Half-duplex communication complexity

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Abstract

Suppose Alice and Bob are communicating in order to compute some function $f$, but instead of a conventional communication channel, they have a pair of walkie-talkie devices. They can use some classical communication protocol for $f$, where every round one of the players sends a bit, and the other receives it. The question is whether talking via walkie-talkie gives them more power? Using walkie-talkies instead of a classical communication channel allows players two extra possibilities: to speak simultaneously (but in this case they do not hear each other) and to listen at the same time (but in this case they do not transfer any bits). The motivation for this kind of communication model comes from the study of the KRW conjecture. We show that for some definitions, this non-classical communication model is, in fact, more powerful than the classical one as it allows to compute some functions in a smaller number of rounds. We also prove lower bounds for these models using both combinatorial and information-theoretic methods.

1 Introduction

In the classical communication complexity model introduced by Yao [11] two players, Alice and Bob, are trying to compute $f(x, y)$, for some function $f$, where Alice knows only $x$ and Bob knows only $y$. Alice and Bob can communicate by sending bits to each other, one bit per round. The essential property of this classical model is that in every round of communication one player sends some bit and the other one receives it.

We define three new communication models that generalize the classical one and resemble communication over so-called half-duplex channels. A well-known example of half-duplex communication is talking via walkie-talkie: one has to hold a “push-to-talk” button to speak to another person, and one has to release it to listen. If two persons try to speak simultaneously then they do not hear each other. We consider communication models where players are allowed to speak simultaneously. Every round each player chooses one of three actions: send 0, send 1, or receive. There are three different types of rounds. If one player sends some bit and the other one receives then communication works like in the classical case, we call such rounds normal. If both players send bits during the round then these bits get lost (the same happens if two persons try to speak via walkie-talkie simultaneously), we call these rounds spent. If both players receive, we call these rounds silent. We distinguish

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three possible models, based on what happens in silent rounds. If in silent rounds both players receive 0, i.e., players cannot distinguish a silent round from a normal round where the other player sends 0, we call this model half-duplex communication with zero. Similar models were studied in [6] (without “canceling” spent rounds) and in [3] (for multi-party communication with the noisy broadcast channel). Two other models, we will define later.

In this paper, we study the communication complexity of Boolean functions that are hard in the classical case. It is important to note that we care about multiplicative constants. Every classical communication can be viewed as half-duplex communication with zero and every half-duplex communication with zero can be simulated with classical communication doubling the number of rounds (see Theorem 1 and 2). So the complexity of half-duplex communication is sandwiched between the complexity of the classical case and a half of it. The task of this study is to improve these bounds.

1.1 Motivation

The original motivation to study these kinds of communication models arose from the question of the complexity of Karchmer-Wigderson games [8] for multiplexers. The Karchmer-Wigderson game for a function $f : \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}$ (KW game) is a (classical) communication problem where Alice is given $x \in f^{-1}(0)$, Bob is given $y \in f^{-1}(1)$, and they want to find an $i \in [n]$ such that $x_i \neq y_i$. Let $D(KW(f))$ be a minimal number of rounds that is enough to solve the KW game for $f$ on any pair of possible inputs.

**Conjecture 1** (KRW conjecture [7]). Let $f : \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}$ and $g : \{0,1\}^m \rightarrow \{0,1\}$ be Boolean non-constant functions. Then $D(KW(g \circ f)) \approx D(KW(g)) + D(KW(f))$, where $g \circ f$ denotes a composition $g \circ f : (\{0,1\}^n)^m \rightarrow \{0,1\}$ is defined by $(g \circ f)(x_1,\ldots,x_m) = g(f(x_1),\ldots,f(x_m))$ where $x_1,\ldots,x_n \in \{0,1\}^m$.

This conjecture implies a super-logarithmic formula depth lower bound (and hence a super-polynomial size lower bound): we can start with a maximally hard function on $\log n$ variables that requires $\log n$ depth and construct a formula on $n$ variables that requires super-logarithmic depth. In attempt to prove it a lot of work has been done studying KW games where one or both functions are replaced with universal relations [5, 2, 4]. Another approach to resolving the conjecture lies in examining multiplexer functions. A multiplexer (or indexing function) is a function $M_n : \{0,1\}^{2^n} \times \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}$, such that $M_n(t,i) = t[i]$, i.e., $M_n$ interprets the first part of its input as the truth table of some function $f : \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}$ and the second part as an input $x$ to the function, and outputs $f(x)$. Multiplexers are similar to universal relations in the sense that there is a natural reduction from a KW game for some function $f : \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}$ to a KW game for multiplexer $M_n$: if Alice and Bob are given $x$ and $y$ in the game for $f$ we give them $(tt(f), x)$ and $(tt(f), y)$, respectively, in the game for $M_n$, where $tt(f)$ is a truth table of function $f$. On the other hand, multiplexers are functions, not relations, so proving analogous results for multiplexers would be one step toward proving the KRW conjecture. Unfortunately, all the techniques that were used for universal relations cannot be applied directly to multiplexers because it is impossible to give Alice and Bob the same input string; all these techniques exploited the symmetry of universal relations that allows giving players the same input string, but this is impossible for functions because inputs of Alice and Bob come from disjoint sets.

Suppose now that Alice and Bob are solving the KW game for multiplexer $M_n$: Alice is given $(tt(f), x), x \in f^{-1}(0)$, and Bob is given $(tt(g), y), y \in g^{-1}(1)$. If the players are also given a promise
that \( f = g \) (note that \( f \) and \( g \) are parts players inputs, so Alice and Bob plays KW game for \( M_n \) on a subset of inputs) then they can use a protocol for KW game for \( f \). However, what if they do not have such a promise (i.e., all inputs are possible, in particular, such that \( f \neq g \))? Alice can still try to act as if she plays KW game for \( f \), Bob at the same time can try to act as if he plays KW game for \( g \), but if in fact \( f \neq g \) then in some round of this “mixed” protocol they might both want to send or both want to receive at the same time. Such protocol “mixing” is impossible in the classical model. To make it possible we extend the communication model by allowing players to speak or listen simultaneously. How does it affect the communication complexity? When answering this question we care about multiplicative constants — if in this model all (hard) functions become two times easier than in the classical case then this model is useless for proving the KRW conjecture. As a first step toward answering this question, we study the half-duplex communication complexity of Boolean functions \( \{0,1\}^n \times \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\} \).

1.2 Organization of this paper

In Section 2, we give definitions for the new communication models. Then, in Section 3, we prove trivial upper and lower bounds that follow immediately from the definitions. Next, in Section 4, we discuss methods for proving communication complexity lower bounds. In Sections 5, 6 and 7, we present our main results, upper and lower bounds for proposed communication models. Finally, in Section 8, we state several open questions.

2 Definitions

Definition 1. Let \( X, Y, \) and \( Z \) be some finite sets. We say that two players, Alice and Bob, are solving the half-duplex communication problem for a relation \( R \subseteq X \times Y \times Z \) if sets \( X, Y, Z, \) and the relation \( R \) are known by both players, Alice is given some \( x \in X \), Bob is given some \( y \in Y \), and players want to find some \( z \in Z \) such that \( (x,y,z) \in R \), by communicating to each other via a half-duplex channel. The communication is organized into rounds. At each round, both players decide (depending only on their inputs and previous communication) to do one of three available actions: send 0, send 1 or receive. If one player sends some bit \( b \in \{0,1\} \) and the other one receives then the latter gets bit \( b \), we call such rounds normal. If both players send bits at the same time then these bits get lost, we call such rounds spent (it is crucial that the player that is sending cannot distinguish whether this round is normal or spent). If both players receive at the same time, we call such rounds silent. There are three variants of half-duplex communication problem depending on how silent rounds work.

- In a silent round both players receive a special symbol silence, so it is possible for both players to distinguish a silent round from a normal one, the corresponding problem is called half-duplex communication problem with silence.
- In a silent round both players receive 0, i.e., players cannot distinguish a silent round from a normal round where the other player sends 0, the corresponding problem is called half-duplex communication problem with zero;
- In a silent round each player receives some arbitrary bit, not necessarily the same as the other player; the corresponding problem is called half-duplex communication problem with adversary.
We say that half-duplex communication problem for \( R \) is solved if at the end of communication both players know some \( z \), such that \((x,y,z) \in R\).

Next, we define a notion of communication protocol. In the classical case, a protocol is a binary rooted tree that describes communication of players on all possible inputs: every internal node corresponds to a state of communication and defines which of players is sending this round. Unlike the classical case in half-duplex communication player does not always know what the other’s player action was — the information about it can be “lost,” i.e., in spent rounds player do not know what the other player’s action was. It means that a player might not know what node of the protocol corresponds to the current state of communication. Note also that solving half-duplex communication problem with zero there is no need to send zeros — player can receive instead and the other player will not notice the difference. Keeping all this in mind, we give the following definition of half-duplex protocol.

**Definition 2.** Half-duplex communication protocol with silence that solves a relation \( R \subset X \times Y \times Z \) is a pair \((T_A, T_B)\) of rooted trees that describe how Alice and Bob communicate on all possible inputs \( (x,y) \in X \times Y \). Every node of \( T_A \) corresponds to a state of Alice, every node of \( T_B \) to a state of Bob. Every leaf \( l \) is labeled with \( z_l \in Z \). Let \( A = \{\text{send}(0), \text{send}(1), \text{receive}\} \) be the set of possible actions, and \( E = \{\text{send}(0), \text{send}(1), \text{receive}(0), \text{receive}(1), \text{silence}\} \) be the set of all possible events. Every node \( v \) of \( T_A \) and (of \( T_B\)) is labeled with two functions \( g_v : X \to A \) (\( g_v : Y \to A \)) and \( h_v : E \to C(v) \), where \( C(v) \) is a set of child nodes of \( v \). Root nodes of \( T_A \) and \( T_B \) correspond, respectively, to the initial states of Alice and Bob. If Alice (Bob) is in a state that corresponds to node \( v \in T_A \) (\( v \in T_B\)), then she does action \( g_v(x) \) (he does action \( g_v(y)\)). Events of both players are defined in a natural way by their actions in this round. The next node of the protocol is defined by the function \( h \). When players reach a leaf they stop (they always reach a leaf simultaneously). The protocol is correct if for every input pair \((x,y) \in X \times Y \) communication ends in a pair of leaves labeled with the same \( z \in Z \) such that \((x,y,z) \in R\).

Half-duplex communication protocol with zero is defined in the same way with a different set of possible events \( E = \{\text{send}(1), \text{receive}(0), \text{receive}(1)\} \), i.e. it does not include \( \text{send}(0) \).

Half-duplex communication protocol with adversary that solves a relation \( R \subset X \times Y \times Z \) is a pair \((T_A, T_B)\) of rooted trees that describe how Alice and Bob communicate on all possible inputs \((x,y) \in X \times Y\) and for any strategy of adversary \( w \in \{0,1\}^* \). The structure of the protocol is the same as in half-duplex communication protocol with zero, but with \( E = \{\text{send}(0), \text{send}(1), \text{receive}(0), \text{receive}(1)\} \). If both players decide to receive in round \( i \), then Alice and Bob receive bits \( w_{2i-1} \) and \( w_{2i} \), respectively. The protocol is correct if for every input pair \((x,y) \in X \times Y\) and any strategy of adversary \( w \in \{0,1\}^* \) communication ends in two leaves labeled with the same \( z \in Z \) such that \((x,y,z) \in R\).

For each of these models, a partial transcript after \( k \) rounds is a pair \((\pi_a, \pi_b)\) of length-\( k \) sequences over \( E \) that lists the events observed by Alice and Bob, respectively, after running some protocol on a pair of inputs for \( k \) rounds.

The cardinality of set \( E \) upper bounds arity of trees \( T_A \) and \( T_B \): arity is 5 for half-duplex communication with silence, 3 for half-duplex communication with zero, and 4 for half-duplex communication with the adversary.

**Definition 3.** Half-duplex communication protocol solves a communication problem for function \( f : X \times Y \to Z \) if it solves a relation \( R(f) = \{(x,y,f(x,y)) \mid x \in X, y \in Y\} \).
The classical communication complexity of a communication problem for function \( f \), \( D(f) \), is defined in terms of the minimal depth of a protocol solving it. Analogously, we define communication complexity for half-duplex communication problems.

**Definition 4.** The minimal depth of a communication protocol solving half-duplex communication problem for function \( f \) with silence, with zero, with adversary, defines half-duplex communication complexity of function \( f \) with silence, denoted \( D^{hd}_s(f) \), with zero, denoted \( D^{hd}_0(f) \), with adversary, denoted \( D^{hd}_a(f) \), respectively. Analogously, we define half-duplex communication complexity of relation \( R \) with silence, \( D^{hd}_s(R) \), with zero, \( D^{hd}_0(R) \), and with adversary, \( D^{hd}_a(R) \).

In this paper we study half-duplex communication complexity for a special case of Boolean functions \( \{0,1\}^n \times \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\} \) (i.e., \( X = Y = \{0,1\}^n \), \( Z = \{0,1\} \)).

**Definition 5.**
- **Equality function** \( \text{EQ}_n : \{0,1\}^n \times \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\} \), such that \( \text{EQ}_n(x, y) = 1 \iff x = y \).
- **Inner product function** \( \text{IP}_n : \{0,1\}^n \times \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\} \), such that \( \text{IP}_n(x, y) = \bigoplus_{i \in [n]} x_i y_i \).
- **Disjointness function** \( \text{DISJ}_n : \{0,1\}^n \times \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\} \), such that \( \text{DISJ}_n(x, y) = 1 \iff \forall i : x_i \neq 1 \vee y_i \neq 1 \).

All these function require \( n \) bits of communication in the classical model.

## 3 Trivial bounds

As far as half-duplex communication generalizes classical communication the following upper bound is immediate.

**Theorem 1.** For every function \( f : \{0,1\}^n \times \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\} \), \( D^{hd}_s(f) \leq D^{hd}_0(f) \leq D^{hd}_a(f) \leq D(f) \).

**Proof.** Every classical communication protocol can be embedded in half-duplex communication protocol that does not use spent and silent rounds.

Next theorem shows that one can always transform half-duplex protocol with zero or with the adversary into a classical communication protocol of double depth.

**Theorem 2.** For every function \( f : \{0,1\}^n \times \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\} \), \( \frac{D(f)}{2} \leq D^{hd}_0(f) \leq D^{hd}_a(f) \).

**Proof.** Every \( t \)-round half-duplex communication protocol with zero or with the adversary can be transformed into \( 2t \)-round classical communication protocol. Every round of the original protocol corresponds to two consecutive rounds of the new one: on the first round Alice sends a bit she was sending in the original protocol or sends 0 if she was receiving, at second round Bob does the same thing.

As we will see later, half-duplex protocols with silence can use silent rounds as an additional third symbol and hence not every \( t \)-round half-duplex protocol with silence can be embedded in \( 2t \) classical protocol. The following theorem shows that instead, we can embed every such protocol in a classical protocol with \( 3t \) rounds.

**Theorem 3.** For every function \( f : \{0,1\}^n \times \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\} \), \( D^{hd}_s(f) \geq \frac{D(f)}{3} \).
Proof. Every $t$-round half-duplex communication protocol with silence can be transformed into $3t$-round classical communication protocol. Every round of the original protocol corresponds to three consecutive rounds of the new one: on the first round, Alice sends 1 to indicate if she was sending a bit in the original protocol, or sends 0 otherwise, at second round Bob does the same thing symmetrically. After that, they are both aware of the intentions of each other. If they were both planning to send, they could skip the third round. If they were both planning to receive, then they can assume that they heard silence. If one player was planning to send and the other one was planning to receive they can perform such action on the third round. \qed

Remark 1. Theorems 1, 2, and 3 hold also for $f : \{0, 1\}^n \times \{0, 1\}^n \to \{0, 1\}^k$.

4 Methods for lower bounds

4.1 Rectangles

Many lower bounds on classical communication complexity were proved by considering combinatorial rectangles associated with the nodes of communication protocol \cite{10}: it is easy to see that every node $v$ of the (classical) protocol corresponds to a combinatorial rectangle $R_v = X_v \times Y_v$, where $X_v \subseteq X$, $Y_v \subseteq Y$, such that if Alice and Bob are given an input from $R_v$ then their communication will necessarily pass through node $v$. This implies that the rectangles associated with the child nodes of $v$ define a subdivision of $R_v$.

There is a general technique \cite{10} for proving lower bounds using associated combinational rectangles in: if for some sub-additive measure $\mu$ defined on combinatorial rectangles we show both a lower bound on the measure of $X \times Y$, the rectangle in the root node, i.e., $\mu(X \times Y) \geq \mu_r$ for some $\mu_r > 0$, and an upper bound on the measure of rectangles in leaves, i.e., for every leaf $l$ the measure of the corresponding rectangle $R_l$ is at most $\mu_l$ for some $\mu_l > 0$, then we can claim lower bound of $\log_2(\mu_r/\mu_l)$ on the depth of the protocol.

One of the most studied sub-additive measure on rectangles is $\mu_M(R)$ that is equal to the minimal number of monochromatic rectangles that covers $R$. Rectangle $R$ is $z$-monochromatic in respect to function $f$ for some $z \in Z$ if for all $(x,y) \in R$, $f(x,y) = z$. As far as both players have to come up with the same answer at the end of communication every rectangle in leaves is monochromatic, thus for this measure $\mu_l = 1$.

We can use almost the same technique for half-duplex protocols. There are some technical differences that we have to keep in mind. First of all, we can apply this idea to both trees $T_A$ and $T_B$. We should also note that trees $T_A$ and $T_B$ are non-binary; hence arity became the base of the logarithm. Secondly, we should be careful while defining associated combinatorial rectangles for half-duplex protocols with adversary — in case of silent rounds the next node of the protocol depends also on a strategy $w$ of adversary, so we have to formally consider $w$ as a part of input. This leads to the following lower bound for equality.

**Theorem 4.**

- $D^s_{hd}(EQ_n) \geq \log_5 2^n = n/\log 5$,
- $D^0_{hd}(EQ_n) \geq \log_3 2^n = n/\log 3$,
- $D^a_{hd}(EQ_n) \geq \log_4 2^n = n/2$.
Proof. Let $\mu = \mu_M$. All leaf rectangles are monochromatic, $\mu_\ell = 1$. Every 1-monochromatic rectangle is of size one: if some rectangle contains two elements, say $(x, x)$ and $(x', x')$, then it also contains $(x, x')$ and $(x', x)$, so it is not 1-monochromatic. Thus, the root rectangle has measure at least $\mu_r = 2^n + 1$ (see [10] for more information).

Surprisingly, as we will see later, first two result are sharp up to additive logarithmic term. We developed an extension of this technique that we call round elimination.

4.2 Round elimination

Let us fix a protocol for some half-duplex communication problem and consider the first round. Let $R_c = X \times Y$ be the corresponding rectangle of all possible inputs. We can subdivide $R_c$ in nine rectangles, one for each possible combination of actions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Alice \ Bob</th>
<th>send(0)</th>
<th>send(1)</th>
<th>receive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>send(0)</td>
<td>$R_{00}$</td>
<td>$R_{01}$</td>
<td>$R_{0r}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>send(1)</td>
<td>$R_{10}$</td>
<td>$R_{11}$</td>
<td>$R_{1r}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>receive</td>
<td>$R_{r0}$</td>
<td>$R_{r1}$</td>
<td>$R_{rr}$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Consider two rectangles: $R_{good} = R_{00} \cup R_{01} \cup R_{0r}$ and $R_{bad} = R_{0r} \cup R_{1r}$. If we restrict $f$ to be a partial function defined only on $R_{good}$, i.e., players will always get some $(x, y) \in R_{good}$, then there is no need in the first round — the information the players get about the other part of the input is fixed: Alice does not get any information, Bob can receive 0 if he decides to receive. On the other hand if we restrict $f$ to $R_{bad}$ then the first round is still needed: Bob can receive both 0 and 1 and this information in necessary to proceed to the next round. Let's call a rectangle $R$ good for (partial) function $f$ if restricting $f$ to $R$ makes the first round unnecessary (i.e., protocol without the first round is correct for all $(x, y) \in R$). The idea of this method is to consider some covering of $R_c$ with a set of good rectangles and prove that there is always a good rectangle of large enough measure. If we can show that there is always a rectangle of measure at least $\alpha \cdot \mu(R_c)$ then we can iterate this idea and claim that protocol depth is at least $\log \frac{1}{\alpha} (\mu_r/\mu_\ell)$, where $\mu_r$ is a lower bound on the measure of the root rectangle and $\mu_\ell$ is an upper bound on the measure of leaf rectangles.

Lemma 1. Let $\mu$ be some sub-additive measure on rectangles such that $\mu(X \times Y) \geq \mu_r$ and for any leaf rectangle $R_l$, $\mu(R_l) \leq \mu_\ell$. Fix a protocol $\mathcal{P}$. If for any rectangle $R$ appearing in the protocol there is a good subrectangle for function $f \upharpoonright R$ of measure at least $\alpha \cdot \mu(R)$ then the depth of the protocol is at least $\log \frac{1}{\alpha} (\mu_r/\mu_\ell)$.

Proof. We start with $R = X \times Y$. Every round we show that $f \upharpoonright R$ can be restricted to some good $R_{good} \subset R$ such that $\mu(R_{good}) \geq \alpha \cdot \mu(R)$, let $R$ to be $R_{good}$, and proceed to the next round until we reach a leaf. Thus there are at least $\log \frac{1}{\alpha} (\mu_r/\mu_\ell)$ rounds.

4.3 Upper bound on internal information

Another useful tool for proving lower bounds on the communication complexity of problems in the classical model is the upper bound on the information Alice and Bob have learned about the other’s inputs, as a function of the number of rounds.
Definition 6. Let \( f \) be a partial function and \( \mathcal{P} \) a half-duplex communication protocol computing \( f \), and \( \mathcal{D} \) an arbitrary distribution over the domain of \( f \). Let \( \mathcal{X} \), and \( \mathcal{Y} \) be the marginal distributions over inputs to Alice and Bob, also, let \( \Pi_A \) and \( \Pi_B \) be the marginal distributions over Alice and Bob’s transcripts induced by \( \mathcal{D} \). An internal information cost of protocol \( \mathcal{P} \) is \( \text{IC}_D(\mathcal{P}) = I(\mathcal{X} : \Pi_B \mid \mathcal{Y}) + I(\mathcal{Y} : \Pi_A \mid \mathcal{X}) \). For any \( k \) let \( \Pi^A_k \) and \( \Pi^B_k \) be the marginal distributions over Alice and Bob’s partial transcripts after running \( \mathcal{P} \) for \( k \) rounds induced by \( \mathcal{D} \). An internal information cost of first \( k \) rounds of \( \mathcal{P} \) is \( \text{IC}^k_D(\mathcal{P}) = I(\mathcal{X} : \Pi^B_k \mid \mathcal{Y}) + I(\mathcal{Y} : \Pi^A_k \mid \mathcal{X}) \).

For more information on information theory, we refer to [1, 4]. We use this approach to prove lower bounds on the inner product using the following Lemma.

Lemma 2. Let \( \mathcal{D} \) be uniform distribution over all input pairs of \( \text{IP}_n \) (pairs of \( n \)-bit strings). If any half-duplex communication protocol with silence/zero/adversary \( \mathcal{P} \) computing \( \text{IP}_n \) and for every \( k \), \( \text{IC}^k_D(\mathcal{P}) \leq \alpha k \), for some \( \alpha \geq 1 \), then half-duplex complexity of \( \text{IP}_n \) with silence/zero/adversary is at least \( n/\alpha \).

To prove this Lemma we use the following property of \( \text{IP}_n \).

Lemma 3. Every leaf rectangle of a protocol for \( \text{IP}_n \) has size at most \( 2^n \).

Proof. We start with proving it for leaves labeled with 0. Let \( R_l = X_l \times Y_l \) be a rectangle of leaf \( l \) labeled with 0, i.e., \( R_l \) is 0-monochromatic. For every \( x \in X_l \) and \( y \in Y_l \), \( \text{IP}_n(x,y) = 0 \), set \( X_l \) must be contained in the orthogonal complement for span of \( Y_l \). Thus, \( \dim(\{X_l\}) + \dim(\{Y_l\}) \leq n \), and hence, \( |R_l| = |X_l| \times |Y_l| \leq 2^n \).

If leaf is labeled with 1 then for every \( x \in X_l \) and \( y \in Y_l \), \( \text{IP}_n(x,y) = 1 \). Let \( l' \) be arbitrary element of \( Y_l \). Consider a set \( Y_l' = \{y \oplus y' \mid y \in Y_l\} \). It is easy to see that for every \( x \in X_l \) and \( y \in Y_l' \), \( \text{IP}_n(x,y) = 0 \), so we can apply the argument above to show that \( |X_l| \times |Y_l'| \leq 2^n \). It remains to notice that \( |Y_l| = |Y_l'| \).

Proof of Lemma 2. For uniform distribution over all input pairs \( H(\mathcal{X} \mid \mathcal{Y}) + H(\mathcal{Y} \mid \mathcal{X}) = 2n \). By Lemma 3 each leaf of any correct protocol contains at most \( 2^n \) input pairs in its rectangle, thus \( H(\mathcal{X} \mid \mathcal{Y}, \Pi_B) + H(\mathcal{Y} \mid \mathcal{X}, \Pi_A) \leq n \). If \( \text{IP}_n \) has a protocol of depth \( k \) then

\[
\alpha k \geq I(\mathcal{X} : \Pi^B_k \mid \mathcal{Y}) + I(\mathcal{Y} : \Pi^A_k \mid \mathcal{X}) = H(\mathcal{X} \mid \mathcal{Y}) - H(\mathcal{X} \mid \mathcal{Y}, \Pi^B_k) + H(\mathcal{Y} \mid \mathcal{X}) - H(\mathcal{Y} \mid \mathcal{X}, \Pi^A_k) \geq n.
\]

5 Half-duplex communication with silence

The main advantage of this model over the other models we consider is that whenever players have silent round, they learn about it. In some sense they have a third symbol in the alphabet — receiving player can get either 0/1 or a special symbol corresponding to “silence”. Next theorem shows how players can take the advantage of silence to transfer data.

Theorem 5. For every \( f : \{0,1\}^n \times \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\} \), \( D^f_{\text{hd}}(f) \leq \lceil n/\log 3 \rceil + 1 \).

Proof. Alice encodes \( x \) in ternary alphabet \( \{0,1,2\} \) and sends it to Bob: in order to send 0 or 1 Alice sends the corresponding bit, sending 2 is emulated by receiving (keeping silence). This requires \( \lceil \log_3 2^n \rceil = \lceil n/\log 3 \rceil \) bits. At the last round Bob evaluates \( f(x,y) \) and sends the result to Alice."
Using the idea of non-binary encoding, we prove a better upper bound for equality.

**Theorem 6.** $D_{hs}(EQ_n) \leq \lceil n/\log 5 \rceil + \lceil \log n/\log 3 \rceil + 2$.

**Proof.** Alice and Bob encode their inputs in alphabet of size five $\{0, 1, 2, 3, 4\}$. Then they process their inputs symbol by symbol sequentially in $\lceil n/\log 5 \rceil$ rounds. At round $i$ they process $i$th symbol in the following manner.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Alice</th>
<th>Bob</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>send(0)</td>
<td>receive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>send(1)</td>
<td>receive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>receive</td>
<td>send(0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>receive</td>
<td>send(1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>receive</td>
<td>receive</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If $i$th round is normal then one player can check whether $i$th symbols are different. If $i$th round is silent then again one player knows if $i$th symbols are different. If after $\lceil n/\log 5 \rceil$ rounds one of the players has already learned that the answer is 0, then he or she sends 0. If this round is not silent, then both players know that the answer is 0. Otherwise, Alice and Bob have to make sure that there were no spent rounds. To check it, Alice sends the number of normal rounds she was receiving encoded in ternary, that requires $\lceil \log n/\log 3 \rceil$ rounds. Bob checks whether this number is equal to the number of rounds he was sending in. If so, inputs are equal. In the last round, Bob sends the answer back to Alice. \qed

Using almost the same ideas we can show an upper bound for disjointness.

**Theorem 7.** $D_{hs}(DISJ_n) \leq \lceil n/2 \rceil + 2$.

**Proof.** Alice and Bob process their inputs two bits per round, $\lceil n/\log 2 \rceil$ rounds. At round $i$ they process symbols $2i - 1$ and $2i$ in the following manner.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbols</th>
<th>Alice</th>
<th>Bob</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>00</td>
<td>send(0)</td>
<td>receive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>01</td>
<td>receive</td>
<td>send(0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>receive</td>
<td>send(1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>receive</td>
<td>receive</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

At the end of communication Bob tells Alice whether there was a silent round in which Bob’s input was 11 (i.e., inputs are not disjoint). Alice tells Bob whether she ever received 0 having 01 or 11, or received 1 having 10 or 11 (again, inputs are not disjoint). \qed

To prove lower bounds one can use round elimination and get the following lower bound for the inner product.

**Theorem 8.** $D_{hs}(IP_n) \geq n/2$.

**Proof.** Let $R_c$ be the rectangle of all possible inputs and $\mu(R) = |R|$. Consider the following set of good rectangles: a rectangle $R_{silent} = R_{1*}$ where round is silent, four rectangles $R_{0*} = R_{00} \cup R_{01} \cup R_{0r}$, $R_{1*} = R_{10} \cup R_{11} \cup R_{1r}$, $R_{00} = R_{00} \cup R_{10} \cup R_{r0}$, $R_{01} = R_{01} \cup R_{11} \cup R_{r1}$, where one of players sends some bit, and a rectangle $R_{spent} = R_{00} \cup R_{01} \cup R_{10} \cup R_{11}$, where round is spent. We claim one of these good rectangles has measure at least $\mu(R_c)/4$.
For $\mu(R) = |R|$ we can use the following fact. Let $a_0, a_1$ and $a_r$ be the probability over all possible inputs that Alice sends 0, sends 1, and receives, respectively. Analogously, we define $b_0, b_1$ and $b_r$ to be the probability that Bob sends 0, sends 1, and receives. It is easy to see that $a_0 + a_1 + a_r = b_0 + b_1 + b_r = 1$ and for all $\alpha, \beta \in \{0, 1, r\}$, $\mu(R_{\alpha, \beta}) = a_\alpha \cdot b_\beta \cdot \mu(R_c)$.

We need to show that $\max\{\mu(R_0), \mu(R_1), \mu(R_0), \mu(R_1), \mu(R_{\text{silent}}), \mu(R_{\text{spent}})\} \geq \mu(R_c)/4$. This is equivalent to showing that $\max\{a_1, a_0, b_1, a_r, b_r, (1 - a_r)(1 - b_r)\} \geq 1/4$ for any reals $a_0, a_1, a_r, b_0, b_1, b_r \in [0, 1]$, such that $a_0 + a_1 + a_r = b_0 + b_1 + b_r = 1$. If $a_0, a_1, b_0, b_1 < 1/4$ then $(1 - a_r)(1 - b_r) > 1/4$. Now we apply Lemma 1 for $\mu_r = 4^n, \mu_\ell = 2^n$ (Lemma 3), $\alpha = 1/4$, and get the desired bound. \hfill \Box

This lower bound can be improved using upper bound on internal information.

**Theorem 9.** $D^i_s(IP_n) \geq n/1.67$.

Proof. To apply Lemma 2 it is enough to show that $I(\mathcal{X} : \Pi^k_B | \mathcal{Y}) + I(\mathcal{Y} : \Pi^k_A | \mathcal{X}) \leq \alpha k$, where $\alpha \leq 1.67$. We will induct on $k$: the number of rounds. For $k = 0$, there is only one possible partial transcript for either player, the empty transcript, and thus the result is immediate. Now suppose that this is true in round $k$. Let $\mathcal{E}^{k+1}_A$ and $\mathcal{E}^{k+1}_B$ be the marginal distributions over which event each player will observe. Note that

$I(\mathcal{X} : \Pi^k_B | \mathcal{Y}) = I(\mathcal{X} : \Pi^k_B, \mathcal{E}^{k+1}_B | \mathcal{Y}) = I(\mathcal{X} : \Pi^k_B | \mathcal{Y}) + I(\mathcal{X} : \mathcal{E}^{k+1}_B | \mathcal{Y}, \Pi^k_B)$. 

Thus, it suffices to show that $I(\mathcal{X} : \mathcal{E}^{k+1}_B | \mathcal{Y}, \Pi^k_B) + I(\mathcal{Y} : \mathcal{E}^{k+1}_A | \mathcal{X}, \Pi^k_A) \leq \alpha$. Note that

$I(\mathcal{X} : \mathcal{E}^{k+1}_B | \mathcal{Y}, \Pi^k_B) = H(\mathcal{E}^{k+1}_B | \mathcal{Y}, \Pi^k_B) - H(\mathcal{E}^{k+1}_B | \mathcal{Y}, \Pi^k_B, \mathcal{X}) = H(\mathcal{E}^{k+1}_B | \mathcal{Y}, \Pi^k_B) - H(\mathcal{E}^{k+1}_B | \mathcal{Y}, \Pi^k_B, \mathcal{X})$. 

The second term here is zero because values of $\mathcal{X}$ and $\mathcal{Y}$ unambiguously determine the entire protocol. So it is enough to bound $H(\mathcal{E}^{k+1}_B | \mathcal{Y}, \Pi^k_B) = \mathbb{E}_{y, \pi}[H(\mathcal{E}^{k+1}_B | \mathcal{Y} = y, \Pi^k_B = \pi)]$.

Let $\mathcal{A}^{k+1}_A$ and $\mathcal{A}^{k+1}_B$ be the marginal distributions over players actions in round $k + 1$. Note that $\mathcal{A}^{k+1}_B$ is a function of $y$ and $\pi$. If for some pair $(y, \pi)$ Bob sends, i.e. $\mathcal{A}^{k+1}_B = \text{send}(0)$ or $\mathcal{A}^{k+1}_B = \text{send}(1)$, then $H(\mathcal{E}^{k+1}_B | \mathcal{Y} = y, \Pi^k_B = \pi) = 0$. For the sake of brevity we denote $E_{y, \pi}$ an event “$\mathcal{Y} = y, \Pi^k_B = \pi$” and $r$ an action receive $\in \mathcal{A}$.

$H(\mathcal{E}^{k+1}_B | \mathcal{Y}, \Pi^k_B) = \mathbb{P}[\mathcal{A}^{k+1}_B = r] \cdot H(\mathcal{E}^{k+1}_B | \mathcal{Y}, \Pi^k_B, \mathcal{A}^{k+1}_B = r)$. 

Notice that player’s action choices are independent, hence

$H(\mathcal{E}^{k+1}_B | \mathcal{Y}, \Pi^k_B, \mathcal{A}^{k+1}_B = r) = H(\mathcal{A}^{k+1}_B | \mathcal{Y}, \Pi^k_B) \leq H(\mathcal{A}^{k+1}_B)$. 

This gives us the following bound.

$H(\mathcal{E}^{k+1}_B | \mathcal{Y}, \Pi^k_B) \leq \mathbb{P}[\mathcal{A}^{k+1}_B = r] \cdot H(\mathcal{A}^{k+1}_B)$. 

The same argument works for $I(\mathcal{Y} : \Pi^k_A | \mathcal{X})$ and hence we get,

$I(\mathcal{X} : \Pi^k_B | \mathcal{Y}) + I(\mathcal{Y} : \Pi^k_A | \mathcal{X}) \leq \mathbb{P}[\mathcal{A}^{k+1}_B = r] \cdot H(\mathcal{A}^{k+1}_B) + \mathbb{P}[\mathcal{A}^{k+1}_A = r] \cdot H(\mathcal{A}^{k+1}_A)$. 

\vfill

10
Now let’s denote $a_0$ and $a_1$ to be the fractions of inputs for which Alice sends 0 or 1, respectively, and symmetrically $b_0$ and $b_1$ to be the fractions of inputs for which Bob sends 0 or 1, respectively. The right hand side of the above inequality can be rewritten as follows.

\[
(1 - b_0 - b_1) \cdot \left( a_0 \cdot \log \frac{1}{a_0} + a_1 \cdot \log \frac{1}{a_1} + (1 - a_0 - a_1) \cdot \log \frac{1}{1 - a_0 - a_1} \right) \\
+ (1 - a_0 - a_1) \cdot \left( b_0 \cdot \log \frac{1}{b_0} + b_1 \cdot \log \frac{1}{b_1} + (1 - b_0 - b_1) \cdot \log \frac{1}{1 - b_0 - b_1} \right).
\]

Numerical analysis of this expression shows that it’s maximum is less than $1.67$ (for $a_0 = a_1 = b_0 = b_1 \approx 0.17$), hence $I(X : \Pi^k_B | Y) + I(Y : \Pi^k_A | X) \leq 1.67$.

6 Half-duplex communication with zero

As we have already mentioned before there are only two reasonable actions in this model: send 1 or receive. The following theorem shows that half-duplex communication with zero is more powerful than classical communication; namely, it is possible to compute equality in less than $n$ rounds of communication.

**Theorem 10.** $D_{hd}^0(\text{EQ}_n) \leq \lceil n / \log 3 \rceil + 2 \lceil \log n \rceil + 1$.

**Proof.** Alice and Bob encode their inputs in ternary. In the first phase of the protocol, they process their inputs sequentially symbol by symbol in $\lceil n / \log 3 \rceil$ rounds. At round $i$ they process $i$th symbol in the following manner.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Alice</th>
<th>Bob</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>receive</td>
<td>receive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>send(1)</td>
<td>receive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>receive</td>
<td>send(1)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the next $2 \lceil \log n \rceil$ they send each other the number of ones they sent in the first phase. Depending on values of corresponding inputs, i.e., $x_i$ and $y_i$, we distinguish 6 types of witnesses of inequality: $(0, 1)$, $(1, 0)$, $(0, 2)$, $(2, 0)$, $(1, 2)$, $(2, 1)$. If we make sure that each type can be detected by at least one of the players we are done. In the first phase, Alice can detect types $(0, 2)$, $(2, 0)$, $(2, 1)$, while Bob can detect types $(1, 0)$, $(0, 1)$, and $(2, 1)$ (again). This leaves us with detecting witnesses of type $(1, 2)$. Assuming that there are no witnesses of other types, this will be detected in the second phase.

The best lower bound for this model is again for $\text{IP}_n$. The next theorem is proved using round elimination.

**Theorem 11.** $D_{hd}^0(\text{IP}_n) \geq n / \log \frac{2}{3 - \sqrt{5}} > n / 1.39$.

**Proof.** Let $R_c$ be the rectangle of all possible inputs and $\mu(R) = |R|$. Consider the following set of good rectangles: $R_{\text{silent}} = R_{rr}$, $R_{1*} = R_{11} \cup R_{1r}$ and $R_{s1} = R_{s1} \cup R_{s1}$. We claim one of these good rectangles has measure at least $\frac{3 - \sqrt{5}}{2} \cdot \mu(R_c)$. We need to show that

\[
\max \{ \mu(R_{1*}), \mu(R_{s1}), \mu(R_{\text{silent}}) \} \geq \frac{3 - \sqrt{5}}{2} \cdot \mu(R).
\]
Theorem 14. It is equivalent to showing that for any \( a, b \in [0, 1] \), 
\[
\max \{ a, b, (1-a)(1-b) \} \geq \frac{3-\sqrt{5}}{2}, \]
where \( a \) and \( b \) denote the probabilities over all possible inputs that, respectively, Alice and Bob send 1. Now we can argue that minimum value of this max is achieved when \( a = b = (1-a)(1-b) \): indeed, increasing or decreasing \( a \) or \( b \) increases one of the arguments. Solving corresponding quadratic equation \( a = (1-a)^2 \) we get \( a = \frac{3-\sqrt{5}}{2} \), and hence 
\[
\max \{ a, b, (1-a)(1-b) \} \geq \frac{3-\sqrt{5}}{2}. \]
Applying Lemma 1 for \( \mu_r = 4^n \), \( \mu_\ell = 2^n \), and \( \alpha = \frac{3-\sqrt{5}}{2} \) finishes the proof.

The better lower is proved with information-theoretic approach.

Theorem 12. \( D_0^{hd}(IP_n) \geq n/1.234 \).

Proof. The proof repeats the proof of Theorem 9. The only difference is that in this model players never send 0. So at the end we end up maximizing \( (1-b_1) \cdot h(a_1) + (1 - a_1) \cdot h(b_1) \), where 
\[
h(p) = p \cdot \log \frac{1}{p} + (1-p) \cdot \log \frac{1}{1-p}, \]
is a binary entropy function. Maximum of this expression is slightly less then 1.234 \((a_1 = b_1 \approx 0.29)\).

7 Half-duplex communication with adversary

The main feature of this model is that receiving player cannot be 100% sure that the received bit if in fact is “real”, i.e., this bit originates from the other player, not from an adversary. The protocol must be correct for any strategy of the adversary. Our intuition prompts that in this setting silent and spent rounds would be useless. Using combinatorial methods, one can show the following two lower bounds.

Theorem 13. \( D_a^{hd}(EQ_n) \geq n/\log 2.5 \).

Proof. Let \( R_c \) be the rectangle of all possible inputs and \( \mu(R) = |\{(x, x) \in R\}| \). Consider the following set of 5 good rectangles: \( R_{spent} = R_{00} \cup R_{01} \cup R_{10} \cup R_{11}, \) and four rectangles
\[
R_{11} = R_{00} \cup R_{0r} \cup R_{r0} \cup R_{rr}, \quad R_{01} = R_{10} \cup R_{1r} \cup R_{r0} \cup R_{rr},
R_{10} = R_{01} \cup R_{0r} \cup R_{r1} \cup R_{rr}, \quad R_{00} = R_{11} \cup R_{1r} \cup R_{r1} \cup R_{rr},
\]
where Alice does not send \( \alpha \) and Bob does not send \( \beta \) some fixed bits \( \alpha, \beta \).

Now let us observe that together all these good rectangles cover the entire rectangle of possible input twice, and hence one of it has measure at least \( 2/5 \cdot \mu(R_c) \).

Theorem 14. \( D_a^{hd}(IP_n) \geq n/\log 3 \).

Proof. Let \( R_c \) be the rectangle of all possible inputs and \( \mu(R) = |R| \). We use a set of good rectangles consisted of rectangles \( R_{spent}, R_{11}, R_{01}, R_{10}, R_{00} \) from the proof of Theorem 13 and four additional rectangles
\[
R_{0*} = R_{00} \cup R_{0r} \cup R_{0r}, \quad R_{s0} = R_{00} \cup R_{10} \cup R_{r0},
R_{l*} = R_{10} \cup R_{11} \cup R_{1r}, \quad R_{s1} = R_{01} \cup R_{11} \cup R_{r1},
\]
where one of players sends some fixed bit. The following lemma shows that for this set of good rectangles and this specific measure we can prove a better bound.
Lemma 4. For all half-duplex protocols with adversary

$$\max \{ \mu(R_{\text{spent}}), \mu(R_0), \mu(R_0), \mu(R_{1}), \mu(R_{1}), \mu(R_{0i}), \mu(R_{1i}), \mu(R_{0i}), \mu(R_{1i}) \} \geq \frac{3}{2} \cdot \mu(R_c).$$

Proof. We use the idea we have already seen in the proof of Theorem 8. Let $$a_0, a_1$$ and $$a_r$$ be the probabilities over all possible inputs that Alice sends 0, sends 1 and receives, respectively. Analogously, we define $$b_0, b_1$$ and $$b_r$$ to be the probabilities that Bob sends 0, sends 1 and receives. It is easy to see that $$a_0 + a_1 + a_r = b_0 + b_1 + b_r = 1$$ and for all $$\alpha, \beta \in \{0, 1, r\}$$, $$\mu(R_{\alpha\beta}) = a_\alpha \cdot b_\beta \cdot \mu(R_c)$$ (it is important here that $$\mu(R) = |R|$$). Minimization of maximum of linear functions with such constraints can be reduced to a semidefinite programming problem giving us the desired bound. \(\square\)

Application of the Lemma 1 for $$\mu_r = 4^n$$, $$\mu_\ell = 2^n$$ and $$\alpha = 3/7$$, finishes the proof. \(\square\)

And again better lower bound for IP can be obtained using information-theoretic approach.

Theorem 15. $$D_a^{\text{hd}}(\text{IP}_n) \geq n.$$  

Proof. Following the ideas and the notation of the proof of Theorem 9 it suffices to show that $$I(\mathcal{X} : \mathcal{E}_B^{k+1} | \mathcal{Y}, \Pi_B^k) + I(\mathcal{Y} : \mathcal{E}_A^{k+1} | \mathcal{X}, \Pi_A^k) \leq 1.$$ Let $$(y, \pi_B^k)$$ be a particular valid input-transcript pair for Bob. Consider $$I(\mathcal{X} : \mathcal{E}_B^{k+1} | E_{y,}\pi_B^k)$$ where $$E_{y,}\pi_B^k$$ denotes event “$$\mathcal{Y} = y, \Pi_B^k = \pi_B^k$$”. Note that

$$I(\mathcal{X} : \mathcal{E}_B^{k+1} | E_{y,}\pi_B^k) \leq I(\mathcal{X}, \Pi_A^k : \mathcal{E}_B^{k+1} | E_{y,}\pi_B^k) = H(\mathcal{E}_B^{k+1} | E_{y,}\pi_B^k) - H(\mathcal{E}_B^{k+1} | E_{y,}\pi_B^k, \mathcal{X}, \Pi_A^k).$$

Suppose that Bob is receiving in round $$k + 1$$; otherwise $$H(\mathcal{E}_B^{k+1} | E_{y,}\pi_B^k) = H(\mathcal{E}_B^{k+1} | E_{y,}\pi_B^k, \mathcal{X}, \Pi_A^k) = 0$$. Consider each $$(x, \pi_A^k)$$ input-transcript pair for Alice consistent with $$(y, \pi_B^k)$$. Note that $$H(\mathcal{E}_B^{k+1} | \mathcal{Y} = y, \Pi_B^k = \pi_B^k, \mathcal{X} = x, \Pi_A^k = \pi_A^k)$$ will either be 0, if Alice is sending a bit in round $$k + 1$$, or 1, if she is receiving. The latter is because the adversary will choose whether Bob receives a 0 or 1 in round $$k + 1$$ uniformly at random independent of Alice or Bob’s transcripts or inputs.

Thus

$$H(\mathcal{E}_B^{k+1} | E_{y,}\pi_B^k, \mathcal{X}, \Pi_A^k) = \Pr[\text{Alice receives} | E_{y,}\pi_B^k],$$

and thus $$I(\mathcal{X} : \mathcal{E}_B^{k+1} | \mathcal{Y} = y, \Pi_B^k = \pi_B^k) \leq 1 - \Pr[\text{Alice receives} | E_{y,}\pi_B^k] \leq \Pr[\text{Alice sends} | E_{y,}\pi_B^k].$$

We then have that

$$I(\mathcal{X} : \mathcal{E}_B^{k+1} | \mathcal{Y}, \Pi_B^k) = \sum_{(y, \pi_B^k)} \Pr[E_{y,}\pi_B^k] \cdot I(\mathcal{X} : \mathcal{E}_B^{k+1} | E_{y,}\pi_B^k) \leq \sum_{(y, \pi_B^k)} \Pr[\text{Alice sends, } E_{y,}\pi_B^k] \cdot \mathbf{1}[\text{Bob receives}] \leq \Pr[\text{Alice sends, Bob receives}].$$

A symmetric argument holds for Alice, giving

$$I(\mathcal{X} : \mathcal{E}_B^{k+1} | \mathcal{Y}, \Pi_B^k) + I(\mathcal{Y} : \mathcal{E}_A^{k+1} | \mathcal{X}, \Pi_A^k) \leq \Pr[\text{Alice sends, Bob receives}] + \Pr[\text{Alice receives, Bob sends}] \leq 1. \quad \square$$
To prove this theorem we use the ideas from the proof of Theorem 9: in order to apply Lemma 2 we show that $I(X : \Pi^k_B | Y) + I(Y : \Pi^k_A | X) \leq k$, and hence we get the desired bound.

Using the same approach we can show $2 \log n$ lower bound on the complexity of Karchmer-Wigderson relation for parity function.

**Definition 7.** Let $X = f^{-1}(0)$, $Y = f^{-1}(1)$ for some Boolean function $f : \{0,1\}^n \to \{0,1\}$. The KW relation for function $f$, $R_f \subseteq X \times Y \times \{n\}$, is defined by $R_f = \{(x,y,i) \mid x_i \neq x_i\}$.

It it well known that parity function $\oplus_n : \{0,1\}^n \to \{0,1\}$, $\oplus_n(x) = \bigoplus_{i=1}^n x_i$, requires $n^2$ formula size [9]. In the classical case it is equivalent to saying that KW relations for parity requires $2 \log n$ rounds of communication. In the proof of Theorem 15 we shown that $I(X : \mathcal{E}^{k+1}_{\mathcal{B}} | Y, \Pi^k_B) + I(Y : \mathcal{E}^{k+1}_{\mathcal{A}} | X, \Pi^k_A) \leq 1$. It allows us to prove the following analogue of this result.

**Corollary 1.** $D^{hd}_{\oplus}(R_{\oplus_n}) \geq 2 \log n$.

**Proof.** Take the uniform distribution over valid input pairs with a single bit of difference. Then $H(Y | X) + H(X | Y) = 2 \log n$ before any communication takes place. On the other hand it is easy to see that $H(Y | X, \Pi_A) + H(X | Y, \Pi_B) = 0$ at any leaf. \qed

## 8 Open problems

The following table lists lower and upper bounds that we managed to prove in this paper.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>EQ</th>
<th>IP</th>
<th>DISJ</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$D^{hd}_s$</td>
<td>$\geq n/\log 5$</td>
<td>$\geq n/1.67$</td>
<td>$\leq n/2 + O(1)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$\leq n/\log 5 + o(n)$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$D^{hd}_0$</td>
<td>$\geq n/\log 3$</td>
<td>$\geq n/1.234$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$\leq n/\log 3 + o(n)$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$D^{hd}_a$</td>
<td>$\geq n/\log 2.5$</td>
<td>$\geq n$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It would be interesting to improve bounds where it is possible to determine the true complexity of these functions in half-duplex models. So we propose the following list of open problems.

1. Prove better upper and lower bounds for the half-duplex model with silence and zero.

2. Is there any $\alpha < 1$ such that for any $f : \{0,1\}^n \times \{0,1\}^n \to \{0,1\}$, $D^{hd}_0(f) \leq \alpha n + o(n)$?

3. Is there any $f : \{0,1\}^n \times \{0,1\}^n \to \{0,1\}$, such that at the same time $D(f) \geq n - o(n)$ and $D^{hd}_a(f) \leq \alpha n + o(n)$ for some $\alpha < 1$.

**Acknowledgement**

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References


