ECCC

Conditional Disclosure of Secrets: Amplification, Closure, Amortization, Lower-bounds, and Separations

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Abstract. In the *conditional disclosure of secrets* problem (Gertner et al., J. Comput. Syst. Sci., 2000) Alice and Bob, who hold inputs x and y respectively, wish to release a common secret s to Carol (who knows both x and y) if only if the input (x, y) satisfies some predefined predicate f. Alice and Bob are allowed to send a single message to Carol which may depend on their inputs and some joint randomness and the goal is to minimize the communication complexity while providing information-theoretic security.

Following Gay, Kerenidis, and Wee (Crypto 2015), we study the communication complexity of CDS protocols and derive the following positive and negative results.

- (**Closure**) A CDS for f can be turned into a CDS for its complement $\bar{f}$ with only a minor blow-up in complexity. More generally, for a (possibly non-monotone) predicate h, we obtain a CDS for $h(f_1, \ldots, f_m)$ whose cost is essentially linear in the formula size of h and polynomial in the CDS complexity of f_i.
- (**Amplification**) It is possible to reduce the privacy and correctness error of a CDS from constant to 2^{-k} with a multiplicative overhead of $O(k)$. Moreover, this overhead can be amortized over k-bit secrets.
- (**Amortization**) Every predicate f over n-bit inputs admits a CDS for multi-bit secrets whose amortized communication complexity per secret bit grows linearly with the input length n for sufficiently long secrets. In contrast, the best known upper-bound for single-bit secrets is exponential in n.
- (**Lower-bounds**) There exists a (non-explicit) predicate f over n-bit inputs for which any perfect (single-bit) CDS requires communication of at least $\Omega(n)$. This is an exponential improvement over the previously known $\Omega(\log n)$ lower-bound.
- (**Separations**) There exists an (explicit) predicate whose CDS complexity is exponentially smaller than its randomized communication complexity. This matches a lower-bound of Gay et. al., and, combined with another result of theirs, yields an exponential separation between the communication complexity of linear CDS and non-linear CDS. This is the first provable gap between the communication complexity of linear CDS (which captures most known protocols) and non-linear CDS.

Our results solve several open problems posed by Gay et al., and have applications to secret-sharing schemes for forbidden-graph access structures.

1 Introduction

Consider a pair of computationally-unbounded parties, Alice and Bob, each holding an n-bit input, x and y respectively, to some public predicate $f : \{0,1\}^n \times \{0,1\}^n \to \{0,1\}$. Alice and Bob also hold a joint secret $s \in \{0,1\}$ and have access to a joint source of randomness $r \overset{R}{\leftarrow} \{0,1\}^\rho$. The parties wish to disclose the secret s to a third party, Carol, if and only if the predicate $f(x,y)$ evaluates to 1. To this end, Alice (resp., Bob) should send to Carol a single message $a = a(x,s;r)$ (resp., $b = b(y,s;r)$). Based on the transcript (a,b) and the inputs (x,y), Carol should be able to recover the secret s if and only if $f(x,y) = 1$. (Note that Carol is assumed to know x and y.) That is, we require two properties:

- *Correctness*: There exists a decoder algorithm Dec that recovers s from (x,y,a,b) with high probability whenever (x,y) is a 1-input (i.e., $f(x,y) = 1$);
- *Privacy*: There exists a simulator Sim that, given a 0-input (x,y) (for which the predicate evaluates to 0), samples the joint distribution of the transcript (x,y,a,b) up to some small deviation error.

The main goal is to minimize the communication complexity of the protocol which is taken to be the total bit-length of the messages a and b. (See Section 3 for formal definitions.)

This form of *Conditional Disclosure of Secrets* (CDS) was introduced by Gertner, Ishai, Kushilevitz and Malkin [GIKM00] as a tool for adding data privacy to information-theoretically private information retrieval (PIR) protocols [CKGS98] and was later used in the computational setting as a light-weight alternative to zero-knowledge proofs (cf. [AIR01]). Apart from these applications, CDS plays a central role in the design of secret sharing schemes for graph-based access structures (cf. [BD91, CSGV93, SS97]) and in the context of attribute-based encryption [GPSW06, SW05]. In fact, CDS can be *equivalently formulated* under any of these frameworks as discussed below.

Secret sharing for forbidden graphs. CDS can be viewed as a special form of secret sharing for graph-based access structure (cf. [BD91, CSGV93, SS97]). Specifically, consider a secret-sharing scheme whose parties are the nodes of a bipartite graph $G = (X \cup Y, E)$ and a pair of parties $(x,y) \in X \times Y$ should be able to recover the secret s if and only if they are connected by an edge (we do not require any privacy/correctness condition for other subsets of parties). Then, we can represent the secret-sharing problem as the problem of realizing a CDS for the predicate $f_G(x,y) = 1 \Leftrightarrow (x,y) \in E$ and vice-versa by setting the share of the x-th node (resp., y-th node) to be the message $a(x,s;r)$ (resp., $b(y,s;r)$). The communication complexity of the CDS protocol therefore corresponds to the size of shares.

Attribute-based encryption. CDS can be further viewed as a limited form of private-key attribute-based encryption [GPSW06, SW05] which offers one-time

information-theoretic security. In such an encryption scheme both the decryption key a_x of a receiver and the ciphertext b_y of a sender are associated with some public attributes x and y, respectively. The receiver should be able to decrypt the plaintext m from the ciphertext b_y using the key a_x only if the attributes x and y "match" according to some predefined policy, i.e., satisfy some predicate $f(x, y)$. Using CDS for f, we can derive such a one-time secure scheme by letting the decryption key be Alice's message, $a_x = a(x, s; r)$, for a random secret s, and taking the ciphertext to be Bob's message $b_y = b(y, s; r)$ together with a padded-version of the message $m \oplus s$. (Here we can think of r, s as the sender's private-key.) In fact, it was shown by Attrapadung [Att14] and Wee [Wee14] that even in the computational setting of public-key (multi-user) attribute-based encryption (ABE), *linear CDS schemes* (in which the computation of Alice and Bob can be written as a linear function in the secret an the randomness) form a central ingredient. As a result, the ciphertext size and secret key of the ABE directly depend on the communication complexity of the underlying CDS.

The communication complexity of CDS. In light of the above, it is interesting to understand the communication complexity of CDS. Unfortunately, not much is known. Gertner et al. [GIKM00] showed that any predicate f that can be computed by a t-size Boolean formula admits a perfect linear CDS (with zero correctness/privacy error) with communication complexity of $O(t)$. This result was extended by Ishai and Wee [IW14] to s-size (arithmetic) branching programs and by Applebaum and Raykov [AR16] to s-size (arithmetic) span programs (though in the latter case correctness is imperfect). Beimel, Ishai, Kumaresan and Kushilevitz [BIKK14] proved that the CDS complexity of the *worst* predicate $f : \{0, 1\}^n \times \{0, 1\}^n \to \{0, 1\}$ over n-bit inputs is at most $O(2^{n/2})$. A similar upper-bound was later established by Gay, Kerenidis, and Wee [GKW15] for the case of linear CDS, where a matching (non-explicit) lower-bound follows from the work of Mintz [Min12]. Gay et al. [GKW15] also initiated a systematic treatment of the communication complexity of CDS and established the first lower-bounds on the communication complexity of general CDS. Their main result relates the CDS communication of a predicate f to its randomized communication complexity. Roughly speaking, it is shown that a general CDS for f must communicate at least $\Omega(\log((\mathsf{R}(f)))$ bits, and a linear CDS must communicate at least $\Omega(\sqrt{\mathsf{R}(f)})$, where $\mathsf{R}(f)$ denotes the number of bits communicated in a randomized protocol that need to be exchanged between Alice and Bob in order to compute f with constant error probability.[1] This yields (explicit) lower-bounds of $\Omega(\log(n))$ and $\Omega(\sqrt{n})$ for concrete n-bit predicates. Overall, for general CDS, there is a double-exponential gap between the best known (logarithmic) lower-bound and the best known (exponential) upper bound.

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[1] More precisely, $\mathsf{R}(f)$ can be replaced with the communication complexity of one-message protocol from Alice to Bob plus the communication complexity of one-message protocol from Bob to Alice.

2 Our Results

Following Gay et al.[GKW15], we conduct a systematic study of the complexity of CDS. Unlike previous works, we focus on *manipulations* and *transformations* of various forms of CDS. Our approach yields several positive and negative results regarding the complexity of CDS, and answers several open problems posed in previous works. We proceed with a statement of our results.

2.1 Closure properties

We begin by asking whether one can generally combine CDS for basic predicates $f_1, \ldots, f_m$ into a CDS for a more complicated predicate $h(f_1, \ldots, f_m)$. Using standard secret sharing techniques, one can derive such a transformation when h is a monotone function (with overhead proportional to the monotone formula size of h). However, these techniques fail to support non-monotone operations. Our first observation asserts that linear CDS for f can be easily transformed into a linear CDS for its complement $\overline{f} \equiv 1 - f$.

Theorem 1 (Linear CDS is closed under complement). *Suppose that f has a linear CDS with randomness complexity of ρ and communication complexity of t, then $\overline{f}$ has a linear CDS scheme with randomness complexity of $2t + \rho + 1$ and communication complexity of $2(\rho + 1)$.*

The theorem generalizes to arbitrary finite field $\mathbb{F}$. (See Section 4.1.) Roughly speaking, we rely on the following observation. It can be shown that, for a fixed input (x, y), the parties jointly compute some linear operator $T_{x,y}$ that has a high rank whenever $f(x, y) = 0$, and low rank when $f(x, y) = 1$. We "reverse" the CDS by essentially moving to the dual $T_{x,y}^*$ of $T_{x,y}$ whose rank is high when $f(x, y) = 1$, and low when $f(x, y) = 0$. One still has to find a way to distributively compute the mapping $T_{x,y}^*$. We solve this technicality by using a private simultaneous message protocol (PSM) [FKN94] that allows Alice and Bob to securely release an image of $T_{x,y}^*$ to Carol without leaking any additional information.

Next, we show that a similar "reversing transformation" exists for general (non-linear and imperfect) CDS protocols.

Theorem 2 (CDS is closed under complement). *Suppose that f has a CDS with randomness complexity of ρ and communication complexity of t and privacy/correctness errors of 2^{-k}. Then $\overline{f} \equiv 1 - f$ has a CDS scheme with similar privacy/correctness errors and randomness/communication complexity of $O(k^3 \rho^2 t + k^3 \rho^3)$.*

Imitating the argument used for the case of linear CDS, we consider, for an input (x, y) and secret s, the probability distribution $D_{x,y}^s$ of the messages (a, b) induced by the choice of the common random string. Observe that the distributions $D_{x,y}^0$ and $D_{x,y}^1$ are statistically far when $f(x) = 1$ (due to correctness), and are statistically close when $f(x, y) = 0$ (due to privacy). Therefore, to prove

Theorem 2 we should somehow *reverse* statistical distance, i.e., construct a CDS whose corresponding distributions $E_{x,y}^0$ and $E_{x,y}^1$ are close when $D_{x,y}^0$ and $D_{x,y}^1$ are far, and vice versa. A classical result of Sahai and Vadhan [SV03] (building on Okamoto [Oka96]) provides such a reversing transformation for efficiently-samplable distributions (represented by their sampling circuits). As in the case of linear CDS, this transformation cannot be used directly since the resulting distributions do not "decompose" into an x-part and a y-part. Nevertheless, we can derive a decomposable version of the reversing transformation by employing a suitable PSM protocol. (See Section 4.2 for details.)

Theorems 1 and 2 have several interesting applications. Exploiting the ability to combine CDS's under AND/OR operations, we can further show that CDS is "closed" under (non-monotone) formulas, i.e., one can obtain a CDS for $h(f_1, \ldots, f_m)$ whose cost is essentially linear in the formula size of h and polynomial in the CDS complexity of f_i. (See Section 4.3 for details.)

Application to secret-sharing for forbidden graph. Theorem 1 shows that the design of linear CDS for "very dense" functions that output 1 on all but ℓ inputs, reduces to the design of linear CDS for "very sparse" functions that output 1 on few, at most ℓ, inputs. Since the latter case can be easily implemented via a linear CDS with $O(\ell)$ communication and randomness complexity, we get a linear CDS for ℓ-dense functions with a similar complexity. Moving to the terminology of forbidden graph access structure, it follows that any highly dense bipartite G, obtained by removing at most ℓ edges from the complete bipartite graph over N nodes, admits a secret sharing scheme whose total share size is at most $O(N+\ell)$. Moreover, if G is obtained by removing ℓ edges from an arbitrary bipartite graph F, we get a complexity of $O(M + N + \ell)$ where M is the total share size of the access structure associated with F. Indeed, this follows by the closure of CDS under formulas; Letting f, g denote the edge-indicator function of F, G, we can write $g(x,y)$ by the formula $f(x,y) \wedge \bar{p}_1(x,y) \wedge \cdots \wedge \bar{p}_\ell(x,y)$ where p_i is a "point function" that evaluates to zero on the i-th edge that was excluded from F. Similar questions regarding the communication complexity of very dense forbidden graph access structure were recently studied by Beimel et al. [BFP16] for general (non-bipartite) graphs (see also [BFM16]). Our computational approach (as opposed to the combinatorial approach of [BFP16]) provides better bounds for the special case of bipartite graphs. (See Section 4.4 for details.)

2.2 Amplification

We move on to the study the robustness of CDS with respect to privacy and correctness errors. Borrowing tools from Sahai and Vadhan [SV03], it can be shown that CDS with constant correctness and privacy error of, say $1/3$, can be boosted into a CDS with an error of 2^{-k} at the expense of increasing the communication by a factor of $O(k^5)$. We show that in the context of CDS one can reduce the overhead to $O(k)$ and amortize it over long secrets.

Theorem 3 (Amplification). *A CDS F for f which supports a single-bit secret with privacy and correctness error of $1/3$, can be transformed into a CDS*

G for k-bit secrets with privacy and correctness error of $2^{-\Omega(k)}$ and communica-tion/randomness complexity which are larger than those of F by a multiplicative factor of $O(k)$.

The proof relies on constant-rate rump secret sharing schemes. (See Section 5.)

2.3 Amortizing CDS over long secrets

The above theorem suggests that there may be non-trivial savings when the secrets are long. We show that this is indeed the case, partially resolving an open question of Gay, Kerenidis, and Wee [GKW15].

Theorem 4 (Amortization over long secrets). *Let $f : \{0,1\}^n \times \{0,1\}^n \to \{0,1\}$ be a predicate. Then, for sufficiently large m, there exists a perfect lin-ear CDS which supports m-bit secrets with total communication complexity of $O(nm)$.*

Recall that for a single-bit secret, the best known upper-bound for a general predicate is $O(2^{n/2})$ [BIKK14, GKW15]. In contrast, Theorem 4 yields an amor-tized complexity of $O(n)$ per each bit of the secret. The constant in the big-O notation is not too large (can be taken to be 12). Unfortunately, amortization kicks only when the value of m is huge (double exponential in n). Achieving non-trivial savings for shorter secrets is left as an interesting open problem.

The proof of Theorem 4 is inspired by a recent result of Potechin [Pot16] regarding amortized space complexity.[2] Our proof consists of two main steps.

We begin with a *batch-CDS* scheme in which Alice holds a single input x, Bob holds a single input y, and both parties hold $2^{2^{2n}}$ secrets, one for each predicate in $\mathcal{F}_n = \{f : \{0,1\}^n \times \{0,1\}^n \to \{0,1\}\}$. The scheme releases the secret s_f if and only if f evaluates to 1 on (x, y). Using a recursive construction, it is not hard to realize such a CDS with communication complexity of $O(n|\mathcal{F}_n|)$.

Next, we use batch-CDS to get a CDS for a (single) predicate f and a vector s of $m = |\mathcal{F}_n|$ secrets, which is indexed by predicates $p \in \mathcal{F}_n$. We secret-share each bit s_p into two parts α_p, β_p and collectively release all α_p's via batch-CDS (where α_p is associated with the predicate p). Finally, we collectively release all β_p's via batch-CDS where β_p is associated with the predicate h_p that outputs 1 on (x, y) if and only if h and the target function f agree on (x, y). The key-observation is that α_p and β_p are released if only if f and p evaluates to 1. As a result we get perfect privacy and *semi-correctness*: For 1-inputs (x, y), exactly half of the secrets s_p are released (the ones for which p evaluates to 1). The latter property can be upgraded to perfect correctness by adding redundancy to the secrets (via a simple pre-encoding). See Section 6 for full details.

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[2] In fact, Theorem 4 can be derived from Potechin's theorem by extending the connec-tion between space-limited computation and CDS to the setting of multiple secrets. Instead, we present a self-contained proof which directly manipulates CDS and does not go through other computational models. This proof is arguably simpler, more instructive and yields (slightly) better amortized complexity.

2.4 Linear lower-bound

We change gears and move from upper-bounds to lower-bounds. Specifically, we derive the first linear lower-bound on the communication complexity of general CDS.

Theorem 5 (Lower-bound). *There exists a predicate $f : \{0,1\}^n \times \{0,1\}^n \to \{0,1\}$ for which any perfect (single-bit) CDS requires communication of at least $0.99n$.*

Previously the best known lower-bound for general CDS (due to [GKW15]) was logarithmic in n. As noted by [GKW15], an "insecure" realization of CDS requires a single bit, and so Theorem 5 provides a rare example of a provable linear gap in communication complexity between secure and insecure implementation of a natural task. (As argued in [GKW15], even super-constant gaps are typically out of reach.)

The proof of the lower-bound (given in Section 7) relies, again, on CDS manipulations. Consider a generalized version of CDS where the parties wish to release some Boolean function $f(x, y, s)$ defined over x, y and the secret s. We show that one can construct such a "generalized CDS" for a function f based on a standard CDS for a related predicate $g : \{0,1\}^n \times \{0,1\}^n \to \{0,1\}$. In particular, we use a standard CDS to release the value of s only if the residual function $f(x, y, \cdot)$ depends on s (i.e., $g(x, y) = f(x, y, 0) \oplus f(x, y, 1)$). This way the output $f(x, y, s)$ can be always computed, either trivially, based on x, y alone, or based on the additional knowledge of s, which is leaked when its value matters. Moreover, privacy is preserved since s is leaked only when its value matters, which means that it can be derived anyway from $f(x, y, s)$ and (x, y). We conclude that a lower-bound on CDS follows from a lower-bound on generalized-CDS. We then note that such a lower-bound essentially appears in the work of Feige, Kilian and Naor [FKN94]. Indeed, "generalized-CDS" can be equivalently viewed as a weakened version of private simultaneous message protocols for which the lower-bound of [FKN94] applies.[3]

2.5 CDS vs. linear CDS vs. communication complexity

Let us denote by $\mathsf{CDS}(f)$ the minimal communication complexity of CDS for f with a single bit of secret and constant privacy/correctness error (say 0.1). We define $\mathsf{linCDS}(f)$ similarly with respect to linear CDS protocols.

We re-visit the connection between CDS-complexity and randomized communication complexity, and show that the former can be exponentially smaller than the latter. Since linear CDS complexity is at least polynomial in the communication complexity ($\mathsf{linCDS}(f) \geq \Omega(\sqrt{\mathsf{R}(f)})$), as shown by [GKW15], we also conclude that general CDS can have exponentially-smaller communication than linear CDS.

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[3] CDS, generalized CDS, and PSM, can be all captured under the frameowrk of partial garbling studied by Ishai and Wee [IW14].

Theorem 6 (Separation). *There exists an (explicit) partial function f for which (1) $\mathsf{CDS}(f) \leq O(\log \mathsf{R}(f))$ and (2) $\mathsf{CDS}(f) \leq O(\log \mathsf{linCDS}(f))$.*

The first part of the theorem matches the lower-bound $\mathsf{CDS}(f) \geq \Omega(\log \mathsf{R}(f))$ established by [GKW15].[4] The second part provides the first separation between linear CDS and general (non-linear) CDS, resolving an open question of [GKW15].

The proof of Theorem 6 can be viewed as the communication complexity analog of Aaronson's [Aar12] oracle separation between the complexity class **SZK** of problems admitting *statistical-zero knowledge proofs* [GMR88], and the class **QMA** of problems admitting Quantum Merlin Arthur proofs. (See Section 8 for details.)

2.6 Discussion: The big picture

CDS vs. SZK. Our results highlight an important relation between conditional disclosure of secrets to statistical-zero knowledge protocols. A CDS protocol reduces the computation of $f(x, y)$, to an estimation of the statistical distance between a pair of "2-decomposable" distributions $D^0 = (a(x, 0; r), b(y, 0; r))$ and $D^1 = (a(x, 1; r), b(y, 1; r))$, similarly to the way that languages that admit a statistical zero-knowledge proofs are reduced to the analogous problem of estimating the statistical distance between a pair of efficiently-samplable distributions [SV03]. This simple insight has turned to be extremely useful for importing techniques from the domain of SZK to the CDS world.

CDS: The low-end of information-theoretic protocols. Determining the communication complexity of information-theoretic secure protocols is a fundamental research problem. Despite much efforts, we have very little understanding of the communication complexity of simple cryptographic tasks, and for most models, there are exponentially-large gaps between the best known upper-bounds to the best known lower-bounds. In an attempt to simplify the problem, one may try to focus on the most basic settings with a minimal non-trivial number of players (namely, 3) and the simplest possible communication pattern (e.g., single message protocols). Indeed, in this minimal communication model, conditional disclosure of secrets captures the notion of secret-sharing, just like private simultaneous message protocols (PSM) capture the notion of secure computation, and zero-information Arthur-Merlin games (ZAM) [GPW15] capture the notion of (non-interactive) zero-knowledge. Of all three variants, CDS is the simplest one: For any given predicate f the CDS communication of f is essentially upper-bounded by its ZAM complexity which is upper-bounded by its PSM complexity [AR16]. Hence, CDS should be the easiest model for obtaining upper-bounds (protocols) whereas PSM should be the easiest model for proving lower-bounds.

Our results, however, demonstrate that the current techniques for proving PSM lower-bounds [FKN94] also apply to the CDS model. The situation is even

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[4] The original lower-bound, which is stated for perfect CDS and for total functions, readily generalizes to partial functions and imperfect CDS. See Appendix A.

worse, since, by Theorem 4, the amortized communication complexity of CDS is indeed linear (per bit). We therefore conclude that proving a super-linear lower-bound in the PSM model requires a method that fails to lower-bound the amortized communication of CDS. Put differently, lower-bounds techniques which do not distinguish between PSM complexity and amortized CDS complexity cannot prove super-linear lower-bounds. This "barrier" provides a partial explanation for the lack of strong (super-linear) lower-bounds for PSM. It will be interesting to further formalize this argument and present some syntactic criteria that determines whether a lower-bound technique is subject to the CDS barrier.

Acknowledgement

3   Preliminaries

Through the paper, real numbers are assumed to be rounded up when being typecast into integers ($\log n$ always becomes $\lceil \log n \rceil$, for instance). The *statistical distance* between two discrete random variables, X and Y, denoted by $\Delta(X; Y)$ is defined by $\Delta(X; Y) := \frac{1}{2} \sum_z |\Pr[X = z] - \Pr[Y = z]|$. We will also use statistical distance for probability distributions, where for a probability distribution D the value $\Pr[D = z]$ is defined to be $D(z)$.

3.1   Conditional disclosure of secrets

We define the notion of Conditional Disclosure of Secrets [GIKM00].

Definition 1 (CDS). *Let $f : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y} \to \{0, 1\}$ be a predicate. Let $F_1 : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{R} \to \mathcal{T}_1$ and $F_2 : \mathcal{Y} \times \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{R} \to \mathcal{T}_2$ be deterministic encoding algorithms, where $\mathcal{S}$ is the secret domain. Then, the pair (F_1, F_2) is a CDS scheme for f if the function $F(x, y, s, r) = (F_1(x, s, r), F_2(y, s, r))$ that corresponds to the joint computation of F_1 and F_2 on a common s and r, satisfies the following properties:*

1. *(δ-Correctness) There exists a deterministic algorithm* Dec, *called a decoder, such that for every 1-input (x, y) of f and any secret $s \in \mathcal{S}$ we have that:*

$$\Pr_{r \xleftarrow{R} \mathcal{R}} [\mathsf{Dec}(x, y, F(x, y, s, r)) \neq s] \leq \delta$$

2. *(ε-Privacy) There exists a simulator* Sim *such that for every 0-input (x, y) of f and any secret $s \in \mathcal{S}$: it holds that*

$$\Delta_{r \xleftarrow{R} \mathcal{R}} (\mathsf{Sim}(x, y) \; ; \; F(x, y, s, r)) \leq \varepsilon$$

The communication complexity *of the* CDS *protocol is* $(\log |\mathcal{T}_1| + \log |\mathcal{T}_2|)$ *and its* randomness complexity *is* $\log |\mathcal{R}|$. *If* δ *and* ε *are zeros, such a* CDS *scheme is called* perfect.

By default, we let $\mathcal{X} = \mathcal{Y} = \{0,1\}^n$, $\mathcal{Z} = \{0,1\}$, $\mathcal{S} = \{0,1\}^s$, $\mathcal{R} = \{0,1\}^\rho$, $\mathcal{T}_1 = \{0,1\}^{t_1}$, and $\mathcal{T}_2 = \{0,1\}^{t_2}$ for positive integers n, s, ρ, t_1, and t_2.

Linear CDS. We say that a CDS scheme (F_1, F_2) is *linear* over a finite field $\mathbb{F}$ (or simply linear) if, for any fixed input (x, y), the functions $F_1(x, s, r)$ and $F_2(y, s, r)$ are linear over $\mathbb{F}$ in the secret s and in the randomness r, where the secret, randomness, and messages are all taken to be vectors over $\mathbb{F}$, i.e., $\mathcal{R} = \mathbb{F}^\rho$, $\mathcal{S} = \mathbb{F}^s$, $\mathcal{T}_1 = \mathbb{F}^{t_1}$ and $\mathcal{T}_2 = \mathbb{F}^{t_2}$. (By default, we think of $\mathbb{F}$ as the binary field, though our results hold over general fields.) Such a linear CDS can be canonically represented by a sequence of matrices $(M_x)_{x \in \mathcal{X}}$ and $(M_y)_{y \in \mathcal{Y}}$ where $M_x \in \mathbb{F}^{t_1 \times (1+\rho)}$ and $M_y \in \mathbb{F}^{t_2 \times (1+\rho)}$ and $F_1(x, s, r) = M_x \cdot \begin{pmatrix} s \\ r \end{pmatrix}$ and $F_2(x, s, r) = M_y \cdot \begin{pmatrix} s \\ r \end{pmatrix}$. It is not hard to show that any linear CDS with non-trivial privacy and correctness errors (smaller than 1) is actually perfect. Moreover, the linearity of the senders also implies that the decoding function is linear in the messages (cf. [GKW15]).[5]

Definition 2. *We denote by* CDS(f) *the least communication complexity of a* CDS *protocol for f with $\frac{1}{10}$-correctness and $\frac{1}{10}$-privacy.* linCDS(f) *is defined analogously for linear* CDS *protocols.*

Remark 1 (Input-dependent communication). We assume that the messages sent by the senders are of fixed length regardless of their inputs. That is, for every input x, y and r, the output of F_1 and F_2 is always a string of fixed length. However, the CDS definition naturally generalizes to the case where these functions have different output-length per different inputs, x and y, and so the protocol can have different communication per-input. Such a view is needed when one measures the total communication over all possible (x, y) inputs. (As typically done in the context of graph-forbidden access structures). We note that most of our transformations remain meaningful in this model since they blow-up the communication on a per-input basis.

3.2 Private simultaneous message protocols

We will also need the following model of information-theoretic non-interactive secure computation that was introduced by [FKN94], and was later named as *Private Simultaneous Message* (PSM) protocols by [IK97].

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[5] One can further consider a seemingly weaker form of linearity in which only the decoder is linear [GKW15]. Indeed, our separation between linear CDS and standard CDS applies to this setting as well.

Definition 3 (PSM). *Let $f : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y} \to \mathcal{Z}$ be a function. We say that a pair of deterministic encoding algorithms $F_1 : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{R} \to \mathcal{T}_1$ and $F_2 : \mathcal{Y} \times \mathcal{R} \to \mathcal{T}_2$ are* PSM *for f if the function $F(x, y, r) = (F_1(x, r), F_2(y, r))$ that corresponds to the joint computation of F_1 and F_2 on a common r, satisfies the following properties:*

1. *(δ-Correctness) There exists a deterministic algorithm* Dec, *called decoder, such that for every input (x, y) we have that:*

$$\Pr_{r \xleftarrow{R} \mathcal{R}} [\mathsf{Dec}(F(x, y, r)) \neq f(x, y)] \leq \delta.$$

2. *(ε-Privacy) There exists a randomized algorithm (simulator)* Sim *such that for any input (x, y) it holds that:*

$$\underset{r \xleftarrow{R} \mathcal{R}}{\Delta} (\mathsf{Sim}(f(x, y)); F(x, y, r)) \leq \varepsilon.$$

The communication complexity *of the* PSM *protocol is defined as the total encoding length $(\log |\mathcal{T}_1| + \log |\mathcal{T}_2|)$, and the* randomness complexity *of the protocol is defined as the length $\log |\mathcal{R}|$ of the common randomness. If δ and ε are zeros, such a* PSM *scheme is called* perfect. *The scheme is* balanced *[AIK04] if the simulator maps the uniform distribution over $\mathcal{Z}$ to the uniform distribution over $\mathcal{T} = \mathcal{T}_1 \times \mathcal{T}_2$ and the decoder maps the uniform distribution over $\mathcal{T}$ to the uniform distribution over $\mathcal{Z}$.*

3.3 Randomized encoding and CDS encoding

When talking about PSM protocols, we will use $F(x, y, r)$ as abbreviation for $(F_1(x, r), F_2(y, r))$, and analogously for CDS. When we do not need to explicitly argue about the common randomness, we will suppress it as an argument to F – that is, we will use $F(x, y)$ to denote the random variable produced by $F(x, y, r)$ for uniformly random r. Moreover, observe that the correctness and privacy conditions of both PSM and CDS are phrased as properties of the joint mapping F. One can therefore consider a *non-decomposable* CDS/PSM F which respects privacy and correctness, but (possibly) fails to decompose into an x-part and a y-part (i.e., some of its outputs depend both on x and y). In this case, we can ignore the partition of the input into x, y and parse them as a single argument $w = (x, y)$. Following [IK00, AIK04] we refer to this generalization of PSM as *randomized encoding* of f, and to the generalized version of CDS as a CDS-encoding of f. The notion of perfect and balanced PSM and perfect and linear CDS carry naturally to this setting as well. These non-decomposable variants can be trivially realized (for PSM set $F(x, y) = f(x, y)$ and for CDS take $F(x, y, s) = f(x, y) \wedge s$). Nevertheless, they offer a useful abstraction. In particular, we will use these non-decomposable notions as a useful stepping stone towards obtaining a decomposable realization.

4   Closure properties

In this section, we establish several closure properties of CDS. We begin with closure under complement for linear CDS, then, extend the result to general CDS, and finally, prove that general and linear CDS are closed under $\mathbf{NC}^1$ circuits (or equivalently under Boolean formulas).

4.1   Reversing Linear CDS

We begin by proving Theorem 1 (restated here for the convenience of the reader).

Theorem 7 (Linear CDS is closed under complement). *Let f be a function that has a linear CDS scheme F with randomness complexity of ρ field elements and communication complexity of t field elements. Then, the complement function $\overline{f} \equiv 1 - f$ has a linear CDS scheme with randomness complexity of $(2t + \rho + 1)$ field elements and communication complexity of $2(\rho + 1)$ field elements.*

Proof. Let F_1, F_2 be a linear CDS scheme for f with randomness complexity ρ and communication complexity t, where $F_1(x, s, \boldsymbol{c})$ and $F_2(y, s, \boldsymbol{c})$ are computed by applying matrices M_x and M_y to the vector $\begin{pmatrix} s \\ \boldsymbol{c} \end{pmatrix}$, respectively. We parse $M_x = (\boldsymbol{v}_x | T_x)$ and $M_y = (\boldsymbol{v}_y | T_y)$, i.e., $\boldsymbol{v}_x$ (resp., $\boldsymbol{v}_y$) denotes the first column of M_x (resp., M_y), and T_x (resp., T_y) denotes the remaining columns. In the following we fix x, y to be some inputs and let $\boldsymbol{v} = \begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{v}_x \\ \boldsymbol{v}_y \end{pmatrix}, T = \begin{pmatrix} T_x \\ T_y \end{pmatrix}, M = (\boldsymbol{v} | T)$.

One can observe that due to the linearity of CDS, it holds that $f(x, y) = 0$ if and only if $\boldsymbol{v} \in \mathsf{colspan}(T)$. Indeed, the joint distribution of the messages, $M\boldsymbol{c}$, is uniform over the subspace $\mathcal{U}_s = \mathsf{colspan}(T) + s\boldsymbol{v}$. If $\boldsymbol{v} \in \mathsf{colspan}(T)$ the subspace $\mathcal{U}_s$ collapses to $\mathsf{colspan}(T)$ regardless of the value of s (and so we get perfect privacy), whereas for $\boldsymbol{v} \notin \mathsf{colspan}(T)$, different secrets $s \neq s'$ induce disjoint subspaces $\mathcal{U}_s$ and $\mathcal{U}_{s'}$, and so the secret can be perfectly recovered.

Based on this observation, one can construct a *non-decomposable* CDS for $\overline{f}$ (in which Alice and Bob are viewed as a single party) as follows. Compute a random mask $\boldsymbol{\alpha}^T \boldsymbol{v}$ (where $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ is a random vector), and output the masked secret bit $d = s + \boldsymbol{\alpha}^T \boldsymbol{v}$ together with the row vector $\boldsymbol{\gamma} = \boldsymbol{\alpha}^T T$. The decoding procedure starts by finding a vector $\boldsymbol{z}$ such that $\boldsymbol{v} = T\boldsymbol{z}$ (such a vector always exists since $\boldsymbol{v} \in \mathsf{colspan}(T)$ if $f(x, y) = 0$), and then outputs $d - \boldsymbol{\gamma}\boldsymbol{z} = s + \boldsymbol{\alpha}^T \boldsymbol{v} - (\boldsymbol{\alpha}^T T)\boldsymbol{z} = s$. Of course, the resulting scheme is not decomposable, however, we can fix this problem by letting Alice and Bob compute a PSM of it. We proceed with a formal description.

We construct CDS scheme $G = (G_1, G_2)$ for $\overline{f}$ as follows: Alice and Bob get shared randomness $q = (u, \boldsymbol{w}, \boldsymbol{\alpha}_1, \boldsymbol{\alpha}_2)$, where $u \in \mathbb{F}$, $\boldsymbol{w} \in \mathbb{F}^\rho$, and $\boldsymbol{\alpha}_1, \boldsymbol{\alpha}_2 \in \mathbb{F}^t$. Then they compute

$$G_1(x, s, q) = (\boldsymbol{\alpha}_1^T T_x + \boldsymbol{w}, \boldsymbol{\alpha}_1^T \cdot \boldsymbol{v}_x + u + s) \quad \text{and} \quad G_2(y, s, q) = (\boldsymbol{\alpha}_2^T T_y - \boldsymbol{w}, \boldsymbol{\alpha}_2^T \cdot \boldsymbol{v}_y - u).$$

The decoder on input $(\boldsymbol{m}_1, b_1)$ from Alice and $(\boldsymbol{m}_2, b_2)$ from Bob does the following: it finds a vector $\boldsymbol{z}$ such that $\boldsymbol{v} = T\boldsymbol{z}$ and outputs $b_1 + b_2 - (\boldsymbol{m}_1 + \boldsymbol{m}_2) \cdot \boldsymbol{z}$.

We now prove that the pair (G_1, G_2) is a CDS for $\overline{f}$ starting with correctness. Fix an input (x, y) for which $f(x, y) = 0$. Recall that in this case $\boldsymbol{v} \in \mathsf{colspan}(T)$, and so the decoder can find $\boldsymbol{z}$ as required. It is not hard to verify that in this case the decoding formula recovers the secret. Indeed, letting $\boldsymbol{\alpha} = \begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{\alpha}_1 \\ \boldsymbol{\alpha}_2 \end{pmatrix}$, we have

$$b_1 + b_2 - (\boldsymbol{m}_1 + \boldsymbol{m}_2) \cdot \boldsymbol{z} = s + \boldsymbol{\alpha}^T \cdot \boldsymbol{v} - (\boldsymbol{\alpha}^T \cdot T) \cdot \boldsymbol{z} = s + \boldsymbol{\alpha}^T \cdot \boldsymbol{v} - \boldsymbol{\alpha}^T \cdot \boldsymbol{v} = s.$$

We now turn to proving the perfect privacy of the protocol. Consider any (x, y) such that $f(x, y) = 1$ and let $M = (\boldsymbol{v}|T)$ be the joint linear mapping. To prove privacy, it suffices to show that, for random $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \overset{R}{\leftarrow} \mathbb{F}^{2t}$, the first entry of the vector $\boldsymbol{\alpha}^T M$ is uniform conditioned on the other entries of the vector. To see this, first observe that $\boldsymbol{\alpha}^T M$ is distributed uniformly subject to the linear constraints $\boldsymbol{\alpha}^T M \cdot \boldsymbol{r} = \boldsymbol{0}$ induced by all vectors $\boldsymbol{r}$ in the Kernel of M. Therefore, $\boldsymbol{\alpha}^T \boldsymbol{v}$ is uniform conditioned on $\boldsymbol{\alpha}^T T$ if and only if all $\boldsymbol{r}$'s in the Kernel of M have 0 as their first entry. Indeed, if this is not the case, then $\boldsymbol{v} \in \mathsf{colspan}(T)$, and so (x, y) cannot be 1-input of f.

Finally, observe that the protocol consumes $(2t + \rho + 1)$ field elements for the joint randomness, and communicates a total number of $2\rho + 2$ field elements. $\square$

Remark 2 (Preserving input-dependent complexity). Theorem 7 extends to the input-dependent setting mentioned in Remark 1. Let F be a linear CDS for f and let $(M_x)_{x \in \mathcal{X}}$ and $(M_y)_{y \in \mathcal{Y}}$ denote its canonical representation. We measure the *effective randomness* of F per input x (resp., y) as the number of non-zero columns in M_x (resp., M_y), excluding the first column $\boldsymbol{v}_x$ (resp., $\boldsymbol{v}_y$). Let $\rho_1(x)$ and $\rho_2(y)$ denote the effective randomness of the CDS F for f for an input x and y, respectively. Then, Theorem 7 can be used to obtain a linear CDS G' for $\overline{f}$ in which Alice communicates $\rho_1(x) + 1$ field elements for an input x, and Bob communicates $\rho_2(y) + 1$ field elements for an input y. The idea is to note that some of the bits sent in the CDS G (defined in the proof of Theorem 7) can be omitted. Indeed, suppose that the i-th columns of the matrix T_x equals to zero (recall that T_x is obtained from M_x by excluding the first column as in the proof of Theorem 7). Then, in the CDS G, the i-th bit of Alice's message $\boldsymbol{\alpha}_1^T T_x + \boldsymbol{w}$ equals to $\boldsymbol{w}_i$ and so the receiver learns $\boldsymbol{w}_i$. As a result, we can just fix it to zero without losing privacy. However, now we can reduce the communication of Alice by omitting the i-th bit (i.e., $\boldsymbol{w}_i$) from the message. Applying this shrinkage to every redundant column in T_x and every redundant column in T_y, yields the result.

4.2   Reversing general CDS

We continue by proving Theorem 2 (restated below).

Theorem 8 (CDS is closed under complement). *Suppose that f has a* CDS *with randomness complexity of ρ and communication complexity of t and privacy/correctness errors of 2^{-k}. Then $\overline{f} \equiv 1 - f$ has a* CDS *scheme with similar privacy/correctness errors and randomness/communication complexity of $O(k^3\rho^2 t + k^3\rho^3)$.*

We begin with the following reversing transformation of Sahai and Vadhan [SV03, Corollary 4.18].

Construction 9 (Statistical Distance Reversal). *Let $D^0, D^1 : Q \to L$ be a pair of functions where $Q = \{0,1\}^\rho$ and $L = \{0,1\}^t$. For a parameter k, let $m = k^3\rho^2$, and let $\mathcal{H} = \{h : \{0,1\}^m \times Q^m \times L^m \to S\}$ be a family of 2-universal hash functions where $S = \{0,1\}^{(\rho+1)m-2(m/k)-k}$. The functions C^0 and C^1 take an input $(\boldsymbol{b}, \boldsymbol{r}, \boldsymbol{b'}, \boldsymbol{r'}, h, u) \in \left(\{0,1\}^m \times Q^m\right)^2 \times \mathcal{H} \times U$, and output the tuple*

$$(D^{\boldsymbol{b}}(\boldsymbol{r}), \boldsymbol{b}, h, z)$$

where $D^{\boldsymbol{b}}(\boldsymbol{r}) =: (D^{b_1}(r_1), \ldots, D^{b_m}(r_m))$, and

$$z = \begin{cases} h(\boldsymbol{b}, \boldsymbol{r}, D^{\boldsymbol{b'}}(\boldsymbol{r'})) & \text{for } C^0 \\ u & \text{for } C^1 \end{cases}.$$

In the following, we denote by D^0 (resp., D^1, C^0, C^1) the probability distributions induced by applying the function D^0 (resp., D^1, C^0, C^1) to a uniformly chosen input.

Fact 10 (Corollary 4.18 in [SV03]). *In the set-up of Construction 9, the following holds for every parameter k.*

1. *If $\Delta(D^0, D^1) < 2^{-k}$ then $\Delta(C^0, C^1) > 1 - 2^{-k}$.*
2. *If $\Delta(D^0, D^1) > 1 - 2^{-k}$, then $\Delta(C^0, C^1) < 2^{-k}$.*

Fact 10 allows to transform a CDS $F(x, y, s, r) = (F_1(x, s; r), F_2(y, s; r))$ for the function f, into a *CDS encoding C for $\overline{f}$*. For inputs x, y and secret s, the CDS encoding C samples a message from the distribution C^s_{xy} obtained by applying Construction 9 to the distributions $D^0_{xy} = F(x, y, 0, r)$ and $D^1_{xy} = F(x, y, 1)$.

Unfortunately, the resulting CDS encoding is not decomposable since the hash function is applied jointly to the x-th and y-th components of the distributions D^0_{xy} and D^1_{xy}. We fix the problem by using a PSM of h. Let us begin with the following more general observation that shows that h can be safely replaced with its randomized encoding.

Lemma 1. *Under the set-up of Construction 9, for every $h \in \mathcal{H}$ let $\hat{h}$ be a perfect balanced randomized encoding of h with randomness space V and output space $\hat{S}$. The function E^0 (resp., E^1) is defined similarly to C^0 (resp., C^1) except that the input is $(\boldsymbol{b}, \boldsymbol{r}, \boldsymbol{b'}, \boldsymbol{r'}, h, v, \hat{s}) \in \left(\{0,1\}^m \times Q^m\right)^2 \times \mathcal{H} \times V \times \hat{S}$ and the output is identical except for the z-part which is replaced by*

$$\hat{z} = \begin{cases} \hat{h}(\boldsymbol{b}, \boldsymbol{r}, D^{\boldsymbol{b'}}(\boldsymbol{r'}); v) & \text{for } E^0 \\ \hat{s} & \text{for } E^1 \end{cases}.$$

Then, the conclusion of Fact 10 holds for E^0 and E^1 as well. Namely, for every parameter k,

1. *if $\Delta(D^0, D^1) < 2^{-k}$ then $\Delta(E^0, E^1) > 1 - 2^{-k}$;*
2. *if $\Delta(D^0, D^1) > 1 - 2^{-k}$, then $\Delta(E^0, E^1) < 2^{-k}$.*

Proof. Fix D^0 and D^1. We prove that $\Delta(E^0, E^1) = \Delta(C^0, C^1)$ and conclude the lemma from Fact 10. Indeed, consider the randomized mapping T which maps a tuple (a, b, h, z) to $(a, b, h, \mathsf{Sim}(z))$ where Sim is the simulator of the encoding $\hat{h}$. Then, by the perfect privacy and the balanced property, T takes C^0 to E^0 and C^1 to E^1. Since statistical distance can only decrease when the same probabilistic process is applied to two random variables, it follows that $\Delta(C^0, C^1) \leq \Delta(T(C^0), T(C^1)) = \Delta(E^0, E^1)$. For the other direction, consider the mapping T' which maps a tuple $(a, b, h, \hat{z})$ to $(a, b, h, \mathsf{Dec}(\hat{z}))$ where Dec is the decoder of the encoding. Then, by the perfect correctness and by the balanced property, T takes E^0 to C^0 and E^1 to C^1. It follows that $\Delta(E^0, E^1) \leq \Delta(T'(E^0), T'(E^1)) = \Delta(C^0, C^1)$, and the lemma follows. $\square$

We can now prove Theorem 8.

Proof (Proof of Theorem 8). Let $F = (F_1, F_2)$ be a CDS for the function f with randomness complexity ρ, communication t and privacy/correctness error of 2^{-k}. For inputs x, y and secret σ, the CDS for $\overline{f}$ will be based on the functions E^σ defined in Lemma 1 where $D^0(r) = F(x, y, 0; r)$ and $D^1(r) = F(x, y, 1; r)$. In particular, we will instantiate Lemma 1 as follows.
Let

$$\alpha = (\boldsymbol{b}, \boldsymbol{r}, D_{xy}^{\boldsymbol{b}}(\boldsymbol{r})), \quad \text{where } D_{xy}^{\boldsymbol{b}}(\boldsymbol{r}) := (F(x, y, b_1; r_1), \ldots, F(x, y, b_m; r_m))$$

be the input to the hash function h. Let $n_0 = m(1 + \rho + t)$ denote the length of α. Observe that each bit of α depends either on x or on y but not in both (since F is a CDS). Let $A \subset [n_0]$ denote the set of entries which depend on x and let $B = [n_0] \setminus A$ be its complement. Let $n_1 = (\rho + 1)m - 2m/k - k$ denote the output length of the hash function family $\mathcal{H}$. We implement $\mathcal{H} = \{h\}$ by using Toeplitz matrices. That is, each function is defined by a binary Toeplitz matrix $M \in \mathbb{F}_2^{n_1 \times n_0}$ (in which each descending diagonal from left to right is constant) and a vector $w \in \mathbb{F}_2^{n_1}$, and $h(\alpha) = M\alpha + w$. Let us further view the hash function $h(\alpha)$ as a two-argument function $h(\alpha_A, \alpha_B)$ and let

$$\hat{h}(\alpha_A, \alpha_B; v) = (M_A \alpha_A + w + v, M_B \alpha_B - v),$$

where $v \in \mathbb{F}_2^{n_1}$ and M_A (resp. M_B) is the restriction of M to the columns in A (resp., columns in B). It is not hard to verify that $\hat{h}$ is a perfect balanced PSM for h. (Indeed decoding is performed by adding Alice's output to Bob's output, and simulation is done by splitting an output β of h into two random shares $c_1, c_2 \in \mathbb{F}_2^{n_1}$ which satisfy $c_1 + c_2 = \beta$.)
Consider the randomized mapping E_{xy}^σ obtained from Lemma 1 instantiated with $D^s(r) = D_{xy}^s(r) = F(x, y, s; r)$ and the above choices of $\hat{h}$. We claim that

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E_{xy}^σ is a CDS for $\overline{f}$ with privacy and correctness error of 2^{-k}. To see this first observe that, by construction, the output of E_{xy}^σ can be decomposed into an x-component $E_1(x, \sigma)$ and a y-component $E_2(y, \sigma)$. (All the randomness that is used as part of the input to E is consumed as part of the joint randomness of the CDS.)

To prove privacy, fix some 0-input (x, y) of $\overline{f}$ and note that $f(x, y) = 1$ and therefore, by the correctness of the CDS F, it holds that $\Delta(D_{xy}^0, D_{xy}^1) > 1 - 2^{-k}$. We conclude, by Lemma 1, that $\Delta(E_{xy}^0, E_{xy}^1) < 2^{-k}$ and privacy holds. For correctness, fix some 1-input (x, y) of $\overline{f}$ and note that $f(x, y) = 0$ and therefore, by the privacy of the CDS F, it holds that $\Delta(D_{xy}^0, D_{xy}^1) < 2^{-k}$. We conclude, by Lemma 1, that $\Delta(E_{xy}^0, E_{xy}^1) > 1 - 2^{-k}$ and so correctness holds (by using the optimal distinguisher as a decoder). Finally, since the description length of h is $n_0 + 2n_1$ the randomness complexity of $\hat{h}$ is n_1 and the communication complexity of $\hat{h}$ is $2n_1$, the overall communication and randomness complexity of the resulting CDS is $O(k^3\rho^2 t + k^3\rho^3)$. $\qquad\square$

4.3 Closure under formulas

Closure under formulas can be easily deduced from Theorems 7 and 8.

Theorem 11. *Let g be a boolean function over m binary inputs that can be computed by a σ-size formula. Let $f_1, \ldots, f_m$ be m boolean functions over $\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$ each having a CDS with t communication and randomness complexity, and 2^{-k} privacy and correctness errors. Then, the function $h : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y} \to \{0, 1\}$ defined by $g(f_1(x, y), \ldots, f_m(x, y))$ has a CDS scheme with $O(\sigma k^3 t^3)$ randomness and communication complexity, and $\sigma 2^{-k}$ privacy and correctness errors. Moreover, in the case of linear CDS, the communication and randomness complexity are only $O(\sigma t)$ and the resulting CDS is also linear.*

Proof. Without loss of generality, assume that the formula g is composed of AND and OR gates and all the negations are at the bottom (this can be achieved by applying De Morgan's laws) and are not counted towards the formula size. We prove the theorem with an upper-bound of $\sigma \cdot Ck^3t^3$ where C is the constant hidden in the big-O notation in Theorem 8 (the upper-bound on the communication/ranodmness complexity of the complement of a CDS).

The proof is by induction on σ. For $\sigma = 1$, the formula g is either $f_i(x, y)$ or $\overline{f}_i(x, y)$ for some $i \in [m]$, in which case the claim follows either from our assumption on the CDS for f_i or from Theorem 8. To prove the induction step, consider a σ-size formula $g(f_1, \ldots, f_m)$ of the form $g_1(f_1, \ldots, f_m) \diamond g_2(f_1, \ldots, f_m)$ where $\diamond$ is either AND or OR, g_1 and g_2 are formulas of size σ_1 and σ_2, respectively, and $\sigma = \sigma_1 + \sigma_2 + 1$. For the case of an AND gate, we additively secret share the secret s into random s_1 and s_2 subject to $s_1 + s_2 = s$ and use a CDS for g_1 with secret s_1 and for g_2 for the secret s_2. For the case of OR gate, use a CDS for g_1 with secret s and for g_2 for the secret s. By the induction hypothesis, the communication and randomness complexity are at most $\sigma_1 \cdot Ck^3t^3 + \sigma_2 \cdot Ck^3t^3 + 1 \le \sigma Ck^3t^3$, and the privacy/correctness error grow to $\sigma_1 2^{-k} + \sigma_2 2^{-k} \le \sigma 2^{-k}$, as required.

The extension to the linear case follows by plugging the upper-bound from Theorem 7 to the basis of the induction, and by noting that the construction preserves linearity. □

4.4   Application: secret sharing for dense forbidden graphs

As explained in the introduction CDS schemes naturally correspond to secret sharing schemes for forbidden bipartite graphs. Recently, Beimel et al. [BFP16] studied the complexity of such schemes for the case of dense graphs in which all but few edges exist. In the setting of CDS, this corresponds to functions which are almost always 1.

Corollary 1. *Let $f : \{0,1\}^n \times \{0,1\}^n \to \{0,1\}$ be a predicate which takes the value 1 on all but ℓ inputs. Then, there exists a linear CDS for f for which the total communication complexity over all inputs x and y is $2(N + \ell)$ where $N = 2^n$. More generally, for any predicate $h : \{0,1\}^n \times \{0,1\}^n \to \{0,1\}$ with CDS of total complexity of M, there exists a CDS for $h \wedge f$ with total complexity of $M + 2(N + \ell)$.*

Proof. Consider the following simple CDS for the complement g of f. Let $(x_i, y_i)_{i \in [\ell]}$ be the points accepted by g. The shared randomness consists of ℓ random bits $r = (r_i)_{i \in [\ell]}$. Given a secret s and input x and y, Alice outputs $(s + r_i)_{i:x_i=x}$ and Bob outputs $(r_i)_{i:y_i=y}$. It is not hard to verify that this is a linear CDS for g. Moreover, observe that the effective randomness complexity per x is exactly $D_1(x)$, the number of tuples (x_i, y_i) in which x appears. Similarly, the effective randomness complexity per y is exactly $D_2(y)$, the number of tuples (x_i, y_i) in which y appears. Applying the input-dependent version of Theorem 7 (as outlined in Remark 2), yields a CDS for f, in which the communication complexity per x is $D_1(x) + 1$ and per y is $D_2(y) + 1$. Summing-up over all x and y, yields a total communication complexity of $\sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^n} D_1(x) + 1 + \sum_{y \in \{0,1\}^n} D_2(y) + 1 = 2(2^n + \ell)$, as required.

For the "Moreover" part, we secret share s to random s_1 and s_2 subject to $s_1 + s_2 = s$ and use the h-CDS for releasing s_1 and the f-CDS for releasing s_2. (This can be viewed as a special case of Theorem 11.) □

Our results correspond to secret sharing schemes for dense forbidden *bipartite graphs* with $N = 2^n$ nodes on each side and where ℓ edges are removed, either from the complete graph, or from the graph that represents the function h. For general (possibly non-bipartite) dense graphs with $\binom{N}{2} - \ell$ edges, Beimel et al. [BFP16] provide an upper-bound of $O(N + \ell^{7/6})$ for $\ell < N$ and $O(N^{7/6+2\beta/2})$ for $\ell = N^{1+\beta}, \beta \leq 1/2$. The latter result generalizes to the case where $\ell = N^{1+\beta}$ edges are removed from an arbitrary graph H at the expense of an additive overhead of M – the total share-size of a secret-sharing realizing H. The bounds in Corollary 1 are better, though they apply to the more restrictive setting of bipartite graphs.

5 Amplifying correctness and privacy of CDS

In this section we show how to simultaneously reduce the correctness and privacy error of a CDS scheme F. Moreover, the transformation has only minor cost when applied to long secrets.

Theorem 12. *Let $f : X \times Y \to \{0,1\}$ be a predicate and let F be a CDS for f which supports 1-bit secrets with correctness error $\delta_0 = 0.1$ and privacy error $\varepsilon_0 = 0.1$. Then, for every integer k there exists a CDS G for f with k-bit secrets, privacy and correctness errors of $2^{-\Omega(k)}$. The communication (resp., randomness) of G larger than those of F by a multiplicative factor of $O(k)$.*

Proof. Let ε be some constant larger than ε_0. Let E be a randomized mapping that takes k-bit message s and $O(k)$-random string into an encoding c of length $m = \Theta(k)$ with the following properties:

1. If $\mathsf{E}(s)$ is passes through a Binary Symmetric Channel with crossover probability δ_0 then s can be recovered with probability $1 - \exp(-\Omega(k))$.
2. For any pair of secrets s and s' and any set $T \subset [m]$ of size at most εm, the T-restricted encoding of s is distributed identically to the T-restricted encoding of s', i.e., $(\mathsf{E}(s)_i)_{i \in T} \equiv (\mathsf{E}(s')_i)_{i \in T}$.

That is, E can be viewed as a ramp secret-sharing scheme with 1-bit shares which supports robust reconstruction. Such a scheme can be based on any linear error-correcting code with good dual distance [CCG$^+$07]. In particular, by using a random linear code, we can support $\varepsilon_0 = \delta_0 = 0.1$ or any other constants which satisfy the inequality $1 - H_2(\delta) > H_2(\varepsilon)$.

Given the CDS $F = (F_1, F_2)$ we construct a new CDS $G = (G_1, G_2)$ as follows. Alice and Bob jointly map the secret $s \in \{0,1\}^k$ to $c = \mathsf{E}(s; r_0)$ (using joint randomness r_0). Then, for every $i \in [m]$, Alice outputs $F_1(x, c_i; r_i)$ and Bob outputs $F_2(y, c_i; r_i)$, where $r_1, \ldots, r_m$ are given as part of the shared randomness.

Let us analyze the correctness of the protocol. Fix some x, y for which $f(x, y) = 1$. Consider the decoder which given $(v_1, \ldots, v_m)$ and x, y applies the original decoder of F to each coordinate separately (with the same x, y), and passes the result $\hat{c} \in \{0,1\}^m$ to the decoding procedure of E, promised by Property (1) above. By the correctness of F, each bit $\hat{c}_i$ equals to c_i with probability of at least $1 - \delta_0$. Therefore, the decoder of E recovers c with all but $1 - \exp(-\Omega(k))$ probability.

Consider the simulator which simply applies G to the secret $s' = 0^k$. Fix x and y and a secret s. To upper-bound the statistical distance between $G(x, y, s')$ and $G(x, y, s')$, we need the following standard "coupling fact" (cf. [MPR07, Lemma 5] for a similar statement).

Fact 13. *Any pair of distributions, (D_0, D_1) whose statistical distance is ε can be coupled into a joint distribution (E_0, E_1, b) with the following properties:*

1. *The marginal distribution of E_0 (resp., E_1) is identical to D_0 (resp., D_1).*
2. *b is an indicator random variable which takes the value 1 with probability ε.*

3. *Conditioned on $b = 0$, the outcome of E_0 equals to the outcome of E_1.*

Define the distributions $D_0 := F(x, y, 0)$ and $D_1 := F(x, y, 1)$, and let (E_0, E_1, b) be the coupled version of D_0, D_1 derived from Fact 13. Let $c = \mathsf{E}(s)$ and $c' = \mathsf{E}(s')$. Then,

$$G(x, y, s) = (E_{c_1}^1, \ldots, E_{c_m}^m),$$

and

$$G(x, y, s') = (E_{c_1'}^1, \ldots, E_{c_m'}^m),$$

where for each $i \in [m]$ the tuple (E_0^i, E_1^i, b^i) is sampled jointly and independently from all other tuples. Let $T = \{i \in [m] : b_i \neq 0\}$. Then, it holds that

$$\Delta(G(x, y, s); G(x, y, s')) \leq \Delta((T, (E_{c_i}^i)_{i \in T}); (T, (E_{c_i'}^i)_{i \in T}))$$
$$\leq \Pr[|T| > \varepsilon m] \leq \exp(-\Omega(k)),$$

where the first inequality follows from Fact 13, the second inequality follows from the second property of E and the last inequality follows from a Chernoff bound (recalling that $\varepsilon - \varepsilon' > 0$ is a constant and $m = \Theta(k)$). The theorem follows. $\square$

Remark 3 (Optimization). The polarization lemma of Sahai and Vadhan [SV03] provides an amplification procedure which works for a wider range of parameters. Specifically, their transformation can be applied as long as the initial correctness and privacy errors satisfy the relation $\delta_0^2 > \varepsilon_0$. (Some evidence suggest that this condition is, in fact, necessary for any amplification procedure [HR05].) Unfortunately, the communication overhead in their reduction is polynomially larger than ours and does not amortize over long secrets. It is not hard to combine the two approaches and get the best of both worlds. In particular, given a CDS with constant correctness and privacy errors which satisfy $\delta_0^2 > \varepsilon_0$, use the polarization lemma with constant security parameter k_0 to reduce the errors below the threshold needed for Theorem 12, and then use the theorem to efficiently reduce the errors below 2^{-k}. The resulting transformation has the same asymptotic tradeoff between communication, error, and secret length, and can be used for a wider range of parameters. (This, in particular, yields the statement of Theorem 3 in the introduction in which δ_0 and ε_0 are taken to be $1/3$).

Remark 4 (Preserving efficiency). Theorem 12 preserves efficiency (of the CDS senders and decoder) as long as the encoding E, and its decoding algorithm are efficient. This can be guaranteed by replacing the random linear codes (for which decoding is not know to be efficient) with an Algebraic Geometric Codes (as suggested in [CCG$^+$07]; see also Claim 4.1 in [IKOS09] and [GS96, CC06]). This modification requires to start with smaller (yet constant) error probabilities δ_0, ε_0. As in Remark 3, this limitation can be easily waived. First use the inefficient transformation (based on random binary codes) with constant amplification $k_0 = O(1)$ to reduce the privacy/correctness error below the required threshold, and then use the efficient amplification procedure (based on Algebraic Geometric Codes).

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6 Amortizing the communication for long secrets

In this section we show that, for sufficiently long secrets, the amortized communication cost of CDS for n-bit predicates is $O(n)$ bits per each bit of the secret. As explained in the introduction, in order to prove this result we first amortize CDS over many different predicates (applied to the same input (x, y)). We refer to this version of CDS as *batch-CDS*, formally defined below.

Definition 4 (batch-CDS). *Let $\mathcal{F} = (f_1, \ldots, f_m)$ be an m-tuple of predicates over the domain $\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$. Let $F_1 : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{S}^m \times \mathcal{R} \to \mathcal{T}_1$ and $F_2 : \mathcal{Y} \times \mathcal{S}^m \times \mathcal{R} \to \mathcal{T}_2$ be deterministic encoding algorithms, where $\mathcal{S}$ is the secret domain (by default $\{0, 1\}$). Then, the pair (F_1, F_2) is a batch-CDS scheme for $\mathcal{F}$ if the function $F(x, y, s, r) = (F_1(x, s, r), F_2(y, s, r))$, that corresponds to the joint computation of F_1 and F_2 on a common s and r, satisfies the following properties:*

1. *(Perfect correctness)[6] There exists a deterministic algorithm Dec, called a decoder, such that for every every $i \in [m]$, every 1-input (x, y) of f_i and every vector of secrets $s \in \mathcal{S}^m$, we have that:*

$$\Pr_{r \xleftarrow{R} \mathcal{R}} \left[\mathsf{Dec}(i, x, y, F(x, y, s, r)) = s_i \right] = 1.$$

2. *(Perfect privacy) There exists a simulator Sim such that for every input (x, y) and every vector of secrets $s \in \mathcal{S}^m$, the following distributions are identical*

$$\mathsf{Sim}(x, y, \hat{s}) \qquad and \qquad F(x, y, s, r),$$

where $r \xleftarrow{R} \mathcal{R}$ and $\hat{s}$ is an m-long vector whose i-th component equals to s_i if $f_i(x, y) = 1$, and $\perp$ otherwise.

The communication complexity *of the* CDS *protocol is* $(\log |\mathcal{T}_1| + \log |\mathcal{T}_2|)$.

In the following, we let $\mathcal{F}_n$ denote the $2^{2^{2n}}$-tuple which contains all predicates $f : \{0, 1\}^n \times \{0, 1\}^n \to \{0, 1\}$ defined over pairs of n-bit inputs (sorted according to some arbitrary order).

Lemma 2. *$\mathcal{F}_n$-batch CDS can be implemented with communication complexity of $3|\mathcal{F}_n|$. Moreover the protocol is linear.*

Proof. The proof is by induction on n. For $n = 1$, it is not hard to verify that any predicate $f : \{0, 1\} \times \{0, 1\} \to \{0, 1\}$ admits a CDS with a total communication complexity of at most 2 bits. Indeed, there are 16 such predicates, out of which, six are trivial in the sense that the value of f depends only in the inputs of one of the parties (and so they admit a CDS with 1 bit of communication), and the other ten predicates correspond, up to local renaming of the inputs, to AND, OR, and XOR, which admit simple linear 2-bit CDS as follows. For AND, Alice

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[6] For simplicity, we consider only perfectly correct and perfectly private batch-CDS, though the definition can be generalized to the imperfect case as well.

and Bob send $s \cdot x + r$ and $r \cdot y$; for OR, they send $x \cdot s$ and $y \cdot s$; and, for XOR, they send $s + x \cdot r_1 + (1-x)r_2$ and $y \cdot r_2 + (1-y)r_1$ (where r and (r_1, r_2) are shared random bits and addition/multiplication are over the binary field). It follows, that $\mathcal{F}_1$-batch CDS can be implemented with total communication of at most $2|\mathcal{F}_1|$. (In fact, this bound can be improved by exploiting the batch mode.)

Before proving the induction step. Let us make few observations. For $(\alpha, \beta) \in \{0,1\}^2$, consider the mapping $\phi_{\alpha,\beta} : \mathcal{F}_{n+1} \to \mathcal{F}_n$ which maps a function $f \in \mathcal{F}_{n+1}$ to the function $g \in \mathcal{F}_n$ obtained by restricting f to $x_{n+1} = \alpha$ and $y_{n+1} = \beta$. The mapping $\phi_{\alpha,\beta}$ is onto, and is D-to-1 where $D = |\mathcal{F}_{n+1}|/|\mathcal{F}_n|$. We can therefore define a mapping $T_{\alpha,\beta}(f)$ which maps $f \in \mathcal{F}_{n+1}$ to $(g,i) \in \mathcal{F}_n \times [D]$ such that f is the i-th preimage of g under $\phi_{\alpha,\beta}$ with respect to some fixed order on $\mathcal{F}_{n+1}$. By construction, for every fixed (α, β), the mapping $T_{\alpha,\beta}$ is one-to-one.

We can now prove the induction step; That is, we construct $\mathcal{F}_{n+1}$-batch CDS based on D copies of $\mathcal{F}_n$-batch CDS. Given input $x \in \{0,1\}^{n+1}$ for Alice, $y \in \{0,1\}^{n+1}$ for Bob, and joint secrets $(s_f)_{f \in \mathcal{F}_{n+1}}$, the parties proceed as follows.

1. Alice and Bob use D copies of $\mathcal{F}_n$-batch CDS with inputs $x' = (x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ and $y' = (y_1, \ldots, y_n)$. In the i-th copy, for every predicate $g \in \mathcal{F}_n$, a random secret $r_{g,i} \in \{0,1\}$ is being used. (The $r_{g,i}$'s are taken from the joint randomness of Alice and Bob.)

2. For every $f \in \mathcal{F}_{n+1}$ and $(\alpha, \beta) \in \{0,1\}^2$, Alice and Bob release the value $\sigma_{f,\alpha,\beta} = s_f + r_{g,i}$ where $(g,i) = T_{\alpha,\beta}(f)$ iff the last bits of their inputs, x_{n+1} and y_{n+1}, are equal to α and β, respectively. This step is implemented as follows. For each f, Alice sends a pair of bits

$$c_{f,0} = \sigma_{f,x_{n+1},0} + r'_{f,0}, \quad \text{and} \quad c_{f,1} = \sigma_{f,x_{n+1},1} + r'_{f,1},$$

and Bob sends $r'_{f,y_{n+1}}$ where $r'_{f,0}, r'_{f,1}$ are taken from the joint randomness.

The decoding procedure is simple. If the input $(x,y) \in \{0,1\}^{n+1} \times \{0,1\}^{n+1}$ satisfies $f \in \mathcal{F}_{n+1}$, the decoder does the following: (1) Computes $(g,i) = T_{x_{n+1},y_{n+1}}(f)$ and retrieves the value of $r_{g,i}$ which is released by the batch-CDS since $g(x',y') = f(x,y) = 1$; (2) Collects the values $c_{f,x_{n+1}}$ and $r'_{f,y_{n+1}}$ sent during the second step, and recovers the value of s_f by computing $c_{f,x_{n+1}} - r'_{f,y_{n+1}} - r_{g,i}$.

In addition, it is not hard to verify that perfect privacy holds. Indeed, suppose that $(x,y) \in \{0,1\}^{n+1} \times \{0,1\}^{n+1}$ does not satisfy f. Then, the only s_f-dependent value which is released is $s_f \oplus r_{g,i}$ where g is the restriction of f to (x_{n+1}, y_{n+1}). However, since (x,y) fails to satisfy f, its prefix does not satisfy g and therefore $r_{g,i}$ remains hidden from the receiver. Formally, we can perfectly simulate the view of the receiver as follows. First simulate the first step using D calls to the simulator of $\mathcal{F}_n$-batch CDS with random secrets $r_{g,i}$. Then simulate the second step by sampling, for each f, three values $c_{f,0}, c_{f,1}$ and r' which are uniform if $f(x,y) = 0$, and, if $f(x,y) = 1$, satisfy the linear constraint $s_f = c_{f,x_{n+1}} - r'_{f,y_{n+1}} - r_{g,i}$ where $(g,i) = T_{\alpha,\beta}(f)$.

Finally the communication complexity equals to the complexity of D copies of batch CDS for $\mathcal{F}_n$ (communicated in the first step) plus $3|\mathcal{F}_{n+1}|$ bits (communicated at the second step). Therefore, by the induction hypothesis, the overall

communication, is $3|\mathcal{F}_{n+1}| + 3Dn|\mathcal{F}_n|$. Recalling that $D = |\mathcal{F}_{n+1}|/|\mathcal{F}_n|$, we derive an upper-bound of $3(n+1)|\mathcal{F}_{n+1}|$, as required. □

We use Lemma 2 to amortize the complexity of CDS over long secrets.

Theorem 14. *Let $f : \{0,1\}^n \times \{0,1\}^n \to \{0,1\}$ be a predicate. Then, for $m = |\mathcal{F}_n|/2 = 2^{2^{2n}}/2$, there exists a perfect linear CDS which supports m-bit secrets with total communication complexity of $12nm$.*

The case of longer secrets of length $m > |\mathcal{F}_n|/2$ (as in Theorem 4) can be treated by partitioning the secret to $|\mathcal{F}_n|/2$-size blocks and applying the CDS for each block separately. The overall communication complexity is upper-bounded by $13nm$.

Proof. Given a vector S of $m = |\mathcal{F}_n|/2$ secrets, we duplicate each secret twice and index the secrets by predicates $p \in \mathcal{F}_n$ such that $s_p = s_{\bar{p}}$ (i.e., a predicate and its complement index the same secret). On inputs x, y, Alice and Bob make two calls to $\mathcal{F}_n$-batch CDS (with the same inputs x, y). In the first call the secret associated with a predicate $p \in \mathcal{F}_n$ is a random values r_p. In the second call, for every predicate $h \in \mathcal{F}_n$, we release the secret $s_p \oplus r_p$ where p is the unique predicate for which $p = f + h + 1$ (where addition is over the binary field).

Correctness. Suppose that $f(x, y) = 1$. Recall that each of the original secrets S_i appears in two copies $(s_p, s_{\bar{p}})$ for some predicate p. Since one of these copies is satisfied by (x, y), it suffices to show that, whenever $p(x, y) = 1$, the secret s_p can be recovered. Indeed, for such a predicate p, the value r_p is released by the first batch-CDS, and the value $s_p \oplus r_p$ is released by the second batch-CDS. The latter follows by noting that the predicate h which satisfies $p = f + h + 1$ is also satisfied, since $h(x, y) = p(x, y) + f(x, y) + 1 = 1$. It follows that s_p can be recovered for every p which is satisfied by (x, y), as required.

Privacy. Suppose that $f(x, y) = 0$. We show that all the "virtual secrets" s_p remain perfectly hidden in this case. Indeed, for h and p which satisfy $p = f + h + 1$, it holds that, whenever $f(x, y) = 0$, either $h(x, y) = 0$ or $p(x, y) = 0$, and therefore, for any p, either r_p or $s_p \oplus r_p$ are released, but never both.

Finally, using Lemma 2, the total communication complexity of the protocol is $2 \cdot 3 \cdot n \cdot |\mathcal{F}_n| = 12nm$, as claimed. □

7 A Linear Lower Bound on CDS

Here we show that the lower bound on the communication complexity of PSM protocols proven in [FKN94] can be extended to apply for CDS as well. We do this by showing how to use CDS protocols to construct PSM protocols that are only required to hide a certain small pre-specified set of input bits (as opposed to the whole input). We define this notion of PSM below.

Definition 5 (b-bit PSM). *Consider a function $f : (\mathcal{W} \times \mathcal{X}) \times \mathcal{Y} \to \mathcal{Z}$, with $\log |\mathcal{W}| \geq b$ for some $b > 0$. We say that a pair of deterministic encoding algorithms $F_1 : \mathcal{W} \times \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{R} \to \mathcal{T}_1$ and $F_2 : \mathcal{Y} \times \mathcal{R} \to \mathcal{T}_2$ constitute a b-bit PSM*

for f if the function $F((w,x),y,r) = (F_1(w,x,r), F_2(y,r))$ satisfies the following properties:

1. *(δ-Correctness) There exists a deterministic algorithm Dec, called the decoder, such that for every input $((w,x),y)$ we have that:*

$$\Pr_{r \xleftarrow{R} \mathcal{R}} [\mathsf{Dec}(F((w,x),y,r)) \neq f((w,x),y)] \leq \delta.$$

2. *(b-bit ε-Privacy) There exists a randomized algorithm Sim such that for any input $((w,x),y)$ it holds that:*

$$\Delta_{r \xleftarrow{R} \mathcal{R}} (\mathsf{Sim}(f((w,x),y),x,y); F((w,x),y,r)) \leq \varepsilon.$$

The communication complexity of the protocol is defined as the total encoding length $(\log |\mathcal{T}_1| + \log |\mathcal{T}_2|)$, and the randomness complexity of the protocol is defined as $\log |\mathcal{R}|$.

By default, the above sets are to be taken to be $\mathcal{W} = \{0,1\}^b$, $\mathcal{X} = \mathcal{Y} = \{0,1\}^n$, $\mathcal{Z} = \{0,1\}$, $\mathcal{R} = \{0,1\}^\rho$, $\mathcal{T}_1 = \{0,1\}^{t_1}$, and $\mathcal{T}_2 = \{0,1\}^{t_2}$ for some positive integers $b,n,\rho,t_1,$ and t_2.

Lemma 3 (CDS to 1-**bit** PSM). *If every Boolean function on $\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$ has a CDS protocol with communication complexity t, then every Boolean function on $(\{0,1\} \times \mathcal{X}) \times \mathcal{Y}$ has a 1-bit PSM protocol with communication complexity $(t + 1 + \log |\mathcal{X}| + \log |\mathcal{Y}|)$, with the same correctness and privacy guarantees.*

Proof. Suppose we want to construct a 1-bit PSM protocol for a function $f : (\{0,1\} \times \mathcal{X}) \times \mathcal{Y} \to \{0,1\}$. Let $(G_1, G_2, \mathsf{Dec}_{\mathsf{CDS}})$ be a CDS protocol for the function $g(x,y) = f((0,x),y) \oplus f((1,x),y)$ with communication complexity t.

We use this to construct our 1-bit PSM protocol (F_1, F_2, Dec) for f. Let s be a bit from the common randomness. F_1 is now defined as $F_1((w,x),(s,r)) = (G_1(x,s,r), w \oplus s, x)$, and F_2 is defined as $F_2(y,(s,r)) = (G_2(y,s,r),y)$.

Dec, on input $((g_1, w \oplus s, x), (g_2, y))$, works by first checking whether given x and y, the value of f still depends on w. If not, it simply computes f using x and y. If it does depend on w, this implies that $f((0,x),y) \neq f((1,x),y)$, and $g(x,y) = 1$, and so $\mathsf{Dec}_{\mathsf{CDS}}(x,y,g_1,g_2)$ outputs s, which can be used to retrieve w from $(w \oplus s)$, and now the whole input is known and f can be computed. This argues correctness, and the error here is at most that in the CDS protocol. The communication is also seen to be at most $(t + \log |\mathcal{X}| + \log |\mathcal{Y}| + 1)$.

Let $\mathsf{Sim}_{\mathsf{CDS}}$ be the simulator for the CDS protocol for g. The simulator $\mathsf{Sim}(f((w,x),y),x,y)$ works by first checking whether $f((0,x),y) = f((1,x),y)$. If it isn't, then the value of w is determined by x, y, and the value of f and, knowing w, Sim can compute F_1 and F_2 by itself, thus simulating them perfectly. If not, this implies that $g(x,y) = 0$. In this case, Sim first computes $(g_1^*, g_2^*) \leftarrow \mathsf{Sim}_{\mathsf{CDS}}(x,y)$, picks a random bit s^*, and outputs $((g_1^*, s^*, x), (g_2^*, y))$. The simulation error is:

$$\Delta(\mathsf{Sim}(f((w,x),y),x,y); F(x,y,c))$$
$$= \Delta((\mathsf{Sim}_{\mathsf{CDS}}(x,y),s^*,x,y); (G(x,y,s), w \oplus s, x, y))$$
$$= \Delta((\mathsf{Sim}_{\mathsf{CDS}}(x,y),s^*); (G(x,y,s), w \oplus s))$$

Note that here s^* and $(w \oplus s)$ have the same marginal distribution, which is the uniform distribution over $\{0,1\}$. Also, $\mathsf{Sim_{CDS}}(x,y)$ is independent of s^*. Writing out the expansion of Δ in terms of differences in probabilities and using Bayes' Theorem along with the above observation gives us the following:

$$
\Delta((\mathsf{Sim_{CDS}}(x,y), s^*); (G(x,y,s), w \oplus s))
$$
$$
= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{m \in \mathcal{T}_1 \times \mathcal{T}_2, b \in \{0,1\}} \left| \Pr[(\mathsf{Sim_{CDS}}(x,y), s^*) = (m,b)] \right.
$$
$$
\left. - \Pr[(G(x,y,s), w \oplus s) = (m,b)] \right|
$$
$$
= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{m \in \mathcal{T}_1 \times \mathcal{T}_2, b \in \{0,1\}} \left| \Pr[s^* = b] \Pr[\mathsf{Sim_{CDS}}(x,y) = m] \right.
$$
$$
\left. - \Pr[w \oplus s = b] \Pr[G(x,y,b \oplus w) = m] \right|
$$
$$
= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{b \in \{0,1\}} \frac{1}{2} \sum_{m \in \mathcal{T}_1 \times \mathcal{T}_2} \left| \Pr[\mathsf{Sim_{CDS}}(x,y) = m] - \Pr[G(x,y,b \oplus w) = m] \right|
$$
$$
= \frac{1}{2} \left[\Delta(\mathsf{Sim_{CDS}}(x,y); G(x,y,0)) + \Delta(\mathsf{Sim_{CDS}}(x,y); G(x,y,1)) \right]
$$

By the ε-privacy of the CDS scheme (since the value of $g(x,y)$ is 0), each summand in the right-hand side above is at most ε. Hence the total simulation error is at most ε. $\qquad\square$

In [FKN94] it was shown that there exists a Boolean function on $\{0,1\}^n \times \{0,1\}^n$ such that any perfect 1-bit PSM for it requires at least $2.99n$ bits of communication. Using Lemma 3 along with this lower bound, we have the following theorem.

Theorem 15. *There is a Boolean function on $\{0,1\}^n \times \{0,1\}^n$ such that any perfect CDS protocol for it has communication complexity at least $0.99n$.*

We can generalise the above approach to construct b-bit PSM protocols for larger values of b as follows.

Lemma 4 (CDS to b-bit PSM)**.** *If every Boolean function on $\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$ has a CDS protocol with communication complexity t then, for any $b > 0$, every Boolean function on $(\{0,1\}^b \times \mathcal{X}) \times \mathcal{Y}$ has a b-bit PSM protocol with communication complexity $(2^{2^b}(t+1) + \log|\mathcal{X}| + \log|\mathcal{Y}|)$, with the same correctness guarantee and with privacy that is degraded by a factor of 2^{2^b}.*

Proof (Proof sketch). The idea behind the construction is that the function $f_{x,y}(w) = f((w,x),y)$, where w is b bits long, can be one of only 2^{2^b} functions – call this set of functions $\mathcal{H} = \{h_i\}$. For each of these h_i's, we define a function $g_i(x,y)$ that indicates whether $f_{x,y} \equiv h_i$. Note that once the PSM decoder knows x and y, the information that the value of f reveals to it about w is exactly $f_{x,y}(w)$, which is the same as $h_i(w)$ if $g_i(x,y) = 1$.

In our construction, first we have F_1 reveal x and F_2 reveal y. Now we wish to, for each i, reveal $h_i(w)$ if and only if $g_i(x, y) = 1$. To do this, for each i, we choose a random bit s_i from the common randomness, reveal $h_i(w) \oplus s_i$, and run the CDS protocol for g_i with s_i as the secret.

The correctness is preserved because whenever the CDS for the "correct" value of i is correct, our protocol is correct.

The simulator, given x, y and $f((w, x), y)$, first outputs x and y. It then finds the i' such that $g_{i'}(x, y) = 1$. For every other i, it publishes a random s_i^* and the output of the CDS simulator for the function g_i with inputs x, y and secret 0. For i', it publishes $(f((w, x), y) \oplus s_{i'}^*)$ for a random $s_{i'}^*$ and the messages of the CDS protocol for $g_{i'}$ with inputs x, y and secret $s_{i'}^*$. Privacy error goes from ε to $2^{2^b} \varepsilon$ because of arguments similar to those in the proof of Lemma 3 being applied to each invocation of the CDS protocol, all of which are mutually independent. □

8 Separating CDS and Insecure Communication

Here we show an explicit function whose randomised communication complexity is much higher than its CDS communication complexity. For simplicity, assume that n below is a power of 2; the statements made here can be shown to be true for a general n along the same lines.

Definition 6 (Communication Complexity). *Consider a function $f : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y} \to \mathcal{Z}$. A protocol between two parties (with shared randomness) who are given inputs $x \in \mathcal{X}$ and $y \in \mathcal{Y}$, respectively, is said to compute f if for every $(x, y) \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$, the parties arrive at the correct value of f at the end of it with probability at least 2/3.*

The communication cost of a protocol is the most number of bits exchanged by the parties over all possible inputs and all values of shared randomness. The Randomised Communication Complexity *of f, denoted $\mathsf{R}(f)$, is the least communication cost of any protocol computing f.*

Gay et al. [GKW15] showed that if a function has a CDS protocol with communication complexity t then, roughly, $\log \mathsf{R}(f) \leq 2t$ (in fact, they show this bound for one-way communication complexity). We show that this bound is optimal (up to constant factors) by exhibiting a function that has a CDS protocol with low communication, but has high randomised communication complexity (in fact, also high quantum communication complexity – see [She11] for relevant definitions and explanations). Towards this, we first introduce the following problem.

Definition 7 (The Collision Problem). *The* Collision Problem (Col_n) *is a promise problem defined over a subset of $\{0, 1\}^{n \log n}$ as follows. For an input $x \in \{0, 1\}^{n \log n}$, divide x into n blocks of $\log n$ bits each. Each such x can now be used to define a function $f_x : \{0, 1\}^{\log n} \to \{0, 1\}^{\log n}$, where $f_x(i)$ is the ith block of x (when i is interpreted as an integer in $[n]$). $\mathsf{Col}_n(x)$ is defined to be 1 if f_x is a permutation, 0 if f_x is 2-to-1, and is undefined otherwise.*

We use the above problem in conjunction with Sherstov's Pattern Matrix method [She11] for proving communication complexity lower bounds. We define the following function that corresponds to what would be called a "pattern matrix" of Col_n.

Definition 8. *The promise problem* $\mathsf{PCol}_n : \{0,1\}^{4n \log n} \times [4]^{n \log n} \to \{0,1\}$ *is defined as follows. On an input* (x, y), *first divide* x *into* $n \log n$ *blocks of size 4 bits each. From the* i^{th} *block, select the bit* x_{i,y_i} *that is specified by the* i^{th} *coordinate of* y *(which is an element of* $\{1, 2, 3, 4\}$*) to get the string* x_y *of length* $n \log n$. *The output of the function is* $\mathsf{Col}_n(x_y)$.

The pattern matrix method gives us a way to lower bound the randomised communication complexity of a function constructed in this manner using lower bounds on the approximate degree (denoted by deg and which we do not define here) of the underlying function. We use known results to derive the following Corollary 2.

Corollary 2. $\mathsf{R}(\overline{\mathsf{PCol}}_n) = \mathsf{R}(\mathsf{PCol}_n) \geq \Omega(n^{1/3})$

Proof. It follows from [She11] that $\mathsf{R}(\mathsf{PCol}_n) \geq \Omega(\mathsf{deg}(\mathsf{Col}_n))$. Combined with the fact that $\mathsf{deg}(\mathsf{Col}_n) \geq \Omega(n^{1/3})$ (which follows from [Amb05, Kut05]), we derive the corollary. $\qquad\square$

Next we show that $\overline{\mathsf{PCol}}_n$ has a very efficient CDS protocol.

Lemma 5. *There is a* CDS *protocol for* $\overline{\mathsf{PCol}}_n$ *with* $\frac{1}{3}$-*completeness, perfect privacy, and communication complexity* $O(\log n)$.

In order to prove this lemma, we will need the following simple lemma which shows how to simulate messages generated by applying a PSM protocol to a set of inputs that are distributed jointly. It says that these can be simulated by sampling the corresponding distribution over the function outputs and running the PSM simulator on these sampled outputs.

Lemma 6. *Consider any function* $f : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y} \to \mathcal{Z}$, *and a* PSM *protocol* (F_1, F_2) *for it with* ϵ-*privacy realized by a simulator* Sim. *For any integer* $k > 0$ *and any joint distribution* $\overline{(X, Y)}$ *over* $(\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y})^k$, *let* $\overline{Z}$ *be the distribution over* $\mathcal{Z}^k$ *obtained by sampling* $\overline{(x, y)} = ((x_1, y_1), \ldots, (x_k, y_k))$ *from* $\overline{(X, Y)}$ *and then computing* $(f(x_1, y_1), \ldots, f(x_k, y_k))$. *Then,*

$$\Delta\left((\mathsf{Sim}(z_1), \ldots, \mathsf{Sim}(z_k)) ; (F(x_1, y_1), \ldots, F(x_k, y_k))\right) \leq k\epsilon,$$

where $\overline{(x, y)} \leftarrow \overline{(X, Y)}, \overline{z} \leftarrow \overline{Z}$. *In particular, if the* PSM *is perfect, the above statistical distance is zero.*

The proof (which is standard) appears in Appendix B. We can now prove Lemma 5.

Proof (Proof of Lemma 5). Given input $(x, y) \in \{0,1\}^{4n \log n} \times [4]^{n \log n}$ and secret bit s, the idea behind the CDS protocol is to convey through the messages a uniformly random element from the range of f_{x_y} if $s = 1$, and a uniformly random element from $\{0,1\}^{\log n}$ if $s = 0$. If $\overline{\mathsf{PCol}}_n(x, y) = 0$, f_{x_y} is a permutation, and hence the distributions in the two cases are identical. If $\overline{\mathsf{PCol}}_n(x, y) = 1$, f_{x_y}'s range covers only half the co-domain and so the two cases can be distinguished.

We now construct a CDS protocol (F_1, F_2) that functions as above. Let $G = (G_1, G_2)$ be the perfect PSM protocol for the finite function $\mathsf{ind} : \{0,1\}^4 \times [4] \to \{0,1\}$ that takes (a, b) as input and outputs the bit in a that is pointed to by b. Let $\mathsf{Dec}_{\mathsf{PSM}}$ be a perfect decoder for G. The CDS protocol (F_1, F_2) works as follows.

- First an index $i \in [n]$ is sampled from the common randomness. (In the case of $s = 1$, $f_{x_y}(i)$ is the information that will be output jointly by F_1 and F_2.)
- Note that the value $f_{x_y}(i)$ consists of $\log n$ bits, each of which is encoded by 4 bits in x and a value in $[4]$ in y – let the relevant parts of x and y be $(x_i^1, \ldots, x_i^{\log n})$ and $(y_i^1, \ldots, y_i^{\log n})$ respectively, where $x_i^j \in \{0,1\}^4$ and $y_i^j \in [4]$.
- If $s = 1$, for each $j \in [\log n]$, F_1 outputs $g_1^j = G_1(x_i^j, r_j)$, and F_2 outputs $g_2^j = G_2(y_i^j, r_j)$, where r_j is from the common randomness.
- If $s = 0$, for each $j \in [\log n]$, F_1 outputs $g_1^j = G_1(w^j, r_j)$, and F_2 outputs $g_2^j = G_2(y_i^j, r_j)$, where each w^j is chosen at random from $\{0,1\}^4$.

The CDS decoding procedure Dec works in the following manner when given an input $(x, y, (g_1^1, \ldots, g_1^{\log n}), (g_2^1, \ldots, g_2^{\log n}))$.

- For each $j \in [\log n]$, it computes $z_j \leftarrow \mathsf{Dec}_{\mathsf{PSM}}(g_1^j, g_2^j)$ to get the string z.
- If there exists an i such that $f_{x_y}(i) = z$, Dec outputs 1, else it outputs 0.

If $\overline{\mathsf{PCol}}_n(x, y) = 1$, f_{x_y} is 2-to-1. By the perfect correctness of the PSM protocol, if $s = 1$, $z = f_{x_y}(i)$ for the i chosen by (F_1, F_2), and so Dec always outputs 1. If $s = 0$, z is a random string in $\{0,1\}^{\log n}$, and Dec outputs 0 exactly when z falls outside the range of f_{x_y}; this happens with probability $1/2$ as f_{x_y} is 2-to-1, and Dec outputs 1 otherwise.

This gives only $\frac{1}{2}$-correctness but this error is only one-sided, and so by repeating the protocol once more and checking whether z lies in the range of f_{x_y} both times, this error can be reduced, giving $\frac{1}{4}$-correctness. This repetition does not degrade privacy which, as shown below, is perfect.

If $\overline{\mathsf{PCol}}_n(x, y) = 0$, f_{x_y} is a permutation. The output of F_1 and F_2 is simulated as follows using $\mathsf{Sim}_{\mathsf{PSM}}$, the simulator for the perfect PSM protocol used above. Our simulator Sim, given (x, y) as input, first picks random bits $z_1^*, \ldots, z_{\log n}^*$. It then outputs $(\mathsf{Sim}_{\mathsf{PSM}}(z_1^*), \ldots, \mathsf{Sim}_{\mathsf{PSM}}(z_{\log n}^*))$.

The simulation error is:

$$\Delta((\mathsf{Sim}_{\mathsf{PSM}}(z_1^*), \ldots, \mathsf{Sim}_{\mathsf{PSM}}(z_{\log n}^*)); ((g_1^1, g_2^1), \ldots, (g_1^{\log n}, g_2^{\log n})))$$

where the (g_1^j, g_2^j)'s are the PSM messages in the protocol description.

First we consider the case $s = 1$. Recall that the (g_1^j, g_2^j)'s are computed by first selecting $i \in [n]$ at random and computing the PSM messages for $\mathsf{ind}(x_i^j, y_i^j)$, which is the jth bit of $f_{x_y}(i)$. As the range of f_{x_y} is uniform over $\{0, 1\}^{\log n}$, over the randomness of i each $\mathsf{ind}(x_i^j, y_i^j)$ is a uniformly random bit independent of all the other $\mathsf{ind}(x_i^{j'}, y_i^{j'})$'s. Thus, $(\mathsf{ind}(x_i^1, y_i^1), \ldots, \mathsf{ind}(x_i^{\log n}, y_i^{\log n}))$ is distributed the same as $(z_1^*, \ldots, z_{\log n}^*)$, and so by Lemma 6, the above simulation error is zero as we are using a perfect PSM protocol.

Similarly, when $s = 0$, the (g_1^j, g_2^j)'s are computed by first selecting $i \in [n]$ at random and computing the PSM messages for $\mathsf{ind}(w^j, y_i^j)$ for uniformly random $w^1, \ldots, w^j \in \{0, 1\}^4$. So again each $\mathsf{ind}(w^j, y_i^j)$ is a uniformly random bit independent of all the other $\mathsf{ind}(w^{j'}, y_i^{j'})$'s, and by Lemma 6, the simulation error is again zero.

The PSM for each bit of z is for a finite-sized function and its communication complexity is some constant, so the total communication is $\Theta(\log n)$. □

Gay et al. [GKW15] showed the following relationships between the randomized communication complexity of a Boolean function and the complexity of general and linear CDS protocols for it with single-bit secrets. While they originally showed these for perfect protocols, we extend their proof to work for imperfect ones in Appendix A.

Theorem 16 ([GKW15]). *For any (partial or total) Boolean function f,*

$$\mathsf{CDS}(f) \geq \frac{1}{2} \log \mathsf{R}(f) \qquad and \qquad \mathsf{linCDS}(f) \geq \frac{1}{10} \sqrt{\mathsf{R}(f)}$$

The following corollary of Lemma 5 and Corollary 2 shows that the above bound on CDS in general is tight up to constant factors.

Corollary 3. *There exists a partial Boolean function f such that:*

$$\mathsf{CDS}(f) \leq O(\log \mathsf{R}(f))$$

Following from Corollary 3 and Theorem 16, the next corollary says that there are functions for which general CDS protocols can do much better than linear CDS protocols.

Corollary 4. *There exists a partial Boolean function f such that:*

$$\mathsf{CDS}(f) \leq O(\log \mathsf{linCDS}(f))$$

Remark 5. In fact, [GKW15] showed that Theorem 16 holds even for "weakly-linear" CDS protocols in which only the decoding process is assumed to be linear (and the senders are allowed to be non-linear). Corollary 4 therefore generalizes to this case as well.

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A Communication Complexity and Imperfect CDS Protocols

In this section, we extend the relationships between CDS and randomised communication complexity shown by Gay et al. [GKW15] to include imperfect CDS protocols. We prove the following theorem. (The terms involved are defined in Section 3 and Section 8.)

Theorem 17. *For any (partial or total) Boolean function f,*

$$\mathsf{CDS}(f) \geq \frac{1}{2} \log \mathsf{R}(f)$$

$$\mathsf{linCDS}(f) \geq \frac{1}{10} \sqrt{\mathsf{R}(f)}$$

Recall that $\mathsf{CDS}(f)$ is the least communication complexity of any CDS protocol for f with $\{0, 1\}$ as the secret domain that has $\frac{1}{10}$ correctness and privacy. And that $\mathsf{linCDS}(f)$ is the same, but for linear protocols. We will prove Theorem 17 using the following more general lemma that we prove afterward.

Lemma 7. *Consider any function $f : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y} \to \{0, 1\}$. Suppose f has a CDS protocol (F_1, F_2, Dec) with $\frac{1}{10}$-correctness and $\frac{1}{10}$-privacy, with domains as follows: $F_1 : \mathcal{X} \times \{0, 1\} \times \mathcal{R} \to \mathcal{T}_1$, $F_2 : \mathcal{X} \times \{0, 1\} \times \mathcal{R} \to \mathcal{T}_2$, and $\mathsf{Dec} : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y} \times \mathcal{T}_1 \times \mathcal{T}_2 \to \{0, 1\}$. Let $\mathcal{H}$ be any superset of all possible functions $\{h : \mathcal{T}_1 \times \mathcal{T}_2 \to \{0, 1\}\}$ that $\mathsf{Dec}(x, y, \cdot, \cdot)$ could possibly be for any $x \in \mathcal{X}$ and $y \in \mathcal{Y}$. Then,*

$$\mathsf{R}(f) \leq 100 \log |\mathcal{H}| \left(\log |\mathcal{T}_1| + \log |\mathcal{T}_2|\right)$$

Proof (Proof of Theorem 17). A lower bound for a CDS protocol for f with $\frac{1}{10}$ correctness and privacy can be obtained by taking $\mathcal{H}$ to be the set of all possible functions from $\mathcal{T}_1 \times \mathcal{T}_2 \to \{0, 1\}$. There are $2^{|\mathcal{T}_1||\mathcal{T}_2|}$ of these. We then have from Lemma 7:

$$\mathsf{R}(f) \leq 100 |\mathcal{T}_1| |\mathcal{T}_2| \left(\log |\mathcal{T}_1| + \log |\mathcal{T}_2|\right)$$
$$\implies \log \mathsf{R}(f) \leq \log 100 + \left(\log |\mathcal{T}_1| + \log |\mathcal{T}_2|\right) + \log(\log |\mathcal{T}_1| + \log |\mathcal{T}_2|)$$
$$\leq 2(\log |\mathcal{T}_1| + \log |\mathcal{T}_2|)$$

This is true for any such CDS protocol. Note that $(\log |\mathcal{T}_1| + \log |\mathcal{T}_2|)$ is the communication complexity of the CDS protocol in question. So this implies that $\log \mathsf{R}(f) \leq 2\mathsf{CDS}(f)$.

The lower bound on $\mathsf{linCDS}(f)$ is similarly obtained by taking $\mathcal{H}$ to be the set of all linear functions over vectors spaces that may be contained in $\mathcal{T}_1 \times \mathcal{T}_2$, as linear CDS protocols always have linear reconstruction. In this case, $\mathcal{T}_1$ and $\mathcal{T}_2$ would have to be of the form $\mathbb{F}^{t_1}$ and $\mathbb{F}^{t_2}$ for some t_1, t_2, and $\mathcal{H}$ would then contain $\mathbb{F}^{t_1 + t_2} = |\mathcal{T}_1||\mathcal{T}_2|$ functions. Lemma 7 now immediately gives us the following:

$$\mathsf{R}(f) \leq 100(\log |\mathcal{T}_1| + \log |\mathcal{T}_2|)^2$$
$$\implies \sqrt{\mathsf{R}(f)} \leq 10 \cdot \mathsf{linCDS}(f)$$

□

Proof (Proof of Lemma 7). Given a CDS protocol (F_1, F_2, Dec) as in the hypothesis, we construct a single message protocol (with shared randomness) for parties A, who is given an $x \in \mathcal{X}$, and B, who is given a $y \in \mathcal{Y}$, to compute $f(x, y)$ as follows.

- For an integer N that shall be determined later, the shared randomness is used to sample N random bits $s_1, \ldots, s_N$, and also $r_1, \ldots, r_N \in \mathcal{R}$.
- For each $i \in [N]$, A computes and sends $a_i = F_1(x, s_i, r_i)$ to B.
- For each $i \in [N]$, B computes, in order, $b_i = F_2(y, s_i, r_i)$ and, for each $h \in H$, $s_i^h = h(a_i, b_i)$.
- If there is an $h \in H$ such that for more than 3/4 values of $i \in [N]$, $s_i^h = s_i$, then B decides that $f(x, y) = 1$, else 0.

If $f(x, y) = 1$, by the $\frac{1}{10}$-correctness of the CDS protocol, we know that there exists an $h^* \in H$, namely $\mathsf{Dec}(x, y, \cdot, \cdot)$, such that $\Pr[h^*(a_i, b_i) = s_i] \geq 9/10$. By the Chernoff bound, the probability that the communication protocol is wrong in this case can be bounded as follows:

$$\Pr\left[\left|\left\{i : s_i^{h^*} = s_i\right\}\right| \leq \frac{3}{4}N\right] \leq e^{-N/80}$$

If $f(x, y) = 0$, by the $\frac{1}{10}$-privacy of the CDS protocol and the triangle inequality, the statistical distance between the distributions $F(x, y, 0)$ and $F(x, y, 1)$ is at most $2/10$. This implies that for any function h, if s_i is chosen at random, $\Pr[h(a_i, b_i) = s_i] \leq 6/10$. Using the union bound and the Chernoff bound, in order, the probability that the communication protocol is wrong in this case can be bounded as follows:

$$\Pr\left[\exists h \in \mathcal{H} : \left|\left\{i : s_i^h = s_i\right\}\right| \geq \frac{3}{4}N\right] \leq |\mathcal{H}| \Pr\left[\left|\left\{i : s_i^h = s_i\right\}\right| \geq \frac{3}{4}N\right]$$
$$\leq |\mathcal{H}| e^{-N/80}$$

So if N is chosen to be, say, $(100 \log |\mathcal{H}|)$, the error probability in both cases would be much less than $1/3$, and this would be a valid communication protocol computing f.

The total communcation involved is $N \log |\mathcal{T}_1| \leq 100 \log |\mathcal{H}| (\log |\mathcal{T}_1| + \log |\mathcal{T}_2|)$, as required. □

B   Proof of Lemma 6

We need the following standard facts about statistical distance.

Fact 18. *For any random variable A over $\mathcal{A}$ and variables B, B' over the same domain that are jointly distributed with A,*

$$\Delta(B; B') \leq \sum_{a \in \mathcal{A}} \Pr[A = a] \cdot \Delta(B_{|A=a}; B'_{|A=a})$$

where $B_{|A=a}$ is the variable B conditioned on $A = a$.

Fact 19. *For any two tuples of mutually independent random variables* $(A_1, \ldots, A_k)$ *and* $(B_1, \ldots, B_k)$ *over the same domain,*

$$\Delta((A_1, \ldots, A_k); (B_1, \ldots, B_k)) \leq \sum_{i \in [k]} \Delta(A_i; B_i)$$

We can now prove Lemma 6.

Proof (Proof of Lemma 6). Expanding out what the z_i's are defined to be in the lemma statement and then using Fact 18, with $\overline{(X,Y)}$ as the distribution A there, we conclude that the statistical distance

$$\Delta\left((\mathsf{Sim}(z_i))_{i \in [k]} ; (F(x_i, y_i))_{i \in [k]}\right) \quad \text{where } \overline{(x,y)} \leftarrow \overline{(X,Y)}, \overline{z} \leftarrow \overline{Z},$$

equals the statistical distance

$$\Delta\left((\mathsf{Sim}(f(x_i', y_i')))_{i \in [k]} ; (F(x_i, y_i))_{i \in [k]}\right) \quad \text{where } \overline{(x,y)}, \overline{(x',y')} \leftarrow \overline{(X,Y)},$$

which is upper-bounded by

$$\sum_{\overline{(x,y)} \in (\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y})^k} \Pr\left[\overline{(X,Y)} = \overline{(x,y)}\right] \cdot \Delta\left((\mathsf{Sim}(f(x_i, y_i)))_{i \in [k]} ; (F(x_i, y_i))_{i \in [k]}\right).$$

Note that once the x_i's and y_i's are fixed, the $F(x_i, y_i)$'s are all independently distributed, and so are the $\mathsf{Sim}(f(x_i, y_i))$'s. Hence, using Fact 19, we have for any $\overline{(x,y)} \in (\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y})^k$:

$$\Delta\left((\mathsf{Sim}(f(x_i, y_i)))_{i \in [k]} ; (F(x_i, y_i))_{i \in [k]}\right) \leq \sum_{i \in [k]} \Delta(\mathsf{Sim}(f(x_i, y_i)); F(x_i, y_i))$$
$$\leq k\epsilon$$

where the second inequality is from the ϵ-privacy of the PSM protocol. This proves the lemma. $\square$