bound restricted to the uniform distribution is a lower bound on the unbounded error quantum communication complexity (when not its weak variant as considered in this paper, but the communication of protocols with error less than 1/2 is measured). If this result could be extended to discrepancy for all distributions, then both types of unbounded error protocols would coincide due to Theorem 8.1.

Finally, let us mention that the known quantum protocols that give a speedup compared to randomized protocols for total functions need much interaction, i.e., many communication rounds. It has recently been shown recently by Jain et al. [38] that this in inevitable for $DISJ_n$. Is there a function $g(x \oplus y)$ which cannot be computed optimally by a 1-round protocol?

Acknowledgements. The author wishes to thank Ronald de Wolf for bringing [35] to his attention and for lots of valuable discussions, and Andris Ambainis for pointing out a mistake in an earlier version of the paper.

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