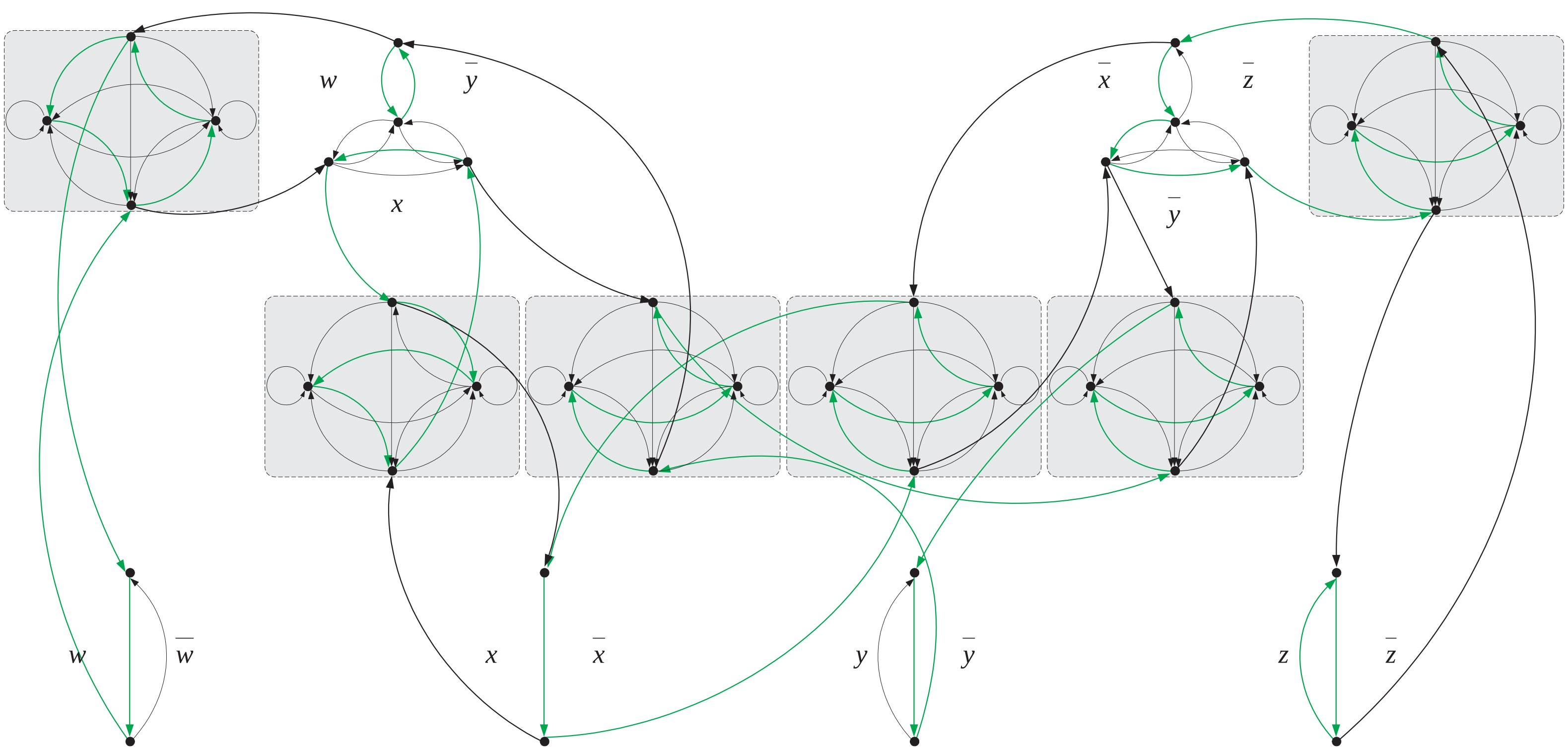
"$w = 1, x = 0, y = 0, z = 1$" Adds 4^6 to Cycle Count



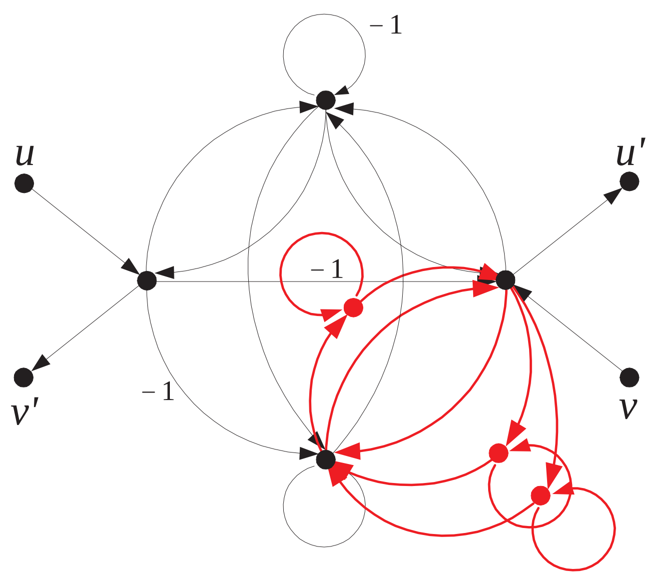
The Proof (continued)

- We are almost done.
- The weighted directed graph H needs to be *efficiently* replaced by some unweighted graph G.
- Furthermore, knowing $\#G$ should enable us to calculate $\#H$ *efficiently*.
  - This done, $\#\phi$ will have been Turing-reducible to $\#G$.[a]
- We proceed to construct this graph G.

[a] By way of $\#H$ of course.

The Proof: Construction of G (continued)

- Replace edges with weights 2 and 3 as follows (note that the graph cannot have parallel edges):



- The cycle count $\#H$ remains *unchanged*.

The Proof: Construction of G (continued)

- We move on to edges with weight -1.
- First, we count the number of nodes, M.
- Each clause gadget contains 4 nodes (p. 653), and there are m of them (one per clause).
- Each revised XOR gadget contains 7 nodes (p. 672), and there are $3m$ of them (one per literal).
- Each choice gadget contains 2 nodes (p. 664), and there are $n \leq 3m$ of them (one per variable).
- So

$$M \leq 4m + 21m + 6m = 31m.$$

The Proof: Construction of G (continued)

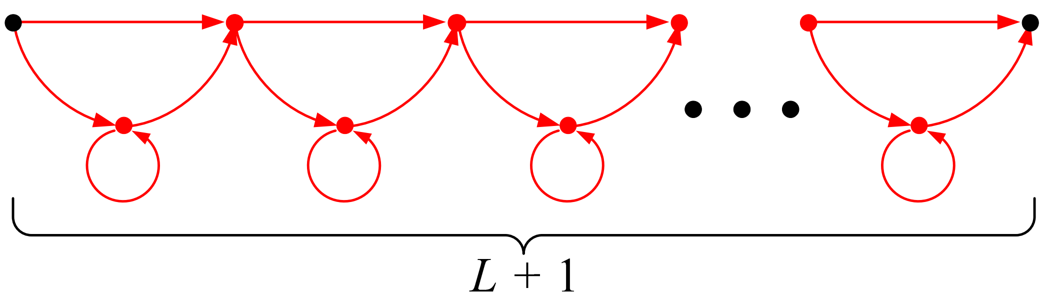
- $\#H \leq 2^L$ for some $L = O(m \log m)$.
  - The maximum absolute value of the edge weight is 1.
  - Hence each term in the permanent is at most 1.
  - There are $M! \leq (31m)!$ terms.
  - Hence

$$\begin{aligned} \#H &\leq \sqrt{2\pi(31m)} \left(\frac{31m}{e}\right)^{31m} e^{\frac{1}{12\times(31m)}} \\ &= 2^{O(m \log m)} \end{aligned} \tag{10}$$

    by a refined Stirling's formula.

The Proof: Construction of G (continued)

- Replace each edge with weight -1 with the following:



- Each increases the number of cycle covers 2^{L+1}-fold.
- The desired unweighted G has been obtained.

The Proof (continued)

- $\#G$ equals $\#H$ after replacing each appearance -1 in $\#H$ with 2^{L+1}:

$$\begin{aligned} \#H &= \cdots + \overbrace{(-1) \cdot 1 \cdots \cdot 1}^{\text{a cycle cover}} + \cdots, \\ \#G &= \cdots + \overbrace{2^{L+1} \cdot 1 \cdots \cdot 1}^{\text{a cycle cover}} + \cdots. \end{aligned}$$

- Let $\#G = \sum_{i=0}^{n} a_i \times (2^{L+1})^i$, where $0 \leq a_i < 2^{L+1}$.
- As $\#H \leq 2^L$ even if we replace -1 by 1 (p. 674), each a_i equals the number of cycle covers with i edges of weight -1.

The Proof (concluded)

- We conclude that

$$\#H = a_0 - a_1 + a_2 - \cdots + (-1)^n a_n,$$

indeed easily computable from $\#G$.

- We know $\#H = 4^{3m} \times \#\phi$ (p. 669).
- So

$$\#\phi = \frac{a_0 - a_1 + a_2 - \cdots + (-1)^n a_n}{4^{3m}}.$$

  - More succinctly,

$$\#\phi = \frac{\#G \bmod (2^{L+1} + 1)}{4^{3m}}.$$

Polynomial Space

PSPACE and Games

- Given a boolean expression ϕ in CNF with boolean variables $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n$, is it true that $\exists x_1 \forall x_2 \cdots Q_n x_n \phi$?
- This is called **quantified satisfiability** or QSAT.
- This problem is like a two-person game: $\exists$ and $\forall$ are the two players.
- We ask then is there a winning strategy for $\exists$?
- QSAT Is PSPACE-Complete[a]

[a]Stockmeyer and Meyer (1973).

IP and PSPACE

- We next prove that coNP $\subseteq$ IP.
- Shamir in 1990 proved that IP equals PSPACE using similar ideas (p. 709).

Interactive Proof for Boolean Unsatisfiability

- Like GRAPH NONISOMORPHISM (p. 538), it is not clear how to construct a short certificate for UNSAT.
- But with interaction and randomization, we shall present an interactive proof for UNSAT.
- A 3SAT formula is a conjunction of disjunctions of at most three literals.
- For any unsatisfiable 3SAT formula $\phi(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n)$, there is an interactive proof for the fact that it is unsatisfiable.
- Therefore, coNP $\subseteq$ IP.

Arithmetization of Boolean Formulas

The idea is to arithmetize the boolean formula.

- T $\rightarrow$ positive integer
- F $\rightarrow 0$
- $x_i \rightarrow x_i$
- $\neg x_i \rightarrow 1 - x_i$
- $\vee \rightarrow +$
- $\wedge \rightarrow \times$
- $\phi(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n) \rightarrow \Phi(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n)$

The Arithmetized Version

- A boolean formula is transformed into a multivariate polynomial Φ.
- It is easy to verify that ϕ is unsatisfiable if and only if

$$\sum_{x_1=0,1} \sum_{x_2=0,1} \cdots \sum_{x_n=0,1} \Phi(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n) = 0.$$

- But the above seems to require exponential time.
- We turn to more intricate methods.

Choosing the Field

- Suppose ϕ has m clauses of length three each.
- Then $\Phi(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n) \leq 3^m$ for any truth assignment $(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n)$.
- Because there are at most 2^n truth assignments,

$$\sum_{x_1=0,1} \sum_{x_2=0,1} \cdots \sum_{x_n=0,1} \Phi(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n) \leq 2^n 3^m.$$

Choosing the Field (concluded)

- By choosing a prime $q > 2^n 3^m$ and working modulo this prime, proving unsatisfiability reduces to proving that

$$\sum_{x_1=0,1} \sum_{x_2=0,1} \cdots \sum_{x_n=0,1} \Phi(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n) \equiv 0 \bmod q. \quad (11)$$

- Working under a *finite* field allows us to uniformly select a random element in the field.

Binding Peggy

- Peggy has to find a sequence of polynomials that satisfy a number of restrictions.
- The restrictions are imposed by Victor: After receiving a polynomial from Peggy, Victor sets a new restriction for the next polynomial in the sequence.
- These restrictions guarantee that if ϕ is unsatisfiable, such a sequence can always be found.
- However, if ϕ is not unsatisfiable, any Peggy has only a small probability of finding such a sequence.
  - The probability is taken over Victor's coin tosses.

The Algorithm

Peggy and Victor both arithmetize ϕ to obtain Φ;

Peggy picks a prime $q > 2^n 3^m$ and sends it to Victor;

Victor rejects and stops if q is not a prime;

Victor sets $v_0 = 0$;

for $i = 1, 2, \ldots, n$ **do**

  Peggy calculates $P_i^*(z) = \sum_{x_{i+1}=0,1} \cdots \sum_{x_n=0,1} \Phi(r_1, \ldots, r_{i-1}, z, x_{i+1}, \ldots, x_n)$;

  Peggy sends $P_i^*(z)$ to Victor;

  Victor rejects and stops if $P_i^*(0) + P_i^*(1) \not\equiv v_{i-1} \bmod q$ or $P_i^*(z)$'s degree exceeds m; {$P_i^*(z)$ has at most m clauses.}

  Victor uniformly picks $r_i \in Z_q$ and calculates $v_i = P_i^*(r_i)$;

  Victor sends r_i to Peggy;

end for

Victor accepts iff $\Phi(r_1, r_2, \ldots, r_n) \equiv v_n \bmod q$;

Comments

- The following invariant is maintained by the algorithm:

$$P_i^*(0) + P_i^*(1) \equiv P_{i-1}^*(r_{i-1}) \bmod q \tag{12}$$

  for $1 \leq i \leq n$.

  - $P_i^*(0) + P_i^*(1)$ equals $\sum_{x_i=0,1} \cdots \sum_{x_n=0,1} \Phi(r_1, \ldots, r_{i-1}, x_i, x_{i+1}, \ldots, x_n)$ modulo q.
  - The above equals $P_{i-1}^*(r_{i-1}) \bmod q$ by definition.

Comments (concluded)

- The computation of $v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n$ must rely on Peggy's supplied polynomials as Victor does not have the power to carry out the exponential-time calculations.
- But $\Phi(r_1, r_2, \ldots, r_n)$ in Step 12 is computed without relying on Peggy.

Completeness

- Suppose ϕ is unsatisfiable.
- For $i \geq 1$, by Eq. (12) on p. 688,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& P_i^*(0) + P_i^*(1) \\
= & \sum_{x_i=0,1} \sum_{x_{i+1}=0,1} \cdots \sum_{x_n=0,1} \Phi(r_1, \ldots, r_{i-1}, x_i, x_{i+1}, \ldots, x_n) \\
= & P_{i-1}^*(r_{i-1}) \\
\equiv & v_{i-1} \bmod q.
\end{aligned}
$$

Completeness (concluded)

- In particular at $i = 1$, because ϕ is unsatisfiable, we have

$$\begin{aligned} P_1^*(0) + P_1^*(1) &= \sum_{x_1=0,1} \cdots \sum_{x_n=0,1} \Phi(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \\ &\equiv v_0 \\ &= 0 \bmod q. \end{aligned}$$

- Finally, $v_n = P_n^*(r_n) = \Phi(r_1, r_2, \ldots, r_n)$.
- Because all the tests by Victor will pass, Victor will accept ϕ.

Soundness

- Suppose ϕ is not unsatisfiable.
- Victor will reject after an honest Peggy sends $P_1^*(z)$.
  - $P_1^*(z) = \sum_{x_2=0,1} \cdots \sum_{x_n=0,1} \Phi(z, x_2, \ldots, x_n)$.
  - So

$$\begin{aligned} & P_1^*(0) + P_1^*(1) \\ = & \sum_{x_1=0,1} \sum_{x_2=0,1} \cdots \sum_{x_n=0,1} \Phi(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n) \\ \not\equiv & \; 0 \bmod q \end{aligned}$$

    by Eq. (11) on p. 685.
  - But $v_0 = 0$.

Soundness (continued)

- We will show that if Peggy is dishonest in one round (by sending a polynomial other than $P_i^*(z)$), then with high probability she must be dishonest in the next round, too.
- In the last round (Step 12), her dishonesty is exposed.

Soundness (continued)

- Let $P_i(z)$ represent the polynomial sent by Peggy in place of $P_i^*(z)$.
- Victor calculates $v_i = P_i(r_i) \bmod p$.
- In order to deceive Victor in the next round, round $i+1$, Peggy must use $r_1, r_2, \ldots, r_i$ to find a $P_{i+1}(z)$ of degree at most m such that

$$P_{i+1}(0) + P_{i+1}(1) \equiv v_i \bmod q$$

(see Step 8 of the algorithm on p. 687).

- And so on to the end, except that Peggy has no control over Step 12.

A Key Claim

Lemma 88 *If* $P_i^*(0) + P_i^*(1) \not\equiv v_{i-1} \bmod q$*, then either Victor rejects in the ith round, or* $P_i^*(r_i) \not\equiv v_i \bmod q$ *with probability at least* $1 - (m/q)$*, where the probability is taken over Victor's choices of* r_i*.*

- Think of $P_i^*(r_i)$ as the v_i that Victor *should be* computing if Peggy were honest.
- But Victor actually calculates $P_i(z)$ as v_i (Peggy claims $P_i(z)$ is $P_i^*(z)$):

$$v_i = P_i(r_i) \bmod q.$$

- What Victor can do is to check for consistencies.

The Proof of Lemma 88 (continued)

- If Peggy sends a $P_i(z)$ which equals $P_i^*(z)$, then

$$P_i(0) + P_i(1) = P_i^*(0) + P_i^*(1) \not\equiv v_{i-1} \bmod q,$$

and Victor rejects immediately.

- Suppose Peggy sends a $P_i(z)$ different from $P_i^*(z)$.
- If $P_i(z)$ does not pass Victor's test

$$P_i(0) + P_i(1) \equiv v_{i-1} \bmod q? \tag{13}$$

then Victor rejects and we are done, too.

The Proof of Lemma 88 (concluded)

- Finally, assume $P_i(z)$ passes the test (13) on p. 696.
- $P_i(z) - P_i^*(z) \not\equiv 0$ is a polynomial of degree at most m.
- Hence equation $P_i(z) - P_i^*(z) \equiv 0 \bmod q$ has at most m roots $r \in Z_q$, i.e.,

$$P_i^*(r) \equiv P_i(r) \bmod q.$$

- Hence Victor will pick one of these as his r_i so that

$$P_i^*(r_i) \equiv P_i(r_i) \equiv v_i \bmod q$$

with probability at most m/q.

Soundness (continued)

- Suppose Victor does not reject in any of the first n rounds.
- As ϕ is not unsatisfiable,

$$P_1^*(0) + P_1^*(1) \not\equiv v_0 \bmod q.$$

- By Lemma 88 (p. 695) and the fact that Victor does not reject, we have $P_1^*(r_1) \not\equiv v_1 \bmod q$ with probability at least $1 - (m/q)$.
- Now by Eq. (12) on p. 688,

$$P_1^*(r_1) = P_2^*(0) + P_2^*(1) \not\equiv v_1 \bmod q.$$

Soundness (concluded)

- Iterating on this procedure, we eventually arrive at

$$P_n^*(r_n) \not\equiv v_n \bmod q$$

with probability at least $(1 - m/q)^n$.

- As $P_n^*(r_n) = \Phi(r_1, r_2, \ldots, r_n)$, Victor's last test at Step 12 fails and he rejects.

- Altogether, Victor rejects with probability at least

$$[\,1 - (m/q)\,]^n > 1 - (nm/q) > 2/3 \qquad (14)$$

because $q > 2^n 3^m$.

An Example

- $(x_1 \vee x_2 \vee x_3) \wedge (x_1 \vee \neg x_2 \vee \neg x_3)$.
- The above is satisfied by assigning true to x_1.
- The arithmetized formula is

  $$\Phi(x_1, x_2, x_3) = (x_1 + x_2 + x_3) \times [\, x_1 + (1 - x_2) + (1 - x_3)\,].$$

- Indeed, $\sum_{x_1=0,1} \sum_{x_2=0,1} \sum_{x_3=0,1} \Phi(x_1, x_2, x_3) = 16 \neq 0$.
- We have $n = 3$ and $m = 2$.
- A prime q that satisfies $q > 2^3 \times 3^2 = 72$ is 73.

An Example (continued)

- The table below is an execution of the algorithm in Z_{73} *when Peggy follows the protocol.*

i	$P_i^*(z)$	$P_i^*(0) + P_i^*(1)$	$= v_{i-1}$?	r_i	v_i
0					0
1	$4z^2 + 8z + 2$	16	no		

- Victor therefore rejects ϕ early on at $i = 1$.

An Example (continued)

- Now suppose Peggy does not follow the protocol.
- In order to deceive Victor, she comes up with fake polynomials $P_i(z)$ from $i = 1$.
- The table below is an execution of the algorithm.

i	$P_i(z)$	$P_i(0) + P_i(1)$	$= v_{i-1}$?	r_i	v_i
0					0
1	$8z^2 + 11z + 27$	0	yes	2	35
2	$z^2 + 8z + 13$	35	yes	3	46
3	$3z^2 + z + 21$	46	yes	r_3	$P_3(r_3)$

An Example (concluded)

- Victor has been satisfied up to round 3.
- Finally at Step 12, Victor checks if

$$\Phi(2, 3, r_3) \equiv P_3(r_3) \bmod 73.$$

- It can be verified that the only choices of $r_3 \in \{0, 1, \ldots, 72\}$ that can mislead Victor are 31 and 59.
- The probability of that happening is only $2/73$.[a]

[a] Ms. Ching-Ju Lin (R92922038) on January 7, 2004, pointed out an error in an earlier calculation.

An Example

- $(x_1 \vee x_2) \wedge (x_1 \vee \neg x_2) \wedge (\neg x_1 \vee x_2) \wedge (\neg x_1 \vee \neg x_2)$.
- The above is unsatisfiable.
- The arithmetized formula is

  $$\Phi(x_1, x_2) = (x_1 + x_2) \times (x_1 + 1 - x_2) \times (1 - x_1 + x_2) \times (2 - x_1 - x_2).$$

- Because $\Phi(x_1, x_2) = 0$ for any *boolean* assignment $\{0, 1\}^2$ to (x_1, x_2), certainly

  $$\sum_{x_1=0,1} \sum_{x_2=0,1} \Phi(x_1, x_2) = 0.$$

- With $n = 2$ and $m = 4$, a prime q that satisfies $q > 2^2 \times 3^4 = 4 \times 81 = 324$ is 331.

An Example (concluded)

- The table below is an execution of the algorithm in Z_{331}.

i	$P_i^*(z)$	$P_i^*(0) + P_i^*(1)$	$= v_{i-1}$?	r_i	v_i
0					0
1	$z(z+1)(1-z)(2-z)$ $+(z+1)z(2-z)(1-z)$	0	yes	10	283
2	$(10+z) \times (11-z)$ $\times(-9+z) \times (-8-z)$	283	yes	5	46

- Victor calculates $\Phi(10, 5) \equiv 46 \bmod 331$.
- As it equals $v_2 = 46$, Victor accepts ϕ as unsatisfiable.

Objections to the Soundness Proof?[a]

- Based on the steps required of a cheating Peggy on p. 694, why must we go through so many rounds (in fact, n rounds)?
- Why not just go directly to round n:
  - Victor sends $r_1, r_2, \ldots, r_{n-1}$ to Peggy.
  - Peggy returns with a (claimed) $P_n^*(z)$.
  - Victor accepts if and only if $\Phi(r_1, r_2, \ldots, r_{n-1}, r_n) \equiv P_n^*(r_n) \bmod q$ for a random $r_n \in Z_q$.

[a]Contributed by Ms. Emily Hou (D89011) and Mr. Pai-Hsuen Chen (R90008) on January 2, 2002.

Objections to the Soundness Proof? (continued)

- Let us analyze the compressed proposal when ϕ is satisfiable.
- To succeed in foiling Victor, Peggy must find a polynomial $P_n(z)$ of degree m such that

$$\Phi(r_1, r_2, \ldots, r_{n-1}, z) \equiv P_n(z) \bmod q.$$

- But this she is able to do: Just give the verifier the polynomial $\Phi(r_1, r_2, \ldots, r_{n-1}, z)$!
- What has happened?

Objections to the Soundness Proof? (concluded)

- You need the intermediate rounds to "tie" Peggy up with a chain of claims.
- In the original algorithm on p. 687, for example, $P_n(z)$ is bound by the equality $P_n(0) + P_n(1) \equiv v_{n-1} \bmod q$ in Step 8.
- That v_{n-1} is in turn derived by an earlier polynomial $P_{n-1}(z)$, which is in turn bound by $P_{n-1}(0) + P_{n-1}(1) \equiv v_{n-2} \bmod q$, and so on.

Shamir's Theorem[a]

Theorem 89 *IP = PSPACE.*

- We first sketch the proof for IP $\subseteq$ PSPACE.
- Without loss of generality, assume:
  - If $x \in L$, then the probability that x is accepted by the verifier is at least 3/4.
  - If $x \notin L$, then the probability that x is accepted by the verifier with *any* prover is at most 1/4.

[a]Shamir (1990).

The Proof (continued)

- Now we track down every possible message exchange based on random choices by the verifier and all possible messages generated by the prover.
- Use recursion to calculate

$$\text{prob}[\,\text{verifier accepts } x\,]$$

as

$$\max_P \text{prob}[\,(V, P) \text{ accepts } x\,].$$

- If this value is at least 3/4, then acce[t x; otherwise, reject x.

The Proof (continued)

- To prove PSPACE $\subseteq$ IP, we next prove that QSAT is in IP.
- We do so by describing an interactive protocol that decides QSAT.
- Suppose Alice and Bob are given

$$\begin{aligned}\phi &= \forall x \exists y (x \vee y) \wedge \forall z [\,(x \wedge z) \vee (y \wedge \neg z)\,] \\ &\quad \vee \exists w [\,z \vee (y \wedge \neg w)\,].\end{aligned}$$

- As above, we assume no occurrence of a variable is separated by more than one $\forall$ from its point of quantification.

Proof of Theorem (continued)

- We also assume that $\neg$ is applied only to variables, not subexpressions.
- We now arithmetize ϕ as before except:
  - 1 means true.
  - $\neg x \rightarrow 1 - x$.
    * It is the standard representation on p. 134.
  - $\exists x \rightarrow \sum_{x=0,1}$.
  - $\forall x \rightarrow \prod_{x=0,1}$.
- Alice tries to convince Bob that this arithmetization of ϕ is nonzero.

Proof of Theorem (continued)

- Our ϕ becomes

$$A_\phi = \prod_{x=0}^{1} \sum_{y=0}^{1} \{(x+y) \cdot \prod_{z=0}^{1} [(x \cdot z + y \cdot (1-z)) + \sum_{w=0}^{1} (z + y \cdot (1-w))]\}.$$

- Call it a $\sum - \prod$ expression.
- A_ϕ is a number; it equals 96 here.

Proof of Theorem (continued)

- As before, ϕ is true if and only if $A_\phi > 0$.
- In fact, more is true.
- For any ϕ and any truth assignment to its free variables:
  - If ϕ is true, then $A_\phi > 0$ under the corresponding 0-1 assignment.
  - If ϕ is false, then $A_\phi = 0$.
- So Alice only has to convince Bob that $A_\phi > 0$.

Proof of Theorem (continued)

- The trouble is that A_ϕ evaluated can be exponential in length.
- Fortunately, it can be shown that if expression A_ϕ of length n is nonzero, then there is a prime p between 2^n and 2^{3n} such that $A_\phi \neq 0 \bmod p$.
- So Alice only has to convince Bob that $A_\phi \neq 0$ under mod$p$.
- The protocol starts with Alice sending Bob p (assume $p = 13$) and its primality certificate.

Proof of Theorem (continued)

- Now Alice sends Bob $A_\phi \bmod p$, which is

$$\boldsymbol{a} = 96 \bmod 13 = 5.$$

- Each stage starts with the following:
  - A $\sum - \prod$ expression A, with a leading $\sum_x$ or $\prod_x$.
  - A's alleged value $a \bmod p$, supplied by Alice.
- If the first $\sum$ or $\prod$ is deleted, the result is a polynomial in x, called $A'(x)$.
- Bob demands from Alice the coefficients of $A'(x)$.
- Trouble occurs if the degree of $A'(x)$ is exponential in n.

Proof of Theorem (continued)

- Luckily, $\deg(A'(x)) \leq 2n$.
  - No occurrence of a variable is separated by more than one $\forall$ from its point of quantification.
  - So $A'(x)$ has only one $\prod$ symbol.
  - Other $\prod$s are over quantities not related to x, hence purely numerical.
  - Symbols other than $\prod$ can only increase the degree of $A'(x)$ by at most one $(x \cdot x \cdots)$.
  - For example, $\sum_y (x + y) \prod_z (x + \sum_w (x \cdot w))$.
- So Alice has no problem transmitting $A'(x)$ to Bob.

Proof of Theorem (continued)

- $A'(x) = 2x^2 + 8x + 6$.
- Bob verifies that $A'(0) \cdot A'(1) = 5 \bmod 13$.
- Indeed $A'(0) \cdot A'(1) = 6 \cdot 16 = 5 \bmod 13$.
- So far $A'(x)$ is consistent with the alleged value 5.
- Bob deletes the leading $\prod_x$.
- The *free variable* x in the resulting expression prevents it from being an evaluation problem.

Proof of Theorem (continued)

- So Bob replaces x with a random number $\bmod 13$, say 9:

$$\sum_{y=0}^{1} \left\{ (9+y) \cdot \prod_{z=0}^{1} \left[(9 \cdot z + y \cdot (1-z)) + \sum_{w=0}^{1} (z + y \cdot (1-w)) \right] \right\}.$$

- The above equals

$$\boldsymbol{a} = A'(9) = 2 \cdot 9^2 + 8 \cdot 9 + 6 = 6 \bmod 13.$$

- Bob sends 9 to Alice.

Proof of Theorem (continued)

- In the new stage, Alice evaluates

$$A'(y) = 2y^3 + y^2 + 3y$$

after substituting $x = 9$ and sends it to Bob.

- Bob checks that $A'(0) + A'(1) = 6 \bmod 13$.
- Indeed $0 + 6 = 6 \bmod 13$.
- Bob deletes the leading $\sum_y$.
- Bob replaces y with a random number mod13, say 3:

$$(9+3) \cdot \prod_{z=0}^{1} \left\{ [\, 9 \cdot z + 3 \cdot (1 - z) \,] + \sum_{w=0}^{1} [\, z + 3 \cdot (1 - w) \,] \right\}.$$

Proof of Theorem (continued)

- The above should equal
  $A'(3) = 2 \cdot 3^2 + 3^2 + 3 \cdot 3 = 7 \bmod 13.$
- So

$$A = \prod_{z=0}^{1} \{ [\, 9 \cdot z + 3 \cdot (1 - z) \,] + \sum_{w=0}^{1} [\, z + 3 \cdot (1 - w) \,] \}$$

  should equal

$$\boldsymbol{a} = 12^{-1} \cdot 7 = 12 \cdot 7 = 6 \bmod 13.$$

- Bob sends 3 to Alice.

Proof of Theorem (continued)

- In the new stage, Alice evaluates

$$A'(z) = 8z + 6$$

  after substituting $y = 3$ and sends it to Bob.

- Bob checks that $A'(0) \cdot A'(1) = 6 \bmod 13$.
- Indeed $6 \cdot 14 = 6 \bmod 13$.
- Bob deletes the leading $\prod_z$.
- Bob replaces z with a random number mod13, say 7:

$$[\, 9 \cdot 7 + 3 \cdot (1 - 7) \,] + \sum_{w=0}^{1} [\, 7 + 3 \cdot (1 - w) \,].$$

Proof of Theorem (continued)

- The above should equal $A'(7) = 8 \cdot 7 + 6 = 10 \bmod 13$.
- So
$$A = \sum_{w=0}^{1} [\, z + 3 \cdot (1 - w) \,] \tag{15}$$
should equal
$$\boldsymbol{a} = 10 - [\, 9 \cdot 7 + 3 \cdot (1 - 7) \,] = 10 - 45 = 4 \bmod 13.$$
- Bob sends 7 to Alice.

Proof of Theorem (continued)

- In the new stage, Alice evaluates

$$A'(w) = 10 - 3w$$

  after substituting $z = 7$ and sends it to Bob.

- Bob checks that $A'(0) + A'(1) = 4 \bmod 13$.
- Indeed $10 + 7 = 4 \bmod 13$.
- Now there are no more $\sum$s and $\prod$s.
- Bob checks if $A'(w)$ is indeed as claimed by using (15) with $z = 7$.
- It is, and Bob accepts $A_\phi \neq 0 \bmod 13$.

Proof of Theorem (continued)

- Clearly, if $A_\phi > 0$, the protocol convinces Bob of this.
- We next show that if $A_\phi = 0$, then Bob will be cheated with only negligible probability.

Lemma 90 *Suppose* $A_\phi = 0$ *and Alice claims a nonzero value* $\boldsymbol{a}$. *Then with probability* $\geq (1 - \frac{2n}{2^n})^{i-1}$, *the value of* $\boldsymbol{a}$ *claimed at the* i*th stage is wrong.*