

Probabilistic Computation

Definition 1

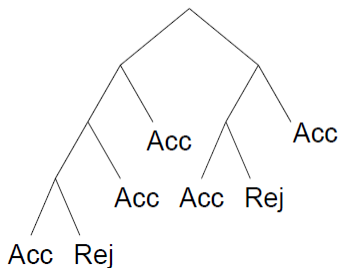
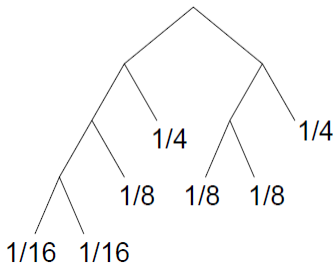
A probabilistic TM (PTM) is a 7-tuple $M = (Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, q_0, F, \delta_1, \delta_2)$, where $Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, q_0, F$ are the same as those in classical Turing machines and δ_1, δ_2 are two deterministic transition functions, such that at each step, the TM applies either the transition function δ_1 with prob. $\frac{1}{2}$ or the transition function δ_2 with prob. $\frac{1}{2}$, resembling a coin flip.

- We may think of transitions as being selected randomly, with equal probability of 0.5, i.e., the PTM flips a fair coin in each step.
- PTMs therefore are very similar to NTMs with (at most) two options per step.

Probabilistic TM (Cont'd)

- Probability of acceptance = $\sum_{\text{accepting path } \sigma} \text{Prob}(\sigma)$
- Probability of rejection = $\sum_{\text{rejecting path } \sigma} \text{Prob}(\sigma)$
- Example:
 - ▶ Prob. Acceptance = $\frac{1}{16} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{4} = \frac{13}{16}$
 - ▶ Prob. Rejection = $\frac{1}{16} + \frac{1}{8} = \frac{3}{16}$
- We consider TMs that halt (either accept or reject) on every branch - deciders.
- So the two probabilities total 1.

Computation on input w

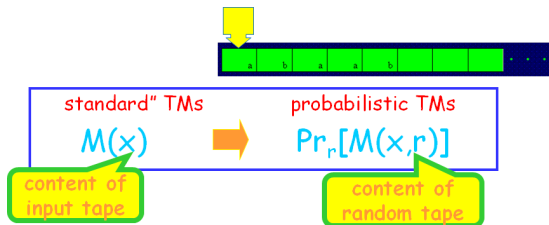


Alternative Definition of PTMs

Definition 2

A PTM is a deterministic TM that receives two inputs x and r , where $x \in \Sigma^*$ is an input word, and $r \in \{0, 1\}^*$ is a sequence of random numbers placed on a *read-only random tape*. If (x, r) is accepted, we may call r a witness for x .

Note the similarity to the notion of polynomial verifiers used for NP.



A string $r \in \{0, 1\}^n$ is associated with probability $\frac{1}{2^n}$.

How to Define Acceptance for PTMs?

Definition 3

$$\text{Prob}[M \text{ accepts } w] = \sum_{b \text{ is an accepting path}} \text{prob}(b)$$

$$\text{Prob}[M \text{ rejects } w] = 1 - \text{Prob}[M \text{ accepts } w]$$

A natural way to define acceptance is based on the notion of “**majority**”.

Definition 4

Given a PTM M and an input w , $w \in L(M)$ iff $\text{Prob}[M \text{ accepts } w] > \frac{1}{2}$.

Definition 5

For $0 \leq \epsilon < 1/2$, M accepts w with *error probability* ϵ (written as $e_M(w) = \epsilon$) if

- $w \in L(M)$ implies $\text{Prob}[M \text{ accepts } w] \geq (1 - \epsilon)$

In the above definition, ϵ depends on w . E.g., $e_M(w) = \frac{1}{2}(1 - \frac{1}{|w|})$.

Bounded Error Probability

- The problem with the previous definition of acceptance is that $\text{Prob}[M \text{ accepts } w]$ ($> \frac{1}{2}$) could be arbitrarily close to $\frac{1}{2}$, making the difference between $\text{Prob}[M \text{ accepts } w]$ and $\text{Prob}[M \text{ rejects } w]$ arbitrarily small.
- In some applications, we prefer a “gap” between the probabilities of acceptance and rejection, which leads to the notion of “bounded error probability”.

Definition 6

A PTM M is with bounded error prob. if $\exists \epsilon < \frac{1}{2}$, for all w .

- $w \in L(M)$ implies $\text{Prob}[M \text{ accepts } w] \geq (1 - \epsilon)$
- $w \notin L(M)$ implies $\text{Prob}[M \text{ rejects } w] \geq (1 - \epsilon)$

Note that in the above, ϵ does not depend on w .

Polynomial-Time PTMs

- We are mainly interested in PTMs that run in polynomial time. There is still an issue: polynomial in what sense (Worst-case vs. Average-case)?
- Recall that for an NTM M ,
 - 1 $w \in L(M)$: \exists a computation leading to acceptance, while the rest of the computations may lead to rejection.
 - 2 $w \notin L(M)$: all computations lead to rejection.
- Acceptance for classical NTMs allows *one-sided error*. See (1) above. It does not make much sense for NTMs to have two-sided error. Why?
- For PTMs, we consider both *one-sided* and *two-sided errors*.

Probabilistic TMs Accepting r.e. Sets

Theorem 7

Every r.e. set is accepted (under Def. 4) by some PTM with finite average running time.

Proof.

Let W be an r.e. set and let M be a DTM accepting W . Construct the following PTM M'

- 1 repeat
- 2 simulate one step of $M(x)$
- 3 if $M(x)$ accepted at last step then accept
- 4 until $\text{cointoss()} = \text{"heads"}$
- 5 if $\text{cointoss()} = \text{"heads"}$ the accept else reject

Clearly if $x \notin W$, M' terminates only at line 5. In this case, the prob = $\frac{1}{2}$, so $x \notin L(M')$. If $x \in W$, prob = $\text{Prob}(\text{exits line 3}) + \frac{1}{2} > \frac{1}{2}$.

What is the average running time? (Hint: Consider $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (n \times 2^{-n})$) □

One-Sided Error: The classes RP and coRP

We write $M(x) = 1$ (resp., $=0$) for M accepts (resp., rejects) x .

Definition 8

A language $L \in \text{RP}$ (**Randomized Polynomial Time**), iff a probabilistic Polynomial-time TM M exists, such that

- $x \in L \Rightarrow \text{Prob}(M(x) = 1) \geq \frac{1}{2}$
- $x \notin L \Rightarrow \text{Prob}(M(x) = 0) = 1$ (or equivalently $\text{Prob}(M(x) = 1) = 0$)

Definition 9

A language $L \in \text{co-RP}$, iff a probabilistic Polynomial-time TM M exists, such that

- $x \in L \Rightarrow \text{Prob}(M(x) = 1) = 1$
- $x \notin L \Rightarrow \text{Prob}(M(x) = 0) \geq \frac{1}{2}$

These two classes complement each other, i.e., $\text{coRP} = \{\bar{L} \mid L \in \text{RP}\}$.

Comparing RP with NP

- Let R_L be the relation defining the witness/guess for L for a certain TM.
- NP:
 - ▶ $x \in L \Rightarrow \exists y, (x, y) \in R_L$
 - ▶ $x \notin L \Rightarrow \forall y, (x, y) \notin R_L$
- RP:
 - ▶ $x \in L \Rightarrow \text{Prob}((x, r) \in R_L) \geq \frac{1}{2}$
 - ▶ $x \notin L \Rightarrow \forall r, (x, r) \notin R_L$
- RP corresponds to the so-called "Monte-Carlo Algorithm"

Theorem 10

$P \subseteq RP \subseteq NP$ and $P \subseteq co-RP \subseteq co-NP$

A Primality Testing Algorithm in co-RP

- Recall *Fermat's Little Theorem*: For prime p , $\forall a$

$$a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}.$$

Hence, if $\exists 2 \leq a \leq p - 1$ such that $a^{p-1} \not\equiv 1 \pmod{p}$, p is definitely **composite**.

- However, there exists composite integer n such that $b^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ for all b with $\gcd(n, b) = 1$. Such numbers are called *Carmichael Numbers*.
- Hence, if Fermat test returns "composite", the number is composite; it could return "prime" (i.e., passing the test) even if the number is composite.
- Fermat test is a co-RP algorithm for primality testing.
- A more sophisticated primality testing (co-RP) algorithm is the Miller-Rabin primality test.

Theorem 11 (Agrawal-Kayal-Saxena, 2002)

Primality testing is in P.

Polynomial Identity Testing

Definition 12 (PIT)

Determine if two multi-variable polynomial functions f and g are equal, i.e., have the same results on all inputs

- Challenge: The polynomials are not given in their normal form (as a sum of monomials $(2x^2y^3z)$). E.g., $(x_1 + y_1)(x_2 + y_2)\dots(x_n + y_n)$ has 2^n monomials.
- PIT is equivalent to testing "Zero Polynomial" (Z_{ZERO}) (i.e., $=0$ on all inputs) by considering $f - g$.

Polynomial Identity Testing

Lemma 13

(Schwartz-Zippel Lemma): Consider a non-zero multivariate polynomial $p(x_1, \dots, x_m)$ of total degree $\leq d$, and a finite set S of integers. If a_1, \dots, a_m are chosen randomly (with replacement) from S , then

$$\text{Prob} [p(a_1, \dots, a_m) = 0] \leq \frac{d}{|S|}.$$

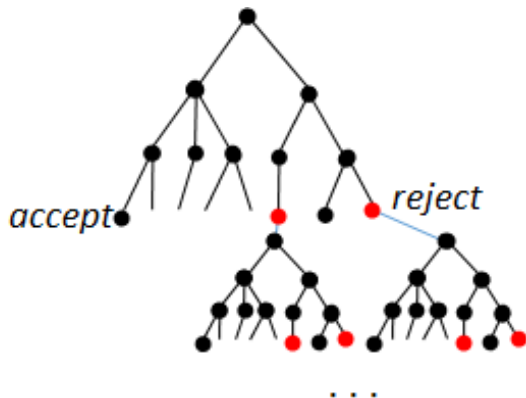
Consider the following algorithm: For polynomial $P(x_1, \dots, x_m)$,

- 1 Randomly select $a_1, \dots, a_m \in \{1, \dots, 3 \times 2^n\}$. Note: $1 - \frac{2^n}{3 \times 2^n} = \frac{2}{3}$.
 - 2 Evaluate the polynomial to compute $p(a_1, \dots, a_m)$
 - 3 Accept if $p(a_1, \dots, a_m) = 0$ and reject otherwise.
-
- If $p \in Z_{EROP}$, the algorithm will always accept. Otherwise, if $p \notin Z_{EROP}$, it will reject with probability $\geq \frac{2}{3}$.
 - (Problem?) if the degree of the polynomial is as high as 2^n , then the output can be as high as $(3 \times 2^n)^{2^n}$, requiring $O(2^n)$ bits to store!
 - (Fix) Use modulo arithmetic.

Amplification

- The constant $\frac{1}{2}$ in the definition of RP is arbitrary.
- If we have a probabilistic TM M that accepts $x \in L$ with probability $p < \frac{1}{2}$, we can run this TM several times to “amplify” the probability.
 - ① Run M on x
 - ② if a run leads to acceptance (with prob. p), accept.
 - ③ if a run leads to rejection (with prob. $1 - p$), Repeat (1).
 - ④ Exit if (1) is repeated n times.
- If $x \notin L$, all runs will return 0.
- If $x \in L$, and we run it n times then the probability of acceptance is
$$\text{Prob}(M_n(x) = 1) = 1 - \text{Prob}(M_n(x) \neq 1) = 1 - \text{Prob}(M(x) \neq 1)^n = 1 - (1 - \text{Prob}(M(x) = 1))^n = 1 - (1 - p)^n$$

Amplification



Robustness of RP

Definition 14

$L \in RP_1$ iff \exists probabilistic Poly-time TM M and a polynomial $p(\cdot)$, s.t.

- $x \in L \Rightarrow \text{Prob}(M(x) = 1) \geq \frac{1}{p(|x|)}$
- $x \notin L \Rightarrow \text{Prob}(M(x) = 1) = 0$

Definition 15

$L \in RP_2$ iff \exists probabilistic Poly-time TM M and a polynomial $p(\cdot)$, s.t.

- $x \in L \Rightarrow \text{Prob}(M(x) = 1) \geq 1 - 2^{-p(|x|)}$
- $x \notin L \Rightarrow \text{Prob}(M(x) = 1) = 0$

Def. 14 has a high error prob. (i.e., $1 - \frac{1}{p(|x|)}$), while the error prob. under Def. 15 is small (i.e., $2^{-p(|x|)}$).

Robustness of RP

Theorem 16

$RP = RP_1 = RP_2$ and $co-RP = co-RP_1 = co-RP_2$

Proof.

$RP_2 \subseteq RP \subseteq RP_1$ follows from the definitions.

To show $RP_1 \subseteq RP_2$, given an x repeat M (for RP_1) $p(|x|)^2$ times and accept if at least one of the runs accepts. For $x \in L(M)$,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Prob}(M(x) = 0) &\leq \left(1 - \frac{1}{p(|x|)}\right)^{p(|x|)^2} = \left(\left(1 - \frac{1}{p(|x|)}\right)^{p(|x|)}\right)^{p(|x|)} \leq \frac{1}{e^{p(|x|)}} \\ &\leq \frac{1}{2^{p(|x|)}}. \text{ Hence, } \text{Prob}(M(x) = 1) \geq 1 - 2^{-p(|x|)}. \end{aligned}$$



Note: $\left(1 - \frac{1}{t}\right)^t \leq \frac{1}{e}$.

Zero-Sided Error: The class ZPP

Let $\chi_L(x) = 1$ if $x \in L$; $= 0$ if $x \notin L$.

Definition 17

$L \in ZPP$ (**Z**ero-**E**rror **P**olynomial **P**robabilistic **T**ime) iff there exists a polynomial-time probabilistic TM M , such that $\forall x \in L$:

$M(x) = \{0, 1, \perp\}$,

- $\text{Prob}(M(x) = \perp) < \frac{1}{2}$, and
- $\text{Prob}(M(x) = \chi_L(x) \vee M(x) = \perp) = 1$

- $\text{Prob}(M(x) = \chi_L(x)) > \frac{1}{2}$
- The symbol \perp is "I don't know".
- The value $\frac{1}{2}$ is arbitrary and can be replaced by $2^{-p(|x|)}$ or $1 - \frac{1}{p(|x|)}$.
- Also known as "Las-Vegas algorithm"

Alternative Definition of ZPP

Definition 18

ZPP is the class of languages accepted by a PTM with *polynomial expected running time* such that $\forall x \in \Sigma^*$,

- $x \in L \Rightarrow \text{Prob}[M(x) = 1] = 1$
- $x \notin L \Rightarrow \text{Prob}[M(x) = 0] = 1$

- Note that it is possible for the running time to be unbounded, we do not analyze the worst-case running time, but instead the average running time.
- If we "trim" the height of a computation when exceeding a certain polynomial, and mark those trimmed configurations as \perp , we get Def. 17.

$$ZPP = RP \cap \text{coRP}$$

Theorem 19

$$ZPP \subseteq RP \cap \text{coRP}$$

Proof.

- Let $L \in ZPP$, M be the PTM that recognizes L .
- Define $M'(x) =$
 - ▶ let $b = M(x)$
 - ▶ $b = \perp$ then return 0, else return b
- If $x \notin L$, $M'(x)$ will never return 1.
- If $x \in L$, $\text{Prob}(M'(x) = 1) > \frac{1}{2}$, as required.
- $ZPP \subseteq RP$
- The same way, $ZPP \subseteq \text{coRP}$.



$$ZPP = RP \cap \text{coRP}$$

Theorem 20

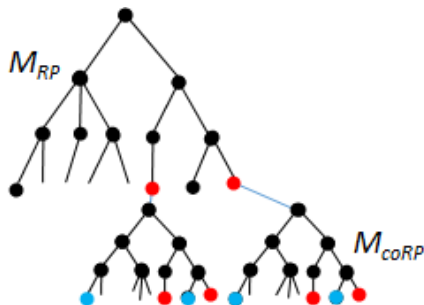
$$RP \cap \text{coRP} \subseteq ZPP$$

Proof.

- Let $L \in RP \cap \text{coRP}$, M_{RP} and M_{coRP} be the PTMs that recognize L according to RP and coRP .
- Define: $M'(x) =$
 - ▶ if $M_{RP} = \text{YES}$, return 1
 - ▶ if $M_{\text{coRP}} = \text{NO}$, then return 0, else return \perp
- $M_{RP}(x)$ never returns YES if $x \notin L$, and $M_{\text{coRP}}(x)$ never returns NO if $x \in L$. Therefore, $M'(x)$ never returns the opposite of $\chi_L(x)$.
- The probability that M_{RP} and M_{coRP} are both wrong $< \frac{1}{2} \Rightarrow \text{Prob}(M'(x) = \perp) < \frac{1}{2}$.
- $RP \cap \text{coRP} \subseteq ZPP$



$$\text{ZPP} = \text{RP} \cap \text{coRP}$$



- In the above, **black**: accept; **red**: reject; **blue**: \perp .
- if $x \in RP$, $M_{RP}(x)$ has both black and **red**.
- if $x \in coRP$, $M_{coRP}(x)$ has all black. Black turns into **blue**.
- if $x \notin RP$, $M_{RP}(x)$ has all **red**.
- if $x \notin coRP$, $M_{coRP}(x)$ has both black and **red**. Black turns into **blue**.

Two-Sided Error: The class PP

Definition 21

$L \in PP$ (**P**olynomial **P**robabilistic **T**ime) iff there exists a polynomial-time probabilistic TM M , such that $\forall x \in L$:

- if $x \in L$, $\text{Prob}(M(x) = 1) > \frac{1}{2}$, and
- if $x \notin L$, $\text{Prob}(M(x) = 1) \leq \frac{1}{2}$.

Two-Sided Error: The class BPP

Definition 22

$L \in BPP$ (**Bounded-Error Polynomial Probabilistic Time**) iff there exists a polynomial-time probabilistic TM M , such that $\forall x \in L$:

$\text{Prob}(M(x) = \chi_L(x)) \geq \frac{2}{3}$, where

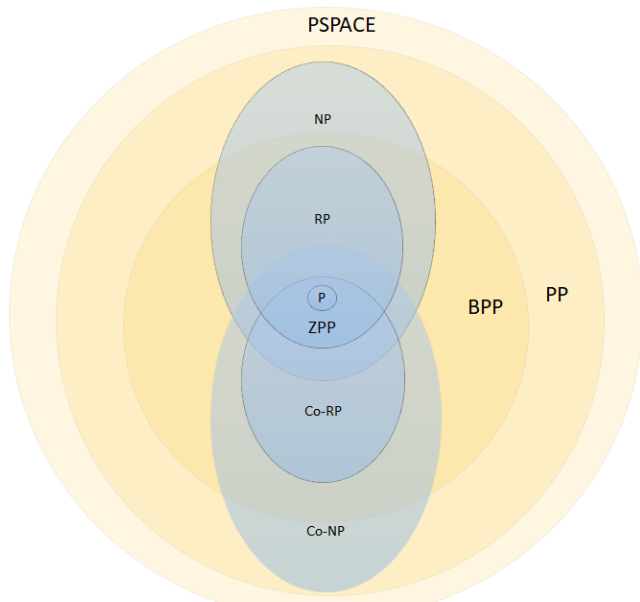
- $\chi_L(x) = 1$ if $x \in L$, and
- $\chi_L(x) = 0$ if $x \notin L$.

Theorem 23

If $L \in BPP$, then for every d , there exists a probabilistic polynomial TM M' , s.t. $\forall x, \text{Prob}(M'(x) \neq \chi_L(x)) < 2^{-|x|^d}$

- Even a weak bound on the error is enough to obtain almost arbitrary certainty in polynomial time!
- *BPP* might be better than *P* for describing what is "tractable in practice"!

Relationship among Probabilistic Classes



Some Notes

- Probabilistic classes with one-sided error - RP and coRP - are common.
- ZPP defines random computations with zero-sided error, but probabilistic runtime.
- Many BPP algorithms have been de-randomised successfully
- Many experts believe that (**Conjecture**)

$$P = ZPP = RP = coRP = BPP \subset PP$$

- $BPP = P$ is equivalent to the existence of strong pseudo-random number generators, which many experts consider likely

What is a "Proof"?

- From the complexity viewpoint: meaningless unless can be efficiently verified.
- Given language L , our goal is to prove $x \in L$
- A **Proof System** for L is a verification algorithm V
 - ▶ **(completeness)**: $x \in L \Rightarrow \exists \text{ proof}, V \text{ accepts } (x, \text{proof})$
"true assertions have proofs"
 - ▶ **(soundness)**: $x \notin L \Rightarrow \forall \text{ proof}^*, V \text{ rejects } (x, \text{proof}^*)$
"false assertions have no proofs"
 - ▶ **(efficiency)**: $\forall x, \text{proof}: V(x, \text{proof})$ runs in polynomial time in $|x|$

Classical Proofs

- Recall the class NP :

$L \in NP$ iff expressible as $L = \{x \mid \exists y, |y| \leq |x|^k, (x, y) \in R\}$, where k is a constant, and $R \in P$.

- NP is the set of languages with **classical proof systems** (R is the verifier, and y is the "proof")

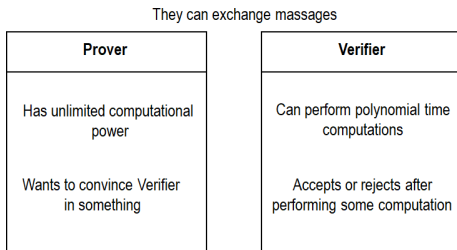
Definition 24

$L \subseteq \{0, 1\}^*$ is in NP if \exists a polynomial p and a ptime DTM M such that $\forall x \in \{0, 1\}^*$

- (Completeness) $x \in L \Rightarrow \exists y \in \{0, 1\}^{p(|x|)}, M(x, y) = 1$
- (Soundness) $x \notin L \Rightarrow \forall y \in \{0, 1\}^{p(|x|)}, M(x, y) = 0$

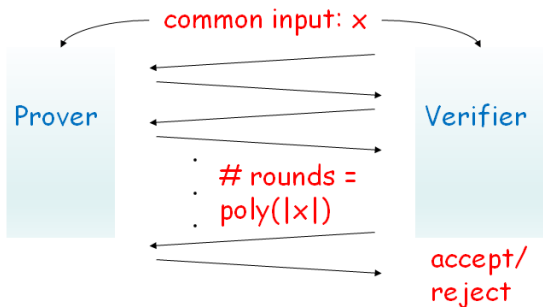
Interactive Proofs

- Two new ingredients:
 - ▶ **Randomness**: verifier uses randomness (e.g., tosses coins), allowing errors with some small probability
 - ▶ **Interaction**: rather than only “reading” a proof, verifier **interacts** with computationally unlimited prover
- **Interaction** and **randomness** possibly add power
 - ▶ *NP*: prover sends proof, verifier does not use randomness
 - ▶ *BPP*: randomness alone, no interaction



Interactive Proofs

- An **interactive proof system** for language L is an interactive protocol (P, V)
 - ▶ **completeness**: $x \in L \Rightarrow \Pr[V \text{ accepts in } (P, V)(x)] \geq \frac{2}{3}$
 - ▶ **soundness**: $x \notin L \Rightarrow \forall P^*, \Pr[V \text{ accepts in } (P^*, V)(x)] \leq \frac{1}{3}$
 - ▶ **efficiency**: V is p.p.t. machine

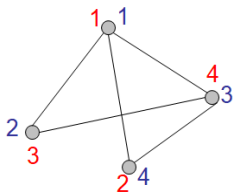
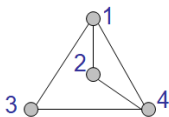


- $IP[k]$: languages that have k -round interactive proofs

Graph Isomorphism

Graphs $G_0 = (V, E_0)$ and $G_1 = (V, E_1)$ are **isomorphic** ($G_0 \approx G_1$) if exists a permutation $\Pi : V \rightarrow V$ for which

$$(x, y) \in E_0 \Leftrightarrow (\Pi(x), \Pi(y)) \in E_1$$



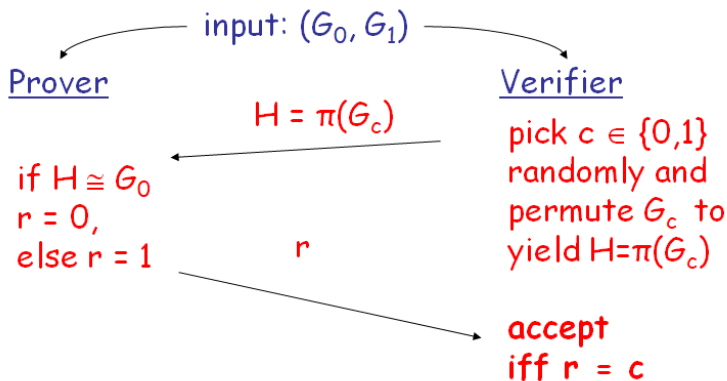
Graph (Non)isomorphism

- $GI = \{(G_0, G_1) : G_0 \approx G_1\}$ in NP not known to be in P , or NP -complete. Best algorithm takes $2^{O((\log n)^3)}$ time (2017).
- $GNI = \{(G_0, G_1) : G_0 \not\approx G_1\}$ not known to be in NP

Theorem 25

$GNI \in IP$.

indication IP may be more powerful than NP



- **Completeness:** If $G_0 \not\approx G_1$ then H is isomorphic to exactly one of (G_0, G_1) (honest) Prover will choose correct r . V accepts with prob=1.
- **Soundness:** If $G_0 \approx G_1$ then prover has no way of knowing whether H is the permutation of G_0 or G_1 . Any prover P^* can "succeed" (by tricking verifier to accept wrongly) with probability at most $\frac{1}{2}$.
- Repeat the above twice can lower the error prob to $\frac{1}{4}$.

Interactive Proof for GI

- As GI is in NP, a simple IP is for P to send the isomorphism to V . The solution, however, is not zero knowledge.
- Consider the following solution. Note that if $G_0 \approx G_1$ Prover P can find two random permutations γ_0 and γ_1 such that $\gamma_0(G_0) = H = \gamma_1(G_1)$, for some H . Thus, letting $\sigma = \gamma_1^{-1}\gamma_0$, $\sigma(G_0) = G_1$. Also note that $\gamma_0\sigma^{-1}(G_1) = H$.

Repeat the following k times.

Prover P

- (1) Let H be $\gamma_0(G_0)$; Send H to Verifier V .
- (3)
 - ▶ If $b = 0$, send $\gamma = \gamma_0$ to V ;
 - ▶ If $b = 1$, send $\gamma = \gamma_0\sigma^{-1}$ to V

Verifier V

- (2) Choose $b \in \{0, 1\}$ randomly; Send b to Prover P
- (4) Check $\gamma(G_b) = H$. If yes, accept; otherwise, reject.

-
- If $G_0 \approx G_1 \Rightarrow$ accept with prob. = 1
 - If $G_0 \not\approx G_1 \Rightarrow$ prob. of catching a mistake = $1 - (1/2)^k$.
 - Zero knowledge

Interactive Proof for GI

- If $G_0 \approx G_1$, H can be obtained using either $\gamma_0(G_0)$ or $\gamma_1(G_1)$.
- If $G_0 \not\approx G_1$, H can only be obtained using $\gamma_0(G_0)$.
- Chosen randomly, the $b \in \{0, 1\}$ Verifier sends to Prover is to “challenge” Prover to send the correct permutation using which H can be obtained from G_b .
- If $G_0 \approx G_1$, Prover can always send the correct permutation (γ_0 if $b = 0$, or $\gamma_0\sigma^{-1}$ if $b = 1$) to Verifier.
- If $G_0 \not\approx G_1$, Prover can send the correct permutation (i.e., γ_0) only if $b = 0$, as that is what H is obtained originally. If $b = 1$, Verifier will reject as whatever γ Prover sends, Verifier will not be able to obtain H from G_1 . As a result, with prob. = $1/2$ Verifier will catch a mistake.
- By repeating the interaction k times, if $G_0 \not\approx G_1$ the prob. of catching a mistake will be $1 - (1/2)^k$.

The Power of IP

Theorem 26

$IP = PSPACE$.

Zero Knowledge Interactive Proofs

- A Zero Knowledge interactive proof system for language L is an interactive protocol (P, V)
 - ▶ Completeness: $x \in L \Rightarrow Pr[V \text{ accepts in } (P, V)(x)] \geq \frac{2}{3}$
 - ▶ Soundness: $x \notin L \Rightarrow \forall P^*, Pr[V \text{ accepts in } (P^*, V)(x)] \leq \frac{1}{3}$
 - ▶ Efficiency: V is p.p.t. machine
 - ▶ **Zero Knowledge**: no efficient V^* learns anything more than validity of $x \in L?$.

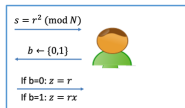
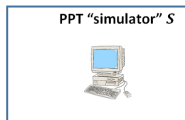
How to Define Zero Knowledge?

- After the interaction, V knows:
 - ▶ The theorem is true; and
 - ▶ A view of the interaction (= transcript + coins of V)
- P gives zero knowledge to V :
 - ▶ When the theorem is true, the view gives V nothing that he couldn't have obtained on his own without interacting with P .
- (P, V) is zero-knowledge if V can "simulate" (or "generate") his VIEW of the interaction all by himself in probabilistic ptime.



$sim_S:$
 (s, b, z)

$view_V(P, V):$
Transcript = (s, b, z) ,
Coins = b



Zero Knowledge Interactive Proof

Recall the Interactive proof for Graph Isomorphism.

- View of $V = \{(H, \text{coin}, \text{random isomorphism of } G_b \text{ to } H)\}$, i.e.,
 - ▶ $P \xrightarrow{H} V$
 - ▶ $V \xrightarrow{b} P$
 - ▶ $P \xrightarrow{\gamma} V$
- Simulator M : Toss coin
 - ▶ If coin=head, choose random γ_0 set $H = \gamma_0(G_0)$
 - ▶ If coin=tail, choose random γ_1 set $H = \gamma_1(G_1)$

Theorem 27

Every language in NP has a zero-knowledge interactive proof.