Arthur–Merlin streaming complexity

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\textbf{A B S T R A C T}

We study the power of Arthur–Merlin probabilistic proof systems in the data stream model. We show a canonical AM streaming algorithm for a class of data stream problems. The algorithm offers a tradeoff between the length of the proof and the space complexity that is needed to verify it.

As an application, we give an AM streaming algorithm for the Distinct Elements problem. Given a data stream of length \( m \) over alphabet of size \( n \), the algorithm uses \( \tilde{O}(s) \) space and a proof of size \( \tilde{O}(w) \), for every \( s, w \) such that \( s \cdot w \geq n \) (where \( \tilde{O} \) hides a polylog\((m, n)\) factor). We also prove a lower bound, showing that every MA streaming algorithm for the Distinct Elements problem that uses \( s \) bits of space and a proof of size \( w \), satisfies \( s \cdot w = \Omega(n) \). Furthermore, the lower bound also holds for approximating the number of distinct elements within a multiplicative factor of \( 1 \pm 1/\sqrt{n} \).

As a part of the proof of the lower bound for the Distinct Elements problem, we show a new lower bound of \( \Omega(\sqrt{n}) \) on the MA communication complexity of the Gap Hamming Distance problem, and prove its tightness.

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1. Introduction

The data stream computational model is an abstraction commonly used for algorithms that process network traffic using sublinear space [1–3]. In the settings of this model, we have an algorithm that gets a sequence of elements (typically, each element is an integer) as input. This sequence of elements is called a \textit{data stream} and is usually denoted by \( \sigma = (a_1, \ldots, a_n) \); where \( a_1 \) is the first element, \( a_2 \) is the second element, and so forth. The algorithm receives its input (a data stream) element-by-element. After it sees each \( a_i \), it no longer has access to elements with index that is smaller than \( i \). The algorithm is required to compute a function of the data stream, using as little space as possible.

Among the most fundamental problems in the data stream model is the problem of Distinct Elements, i.e., the problem of computing the number of distinct elements in a given data stream. The problem has been studied extensively in the last two decades (see, for example, [1,2,4]). Its significance stems both from the vast variety of applications that it spans (covering IP routing, database operations and text compression; e.g., [5,1,6]), and due to the theoretical insight that it gives on the nature of computation in the data stream model.

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Alon et al. [1] have shown a lower bound of $\Omega(n)$ (where $n$ is the size of the alphabet from which the elements are taken) on the streaming complexity of the computation of the exact number of distinct elements in a sufficiently long data stream (i.e., where the length of the data stream is at least proportional to $n$). The goal of reducing the space complexity of the Distinct Elements problem has led to a long line of research on approximation algorithms for the problem, starting with the seminal paper [7] by Flajolet and Martin. Recently, Kane et al. [4] gave the first optimal approximation algorithm for estimating the number of distinct elements in a data stream; for a data stream with alphabet of size $n$, given $\epsilon > 0$ their algorithm computes a $(1 \pm \epsilon)$ multiplicative approximation using $O(\epsilon^{-2} + \log n)$ bits of space, with $2/3$ success probability.

A natural approach for reducing the space complexity of streaming algorithms, without settling on an approximation, is by considering a probabilistic proof system. Chakrabarti et al. [3] have shown data stream with annotations algorithms for several data stream problems, using a probabilistic proof system that is very similar to $\text{MA}$. This line of work continued in [8], wherein a probabilistic proof system was used in order to reduce the streaming complexity of numerous graph problems. In a subsequent work [9], Cormode et al. provided a practical instantiation of one of the most efficient general-purpose constructions of an interactive proof for arbitrary computations, due to Goldwasser et al. [10].

In this work, we study the power of Arthur–Merlin probabilistic proof systems in the data stream model. We show a canonical $\text{AM}$ streaming algorithm for a class of data stream problems. The algorithm offers a tradeoff between the length of the proof and the space complexity that is needed to verify it. We show that the problem of Distinct Elements falls within the class of problems that our canonical algorithm can handle. Thus, we give an $\text{AM}$ streaming algorithm for the Distinct Elements problem. Given a data stream of length $m$ over alphabet of size $n$, the algorithm uses $\tilde{O}(s)$ space and a proof of size $\tilde{O}(w)$, for every $s, w$ such that $s \cdot w \geq n$ (where throughout this paper, $\tilde{O}$ hides a polylog$(m, n)$ factor).

In addition, we give a lower bound on the $\text{MA}$ streaming complexity of approximating the Distinct Elements problem, which almost matches numerically the upper bound above. Loosely speaking, we show that every streaming algorithm for approximating Distinct Elements within a multiplicative factor of $1 \pm 1/\sqrt{n}$ that uses $s$ bits of space and a proof of size $w$ must satisfy $s + w = \Omega(\sqrt{n})$. (We note that a lower bound on the $\text{MA}$ streaming complexity of computing the exact number of distinct elements in a stream can be obtained by combining the known $\text{MA}$ lower bound on set-disjointness [11] and the known reduction from set-disjointness to Distinct Elements [2].) Our lower bound for Distinct Elements relies on a new lower bound that we prove on the $\text{MA}$ communication complexity of the Gap Hamming Distance problem.

1.1. Arthur–Merlin probabilistic proof systems

An $\text{AM}$ (Merlin–Arthur) proof is a probabilistic extension of the notion of proof in complexity theory. Proofs of this type are commonly described as an interaction between two players, usually referred to as Merlin and Arthur. We think of Merlin as an omniscient prover, and of Arthur as a computationally bounded verifier. Merlin is supposed to send Arthur a valid proof for the correctness of a certain statement. After seeing both the input and Merlin’s proof, with high probability Arthur can verify a valid proof for a correct statement, and reject every possible alleged proof for a wrong statement.

An $\text{AM}$ proof is defined almost the same as an $\text{MA}$ proof, except that in $\text{AM}$ proof systems we assume that both the prover and the verifier have access to a common source of randomness (alternatively, $\text{AM}$ proof systems can be described as $\text{MA}$ proof systems that start with an extra round, wherein Arthur sends Merlin a random string). We remark that, by definition, $\text{AM}$ proofs are at least as powerful as $\text{MA}$ proofs.

The notion of $\text{AM}$ and $\text{MA}$ proof systems can be extended to many computational models. In this work we consider both the communication complexity analogue of $\text{MA}$, wherein Alice and Bob receive a proof that they use in order to save communication, and the data stream analogues of $\text{MA}$ and $\text{AM}$, wherein the data stream algorithm receives a proof and uses it in order to reduce the required resources for solving a data stream problem.

Recently, probabilistic proof systems for streaming algorithms have been used to provide an abstraction of the notion of delegation of computation to a cloud (see [8,9,12]). In the context of cloud computing, a common scenario is one where a user receives or generates a massive amount of data, which he cannot afford to store locally. The user can stream the data he receives to the cloud, keeping only a short certificate of the data he streamed. Later, when the user wants to calculate a function of that data, the cloud can perform the calculations and send the result to the user. However, the user cannot automatically trust the cloud (as an error could occur during the computation, or the service provider might not be honest). Thus the user would like to use the short certificate that he saved in order to verify the answer that he gets from the cloud.

1.2. Communication complexity and the Gap Hamming Distance problem

Communication complexity is a central model in computational complexity. In its basic setup, we have two computationally unbounded players, Alice and Bob, holding (respectively) binary strings $x, y$ of length $n$ each. The players need to compute a function of both of the inputs, using the least amount of communication between them.

In this work we examine the well known communication complexity problem of Gap Hamming Distance (GHD), wherein each of the two parties gets an $n$ bit binary string, and together the parties need to tell whether the Hamming distance of the strings is larger than $\frac{n}{2} + \sqrt{n}$ or smaller than $\frac{n}{2} - \sqrt{n}$ (assuming that one of the possibilities occurs). In [13] a tight linear lower bound was proven on the communication complexity of a randomized communication complexity protocol for GHD. Following [13], a couple of other proofs [14,15] were given for the aforementioned lower bound. Relying on [15,16,11], in this work we give a tight lower bound of $\Omega(\sqrt{n})$ on the $\text{MA}$ communication complexity of GHD.
1.3. Our results

In this work the main contributions are:

1. A canonical $\mathcal{AM}$ streaming algorithm for a class of data stream problems, including the Distinct Elements problem.
3. A tight lower bound on the $\mathcal{MA}$ communication complexity of the Gap Hamming Distance problem.

In order to state the results precisely, we first introduce the following notations: throughout the paper, unless stated otherwise, a data stream $\sigma$ is an $m$-tuple $\sigma = (a_1, \ldots, a_m)$, over alphabet $[n]$. Given a data stream $\sigma$, the element indicator $\chi_i : [m] \to \{0, 1\}$ is the $i$th element ($i \in [m]$) of the stream $\sigma$, is the function that indicates whether a given element is in position $i \in [m]$ of $\sigma$, i.e., $\chi_i(j) = 1$ if and only if $a_i = j$. Furthermore, let $\chi : [n] \to \{0, 1\}^m$ be the element indicator of $\sigma$, defined by

$$\chi(j) = (\chi_1(j), \ldots, \chi_m(j)).$$

In addition, given $m \in \mathbb{N}$ we define a clause over $m$ variables $x_1, \ldots, x_m$ as a function $C : \{0, 1\}^m \to \{0, 1\}$ of the form $y_1 \lor y_2 \lor \ldots \lor y_n$, where for every $i \in [m]$ the literal $y_i$ is either a variable ($x_i$), a negation of a variable ($\neg x_i$), or one of the constants $\{0, 1\}$.

Equipped with the notations above, we formally state our results. We start by defining the class of functions (or more accurately: data stream problems, see Section 2.2 for a formal definition) that our canonical algorithm can solve.

**Definition 1.1.** Let $k = k(m, n)$. A data stream problem $P$ is $k$-algebrizable if for every $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$ there exists a set of $k$ clauses $\{C_t\}_{t \in \{k\}}$ over $m$ variables, and a function $\psi : \{0, 1\}^k \to \mathbb{Z}$, such that for every data stream $\sigma$,  

$$P(\sigma) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \psi(C_1 \circ \chi(j), \ldots, C_k \circ \chi(j)) \quad (1.1)$$

Moreover, we require that $\psi$ and $\{C_t\}_{t \in \{k\}}$ are known to the verifier,\(^1\) and that there exists $B \leq \text{poly}(m, n)$ such that $\psi(x) < B$ for every $x \in \{0, 1\}^k$.

We remark that the Distinct Elements problem is in the class of algebrizable data stream problems, and that we are not aware of other well-studied data stream problems in this class.

Let $P$ be a data stream problem that is $k$-algebrizable. For every $0 < \delta \leq 1$ and every $s, w \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $s \cdot w \geq n$, we give an $\mathcal{AM}$ streaming algorithm, with error probability $\delta$, for computing $P(\sigma)$. The algorithm uses space $O(\sqrt{sk \cdot \text{polylog}(m, n, \delta^{-1})})$, a proof of size $W = O(wk \cdot \text{polylog}(m, n, \delta^{-1}))$, and randomness complexity $\text{polylog}(m, n, \delta^{-1})$.

As an immediate corollary, we obtain a similar statement for approximation problems. Consider the following extension of algebrizable data stream problems.

**Definition 1.2.** Let $0 \leq \epsilon < 1/2$ and $k = k(m, n)$. A data stream problem $P$ is $(k, \epsilon)$-algebrizable if for every $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$ there exists a set of $k$ clauses $\{C_t\}_{t \in \{k\}}$ over $m$ variables, and a function $\psi : \{0, 1\}^k \to \mathbb{Z}$, such that for every data stream $\sigma$,  

$$(1 - \epsilon)P(\sigma) \leq \sum_{j=1}^{n} \psi(C_1 \circ \chi(j), \ldots, C_k \circ \chi(j)) \leq (1 + \epsilon)P(\sigma). \quad (1.2)$$

Moreover, we require that $\psi$ and $\{C_t\}_{t \in \{k\}}$ are known to the verifier, and that there exists $B \leq \text{poly}(m, n)$ such that $\psi(x) < B$ for every $x \in \{0, 1\}^k$.

We note that the aforementioned $\mathcal{AM}$ streaming algorithm can compute $\sum_{j=1}^{n} \psi(C_1 \circ \chi(j), \ldots, C_k \circ \chi(j))$ precisely; therefore, given a data stream problem that is $(k, \epsilon)$-algebrizable, the algorithm approximates $P(\sigma)$ within a multiplicative factor of $1 \pm \epsilon$.

We show, in Section 6, that the aforementioned algorithm, when applied to the Distinct Elements problem with parameters $s, w$ such that $s \cdot w \geq n$, yields an $\mathcal{AM}$ streaming algorithm for the problem. The algorithm computes, with probability at least $2/3$, the exact number of distinct elements in a data stream of length $m$ over alphabet $[n]$, using space $O(s)$ and a proof of size $O(w)$. For example, by fixing $w = n$, we get an $\mathcal{AM}$ streaming algorithm for the Distinct Elements problem that uses only polylogarithmic space.

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1 For example, $\psi$ and $\{C_t\}_{t \in \{k\}}$ can be polylog$(m, n)$-space uniform; that is, the description of $\psi$ and $\{C_t\}_{t \in \{k\}}$ can be computed by a deterministic Turing machine that runs in polylog$(m, n)$ space.
Our next result is a lower bound on the $\mathcal{MA}$ streaming complexity of the Distinct Elements problem. We show that every $\mathcal{MA}$ streaming algorithm that approximates, within a multiplicative factor of $1 \pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}$, the number of distinct elements in a data stream of length $m \geq n$ over alphabet $[n]$, using $s$ bits of space and a proof of size $w$, must satisfy $s \cdot w = \Omega(n)$.

Finally, we show a tight (up to a logarithmic factor) lower bound on the $\mathcal{MA}$ communication complexity of the Gap Hamming Distance problem. For every $\mathcal{MA}$ communication complexity protocol for GHD that communicates $t$ bits and uses a proof of size $w$, we have $t \cdot w = \Omega(n)$. We prove the tightness of the lower bound by giving, for every $t, w \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $t \cdot w \geq n$, an $\mathcal{MA}$ communication complexity protocol for GHD, which communicates $O(t \log n)$ bits and uses a proof of size $\Theta(w \log n)$.

1.4. Techniques

The main intuition behind our canonical $\mathcal{AM}$ streaming algorithm is based on the “algebrization” inspired communication complexity protocol of Aaronson and Wigderson [17]. However our proof is much more technically involved.

In general, say we have a data stream problem $\mathcal{P}$ and two integers $s, w$ such that $s \cdot w \geq n$. If there exists a low degree polynomial $g(x, y) : \mathbb{Z}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ (that depends on the input stream $\sigma$) and two domains $\mathcal{D}_w, \mathcal{D}_s \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$ of cardinality $w, s$ (respectively) such that

$$\mathcal{P}(\sigma) = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{D}_w} \sum_{y \in \mathcal{D}_s} g(x, y),$$

then assuming we can efficiently evaluate $g$ at a random point, by a straightforward adaptation of the [17] protocol to the settings of streaming algorithms, we obtain a simple $\mathcal{MA}$ streaming algorithm for $\mathcal{P}$.

However, in our case we can only express $\mathcal{P}(\sigma)$ as

$$\sum_{x \in \mathcal{D}_w} \sum_{y \in \mathcal{D}_s} \psi(C_1 \circ \tilde{\chi}(x, y), \ldots, C_k \circ \tilde{\chi}(x, y)),$$

where $k$ is a natural number, $\{C_i\}_{i \in [k]}$ are clauses over $m$ variables, $\psi : \{0, 1\}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ is a function over the hypercube, $\tilde{\chi} : \mathcal{D}_w \times \mathcal{D}_s \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^m$ is the bivariate equivalent of the element indicator $\chi : [n] \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^m$, and $\mathcal{D}_w, \mathcal{D}_s \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$ are domains of cardinality $w, s$ (respectively).

The function $\psi(C_1 \circ \tilde{\chi}(x, y), \ldots, C_k \circ \tilde{\chi}(x, y))$ is not a low degree polynomial. We would have liked to overcome this difficulty by using the approximation method of [18,19]. The latter allows us to have a low degree approximation of the clauses $\{C_i\}_{i \in [k]}$, such that with high probability over the construction of the approximation polynomials we can replace the clauses with low degree polynomials, without changing the output. The aforementioned randomized procedure comes at a cost of turning the $\mathcal{MA}$ streaming algorithm to an $\mathcal{AM}$ streaming algorithm.

Yet, the above does not sufficiently reduce the degree of $\psi(C_1 \circ \tilde{\chi}(x, y), \ldots, C_k \circ \tilde{\chi}(x, y))$. This is due to the fact that the method of [18,19] results with approximation polynomials over a finite field of cardinality that is larger than $\mathcal{P}(\sigma)$. The degree of the approximation polynomials is close to the cardinality of the finite field, which in our case can be a large number $(\text{poly}(m, n))$.

Instead we aim to apply the method of [18,19] to approximate

$$\left[\mathcal{P}(\sigma) \pmod q\right]_{q \in \mathbb{Q}}$$

for a set $Q$ of poly$(m, n)$ primes, each of size at most poly$(m, n)$. This way, each approximation polynomial that we get is over a finite field of cardinality polylog$(m, n)$, and of sufficiently low degree. Then, we use the Chinese Remainder Theorem to extract the value of $\mathcal{P}(\sigma)$ from $\{\mathcal{P}(\sigma) \pmod q\}_{q \in \mathbb{Q}}$.

Nonetheless, this is still not enough, as for every $q \in Q$ we want the answer to be the summation of the polynomial approximation of $\psi(C_1 \circ \tilde{\chi}(x, y), \ldots, C_k \circ \tilde{\chi}(x, y))$ $(\pmod q)$ over some domain $\mathcal{D}_w \times \mathcal{D}_s \subseteq \mathbb{Z}^2$ (where $|\mathcal{D}_w| = w$ and $|\mathcal{D}_s| = s$). Since the cardinality of the field $\mathbb{F}_q$ is typically smaller than $w$ and $s$, we use an extension (of sufficient cardinality) of the field $\mathbb{F}_q$.

At each step of the construction, we make sure that we preserve both the restrictions that are imposed by the data stream model, and the conditions that are needed to ensure an efficient verification of the proof.

The idea behind our $\mathcal{AM}$ streaming algorithm for Distinct Elements is simply noting that we can indicate whether an element $j$ appears in the data stream, by the disjunction of the element indicators of $j \in [n]$ in all of the positions of the stream (i.e., $\chi_1(j), \ldots, \chi_m(j)$). Then we can represent the number of distinct elements as a sum of disjunctions, and use the canonical $\mathcal{AM}$ streaming algorithm in order to solve the Distinct Elements problem.

As for the lower bound on the $\mathcal{MA}$ streaming complexity of the Distinct Elements problem, we start by establishing a lower bound on the $\mathcal{MA}$ communication complexity of the Gap Hamming Distance problem (GHD). A key element in the proof of the latter is based on Sherstov’s recent result [15] on the Gap Orthogonality problem (ORT) and its relation to GHD. Sherstov observed that the problem of Gap Orthogonality readily reduces to Gap Hamming Distance problem. Although at first glance it seems that the transition to ORT is of little substance, it turns out that Yao’s corruption bound [20] suits it perfectly. In fact, the corruption property for ORT is equivalent to the anti-concentration property of orthogonal vectors.
in the Boolean cube. Using this observation, we prove a lower bound on the \(\mathcal{MA}\) communication complexity of ORT (following the method of [16,11]), which in turn, by the reduction from ORT to GHD, implies a lower bound on the \(\mathcal{MA}\) communication complexity of GHD. Next we adapt the reduction that was implicitly stated in [2], and reduce the \(\mathcal{MA}\) communication complexity problem of GHD to the \(\mathcal{MA}\) problem of calculating the exact number of Distinct Elements.

1.5. Related work

The data stream model has gained a great deal of attention after the publication of the seminal paper by Alon, Matias and Szegedy [1]. In the scope of that work, the authors have shown a lower bound of \(\Omega(n)\) (where \(n\) is the size of the alphabet) on the streaming complexity of Distinct Elements (i.e., the computation of the exact number of distinct elements in a data stream) where the length of the input is at least proportional to \(n\).

Following [1] there was a long line of theoretical research on the approximation of the Distinct Element problem ([21,2,22,23,4], see [5] for a survey of earlier results). Finally, Kane et al. [4] gave the first optimal approximation algorithm for estimating the number of distinct elements in a data stream; for a data stream with alphabet of size \(n\), given \(\epsilon > 0\) their algorithm computes a \((1 \pm \epsilon)\) multiplicative approximation using \(O(\epsilon^{-2} + \log n)\) bits of space, with 2/3 success probability. This result matches the tight lower bound of Indyk and Woodruff [2].

In a recent sequence of works, the data stream model was extended to support several interactive and non-interactive proof systems [3,8,12]. The model of streaming algorithms with non-interactive proofs was first introduced in [3] and extended in [8,9]. In [3] the authors gave an optimal (up to polylogarithmic factors) data stream with annotations algorithm for computing the \(k\)th frequency moment exactly, for every integer \(k \geq 1\). Furthermore, Chakrabarti et al. [3] showed an annotated data streaming protocol for a special case of Distinct Elements wherein the stream length is bounded by \(O(n)\) (where \(n\) is the size of the alphabet). Both the space complexity and proof length of the aforementioned streaming algorithm is \(O(n^{2/3})\).

2. Preliminaries

2.1. Communication complexity

Let \(X, Y, Z\) be finite sets, and let \(f : X \times Y \rightarrow Z\) be a (possibly partial) function. In the two-party probabilistic communication complexity model we have two computationally unbounded players, traditionally referred to as Alice and Bob. Both players share a random string. Alice gets as an input \(x \in X\). Bob gets as an input \(y \in Y\). At the beginning, none of the players has any information regarding the input of the other player. Their common goal is to compute the value of \(f(x, y)\), using a protocol that communicates as small a number of bits as possible. In each step of the protocol, one of the players sends one bit to the other player. This bit may depend on the other player’s input, the common random string, as well as on all previous bits communicated between the two players. At the end of the protocol, both players have to know the value of \(f(x, y)\) with high probability.

2.1.1. MA communication complexity

In the \(\mathcal{MA}\) communication complexity protocol, we have a (possibly partial) function \(f : X \times Y \rightarrow \{0, 1\}\) (for some finite sets \(X, Y\)), and three computationally unbounded parties: Merlin, Alice, and Bob. The function \(f\) is known to all parties. Alice gets as an input \(x \in X\). Bob gets as an input \(y \in Y\). Merlin sees both \(x\) and \(y\). We think of Merlin as a prover, and think of Alice and Bob as verifiers. We assume that Alice and Bob share a private random string that Merlin cannot see.

At the beginning of an \(\mathcal{MA}\) communication complexity protocol, Merlin sends a proof string \(w\) to both Alice and Bob, so both players have free access to \(w\). The players proceed as before. In each step of the protocol, one of the players sends one bit to the other player. At the end of the protocol, both players have to know an answer \(z\). Hence, the answer depends on the input \((x, y)\) as well as on the proof \(w\). For a protocol \(P\), denote by \(P((x, y), w)\) the probabilistic answer \(z\) given by the protocol on input \((x, y)\) and proof \(w\).

An \(\mathcal{MA}\) communication complexity protocol has three parameters: a limit on the probability of error of the protocol, denoted by \(\epsilon\); a limit on the number of bits of communication between Alice and Bob, denoted by \(T\); and a limit on the length of Merlin’s proof string, denoted by \(W\).

With the above in mind, we can now define \(\mathcal{MA}_\epsilon(T, W)\) communication complexity as follows:

**Definition 2.1.** An \(\mathcal{MA}_\epsilon(T, W)\)-communication complexity protocol for \(f\) is a probabilistic communication complexity protocol \(P\), as above (i.e., with an additional proof string \(w\) presented to the players). During the protocol, Alice and Bob communicate at most \(T\) bits. The protocol satisfies,

1. Completeness: for all \((x, y) \in f^{-1}(1)\), there exists a string \(w\) such that \(|w| \leq W\), that satisfies

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2 If we are dealing with a promise problem, which is represented by a partial function, the players can output any answer when given an input for which the function is not defined.
2. **Soundness:** for all \((x, y) \in f^{-1}(0)\) and for any string \(w\) such that \(|w| < W\), we have

\[
\Pr[P((x, y), w) = 1] < \epsilon.
\]

2.2. The Gap Hamming Distance problem

Let \(n \in \mathbb{N}\), and let \(\zeta_0, \zeta_1 > 0\). We define the Gap Hamming Distance problem as follows:

**Definition 2.2.** The Gap Hamming Distance problem is the communication complexity problem of computing the partial Boolean function \(GHD_{n, \sqrt{n}} : \{-1, 1\}^n \times \{-1, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}\) given by

\[
GHD_{n, \sqrt{n}}(x, y) = \begin{cases} 
1 & \text{if } (x, y) > \zeta_1 \\
0 & \text{if } (x, y) < -\zeta_0
\end{cases}
\]

Denote \(GHD = GHD_{n, \sqrt{n}}\).

2.2. Streaming complexity

Let \(\epsilon \geq 0, \delta > 0\). Let \(m, n \in \mathbb{N}\). A data stream \(\sigma = (a_1, \ldots, a_m)\) is a sequence of elements, each from \([n] = \{1, \ldots, n\}\). We say that the length of the stream is \(m\), and the alphabet size is \(n\).

A **streaming algorithm** is a space-bounded probabilistic algorithm that gets element-by-element access to a data stream. After each element arrives, the algorithm can no longer access the elements that precede it. At the end of its run, the streaming algorithm is required to output (with high probability) a certain function of the data stream that it read. When dealing with streaming algorithms, the main resource we are concerned with is the size of the space that the algorithm uses.

Formally, a **data stream problem** \(\mathcal{P}\) is a collection of functions \(\{f_{m,n} : [n]^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}\}_{m,n \in \mathbb{N}}\). That is, a function for every combination of length \(m\) and alphabet size \(n\) of a data stream. A \(\delta, \epsilon\)-approximation data stream algorithm \(\mathcal{A}_{\epsilon, \delta}\) for \(\mathcal{P}\) is a probabilistic algorithm that gets sequential, one pass access to a data stream \(\sigma = (a_1, \ldots, a_m)\) (where each \(a_i\) is a member of \([n]\)), and satisfies:

\[
\Pr\left[\frac{\mathcal{A}_{\epsilon, \delta}(\sigma)}{f_{m,n}(\sigma)} - 1 \geq \epsilon\right] < \delta.
\]

If \(\epsilon = 0\) we say that the **streaming algorithm** is exact.

Last, given a data stream problem \(\mathcal{P} = \{f_{m,n} : [n]^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}\}_{m,n \in \mathbb{N}}\) and a data stream \(\sigma\), we denote by \(\mathcal{P}(\sigma)\) the output of \(f_{m,n}(\sigma)\), for the \(f_{m,n} \in \mathcal{P}\) that matches the length and alphabet size of \(\sigma\). Similarly, when applying a family of functions to \(\sigma\), we in fact apply a specific function in the family, according to the parameters \(m, n\) of \(\sigma\).

2.2.1. The Distinct Elements problem

The **Distinct Elements** problem is the problem of computing the exact number of distinct elements that appear in a data stream, denoted by \(F_0(\sigma)\). Formally, we define:

**Definition 2.3.** The Distinct Elements problem is the data stream problem of computing the exact number of distinct elements in a data stream \(\sigma = (a_1, \ldots, a_m)\) (where \(a_i \in [n]\) for every \(i\)), i.e., computing (exactly):

\[
F_0(\sigma) = |\{i \in [n] : \exists j \in [m] a_j = i\}|.
\]

Note that if we define \(0^0 = 0\) then this is exactly the 0'th frequency moment of the stream. Hence the notation \(F_0\).

3. Streaming algorithms with probabilistic proof systems

In this section we extend the data stream computational model in order to support two types of probabilistic proof systems: \(\mathcal{M}\backslash\mathcal{A}\) algorithms, wherein the streaming algorithm gets a proof that it probabilistically verifies, and \(\mathcal{A}\backslash\mathcal{M}\) algorithms that extend \(\mathcal{M}\backslash\mathcal{A}\) algorithms by adding shared randomness. We study both of these probabilistic proof systems in two variations: in the first, the proof is also being streamed to the verifier, and in the second, the verifier has free access to the proof. Formal definitions follow.
3.1. MA streaming algorithms

Similarly to the way MA communication complexity protocols are defined, in MA streaming algorithms we have an
omniscient prover (Merlin) who sends a proof to a verifier (Arthur), which is in fact a streaming algorithm that gets both the
input stream and the proof (either by free access or by one-pass, sequential access). The streaming algorithm computes a
function of the input stream. Using the proof we hope to achieve a better space complexity than what the regular streaming
algorithm allows.

We start with MA proofs wherein the proof is being streamed to the verifier. Formally, we define

Definition 3.1. Let ε ≥ 0, δ > 0, and let P = {f_{m,n} : [n]^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, m, n \in \mathbb{N}} be a data stream problem. An MA streaming algorithm for P is a probabilistic data stream algorithm A, which simultaneously gets two streams: an input stream \( \sigma = (a_1, \ldots, a_m) \) (where \( a_i \in [n] \) for every \( i \)) and a proof stream \( \omega \); to both it has sequential, one pass access.\(^3\) Given two functions S, W : \( \mathbb{N}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{N} \), we say that an MA streaming algorithm is \( \text{MA}_{\epsilon, \delta}(S(m, n), W(m, n)) \) if it uses at most \( S(m, n) \) bits of space, and satisfies that for every \( \sigma \) there exists a non-empty set \( \mathcal{W}_\sigma \) of proof streams of length at most \( W(m, n) \), such that:

1. **Completeness:** for every \( \omega \in \mathcal{W}_\sigma \) we have,
   \[
   \Pr\left[ \frac{A(\sigma, \omega)}{f_{m,n}(\sigma)} - 1 \leq \epsilon \right] > 1 - \delta.
   \]

2. **Soundness:** for every \( \omega \notin \mathcal{W}_\sigma \) we have
   \[
   \Pr[\hat{A}(\sigma, \omega) \neq \bot] < \delta,
   \]
   where \( \bot \notin \mathbb{R} \) is a symbol that represents that the algorithm could not verify the correctness of the proof.

The second natural way to define an MA probabilistic proof system for the data stream model, is by allowing the
algorithm free access to the proof. We say that an algorithm is an MA streaming algorithm, if it is an MA streaming
algorithm wherein the access to the proof stream is free (i.e., the algorithm is given the proof stream in advance, and the
proof is stored in free-access auxiliary space that is not counted in the space complexity of the algorithm).

Note that by definition, the model of MA streaming with free access to the proof is stronger than the model of MA streaming
with a proof stream. Thus when in Section 6 we prove lower bounds on the MA streaming complexity, it also
implies lower bounds on the MA streaming complexity.

3.2. AM streaming algorithms

We can further extend the data stream model to support an AM probabilistic proof system. Similarly to the case of
MA proofs, an AM streaming algorithm receives a proof stream and an input stream, to which it has sequential, one pass
access; except that in AM proof systems the prover and verifier also share a common random string. Formally, we define

Definition 3.2. Let ε ≥ 0, δ > 0, and let P = {f_{m,n} : [n]^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, m, n \in \mathbb{N}} be a data stream problem. An AM streaming algorithm for P is a probabilistic data stream algorithm A' that has oracle access to a random string \( r \), and that is also allowed to make private random coin tosses. The algorithm simultaneously gets two streams: an input stream \( \sigma = (a_1, \ldots, a_m) \) (where \( a_i \in [n] \) for every \( i \)) and a proof stream \( \omega \) (which may depend on \( r \), but not on the private randomness of \( A' \)), to both it has sequential, one pass access.\(^4\) Given two functions S, W : \( \mathbb{N}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{N} \), we say that an AM streaming algorithm is \( \text{AM}_{\epsilon, \delta}(S(m, n), W(m, n)) \) if it uses at most \( S(m, n) \) bits of space, and satisfies that for every data stream \( \sigma \), with probability at least \( 1 - \frac{\delta}{2} \) (over \( r \)) there exists a non-empty set \( \mathcal{W}_\sigma(r) \) of proof streams of length at most \( W(m, n) \), such that:

1. **Completeness:** for every \( \omega \in \mathcal{W}_\sigma(r) \)
   \[
   \Pr\left[ \frac{A'(\sigma, \omega)}{f_{m,n}(\sigma)} - 1 \leq \epsilon \right] > 1 - \frac{\delta}{2},
   \]
   where the probability is taken over the private random coin tosses of \( \mathcal{A}' \).

\(^3\) We note that for all of the results in this work, the order in which \( A \) accesses the proof and the input streams does not matter. Moreover, the verifier can decide adaptively which part of the proof to read. Hence we do not restrict the mechanism of accessing the two streams.

\(^4\) Again, we note that for all of the results in this work, the order in which \( A' \) access the proof and the input streams does not matter; hence we do not restrict the mechanism of accessing the two streams.
2. **Soundness:** For $\omega \notin W_\delta (r)$

$$\Pr [A' (\sigma, \omega) = \bot] > 1 - \frac{\delta}{2},$$

where the probability is taken over the private random coin tosses of $A'$, and $\bot \notin \mathbb{R}$ is a symbol that represents that the algorithm could not verify the correctness of the proof.

The *randomness complexity* of the algorithm is the total size of the common random string $r$, and the number of private random coin tosses that the algorithms perform.

Note that we slightly deviate from the standard definition of an $\mathcal{AM}$ algorithm, by allowing $A$ to be a probabilistic algorithm with a private random string.

Just as with the $\mathcal{MA}$ streaming model, we can define $\overline{\mathcal{AM}}$ streaming algorithms by allowing free access to the proof. Again, by definition the model of $\mathcal{AM}$ streaming with free access to the proof is stronger than the model of $\mathcal{AM}$ streaming with a proof stream. Our canonical $\mathcal{AM}$ algorithm works for the weaker model, wherein the proof is being streamed, thus our $\mathcal{AM}$ upper bounds also imply $\overline{\mathcal{AM}}$ upper bounds.

**Note 1** In both of the models ($\mathcal{MA}$ and $\mathcal{AM}$), as traditionally done in Arthur–Merlin probabilistic proof systems, we will sometimes describe the $\mathcal{MA}/\mathcal{AM}$ algorithm as an interaction between an omniscient prover Merlin, who sends an alleged proof of a statement to Arthur, a computationally limited verifier (in our case, a streaming algorithm), who in turn probabilistically verifies the correctness of Merlin’s proof.

**Note 2** In all of our ($\mathcal{MA}$ and $\mathcal{AM}$) algorithms, we assume without loss of generality that Arthur knows both the length $m$ and the alphabet size $n$. This can be done since we can insert $m, n$ at the beginning of the proof. Then, Arthur only needs to verify that the length of the stream was indeed $m$, and that no element was bigger than $n$. Since all of the algorithms we present in this paper are $\Omega (\log m + \log n)$ in both proof size and space complexity, this does not change their overall asymptotical complexity.

**4. The canonical AM streaming algorithm**

In this section we show our canonical $\mathcal{AM}$ algorithm. Recall that given a data stream $\sigma$, the *element indicator* $\chi_i : [n] \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ of the $i$-th element ($i \in [m]$) of the stream $\sigma$, is the function that indicates whether a given element is in position $i \in [m]$ of $\sigma$, i.e., $\chi_i (j) = 1$ if and only if $a_i = j$. Furthermore, let $\chi : [n] \rightarrow [0, 1]^m$ be the *element indicator* of $\sigma$, defined by

$$\chi (j) = (\chi_1 (j), \ldots, \chi_m (j)).$$

In addition, given $n \in \mathbb{N}$ we define a clause over $n$ variables $x_1, \ldots, x_n$ as a function $C : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ of the form $(y_1 \lor y_2 \lor \ldots \lor y_n)$, where for every $i \in [n]$ the literal $y_i$ is either a variable $(x_i)$, a negation of a variable ($\lnot x_i$), or one of the constants $\{0, 1\}$.

We prove the following theorem:

**Theorem 4.1.** Let $k = k(m, n)$, and let $P$ be a data stream problem that is $k$-algebraizable. Then, for every $0 < \delta < 1$ and every $s, w \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $s \cdot w \geq n$, there exists an explicit $\mathcal{AM}_{0, \delta} (S, W)$-streaming algorithm computing (exactly) $P (\sigma)$, where $S = O (sk \cdot \text{polylog}(m, n, \delta^{-1}))$, $W = O (wk \cdot \text{polylog}(m, n, \delta^{-1}))$, and the randomness complexity is $\text{polylog}(m, n, \delta^{-1})$.

**Proof.** Let $k = k(m, n)$, and let $P$ be a data stream problem that is $k$-algebraizable; hence, for every $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$ there exists a set of $k$ clauses $\{C_t\}_{t \in [k]}$ over $m$ variables, and a function $\psi : \{0, 1\}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$, such that for every data stream $\sigma$,

$$P (\sigma) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \psi (C_1 \circ \chi (j), \ldots, C_k \circ \chi (j)).$$

(4.1)

Assume that $\psi$ and $\{C_t\}_{t \in [k]}$ are known to the verifier, and that there exists $B \leq \text{poly}(m, n)$ such that $\psi (x) < B$ for every $x \in \{0, 1\}^k$. Observe that since $\psi$ gets $\{0, 1\}$ values as inputs, we can think of $\psi$ as a multilinear polynomial. Assume without loss of generality that $k \leq m$ (otherwise the theorem follows trivially).
Let $0 < \delta \leq 1$ and let $s, w \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $s \cdot w \geq n$ (assume for simplicity and without loss of generality that $s \cdot w = n$ exactly). We show that there exists an explicit $A\mathcal{M}_{0,\delta}(S, W)$-streaming algorithm for approximating $\mathcal{P}(\sigma)$; where

$$S = O\left(sk \cdot \text{polylog}(m, n, \delta^{-1})\right),$$

$$W = O\left(wk \cdot \text{polylog}(m, n, \delta^{-1})\right),$$

and the randomness complexity is $\text{polylog}(m, n, \delta^{-1})$.

Let $\sigma = (\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_m)$ be a data stream with alphabet $[n]$. The first step is representing the middle term of $(4.1)$ as a summation of a low degree polynomial over some domain. Specifically, we represent the element indicators $\{\chi_i\}_{i \in [m]}$ as bivariate polynomials over a finite field.

Let $p$ be a sufficiently large (to be determined later) prime number of order $p > 2nB > \mathcal{P}(\sigma)$. Let $\mathcal{D}_s(\mathbb{F}_p)$ be any efficiently enumerable subset, of cardinality $s$, of the field $\mathbb{F}_p$ (e.g., the lexicographically first elements in some representation of the field $\mathbb{F}_p$). Likewise, let $\mathcal{D}_w(\mathbb{F}_p)$ be any efficiently enumerable subset, of cardinality $w$, of the field $\mathbb{F}_p$. Note that since $n = w \cdot s$, there exists a one-to-one mapping between the domain $[n]$ and the domain $\mathcal{D}_w(\mathbb{F}_p) \times \mathcal{D}_s(\mathbb{F}_p)$. Fix such (efficiently computable) mapping $\pi : [n] \to \mathcal{D}_w(\mathbb{F}_p) \times \mathcal{D}_s(\mathbb{F}_p)$ (e.g., according to the lexicographic order).

For every $i \in [m]$ we can view $\chi_i : [n] \to \{0, 1\}$ as a bivariate polynomial $\tilde{\chi}_i : \mathbb{F}_p^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_p$ of degree $w - 1$ in the first variable (which we denote by $x$), and degree $s - 1$ in the second variable (which we denote by $y$), such that for every $j \in [n]$ we have $\tilde{\chi}_i \circ \pi(j) = \chi_i(j)$. If we denote $(\alpha_i, \beta_i) := \pi(\alpha_i)$, then the extension $\tilde{\chi}_i : \mathbb{F}_p^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_p$ is given explicitly by the Lagrange interpolation polynomial:

$$\tilde{\chi}_i(x, y) = \prod_{a \neq \alpha_i}^{\mathcal{D}_w(\mathbb{F}_p)} (y - b) \prod_{a \neq \beta_i}^{\mathcal{D}_s(\mathbb{F}_p)} (x - a) \prod_{a \neq \alpha_i}^{\mathcal{D}_w(\mathbb{F}_p)} (\alpha_i - a) \prod_{a \neq \beta_i}^{\mathcal{D}_s(\mathbb{F}_p)} (\beta_i - b) \quad (4.2)$$

Note that for every $\xi \in \mathcal{D}_s(\mathbb{F}_p)$, the degree of the univariate polynomial $\tilde{\chi}_i(\cdot, \xi) : \mathbb{F}_p \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_p$ is at most $w - 1$.

Let $\tilde{\chi} : \mathbb{F}_p^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_p^m$ be the polynomial extension of the element indicator $\sigma$, defined by

$$\tilde{\chi}(x, y) = (\tilde{\chi}_1(x, y), \ldots, \tilde{\chi}_m(x, y)).$$

Plugging-in the polynomial extensions of the element indicators to $(4.1)$ yields that

$$\mathcal{P}(\sigma) := \sum_{x \in \mathcal{D}_w(\mathbb{F}_p)} \sum_{y \in \mathcal{D}_s(\mathbb{F}_p)} \psi(\tilde{C}_1 \circ \tilde{\chi}(x, y), \ldots, \tilde{C}_k \circ \tilde{\chi}(x, y)) \quad (4.3)$$

(where the summation is over $\mathbb{Z}$). Later, we will give analogous expressions of $\mathcal{P}(\sigma) \mod q$ for prime numbers $q = O(\log p)$.

Next, we replace each clause in $(4.3)$ with a low degree polynomial (over a small finite field) that approximates it. Towards this end, we show the following lemma (originated in $[18,19]$):

**Lemma 4.2.** Let $\delta' > 0$, let $q$ be a prime number, and let $\{C_t\}_{t \in [k]}$ be a set of $k$ clauses over $m$ variables. Using $\text{polylog}(m, k, \delta'^{-1})$ random coin flips, we can construct a set of polynomials $\{p_t : \mathbb{F}_q^m \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_q\}_{t \in [k]}$ of degree $O(q \log \frac{1}{\delta'})$ each, such that for every $x \in \{0, 1\}^m$,

$$\Pr_{t \in [k]}[p_t(x) = C_t(x)] \geq 1 - \delta'$$

(where the probability is taken over the random coin flips performed during the construction of $\{p_t\}_{t \in [k]}$).

We remark that in our main application for the Distinct Elements problem, Lemma 4.2 is easier to show as there is only one clause to deal with (recall that the Distinct Elements problem can be written as $\sum_{t=1}^m (\chi_1(t) \lor \chi_2(t) \lor \ldots \lor \chi_m(t))$).

**Proof.** Consider $C := \{C_t\}_{t \in [k]}$, where for every $t \in [k]$, $C_t$ is a clause over $m$ variables. We approximate each $C_t \in C$ by a polynomial $p_t : \mathbb{F}_q^m \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_q$. Recall that every clause in $C$ is an $m$-variate disjunction gate that operates on literals, which are either a variable, or a negation of a variable, or one of the constants $\{0, 1\}$.

In order to construct a polynomial approximation of a clause $C_t \in C$, we first replace each negation gate over a variable $x$ in $C_t$, with the polynomial $1 \cdot x$. Note that this polynomial computes the negation exactly (i.e., no approximation).

Next, we use the method of $[18,19]$ to approximate the $m$-variate disjunction gate of $C_t$, by constructing an approximation polynomial in the following way: let $\text{ECC} : \mathbb{F}_q^m \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_q^{100m}$ be a linear error correcting code with relative distance $1/3$. Fix
\[ L = O \left( \log k + \log \frac{1}{\delta'} \right). \]

such that
\[ \left( \frac{2}{3} \right)^L \leq \frac{\delta'}{k}. \]

and choose independently and uniformly at random \( t_1, \ldots, t_L \in [100m] \). We build a low degree polynomial approximation for the Boolean disjunction function. Consider \( \eta : \mathbb{F}_q^m \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_q \), defined by
\[ \eta(z_1, \ldots, z_m) = 1 - \prod_{i=1}^L (1 - (\text{ECC}(z_1, \ldots, z_m)_i)^q - 1). \]

Since ECC is linear, \( \eta \) is a polynomial of degree \( O(L \cdot q) \) in the variables \( z_1, \ldots, z_m \). Observe that the linearity and the relative distance of ECC, together with Fermat’s little theorem implies that for every \( (x_1, \ldots, x_m) \in \{0, 1\}^m \),
\[ \Pr \left[ \eta(x_1, \ldots, x_m) \neq \bigvee_{i=1}^m x_i \right] \leq \left( \frac{2}{3} \right)^L \leq \frac{\delta'}{k} \]
(4.4)

(where the probability is taken over the random choices of \( t_1, \ldots, t_L \in [100m] \)). Note that we use the same polynomial \( \eta \) for all of the clauses in \( C \). Thus, the total number of coin flips that we use is \( \text{polylog}(m, k, \delta'^{-1}) \). The last step of the construction is defining \( p_t \), as the composition of the disjunction polynomial \( \eta \) and the literals in the clause \( C_t \).

Note that applying the approximation procedure that we described above to all of the clauses in \( C \), results with a set of \( k \) polynomials \( \{p_t : \mathbb{F}_q^m \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_q \}_{t \in [k]} \), where for every \( t \in [k] \) the degree of \( p_t \) is \( O(q \log \frac{1}{\delta'}) \). We conclude the proof of the lemma by noticing that (4.4) together with a union bound imply that for every \( x \in [0, 1] \),
\[ \Pr \left[ \forall t \in [k] \ p_t (x) = C_t(x) \right] \geq 1 - \delta' \]
(where the probability is over the random choices of \( t_1, \ldots, t_L \in [100m] \)).

Observe that by applying Lemma 4.2 with \( \delta' = \delta \) and \( p \) as the prime number, we can represent (4.3) as a summation over a polynomial. However, the degree of this polynomial (which is dominated by \( p \)), is too high for our needs. Instead, we approximate (4.3) by \( O(\log p) \) low degree polynomials.

We start by introducing the necessary notations. Let \( Q = \{q_1, \ldots, q_{\rho(c \log p)}\} \) (where \( \rho : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N} \) is the prime counting function) be the set of all prime numbers that are smaller or equal to \( c \log p \), where \( c \) is a constant such that
\[ \prod_{q \in Q} q > p. \]

For every \( q \in Q \) denote \( \mathbb{H}_q := \mathbb{F}_q^{q-1} \), where \( \lambda_q \) is the minimum integer that satisfies \( q^{\lambda_q} > p \). Since \( q = O(\log p) \), and by the minimality of \( \lambda_q \), we have \( |\mathbb{H}_q| < pq = O(p \log p) \). Furthermore,
\[ \mathcal{P}(\sigma) \pmod{q} = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{D}_w(F_q)} \sum_{y \in \mathcal{D}_s(F_q)} \psi(C_1 \circ \tilde{\chi}(x, y), \ldots, C_k \circ \tilde{\chi}(x, y)) \pmod{q} \]
(4.5)

(where we can think of the summation over \( \mathbb{Z} \) modulo \( q \), as summation over \( \mathbb{F}_q \)). Denote
\[ \mathcal{P}_q(\sigma) := \mathcal{P}(\sigma) \pmod{q}. \]

Analogously to the definitions for \( F_p \); for every prime \( q \in Q \) we define efficiently enumerable subsets \( \mathcal{D}_w(\mathbb{H}_q), \mathcal{D}_w(\mathbb{H}_q) \) of \( \mathbb{H}_q \), with cardinality \( s, w \) (respectively), and a one-to-one mapping \( \pi_q : [n] \rightarrow \mathcal{D}_w(\mathbb{H}_q) \times \mathcal{D}_s(\mathbb{H}_q) \). For every \( i \in [m] \), we can view \( \chi_i : [n] \rightarrow \{0, 1\} \) as a bivariate polynomial \( \tilde{\chi}_i^q : \mathbb{H}_q^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{H}_q \) of degree \( w - 1 \) in the first variable (which we denote by \( x \)), and degree \( s - 1 \) in the second variable (which we denote by \( y \)), such that for every \( j \in [n] \) we have \( \tilde{\chi}_i^q \circ \pi_q(j) = \chi_i(j) \). Let \( \tilde{\chi}^q : \mathbb{H}_q^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{H}_q \) be defined by
\[ \tilde{\chi}^q(x, y) = (\tilde{\chi}_1^q(x, y), \ldots, \tilde{\chi}_m^q(x, y)). \]

Moreover, we can think of the multilinear polynomial \( \psi : \{0, 1\}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \) as a multilinear polynomial \( \tilde{\psi} : \mathbb{F}_p \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_p \) (recall that \( \psi(x) \ll B < p \) for every \( x \in \{0, 1\}^k \)). Let \( \tilde{\psi}_q : \mathbb{F}_q^k \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_q \) be the polynomial function defined by the formal polynomial (i.e., a summation of monomials multiplied by coefficients) \( \tilde{\psi} \), where we take each coefficient of \( \tilde{\psi} \) modulo \( q \). Since \( F_q \) is a subfield of \( \mathbb{H}_q \), we can also view \( \tilde{\psi}_q \) as a multilinear polynomial from \( \mathbb{H}_q^k \) to \( \mathbb{H}_q \).

Thus, we can express (4.5) as follows:
\[ P_q(\sigma) = \sum_{x \in D_w(\mathbb{F}_q)} \sum_{y \in D_\delta(\mathbb{F}_q)} \tilde{\psi}_q(C_1 \circ \tilde{\chi}^q(x, y), \ldots, C_k \circ \tilde{\chi}^q(x, y)) \]  \hspace{1cm} (4.6)

(\text{where the summation is over } \mathbb{H}_q, \text{ which in this case is equal to summation over } \mathbb{F}_q, \text{ hence the modulo } q).^5

For every \( q \in Q \), we apply Lemma 4.2 with \( \delta' = \frac{\delta}{2nc \log p} \), and \( q \) as the prime number. We get a set of polynomials

\[ \{ p_t : \mathbb{F}_q^m \to \mathbb{F}_q \}_{t \in [k]} \]

(for every \( q \in Q \), of degree \( O(q \log \frac{kn \log p}{\delta}) \) each, such that for every \( x \in [0, 1]^m \).

\[ \Pr[\forall t \in [k] \ p_t(x) = C_t(x)] \geq 1 - \frac{\delta}{2nc \log p} \] \hspace{1cm} (4.7)

(\text{where the probability is taken over the random coin flips performed during the construction of } \{ p_t \}_{t \in [k]}).

Since \( \mathbb{F}_q \) is a subfield of \( \mathbb{H}_q \), we can view \( p_t : \mathbb{F}_q^m \to \mathbb{F}_q \) as a polynomial \( \tilde{p}_t : \mathbb{H}_q^m \to \mathbb{H}_q \) (for every \( t \in [k] \)). Then, for every \( x \in \mathbb{F}_q^m \) we have \( \tilde{p}_t(x) = p_t(x) \). Thus, we get the following set of polynomials:

\[ \{ \tilde{p}_t : \mathbb{H}_q^m \to \mathbb{H}_q \}_{t \in [k]} \]

where for every \( t \in [k] \), the degree of \( \tilde{p}_t \) is \( O(q \log \frac{kn \log p}{\delta}) \).

Applying a union bound, and using (4.7) yields:

\[ \Pr \left[ P_q(\sigma) = \sum_{x \in D_w(\mathbb{H}_q)} \sum_{y \in D_\delta(\mathbb{H}_q)} \tilde{\psi}_q(\tilde{p}_1 \circ \tilde{\chi}^q(x, y), \ldots, \tilde{p}_k \circ \tilde{\chi}^q(x, y)) \right] \geq 1 - \frac{\delta}{2c \log p} \] \hspace{1cm} (4.8)

(\text{where the probability is taken over the random coin flips performed during the construction of } \{ p_t \}_{t \in [k]}, \text{ and the summation is over } \mathbb{H}_q).^6

Next, we define the polynomial \( \omega_q : \mathbb{H}_q \to \mathbb{H}_q \) by

\[ \omega_q(x) = \sum_{y \in D_\delta(\mathbb{H}_q)} \tilde{\psi}_q(\tilde{p}_1 \circ \tilde{\chi}^q(x, y), \ldots, \tilde{p}_k \circ \tilde{\chi}^q(x, y)) \] \hspace{1cm} (4.9)

(\text{where the summation is over } \mathbb{H}_q). \text{ Note that for every } t \in [k], \text{ the composition of } \tilde{p}_t \text{ and } \tilde{\chi}^q \text{ is a polynomial of degree}

\[ O \left( wq \log \frac{kn \log p}{\delta} \right) \]

in \( x \) (the first variable). Hence, by the multilinearity of \( \tilde{\psi} \),

\[ \deg(\omega_q) = O \left( wkq \log \frac{kn \log p}{\delta} \right) \] \hspace{1cm} (4.10)

By (4.8) we have,

\[ \Pr \left[ P_q(\sigma) = \sum_{x \in D_w(\mathbb{H}_q)} \omega_q(x) \right] \geq 1 - \frac{\delta}{2c \log p} \] \hspace{1cm} (4.11)

(\text{where the probability is taken over the random coin flips performed during the construction of } \{ p_t \}_{t \in [k]}, \text{ and the summation is over } \mathbb{H}_q).

Once we established the above, we can finally describe Merlin’s proof stream. The proof stream \( \phi \) consists of all the proof polynomials \( \{ \omega_q \}_{q \in Q} \). We send each polynomial by its list of coefficients, thus we need at most

\[ O \left( |Q| \cdot wk \log(p) \log \left( \frac{kn \log p}{\delta} \right) \cdot \log(p \log p) \right) \]

bits in order to write down the proof stream. Since \( |Q| < c \log p \), we conclude:

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^5 Since for every \( x \in D_w(\mathbb{F}_q) \) and \( y \in D_\delta(\mathbb{F}_q) \) we have \((C_1 \circ \tilde{\chi}^q(x, y), \ldots, C_k \circ \tilde{\chi}^q(x, y)) \in [0, 1]^k\), then each summand is in \( \mathbb{F}_q \). Hence we can think of the summation as summation over \( \mathbb{F}_q \).

^6 Again, since for every \( x \in D_w(\mathbb{F}_q) \) and \( y \in D_\delta(\mathbb{F}_q) \) we have \((\tilde{p}_1 \circ \tilde{\chi}^q(x, y), \ldots, \tilde{p}_k \circ \tilde{\chi}^q(x, y)) \in [0, 1]^k\), then each summand is in \( \mathbb{F}_q \). Hence, the summation is modulo \( q \).
Claim 4.3. The total size of Merlin’s proof stream $\varphi$ is

$$O\left( wk \cdot \text{polylog}(m, n, \delta^{-1}) \right).$$

Observe that it is possible to reconstruct $\mathcal{P}(\sigma)$ from the polynomials given in Merlin’s proof. We formalize this claim as follows:

Claim 4.4. Given the set of values $\{\sum_{x \in \mathcal{D}_w(h_q)} \omega_q(x) \}_{q \in Q}$, it is possible to compute $\mathcal{P}(\sigma)$ with probability $1 - \delta/2$ (over the random coin tosses that were performed during the construction of $[\omega_q]_{q \in Q}$).

Proof. Note that for every $q \in Q$ we have

$$\Pr \left[ \sum_{x \in \mathcal{D}_w(h_q)} \omega_q(x) = \mathcal{P}(\sigma) \pmod q \right] \geq 1 - \frac{\delta}{2c \log p}.$$ 

Hence,

$$\Pr \left[ \forall q \in Q \sum_{x \in \mathcal{D}_w(h_q)} \omega_q(x) = \mathcal{P}(\sigma) \pmod q \right] \geq 1 - \frac{\delta}{2}.$$ 

By the Chinese remainder theorem, given $[\mathcal{P}(\sigma) \pmod q]_{q \in Q}$ we can calculate

$$\mathcal{P}(\sigma) \pmod {\prod_{q \in Q} q}.$$ 

Since we’ve chosen $Q$ such that $\prod_{q \in Q} q > p$, the claim follows. □

Another important property of the polynomials $[\omega_q]_{q \in Q}$ in the proof stream, is that given sequential, one-pass access to the input stream, it is possible to efficiently evaluate each polynomial at a specific point. Formally, we show:

Lemma 4.5. For every $q \in Q$, there exists a streaming algorithm $A_q$ with access to the common random string $r$, such that given a point in the finite field $\xi \in \mathbb{H}_q$, and sequential, one-pass access to the input stream $\sigma$, the streaming algorithm $A_q$ can evaluate $\omega_q(\xi)$ using $O(\text{sk} \cdot \text{polylog}(m, n, \delta^{-1}))$ bits of space.

Proof. First, recall that the descriptions of $\{C_t\}_{t \in [k]}$ and $\psi$ are known to the verifier. Note that in order to compute $\omega_q(\xi)$ it is sufficient to compute and store the values of

$$\{\tilde{p}_t(\tilde{x}_1^q(\xi, y), \ldots, \tilde{x}_m^q(\xi, y))\}_{t \in [k], y \in \mathcal{D}_x(h_q)},$$

where $\{\tilde{p}_t\}_{t \in [k]}$ are the approximation polynomials of the clauses $\{C_t\}_{t \in [k]}$ over $\mathbb{H}_q$. Given these values we can compute

$$\{\tilde{\psi}_q(\tilde{p}_1(\tilde{x}_1^q(\xi, y), \ldots, \tilde{x}_m^q(\xi, y)), \ldots, \tilde{p}_k(\tilde{x}_1^q(\xi, y), \ldots, \tilde{x}_m^q(\xi, y)))\}_{y \in \mathcal{D}_x(h_q)}$$

monomial-by-monomial according to the description of $\psi$, and then compute $\omega_q(\xi)$ by summing term-by-term according to Eq. (4.9).

Before we describe the algorithm, recall that during the construction of $\{p_t\}_{t \in [k]}$ we defined an error correcting code $\text{ECC} : \mathbb{F}_q^{100m} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_q^m$ with relative distance $1/3$. Note that since $\text{ECC}$ is a linear function, we can extend it (via the linear extension) to $\mathbb{H}_q$. We fixed

$$L = O\left( \log k + \log \frac{1}{\delta} \right) = O\left( \log k + \log \frac{n \log p}{\delta} \right),$$

and chose independently and uniformly $t_1, \ldots, t_L \in [100m]$, using the common random string $r$. Finally we approximated each of the $\vee$ gates by the following polynomial,

$$\eta(z_1, \ldots, z_m) = 1 - \prod_{l=1}^{L} \left( 1 - \left( \text{ECC}(z_1, \ldots, z_m)_{t_l} \right)^{q^{-1}} \right). \quad (4.12)$$

Note that in order to compute

$$\tilde{p}_r(\tilde{x}_1^q(\xi, y), \ldots, \tilde{x}_m^q(\xi, y))$$

we
for all \( t \in [k] \) and \( y \in \mathcal{D}_t(\mathbb{H}_q) \), it is sufficient to compute

\[
\text{ECC}(\ell_1^t(\xi, y), \ldots, \ell_m^t(\xi, y))_{t_i}
\]

(where for every \( i \in [m] \) and \( t \in [k] \) the value \( \ell_i^t(\xi, y) \) is either \( \chi^t_i(\xi, y) \), or \( 1 - \chi^t_i(\xi, y) \), or one of the constants \( \{0, 1\} \); depending on the clause \( C_t \), for all \( t \in \{1, \ldots, t_i\} \), \( t \in [k] \), and \( y \in \mathcal{D}_t(\mathbb{H}_q) \). Then we can compute \( \tilde{p}_t(\chi^t_1(\xi, y), \ldots, \chi^t_m(\xi, y)) \) according to (4.12).

Since ECC is a linear error correcting code, we can compute each

\[
\text{ECC}(\ell_1^t(\xi, y), \ldots, \ell_m^t(\xi, y))_{t_i}
\]

incrementally. That is, we read the data stream \( \sigma \) element-by-element. At each step, when the \( i \)’th element arrives \( (i \in [m]) \), for every \( y \in \mathcal{D}_t(\mathbb{H}_q) \) we compute \( \chi^t_i(\xi, y) \) according to (4.2), and then \( \ell_i^t(\xi, y) \) according to the description of \( C_t \). By the linearity of ECC we can compute \( \text{ECC}(\ell_1^t(\xi, y), \ldots, \ell_m^t(\xi, y))_{t_i} \) by incrementally adding each

\[
\text{ECC}(0, \ldots, 0, \ell_i^t(\xi, y), 0, \ldots, 0)_{t_i}
\]

at the \( i \)’th step.

Observe that during the run over \( \sigma \), the entire computation is performed element-by-element, and that we used at most \( O(|\mathcal{D}_t(\mathbb{H}_q)| \cdot k \cdot L \cdot \log p) \) bits of space. Thus the overall space complexity is

\[
O(sk \cdot \text{polylog}(m, n, \delta^{-1})).
\]

The last lemma helps us to show that with high probability Merlin cannot cheat Arthur by using maliciously chosen proof polynomials. We show that by evaluating the actual proof polynomials at a randomly chosen point, Arthur can detect a false proof with high probability. Formally:

**Lemma 4.6.** For every \( q \in Q \), given a polynomial \( \hat{o}_q : \mathbb{H}_q \rightarrow \mathbb{H}_q \) of degree at most \( O(wkq \log^{\frac{k}{n}} \log \frac{n}{\delta}) \), if \( \hat{o}_q \neq o_q \) then:

\[
\Pr[\hat{o}_q(\xi) = o_q(\xi)] \leq \frac{\delta}{2^q}
\]

where the probability is taken over uniformly choosing at random an element \( \xi \in \mathbb{H}_q \).

**Proof.** Let \( \xi \) be an element uniformly chosen from \( \mathbb{H}_q \). By the Schwartz–Zippel Lemma, we have

\[
\Pr[\hat{o}_q(\xi) = o_q(\xi)] \leq \frac{\max\{\deg(o_q), \deg(\hat{o}_q)\}}{|\mathbb{H}_q|} \leq \frac{\delta}{2^q}
\]

where in order to get the last inequality we fix \( p \) to be a sufficiently large prime number, of order

\[
\frac{1}{\delta} \cdot \text{poly}(m, n).
\]

Finally, building upon the aforementioned lemmas, we can present the \( A,M \) algorithm for the approximation of \( \mathcal{P}(\sigma) \) (see Fig. 1).

Last, we show that the aforementioned algorithm is an \( A,M_{0,\delta}(S, W) \)-streaming algorithm for \( \mathcal{P}(\sigma) \), where

- \( S = O(sk \cdot \text{polylog}(m, n, \delta^{-1})) \),
- \( W = O(wk \cdot \text{polylog}(m, n, \delta^{-1})) \).

Indeed, given \( \delta > 0 \), a common random string \( r \), and a data stream problem \( \mathcal{P} \), our algorithm is a probabilistic data stream algorithm (denote it by \( A \), which has oracle access to \( r \). The algorithm simultaneously gets two streams: an input stream \( \sigma \) and a proof stream \( \varphi \), to both it has sequential, one pass access. According to Claim 4.3:

\[
W = O(wk \cdot \text{polylog}(m, n, \delta^{-1})).
\]

As for the space complexity of \( A \), note that \( A \) stores \( O(\log p) \) random values \( \{\xi_q\}_{q \in Q} \) of size \( O(\log p) \) each, which takes \( \text{polylog}(m, n, \delta^{-1}) \) bits of space. In addition it uses \( \text{polylog}(m, n, \delta^{-1}) \) bits of space for computing

---

*More precisely, the degree is exactly as in (4.10).*
The prover (Merlin):

1. Choose \( t_1, \ldots, t_{11} \in [100m] \) using the common random string \( r \).
2. Construct \( \psi \) that consists of all the proof polynomials \( \{\omega_q\}_{q \in Q} \).
3. Stream \( \psi = \{\omega_q\}_{q \in Q} \) to the verifier (i.e., give the verifier sequential access to \( \psi \)).

The verifier (Arthur):

1. For every \( q \in Q \), select uniformly at random \( \xi_q \in \mathbb{B}_q \) (where the selection uses Arthur’s private random coin tosses).
2. Read Merlin’s proof stream \( \psi = \{\hat{\omega}_q\}_{q \in Q} \) and (incrementally) compute:
   a. \( \{\hat{\omega}_q(\xi_q)\}_{q \in Q} \).
   b. \( \sum_{x \in D_q} \hat{\omega}_q(x) \).
3. Run \( \mathcal{A}_q \) in parallel, in order to compute \( \{\omega_q(\xi_q)\}_{q \in Q} \).
4. If there exists \( q \in Q \) for which \( \omega_q(\xi_q) \neq \hat{\omega}_q(\xi_q) \), return \( \perp \).
5. Otherwise, use \( \{\sum_{x \in D_q} \hat{\omega}_q(x)\}_{q \in Q} \) to extract and return \( \mathcal{P}(\sigma) \).

Observe that these values can be computed incrementally using sequential, one-pass access to \( \psi \), simply by evaluating the polynomials monomial-by-monomial. According to Lemma 4.5, each of the \( O(\log p) \) algorithms \( \{\mathcal{A}_q\}_{q \in Q} \) we run in parallel takes

\[
O(\text{sk} \cdot \text{polylog}(m, n, \delta^{-1}))
\]

bits of space. Thus the total space complexity is \( S = O(\text{sk} \cdot \text{polylog}(m, n, \delta^{-1})) \).

Recall that the only time that the algorithm used the common random string \( r \), is while building the approximation polynomial for the disjunction in each \( \{\omega_q\}_{q \in Q} \). Since we constructed \( |Q| \) such polynomials, and by Lemma 4.2, the total number of random bits we read from \( r \) is \( \text{polylog}(m, n, \delta^{-1}) \). Furthermore, \( \mathcal{A} \) also uses only \( \text{polylog}(m, n, \delta^{-1}) \) private random coin tosses, as the only randomness it needs is for the selection of random \( \xi_q \in \mathbb{B}_q \) for every \( q \in Q \). Thus, the total randomness complexity of the algorithm is \( \text{polylog}(m, n, \delta^{-1}) \).

We finish the proof by showing the correctness of the algorithm:

1. Completeness: Assuming Merlin is honest, i.e., \( \omega_q = \hat{\omega}_q \) for every \( q \in Q \); then by Claim 4.4 we can calculate \( \mathcal{P}(\sigma) \) with probability \( 1 - \delta/2 \) over the common random string \( r \), and by (4.3) we have

\[
\mathcal{P}(\sigma) = \mathcal{P}(\sigma)
\]

Hence:

\[
\Pr[A(\sigma, \psi) = \mathcal{P}(\sigma) - 1] \geq 1 - \frac{\delta}{2}
\]

2. Soundness: If Merlin is dishonest, i.e., there exists \( q \in Q \) for which \( \omega_q \neq \hat{\omega}_q \), then by Lemma 4.6,

\[
\Pr[A(\sigma, \psi) \neq \perp] \leq \frac{\delta}{2},
\]

where the probability is taken over the private random coin tosses that \( \mathcal{A} \) performs. \( \square \)

5. The MA communication complexity of Gap Hamming Distance

In this section we show that every \( \mathcal{MA} \) communication complexity protocol for the Gap Hamming Distance problem (GHD) that communicates \( T \) bits and uses a proof of length \( W \), must satisfy \( T \cdot W = \Omega(n) \), and therefore \( T + W = \Omega(\sqrt{n}) \).

In Section 6, we will use the lower bound on the \( \mathcal{MA} \) communication complexity of GHD to show a lower bound on the \( \mathcal{MA} \) streaming complexity of the Distinct Elements problem. We note that the lower bound on the \( \mathcal{MA} \) communication complexity of GHD also implies a lower bound on the \( \mathcal{MA} \) streaming complexity of computing the empirical entropy of a data stream (see [24] for a formal definition of the Empirical Entropy problem).

For completeness, we show an \( \mathcal{MA} \) communication complexity protocol for GHD that communicates \( O(T \log n) \) bits and uses a proof of length \( O(W \log n) \), for every \( T \cdot W \geq n \). Thus we have a tight bound (up to logarithmic factors) of \( T \cdot W = \Omega(n) \).
5.1. Lower bound

In order to prove our lower bound on the $\mathcal{MA}$ communication complexity of Gap Hamming Distance, we first show a lower bound on the $\mathcal{MA}$ communication complexity of Gap Orthogonality, a problem wherein each party gets a vector in $\{-1, 1\}^n$ and needs to tell whether the vectors are nearly orthogonal, or far from being orthogonal. Then we apply the reduction from the Gap Orthogonality problem to the Gap Hamming Distance problem (following [15]), and obtain our lower bound.

Formally, the Gap Orthogonality problem is defined as follows:

**Definition 5.1.** Let $n$ be an integer, and let $\xi_0, \xi_1 > 0$. The Gap Orthogonality problem is the communication complexity problem of computing the partial Boolean function $\text{ORT}_{n, \xi_0, \xi_1} : \{-1, 1\}^n \times \{-1, 1\}^n \to \{0, 1\}$ given by

$$\text{ORT}_{n, \xi_0, \xi_1}(x, y) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } |\langle x, y \rangle| < \xi_1 \\ 0 & \text{if } |\langle x, y \rangle| > \xi_0. \end{cases}$$

Denote $\text{ORT} = \text{ORT}_{n, \frac{\sqrt{n}}{2}, \frac{\sqrt{n}}{2}}$.

We restate the following theorem from [15], which given two finite sets $X, Y$, guarantees that if the inner product of a random vector from $X$ and a random vector from $Y$ is highly concentrated around 0, then $X \times Y$ must be a small rectangle.

**Theorem 5.2.** Let $\delta > 0$ be a sufficiently small constant, and let $X, Y \subseteq [-1, 1]^n$ be two sets, such that

$$\Pr\left[|\langle x, y \rangle| > \frac{\sqrt{n}}{4}\right] < \delta$$

(where the probability is taken over selecting independently and uniformly at random $x \in X$ and $y \in Y$), then

$$4^{-n} |X||Y| = e^{-\Omega(n)}.$$

Denote the uniform distribution on $\{-1, 1\}^n \times \{-1, 1\}^n$ by $\mu$. We get the next immediate corollary of Theorem 5.2:

**Corollary 5.3.** There exists a (sufficiently small) constant $\delta > 0$ such that for every rectangle $R \subseteq [-1, 1]^n \times [-1, 1]^n$ with $\mu(R) > 2^{-8n}$ we have

$$\mu(R \cap \text{ORT}^{-1}(0)) \geq \delta \mu(R).$$

**Proof.** Assume by contradiction that there exists a rectangle $R := X \times Y \subseteq [-1, 1]^n \times [-1, 1]^n$ with $\mu(R) > 2^{-8n}$ that satisfies

$$\mu(R \cap \text{ORT}^{-1}(0)) < \delta \mu(R). \quad (5.1)$$

Observe that

$$\Pr\left[|\langle x, y \rangle| > \frac{\sqrt{n}}{4}\right] = \frac{\mu(R \cap \text{ORT}^{-1}(0))}{\mu(R)}$$

(where the probability is taken over selecting independently and uniformly at random $x \in X$ and $y \in Y$). Hence we can write (5.1) as

$$\Pr\left[|\langle x, y \rangle| > \frac{\sqrt{n}}{4}\right] < \delta. \quad (5.2)$$

Note that

$$\mu(R) = \frac{|X|}{2^n} \cdot \frac{|Y|}{2^n} = 4^{-n} |X||Y|.$$ 

If we choose $\delta$ to be sufficiently small, then (5.2) guarantees the precondition of Theorem 5.2, and we get that $\mu(R) = e^{-\Omega(n)}$, in contradiction to the assumption that $\mu(R) > 2^{-8n}$. \[\Box\]

In particular, Corollary 5.3 implies that every rectangle $R \subseteq [-1, 1]^n \times [-1, 1]^n$ satisfies

$$\mu(R \cap \text{ORT}^{-1}(0)) \geq \delta \mu(R) - 2^{-8n}. \quad (5.3)$$

Next, using well known techniques (cf. [16]), we show a lower bound on the $\mathcal{MA}$ communication complexity of $\text{ORT}$, relying on Corollary 5.3. (We remark that similar techniques appeared in [11].) Formally, we prove
Theorem 5.4. Let $\epsilon$ be a positive constant such that $\epsilon < \frac{1}{2}$. For every $\mathcal{MA}_e(T, W)$ communication complexity protocol for ORT we have $T \cdot W = \Omega(n)$, hence $T + W = \Omega(\sqrt{n})$.

Proof. Fix $n$. Denote $\mathcal{R} = \{-1, 1\}^n \times \{-1, 1\}^n$. Assume that there exists an $\mathcal{MA}_e(T, W)$ communication complexity protocol for ORT; denote it by $\mathcal{P}$. By a simple amplification argument we get that there exists an $\mathcal{MA}_e(k, W)$ communication complexity protocol for ORT, where $k = O(T \cdot W)$ and $\epsilon' = 2^{-cW}$ (for an arbitrary large constant $C$); denote it by $\mathcal{P}'$.

Assume by contradiction that $k = o(n)$. We will show that our assumption that $k$ is asymptotically smaller than $n$ implies that the error probability of $\mathcal{P}'$ is greater than $2^{-cW}$, in contradiction.

Denote Merlin’s proof, a binary string of size at most $W$ bits, by $w$. Denote the random string that $\mathcal{P}'$ uses by $s$. Denote by $R_{s,w,h} \subseteq \mathcal{R}$ the set of all input pairs $(x, y) \in \mathcal{R}$ such that the transcript of $(x, y, s, w)$ is $h$.\footnote{For any input pair $(x, y) \in \mathcal{R}$ and any assignment $s$ to the random string of $\mathcal{P}'$ and any assignment $w$ to the proof supplied to the players, the string of communication bits exchanged by the two players on the inputs $(x, y)$, using the random string $s$ and the proof $w$, is called the transcript of $(x, y, s, w)$.}

Lemma 5.5. For every $s, w, h$ we have $R_{s,w,h} = X_{s,w,h} \times Y_{s,w,h}$ (where $X_{s,w,h} \subseteq \{-1, 1\}^n$ and $Y_{s,w,h} \subseteq \{-1, 1\}^n$), and for every $s, w$ the family $\{R_{s,w,h}\}_{h \in \{0,1\}^k}$ is a partition of $\mathcal{R}$.

Denote the answer that $\mathcal{P}'$ gives on $(x, y, s, w)$ by $\mathcal{P}'((x, y, s, w))$. Since the answer of $\mathcal{P}'$ on inputs in $R_{s,w,h}$ does not depend on $x$ and $y$, then for every input pair in $R_{s,w,h}$ the answer $\mathcal{P}'((x, y, s, w))$ is the same; denote it by $\mathcal{P}'(s, w, h)$. Next, define $H_0 \subseteq \mathcal{R}$ to be the set of all input pairs $(x, y) \in \mathcal{R}$ such that

$$|\langle x, y \rangle| > \frac{\sqrt{n}}{4},$$

and define $H_1 \subseteq \mathcal{R}$ to be the set of all input pairs $(x, y) \in \mathcal{R}$ such that

$$|\langle x, y \rangle| < \frac{\sqrt{n}}{8}.$$

Note that if we choose $x = (x_1, \ldots, x_n) \in \{-1, 1\}^n$ and $y = (y_1, \ldots, y_n) \in \{-1, 1\}^n$ independently and uniformly at random, then for every $i \in [n]$ the product $x_i \cdot y_i$ is also uniformly distributed. Thus, if we choose $z = (z_1, \ldots, z_n) \in \{-1, 1\}^n$ uniformly at random, then

$$\mu(H_1) = \frac{\Pr_{(x,y)\in \mathcal{R}}[|\langle x, y \rangle| < \frac{\sqrt{n}}{8}]}{\Pr_{z\in \{-1,1\}^n}[\sum_{i=1}^{n} z_i < \frac{\sqrt{n}}{8}]} \geq c,$$

(5.4)

for some universal constant $c$.

Next, for every rectangle $R \subseteq \mathcal{R}$, denote by $\alpha(R)$ the measure of $R$ in $\mathcal{R}$. Denote by $\beta_0(R)$ the measure of $R \cap H_0$ in $H_0$, and denote by $\beta_1(R)$ the measure of $R \cap H_1$ in $H_1$. Under these notations, we see that (5.3) implies that there exists a universal constant $\delta > 0$ such that for any rectangle $R \subseteq \mathcal{R}$ we have

$$\beta_0(R) \geq \delta \cdot \alpha(R) - 2^{-\delta n}.$$  

According to Eq. (5.4), we know that $H_1$ is a set of probability at least $c$ in $\mathcal{R}$. Hence for every rectangle $R \subseteq \mathcal{R}$ we have $\beta_1(R) \leq \frac{c}{2} \cdot \alpha(R)$. Therefore we have the following corollary:

Corollary 5.6. There exist universal constants $\delta, \delta' > 0$ such that every rectangle $R \subseteq \mathcal{R}$ satisfies

$$\beta_0(R) \geq \delta' \cdot \beta_1(R) - 2^{-\delta n}.$$  

For any $s, w$, denote by $A_0(s, w) \subseteq \mathcal{R}$ the union of all sets $R_{s,w,h}$ such that $\mathcal{P}'(s, w, h) = 0$, and denote by $A_1(s, w) \subseteq \mathcal{R}$ the union of all sets $R_{s,w,h}$ such that $\mathcal{P}'(s, w, h) = 1$. Observe that $A_0(s, w)$ and $A_1(s, w)$ are disjoint, and that $A_0(s, w) \cup A_1(s, w) = \mathcal{R}$.

Since each of $A_0(s, w)$ and $A_1(s, w)$ is a union of at most $2^k$ of the sets $X_{s,w,h} \times Y_{s,w,h}$, we see that Corollary 5.6 implies

$$\beta_0(A_1(s, w)) \geq \delta' \cdot \beta_1(A_1(s, w)) - 2^k \cdot 2^{-\delta n} \geq \delta' \cdot \beta_1(A_1(s, w)) - o(2^{-W}).$$  

(5.5)

Recall that $\beta_1(A_1(s, w))$ is the fraction of inputs $(x, y)$ in $H_1$ such that $\mathcal{P}'((x, y, s, w), 1)$, and that $H_1$ is the set of ones of the problem (i.e., the pre-image of the 1 instances). Thus for every input $(x, y)$ in $H_1$ there exists $w$ such that $(x, y) \in A_1(s, w)$ with probability of at least $(1 - \epsilon)$ over $s$. Since the number of possible proofs $w$ is at most $2^W$, by an averaging argument we get that there exists a proof that corresponds to at least $2^{-W}$ fraction of the inputs in $H_1$. Formally
speaking, there exists at least one binary string $w$ of size at most $W$, and a set $H'_1 \subseteq H_1$ that satisfies $\beta_1(H'_1) \geq 2^{-W}$, such that for every $(x, y) \in H'_1$, 

\[
\Pr_{s \in \{0,1\}^n}[ (x, y) \in A_1(s, w) ] \geq 1 - \epsilon'.
\]

Therefore, there exists a constant $c_0$, such that with constant probability (over the random string $s$),

\[
\beta_1(A_1(s, w)) > 2^{-(W+c_0)}.
\]

Hence, by (5.5), with constant probability (over the random string $s$),

\[
\beta_0(A_1(s, w)) \geq \delta' \cdot 2^{-W-c_0} - \sigma(2^{-W}) \geq c_1 \delta' \cdot 2^{-W}
\]

for some constant $c_1$. However, recall that $\beta_0(A_1(s, w))$ is the fraction of inputs $(x, y)$ in $H_0$ for which $P'(x, y, s, w)$ returns 1. Thus there exists a constant $c_2$ such that,

\[
\Pr[P'(x, y, s, w) = 1] \geq c_2 \delta' \cdot 2^{-W}
\]

(where the probability is taken over both the random string $s$, and the uniform selection of $(x, y) \in H_0$). But $H_0$ is the set of zeros of the problem, so for every $(x, y) \in H_0$ the protocol answers 1 with probability at most $\epsilon' \leq 2^{-cW}$ (for an arbitrarily large constant $C$), which is a contradiction. \hfill \Box

We established that for every $\mathcal{MA}_e(T, W)$ communication complexity protocol for ORT we have $T \cdot W = \Omega(n)$. According to the duplication argument in [15], Theorem 5.4 implies the following corollary for slightly different parameters of the orthogonality problem.

**Corollary 5.7.** Let $\epsilon$ be a positive constant such that $\epsilon < \frac{1}{4}$. For every $\mathcal{MA}_e(T, W)$ communication complexity protocol for ORT\textsubscript{\textit{n},2,\sqrt{n},\sqrt{n}}(x, y) we have $T \cdot W = \Omega(n)$, hence $T + W = \Omega(\sqrt{n})$.

Next, we state the following reduction from [15] (rephrased):

**Lemma 5.8.** Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$ be a perfect square. For every input $x \in \{-1, 1\}^n$ denote by $x^m$ $(m \in \mathbb{N})$ the string of length $n \cdot m$ that is composed of $x$ concatenated to itself $m - 1$ times. Then, for every $(x, y) \in \text{ORT}_{n,2,\sqrt{n},\sqrt{n}}^{-1}(0) \cup \text{ORT}_{n,2,\sqrt{n},\sqrt{n}}^{-1}(1)$ we have

\[
\text{ORT}_{n,2,\sqrt{n},\sqrt{n}}(x, y) = -\text{GHD}_{10n+15,\sqrt{n},\sqrt{n}}(x^{10}(-1)^{15\sqrt{n}}, y^{10}(+1)^{15\sqrt{n}}) \\
\wedge \text{GHD}_{10n+15,\sqrt{n},\sqrt{n}}(x^{10}(+1)^{15\sqrt{n}}, y^{10}(+1)^{15\sqrt{n}}).
\]

Note that due to the symmetry of the *gap Hamming distance* problem, a protocol for $\text{GHD}_{10n+15,\sqrt{n},\sqrt{n}}$ implies a protocol for $-\text{GHD}_{10n+15,\sqrt{n},\sqrt{n}}$. Hence, if we assume by contradiction that there exists an $\mathcal{MA}_e(T, W)$ communication complexity protocol for $\text{GHD}_{10n+15,\sqrt{n},\sqrt{n}}$, where $0 \leq \epsilon < \frac{1}{4}$ and $T \cdot W = o(n)$ (which in turn implies that there exists an $\mathcal{MA}_e(T, W)$ communication complexity protocol for $-\text{GHD}_{10n+15,\sqrt{n},\sqrt{n}}$, where $0 \leq \epsilon < \frac{1}{4}$ and $T \cdot W = o(n)$), then by applying Lemma 5.8 we get an $\mathcal{MA}_e(T, W)$ communication complexity protocol for $\text{ORT}_{n,2,\sqrt{n},\sqrt{n}}(x, y)$ such that $T \cdot W = o(n)$, in contradiction to Corollary 5.7. Thus we get the following corollary.

**Corollary 5.9.** Let $\epsilon$ be a positive constant, such that $\epsilon < \frac{1}{4}$. For every $\mathcal{MA}_e(T, W)$ communication complexity protocol for $\text{GHD}_{10n+15,\sqrt{n},\sqrt{n}}$ we have $T \cdot W = \Omega(n)$, hence $T + W = \Omega(\sqrt{n})$.

Finally, we note that in previous work [13] provided a toolkit of simple reductions that can be used to generalize a lower bound on the communication complexity of *gap Hamming distance* for every reasonable parameter settings. Specifically, a lower bound for $\text{GHD}_{10n+15,\sqrt{n},\sqrt{n}}$ implies a lower bound for $\text{GHD}_{n,\sqrt{n},\sqrt{n}}$. Moreover, we note that their reduction is directly robust for $\mathcal{MA}$ communication complexity; thus we conclude:

**Theorem 5.10.** Let $\epsilon$ be a positive constant, such that $\epsilon < \frac{1}{4}$. For every $\mathcal{MA}_e(T, W)$ communication complexity protocol for $\text{GHD}$ we have $T \cdot W = \Omega(n)$, hence $T + W = \Omega(\sqrt{n})$. 


1. Merlin sends Alice a message that consists of the coefficients of a polynomial \( s' : \mathbb{F}_q \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_q \) of degree at most \( 2(W - 1) \), for which Merlin claims that \( s' = s \).

2. Bob uniformly picks \( r \in \mathbb{F}_q \), and sends Alice a message that consists of \( r \) and \( \tilde{f}_b(r, 1), \ldots, \tilde{f}_b(r, T) \).

3. Alice computes \( s(r) = \sum_{y \in [T]} \tilde{f}_a(r, y) \tilde{f}_b(r, y) \) and \( s'(r) \). If \( s(r) = s'(r) \), Alice computes \( \text{HD}(a, b) = \frac{n - \sum x \in [W] s(x)}{2} \) and returns the result. Otherwise, Alice rejects the proof and returns \( \perp \).

**Fig. 2.** MA communication complexity protocol for GHD.

### 5.2. Upper bound

In their seminal paper, Aaronson and Widgerson [17] showed an MA communication complexity protocol for the disjointness problem, wherein the communication complexity is \( O(\sqrt{n} \log n) \), and the size of the proof is also \( O(\sqrt{n} \log n) \).

We modify their protocol in order to show an MA communication complexity protocol for GHD, wherein the communication complexity is \( O(T \log n) \), and the size of the proof is \( O(W \log n) \), for every \( T \cdot W \geq n \).

**Theorem 5.11.** Let \( T, W \in \mathbb{N} \) be such that \( T \cdot W \geq n \). Then, there exists an explicit \( MA_{1/3}(T \log n, W \log n) \) communication complexity protocol for GHD.

**Proof.** Let \( T, W \in \mathbb{N} \) such that \( T \cdot W \geq n \). Assume for simplicity and without loss of generality that \( T \cdot W = n \) exactly. Let \( a := (a_1, \ldots, a_n) \in \{-1, 1\}^n \) be the input of Alice, and \( b := (b_1, \ldots, b_n) \in \{-1, 1\}^n \) be the input of Bob. Let each player define a bivariate function that represents its input; more precisely, let Alice define \( \tilde{f}_a : W \times [T] \rightarrow \{-1, 1\} \) by

\[
\tilde{f}_a(x, y) = a_{(x-1)T + y}.
\]

and similarly, let Bob define \( \tilde{f}_b : W \times [T] \rightarrow \{-1, 1\} \) by

\[
\tilde{f}_b(x, y) = b_{(x-1)T + y}.
\]

Fix a prime \( q \in [6n, 12n] \). Note that \( f_a \) and \( f_b \) have unique extensions \( \tilde{f}_a : \mathbb{F}_q^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_q \) and \( \tilde{f}_b : \mathbb{F}_q^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_q \) (respectively) as polynomials of degree \( (W - 1) \) in the first variable, and degree \( (T - 1) \) in the second variable. Next, define the polynomial \( s : \mathbb{F}_q \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_q \) by

\[
s(x) = \sum_{y \in [T]} \tilde{f}_a(x, y) \tilde{f}_b(x, y).
\]

Note that the degree of \( s \) is at most \( 2(W - 1) \). Denote the Hamming distance of \( a \) and \( b \) by \( \text{HD}(a, b) \). Then,

\[
\text{HD}(a, b) = \frac{n - \sum x \in [W] s(x)}{2}.
\]  

Thus, it is sufficient for one of the players to know \( s \) in order to compute the Hamming distance. We define the following MA communication complexity protocol (see Fig. 2).

Note that Merlin sends the coefficients of a polynomial of degree at most \( 2(W - 1) \) over a finite field of cardinality \( O(n) \). Hence the size of the proof is \( O(W \log n) \). In addition, note that the entire communication between Alice and Bob consists of sending the element \( r \) and the \( T \) evaluations of \( \tilde{f}_b \) (in step 2 of the algorithm). Hence the total communication complexity is \( O(T \log n) \).

If Merlin is honest, then Alice can directly compute \( \text{HD}(a, b) \) with probability 1, as according to (5.6) the Hamming distance of \( a \) and \( b \) can be inferred from \( s \). Otherwise, if \( s' \neq s \) then by the Schwartz–Zippel Lemma

\[
\Pr\left[ s(r) = s'(r) \right] \leq \frac{2(W - 1)}{q} \leq \frac{1}{3}
\]

(where the probability is taken over the random selection of \( r \in \mathbb{F}_q \)). Thus the test fails with probability at least 2/3. □

### 6. The AM streaming complexity of Distinct Elements

In this section we show an application of the canonical AM streaming algorithm for the Distinct Elements problem. In the regular data stream model (without any probabilistic proof system), it is well known (cf. [5]) that the space complexity of the Distinct Elements problem is lower bounded by the size of the alphabet of the data stream (for sufficiently long data
streams. In contrast, using the canonical $\mathcal{AM}$ streaming algorithm we show that by allowing $\mathcal{AM}$ proofs, we can obtain a tradeoff between the space complexity and the size of the proof.

Furthermore, we then rely on our lower bound on the $\mathcal{MA}$ communication complexity of the GHD problem, in order to show a matching lower bound on the $\mathcal{MA}$ streaming complexity of Distinct Elements.

6.1. Upper bound

We show that for every $s, w \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $s \cdot w \geq n$ (where $n$ is the size of the alphabet) there exists an $\mathcal{AM}$ streaming algorithm for the Distinct Elements problem that uses a proof of size $O(w)$ and a space complexity $O(s)$. For example, by fixing $w = n$, we have an $\mathcal{AM}$ streaming algorithm for the Distinct Elements problem that uses only a polylogarithmic (in the size of the alphabet and the length of the stream) number of bits of space.

Formally, we show:

**Theorem 6.1.** For every $s, w \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $s \cdot w \geq n$, there exists an explicit $\mathcal{AM}_{0,1/3}(s \cdot \text{polylog}(m,n), w \cdot \text{polylog}(m,n))$ streaming algorithm for the Distinct Elements problem, given a data stream $\sigma = (a_1, \ldots, a_m)$ with alphabet $[n]$.

The idea behind the proof of Theorem 6.1 is simply noting that we can indicate whether an element $j$ appears in the stream, by the disjunction of the element indicators of $j \in [n]$ in all of the positions of the stream (i.e., $\chi_1(j), \ldots, \chi_m(j)$). Then we can represent the number of distinct elements as a sum of disjunctions, and use the canonical $\mathcal{AM}$ streaming algorithm in order to solve the Distinct Elements problem. Formally:

**Proof.** Recall that the Distinct Elements problem is the data stream problem of computing (exactly) the following function:

$$F_0(\sigma) = \left| \left\{ i \in [n] : \exists j \in [m] a_j = i \right\} \right|.$$

Observe that for every data stream we can write $F_0(\sigma)$ as

$$\sum_{j=1}^{n} (\chi_1(j) \lor \chi_2(j) \lor \ldots \lor \chi_m(j)),$$

therefore $F_0(\sigma)$ is 1-algebraizable.

Let $\sigma = (a_1, \ldots, a_m)$ be a data stream with alphabet $[n]$. Let $s, w \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $s \cdot w \geq n$ and let $\delta = 1/3$. By Theorem 4.1 we have an explicit $\mathcal{AM}_{0,\delta}(S, W)$-streaming algorithm for computing $F_0(\sigma)$, where $S = O(s \cdot \text{polylog}(m,n))$ and $W = O(w \cdot \text{polylog}(m,n)). \quad \Box$

6.2. Lower bound

In the rest of this section we consider the $\mathcal{MA}$ model. As we mentioned in Section 3 the $\mathcal{MA}$ model, wherein the verifier has free access to the proof, is stronger than the $\mathcal{MA}$ model, wherein the proof is being streamed. Hence the lower bound we prove holds for both models.

As implicitly shown in [2], the communication complexity problem of GHD reduces to the data stream problem of Distinct Elements. We note that the foregoing reduction can be adapted in order to reduce the $\mathcal{MA}$ communication complexity problem of GHD to the $\mathcal{MA}$ problem of approximating the number of distinct elements in a stream within a multiplicative factor of $1 \pm 1/\sqrt{n}$. Together with our lower bound on the $\mathcal{MA}$ communication complexity of GHD, this implies the following:

**Theorem 6.2.** Let $\delta < \frac{1}{2}$. For every $\mathcal{MA}_{1-\delta}(S, W)$ streaming algorithm for approximating the number of distinct elements in a data stream $\sigma = (a_1, \ldots, a_m)$ (over alphabet $[n]$, where $m \geq n$) we have $S \cdot W = \Omega(n)$, hence $S + W = \Omega(\sqrt{n})$.

**Proof.** Let Alice hold a string $x \in \{-1, 1\}^n$ and Bob hold $y \in \{-1, 1\}^n$. Alice can convert her string $x = (x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ to a data stream over the alphabet $\Sigma = \{(i, b) : i \in [n], b \in \{-1, 1\}\}$ in the following manner:

$$\sigma_A = ((1, x_1), (2, x_2), \ldots, (n, x_n)).$$

Similarly, Bob can convert $y = (y_1, \ldots, y_n)$ to

$$\sigma_B = ((1, y_1), (2, y_2), \ldots, (n, y_n)).$$

Observe that all of the elements in $\sigma_A$ are distinct, and that all of the elements in $\sigma_B$ are also distinct. In addition, note that the only way in which an element can appear twice in the concatenation of the streams is if $x_i = y_i$ for some $i \in [n]$. 

In fact, if we denote the number of distinct elements in \( \sigma_A \circ \sigma_B \) by \( d \), and denote the Hamming distance of \( x \) and \( y \) by \( \text{HD}(x, y) \), then we have the following relation:

\[
d = n + \text{HD}(x, y). \tag{6.1}
\]

Alice and Bob can simulate running an \( \mathcal{MA} \) streaming algorithm on the concatenation of their inputs by using a one-way \( \mathcal{MA} \) communication complexity protocol, such that the number of the bits that are being communicated during the execution of the protocol is exactly the same as the number of bits of space that are used by the simulated \( \mathcal{MA} \) streaming algorithm. Details follow.

Say we have an \( \mathcal{MA} \) \( \mathcal{A} \) \( \mathcal{A} \) streaming algorithm \( \mathcal{A} \) for approximating the number of distinct elements in \( \sigma_A \circ \sigma_B \). Alice and Bob can simulate running an \( \mathcal{MA} \) streaming algorithm \( \mathcal{A} \) for approximating the number of distinct elements in \( \sigma_A \circ \sigma_B \). Alice can run \( \mathcal{A} \) on \( \sigma_A \), using a proof \( w \) of size \( W \). After the algorithm finished processing the last element of \( \sigma_A \), Alice sends the current state of her memory (which consists of at most \( S \) bits) to Bob. Next, Bob sets his memory to the state that Alice had sent, uses the proof \( w \), and completes the run of \( \mathcal{A} \) over \( \sigma_B \). Note that the total communication during the execution of the aforementioned protocol is at most \( S \) bits, as the data stream algorithm uses at most \( S \) bits of space during its execution.

As a conclusion, if there exists such \( \mathcal{A} \) then by the reduction above there exists an \( \mathcal{MA} \) communication protocol that outputs a \( 1 \pm 1/\sqrt{n} \) multiplicative approximation of \( d \). By (6.1) we can compute \( \tilde{\text{HD}}(x, y) \), such that

\[
\text{HD}(x, y) - \sqrt{n} < \frac{\text{HD}(x, y)}{\sqrt{n}} < \tilde{\text{HD}}(x, y) < \text{HD}(x, y) + \sqrt{n} + \frac{\text{HD}(x, y)}{\sqrt{n}},
\]

or

\[
\text{HD}(x, y) - 2\sqrt{n} < \tilde{\text{HD}}(x, y) < \text{HD}(x, y) + 2\sqrt{n}.
\]

Thus we can solve \( \text{GHD}_{n, 2, \pi, 2, \pi} \) while communicating at most \( O(S) \) bits and using a proof of at most \( O(W) \) bits. Hence, using the toolkit of reductions provided in [13] (see Section 5.1) we can solve \( \text{GHD} \), while communicating at most \( O(S) \) bits and using a proof of at most \( O(W) \) bits. Thus, by Theorem 5.10 we have \( S \cdot W = \Omega(n) \), hence \( S + W = \Omega(\sqrt{n}) \).

Note that, in particular, Theorem 6.2 implies a lower bound on the \( \mathcal{MA} \) streaming complexity of computing the exact number of distinct elements in a stream. (We note that such lower bound can be obtained by combining the known \( \mathcal{MA} \) lower bound on set-disjointness [11] and the reduction from set-disjointness to Distinct Elements [2].)

Last, we also note that by a straightforward adaptation of the reduction from the communication complexity problem of \( \text{GHD} \) to the data stream problem of Empirical Entropy (see [25]), our \( \mathcal{MA} \) lower bound on \( \text{GHD} \) also implies an \( \mathcal{MA} \) lower bound on the Empirical Entropy problem.

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