



Lagrange bases in subgroups of \mathbb{F}_p^* : a hands-on introduction

Aragon Research - Math Seminar Note #1

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This seminar note aims to provide an easy to follow introduction to Lagrange bases in the particular context of subgroups of \mathbb{F}_p^ . Readers are encouraged to redo some of the examples by hand.*

1 Setting and Motivation

We are in the field \mathbb{F}_p where p is prime. The element $\omega \neq 0$ is a generator of order n of a multiplicative subgroup H of \mathbb{F}_p^* . Obviously, n divides $p-1$, which is the order of \mathbb{F}_p^* , and we have:

$$H = \{1, \omega, \omega^2, \dots, \omega^{n-1}\} \quad (1)$$

We seek to represent a polynomial $P(x)$ over H that takes a set of predefined values v_i over the elements of H . In other words, given a set $V = \{v_0, v_1, \dots, v_{n-1}\}$, we seek a polynomial P such that:

$$\forall \omega^i \in H, P(\omega^i) = v_i \quad (2)$$

Lagrange polynomials L_i provide an easy way to do this. The desired P is simply expressed as:

$$P(x) = v_0 L_0(x) + v_1 L_1(x) + \dots + v_{n-1} L_{n-1}(x) \quad (3)$$

Lagrange polynomials, also called Lagrange bases, provide an alternative and useful approach to polynomials: instead of defining them by their coefficients, they are defined by their values. Lagrange polynomials have recently been used in the construction of a popular zk-SNARK scheme called PLONK [1].

2 Definitions

The Lagrange polynomials on H are a set of polynomials L_i defined for $0 \leq i < n - 1$ as follows:

$$\forall x \in H, \quad L_i(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } x = \omega^i \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

It should be clear that we can write $L_i(x)$ as:

$$L_i(x) = \alpha_i \prod_{\substack{j=0 \\ j \neq i}}^{n-1} (x - \omega^j) \quad (5)$$

It is also useful to define the polynomial $L(x)$ which has roots at exactly all the element of H :

$$L(x) = \prod_{j=0}^{n-1} (x - \omega^j) \quad (6)$$

Our principal aim is to show that:

$$L(x) = x^n - 1 \quad (7)$$

and that:

$$L_i(x) = \frac{\omega^i}{n} \cdot \frac{x^n - 1}{x - \omega^i} = \frac{1}{n} \cdot \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \omega^{-ik} x^k \quad (8)$$

2.1 Example 1

We place ourselves in \mathbb{F}_3^* , with $\omega = 2$, $H = \{1, 2\}$ and therefore $n = 2$. The two Lagrange polynomials in this case can be written:

$$\begin{aligned} L_0(x) &= a_0(x-2) \\ L_1(x) &= a_1(x-1) \end{aligned} \tag{9}$$

As a result, and remembering that we are computing modulo 3, we find that:

$$\begin{aligned} L_0(1) &= a_0(1-2) = 2a_0 = 1 \implies a_0 = 2 = 1/2 \\ L_1(2) &= a_1(2-1) = 1a_1 = 1 \implies a_1 = 1 = 2/2 \end{aligned} \tag{10}$$

Now let's compute $L(x)$, noting that we have $2 = -1$ in modulo 3:

$$\begin{aligned} L(x) &= (x-1)(x-2) \\ &= x^2 - x(1+2) + 1 \cdot 2 \\ &= x^2 - 3x + 2 \\ &= x^2 - 1 \end{aligned} \tag{11}$$

2.2 Example 2

We place ourselves in \mathbb{F}_7^* , with $\omega = 2$, $H = \{1, 2, 4\}$ and therefore $n = 3$. The three Lagrange polynomials in this case can be written:

$$\begin{aligned} L_0(x) &= a_0(x-2)(x-4) \\ L_1(x) &= a_1(x-1)(x-4) \\ L_2(x) &= a_2(x-1)(x-2) \end{aligned} \tag{12}$$

As a result, and remembering that we are computing modulo 7, we find:

$$\begin{aligned} L_0(1) &= a_0(1-2)(1-4) = 3a_0 = 1 \implies a_0 = 5 = 1/3 \\ L_1(2) &= a_1(2-1)(2-4) = 5a_1 = 1 \implies a_1 = 3 = 2/3 \\ L_2(4) &= a_2(4-1)(4-2) = 6a_2 = 1 \implies a_2 = 6 = 4/3 \end{aligned} \tag{13}$$

Now let's compute $L(x)$:

$$\begin{aligned} L(x) &= (x-1)(x-2)(x-4) \\ &= x^3 - x^2(1+2+4) + x(1 \cdot 2 + 1 \cdot 4 + 2 \cdot 4) - 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 4 \\ &= x^3 - 7x^2 + 14x - 8 \\ &= x^3 - 1 \end{aligned} \tag{14}$$

3 More Definitions

We assume that p and ω are fixed, and therefore also n . We define I to be the set containing all n integers between 0 and $n - 1$.

$$I = \{0, 1, \dots, n - 1\} \quad (15)$$

For $i \in I$, we define I_i as the set of all integers between 0 and $n - 1$, with the exception of i .

$$I_i = \{0, 1, \dots, n - 1\} \setminus \{i\} \quad (16)$$

For $0 < k \leq n - 1$, We define $C(k)$ as the set of all strictly increasing sequences of length k contained in I^k .

$$C(k) = \{\{j_1, \dots, j_k\} \in I^k : j_1 < \dots < j_k\} \quad (17)$$

Clearly, $C(k)$ represents the number of k -element subsets of I , and $|C(k)| = \binom{n}{k}$. We similarly define $C_i(k)$ as the set of all strictly increasing sequences of length k contained in I_i^k .

$$C_i(k) = \{\{j_1, \dots, j_k\} \in I_i^k : j_1 < \dots < j_k\} \quad (18)$$

We can now define the following sums over elements of $C(k)$ and $C_i(k)$, with $k > 0$:

$$S(k) = \sum_{\vec{j} \in C(k)} \omega^{j_1 + \dots + j_k} \quad (19)$$

$$S_i(k) = \sum_{\vec{j} \in C_i(k)} \omega^{j_1 + \dots + j_k} \quad (20)$$

Finally, it is useful to define these sums for $k = 0$ as follows:

$$S(0) = S_i(0) = 1 \quad (21)$$

Note that in all the above definitions, n is considered as fixed. If necessary the sets/sums defined above could be denoted more explicitly as $I(n)$, $I_i(n)$, $C(k, n)$, $C_i(k, n)$, $S(k, n)$ and $S_i(k, n)$.

3.1 Example 3

Let's assume our subgroup is of order 5. This would be the case if we took $\omega = 3$ in \mathbb{F}_{11}^* , with $\{1, \omega, \omega^2, \omega^3, \omega^4\} = \{1, 3, 9, 5, 4\}$. The polynomial $L(x)$ can be written as:

$$\begin{aligned} L(x) &= (x - \omega^0)(x - \omega^1)(x - \omega^2)(x - \omega^3)(x - \omega^4) \\ &= a_5x^5 + a_4x^4 + a_3x^3 + a_2x^2 + a_1x + a_0 \end{aligned} \quad (22)$$

The coefficients of this polynomial are:

$$\begin{aligned} a_5 &= 1 \\ &= (-1)^0 \cdot S(0) \\ a_4 &= -(\omega^0 + \omega^1 + \omega^2 + \omega^3 + \omega^4) \\ &= (-1)^1 \cdot S(1) \\ a_3 &= \omega^0\omega^1 + \omega^0\omega^2 + \omega^0\omega^3 + \omega^0\omega^4 + \omega^1\omega^2 \\ &\quad + \omega^1\omega^3 + \omega^1\omega^4 + \omega^2\omega^3 + \omega^2\omega^4 + \omega^3\omega^4 \\ &= (-1)^2 \cdot S(2) = 2 \cdot (\omega^0 + \omega^1 + \omega^2 + \omega^3 + \omega^4) \\ a_2 &= -(\omega^0\omega^1\omega^2 + \omega^0\omega^1\omega^3 + \omega^0\omega^1\omega^4 + \omega^0\omega^2\omega^3 + \omega^0\omega^2\omega^4 \\ &\quad + \omega^0\omega^3\omega^4 + \omega^1\omega^2\omega^3 + \omega^1\omega^2\omega^4 + \omega^1\omega^3\omega^4 + \omega^2\omega^3\omega^4) \\ &= (-1)^3 \cdot S(3) = -2 \cdot (\omega^0 + \omega^1 + \omega^2 + \omega^3 + \omega^4) \\ a_1 &= \omega^0\omega^1\omega^2\omega^3 + \omega^0\omega^1\omega^2\omega^4 + \omega^0\omega^1\omega^3\omega^4 \\ &\quad + \omega^0\omega^2\omega^3\omega^4 + \omega^1\omega^2\omega^3\omega^4 \\ &= (-1)^4 \cdot S(4) = \omega^0 + \omega^1 + \omega^2 + \omega^3 + \omega^4 \\ a_0 &= -\omega^0\omega^1\omega^2\omega^3\omega^4 \\ &= (-1)^5 \cdot S(5) \end{aligned} \quad (23)$$

Note that a_4 is a sum of $5 = \binom{5}{1}$ elements, a_3 a sum of $10 = \binom{5}{2}$ elements etc.

Also note that, because $\omega^5 = \omega^0 = 1$, we have:

$$\begin{aligned} \omega \cdot a_4 &= \omega \cdot (\omega^0 + \omega^1 + \omega^2 + \omega^3 + \omega^4) \\ &= \omega^1 + \omega^2 + \omega^3 + \omega^4 + \omega^0 \\ &= a_4 \end{aligned} \quad (24)$$

Now $\omega \cdot a_4 = a_4$ implies $a_4 = 0$ because $\omega \neq 0$. As a result, it is clear that $a_1 = a_2 = a_3 = a_4 = 0$. As to a_0 , we have:

$$a_0 = -\omega^{0+1+2+3+4} = -\omega^{10} = -1 \quad (25)$$

This conforms to our expectation that:

$$L(x) = x^5 - 1 \quad (26)$$

3.2 Example 4

In the same setting as the preceding example, with $n = 5$, the Lagrange polynomial $L_3(x)$ can be written as:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{L_3(x)}{\alpha_3} &= (x - \omega^0)(x - \omega^1)(x - \omega^2)(x - \omega^4) \\ &= b_4x^4 + b_3x^3 + b_2x^2 + b_1x + b_0 \end{aligned} \quad (27)$$

The coefficients of this polynomial are:

$$\begin{aligned} b_4 &= 1 \\ &= (-1)^0 \cdot S_3(0) \\ b_3 &= -(\omega^0 + \omega^1 + \omega^2 + \omega^4) \\ &= (-1)^1 \cdot S_3(1) = \omega^3 \\ b_2 &= \omega^0\omega^1 + \omega^0\omega^2 + \omega^0\omega^4 + \omega^1\omega^2 + \omega^1\omega^4 + \omega^2\omega^4 \\ &= (-1)^2 \cdot S_3(2) = \omega \\ b_1 &= -(\omega^0\omega^1\omega^2 + \omega^0\omega^1\omega^4 + \omega^0\omega^2\omega^4 + \omega^1\omega^2\omega^4) \\ &= (-1)^3 \cdot S_3(3) = \omega^4 \\ b_0 &= \omega^0\omega^1\omega^2\omega^4 \\ &= (-1)^4 \cdot S_3(4) = \omega^2 \end{aligned} \quad (28)$$

Therefore:

$$\frac{L_3(x)}{\alpha_3} = x^4 + \omega^3x^3 + \omega x^2 + \omega^4x + \omega^2 \quad (29)$$

By definition, $L_3(\omega^3) = 1$. Plugging this in the above equation, we obtain:

$$\frac{L_3(\omega^3)}{\alpha_3} = \frac{1}{\alpha_3} = 5\omega^2 \implies \alpha_3 = \frac{1}{5\omega^2} = \frac{\omega^3}{5} \quad (30)$$

So finally:

$$L_3(x) = \frac{\omega^3}{5} \cdot \frac{x^5 - 1}{x - \omega^3} = \frac{1}{5} \cdot (\omega^3 x^4 + \omega x^3 + \omega^4 x^2 + \omega^2 x + 1) \quad (31)$$

4 Explicit representations of $L(x)$ and $L_i(x)$

By now it should be clear that we can write $L(x)$ and $L_i(x)$ as:

$$L(x) = \prod_{k=0}^{n-1} (x - \omega^k) = \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^{n-k} S(n-k) x^k \quad (32)$$

$$\frac{L_i(x)}{\alpha_i} = \prod_{\substack{j=0 \\ j \neq i}}^{n-1} (x - \omega^j) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (-1)^{n-1-k} S_i(n-1-k) x^k \quad (33)$$

4.1 Values of $S(k)$ and $S_i(k)$ for $0 < k < n$

We want to show that for $0 < k < n$, we have:

$$S(k) = 0 \quad (34)$$

$$S_i(k) = (-1)^k \omega^{ik}$$

We proceed by induction.

We have $S(1) = \omega^0 + \omega^1 + \dots + \omega^{n-1} = 0$ because $\omega \cdot S(1) = S(1)$. We also have $S_i(1) = S(1) - \omega^i = -\omega^i$. The relation therefore holds for $k = 1$.

Let us now express $S(k)$ in n different ways:

$$\begin{aligned} S(k) &= \omega^0 S_0(k-1) + S_0(k) \\ &= \omega^1 S_1(k-1) + S_1(k) \\ &= \dots \\ &= \omega^{n-1} S_{n-1}(k-1) + S_{n-1}(k) \end{aligned} \quad (35)$$

Adding all of these up, we obtain:

$$\begin{aligned} nS(k) &= \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \omega^i S_i(k-1) + \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} S_i(k) \\ &= A(k) + B(k) \end{aligned} \quad (36)$$

By the induction hypothesis, we have $S_i(k-1) = (-1)^{k-1} \omega^{i(k-1)}$ and therefore:

$$A(k) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \omega^i (-1)^{k-1} \omega^{i(k-1)} = (-1)^{k-1} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \omega^{ik} \quad (37)$$

Notice that $\omega^k A(k) = A(k)$ and therefore $A(k) = 0$.

As to $B(k)$, it has to be a multiple of $S(k)$. To see why, take an arbitrary term $\omega^{j_1 + \dots + j_k}$ of $S(k)$. This term cannot appear in any of the k sums $S_{j_1}(k)$, $S_{j_2}(k) \dots S_{j_k}(k)$, but will appear in all of the $n - k$ other groups. Therefore $B(k) = (n - k)S(k)$.

A second way to look at this is by invoking symmetry. Taking some arbitrary term of $S(k)$, it will appear in $B(k)$ a certain number of times. There is no reason why one term would appear more or less often than another, meaning they all appear with the same frequency. As $nS(k)$ has $n \binom{n}{k}$ terms and $B(k)$ has $n \binom{n-1}{k}$ terms, we again conclude that $B(k) = (n - k)S(k)$. As a result:

$$\begin{aligned} nS(k) &= A(k) + B(k) = 0 + (n - k)S(k) \\ \implies kS(k) &= 0 \\ \implies S(k) &= 0 \end{aligned} \quad (38)$$

We now use this fact to determine the value of $S_i(k)$.

$$\begin{aligned} S(k) &= \omega^i S_i(k-1) + S_i(k) = 0 \\ \implies S_i(k) &= -\omega^i S_i(k-1) \end{aligned} \quad (39)$$

Again using the induction hypothesis, we obtain:

$$S_i(k) = -\omega^i (-1)^{k-1} \omega^{i(k-1)} = (-1)^k \omega^{ik} \quad (40)$$

This completes the proof.

4.2 An example

Let's take the example of $S(2)$ with $n = 4$:

$$\begin{aligned}
S(2) &= \omega^0\omega^1 + \omega^0\omega^2 + \omega^0\omega^3 + \omega^1\omega^2 + \omega^1\omega^3 + \omega^2\omega^3 \\
&= \omega^0(\omega^1 + \omega^2 + \omega^3) + (\omega^1\omega^2 + \omega^1\omega^3 + \omega^2\omega^3) = \omega^0 S_0(1) + S_0(2) \\
&= \omega^1(\omega^0 + \omega^2 + \omega^3) + (\omega^0\omega^2 + \omega^0\omega^3 + \omega^2\omega^3) = \omega^1 S_1(1) + S_1(2) \\
&= \omega^2(\omega^0 + \omega^1 + \omega^3) + (\omega^0\omega^1 + \omega^0\omega^3 + \omega^1\omega^3) = \omega^2 S_2(1) + S_2(2) \\
&= \omega^3(\omega^0 + \omega^1 + \omega^2) + (\omega^0\omega^1 + \omega^0\omega^2 + \omega^1\omega^2) = \omega^3 S_3(1) + S_3(2)
\end{aligned} \tag{41}$$

So we can write $4S(2) = A(2) + B(2)$, with:

$$\begin{aligned}
A(2) &= \omega^0 S_0(1) + \omega^1 S_1(1) + \omega^1 S_1(1) + \omega^2 S_2(1) + \omega^3 S_3(1) \\
B(2) &= S_0(2) + S_1(2) + S_2(2) + S_3(2)
\end{aligned} \tag{42}$$

Remembering that $0 = \omega^0 + \omega^1 + \omega^2 + \omega^3 \implies \omega^1 + \omega^2 + \omega^3 = -\omega^0$ etc:

$$\begin{aligned}
A(2) &= \omega^0(-\omega^0) + \omega^1(-\omega^1) + \omega^2(-\omega^2) + \omega^3(-\omega^3) \\
&= -2(\omega^0 + \omega^2) \\
&= 0
\end{aligned} \tag{43}$$

Now note that every term of $S(2)$ appears in $B(2)$ exactly twice, which means that $B(2) = 2S(2)$.

$$4S(2) = A(2) + B(2) = 0 + 2S(2) \implies S(2) = 0 \tag{44}$$

Finally, we find $S_0(2) = S_2(2) = \omega^0 = 1$ and $S_1(2) = S_3(2) = \omega^2 = -1$.

4.3 The value of $S(n)$

We have $S(n) = \omega^0\omega^1\ldots\omega^{n-1}$ and therefore $S(n) = \omega^{0+1+\ldots+(n-1)} = \omega^{n(n-1)/2}$.

When n is even, we can write $n = 2m$ and $S(n) = \omega^{m(2m-1)} = \omega^{-m} = \omega^m = -1$. To see why $\omega^m = -1$, note that $\omega^m(1 + \omega^m) = 1 + \omega^m$.

When n is odd, we can write $n = 2m + 1$ and thus $S(n) = \omega^{nm} = 1$.

We can therefore write:

$$S(n) = (-1)^{n+1} \tag{45}$$

4.4 The formula for $L(x)$

Now that we know the formula for $S(n)$, we can apply this to $L(x)$:

$$\begin{aligned}
L(x) &= \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^{n-k} S(n-k) x^k \\
&= (-1)^n S(n) + \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} (-1)^{n-k} S(n-k) x^k + S(0) x^n \\
&= (-1)^n (-1)^{n+1} + 0 + 1 \cdot x^n \\
&= -1 + x^n
\end{aligned} \tag{46}$$

As a result, we have:

$$L(x) = \prod_{k=0}^{n-1} (x - \omega^k) = x^n - 1 \tag{47}$$

4.5 The value of α_i

Now that we know $S_i(k)$, we can write:

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{L_i(x)}{\alpha_i} &= \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (-1)^{n-1-k} S_i(n-1-k) x^k \\
&= \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (-1)^{n-1-k} (-1)^{n-1-k} \omega^{i(n-1-k)} x^k \\
&= \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \omega^{-i(k+1)} x^k
\end{aligned} \tag{48}$$

By definition, $L_i(\omega^i) = 1$, so we can write:

$$\frac{L_i(\omega^i)}{\alpha_i} = \frac{1}{\alpha_i} = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \omega^{-i(k+1)} \omega^{ik} = n \cdot \omega^{-i} \tag{49}$$

So we finally have $\alpha_i = \omega^i / n$.

4.6 The formula for $L_i(x)$

Now that we have α_i , we can restate

$$L_i(\omega^i) = \frac{\omega^i}{n} \cdot \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \omega^{-i(k+1)} x^k = \frac{1}{n} \cdot \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \omega^{-ik} x^k \quad (50)$$

Final formula:

$$\begin{aligned} L_i(x) &= \frac{\omega^i}{n} \cdot \prod_{\substack{j=0 \\ j \neq i}}^{n-1} (x - \omega^j) \\ &= \frac{\omega^i}{n} \cdot \frac{x^n - 1}{x - \omega^i} \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \cdot \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \omega^{-ik} x^k \end{aligned} \quad (51)$$

References

- [1] Ariel Gabizon, Zachary J. Williamson, and Oana Ciobotaru. PLONK: permutations over lagrange-bases for oecumenical noninteractive arguments of knowledge. *IACR Cryptol. ePrint Arch.*, page 953, 2019.