

**Theorem:**

- If  $m$  is prime then Solovay-Strassen( $m$ ) returns “probably prime”.
- If  $m$  is not prime, then the probability that Solovay-Strassen( $m$ ) returns “probably prime” is less than  $1/2^k$ .

**Corollary:** PRIME  $\in$  “Truly Feasible”

**Definition:** A decision problem  $S$  is in **BPP** (Bounded Probabilistic Polynomial Time) iff there is a probabilistic, polynomial-time algorithm  $A$  such that for all inputs  $w$ ,

$$\mathbf{if} (w \in S) \mathbf{then} \text{Prob}(A(w) = 1) \geq \frac{2}{3}$$

$$\mathbf{if} (w \notin S) \mathbf{then} \text{Prob}(A(w) = 1) \leq \frac{1}{3}$$

**Equivalently**, there is a probabilistic, polynomial-time algorithm  $A'$  such that for all  $n$  and all inputs  $w$  of length  $n$ ,

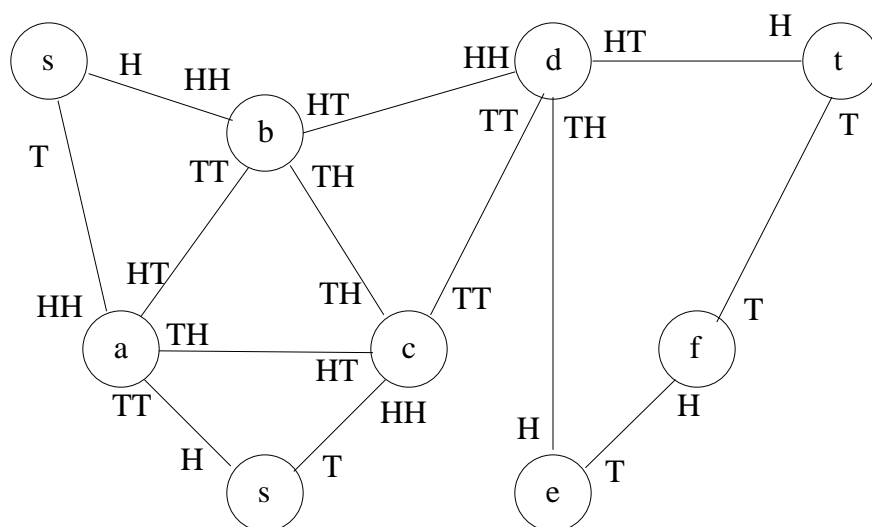
$$\mathbf{if} (w \in S) \mathbf{then} \text{Prob}(A'(w) = 1) \geq 1 - \frac{1}{2^n}$$

$$\mathbf{if} (w \notin S) \mathbf{then} \text{Prob}(A'(w) = 1) \leq \frac{1}{2^n}$$

### **Other Randomized Classes:**

- **NP:**  $\text{Prob}(A(w) = 1) > 0$  iff  $w \in S$
- **RP:**  $\text{Prob}(A(w) = 1) \geq 1/2$  for  $w \in S$ ,  
else  $\text{Prob}(A(w) = 1) = 0$
- **PP:**  $\text{Prob}(A(w) = 1) > 1/2$  for  $w \in S$ ,  
else  $\text{Prob}(A(w) = 1) < 1/2$

$$\text{REACH}_u = \{G, \text{undirected} \mid s \xrightarrow[G]{*} t\}$$

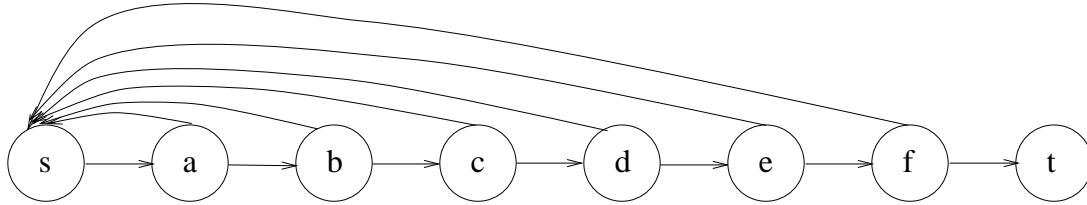


**Fact 26.1** *Let  $T(i)$  be the expected number of steps in a random walk to visit all vertices in connected graph  $G$ , starting from  $i$ . Then,*

$$T(i) \leq 2e(n - 1)$$

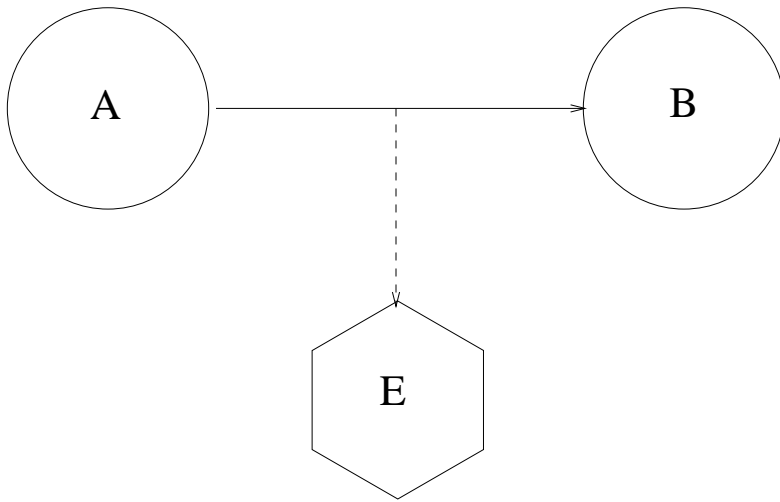
**Corollary 26.2**

$$\text{REACH}_u \in \text{BPL}$$



A look at this *directed* graph should convince you that a random walk on it is *not* likely to reach all vertices in polynomial time. To get to vertex  $t$  from  $s$  you would have to guess right about  $n$  times in a row.

It's very plausible that  $\text{REACH}_u$  is in  $\mathbf{L}$ , and one might hope to prove it by derandomizing the random walk. (There must exist a single sequence of choices of size  $O(n^3)$  that visits every node of *any* undirected labelled  $n$ -node graph.) But randomization doesn't seem to help much with the general REACH problem.



**One-Time Pad:**  $p \in \{0, 1\}^n; m \in \{0, 1\}^n$

$$E(p, x) = p \oplus x$$

$$D(p, x) = p \oplus x$$

$$D(p, E(p, m)) = p \oplus (p \oplus m) = m$$

$p$	0 1 1 0 0 1 0 1 0 1
$m$	0 0 0 0 1 1 1 1 0 0
$E(p, m)$	0 1 1 0 1 0 1 0 0 1
$D(p, E(p, m))$	0 0 0 0 1 1 1 1 0 0

**Theorem 26.3** *If  $p$  is chosen at random and known only to  $A$  and  $B$  then*

1.  *$E(p, m)$  provides no information to  $E$  about  $m$  except perhaps its length.*
2. *Better not use  $p$  more than once! XOR of two messages with same pad is plaintext XOR plaintext, easy to attack.*

$B$  chooses  $p, q$   $n$ -bit primes,

$B$  chooses  $\text{GCD}(e, \varphi(pq)) = 1$ ;  $\varphi(pq) = (p-1)(q-1)$ .

$B$  **publishes**:  $pq, e$ ; keeps  $p, q$  **secret**.

$B$  computes  $d, k$ , s.t.  $ed + k\varphi(pq) = 1$

Break message into pieces shorter than  $2n$  bits

$$E_B(x) \equiv x^e \pmod{pq}$$

$$D_B(x) \equiv x^d \pmod{pq}$$

$$D_B(E_B(m)) \equiv (m^e)^d \pmod{pq}$$

$$\equiv m^{1-k\varphi(pq)} \pmod{pq}$$

$$\equiv m \cdot (m^{\varphi(pq)})^{-k} \pmod{pq}$$

$$\equiv m \pmod{pq}$$

$$\equiv E_B(D_B(m)) \pmod{pq}$$

For **sufficiently large**  $n$ , [ $n \geq 128$  is fine in 2002],

**It is widely believed that:**  $E_B(m)$  divulges no useful information about  $m$  to anyone not knowing  $p$ ,  $q$ , or  $d$ .

**Message signing:**

Let  $m =$  “ $B$  promises to give  $A$  \$10 by 5/17/02.”

Let  $m' = m \circ r$  where  $r$  is nonce or current date and time

**It is widely believed that:**  $D_B(m')$  could be produced only by  $B$ . Thus it can be used as a contract signed by  $B$ !

Useful for proving authenticity!



[Goldwasser, Micali, Rackoff], [Babai]

Decision problem:  $D$ ; input string:  $x$

Two players:

**Prover** — **Merlin** is computationally all-powerful. Wants to convince **Verifier** that  $x \in D$ .

**Verifier** — **Arthur**: probabilistic polynomial-time TM. Wants to know the truth about whether  $x \in D$ .

Input =  $x$ ;  $n = |x|$ ;  $t = n^{O(1)}$

- |            |   |                         |
|------------|---|-------------------------|
| 0.         | <b>A</b> has $x$                                  | <b>M</b> has $x$        |
| 1.         | flip $\sigma_1$ , compute $m_1$ $\longrightarrow$ |                         |
| 2.         |   | $\longleftarrow m_2$    |
| 3.         | flip $\sigma_3$ , compute $m_3$ $\longrightarrow$ |                         |
| 4.         |   | $\longleftarrow m_4$    |
| $\vdots$   | $\vdots$  | $\vdots$                |
| $2t$ .     |   | $\longleftarrow m_{2t}$ |
| $2t + 1$ . | flip $\sigma_{2t+1}$ , accept or reject           |                         |

**Definition 26.4**  $D \in \text{IP}$  iff there is such a polynomial-time interactive protocol

1. If  $x \in D$ , then there exists a strategy for  $\mathbf{M}$

$$\text{Prob}\{\mathbf{A} \text{ accepts}\} > \frac{2}{3}$$

2. If  $x \notin D$ , then for all strategies for  $\mathbf{M}$

$$\text{Prob}\{\mathbf{A} \text{ accepts}\} < \frac{1}{3}$$



**Observation 26.5** *Iterating makes probabilities of error exponentially small.*

**Special Cases of IP:**

- Deterministic Arthur = **NP**
- No Merlin = **BPP**

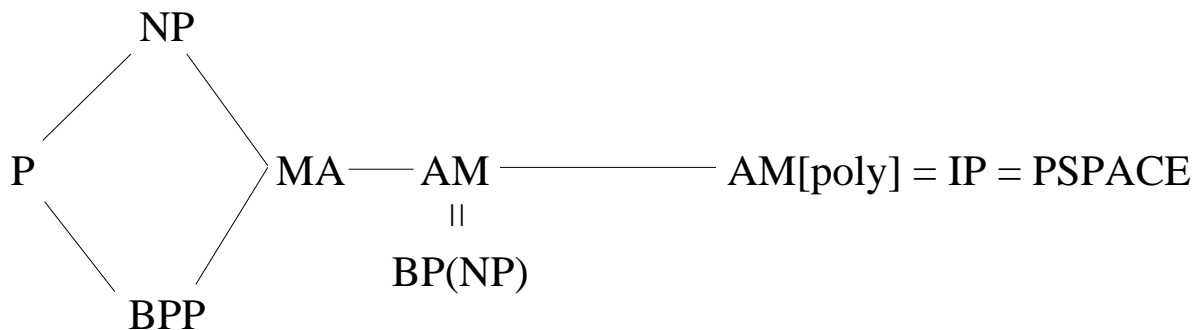
**Definition 26.6** MA is the set of decision problems admitting two step proofs where Merlin moves first.

AM is the set of decision problems admitting two step proofs where Arthur moves first.

$$AM[2k] = \underbrace{AMAM \cdots AM}_{2k} \quad \spadesuit$$

**Fact 26.7** [Babai] For all  $k \geq 2$ ,

$$AM[k] = AM$$



**Fact 26.8** [Goldwasser,Sipser] *The power of interactive proofs is unchanged if  $\mathbf{M}$  knows  $\mathbf{A}$ 's coin tosses. For all  $k$ ,*

$$\mathbf{IP}[k] = \mathbf{AM}[k]; \quad \mathbf{IP} = \mathbf{AM}[n^{O(1)}]$$

## Graph Non-Isomorphism $\in$ AM

Input =  $G_0, G_1, n = \|G_0\| = \|G_1\|$

- |    |   |                                     |
|----|---|-------------------------------------|
| 0. | A has $G_0, G_1$  | M has $G_0, G_1$                    |
| 1. | flip $\kappa : \{1, \dots, r\} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$<br>flip $\pi_1, \dots, \pi_r \in S_n$<br>$\pi_1(G_{\kappa(1)}), \dots, \pi_r(G_{\kappa(r)}) \longrightarrow$ |                                     |
| 2. |   | $\longleftarrow m_2 \in \{0, 1\}^r$ |
| 3. | accept iff $\kappa = m_2$   |                                     |

**Proposition 26.9** *Graph Non-Isomorphism  $\in$  AM*

**Proof:** If  $G_0 \not\cong G_1$ , then A will accept with probability 1.

If  $G_0 \cong G_1$ , then A will accept with probability  $\leq 2^{-r}$ .



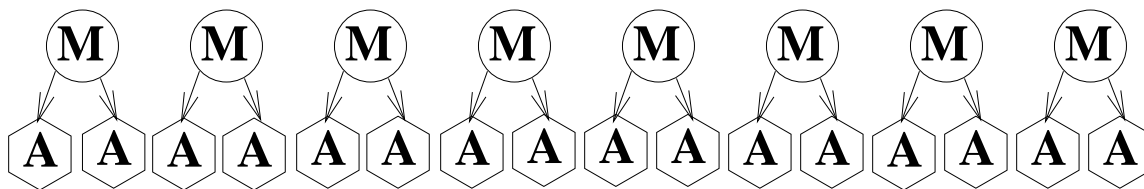
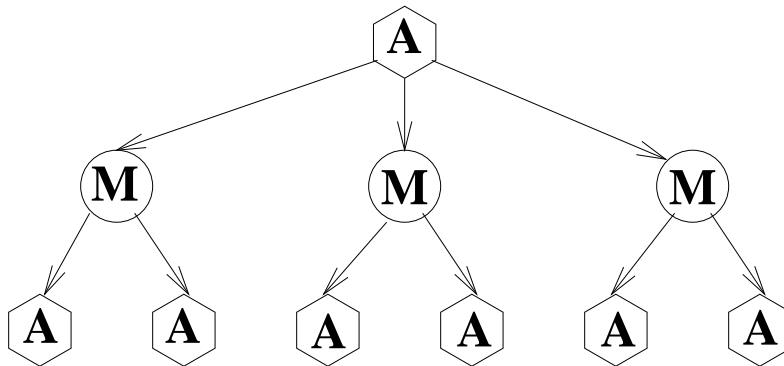
**Corollary 26.10** *If Graph Isomorphism is NP-complete then PH collapses to  $\Sigma_2^P$ .*

## Fact 26.11 Shamir's Theorem: $IP = PSPACE$

**proof that  $IP \subseteq PSPACE$ :** Evaluate the game tree.

For  $M$ 's moves choose the maximum value.

For  $A$ 's moves choose the average value.



**Hard Direction:** Construct an interactive proof that a string is in QSAT. There are proofs in [P] and in Sipser.

Any decision problem  $D \in \mathbf{NP}$  has a deterministic, polynomial-time verifier.

By adding randomness to the verifier, we can greatly restrict its computational power and the number of bits of  $\Pi$  that it needs to look at, while still enabling it to accept all of  $\mathbf{NP}$ .

We say that a verifier  $\mathbf{A}$  is  $(r(n), q(n))$ -restricted iff for all inputs of size  $n$ , and all proofs  $\Pi$ ,  $\mathbf{A}$  uses at most  $O(r(n))$  random bits and examines at most  $O(q(n))$  bits of its proof,  $\Pi$ .

Let  $\text{PCP}(r(n), q(n))$  be the set of boolean queries that are accepted by  $(r(n), q(n))$ -restricted verifiers.

**Fact 26.12 (PCP Theorem)**  $\mathbf{NP} = \text{PCP}[\log n, O(1)]$

**Fact 26.13 [Hastad]**  $\mathbf{NP} = \text{PCP}[\log n, 3]$



MAX-3-SAT: given a 3CNF formula, find a truth assignment that maximizes the number of true clauses.

$$(x_1 \vee x_2 \vee \overline{x_3}) \wedge (x_1 \vee x_4 \vee \overline{x_5}) \wedge (\overline{x_1} \vee \overline{x_2} \vee \overline{x_4}) \wedge (x_2 \vee \overline{x_3} \vee \overline{x_4}) \\ \wedge (\overline{x_2} \vee x_3 \vee x_5) \wedge (\overline{x_3} \vee \overline{x_4} \vee \overline{x_5}) \wedge (\overline{x_1} \vee \overline{x_2} \vee x_3) \wedge (\overline{x_2} \vee \overline{x_4} \vee x_5)$$

**Proposition 26.14** MAX-3-SAT has a polynomial-time  $\epsilon = \frac{1}{2}$  approximation algorithm.

**Proof:** Be greedy.



**Open for Years:** Assuming  $\mathbf{NP} \neq \mathbf{P}$  is there some  $\epsilon$ ,  $0 < \epsilon < 1$  s.t. MAX-3-SAT has no PTIME  $\epsilon$ -approximation algorithm?

**Theorem 26.15** *The PCP theorem ( $\mathbf{NP} = \text{PCP}[\log n, 1]$ ) is equivalent to the fact that*

*If  $\mathbf{P} \neq \mathbf{NP}$ , then*

*For some  $\epsilon$ ,  $1 > \epsilon > 0$ ,*

*MAX-3-SAT has no polynomial-time,  $\epsilon$ -approximation algorithm.*

**Fact 26.16** *MAX-3-SAT has a PTIME approximation algorithm with  $\epsilon = \frac{1}{8}$  and no better ratio can be achieved unless  $\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{NP}$ .*

## **References:**

- *Approximation Algorithms for NP Hard Problems*, Dorit Hochbaum, ed., 1997, PWS.
- Sanjeev Arora, “The Approximability of NP-hard Problems”, STOC 98, [www.cs.princeton.edu/~arora](http://www.cs.princeton.edu/~arora).