

# CS70 HW 6

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## 1 Polynomial Practice

- (a) Say function  $f$  degree is  $d_f$ , function  $g$  is  $d_g$ .
- (i) at least 0, at most  $\max\{d_f, d_g\}$ . Because  $0 \leq \text{degree}(f + g) \leq \max\{d_f, d_g\}$ .
  - (ii) at least 0, at most  $d_f + d_g$ . Because  $0 \leq \text{degree}(f \cdot g) \leq d_f + d_g$ .
  - (iii) at least 0, at most  $d_f - d_g$ . Because  $0 \leq \text{degree}(f/g) \leq d_f - d_g$ .
- (b) (i)  $0 \leq \text{degree}(f \cdot g) \leq d_f + d_g$ . Therefore,  $d_f + d_g = 0 \implies d_f = 0 \vee d_g = 0$ .  
Thus either  $f = 0$  or  $g = 0$ .

**Didn't see the GF(p) in the question.**

we can construct  $f(x) = x^{p-1} - 1$  and  $g(x) = x$ , in which  $f(x) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$  except  $x = 0$ , and  $g(x) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$  when  $x = 0$ , thus  $f \cdot g \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$  in all range.

Or proof by contradiction.

*Proof.* Say  $f \neq 0 \wedge g \neq 0$ , then  $f * g \neq 0$ , which contradicts to  $f * g = 0$ .  $\square$

- (ii) By Fermat's little theorem, for any  $x \in \{0, 1, \dots, p-1\}$ ,  $x^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$  if  $GF(p)$ . Any degree  $y \geq p$  can be expressed  $x^y \equiv x^a \pmod{p}$  where  $a \in \{0, 1, \dots, p-1\}$ .
- (iii)  $d$  degree needs  $d + 1$  points to interpolate.  
now  $(0, a)$  is fixed  $\implies$  needs  $d$  points.  
All points have  $p$  choices  $\implies p^d$  number of polynomials.

- (c) Given three points, we can def  $p(x) = ax^2 + bx + c$  and have equations:

$$\begin{aligned}c &= 1 \\4a + 2b + c &= 2 \\16a + 4b + c &= 0\end{aligned}$$

Solving there equations, we have  $c = 1, a = -3/8, b = 5/4$ . Therefore,  $g(x) = \frac{-3}{8}x^2 + \frac{5}{4}x + 1$ .

And for polynomials that degree is greater than 2, there are 5 choices for degree 3,  $5^2 = 25$  choices for degree 4.

Thus in total : 31 polynomials.

in total:25. The degree 4 situation includes degree 3.

## 2 The CRT and Lagrange Interpolation

- (a) Since  $a_2 = 0$ , so  $x$  is multiple of  $n_2$ , aka  $x = kn_2$ . But from  $x \equiv a_1 \pmod{n_1}$  and  $x * x^{-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n_1}$ , we can construct  $x_1 = kn_2 * (kn_2)^{-1} = n_2 * (n_2)^{-1} \pmod{n_1}$ . Similarly, for  $a_1 = 0, a_2 = 1$ , we can construct  $x_2 = n_1 * (n_1)^{-1} \pmod{n_2}$ .

- (b) For any  $a$  and  $b$ , we can use the solution from part (a), to obtain  $X = ax_1 + bx_2$ . Therefore, there is at least one solution.

For uniqueness, take  $x_1 = n_2 * (n_2)^{-1} \pmod{n_1}$  for example, since  $\gcd(n_1, n_2) = 1$ , so the  $(n_2)^{-1}$  is unique and make  $x_1$  is unique  $\pmod{n_1}$  also.  $x_2$  is unique as the same reason.

- (c) *Proof.* Proof by Induction on the number of the equation  $k$ .

*Base Case:* When  $k = 1, x \equiv a_1 \pmod{n_1}$ , obviously  $x$  exists and is unique.

*Induction Hypothesis:* Assume when  $k = m$ , the equation holds and the result  $x_m \equiv a_m \pmod{n_m}$ .

*Induction Step:* Use the part b, we know there is a unique solution of the equation

$$\begin{aligned} x_m &\equiv a_m \pmod{n_m} \\ x_{m+1} &\equiv a_{m+1} \pmod{n_{m+1}} \end{aligned}$$

so proof is done. □

- (d) For integer  $a, b, a = b * Q + R$  and  $a \equiv R \pmod{q}$ .

To mimic such relation,  $P(x) = q(x) * Q(x) + R(x)$  and  $P(x) \equiv R(x) \pmod{q(x)}$ .

To compute  $p(x) \pmod{(x-1)}$ , say  $p(x) = a_0 + a_1x + \dots + a_kx^k$ . For  $x^n$ , we can express it as  $((x-1) + 1)^n$ , which is  $\equiv 1 \pmod{x-1}$ . So  $p(x) \equiv \sum_{i=0}^k a_i \pmod{x-1}$ .

- (e) Given CRT still holds when replacing  $x, a_i$  and  $n_i$  with polynomials, now we just need to prove that  $(x - x_i)$  are coprime when  $x_i$  are pairwise distinct.

*Proof.* Proof by contradiction.

Say  $(x - x_i)$  and  $(x - x_k)$  are not coprime when  $x_i \neq x_k$ . By the definition of coprime in polynomial, there is a degree 1 polynomial, i.e  $(x - a)$  dividing both. Since  $(x - x_i)$  is degree 1, if it's divided by  $(x - a)$ ,  $a$  must be  $x_i$ . It's also same when  $(x - x_k)$ , so  $a$  must be  $x_k$ . So  $x_i = x_k$ , which contradicts to  $x_i \neq x_k$ . So  $(x - x_i)$  are coprime.  $\square$

The relation with Lagrange interpolation: the solution is exactly the way of Lagrange interpolation construction. Since in points interpolation,  $x_i$  are pairwise distinct, so the solution is consistent and unique.

### 3 Old secrets, new secrets

The answer is simple, joke on his information of  $(1, P(1))$ , say give his friends  $(1, P(1)')$  where  $P(1)' \neq P(1)$ . Since there is unique polynomial each with  $n$  points with  $(1, P(1))$  and  $(1, P(1)')$ , the former one will get original secret  $s$ , while the latter one will get  $s'$  where  $s' \neq s$ .

### 4 Berlekamp-Welch for General Errors

(a) Degree of  $E(x)$ : 1;

Degree of  $Q(x)$ : 3;

$E(x) = x - b$ .  $Q(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + a_3x^3$ . And have the equation:

$$a_0 + -3(-b) = 0$$

$$a_0 + a_1 + a_2 + a_3 - 7(1 - b) = 0$$

$$a_0 + 2a_1 + 4a_2 + 8a_3 - 0(2 - b) = 0$$

$$a_0 + 3a_1 + 9a_2 + 27a_3 - 2(3 - b) = 0$$

$$a_0 + 4a_1 + 16a_2 + 64a_3 - 10(4 - b) = 0$$

(b) Solving the equation, we have  $(a_0, a_1, a_2, a_3, b) = (8, 5, 6, 3, 1)$ ; So  $Q(x) = 8 + 5x + 6x^2 + 3x^3$ ,  $E(x) = x - 1$ . So the first message is wrong.

(c)  $P(x) = Q(x)/E(x) = 3x^2 + 9x + 3$ . So  $P(1) = 15 \equiv 4 \pmod{11}$ .  $P(1) = E$ . Original message DEACK.

### 5 Error-Detecting Codes

Since it's detecting not correcting, the number of symbols needed is  $n + 1$ , aka one more symbol to tell if there is an error occurring. There are two cases:

- (i) No error. Then the polynomial interpolated by the first  $n$  symbols is consistent on the  $(n + 1)$ th point.
- (ii) There are errors. Then the  $(n + 1)$ th point is inconsistent on the polynomial no matter how many errors occurs.

Now we show that any number lesser  $n + 1$  is not gonna work. Say, we send  $n$  symbols, then we don't know whether errors had occurred since there is only one polynomial. Any symbol lesser  $n$  is impossible since there are  $n$  symbol needed to send.

Solution: Here I just consider when it loses only one symbol, thus making answer be  $n + 1$ . But when errors is greater than 1, it can construct a counter example, which leads the  $(n+1)$ th point is also consistent on the polynomial interpolated by the first  $n$  symbols.

Thus the correct answer is  $n + k$ . Still consider the polynomial interpolated by the first  $n$  symbols, aka  $(x_1, P(x_1)), \dots, (x_n, P(x_n))$  and also sends extra  $k$  points, from  $n + 1$  to  $n + k$ . Now we prove by cases:

- (i) If there are no errors, then the points from  $n + 1$  to  $n + k$  are all consistent by the  $h$  polynomial.  $h$  polynomials are interpolated by the received first  $n$  points.
- (ii) If there is an error, we prove that there are some points in the range  $(n + 1, n + k)$  inconsistent. If these  $K$  error are all in the  $(n + 1, n + k)$ , then it's obviously true. In other case, if some errors occur in the range  $(1, n)$ , meaning there are some true uncorrupted in the range  $(n + 1, n + k)$ , thus  $h$  polynomial won't agree on that true point.

And for any number lesser than  $n + k$ , the reason is same as the mistake I made. There is still possibility that all points are consistent using the error points.