# Information Value of Two-Prover Games 

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#### Abstract

We introduce a generalization of the standard framework for studying the difficulty of twoprover games. Specifically, we study the model where Alice and Bob are allowed to communicate (with information constraints) - in contrast to the usual two-prover game where they are not allowed to communicate after receiving their respective input. We study the trade-off between the information cost of the protocol and the achieved value of the game after the protocol. In particular, we show the connection of this trade-off and the amortized behavior of the game (i.e. repeated value of the game). We show that if one can win the game with at least $(1-\epsilon)$ probability by communicating at most $\epsilon$ bits of information, then one can win $n$ copies with probability at least $2^{-O(\epsilon n)}$. This gives an intuitive explanation why Raz's counter-example to strong parallel repetition [Raz08] (the odd cycle game) is a counter-example to strong parallel repetition - one can win the odd-cycle game on a cycle of length $m$ by communicating $O\left(m^{-2}\right)$ bits where $m$ is the number of vertices.

Conversely, for projection games, we show that if one can win $n$ copies with probability larger than $(1-\epsilon)^{n}$, then one can win one copy with at least $(1-O(\epsilon))$-probability by communicating $O(\epsilon)$ bits of information. By showing the equivalence between information value and amortized value, we give an alternative direction for further works in studying amortized behavior of the two-prover games.

The main technical tool is the "Chi-Squared Lemma" which bounds the information cost of the protocol in terms of Chi-Squared distance, instead of usual divergence. This avoids the square loss from using Pinsker's Inequality.


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## 1 Introduction

A two-prover one-round game $\mathcal{G}$ on a bipartite graph with $(U, V, E)$ with distribution $\mathcal{D}$ on $E$ is defined as a following process. Referee picks $(u, v) \in E$ according to $\mathcal{D}$, then sends $u$ to Alice and $v$ to Bob. Then Alice gives an assignment to $u$ and Bob to $v$ from alphabet $\Sigma$. Referee checks if they are "valid" assignment for the edge $(u, v)$. In this setting, we are interested in what the best response strategy is for Alice and Bob. In particular, we want to find $f: U \rightarrow \Sigma$ which denotes Alice's strategy and $g: V \rightarrow \Sigma$ which denotes Bob's strategy that maximize the fraction of satisfied edges. In particular, we want to compute the strategy that achieves the value of the game which is defined as

$$
\operatorname{val}(\mathcal{G}):=\max _{f, g} \operatorname{Pr}_{(u, v) \sim \mathcal{D}}\left[\pi_{(u, v)}(f(u), g(v))=1\right],
$$

that is the probability of satisfying a randomly chosen edge according to the best response strategy where $\pi_{(u, v)}$ is the verification function by the referee for the edge $(u, v)$.

In the above setup, it is crucial that Alice's assignment only depends on the input $u$ and Bob's assignment only depends on the input $v$. In other words, Alice and Bob are assumed to be in separate rooms, leaking zero bits of information about their respective input. Having introduced the amount of information communicated between Alice and Bob into the picture, we could then reformulate the value of the game as:

Given a game $\mathcal{G}$, Alice and Bob communicate zero bits of information. Then what is the best chance of winning the game?

Then it is natural to extend to following question: "If Alice and Bob are allowed to communicate limited information, what is the value of the game?" In particular, we could explicitly ask the following question.

If Alice and Bob are allowed to communicate $\varepsilon$ bits of information, then what is the value of the game? (in terms of $\varepsilon$ )

First, note that this is a well-defined quantity in a sense that there is a following explicitly bounded curve. Observe that if $|U|=|V|=n$, and they are allowed to communicate $O(\log n)$-bits, the value of the game becomes 1 (if all the edges indeed have at least one satisfying assignment, which can be assumed without loss of generality) due to the following naive strategy. Alice simply sends the hash of her input to Bob, which requires at most $\log n$-bits to do so and vice-versa. Since Alice and Bob both know ( $u, v$ ), they can simply pick a satisfying assignment (using shared randomness) for ( $u, v$ ) then answer accordingly. We can further tighten the upper bound (for the amount of information) if we know the structure of the graph. In particular, if the graph were $d$-regular, given $O(\log d)$-bits, the value of the game again becomes 1, since the entropy (of Alice's input given Bob's input and vice-versa) is at most $\log d$. (We will show this explicitly)

We would like to further investigate the trade-off between the information vs. the value of the game. In particular, we initiate the study of information value of the game, that is how much information is necessary to win the game with say probability $>1-\delta$ in terms of $\delta$, which we define more explicitly in Section 2.

Note that this notion can classify "how intrinsically hard" a given two-prover one-round game is. In particular, one could view a game as being "hard" if the value of the game is "resistant" to added information, easy otherwise, providing a better spectrum for analyzing the intrinsic hardness of the game - which is indeed related to the amortized value of the game.

### 1.1 Our Contribution

We connect the information value of the game with the amortized value of the game - i.e. the value of the repeated game. We note that previous parallel repetition literature can be "translated" as Alice and Bob sharing a common hint provided by the referee. Then we can "remove" the referee from the picture and instead let Alice and Bob sample a common hint. This translation is what we call the "Chi-squared lemma," which is the main technical contribution of this paper.

Lemma 1.1 (Chi-squared lemma). Suppose Alice has access to $P$ and Bob has access to $Q$ which are probability distributions over the universe $\mathcal{U}$. Suppose further that there exists a common distribution $R$ such that $D(R \| P)<\varepsilon$ and $D(R \| Q)<\varepsilon$. Then there exists a protocol $\Pi$ that outputs a sample from the distribution $\tilde{P}$ with information cost $\gamma \varepsilon$ with $D(R \| \tilde{P})<O(\varepsilon)$ for some constant $\gamma>0$.
where "information cost" refers to the amount of information revealed to each other as in [BR11].
We also remark that the idea of referring to Chi-Squared distance to bound information cost was also used in proving sharp round complexity of pointer chasing problem [Yeh16], avoiding square-loss in the parameter due to the application of Pinsker's inequality.

Via this lemma, we can "translate" previous parallel repetition literature (in particular [BG15]) as a blackbox to obtain following main theorem.

Theorem 1.2 (informal). If $\operatorname{val}\left(\mathcal{G}^{n}\right) \geq(1-\varepsilon)^{n}=2^{-\Theta(\varepsilon n)}$ and $\mathcal{G}$ is a projection game, that is for any valid pair of assignments, Bob's assignment is a projection of Alice's assignment, then one can win $\mathcal{G}$ with probability $1-O(\varepsilon)$ by communicating $O(\varepsilon)$-bits of information.

To show the converse, we need to show that a low-information protocol can be translated to a zero-communication protocol with insignificant loss in success probability. We use results from correlated sampling (in particular we use a lemma from [BG15]) which yields the converse to the main theorem.

Theorem 1.3 (informal). If one can win $\mathcal{G}$ with probability $1-\varepsilon$ by communicating $\varepsilon$-bits of information, then $\operatorname{val}\left(\mathcal{G}^{n}\right) \geq 2^{-O(\varepsilon n)}$.

We also remark that Theorem 1.3 does not assume that $\mathcal{G}$ is a projection game.

### 1.2 Proof Overview

Proof of Theorem 1.3 It suffices to show that a low-information cost protocol can be translated to a zero-communication protocol with success parameter depending on the information cost. In particular, we want to show that an $O(I)$ information cost protocol can be simulated by two noncommunicating parties with $2^{-O(I)}$ success probability. For our purpose $I=n \varepsilon$, since information cost tensorizes with many copies. Note that if Alice and Bob managed to sample a correct transcript together, the transcript is correct with $(1-\varepsilon)^{O(n)}$ probability since each coordinates are chosen independently. We show that the zero-communication sampling lemma from [BG15] indeed gives the range of parameters that we need.

Proof of Theorem 1.2 In [BG15], one could view the "common hint" (which actually comes from the multiple copies of the game) as given by the referee to Alice and Bob via sampling some random coordinates with their answers then sending them to Alice and Bob. However, this does not fit in our framework since the referee samples the hint, not Alice and Bob. Using the Chisquared lemma, we allow Alice and Bob to jointly sample such a hint with $O(\varepsilon)$ information cost.
[BG15] shows that one can win a single copy with probability $1-O(\varepsilon)$ after running the joint sampling protocol (under some distribution $\mathcal{D}^{\prime}$ which is $O(\varepsilon)$-away in terms of divergence from the real distribution). We further show that having a strategy for such $\mathcal{D}^{\prime}$ suffices to win the original game with probability $1-O(\varepsilon)$ as well.

Chi-squared lemma Suppose Alice has access to $P_{1}$ and Bob has access to $P_{2}$ with a guarantee that there exists some common distribution $R$ such that $D\left(R \| P_{1}\right), D\left(R \| P_{2}\right)<\varepsilon$. In such a setting, if Alice samples from $P_{1}$ and tries to transmit the sample to Bob, the naive information cost would be $D\left(P_{1} \| P_{2}\right)$. This could be unbounded however due to the case where $P_{1}$ contains an element in the support that is not in the support of $P_{2}$. i.e. $D\left(P_{1} \| P_{2}\right)=\infty$. To rule out such scenario, we give Bob an ability to reject. Instead of receiving the full description or index of the sample, Bob receives a stream of hash values and rejects the stream when he "cannot understand" or in other words expects the divergence from the sample to be high. Via this rejection, Bob will not be "too surprised" about Alice's sample. But the main problem with the above simple rejection protocol is that it allows Alice to learn too much about $P_{2}$ from Bob's response. For instance, if Bob rejects a sample, then Alice learns that this sample occurs "infrequently" in $P_{2}$. In order to "confuse" Alice and prevent her from learning too much about $P_{2}$, Bob rejects a valid stream with some constant probability. This suffices to confuse Alice and learn only $O(\varepsilon)$-information about $P_{2}$.

## 2 Preliminaries

### 2.1 Information Theory

In this section, we provide background on information theory that will be used to prove main results. We remark that throughout the paper, $\log$ is of base 2 and $\ln$ is of base $e$. For further references, we refer the reader to [CT91].

Definition 2.1 (Entropy). The entropy of a random variable $A$, denoted by $H(A)$ is defined as

$$
\sum_{a \in \operatorname{Supp}(A)} \operatorname{Pr}[A=a] \log \frac{1}{\operatorname{Pr}[A=a]}
$$

Intuitively, this quantifies how much uncertainty we have about variable $A$. With the definition of entropy, we can further define the relation between various variables. For conditional entropy we have $H(A \mid B):=H(A B)-H(B)$. Then we are ready to define the relation between different random variables.

Definition 2.2 (Mutual Information). The mutual information between two random variable $A$ and $B$, denoted by $I(A ; B)$ is defined as

$$
I(A ; B):=H(A)-H(A \mid B)=H(B)-H(B \mid A) .
$$

The conditional mutual information between $A$ and $B$ given $C$, denoted by $I(A ; B \mid C)$, is defined as

$$
I(A ; B \mid C):=H(A \mid C)-H(A \mid B C)=H(B \mid C)-H(B \mid A C)
$$

This gives a measure of how much information does $B$ reveal about $A$ and vice-versa. (when one knows $C$ ) Mutual Information is further related to the following distance measure, which will be used throughout the proof.

Definition 2.3 (Kullback-Leiber Divergence). Given two probability distributions $\mu_{1}$ and $\mu_{2}$ on the same sample space $\Omega$ such that $(\forall \omega \in \Omega)\left(\mu_{2}(\omega)=0 \Rightarrow \mu_{1}(\omega)=0\right)$, the Kullback-Leibler Divergence or KL-Divergence in short between $\mu_{1}$ and $\mu_{2}$ is defined as (also known as relative entropy)

$$
D\left(\mu_{1} \| \mu_{2}\right)=\sum_{\omega \in \Omega} \mu_{1}(\omega) \log \frac{\mu_{1}(\omega)}{\mu_{2}(\omega)} .
$$

In particular, the following equality holds between KL-divergence and mutual information.
Fact 2.4. For random variables $A, B$ and $C$ we have

$$
I(A ; B \mid C)=\mathbb{E}_{b, c}\left[D\left(A_{b c} \| A_{c}\right)\right]
$$

where $A_{b c}$ is the distribution of random variable $A$ conditioned on $B=b, C=c$ and similarly for $A_{c}$.

With the definitions in place, we provide useful properties that will be used in the proof. For mutual information, following facts hold.

Fact 2.5 (Chain-rule). If $I(B ; D \mid C)=0$, then $I(A ; B \mid C) \leq I(A ; B \mid C, D)$.
Fact 2.6 (Super-Additivity of Mutual Information). Let $C_{1}, C_{2}, D, B$ be random variables such that for every fixing of $D, C_{1}$ and $C_{2}$ are independent. Then

$$
I\left(C_{1} ; B \mid D\right)+I\left(C_{2} ; B \mid D\right) \leq I\left(C_{1} C_{2} ; B \mid D\right) .
$$

For KL-divergence, we use following properties.
Fact 2.7. Let $P$ and $Q$ be distributions over a universe $\mathcal{U}$. Suppose $\mathcal{V} \subseteq \mathcal{U}$ is such that $P(\mathcal{V})=1$. Then $Q(\mathcal{V}) \geq 2^{-D(P \| Q)}$.

Note that Fact 2.7 immediately implies non-negativity of KL-divergence between any two distributions. For KL-divergence under conditioning, the following property holds.

Fact 2.8 (Additivity of KL-Divergence). Consider two distributions $P(x, y)$ and $Q(x, y)$. Then

$$
D(P(x, y) \| Q(x, y))=D(P(x) \| Q(x))+\mathbb{E}_{x \sim P} D(P(y \mid x) \| Q(y \mid x))
$$

### 2.2 Previous Work

In this section, we elaborate previous results on parallel repetition and how the state-of-the-art proof technique for parallel repetition is related to the amount of information necessary for Alice and Bob to win the game with probability greater than $(1-\varepsilon)$.

Recall that $r$-times parallel repetition of a two-prover game $\mathcal{G}$ denoted as $\mathcal{G}^{r}$ is defined as: the referee first samples $r$-tuple of edges i.e. $\vec{x}=\left(x_{1}, \ldots x_{r}\right) \in U^{r}$ and $\vec{y}=\left(y_{1}, \ldots, y_{r}\right) \in V^{r}$ with $\left(x_{i}, y_{i}\right) \in E$ for all $i \in[r]$; Alice and Bob give assignments to all $r$-coordinates say $f: U^{r} \rightarrow$ $\Sigma^{r}$ for Alice and $g: V^{r} \rightarrow \Sigma^{r}$ for Bob; then the referee checks all $r$-coordinates i.e. return $\bigwedge_{i \in[r]} \pi_{x_{i}, y_{i}}\left(f_{i}(\vec{x}), g_{i}(\vec{y})\right)$.

The first parallel repetition theorem (with exponential decay in value) was proved by Raz [Raz98]:

Theorem $2.9([\operatorname{Raz} 98])$. Let $\mathcal{G}$ be a game with $\operatorname{val}(\mathcal{G})=1-\varepsilon$ and let $s$ be the size of the alphabet $(|\Sigma|)$ of the game. Then $\operatorname{val}\left(\mathcal{G}^{n}\right) \leq\left(1-\varepsilon^{32} / 2\right)^{\Omega(n / \log (s))}$.

This was improved (and simplified) by Holenstein [Hol07]:
Theorem $2.10([\operatorname{Hol} 07])$. Let $\mathcal{G}$ be a game with $\operatorname{val}(\mathcal{G})=1-\varepsilon$ and let $\log (s)$ be the answer size of the game. Then $\operatorname{val}\left(\mathcal{G}^{n}\right) \leq\left(1-\varepsilon^{3} / 2\right)^{\Omega(n / \log (s))}$.

For projection games, $\log (s)$ no longer appears in the exponent. In particular, [Rao08] showed improved bound for projection games.

Theorem $2.11([\operatorname{Rao} 08])$. Let $\mathcal{G}$ be a projection game with $\operatorname{val}(\mathcal{G})=1-\varepsilon$. Then $\operatorname{val}\left(\mathcal{G}^{n}\right) \leq$ $\left(1-\varepsilon^{2} / 2\right)^{\Omega(n)}$.

There is an initiation of work from $\left[\mathrm{BHH}^{+} 08\right]$, [Ste10] where they study (though not explicitly stated) a quantity $\operatorname{val}_{+}(\mathcal{G})$ for unique game $\mathcal{G}$ which is an analytic relaxation of $\operatorname{val}(\mathcal{G})$ that tensorizes exactly, that is $\operatorname{val}_{+}\left(\mathcal{G}_{1} \otimes \mathcal{G}_{2}\right)=\operatorname{val}_{+}\left(\mathcal{G}_{1}\right) \cdot \operatorname{val}_{+}\left(\mathcal{G}_{2}\right)$ and captures the amortized value of the game. The analysis of val $_{+}$then resulted in analytic proof of parallel repetition for projection games. [DS14], [TWZ14]. In particular, [DS14] extended [Rao08] to low-value regime using val ${ }_{+}$.
Theorem $2.12([\mathrm{DS} 14])$. Let $\mathcal{G}$ be a projection game with $\operatorname{val}(\mathcal{G})=\beta$. Then $\operatorname{val}\left(\mathcal{G}^{n}\right) \leq(4 \beta)^{n / 4}$.
There has been more work on parallel repetition for various special settings: $\left[\mathrm{BRR}^{+} 09\right][\mathrm{RR} 12]$ [TWZ14] In particular, there also has been a series of works around parallel repetition of games with entanglement [CSUU08, KV11, DSV14, JPY14, CS14]. A recent breakthrough in [Yue16] settled a longstanding open problem on whether the value of "any" games with entanglement actually decays to zero as the number of repetition goes to infinity (at a polynomial rate). It would be interesting to see how our framework relates to games with entanglement.

Throughout this paper, we will use the machinery in the latest parallel repetition proof by [BG15] where they handled the low-value regime. It should be noted that the same proof works in the high-value regime as well, giving an alternate proof for [Hol07], [Rao08] and [DS14].
Theorem 2.13 ([BG15]). Let $\mathcal{G}$ be a game with $\operatorname{val}(\mathcal{G})=\delta$. Then $\boldsymbol{v a l}\left(\mathcal{G}^{n}\right) \leq \delta^{\Omega(n \log (1 / \delta) / \log (s))}$. Further if $\mathcal{G}$ is a projection game with $\operatorname{val}(\mathcal{G})=1-\varepsilon$, then $\operatorname{val}\left(\mathcal{G}^{n}\right) \leq\left(1-\varepsilon^{2}\right)^{\Omega(n)}$.

The main proof technique used to prove parallel repetition in [BG15] follows the following general roadmap. First one assumes that the value of the repeated game is higher than the desired bound, and focuses on the event where Alice and Bob win the whole copy. Conditioned on winning, one sets up $R$, the common hint between Alice and Bob, as a subset of question and answer pairs from other coordinates which can be individually sampled by Alice and Bob (approximately), which is the main technical innovation of [BG15]. Conditioned on successfully sampling $R$, Alice and Bob's strategy becomes a "too good to be true" strategy for some coordinate, contradicting the original assumption on the value of the game. For the purpose of having a "hint" between Alice and Bob, we mainly focus on sampling $R$, avoiding technical issues of constructing $R$ correctly via using [BG15] as a blackbox. One could view the framework in [BG15] as following explicit model in Protocol 1. Protocol 1 is indeed not a protocol between Alice and Bob, since the referee samples the hint. Converting this to a protocol between Alice and Bob is our main technical contribution.

For the sake of completeness, we describe how the common hint $R$ is constructed below.
Precise construction of $R$ in [BG15] They explicitly construct a "combinatorial" hint $R_{S, G, H, I}$ in a following manner which we restate for completeness. Let $n$ be the number of repetitions, that is the number of coordinates for the game. Then let $S, G, H$ be random subsets of $[n]$ distributed as follows: Let $s_{h}$ and $s_{g}$ be random numbers from $\{3 n / 4+1, \ldots, n\}$. Let $\sigma:[n] \rightarrow[n]$ be a uniformly random permutation. Set $H=\sigma\left(\left[s_{h}\right]\right), G=\sigma\left(\left\{n-s_{g}+1, \ldots, n\right\}\right)$. Let $I$ be a uniformly random

1. Referee picks a random edge $(x, y) \in E$ as a challenge. Referee then samples $r$ from $R_{x y}$ then transmits $r$ to Alice and Bob
2. Alice, depending on $r$ and $x$ provides an assignment $a$. Bob analogously answers $b$ depending on $r$ and $y$.
3. Referee accepts if $a$ and $b$ forms a satisfying assignment for $(x, y)$.

## Protocol 1: Non-Protocol Hint

element of $G \cap H$. Let $l$ be a random number from $[T]$, where $T<n / 2$ is a parameter. Let $S$ be a uniformly random subset of $G \cap H \backslash\{I\}$ of size $l$. Then define $R_{S, G, H, I}$ to denote the random variable $X_{G \backslash\{I\}} Y_{H \backslash\{I\}} A_{S} B_{S}$ where $s, g, h, i$ denote instantiations of the random variables $S, G, H, I$ respectively with $A_{S}$ denoted Alice's assignment on $S$-coordinates and respectively for $B_{S}$. Then Alice can be thought of getting $X_{[n]}$ and $R_{S, G, H, I}$, while Bob gets $Y_{[n]}$ and $R_{S, G, H, I}$ where the input $(x, y)$ is set to $\left(X_{I}, Y_{I}\right)$.

### 2.3 Definitions

Recall that the Information Cost of a protocol is defined as $I(\Pi ; X \mid Y)+I(\Pi ; Y \mid X)$ where $\Pi$ is the transcript of the protocol, $X$ and $Y$ are inputs for Alice and Bob respectively. Information Complexity of computing $f$ is then defined as infimum over $\Pi$ that computes $f$. Inspired by the definitions from information complexity literature, we define information value of the game as following.

Definition 2.14. The information value of the game $\mathcal{G}=(X, Y, E)$ with distribution $\mathcal{D}$ over $E$ is

$$
\mathbf{I V}_{\mathcal{D}}^{\varepsilon}(\mathcal{G}):=\inf _{\Pi}[I(\Pi ; X \mid Y)+I(\Pi ; Y \mid X)]
$$

where the infimum is taken over the set of transcripts $\Pi$ between Alice and Bob which wins $\mathcal{G}$ with probability at least $(1-\varepsilon)$ with $\varepsilon<1 / 2 . X$ and $Y$ represents Alice and Bob's input respectively.

We remark that if $\mathcal{D}$ is not specified, we assume the distribution to be the uniform distribution over the challenges/edges.

As a straightforward exercise, note that $I(\Pi ; X \mid Y) \leq H(X \mid Y) \leq H(X) \leq \log n$ where $n$ is the number of vertices in the graph, similarly for $I(\Pi ; Y \mid X)$. Thus for any game $\mathcal{G}$ and $\varepsilon \geq 0$, $\mathbf{I V}_{\mathcal{D}}^{\varepsilon}(\mathcal{G}) \leq O(\log n)$. Thereby, this quantity is strictly bounded. Better bound holds for $d$-regular graphs since $H(X \mid Y) \leq \log d$ for regular graphs, similarly for $H(Y \mid X)$. Any better bounds however, requires lower bound on $H(X \mid \Pi, Y)$.

## 3 Main Result

First we state the main technical lemma (Chi-Squared lemma) used in proving the main theorem.
Lemma 3.1 (Chi-Squared lemma). Suppose Alice has access to a distribution $P$ and Bob has access to a distribution $Q$ over $\mathcal{U}$. Suppose further that there exists a common distribution $R$ such that $D(R \| P)<\varepsilon$ and $D(R \| Q)<\varepsilon$. If $\varepsilon<1 / 50$, then there exists a protocol $\Pi$ that outputs a sample from $\tilde{P}$ with information cost $\gamma \varepsilon$ with $D(R \| \tilde{P})<O(\varepsilon)$ for some constant $\gamma>0$.

Due to space constraints, we append the full proof in Section A. To see why this lemma is interesting, note that the naive information cost is $D(P \| Q)$ which could be infinite in some cases. Technically speaking, the triangle inequality does not hold for divergence. Applying Pinsker's Inequality to have triangle inequality (in total variation distance) leads to a square loss, resulting in information cost $O(\sqrt{\varepsilon})$, instead of $O(\varepsilon)$. We suspect that there are more applications to this technical lemma. The lemma leads to the following theorem.

Theorem 3.2. Let $\varepsilon<1 / 2$. If $\operatorname{val}\left(\mathcal{G}^{n}\right) \geq(1-\varepsilon)^{n}=2^{-\Omega(\varepsilon n)}$ and $\mathcal{G}$ is a projection game, then there exists constants $\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}>0$ such that $\mathbf{I V}^{\alpha_{1} \varepsilon}(\mathcal{G})<\alpha_{2} \varepsilon$.

The main intuition of the proof of Theorem 3.2 is to use the common hint used for dependency breaking step of the parallel repetition, which are answers and questions in the other coordinates, as hints between Alice and Bob. However, the hints are not exactly adequate for our application, since they are sampled by the referee. We use Lemma 3.1 to convert it to a low information cost protocol.

We also show that the converse of Theorem 3.2.
Theorem 3.3. If $\mathbf{I} \mathbf{V}^{\varepsilon}(\mathcal{G})<\varepsilon$ and $\varepsilon<1 / 2$, then $\operatorname{val}\left(\mathcal{G}^{n}\right) \geq 2^{-\Omega(\varepsilon n)}=(1-\varepsilon)^{\Omega(n)}$ with $n>1 / \varepsilon$.
The main intuition to Theorem 3.3 is converting a low information cost protocol (for our application $O(n \varepsilon))$ to a zero-communication protocol as seen in $\left[\mathrm{KLL}^{+} 12\right]$. However, the main theorem from $\left[\mathrm{KLL}^{+} 12\right]$ does not suffice for our application. Instead, we use a lemma from [BG15].

As a corollary, we get a complete description of projection games that obey strong parallel repetition in terms of information value of the game.

Corollary 3.4. If $\mathbf{I V}^{\varepsilon}(\mathcal{G})>\varepsilon$, then $\operatorname{val}\left(\mathcal{G}^{n}\right)<(1-\varepsilon)^{O(n)}$ and vice versa where $\mathcal{G}$ is a projection game.

Applying previous parallel repetition result, we indeed get a non-trivial lower bound on the information value of any projection game via [DS14] and [Rao08].

Corollary 3.5. For any projection game $\mathcal{G}$ with $\operatorname{val}(\mathcal{G}) \leq 1-\varepsilon, \mathbf{I V}^{O\left(\varepsilon^{2}\right)}(\mathcal{G})>\Omega\left(\varepsilon^{2}\right)$.

### 3.1 Proof of Theorem 3.2

In this section, we prove Theorem 3.2 via Chi-squared Lemma (Lemma 3.1). Recall that $R_{s, g, h, i}$ defined in Section 2.2 is a set of challenges and answers on a random set of coordinates. Set $T=n / 4$ as the parameter for $R_{s, g, h, i}$. Then we get the following key lemma from [BG15].

Lemma 3.6 (Lemma 5.6 of [BG15]). Suppose $2^{-20} \geq \operatorname{Pr}[W] \geq(1-\varepsilon)^{n}$. Then there exists a fixing of $s, g, h, i$ such that:

1. $\mathbb{E}_{x, y \sim \mu} D\left(P_{R_{s, g, h, i} \mid X_{i}=x, Y_{i}=y, W}| | P_{R_{s, g, h, i} \mid X_{i}=x, W}\right) \leq O(\varepsilon)$.
2. $\mathbb{E}_{x, y \sim \mu} D\left(P_{R_{s, g, h, i} \mid X_{i}=x, Y_{i}=y, W}| | P_{R_{s, g, k, i} \mid Y_{i}=y, W}\right) \leq O(\varepsilon)$.
3. $D\left(\mu \| P_{X_{i} Y_{i}}\right) \leq O(\varepsilon)$.
4. $\mathbb{E}_{x, y \sim \mu} \mathbb{E}_{r \sim R_{s, g, h, i} \mid X_{i}=x, Y_{i}=y, W}$
$D\left(P_{A_{i}, B_{i} \mid X_{i}=x, Y_{i}=y, R_{s, g, h, i}=r, W}| | P_{A_{i} \mid X_{i}=x, R_{s, g, h, i}=r, W} \otimes P_{B_{i} \mid Y_{i}=y, R_{s, g, h, i}=r}\right) \leq O(\varepsilon)$.
where $\mu$ denotes the distribution $P_{X_{i}, Y_{i} \mid W}$ and $P_{X}$ stands for the probability distribution of random variable $X$.

We omit the proof
Remark 3.7. The last property does not suffice for our application, since we do not get $r \sim$ $R_{s, g, h, i} \mid X_{i}=x, Y_{i}=y, W$ but a distribution that is $O(\varepsilon)$-away from it in divergence at the end of the protocol given by the Chi-squared lemma which we denote as $\tilde{R}_{s, g, h, i} \mid X_{i}=x, Y_{i}=y, W$. However, we remark that the same proof in [BG15] indeed gives the property that we want. That is

$$
\begin{align*}
& \mathbb{E}_{x, y \sim P_{X_{i}, Y_{i} \mid W}} \mathbb{E}_{r \sim \tilde{R}_{s, g, h, i} \mid X_{i}=x, Y_{i}=y, W} \\
& D\left(P_{A_{i}, B_{i} \mid X_{i}=x, Y_{i}=y, R_{s, g, h, i}=r, W}| | P_{A_{i} \mid X_{i}=x, R_{s, g, h, i}=r, W} \otimes P_{B_{i} \mid Y_{i}=y, R_{s, g, h, i}=r}\right) \leq O(\varepsilon) . \tag{1}
\end{align*}
$$

In particular, note that the distribution of $s, g, h, i$ and the permutation remain the same since Alice and Bob can agree (via public randomness prior to running the protocol) on them prior to sampling the actual question and answer sets (by Alice) This suffices for the proof in [BG15], specifically Lemma 5.2 and Lemma 5.5.

We also need the following lemma to translate a strategy on $X_{i}, Y_{i} \mid W$ to a strategy on actual distribution $X_{i}, Y_{i}$. Due to space constraints, we attach the proof in Section B.

Lemma 3.8. Suppose $\mathcal{G}$ with $\mu$ as the distribution over the edges achieves $\operatorname{val}(\mathcal{G})=1-\varepsilon$. Then consider $\tilde{\mu}$ such that $D(\mu \| \tilde{\mu})<\varepsilon$. Then $\mathcal{G}$ with $\tilde{\mu}$ as distribution over the edges has value $>1-O(\varepsilon)$.

Now we have all the necessary lemmas to prove Theorem 3.2.
Proof of Theorem 3.2. First we construct a low information protocol that wins $\mathcal{G}$ with probability $1-O(\varepsilon)$ under $\mu$.

We write $P_{R_{s, g, h, i} \mid X_{i}=x, Y_{i}=y, W}$ in the above as $R_{x, y}$ and $P_{R_{s, g, b, i} \mid X_{i}=x, W}, P_{R_{s, g, b, i} \mid Y_{i}=y, W}$ respectively as $P_{x}, Q_{y}$. Consider $\mathcal{S} \subset E$ that satisfies all

- $D\left(R_{x, y} \| P_{x}\right) \leq \frac{1}{10 \gamma}$.
- $D\left(R_{x, y} \| Q_{y}\right) \leq \frac{1}{10 \gamma}$.
where $\gamma$ is the constant from the Chi-Squared Lemma. Then note that $\mu(\mathcal{S})>1-O(\gamma \varepsilon)=1-O(\varepsilon)$ by Markov's inequality. Focus pairs in $\mathcal{S}$. Now applying the protocol given by the Chi-Squared Lemma to pairs in $\mathcal{S}$, we obtain a protocol that samples $r \sim \tilde{R}_{s, g, h, i} \mid X_{i}=x, Y_{i}=y, W$ with information cost at most

$$
\mathbb{E}_{x, y \sim \mathcal{S}_{X_{i}, Y_{i} \mid W}}\left[D\left(R_{x, y} \| P_{x}\right)+D\left(R_{x, y} \| Q_{y}\right)\right]<O(\varepsilon)
$$

where $\mathcal{S}_{X_{i}, Y_{i} \mid W}$ is the distribution over the edges further conditioned on $\mathcal{S}$.
Since $\mathcal{S}$ contributes $1-O(\varepsilon)$-fraction, (1) implies

$$
\left.\begin{array}{l}
\mathbb{E}_{x, y \sim \mathcal{S}_{X_{i}, Y_{i} \mid W}} \mathbb{E}_{P_{\tilde{R}_{s, g, b, i}, X_{i}=x, Y_{i}=y \mid W}} \\
D\left(P_{A_{i}, B_{i} \mid X_{i}=x, Y_{i}=y, R_{s, g, h, i}=r, W} \| P_{A_{i} \mid X_{i}=x, R_{s, g, h, i}=r, W} \otimes P_{B_{i} \mid Y_{i}=y, R_{s, g}, h, i}=r\right. \tag{2}
\end{array}\right) \leq O(\varepsilon)
$$

At the end of the protocol, Alice and Bob obtain same $r \sim \tilde{R}_{s, g, h, i} \mid X_{i}=x, Y_{i}=y, W$. We now construct an explicit answering strategy for Alice and Bob dependent on $r$ when they get edges distributed according to $\mathcal{S}_{X_{i}, Y_{i} \mid W}$. Ideally Alice and Bob would like to answer according
to $P_{A_{i}, B_{i} \mid X_{i}=x, Y_{i}=y, \tilde{R}_{s, g, h, i}=r, W}$. This would indeed succeed with probability 1. In other words, if we define $\mathcal{G}_{x, y}=\{(a, b) \mid V(x, y, a, b)=1\}, P_{A_{i}, B_{i} \mid X_{i}=x, Y_{i}=y, \tilde{R}_{s, g, k, i}=r, W}\left(\mathcal{G}_{x, y}\right)=1$ for all $(x, y) \in \mathcal{S}$. However, this is not a valid strategy. There is correlation between $A_{i}$ and $B_{i}$, while for any valid strategy they should be independent given respective input.

Instead, they answer according to $P_{A_{i} \mid X_{i}=x, \tilde{R}_{s, g, h, i}=r, W} \otimes P_{B_{i} \mid Y_{i}=y, \tilde{R}_{s, g, k, i}=r}$. Now, we analyze $P_{A_{i} \mid X_{i}=x, \tilde{R}_{s, g, h, i}=r, W} \otimes P_{B_{i} \mid Y_{i}=y, \tilde{R}_{s, g, h, i}=r}\left(\mathcal{G}_{x, y}\right)$ i.e. the value of such strategy. Applying Fact 2.7,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& P_{A_{i} \mid X_{i}=x, \tilde{R}_{s, g}, h, i}=r, W \\
& \left.\geq 2^{-D\left(P_{A_{i}, B_{i}\left|X_{i}=x, Y_{i}=y, R_{s, g}\right|, i, i}=r, W| | P_{A_{i} \mid X_{i}=x, R_{s, g}, h, i}=r, W\right.} P_{B_{i} \mid Y_{i}=y, \tilde{R}_{s, g}=P_{B_{i} \mid Y_{i}=y, R_{s, g}, h, i}=r}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

By the convexity of $2^{-x}$ along with (2), we get the desired bound

$$
\mathbb{E}_{x, y \sim \mathcal{S}_{X_{i}, Y_{i} \mid W}}\left[P_{A_{i} \mid X_{i}=x, \tilde{R}_{s, g, h, i}=r, W} \otimes P_{B_{i} \mid Y_{i}=y, \tilde{R}_{s, g, h, i}=r}\left(\mathcal{G}_{x, y}\right)\right] \geq 2^{-O(\varepsilon)}=1-O(\varepsilon)
$$

Since $\mathcal{S}$ contributes $1-O(\varepsilon)$-fraction on $\mu$, this strategy wins with $1-O(\varepsilon)$ probability when the edges are distributed according to $\mu=P_{X_{i}, Y_{i} \mid W}$ as well. Finally, applying Lemma 3.8 to this strategy with $D\left(P_{X_{i} Y_{i} \mid W} \| P_{X_{i} Y_{i}}\right) \leq O(\varepsilon)$, we get the desired claim.

### 3.2 Proof of Theorem 3.3

In this section, we give a formal proof of Theorem 3.3. This involves converting a protocol (between Alice and Bob) with $O(n \varepsilon)$-information cost to a zero-communication protocol with success probability $2^{-O(n \varepsilon)}$. We start by stating the following lemma.

Lemma 3.9. Suppose Alice has access to distribution $P$ and Bob has access to distribution $Q$ over the universe $\mathcal{U}$. They wish to jointly sample from $R$ where $D(R \| P)<\delta$ and $D(R \| Q)<\delta$. If $\delta>1$, then there exists a zero-communication protocol such that

1. There exists an event $E$ such that $\operatorname{Pr}[E]>2^{-\Omega(\delta)}$ and $\operatorname{Pr}\left[\pi_{a}=\pi_{b} \mid E\right]=1$, where $\pi_{a}$ and $\pi_{b}$ refers to the final output of Alice and Bob respectively. Furthermore, E only depends on the public randomness.
2. Given $E$, consider the set of outputs of $\pi$, denoted as $\mathcal{S}$. Then $\mathcal{S} \subseteq \operatorname{Supp}(R)$

Claim 3.10. Let $W$ be a subset of universe $\mathcal{U}$. Let $A$ and $B$ be $a$ distribution and $A_{W}$ be a distribution of $A$ conditioned on picking an element from $W$. Then if $A(W)>\Omega(D(A \| B))$, then

$$
D\left(A_{W} \| B\right)<\log (1 / A(W))+\frac{D(A \| B)}{A(W)}+O\left(\frac{1-A(W)}{A(W)}\right)
$$

where $A(W)$ corresponds to the probability of picking an element from $W$ under $A$.
Proof of Lemma 3.9 and Claim 3.10 are appended in Section B. Now, we are ready to prove the main lemma of this section which implies Theorem 3.3.

Lemma 3.11. If $\mathbf{I V}^{\varepsilon}(\mathcal{G})<\varepsilon$, then there exists a zero-communication protocol that achieves $\operatorname{val}\left(\mathcal{G}^{n}\right)>2^{-\Omega(\varepsilon n)}$ where $n>1 / \varepsilon$.

Proof. Note that under this model, Alice's strategy and Bob's strategy are dependent on the transcript $\pi_{x, y}$ as well, instead of just their input in zero-communication model. We denote $\Pi_{x, y}$ as the distribution over the transcript that Alice and Bob will have when they are given input $x$ and $y$ respectively. Now Alice and Bob will try to imitate each other by simulating the other party in zero-communication setting. Let $\Pi_{x}, \Pi_{y}$ denote the simulated transcript with input $x$ and $y$ respectively. More precisely, $\Pi_{x}:=\mathbb{E}_{y \sim \mu \mid x} \Pi_{x, y}$ and $\Pi_{y}:=\mathbb{E}_{x \sim \mu \mid y} \Pi_{x, y}$. Further, we introduce the notation $\Pi_{x, y}^{W}:=\Pi_{x, y} \mid W$, the distribution of $\Pi_{x, y}$ conditioned on referee accepting what Alice and Bob returns as their answer at the end of the protocol.

Note that from our assumption on the information cost of the protocol, we get the following

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbb{E}_{\left(x_{i}, y_{i}\right) \sim \mu}\left[D\left(\Pi_{x_{i} y_{i}} \| \Pi_{x_{i}}\right)\right]=\mathbb{E}_{\left(x_{i}, y_{i}\right) \sim \mu}\left[\mathbb{E}_{\Pi_{x_{i} y_{i}}}\left[\log \frac{\operatorname{Pr}_{\Pi_{x_{i} y_{i}}}[\pi]}{\operatorname{Pr}_{\Pi_{x_{i}}}[\pi]}\right]\right]<\varepsilon \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

The same inequality holds for Bob's side $\left(D\left(\Pi_{x_{i} y_{i}} \| \Pi_{y_{i}}\right)\right)$ as well. First we define "good" edges. We say $\pi$ is a good transcript if the referee accepts what Alice and Bob return after following the transcript $\pi .{ }^{1}$ Then edge $\left(x_{i}, y_{i}\right)$ is good if it satisfies both

- $A_{x_{i} y_{i}}(W):=\operatorname{Pr}_{\pi \sim \Pi_{x_{i} y_{i}}}[\pi$ is a good transcript $]>1 / 2$ (i.e. most sampled transcripts are good);
- $D\left(\Pi_{x_{i} y_{i}} \| \Pi_{x_{i}}\right)<1 / 2$.

We argue that most of the edges are good. Due to our assumption on the value of the game that is,

$$
\operatorname{val}(\mathcal{G})=\mathbb{E}_{\left(x_{i}, y_{i}\right) \sim \mu}\left[A_{x_{i} y_{i}}(W)\right]>1-\varepsilon,
$$

at most $2 \varepsilon$-fraction of $\left(x_{i}, y_{i}\right)$ 's does not satisfy the first condition. Also due to our divergence condition that is,

$$
\mathbb{E}_{\left(x_{i}, y_{i}\right) \sim \mu}\left[D\left(\Pi_{x_{i} y_{i}} \mid \| \Pi_{x_{i}}\right)\right]<\varepsilon
$$

at most $2 \varepsilon$-fraction of the edges violate the second condition. Thus all but at most $4 \varepsilon$-fraction of the edges are good. Then we can write

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbb{E}_{x_{i} y_{i} \sim \tilde{\mu}}\left[D\left(\Pi_{x_{i} y_{i}} \| \Pi_{x_{i}}\right)\right]<O(\varepsilon) \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\tilde{\mu}$ corresponds to $\mu$ conditioned on picking an edge that is good. Also note that without loss of generality, in such regime, one can assume that $1-A_{x_{i} y_{i}}(W)>\Omega\left(D\left(\Pi_{x_{i} y_{i}} \mid \Pi_{x_{i}}\right)\right)$ for all the edges. For edges that do not satisfy such condition, i.e. $1-A_{x_{i} y_{i}}(W)<O\left(D\left(\Pi_{x_{i} y_{i}} \| \Pi_{x_{i}}\right)\right)$, the referee can randomly reject with probability $O\left(D\left(\Pi_{x_{i} y_{i}} \| \Pi_{x_{i}}\right)\right)$ to satisfy $1-A_{x_{i} y_{i}}(W)>\Omega\left(D\left(\Pi_{x_{i} y_{i}} \| \Pi_{x_{i}}\right)\right)$. Indeed it will add up the rejection probability, but by at most $D\left(\Pi_{x_{i} y_{i}}| | \Pi_{x_{i}}\right)$ which indeed is good enough for application in our regime, since it is in expectation at most $O(\varepsilon)$. If $\left(x_{i}, y_{i}\right)$ is indeed a good edge, applying Claim 3.10,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& D\left(\Pi_{x_{i} y_{i}}^{W} \| \Pi_{x_{i}}\right)<\log \left(1 / A_{x_{i} y_{i}}(W)\right)+\frac{D\left(\Pi_{x_{i} y_{i}} \| \Pi_{x_{i}}\right)}{A_{x_{i} y_{i}}(W)}+O\left(\frac{1-A_{x_{i} y_{i}}(W)}{A_{x_{i} y_{i}}(W)}\right) \\
& \quad<\log \left(1 / A_{x_{i} y_{i}}(W)\right)+2 D\left(\Pi_{x_{i} y_{i}} \| \Pi_{x_{i}}\right)+O\left(\frac{1-A_{x_{i} y_{i}}(W)}{A_{x_{i} y_{i}}(W)}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

[^1]where the second inequality holds since $A_{x_{i} y_{i}}(W)>1 / 2, D\left(\Pi_{x_{i} y_{i}} \| \Pi_{x_{i}}\right)<1$, and our assumption that $1-A_{x_{i} y_{i}}(W)>\Omega\left(D\left(\Pi_{x_{i} y_{i}} \mid \Pi_{x_{i}}\right)\right)$ for all edges. Then
\[

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{E}_{\tilde{\mu}}\left[D\left(\Pi_{x_{i} y_{i}}^{W} \| \Pi_{x_{i}}\right)\right] & <\mathbb{E}_{\tilde{\mu}}\left[\log \left(1 / A_{x_{i} y_{i}}(W)\right)\right]+2 \mathbb{E}_{\tilde{\mu}}\left[D\left(\Pi_{x_{i} y_{i}} \| \Pi_{x_{i}}\right)\right]+\mathbb{E}_{\tilde{\mu}}\left[O\left(\frac{1-A_{x_{i} y_{i}}(W)}{A_{x_{i} y_{i}}(W)}\right)\right] \\
& <O(\varepsilon)+O(\varepsilon)+O(\varepsilon)<O(\varepsilon)
\end{aligned}
$$
\]

where the second inequality holds by Jensen's inequality on $\log$ and since $\varepsilon$ is small enough.
Now consider taking $n$-copies of the game. In particular, we focus on $(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) \sim \tilde{\mu}^{\otimes n}$, that is all edges are "good" edges. Then observe that

$$
\mathbb{E}_{(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) \sim \tilde{\mu}^{\otimes n}}\left[D\left(\bigotimes_{i \in[n]} \Pi_{x_{i} y_{i}}^{W} \| \bigotimes_{i \in[n]} \Pi_{x_{i}}\right)\right]=\mathbb{E}_{(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) \sim \tilde{\mu} \otimes n}\left[\sum_{i \in[n]} D\left(\Pi_{x_{i} y_{i}}^{W} \| \Pi_{x_{i}}\right)\right]<O(n \varepsilon)
$$

For a randomly picked $(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) \sim \tilde{\mu}^{\otimes n}$, the divergence in consideration is indeed low with high probability by Markov. That is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\underset{\left(\underset{\vec{x}, \vec{y})}{ } \operatorname{Pr}_{[i \in[n]} D\left(\Pi_{x_{i} y_{i}}^{W} \| \Pi_{x_{i}}\right)>\alpha n \varepsilon\right] \leq O(1 / \alpha), ~(1)}{ } \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Similarly, we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Pr}_{(\vec{x}, \vec{y})}\left[\sum_{i \in[n]} D\left(\Pi_{x_{i} y_{i}}^{W} \mid \Pi_{y_{i}}\right)>\alpha n \varepsilon\right] \leq O(1 / \alpha) \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now, we consider the particular set of vectors $(\vec{x}, \vec{y})$ that satisfy

- $\forall i \in[n],\left(x_{i}, y_{i}\right)$ is a "good" edge.
- $D\left(\Pi_{\vec{x}, \vec{y}}^{W} \| \Pi_{\vec{x}}\right)=\sum_{i \in[n]} D\left(\Pi_{x_{i} y_{i}}^{W} \| \Pi_{x_{i}}\right) \leq K n \varepsilon$ and $D\left(\Pi_{\vec{x}, \vec{y}}^{W} \| \Pi_{\vec{y}}\right)=\sum_{i \in[n]} D\left(\Pi_{x_{i} y_{i}}^{W} \| \Pi_{y_{i}}\right) \leq K n \varepsilon$
which we denote as "good" vectors.
If $(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) \sim \mathcal{U}^{\otimes n}$, since $\left(x_{i}, y_{i}\right)$ is good with probability at least $(1-2 \varepsilon)$, all the coordinates are good with at least $(1-2 \varepsilon)^{n}$ probability. If all the coordinates are good, by (5) and (6) and picking appropriately large $K, \Omega(1)$-fraction of such edges satisfy the second condition as well. In total, $2^{-\Omega(\varepsilon n)}$-fraction of edges satisfies both conditions, since we assume $n>1 / \varepsilon$.

Now we apply Lemma 3.9 to "good" vectors to complete the proof. In particular, Lemma 3.9 gives a zero-communication sampling protocol for transcript where Alice and Bob gets a matching transcript from Supp $\left(\Pi_{\vec{x}, \vec{y}}^{W}\right)$ with probability at least $2^{-O(\varepsilon n)}$. Thus for $2^{-O(\varepsilon n)}$-fraction of the edges, we get a zero-communication strategy that wins with probability at least $2^{-O(\varepsilon n)}$, thus $\operatorname{val}\left(\mathcal{G}^{n}\right)>2^{-O(\varepsilon n)}$.

## 4 Acknowledgment

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## A Proof of Chi-Squared Lemma (Lemma 3.1)

In this section, we prove the main technical component towards proving Theorem 3.2. Define $\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{Q} \subset \mathcal{U} \times[0,1]$ as set of points with $a<P(x)$ and $a<Q(x)$ respectively. $k \cdot \mathcal{P}$ as a set of points with $a<k \cdot P(x)$ and similarly for $Q$.

First, we modify low information protocol for equality as in [Bra12] to low information protocol for transmitting a dart $d_{i}=\left(u_{i}, p_{i}\right)$ from Alice to Bob by transmitting the index $i$. This protocol will be used for Alice and Bob to jointly sample an element from $u \in \mathcal{U}$ while revealing low information if joint sampling fails.

1. Alice and Bob share a collection of hash functions $p_{r}:[6|\mathcal{U}|] \rightarrow\{0,1\}$ via public randomness with the following property : if $i \neq j$, then $\operatorname{Pr}\left[p_{r}(i)=p_{r}(j)\right]=1 / 2$.
2. Alice transmits $p_{r}(i)$ to Bob.
3. If no dart in $2 \mathcal{Q}$ matches $\left(p_{1}(i), \ldots, p_{r}(i)\right)$, Bob halts the protocol and rejects $d_{i}$. Otherwise increment $r$ and repeat.

Protocol 2: Sub-Protocol for transmitting a single dart ( $u_{i}, p_{i}$ )
Note that if $d_{i} \in 2 \mathcal{Q}$, indeed the protocol runs for $O(\log |\mathcal{U}|)$ rounds, exchanging $O(\log |\mathcal{U}|)$ bits. If $d_{i} \notin 2 \mathcal{Q}$, we show that the expected number of rounds and therefore the information cost is $O(1)$.

Proposition A.1. If $d_{i} \notin 2 \mathcal{Q}$, the information cost for Protocol 2 is $O(1)$.
Proof. Let $T$ denote the number of darts in $2 \mathcal{Q}$. And let $R$ denote the randomness over the hash functions. Observe that the protocol runs as long as $\left(p_{1}(i), \ldots p_{r}(i)\right)$ matches one of these darts. And for each dart, the probability of matching until $r$-th round is exactly $2^{-r}$. Therefore, we can bound the information cost as

$$
T \cdot \mathbb{E}_{R}\left[\sum_{r} p_{r} \log \frac{1}{p_{r}}\right] \leq T \cdot \sum_{r} \frac{r}{2^{r}}=O(T)
$$

Now note that $\mathbb{E}[T]=O(1)$. Over uniform distribution on $\mathcal{U} \times[0,1]$, if one picks $6|\mathcal{U}|$ darts, there are 12 darts in $2 \mathcal{Q}$ in expectation which completes the proof.

Now we are ready to describe the full protocol with an information cost possibly lower than the divergence.

## A. 1 Bounded Case

Lemma A.2. If there exists some "common distribution" $R$ such that $D(R \| P)<\varepsilon$ and $D(R \| Q)<$ $\varepsilon$ and $P(u)<8 Q(u)$ for all $u \in \mathcal{U}$ then $D(P \| Q)<O(\varepsilon)$.

Proof. We prove by showing

$$
\sum_{u \in \mathcal{U}} \frac{(P(u)-Q(u))^{2}}{Q(u)}<O(\varepsilon)
$$

since as in [BM15],

$$
\frac{1}{2 \ln 2} \sum_{u \in \mathcal{U}} \frac{(P(u)-Q(u))^{2}}{\max \{P(u), Q(u)\}} \leq D(P \| Q) \leq \frac{1}{\ln 2} \sum_{u \in \mathcal{U}} \frac{(P(u)-Q(u))^{2}}{Q(u)} .
$$

1. Alice and Bob share "darts" via public randomness $d_{i}=\left(u_{i}, p_{i}\right) \in \mathcal{U} \times[0,1]$ distributed uniformly at random with $i \in[6|\mathcal{U}|]$.
2. Consider $d_{i}=\left(u_{i}, p_{i}\right)$ such that $P\left(u_{i}\right)>p_{i}$.
3. Alice lists $d_{i}$ 's and pick each $d_{i}$ with probability $\left(1-p_{i} / P\left(u_{i}\right)\right)^{2}$, and tries to send the index of each dart via Protocol 2.
4. Bob tosses a coin. If head, Bob enters a "normal" mode, where Bob rejects once there is no consistent sample left. Otherwise, Bob enters a "difficult mode" where Bob rejects even when there is only one sample left.
5. If multiple samples remain, Bob picks a random dart sent by Alice that survived, and sends it to Alice.

Protocol 3: Low Information Sampling without paying full divergence
for any distribution $P$ and $Q$.
Now, our assumption on $D(R \| P)$ implies that

$$
\varepsilon>D(R \| P) \geq \frac{1}{2 \ln 2} \sum_{u \in \mathcal{U}} \frac{(P(u)-R(u))^{2}}{\max \{R(u), P(u)\}} .
$$

For $D(R \| Q)$ term, we analogously get

$$
\sum_{u \in \mathcal{U}} \frac{(Q(u)-R(u))^{2}}{\max \{Q(u), R(u)\}}=O(\varepsilon)
$$

Note that our assumption on $P(u)<8 Q(u)$ gives

$$
\frac{1}{\max \{R(u), 8 Q(u)\}}<\frac{1}{\max \{R(u), P(u)\}}
$$

Also note that

$$
(a-b)^{2} \leq 2(a-c)^{2}+2(b-c)^{2} .
$$

Directly combining gives

$$
\begin{aligned}
& O(\varepsilon)>\sum_{u \in \mathcal{U}} \frac{2(P(u)-R(u))^{2}}{\max \{R(u), 8 Q(u)\}}+\frac{2(Q(u)-R(u))^{2}}{\max \{R(u), Q(u)\}} \\
& \geq \sum_{u \in \mathcal{U}} \frac{2(P(u)-R(u))^{2}+2(Q(u)-R(u))^{2}}{\max \{R(u), 8 Q(u)\}} \geq \sum_{u \in \mathcal{U}} \frac{(P(u)-Q(u))^{2}}{\max \{R(u), 8 Q(u)\}} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Now we divide into two cases, where $R(u) \leq 8 Q(u)$ and $R(u)>8 Q(u)$, and show that for each of these cases $(P(u)-Q(u))^{2} / Q(u)$ is either upper bounded by $O\left(\frac{(P(u)-Q(u))^{2}}{\max \{R(u), 8 Q(u)\}}\right)$ or $O\left(\frac{(Q(u)-R(u))^{2}}{\max \{Q(u), R(u)\}}\right)$. If $R(u) \leq 8 Q(u)$, indeed we have the term as

$$
\frac{(P(u)-Q(u))^{2}}{8 Q(u)}
$$

thereby upper bounding $(P(u)-Q(u))^{2} / Q(u)$ upto some constant factor.

If $R(u)>8 Q(u)$, first note that for any $u \in \mathcal{U}$, by our assumption $P(u)<8 Q(u)$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{(P(u)-Q(u))^{2}}{Q(u)} \leq \frac{\max \left\{P(u)^{2}, Q(u)^{2}\right\}}{Q(u)} \leq 8^{2} Q(u) \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since we have further condition $R(u)>8 Q(u)$, we get

$$
(Q(u)-R(u))^{2} \geq \frac{R(u)^{2}}{8^{2}}
$$

So the term is of the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{(Q(u)-R(u))^{2}}{R(u)} \geq \frac{R(u)}{8^{2}}>\frac{Q(u)}{8} \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus combining (7) and (8), we again get

$$
\frac{(P(u)-Q(u))^{2}}{Q(u)} \leq \frac{8^{3}(R(u)-Q(u))^{2}}{R(u)}=\frac{8^{3}(Q(u)-R(u))^{2}}{\max \{Q(u), R(u)\}}
$$

Combining these two cases, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \sum_{u \in \mathcal{U}} \frac{(P(u)-Q(u))^{2}}{Q(u)}=\sum_{u: R(u)>8 Q(u)} \frac{(P(u)-Q(u))^{2}}{Q(u)}+\sum_{u: R(u) \leq 8 Q(u)} \frac{(P(u)-Q(u))^{2}}{Q(u)} \\
& \leq O\left(\sum_{u: R(u)>8 Q(u)} \frac{(Q(u)-R(u))^{2}}{\max \{Q(u), R(u)\}}\right)+O\left(\sum_{u: R(u) \leq 8 Q(u)} \frac{(P(u)-Q(u))^{2}}{\max \{R(u), 8 Q(u)\}}\right) \\
& \leq O(\varepsilon)+O(\varepsilon)=O(\varepsilon)
\end{aligned}
$$

where the last inequality follows from upper bounds on the cases $R(u) \leq 8 Q(u)$ and $R(u)>$ $8 Q(u)$.

## A. 2 General Case

We start by proving necessary claims for the full proof.
Claim A.3. If $D(R \| P)<\varepsilon$ and $D(R \| Q)<\varepsilon$ then

$$
\sum_{u \in \mathcal{U}} \frac{(P(u)-Q(u))^{2}}{\max \{P(u), Q(u)\}}=\sum_{u: P(u)<Q(u)} \frac{(P(u)-Q(u))^{2}}{Q(u)}+\sum_{u: P(u)>Q(u)} \frac{(P(u)-Q(u))^{2}}{P(u)}<O(\varepsilon)
$$

Proof. Note that our assumption on $D(R \| P)$ and $D(R \| Q)$ gives

$$
\begin{align*}
& \sum_{u \in \mathcal{U}} \frac{(P(u)-R(u))^{2}}{\max \{P(u), R(u)\}}=O(\varepsilon)  \tag{9}\\
& \sum_{u \in \mathcal{U}} \frac{(R(u)-Q(u))^{2}}{\max \{Q(u), R(u)\}}=O(\varepsilon) \tag{10}
\end{align*}
$$

We prove by separately showing

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{u: P(u)<Q(u)} \frac{(P(u)-Q(u))^{2}}{Q(u)}=O(\varepsilon) \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{u: P(u)>Q(u)} \frac{(P(u)-Q(u))^{2}}{P(u)}=O(\varepsilon) \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

First, consider the terms with $P(u)<Q(u)$. For such terms, indeed

$$
\frac{(R(u)-Q(u))^{2}}{\max \{Q(u), R(u)\}} \leq \frac{(R(u)-Q(u))^{2}}{\max \{P(u), R(u)\}}
$$

Thus our assumption on $D(R \| P)$ and $D(R \| Q)$ (in particular (9) and (10)) implies

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{u: P(u)<Q(u)} \frac{(P(u)-Q(u))^{2}}{\max \{Q(u), R(u)\}}=O(\varepsilon) \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now we show that (13) implies (11). We break $u$ 's to two cases: (i) $R(u)<2 Q(u)$ and (ii) $R(u) \geq$ $2 Q(u)$. For (i), if $R(u)<Q(u)$, the terms in consideration are equivalent. If $Q(u)<R(u)<2 Q(u)$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{(P(u)-Q(u))^{2}}{Q(u)}<\frac{2(P(u)-Q(u))^{2}}{R(u)} \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

For (ii), via our assumption $P(u)<Q(u)$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{(P(u)-Q(u))^{2}}{Q(u)} \leq \frac{Q(u)^{2}}{Q(u)}=Q(u) \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

while via $R(u) \geq 2 Q(u)$, we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{(Q(u)-R(u))^{2}}{R(u)} \geq \frac{R(u)}{4}>\frac{Q(u)}{2} \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

Combining (15) and (16), for $u$ 's with $P(u)<Q(u)$ and $R(u) \geq 2 Q(u)$ we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{(P(u)-Q(u))^{2}}{Q(u)} \leq \frac{2(Q(u)-R(u))^{2}}{R(u)} \tag{17}
\end{equation*}
$$

Therefore with (14) and (17) for terms $P(u)>Q(u)$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \quad \sum_{u: P(u)<Q(u)} \frac{(P(u)-Q(u))^{2}}{Q(u)}=\sum_{\begin{array}{c}
u: P(u)<Q(u), \\
R(u)<2 Q(u)
\end{array}} \frac{(P(u)-Q(u))^{2}}{Q(u)}+\sum_{\substack{u: P(u)<Q(u), R(u) \geq 2 Q(u)}} \frac{(P(u)-Q(u))^{2}}{Q(u)} \\
& \leq \sum_{\substack{u: P(u)<Q(u), R(u)<2 Q(u)}} \frac{2(P(u)-Q(u))^{2}}{R(u)}+\sum_{\substack{u: P(u)<Q(u), R(u) \geq 2 Q(u)}} \frac{2(Q(u)-R(u))^{2}}{R(u)}=O(\varepsilon)
\end{aligned}
$$

since we assumed $P(u)<Q(u)$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{u: P(u)<Q(u)} \frac{(P(u)-Q(u))^{2}}{\max \{P(u), Q(u)\}}=\sum_{u: P(u)<Q(u)} \frac{(P(u)-Q(u))^{2}}{Q(u)}=O(\varepsilon) . \tag{18}
\end{equation*}
$$

An analogous analysis for the terms with $P(u)>Q(u)$ by breaking into two cases where $R(u)<$ $2 P(u)$ and $R(u)>2 P(u)$ shows that (18) implies (12), which proves our claim.

Claim A.4. If $D(R \| P)<\varepsilon$ and $D(R \| Q)<\varepsilon$ then the probability of Alice transmitting a dart $d_{S}=\left(u_{S}, a_{S}\right)$ under Protocol 2 with $a_{S}>2 Q\left(u_{S}\right)$ is $O(\varepsilon)$.

Proof. First, we calculate the closed form for the probability of Alice transmitting dart $d=(u, a)$ with $a>2 Q(u)$. Suppose Alice transmits a dart conditioned on $u_{S}=u$. If $P(u)<2 Q(u)$, then the probability of sending dart with $a>2 Q(u)$ is indeed 0 , since the distribution $P$ is only supported on darts with $a<P(u)$. Now if $P(u)>2 Q(u)$ then

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left[p_{S}>2 Q(u) \mid u_{S}=u\right]=\frac{\int_{2 Q(u)}^{P(u)}(P(u)-a)^{2} d a}{\int_{0}^{P(u)}(P(u)-a)^{2} d a}=\frac{(P(u)-2 Q(u))^{3}}{P(u)^{3}}
$$

Define function over $\mathcal{U}$ as

$$
F(u):= \begin{cases}\frac{(P(u)-Q(u))^{3}}{P(u)^{3}} & \text { if } P(u)>2 Q(u) \\ 0 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

Then we have that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{Pr}\left[p_{S}>2 Q(u)\right]=\sum_{u: P(u)>2 Q(u)} \operatorname{Pr}\left[p_{S}>2 Q(u) \mid u_{S}=u\right] \cdot \operatorname{Pr}\left[u_{S}=u\right] \\
& =\sum_{u: P(u)>2 Q(u)} \frac{(P(u)-2 Q(u))^{3}}{P(u)^{3}} \cdot P(u) \leq \mathbb{E}_{u \sim P}[F(u)]=\|F\|_{1}
\end{aligned}
$$

where last inequality holds by $P(u)>2 Q(u)$. Since $F(u) \leq 1$ for all $u$,

$$
\|F\|_{1} \leq\|F\|_{2 / 3}^{2 / 3}=\mathbb{E}_{u \sim P}\left[F(u)^{2 / 3}\right]
$$

We then bound $\mathbb{E}_{u \sim P}\left[F(u)^{2 / 3}\right]=\sum_{u: P(u)>2 Q(u)} \frac{(P(u)-Q(u))^{2}}{P(u)}$. Note that the divergence bound indeed gives us

$$
\begin{gathered}
\sum_{u \in \mathcal{U}} \frac{(P(u)-R(u))^{2}}{\max \{P(u), R(u)\}}<O(\varepsilon) \\
\sum_{u \in \mathcal{U}} \frac{(Q(u)-R(u))^{2}}{\max \{P(u), R(u)\}}<\sum_{u \in \mathcal{U}} \frac{(Q(u)-R(u))^{2}}{\max \{Q(u), R(u)\}}<O(\varepsilon)
\end{gathered}
$$

since $P(u)>Q(u)$ by assumption. This gives us

$$
\sum_{u: P(u)>2 Q(u)} \frac{(P(u)-Q(u))^{2}}{\max \{P(u), R(u)\}}<O(\varepsilon)
$$

Now we relate $(P(u)-Q(u))^{2} / \max \{P(u), R(u)\}$ and $(P(u)-Q(u))^{2} / P(u)$

- For terms $R(u) \leq P(u)$, indeed both terms are equal. If $P(u)<R(u) \leq 2 P(u)$, then note that they are just off by constant factor, that is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{2(P(u)-Q(u))^{2}}{R(u)}>\frac{(P(u)-Q(u))^{2}}{P(u)} \tag{19}
\end{equation*}
$$

- For terms $R(u)>2 P(u)$, note that the terms that we consider have $P(u)>2 Q(u)>Q(u)$.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{(P(u)-Q(u))^{2}}{P(u)} \leq \frac{P(u)^{2}}{P(u)} \leq P(u) \tag{20}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now since we have $R(u)>2 P(u)$, we get

$$
(P(u)-R(u))^{2} \geq \frac{R(u)^{2}}{4}
$$

So the term of interest is of the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{(P(u)-R(u))^{2}}{R(u)} \geq \frac{R(u)}{4}>\frac{P(u)}{2} \tag{21}
\end{equation*}
$$

Combining (20) and (21) we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{(P(u)-Q(u))^{2}}{P(u)}<\frac{2(P(u)-R(u))^{2}}{R(u)} \tag{22}
\end{equation*}
$$

Combining (19) and (22) we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbb{E}_{u \sim P}\left[F(u)^{2 / 3}\right]=\sum_{u: P(u)>2 Q(u)} \frac{(P(u)-Q(u))^{2}}{P(u)} \leq \sum_{u: P(u)>2 Q(u)} \frac{2(P(u)-R(u))^{2}}{R(u)}=O(\varepsilon) \tag{23}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then we have $\|F\|_{1} \leq O(\varepsilon)$, proving the desired claim.
We introduce the following technical fact about KL-divergence.
Fact A.5. Suppose $X$ is a random variable in $[0,1]$. Then if $D(P \| Q)<\varepsilon$ and $\mathbb{E}_{Q}[X]=\varepsilon$ with $\varepsilon<1 / 8$, then $\mathbb{E}_{P}[X]<4 \varepsilon$.

Proof. We prove by contradiction. Assume without loss of generality that $X \in\{0,1\}$. Let $p=$ $\operatorname{Pr}_{P}[X=1]$ and $q=\operatorname{Pr}_{Q}[X=1]$. Note that we want to show that $p<4 q$. If $p<q$, then we are done. Suppose $p>q$. Then note that

$$
\varepsilon>p \log \frac{p}{q}+(1-p) \log \frac{1-p}{1-q}
$$

is increasing in $p$ and decreasing in $q$. If $p>4 q$, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 4 q \log 4+(1-4 q) \log \frac{1-4 q}{1-q}=8 q+(1-4 q) \log \left(1-\frac{3 q}{1-q}\right) \\
& \geq 8 q-\frac{6 q}{1-q}>q
\end{aligned}
$$

where last inequality assumes that $q<1 / 8$. This is indeed a contradiction since $q=\varepsilon$.
Claim A.6. Let $\tilde{P}$ denote the distribution induced by Bob's rejection, that is the probability of $u_{S}$ over the accepted darts $d_{S}=\left(u_{S}, a_{S}\right)$. Then $D(\tilde{P} \| Q)<O(\varepsilon)$

Proof. It suffices to show that

- $D(R \| \tilde{P})<O(\varepsilon)$,
- $\forall u \in \mathcal{U}, \tilde{P}(u)<8 Q(u)$.
since then by Lemma A.2, $D(R \| \tilde{P})<O(\varepsilon)$ and $D(R \| Q)<O(\varepsilon)$ implies the desired bound.
First, we calculate the closed form for $\tilde{P}$. If $P(u)<2 Q(u)$, Bob will not reject any dart sent by Alice unless Bob is in "hard" mode. Therefore, calculating moment for all possible darts, we get

$$
\int_{0}^{P(u)}\left(1-\frac{a}{P(u)}\right)^{2} d a=\frac{P(u)}{3}
$$

If $P(u)>2 Q(u)$, note that Bob will reject darts $d_{S}=\left(u_{S}, p_{S}\right)$ with $p_{S}>2 Q(u)$. So only darts with $p_{S}<2 Q(u)$ are valid. For such $u$ 's we get.

$$
\int_{0}^{2 Q(u)}\left(1-\frac{a}{P(u)}\right)^{2} d a=2 Q(u)\left(1-\frac{2 Q(u)}{P(u)}+\frac{4 Q(u)^{2}}{3 P(u)^{2}}\right)=\frac{P(u)}{3}-\frac{(P(u)-2 Q(u))^{3}}{3 P(u)^{2}}
$$

Normalizing to make $\tilde{P}$ a valid distribution, we get the following:

$$
\tilde{P}(u)= \begin{cases}\frac{P(u)}{3 K} & \text { if } P(u)<2 Q(u) \\ \frac{1}{K}\left(\frac{P(u)}{3}-\frac{(P(u)-2 Q(u))^{3}}{3 P(u)^{2}}\right) & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

where $K$ is the normalization factor introduced to make $\tilde{P}$ a valid probability distribution, that is

$$
K:=\sum_{u: P(u)<2 Q(u)} \frac{P(u)}{3}+\sum_{u: P(u)>2 Q(u)}\left(\frac{P(u)}{3}-\frac{(P(u)-2 Q(u))^{3}}{3 P(u)^{2}}\right)
$$

Note that if it is indeed the case $P(u)<2 Q(u)$ for all $u \in \mathcal{U}$, then $K=1 / 3$, therefore $\tilde{P}=P$. We first show upper and lower bound for $K$. For upper bound,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \quad \sum_{u: P(u)<2 Q(u)} \frac{P(u)}{3}+\sum_{u: P(u)>2 Q(u)}\left(\frac{P(u)}{3}-\frac{(P(u)-2 Q(u))^{3}}{3 P(u)^{2}}\right) \\
& \leq \sum_{u: P(u)<2 Q(u)} \frac{P(u)}{3}+\sum_{u: P(u)>2 Q(u)} \frac{P(u)}{3}=\frac{1}{3}
\end{aligned}
$$

For lower bound, we relate

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \quad \sum_{u: P(u)<2 Q(u)} \frac{P(u)}{3}+\sum_{u: P(u)>2 Q(u)}\left(\frac{P(u)}{3}-\frac{(P(u)-2 Q(u))^{3}}{3 P(u)^{2}}\right) \\
& \geq \frac{1}{3}-\sum_{u: P(u)>2 Q(u)} \frac{(P(u)-2 Q(u))^{3}}{3 P(u)^{2}} \geq \frac{1}{3}-O(\varepsilon)
\end{aligned}
$$

where the last bound holds by (23). By choosing $\varepsilon<1 / 50$, we have $K \geq 1 / 4$. If $P(u)<2 Q(u)$, $\tilde{P}(u)<2 P(u)<4 Q(u)$. If $P(u)>2 Q(u), \tilde{P}(u)<8 Q(u)$.

Now, it remains to show that $D(R \| \tilde{P})<O(\varepsilon)$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& D(R \| \tilde{P})=\sum_{u \in \mathcal{U}} R(u) \log \frac{R(u)}{\tilde{P}(u)}=\sum_{u: P(u)<2 Q(u)} R(u) \log \frac{R(u)}{\tilde{P}(u)}+\sum_{u: P(u)>2 Q(u)} R(u) \log \frac{R(u)}{\tilde{P}(u)} \\
& =\sum_{u: P(u)<2 Q(u)} R(u) \log \frac{3 K \cdot R(u)}{P(u)}+\sum_{u: P(u)>2 Q(u)} R(u) \log \frac{3 K \cdot R(u)}{P(u)\left(1-\frac{(P(u)-2 Q(u))^{3}}{P(u)^{3}}\right)}
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \leq \sum_{u \in \mathcal{U}} R(u) \log \frac{R(u)}{P(u)}+\sum_{u \in \mathcal{U}} R(u) \log 3 K+\sum_{u: P(u)>2 Q(u)} R(u) \log \frac{1}{1-\frac{(P(u)-2 Q(u))^{3}}{P(u)^{3}}} \\
& \leq D(R \| P)+\sum_{u: P(u)>2 Q(u)} R(u) \log \frac{1}{1-\frac{(P(u)-2 Q(u))^{3}}{P(u)^{3}}} \\
& =D(R \| P)+\sum_{u: P(u)>2 Q(u)} \log \frac{1}{\left(1-\frac{(P(u)-2 Q(u))^{3}}{P(u)^{3}}\right)^{R(u)}} \\
& \leq \varepsilon+O\left(\sum_{u: P(u)>2 Q(u)} R(u) \frac{(P(u)-2 Q(u))^{3}}{P(u)^{3}}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

where the first inequality holds since $K \leq 1 / 3$, and the last inequality holds from the assumption on $D(R \| P)$ and the fact that $(1-\alpha \beta)^{1 / \alpha}=1-O(\beta)$ for $0<\alpha<1$ and $0 \leq \beta<1$, then the fact that $R(u) \frac{(P(u)-2 Q(u))^{3}}{P(u)^{3}}<1 / 2$ and $\log \frac{1}{1-x} \leq 2 x$ for $x<1 / 2$.

It remains to bound $\sum_{u: P(u)>2 Q(u)} R(u) \frac{(P(u)-2 Q(u))^{3}}{P(u)^{3}}$. Combining Fact A. 5 with (23) and $D(R \| P) \leq \varepsilon$, the desired bound follows.

Now we are ready to bound the total information cost of Protocol 3 .
Lemma A.7. Protocol 3 gives $O(\varepsilon)$ information cost.
Proof. We bound $I(\Pi ; X \mid Y)$ and $I(\Pi ; Y \mid X)$ separately.
What Bob learns Applying Fact 2.6, we get

$$
I(\Pi ; X \mid Y)=I(S ; X \mid Y) \leq \sum_{S_{i} \in S} I\left(S_{i} ; X \mid Y\right)
$$

where $S$ corresponds to the set of darts selected by Alice.
Then for each $S_{i}$ define random variable $E$ where

$$
E\left(d_{S_{i}}\right):= \begin{cases}0 & \text { if } p_{S_{i}}<2 Q\left(u_{S_{i}}\right) \\ 1 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

Note that $I\left(S_{i} ; E \mid Y\right)=0$ since $S_{i}$ and $Y$ indeed determines the value of $E$. Now using Fact 2.5, we can bound $I\left(S_{i} ; X \mid Y\right)$.

$$
I\left(S_{i} ; X \mid Y\right) \leq I\left(S_{i} ; X \mid Y E\right)=\operatorname{Pr}[E=0] \cdot \underbrace{I\left(S_{i} ; X \mid Y, E=0\right)}_{(\mathrm{a})}+\underbrace{\operatorname{Pr}[E=1] \cdot I\left(S_{i} ; X \mid Y, E=1\right)}_{(\mathrm{b})}
$$

We bound (a) and (b) separately.

Case (b) : $E=1$ Via Proposition A.1, expected amount of information revealed is indeed $O(1)$, and by Claim A.4, $\operatorname{Pr}[E=1]<O(\varepsilon)$.

Case (a) : $E=0$ Bob will indeed accept all hash values corresponding to $S_{i}$. The information cost incurred by $S_{i}$ can be decomposed as one coming from $\mathcal{U}$ part and $[0,1]$ part in the following manner,

$$
I\left(S_{i} ; X \mid Y, E=0\right)=\mathbb{E}\left[D\left(S_{i}^{X Y} \| S_{i}^{Y}\right)\right]=D\left(S_{i}^{X Y}(u) \| S_{i}^{Y}(u)\right)+\mathbb{E}_{u}\left[D\left(S_{i}^{X Y}(a \mid u) \| S_{i}^{Y}(a \mid u)\right)\right]
$$

where the second equality holds by Fact 2.8. Now distribution $S_{i}^{X Y}$ would be indeed the distribution of indices that Bob sends, conditioned on being $E=0$. Therefore, the marginals over $\mathcal{U}$ would be exactly $\tilde{P}$. Similarly for $S_{i}^{Y}$, marginals over $\mathcal{U}$ would be $Q$. Now consider the distribution of the darts conditioned on $u$.

$$
P(a \mid u)= \begin{cases}\frac{3}{P(u)^{3}}(P(u)-a)^{2} & \text { if } P(u)<2 Q(u) \\ \frac{1}{K_{1} P(u)^{2}}(P(u)-a)^{2} & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

where $K_{1}$ is the normalization factor introduced by setting $E=0$, that is

$$
\begin{aligned}
& K_{1}=\int_{0}^{2 Q(u)} \frac{3}{P(u)^{3}}(P(u)-a)^{2} d a \\
& =1-\int_{2 Q(u)}^{P(u)} \frac{3}{P(u)^{3}}(P(u)-a)^{2} d a=1-\frac{(P(u)-2 Q(u))^{3}}{P(u)^{3}}
\end{aligned}
$$

Now we show that, for all $u \in \mathcal{U}$, there exists a prior for $\operatorname{Bob}(Q(a \mid u))$ such that $D(P(a \mid u) \| Q(a \mid u))=$ $O\left(\sum_{u \in \mathcal{U}}(P(u)-Q(u))^{2} / P(u)\right)$

Define $Z(a)$ as the random variable, defined as

$$
Z(a)= \begin{cases}1 & \text { if } a \in[Q(u), P(u)] \\ 0 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

Note that $Z(a)=0$ for all $a$ iff $P(u)<Q(u)$.
Case 1: $P(u)<Q(u)$. Note that the information cost of learning $Z(a)$ is 0 since $H(Z)=0$. If $Z(a)=0$, Bob sets prior as

$$
Q(a \mid u):=\frac{3(Q(u)-a)}{Q(u)^{3}}
$$

Then we can bound $D(P(a \mid u) \| Q(a \mid u))$ in terms of $\delta:=Q(u)-P(u)$. First we assume that $2 P(u)<$ $Q(u)$. Then note that $\delta>P(u)$. We show that the information cost is bounded asymptotically by

$$
\frac{\left((P(u)-Q(u))^{2}\right.}{P(u) Q(u)}
$$

Then we can write the divergence as

$$
\begin{align*}
& D(P(a \mid u) \| Q(a \mid u))=\int_{0}^{P(u)} \frac{3(P(u)-a)^{2}}{P(u)^{3}} \log \frac{(P(u)-a)^{2} Q(u)^{3}}{(Q(u)-a)^{2} P(u)^{3}} d a \\
& \leq \frac{1}{P(u)} \int_{0}^{P(u)} 9\left(1-\frac{a}{P(u)}\right)^{2} \log \frac{Q(u)}{P(u)} d a \leq \frac{1}{P(u)} \log \frac{Q(u)}{P(u)} \int_{0}^{P(u)} 9 d a \leq \frac{9 \delta}{P(u)} \log \frac{Q(u)}{P(u)} \tag{24}
\end{align*}
$$

where last bound holds since $\delta>P(u)$ by our assumption. Note that for $\delta \in(0, Q(u)]$ and $\alpha>0$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha \log \frac{Q(u)}{P(u)}=-\log \left(1-\frac{\delta}{Q(u)}\right)^{\alpha} \leq O\left(\frac{\alpha \delta}{Q(u)}\right) \tag{25}
\end{equation*}
$$

Plugging (25) into (24), we get

$$
D(P(a \mid u) \| Q(a \mid u)) \leq O\left(\frac{\delta^{2}}{P(u) Q(u)}\right)=O\left(\frac{\left((P(u)-Q(u))^{2}\right.}{P(u) Q(u)}\right)
$$

Now assume $P(u)<Q(u)<2 P(u)$, then we decompose the divergence as following.

$$
\begin{align*}
D(P(a \mid u) \| Q(a \mid u)) & =\int_{0}^{P(u)} \frac{3(P(u)-a)^{2}}{P(u)^{3}} \log \frac{(P(u)-a)^{2} Q(u)^{3}}{(Q(u)-a)^{2} P(u)^{3}} d a \\
& =\int_{P(u)-\delta}^{P(u)} \frac{3(P(u)-a)^{2}}{P(u)^{3}} \log \frac{(P(u)-a)^{2} Q(u)^{3}}{(Q(u)-a)^{2} P(u)^{3}} d a  \tag{26}\\
& +\int_{0}^{P(u)-\delta} \frac{3(P(u)-a)^{2}}{P(u)^{3}} \log \frac{(P(u)-a)^{2} Q(u)^{3}}{(Q(u)-a)^{2} P(u)^{3}} d a \tag{27}
\end{align*}
$$

First we bound (26) similarly to the case where $Q(u)>2 P(u)$.

$$
\begin{align*}
& \int_{P(u)-\delta}^{P(u)} \frac{3(P(u)-a)^{2}}{P(u)^{3}} \log \frac{(P(u)-a)^{2} Q(u)^{3}}{(Q(u)-a)^{2} P(u)^{3}} d a \\
& \leq \frac{1}{P(u)} \int_{P(u)-\delta}^{P(u)} 9\left(1-\frac{a}{P(u)}\right)^{2} \log \frac{Q(u)}{P(u)} d a=O\left(\frac{\delta^{2}}{P(u) Q(u)}\right) \tag{28}
\end{align*}
$$

where the inequality holds from $P(u)<Q(u)$ and (25). Next, we bound (27).

$$
\begin{aligned}
& (27)=\frac{1}{P(u)^{3}} \int_{0}^{P(u)-\delta} 3(P(u)-a)^{2} \log \frac{(P(u)-a)^{2}(P(u)+\delta)^{3}}{(P(u)+\delta-a)^{2} P(u)^{3}} d a \\
& =\frac{1}{P(u)^{3}} \int_{0}^{P(u)-\delta} 3(P(u)-a)^{2}\left[-2 \log \left(1+\frac{\delta}{P(u)-a}\right)+3 \log \left(1+\frac{\delta}{P(u)}\right)\right] d a
\end{aligned}
$$

Note that Taylor expansion gives the following bounds:

$$
\begin{aligned}
-2 \log \left(1+\frac{\delta}{P(u)-a}\right) & \leq-\frac{2 \delta}{P(u)-a}+O\left(\frac{\delta^{2}}{(P(u)-a)^{2}}\right) \\
3 \log \left(1+\frac{\delta}{P(u)}\right) & \leq \frac{3 \delta}{P(u)}+O\left(\frac{\delta^{3}}{P(u)^{3}}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Now plugging in the bounds and just considering the first order terms,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{1}{P(u)^{3}} \int_{0}^{P(u)-\delta}\left[-6 \delta(P(u)-a)+\frac{9 \delta(P(u)-a)^{2}}{P(u)}\right] d a \\
& \quad=\frac{3 \delta(P(u)-a)^{2}}{P(u)^{3}}-\left.\frac{3 \delta(P(u)-a)^{3}}{P(u)^{4}}\right|_{0} ^{P(u)-\delta}=\frac{3 \delta^{3}}{P(u)^{3}}-\frac{3 \delta^{4}}{P(u)^{4}}
\end{aligned}
$$

In case of the second order terms,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& O\left(\frac{1}{P(u)^{3}} \int_{0}^{P(u)-\delta} 3 \delta^{2} d a\right)+O\left(\frac{1}{P(u)^{3}} \int_{0}^{P(u)-\delta} \frac{3 \delta^{3}(P(u)-a)^{2}}{P(u)^{3}} d a\right) \\
& =O\left(\frac{\delta^{2}}{P(u)^{2}}\right)+O\left(\frac{\delta^{3}}{P(u)^{3}}-\frac{\delta^{6}}{P(u)^{6}}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Combining both bounds and using our assumption $Q(u)<2 P(u)$,

$$
(27) \leq O\left(\frac{\delta^{2}}{P(u)^{2}}\right)=O\left(\frac{\delta^{2}}{P(u) Q(u)}\right)=O\left(\frac{(P(u)-Q(u))^{2}}{P(u) Q(u)}\right)
$$

Case 2 : $Q(u)<P(u)<2 Q(u)$. Consider the random variable $Z$ where $Z(a)=0$ if $a<Q(u)$, $Z(a)=1$ otherwise. Note that the information cost of learning $Z$ is bounded by $H(Z)$.

$$
\operatorname{Pr}[Z=1]=\int_{P(u)}^{Q(u)} \frac{3}{P(u)^{3}}(P(u)-a)^{2} d a=\frac{(P(u)-Q(u))^{3}}{P(u)^{3}}
$$

Set $p:=\frac{(P(u)-Q(u))}{P(u)}$. Then, the information cost of learning the the value of $Z$ can be bounded by

$$
H(Z)=H\left(p^{3}\right)=O\left(p^{3} \log p\right)<O\left(p^{2}\right)=O\left(\frac{(P(u)-Q(u))^{2}}{P(u)^{2}}\right)
$$

where the inequality holds via $Q(u)<P(u)$. Now we separate prior conditioned on $Z(a)=1$ and $Z(a)=0$. Now conditioned on $Z(a)=0$, Bob sets prior as

$$
Q(a \mid u):=\frac{3(Q(u)-a)}{Q(u)^{3}}
$$

Then, note that $P(a \mid u, Z=0)$ is indeed $\frac{P(a \mid u)}{\operatorname{Pr}[Z=0]}$ with $a \in[0, Q(u)]$. We can explicitly write the divergence as

$$
\begin{align*}
& D(P(a \mid u, Z=0) \| Q(a \mid u))=\frac{1}{P(u)^{3} \operatorname{Pr}[Z=0]} \int_{0}^{Q(u)} 3(P(u)-a)^{2} \log \frac{1}{\operatorname{Pr}[Z=0]} d a  \tag{29}\\
& \quad+\frac{1}{P(u)^{3} \operatorname{Pr}[Z=0]} \int_{0}^{Q(u)} 3(P(u)-a)^{2}\left[-2 \log \left(1+\frac{\delta}{P(u)-a}\right)+3 \log \left(1+\frac{\delta}{P(u)}\right)\right] d a \tag{30}
\end{align*}
$$

First bounding (29)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \int_{0}^{Q(u)} 3(P(u)-a)^{2} \log \frac{1}{\operatorname{Pr}[Z=0]} d a=\left(P(u)^{3}-(P(u)-Q(u))^{3}\right) \log \left(\frac{1}{1-p^{3}}\right) \\
& \quad \leq O\left(p^{3} P(u)^{3}\left(1-p^{3}\right)\right) \leq O\left(p^{3} P(u)^{3}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

since $p<1 / 2$ by assumption. Then bounding (30)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \int_{0}^{Q(u)} 3(P(u)-a)^{2}\left[-2 \log \left(1+\frac{\delta}{P(u)-a}\right)+3 \log \left(1+\frac{\delta}{P(u)}\right)\right] d a \\
& \leq 3 \delta(P(u)-a)^{2}-\frac{3 \delta(P(u)-a)^{3}}{P(u)}+O\left(\delta^{2} a\right)-\left.O\left(\frac{\delta^{3}(P(u)-a)^{3}}{P(u)^{3}}\right)\right|_{0} ^{Q(u)} \\
& =3 \delta(P(u)-Q(u))^{2}-3 \delta P(u)^{2}-\frac{3 \delta\left((P(u)-Q(u))^{3}-P(u)^{3}\right)}{P(u)} \\
& \quad+O\left(\delta^{2} Q(u)\right)+O\left(\delta^{3}+\frac{\delta^{6}}{P(u)^{3}}\right) \\
& \leq 3 \delta^{3}+3 \frac{\delta^{4}}{P(u)}+O\left(\delta^{2} P(u)\right)+O\left(\delta^{3}+\frac{\delta^{6}}{P(u)^{3}}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Then combining the bounds for (29) and (30), we get

$$
\operatorname{Pr}[Z=0] \cdot D(P(a \mid u, Z=0) \| Q(a \mid u)) \leq \frac{1}{P(u)^{3}} O\left(p^{3} P(u)^{3}\right)
$$

$$
+\frac{1}{P(u)^{3}}\left[3 \delta^{3}+3 \frac{\delta^{4}}{P(u)}+O\left(\delta^{2} P(u)\right)+O\left(\delta^{3}+\frac{\delta^{6}}{P(u)^{3}}\right)\right]=O\left(\frac{(P(u)-Q(u))^{2}}{P(u)^{2}}\right)
$$

where the inequality holds by $P(u)>Q(u)$ and the dominating term.
If $Z(a)=1$, Bob sets prior as

$$
Q(a \mid u):=\frac{1}{Q(u)}
$$

for $a \in[Q(u), 2 Q(u)]$.

$$
D(P(a \mid u, Z=1) \| Q(a \mid u))=\frac{1}{P(u)^{3} \operatorname{Pr}[Z=1]} \int_{Q(u)}^{P(u)} 3(P(u)-a)^{2} \log \frac{3 Q(u)(P(u)-a)^{2}}{P(u)^{3}} d a
$$

Now we bound the value of the integral :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \int_{Q(u)}^{P(u)} 3(P(u)-a)^{2} \log \frac{3 Q(u)(P(u)-a)^{2}}{P(u)^{3}} d a \leq \int_{Q(u)}^{P(u)} 3(P(u)-a)^{2} \log \frac{3(P(u)-a)^{2}}{P(u)^{2}} d a \\
= & \log 3 \int_{Q(u)}^{P(u)} 3(P(u)-a)^{2} d a+\underbrace{\int_{Q(u)}^{P(u)} 3(P(u)-a)^{2} \log \frac{(P(u)-a)^{2}}{P(u)^{2}} d a}_{\leq 0} \leq O\left((P(u)-Q(u))^{3}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

where the bound holds from $Q(u)<P(u)$. Then indeed we get the desired bound:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{Pr}[Z=1] \cdot D(P(a \mid u, Z=1) \| Q(a \mid u))=\frac{1}{P(u)^{3}} \cdot O\left((P(u)-Q(u))^{3}\right) \\
& \quad \leq O\left(\frac{(P(u)-Q(u))^{2}}{P(u)^{2}}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Case 3: $2 Q(u)<P(u)$. Similar to the case where $Q(u)<P(u)<2 Q(u)$. But note that for such $u, P(a \mid u)$ is chopped for $a>2 Q(u)$. Recall that we have a normalization factor for the mass of darts that lies between 0 and $2 Q(u), K_{1}$. Since $Q(u)<2 Q(u)<P(u)$, we can bound $K_{1}$ as following

$$
\begin{equation*}
K_{1}=1-\frac{(P(u)-2 Q(u))^{3}}{P(u)^{3}} \geq 1-\frac{(P(u)-Q(u))^{3}}{P(u)^{3}}=1-p^{3} . \tag{31}
\end{equation*}
$$

We make analogous argument to Case 2, but with extra $K_{1}$ factor in $P(a \mid u)$. In particular, it suffices to bound

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{1}{P(u)^{3} K_{1}} \int_{0}^{Q(u)} 3(P(u)-a)^{2} \log \frac{1}{K_{1}} d a \tag{32}
\end{equation*}
$$

which is the extra term introduced from $Z=0$ case and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{1}{P(u)^{3} K_{1}} \int_{Q(u)}^{P(u)} 3(P(u)-a)^{2} \log \frac{1}{K_{1}} d a \tag{33}
\end{equation*}
$$

which is an analogous term from $Z=1$ case. We bound the sum of (32) and (33).

$$
\begin{aligned}
& (32)+(33)=\frac{1}{P(u)^{3} K_{1}} \int_{0}^{P(u)} 3(P(u)-a)^{2} \log \frac{1}{K_{1}} d a=\frac{1}{K_{1}} \log \frac{1}{K_{1}} \\
& \leq \frac{1}{1-p^{3}} \log \frac{1}{1-p^{3}}=\frac{1}{\left(1-p^{3}\right)^{2}}\left(1-p^{3}\right) \log \frac{1}{1-p^{3}} \leq O\left(H\left(p^{3}\right)\right) \leq O\left(p^{2}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

So for all $u \in \mathcal{U}$ with $P(u)>Q(u)$ the information cost is bounded by $\frac{(P(u)-Q(u))^{2}}{P(u)^{2}}$, while for $P(u)<Q(u)$, the information cost is bounded by $\frac{(P(u)-Q(u))^{2}}{P(u) Q(u)}$ Now we bound the total cost, which is

$$
\sum_{u: P(u)<Q(u)} \tilde{P}(u) \cdot \frac{(P(u)-Q(u))^{2}}{P(u) Q(u)}+\sum_{u: P(u)>Q(u)} \tilde{P}(u) \cdot \frac{(P(u)-Q(u))^{2}}{P(u)^{2}}
$$

Now recall that if $P(u)>2 Q(u)$, we can bound $\tilde{P}(u)$ as

$$
\tilde{P}(u)=\frac{2 Q(u)}{K}\left(1-\frac{2 Q(u)}{P(u)}+\frac{4 Q(u)^{2}}{3 P(u)^{2}}\right) \leq \frac{2 Q(u)}{K}<\frac{P(u)}{K}
$$

while for $P(u)<2 Q(u), \tilde{P}(u)=\frac{P(u)}{3 K}$ Since $K=\Theta(1)$, we bound the total information cost as

$$
O\left(\sum_{u} \frac{(P(u)-Q(u))^{2}}{\max \{P(u), Q(u)\}}\right)<O(\varepsilon)
$$

where the inequality is from Claim A.3.

What Alice learns Alice learns about Bob's distribution from Bob's rejection. We show that information gained is at most $O(\varepsilon)$. Let $\tilde{S}$ be the indices of darts that were rejected by Bob. Then again by Fact 2.6,

$$
I(\Pi ; Y \mid X, S)=I(\tilde{S} ; Y \mid X, S) \leq \sum_{\tilde{S}_{i} \in \tilde{S}} I\left(\tilde{S}_{i} ; Y \mid X, S\right)
$$

Now we analyze $I\left(\tilde{S}_{i} ; Y \mid X, S\right)$, that is the expected information from each rejected dart. Note that if $\tilde{S}_{i} \notin 2 \mathcal{Q}$, it is automatically rejected by Alice, and if $\tilde{S}_{i} \in 2 \mathcal{Q}$, the protocol rejects $\tilde{S}_{i}$ when Bob is in "hard" mode and $\tilde{S}_{i}$ is the only dart that is in $2 \mathcal{Q}$. That is $\tilde{S}_{i} \in 2 \mathcal{Q}$ is rejected with some constant probability $p_{0}$, while $\tilde{S}_{i} \notin 2 \mathcal{Q}$ is rejected with probability 1.

We set Alice's prior for rejected dart as

$$
P(u, a)=\frac{3}{P(u)^{2}}(P(u)-a)^{2}
$$

while Bob's distribution for rejected dart

$$
Q(u, a)= \begin{cases}\frac{3}{N P(u)^{2}}(P(u)-a)^{2} & \text { if } a<2 Q(u) \\ \frac{3}{N p_{0} P(u)^{2}}(P(u)-a)^{2} & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

where $N$ is the normalization factor introduced to ensure that $Q$ is indeed a valid distribution. First we give a bound for $N . N$ can be asymptotically written in closed form as

$$
\begin{aligned}
N= & \sum_{u: P(u)<2 Q(u)} \int_{0}^{P(u)} \frac{3}{P(u)^{2}}(P(u)-a)^{2} d a \\
& +\sum_{u: P(u)>2 Q(u)} \int_{0}^{2 Q(u)} \frac{3}{P(u)^{2}}(P(u)-a)^{2} d a+\int_{2 Q(u)}^{P(u)} \frac{3}{p_{0} P(u)^{2}}(P(u)-a)^{2} d a \\
= & \sum_{u: P(u)<2 Q(u)} P(u)+\sum_{u: P(u)>2 Q(u)} P(u)-\frac{(P(u)-2 Q(u))^{3}}{P(u)^{2}}+\frac{(P(u)-2 Q(u))^{3}}{p_{0} P(u)^{2}}
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
=1-\sum_{u: P(u)>2 Q(u)} \frac{1-p_{0}}{p_{0}} \frac{(P(u)-2 Q(u))^{3}}{P(u)^{2}}
$$

Recall that $\sum_{u: P(u)>2 Q(u)} \frac{(P(u)-2 Q(u))^{3}}{P(u)^{2}}<O(\varepsilon)$. We show that $p_{0}=\Theta(1)$, which then implies $1-O(\varepsilon) \leq N \leq 1 . p_{0}$ can be written as

$$
p_{0}=\frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \operatorname{Pr}[k] \varepsilon^{k-1}
$$

where $\operatorname{Pr}[k]$ is the probability of Alice sending $k$ darts and $\varepsilon$ factor comes from Claim A. 4 i.e. the probability of sending dart not in $2 \mathcal{Q}$. Now $\operatorname{Pr}[k]$ is

$$
\operatorname{Pr}[k]=\binom{6|\mathcal{U}|}{k} \cdot\left(1-\frac{1}{3|\mathcal{U}|}\right)^{6|\mathcal{U}|-k}\left(\frac{1}{3|\mathcal{U}|}\right)^{k}
$$

For upper bound,

$$
p_{0} \leq \frac{1}{2}\left(\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \operatorname{Pr}[k]\right) \cdot\left(\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \varepsilon^{k-1}\right) \leq \frac{1}{2(1-O(\varepsilon))}=O(1)
$$

For lower bound, just consider the first term. Then

$$
p_{0} \geq\left(1-\frac{1}{3|\mathcal{U}|}\right)^{6|\mathcal{U}|-1} \geq\left(1-\frac{1}{3|\mathcal{U}|}\right)^{6|\mathcal{U}|} \geq e^{-2}
$$

Explicitly calculating the divergence between $Q$ and $P$ :

$$
D(Q \| P)=\underbrace{\sum_{u: P(u)<2 Q(u)} \int_{0}^{P(u)} Q(u, a) \log \frac{Q(u, a)}{P(u, a)} d a}_{\text {(a) }}+\underbrace{\sum_{u: P(u)>2 Q(u)} \int_{0}^{P(u)} Q(u, a) \log \frac{Q(u, a)}{P(u, a)} d a}_{\text {(b) }}
$$

(a) is then

$$
\sum_{u: P(u)<2 Q(u)} \frac{P(u)}{N} \log \frac{1}{N} \leq O(\varepsilon)
$$

due to our lower bound in $N$.(b) is then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \sum_{u: P(u)>2 Q(u)} \int_{0}^{2 Q(u)} Q(u, a) \log \frac{Q(u, a)}{P(u, a)} d a+\int_{2 Q(u)}^{P(u)} Q(u, a) \log \frac{Q(u, a)}{P(u, a)} d a \\
= & \sum_{u: P(u)>2 Q(u)} \log \left(\frac{1}{N}\right) \int_{0}^{2 Q(u)} Q(u, a) d a+\log \left(\frac{1}{N p_{0}}\right) \int_{2 Q(u)}^{P(u)} Q(u, a) d a
\end{aligned}
$$

while the first term is

$$
\int_{0}^{2 Q(u)} Q(u, a) d a=\frac{1}{N}\left(P(u)-\frac{(P(u)-2 Q(u))^{3}}{P(u)^{2}}\right)
$$

and the second term is

$$
\int_{2 Q(u)}^{P(u)} Q(u, a) d a=\frac{1}{N p_{0}} \frac{(P(u)-2 Q(u))^{3}}{P(u)^{2}}
$$

Plugging these in, we get the desired bound of $O(\varepsilon)$.

## B Omitted Proof from Section 3

Proof of Lemma 3.8. Consider the set of edges $\mathcal{S}$ that are satisfied under $\mu$. Denote $\mu$ conditioned on being inside $\mathcal{S}$ as $\nu$. We show that $D(\nu \| \tilde{\mu})<O(\varepsilon)$, which indeed implies $\tilde{\mu}(\mathcal{S})<1-O(\varepsilon)$ by Fact 2.7. But indeed Claim 3.10 implies $D(\nu \| \tilde{\mu})<O(\varepsilon)$.

Proof of Lemma 3.9. The proof follows from Lemma 4.5 of [BG15]. To argue that the second condition is indeed met, recall that the protocol in [BG15] is the following: Let $\mathcal{A}:=$

- Using shared randomness, get uniformly random samples from $\Pi \times[0,1]$, which we denote by $\left\{\left(\pi_{i}, q_{i}\right)\right\}_{i=0}^{\infty}$.
- Alice outputs the first $\pi_{a}$ that satisfies $q_{a}<\frac{P\left(\pi_{a}\right)}{\delta}$.
- Bob outputs the first $\pi_{b}$ that satisfies $q_{b}<\frac{Q\left(\pi_{b}\right)}{\delta}$.

Protocol 4: Protocol for sampling a transcript ( $\pi, q$ )
$\{(\pi, q) \mid q<P(\pi) / \delta\}, \mathcal{B}:=\{(\pi, q) \mid q<Q(\pi) / \delta\}$ and $\mathcal{C}:=\{(\pi, q) \mid q<R(\pi)\}$. We define event $E$ as first dart in $\mathcal{A} \cup \mathcal{B}$ being inside $\mathcal{A} \cap \mathcal{B} \cap \mathcal{C}$. Note that Lemma 4.5. of [BG15] exactly gives that $\operatorname{Pr}[E] \geq 2^{-\Omega(\delta)}$, therefore the first condition must hold. Furthermore, $\mathcal{S}$ is indeed included in $\operatorname{Supp}(R)$ since for such event it must be the case that $R(\pi)>0$. Therefore, $E$ satisfies the second condition as well.
Proof of Claim 3.10. For brevity denote $W$ as the set of $x$ with $W(x)=1, D(A \| B)=\delta_{0}$ and $A(\bar{W})=\delta_{1}$. First, we show that $B(\bar{W})<O(D(A \| B))=O\left(\delta_{0}\right)$. Note that $D(A \| B)$ can be written as

$$
\begin{equation*}
D(A \| B)=\sum_{x \in W} A(x) \log \frac{A(x)}{B(x)}+\sum_{x \notin W} A(x) \log \frac{A(x)}{B(x)}=\delta_{0} \tag{34}
\end{equation*}
$$

Applying log-sum, we get

$$
A(W) \log \frac{A(W)}{B(W)}+A(\bar{W}) \log \frac{A(\bar{W})}{B(\bar{W})} \leq \delta_{0}
$$

Assume for contradiction that $B(\bar{W}) \geq K A(\bar{W})$, where $K$ is some parameter that we will setup later for contradiction. And put $B(\bar{W})=\alpha A(\bar{W})$ for $\alpha>K$. Since $A(W)=1-\delta_{1}$ by our assumption, substituting the terms we get

$$
\left(1-\delta_{1}\right) \log \frac{1-\delta_{1}}{1-\alpha \delta_{1}}+\delta_{1} \log \frac{1}{\alpha}=\left(1-\delta_{1}\right) \log \frac{1}{1-\frac{(\alpha-1) \delta_{1}}{1-\delta_{1}}}+\delta_{1} \log \frac{1}{\alpha}
$$

Suppose for now that $\alpha<\frac{1}{2 \delta_{1}}+\frac{1}{2}$. Then note that $\log (1 /(1-x))=\Omega(x)$. Applying this fact to the first term, we get

$$
\delta_{0}>\left(1-\delta_{1}\right) \log \frac{1-\delta_{1}}{1-\alpha \delta_{1}}+\delta_{1} \log \frac{1}{\alpha}>\Omega\left((\alpha-1-\log \alpha) \delta_{1}\right)>\Omega\left(\alpha \delta_{0}\right) .
$$

where the last inequality holds due to our assumption that $\delta_{1}>\delta_{0}$. Picking an appropriately large constant $\alpha=O(1)$, we get a contradiction. Instead if $\alpha>\frac{1}{2 \delta_{1}}+\frac{1}{2}$, then

$$
\left(1-\delta_{1}\right) \log \frac{1-\delta_{1}}{1-\alpha \delta_{1}}+\delta_{1} \log \frac{1}{\alpha}>\left(1-\delta_{1}\right) \log 2\left(1-\delta_{1}\right)+\delta_{1} \log 2 \delta_{1}=H\left(\delta_{1}\right)+1>\delta_{0}
$$

which indeed is a contradiction since $\delta_{0}<1$ and $H\left(\delta_{1}\right) \geq 0$. Thus $B(\bar{W})<O\left(\delta_{1}\right)=K_{0} \delta_{1}$.
To bound $D\left(A_{W} \| B\right)$, we first bound $\sum_{x \in W} A(x) \log \frac{A(x)}{B(x)}$. Note that via our bound on $B(\bar{W})$ implies

$$
\sum_{x \notin W} A(x) \log \frac{A(x)}{B(x)}>A(\bar{W}) \log \frac{A(\bar{W})}{B(\bar{W})}>\delta_{1} \log \frac{1}{K_{0}}
$$

Applying this to (34), we have

$$
\sum_{x \in W} A(x) \log \frac{A(x)}{B(x)}=\delta_{0}-\sum_{x \notin W} A(x) \log \frac{A(x)}{B(x)}<\delta_{0}-\delta_{1} \log \frac{1}{K_{0}}
$$

Now we use the above fact to bound $D\left(A_{W} \| B\right)$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& D\left(A_{W} \| B\right)=\sum_{x} a_{W}(x) \log \frac{a_{W}(x)}{b(x)}=\sum_{x \in W} a_{W}(x) \log \frac{a_{W}(x)}{a(x)} \frac{a(x)}{b(x)} \\
& =D\left(A_{W} \| A\right)+\sum_{x \in W} a_{W}(x) \log \frac{a(x)}{b(x)} \leq \log (1 / A(W))+\sum_{x \in W} \frac{a(x)}{A(W)} \log \frac{a(x)}{b(x)} \\
& <\log (1 / A(W))+\frac{D(A \| B)}{A(W)}+\frac{1-A(W)}{A(W)} \log K_{0} \\
& <\log (1 / A(W))+\frac{D(A \| B)}{A(W)}+O\left(\frac{1-A(W)}{A(W)}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

which is indeed the statement of the claim.


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[^1]:    ${ }^{1} \pi$ does not necessarily depend just on the input. It can depend on private randomness as well. But this is not crucial to the proof as we argue on sampling the transcript conditioned on the edges.

