# Complexity Theory 

Jan Křetínský

Technical University of Munich
Summer 2019

May 28, 2019

Lecture 14
Interactive Proofs

## Overview

## NP certificates or proof of membership

## Overview

NP certificates or proof of membership
$\square$
RP proofs chosen at random

## Overview

NP certificates or proof of membership
$\downarrow$
RP proofs chosen at random

IP interactive proofs between a prover and a verifier

Example: job interview, interactive vs. fixed questions

## Agenda

- interactive proof examples
- socks
- graph coloring
- graph non-isomorphism
- definition of interactive proof complexity
- IP
- public coins: AM


## Different socks

## Example

$P$ wants to convince $V$ that she has a red sock and a yellow sock. V is blind and has a coin.

## Interactive Proof

1. $P$ tells $V$ which sock is red
2. V holds red sock in her right hand, left sock in her yellow hand
3. $P$ turns away from $V$
4. V tosses a coin
4.1 heads: keep socks
4.2 tails: switch socks
5. $V$ asks $P$ where the red sock is

## Observations

- If $P$ tells the truth (different colors), she will always answer correctly
- If P lies


## Observations

- If $P$ tells the truth (different colors), she will always answer correctly
- If P lies
- she can only answer correctly with probability $1 / 2$
- after $k$ rounds, she gets caught lying with probability $1-2^{-k}$


## Observations

- If $P$ tells the truth (different colors), she will always answer correctly
- If $P$ lies
- she can only answer correctly with probability $1 / 2$
- after $k$ rounds, she gets caught lying with probability $1-2^{-k}$
- random choices are crucial
- P has more computational power (vision) than V
- P must not see V's coin (private coin)


## Graph 3-Coloring



- P claims: $G$ is 3 -colorable
- How can she prove it to V ?


## Graph 3-Coloring



- P claims: $G$ is 3 -colorable
- How can she prove it to V ?
- provide certificate (since 3-Col $\in \mathrm{NP}$ ), V checks it
- possible for all $L \in \mathbb{N P}$ with one round if $P$ has NP power


## What if actual coloring should be secret?

- given a graph $(V, E)$ with $|V|=n$
- P claims 3-colorability
- $P$ wants to convince $V$ of coloring $c: V \rightarrow C \quad(=\{R, G, B\})$


## What if actual coloring should be secret?

- given a graph $(V, E)$ with $|V|=n$
- P claims 3-colorability
- P wants to convince $V$ of coloring $c: V \rightarrow C \quad(=\{R, G, B\})$

1. P randomly picks a permutation $\pi: C \rightarrow C$ and puts $\pi\left(c\left(v_{i}\right)\right)$ in envelope $i$ for each $1 \leq i \leq n$
2. V randomly picks edge $\left(u_{i}, u_{j}\right)$ and opens envelopes $i$ and $j$ to find colors $c_{i}$ and $c_{j}$
3. V accepts iff $c_{i} \neq c_{j}$

## Observations

- the protocol has two rounds
- a round is an uninterrupted sequence of messages from one party


## Observations

- the protocol has two rounds
- a round is an uninterrupted sequence of messages from one party
- if $G$ is not 3-colorable, $P$ will be caught lying after $O\left(n^{3}\right)$ rounds with probability $1-2^{-n}$


## Observations

- the protocol has two rounds
- a round is an uninterrupted sequence of messages from one party
- if $G$ is not 3-colorable, $P$ will be caught lying after $O\left(n^{3}\right)$ rounds with probability $1-2^{-n}$
- V learns nothing about the actual coloring
$\Rightarrow$ zero-knowledge protocol
- by reductions, all NP languages have ZK protocols


## Observations

- the protocol has two rounds
- a round is an uninterrupted sequence of messages from one party
- if $G$ is not 3-colorable, $P$ will be caught lying after $O\left(n^{3}\right)$ rounds with probability $1-2^{-n}$
- V learns nothing about the actual coloring
$\Rightarrow$ zero-knowledge protocol
- by reductions, all NP languages have ZK protocols
- private coins


## Graph Non-Isomorphism

- NP languages have succinct, deterministic proofs
- coNP languages possibly don't
- graph isomorphism, GI, is in NP
- hence $\mathrm{GNI}=\left\{\left\langle G_{1}, G_{2}\right\rangle \mid G_{1} \neq G_{2}\right\}$ is in coNP
- GNI has a succinct interactive proof


## Interactive Proof for GNI

given: graphs $G_{1}, G_{2}$
V pick $i \in_{R}\{1,2\}$, random permutation $\pi$
V use $\pi$ to permute nodes of $G_{i}$ to obtain graph $H$
V send $H$ to $P$
P check which of $G_{1}, G_{2}$ was used to obtain $H$
P let $G_{j}$ be that graph and send $j$ to $V$
$\mathbf{V}$ accept iff $i=j$

## Intuition

- same idea as for socks protocol
- $P$ has unlimited computational power
- if $G_{1} \cong G_{2}$ then $P$ answers correctly with probability at most $1 / 2$
- probability can be improved by sequential or parallel repetition
- if $G_{1} \not \equiv G_{2}$ then $P$ answers correctly with probability 1
- privacy of coins crucial


## Agenda

- interactive proof examples $\checkmark$
- socks $\checkmark$
- graph coloring $\checkmark$
- graph non-isomorphism $\checkmark$
- definition of interactive proof complexity
- IP
- public coins: AM


## Interaction

## Definition (Interaction)

Let $f, g:\{0,1\}^{*} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{*}$ be functions and $k \geq 0$ an integer that may depend on the input size. A $k$-round interaction of $f$ and $g$ on input $x \in\{0,1\}^{*}$ is the sequence $\langle f, g\rangle(x)$ of strings $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{k} \in\{0,1\}^{*}$ defined by

$$
\begin{aligned}
a_{1} & =f(x) & & \\
a_{2} & =g\left(x, a_{1}\right) & & \\
& \ldots & & \\
a_{2 i+1} & =f\left(x, a_{1}, \ldots, a_{2 i}\right) & & \text { for } 2 i<k \\
a_{2 i+2} & =g\left(x, a_{1}, \ldots, a_{2 i+1}\right) & & \text { for } 2 i+1<k
\end{aligned}
$$

The output of $f$ at the end of the interaction is defined by out $_{f}\langle f, g\rangle(x)=f\left(x, a_{1}, \ldots, a_{k}\right)$ and assumed to be in $\{0,1\}$.

This is a deterministic interaction, we need to add randomness.

## Adding Randomness

## Definition (IP)

For an integer $k \geq 1$ that may depend on the input size, a language $L$ is in IP[k], if there is a probabilistic polynomial-time TM $V$ that can have a $k$-round interaction with a function $P:\{0,1\}^{*} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{*}$ such that

- Completeness

$$
x \in L \Longrightarrow \exists \operatorname{P} . \operatorname{Pr}\left[\text { outv }_{V}\langle V, P\rangle(x)=1\right] \geq 2 / 3
$$

- Soundness

$$
x \notin L \Longrightarrow \forall P \cdot \operatorname{Pr}\left[\text { out }_{v}\langle V, P\rangle(x)=1\right] \leq 1 / 3
$$

We define IP $=\bigcup_{c \geq 1} I P\left[n^{c}\right]$.

- $V$ has access to a random variable $r \in_{R}\{0,1\}^{m}$
- e.g. $a_{1}=f(x, r)$ and $a_{3}=f\left(x, a_{1}, r\right)$
- $g$ cannot see $r$
$\Rightarrow$ out $_{V}\langle V, P\rangle(x)$ is a random variable where all probabilities are over the choice of $r$


## Arthur-Merlin Protocols

## Definition (AM)

- For every $k$ the complexity class AM[ $k$ ] is defined as the subset of IP[k] obtained when the verfier's messages are random bits only and also the only random bits used by V.
- $\mathrm{AM}=\mathrm{AM}[2]$

Such an interactive proof is called an Arthur-Merlin proof or a public coin proof.

## Agenda

- interactive proof examples $\checkmark$
- socks $\checkmark$
- graph coloring $\checkmark$
- graph non-isomorphism $\checkmark$
- definition of interactive proof complexity
- IP $\checkmark$
- public coins: AM $\checkmark$


## Basic Properties

- NP $\subseteq$ IP
- for every polynomial $p(n)$ the acceptance bounds in the definition of IP can be changes to
- $2^{-p(n)}$ for soundness
- $1-2^{-p(n)}$ for completeness
- the requirement for completeness can be changed to require probability 1 yielding perfect completeness
- perfect soundness collapses IP to NP


## What have we learnt?

- IP[k]: languages that have $k$-round interactive proofs
- interaction and randomization possibly add power
- randomization alone: BPP (possibly equals P)
- deterministic interaction: NP
$\Rightarrow$ interactive proofs more succinct
- prover has unlimited computational power
- verifier is a BPP machine (poly-time with coins)
- coins can be private or public
- zero-knowledge protocols do exist for all NP languages
- soundness and completeness thresholds can be adapted


## What's next?

- $\operatorname{AM}[2]=\operatorname{AM}[k]$
- $\operatorname{AM}[k+2]=\operatorname{IP}[k]$

AM hierarchy collapses private coins don't help

- if graph isomorphism is NP-complete, the polynomial hierarchy collapses
- IP = PSPACE

