

## Lecture 30: Arthur-Merlin Games

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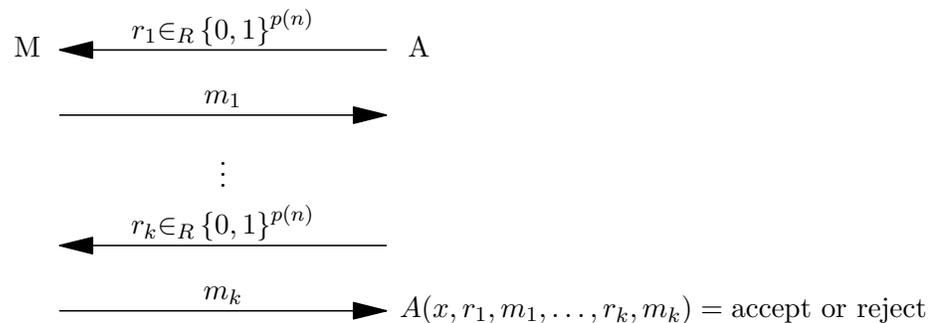
1 Remarks on  $\mathbf{P}^{\#\mathbf{P}} \subseteq \mathbf{IP}$  and  $\mathbf{IP} = \mathbf{PSPACE}$ 

- These constructions are based on specific complete problems and do not relativize.
- They provide interactive protocols with perfect completeness, hence a corollary of  $\mathbf{IP} = \mathbf{PSPACE}$  is that  $\mathbf{IP} = \mathbf{IP}$  with perfect completeness (a result known before  $\mathbf{IP} = \mathbf{PSPACE}$ ).
- They rely on no hidden randomness for the verifier (i.e. they are “public coin” interactive proofs).

## 2 Arthur-Merlin Games

## 2.1 Introduction

The final remark leads to the notion of *Arthur-Merlin games*—interactive proofs between a verifier (Arthur) and a prover (Merlin) in which the verifier’s messages are simply its random coin tosses:



A corollary to  $\mathbf{IP} = \mathbf{PSPACE}$  is that Arthur-Merlin games are as powerful as interactive proofs:

**Corollary 1 (Goldwasser, Sipser)**  $\mathbf{IP} = \{L \mid L \text{ has an Arthur-Merlin game}\}$

However, Arthur-Merlin games were developed by László Babai independently of Goldwasser, Micali, and Rackoff’s interactive proofs, and his motivations originated from complexity theory, whereas theirs from cryptography.

Another interpretation of Arthur-Merlin games is as randomized alternation. Consider that if we assume perfect completeness, then

$$\begin{aligned} x \in L &\Rightarrow \forall r_1 \exists m_1 \forall r_2 \cdots A(x, \bar{r}, \bar{m}) = \text{accept} \\ x \notin L &\Rightarrow \exists r_1 \forall m_1 \exists r_2 \cdots A(x, \bar{r}, \bar{m}) = \text{reject} \end{aligned}$$

But in fact the soundness condition is stronger, namely that

$$x \notin L \Rightarrow \exists^+ r_1 \forall m_1 \exists^+ r_2 \cdots A(x, \bar{r}, \bar{m}) = \text{reject}$$

where “ $\exists^+$ ” means “there exist many”/“for almost all.” A similar way of thinking about Arthur-Merlin games is as “games versus Nature”—Arthur representing random choices made by Nature, like the random shuffling of a deck in Solitaire (and Merlin, perhaps, the supernatural).

## 2.2 MA and AM

It is natural to treat the number of messages as a resources:

**Definition 2**  $\mathbf{AM}[k]$  is the class of languages that have Arthur-Merlin games in which  $k$  total messages are sent, beginning with Arthur. Likewise,  $\mathbf{MA}[k]$  is the class of languages with  $k$ -message Arthur-Merlin games in which Merlin begins.

We write  $\mathbf{AM}^+[k]$  for  $\mathbf{AM}[k]$  with perfect completeness. By the above casting of Arthur-Merlin games in terms of randomized alternation, it is immediate that  $\mathbf{AM}^+[k]$  and  $\mathbf{MA}^+[k]$  are contained in the polynomial hierarchy, for all  $k$ . But in fact, we will prove something much stronger.

**Definition 3** We write  $\mathbf{AM} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \mathbf{AM}[2] = \mathbf{AM}^+[2]$  and  $\mathbf{MA} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \mathbf{MA}[2] = \mathbf{MA}^+[2]$  (where the equalities giving perfect completeness are by Problem Set 6). In general, a string of  $\mathbf{A}$ s and  $\mathbf{M}$ s denotes an Arthur-Merlin game where a message is sent by the player corresponding to the first symbol, then by the player corresponding to the second symbol, etc. For example,  $\mathbf{AMAM} = \mathbf{AM}[4]$ . Note that  $\mathbf{AA} = \mathbf{A}$ ,  $\mathbf{MM} = \mathbf{M}$ , since separate messages sent on two successive rounds by the same player can be combined into one.

**Theorem 4**  $\forall k \geq 2 \mathbf{AM}[k] = \mathbf{AM}$

**Proof:** We start by showing that  $\mathbf{MA} \subseteq \mathbf{AM}$ . The basic idea is to simply swap the order of the messages in the exchange, but then also use amplification in order to reduce the verifier’s error rate to a sufficient extent that soundness still holds for the  $\mathbf{AM}$  game. Explicitly, suppose that  $m_1$  is the message sent by Merlin,  $r_1$  the random string sent by Arthur, and that the original  $\mathbf{MA}$  verifier  $A$  has two-sided error rate  $\epsilon = \epsilon(n)$  on inputs of length  $n$ . Then the following holds:

$$\begin{aligned} x \in \mathbf{L} &\Rightarrow \exists m_1 \Pr_{r_1}[A(x, m_1, r_1) = \text{accept}] \geq 1 - \epsilon \\ &\Rightarrow \Pr_{r_1}[\exists m_1 A(x, m_1, r_1) = \text{accept}] \geq 1 - \epsilon \\ x \notin \mathbf{L} &\Rightarrow \forall m_1 \Pr_{r_1}[A(x, m_1, r_1) = \text{accept}] \leq \epsilon \\ &\Rightarrow \Pr_{r_1}[\exists m_1 A(x, m_1, r_1) = \text{accept}] \leq 2^{|m_1|} \cdot \epsilon \end{aligned}$$

Since we can reduce  $A$ 's error rate to  $2^{-\Omega(q(n))}$  using amplification with polynomially many random strings  $\bar{r} = r_1, \dots, r_{q(n)}$  and having  $A$  rule by majority, can make  $\Pr_{\bar{r}}[\forall m_1 A(x, m_1, \bar{r}) = \text{reject}] \leq 2^{|m_1|} \cdot 2^{-\Omega(q(n))}$  exponentially small by taking  $q(n)$  to be a sufficiently large polynomial.

Now, to show that  $\forall k \geq 2 \mathbf{AM}[k] = \mathbf{AM}$  we can use the identity  $\mathbf{MAM} = \mathbf{AMM} = \mathbf{AM}$  and proceed by induction. ■

The following states that the Goldwasser–Sipser equivalence between private coins and public coins holds even when the number of rounds is constrained to be a constant:

**Theorem 5 (Goldwasser-Sipser)**  $\mathbf{IP}[k] \subseteq \mathbf{AM}[O(k)]$

**Corollary 6**  $\forall k \geq 2 \mathbf{IP}[k] = \mathbf{AM} \subseteq \Pi_2\mathbf{P}$

**Corollary 7**  $\text{GRAPH NONISOMORPHISM} \in \mathbf{AM}$

$\mathbf{AM}$  and  $\mathbf{MA}$  should be thought of as randomized analogues of  $\mathbf{NP}$ , and so unlikely to be much more powerful (e.g. like  $\mathbf{BPP}$  versus  $\mathbf{P}$ ). This is supported by the following fact:

**Theorem 8**  $\text{co-NP} \subseteq \mathbf{AM} \Rightarrow \mathbf{PH} = \mathbf{AM}$

**Proof:** It suffices to show that  $\Sigma_2\mathbf{P} \subseteq \mathbf{AM}$  (hence that  $\Sigma_2\mathbf{P} \subseteq \Pi_2\mathbf{P}$ , which in turn implies  $\mathbf{PH} = \Sigma_2\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{AM}$ ). Consider a  $\Sigma_2\mathbf{P}$  statement  $\exists x_1 \forall x_2 \varphi(x_1, x_2)$ . It has the  $\mathbf{MA}[3]$  game in which Merlin begins by sending  $x_1$ , after which the players engage in the  $\mathbf{AM}$  game for  $\forall x_2 \varphi(x_1, x_2)$  (which exists by assumption). But  $\mathbf{MAM} = \mathbf{AM}$ . ■

**Corollary 9** *If GRAPH ISOMORPHISM is NP-complete, then  $\mathbf{PH} = \mathbf{AM}$ .*

**Proof:** If the problem is  $\mathbf{NP}$ -complete, then GRAPH NONISOMORPHISM is  $\text{co-NP}$ -complete, thus  $\text{co-NP} \subseteq \mathbf{AM}$ . ■