Noisy Interpolating Sets for Low-Degree Polynomials

Zeev Dvir* Amir Shpilka†

Received: September 4, 2009; published: February 12, 2011.

Abstract: A Noisy Interpolating Set (NIS) for degree-$d$ polynomials is a set $S \subseteq \mathbb{F}^n$, where $\mathbb{F}$ is a finite field, such that any degree-$d$ polynomial $q \in \mathbb{F}[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ can be efficiently interpolated from its values on $S$, even if an adversary corrupts a constant fraction of the values. In this paper we construct an explicit NIS for every field $\mathbb{F}_p$ of prime order $p$ and any degree $d$. Our sets are of size $O(n^d)$ and have efficient interpolation algorithms that can recover $q$ in the presence of a fraction $\exp(-\Omega(d))$ of errors.

Our construction is based on a theorem which roughly states that if $S$ is a NIS for degree-1 polynomials then $d \cdot S = \{a_1 + \cdots + a_d \mid a_i \in S\}$ is a NIS for degree-$d$ polynomials. Furthermore, given an efficient interpolation algorithm for $S$, we show how to use it in a black-box manner to build an efficient interpolation algorithm for $d \cdot S$.

As a corollary we obtain an explicit family of punctured Reed-Muller codes (codes that are restrictions of a Reed-Muller code to a subset of the coordinates) which are good codes and have an efficient decoding algorithm against a constant fraction of errors. To the best of our knowledge, even the existence of punctured Reed-Muller codes that are good codes was not previously known.

ACM Classification: F.2.2

AMS Classification: 68P30, 68Q25

Key words and phrases: polynomial interpolation, error-correcting codes

---

*Research supported by Binational Science Foundation (BSF) grant, by Israel Science Foundation (ISF) grant and by Minerva Foundation grant.

†Research partially supported by the Israel Science Foundation (grant number 339/10).
1 Introduction

An interpolating set for degree-$d$ polynomials is a set of points $S \subseteq \mathbb{F}^n$ such that if $q(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ is a degree-$d$ polynomial over $\mathbb{F}$ and we are given the set of values $(q(s))_{s \in S}$ then we can reconstruct $q$. That is, we can find all the coefficients of $q$. A set $S$ is a noisy interpolating set for degree-$d$ polynomials if we can reconstruct $q$ even if an adversary corrupts an $\epsilon$ fraction of the values in $(q(s))_{s \in S}$. It is not difficult to prove that a random set of size $O(n^d)$ is a noisy interpolating set. In this paper we study the problem of giving an explicit construction of a small noisy interpolating set for degree-$d$ polynomials that has an efficient interpolation algorithm against a constant fraction of errors. Besides being a very natural problem, this question is related to two other interesting problems: giving explicit constructions of punctured Reed-Muller codes that are good codes and the problem of constructing pseudorandom generators against low-degree polynomials. Before stating our results we describe the connection to these two problems.

Reed-Muller codes are an important family of error-correcting codes. They are obtained by evaluating low-degree polynomials on all possible inputs taken from a finite field $\mathbb{F}$. More precisely, in the code $RM(n, d)$ the messages correspond to polynomials $q(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ over $\mathbb{F}$ of total degree $d$, and the encoding is the vector of evaluations $(q(\alpha))_{\alpha \in \mathbb{F}^n}$. The well-known Hadamard code, obtained from evaluating linear functions, is the code $RM(n, 1)$. (For more information on Reed-Muller codes see [10].) Although Reed-Muller codes are not good codes (they do not have constant rate) they play an important role both in practice and in theory. For example Reed-Muller codes were used in the early proofs of the PCP theorem [2, 1], in constructions of pseudorandom generators [3, 7, 12] and extractors [13, 11], and more. It is thus an important goal to better understand these codes and their properties.

A puncturing of a code is the operation of throwing away some of the coordinates of every codeword. For example, every binary linear code (without repeated coordinates) is a punctured Hadamard code. In particular, a punctured Reed-Muller code is a mapping that sends a degree-$d$ polynomial $q$ to its vector of values on some subset $S \subseteq \mathbb{F}^n$. As Reed-Muller codes are not good codes themselves, it is an interesting question to find a puncturing that yields good codes. As before, it is not difficult to see that a random subset of $\mathbb{F}^n$ of size $O(n^d)$ gives a good punctured Reed-Muller code. An even more interesting question is to find a puncturing that yields good codes that have efficient encoding and decoding algorithms. (For a random $S$ we don’t have an efficient decoding algorithm.) It is not hard to see that $S$ is a noisy interpolating set (that has an efficient interpolation algorithm) if and only if the mapping $q \rightarrow (q(\bar{\alpha}))_{\alpha \in S}$ is a code of linear minimal distance (that has an efficient decoding algorithm). Our noisy interpolating sets are of size $O(n^d)$ and therefore they give a construction of good punctured Reed-Muller codes that can be decoded efficiently. To the best of our knowledge no such construction was known prior to our result.

Another problem that is related to our results is the problem of constructing pseudorandom generators for low-degree polynomials. A mapping $G : \mathbb{F}^s \rightarrow \mathbb{F}^n$ is an $\epsilon$-Pseudorandom Generator (PRG) against degree-$d$ polynomials if it fools every degree $d$ polynomial in $n$ variables. That is, the two distributions $(q(U_n))$, where $U_n$ is chosen uniformly from $\mathbb{F}^n$, and $q(G(U_s))$, where $U_s$ is chosen uniformly from $\mathbb{F}^s$, have statistical distance at most $\epsilon$, for every degree-$d$ polynomial $q$. PRGs and low-degree polynomials have many application in theoretical computer science, and so it is an important question to give explicit constructions of PRGs for low degree polynomials, that have good parameters (i.e., $s$ as small as possible).
For the case of degree-1 polynomials, it is not hard to see that any noisy interpolating set implies a PRG and vice versa. That is, if \( G : \mathbb{F}^s \to \mathbb{F}^m \) is a PRG for polynomials of degree 1 then the image of \( G \) is a noisy interpolating set. Similarly if \( S \subseteq \mathbb{F}^m \) is a noisy interpolating set for degree-1 polynomials then any one to one mapping whose image is \( S \) is a PRG for such polynomials. For larger values of \( d \) there is no such strong correspondence between PRGs and noisy interpolating sets. As before, given a PRG we get a noisy interpolating set (without an obvious efficient interpolation algorithm), however it is not clear how to get a PRG from a noisy interpolating set. Constructions of PRGs against low degree polynomials over very large fields were given in [5] using tools from algebraic geometry. Independently from our work, Viola [14], building on the works of [6, 9], showed (over any field) that if \( S \subseteq \mathbb{F}^m \) is a proper NIS we can treat it as a subset obtained from the results for fields of prime order.

In the next section we consider two types of noisy interpolating sets. The first one allows for repetition of points. That is, we allow \( S \) to be a multiset. This corresponds to repeating coordinates in an error-correcting code. In the second variant (proper NIS) we do not allow such repetitions, and require \( S \) to be a simple set (and not a multiset). This is what allows us to get punctured Reed-Muller codes. For each of these types we prove a composition theorem, saying that the sumset of a NIS for degree-1 polynomials is a NIS for higher-degree polynomials. (The non-multiset version of this theorem requires no such repetitions, and in particular did not give an efficient interpolation algorithm. One can view our work as saying that the construction analyzed in [6, 9, 14] with respect to minimal distance also has an efficient decoding algorithm.

In the next section we consider two types of noisy interpolating sets. The first one allows for repetition of points. That is, we allow \( S \) to be a multiset. This corresponds to repeating coordinates in an error-correcting code. In the second variant (proper NIS) we do not allow such repetitions, and require \( S \) to be a simple set (and not a multiset). This is what allows us to get punctured Reed-Muller codes.

### 1.1 Our results

In the following \( \mathbb{F} \) will always denote a finite field of prime order.\(^1\) We denote by \( \mathbb{F}[x_1, \ldots, x_n] \) the space of all polynomials in the variables \( x_1, \ldots, x_n \) with coefficients in \( \mathbb{F} \). We also denote by \( \mathbb{F}_d[x_1, \ldots, x_n] \) the set of all polynomials of degree \( \leq d \) in \( \mathbb{F}[x_1, \ldots, x_n] \). Since we are interested in polynomials only as functions over \( \mathbb{F}^m \) we will assume in the following that the individual degree of each variable is smaller than \( p = |\mathbb{F}| \). This is without loss of generality since for every \( a \in \mathbb{F} \) we have \( a^p = a \). For example, over \( \mathbb{F}_2 \), the field of two elements, we will only consider multilinear polynomials. We denote the Hamming distance between two strings \( x \) and \( y \) as \( \text{dist}(x, y) \).

**Definition 1.1** (Noisy Interpolating Set (NIS)). Let \( S = (a_1, \ldots, a_m) \in (\mathbb{F}_d)^m \) be a list of points (not necessarily distinct) in \( \mathbb{F}^m \). We say that \( S \) is an \((n, d, \varepsilon)\)-Noisy Interpolating Set (NIS) if there exists an algorithm \( A_S \) such that for every \( q \in \mathbb{F}_d[x_1, \ldots, x_n] \) and for every vector \( e = (e_1, \ldots, e_m) \in \mathbb{F}^m \) such that

\[
|\{i \in [m] \mid e_i \neq 0\}| \leq \varepsilon \cdot m,
\]

the algorithm \( A_S \), when given as input the list of values \( (q(a_1) + e_1, \ldots, q(a_m) + e_m) \), outputs the polynomial \( q \) (as a list of its coefficients). We say that \( S \) is a proper NIS if the points \( a_1, \ldots, a_m \) are distinct. If \( S \) is a proper NIS we can treat it as a subset \( S \subseteq \mathbb{F}^m \).

\(^1\)It is possible to extend our results to other finite fields (see Section 5); however, it requires more notation and can easily be obtained from the results for fields of prime order.
Let $S = \left( S^{(n)} \right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ be a sequence such that for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ we have that $S^{(n)}$ is an $(n, d, \varepsilon)$-NIS $(d$ and $\varepsilon$ are fixed for all $n$). We say that $S$ has an efficient interpolation algorithm if there exists a polynomial time algorithm $M(n, L)$ that takes as input an integer $n$ and a list $L$ of values in $\mathbb{F}$ such that the restriction $M(n, \cdot)$ has the same behavior as the algorithm $A_{S^{(n)}}$ described above (in places where there is no risk of confusion we will omit the superscript $(n)$ and simply say that $S$ has an efficient interpolation algorithm).

1.1.1 Multiset NIS

Our first theorem shows how to use a NIS for degree-1 polynomials in order to create a NIS for higher-degree polynomials. In order to state the theorem we need the following notation. For two lists $S = (a_1, \ldots, a_n) \in (\mathbb{F}^n)^m$ and $T = (b_1, \ldots, b_s) \in (\mathbb{F}^n)^\ell$ we define the sum $S \oplus T$ to be the list

$$(a_i + b_j)_{i \in [n], j \in [\ell]} \in (\mathbb{F}^n)^{m \cdot \ell}.$$

The reason for the notation is to make a clear distinction between sets and multi-sets. In particular we shall use the notation $S + T$ to denote set addition. That is, for two sets $S$ and $T$ we define

$$S + T = \{ s + t \mid s \in S, t \in T \}.$$

**Theorem 1.2.** Let $0 < \varepsilon_1 < 1/2$ be a real number. Let $S_1$ be an $(n, 1, \varepsilon_1)$-NIS and for each $d > 1$ let $S_d = S_{d-1} \oplus S_1$. Then for every $d > 1$ the set $S_d$ is an $(n, d, \varepsilon_d)$-NIS with $\varepsilon_d = (\varepsilon_1/2)^d$. Moreover, if $S_1$ has an efficient interpolation algorithm, then so does $S_d$.

Combining Theorem 1.2 with known constructions of error-correcting codes (in order to define $S_1$) we get the following corollary:

**Corollary 1.3.** For every field $\mathbb{F}$ of prime order and for every $d > 0$, there exists an $\varepsilon > 0$ and a family $S = \left( S^{(n)} \right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ such that for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $S^{(n)}$ is an $(n, d, \varepsilon)$-NIS, and such that $S$ has an efficient interpolation algorithm. Moreover, for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$ we have $\left| S^{(n)} \right| = O(n^d)$ and it is possible to generate the set $S^{(n)}$ in time $\text{poly}(n)$.

1.1.2 Proper NIS

We are able to prove an analog of Theorem 1.2 for proper NIS. We would like to show that if $S_1$ is a proper $(n, 1, \varepsilon_1)$-NIS then the sets $S_d = S_{d-1} \oplus S_1$ (this time we use the operation of set addition) are proper $(n, d, \varepsilon_d)$-NISs. To show this we will require the initial set $S_1$ to satisfy a certain natural condition on the intersections of different ‘shifts’ of the sets $S_{d-1}$. Roughly speaking, this condition will guarantee that there is no small set of errors in $S_d = S_{d-1} \oplus S_1$ that has a large intersection with many shifts of $S_{d-1}$ (one can see from the proof of Theorem 1.2 why this is useful). The operation of set addition is defined as follows: Let $A$ and $B$ be two subsets of $\mathbb{F}^n$. We define $A + B = \{ a + b \mid a \in A, b \in B \}$. For an element $c \in \mathbb{F}^n$ and for a subset $A \subseteq \mathbb{F}^n$ we denote $A + c = \{ a + c \mid a \in A \}$.

\[^2\text{Instead of a list one can have a multi-set in mind, however it is slightly easier to describe and prove our results using the notion of lists.}\]
Definition 1.4 (Condition\(^3\) \(\star k\)). Let \(S \subseteq \mathbb{F}^n\). Let \(S_0 = \{0\}\) and for each \(d \geq 1\) let \(S_d = S_{d-1} + S\). Let \(k > 0\) be an integer. For \(x \in S_d\) we let \(N_d(x) = |\{b \in S \mid x \in S_{d-1} + b\}|\). We say that \(S\) satisfies condition \(\star k\) if for every \(0 < d \leq k\) we have

\[|\{x \in S_d \mid N_d(x) > d\}| \leq |S_{d-2}|.\]

We are now ready to state the analog of Theorem 1.2 for proper NISs.

Theorem 1.5. Let \(0 < \varepsilon_1 < 1/2\) be a real number and let \(k > 0\) an integer. There exists a constant \(C_0\), depending only on \(\varepsilon_1\) and \(k\), such that for all \(n > C_0\) the following holds: Let \(S_1\) be a proper \((n, 1, \varepsilon_1)\)-NIS and for each \(d > 1\) let \(S_d = S_{d-1} + S_1\). Suppose \(S_1\) satisfies condition \(\star k\). Then, for every \(1 < d \leq k\) the set \(S_d\) is a (proper) \((n, d, \varepsilon_d)\)-NIS with

\[\varepsilon_d = \frac{1}{d!} \left(\frac{\varepsilon_1}{3}\right)^d.\]

Moreover, if \(S_1\) has an efficient interpolation algorithm, then so does \(S_d\).

As before, combining Theorem 1.5 with known constructions of error-correcting codes gives the following corollary:

Corollary 1.6. For every field \(\mathbb{F}\) of prime order and for every \(d > 0\), there exists an \(\varepsilon > 0\) and a family \(S = (S^{(n)})_{n \in \mathbb{N}}\) such that for every \(n \in \mathbb{N}\), \(S^{(n)}\) is a proper \((n, d, \varepsilon)\)-NIS with an efficient interpolation algorithm. Moreover, for each \(n \in \mathbb{N}\) we have \(|S^{(n)}| = O(n^d)\) and it is possible to generate the set \(S^{(n)}\) in time \(\text{poly}(n)\).

It is easy to see that any \((n, d, \varepsilon)\)-proper NIS induces a puncturing of the Reed-Muller code \(\text{RM}(n, d)\) that has an efficient decoding from a fraction \(\varepsilon\) of errors. (We keep the coordinates of the RM-code corresponding to the points in the NIS.) The following corollary is therefore immediate. (See Section 2.2 for the definition of a good family of codes.)

Corollary 1.7. For every field \(\mathbb{F}\) of prime order and for every \(d > 0\), there exists an \(\varepsilon > 0\) and a family \(\{C_n\}\) of good codes such that \(C_n\) is a punctured \(\text{RM}(n, d)\)-code. Furthermore, the family \(\{C_n\}\) has an efficient encoding and decoding algorithms from a constant fraction of errors.

1.2 Organization

In Section 2 we give preliminary results that we will use in the rest of the paper. In Section 3 we prove Theorem 1.2 and Corollary 1.3. In Section 4, we prove Theorem 1.5 and Corollary 1.6. Section 5 contains a sketch of an argument showing how to extend our results from fields of prime order to any finite field. Section 6 describes a construction of a family of error-correcting codes with certain special properties that is used in Section 4.

\(^3\)Pronounced “Star k.”
2 Preliminaries

Let \( q \in \mathbb{F}[x_1, \ldots, x_n] \) be a polynomial. We denote by \( \deg(q) \) the total degree of \( q \). The \( i \)-th homogeneous part of \( q \) is the sum of all monomials in \( q \) of degree \( i \), and is denoted with \( q_i \). We denote \( q_{\leq i} = \sum_{j=0}^{i} q_j \).

We now give some useful facts and definitions regarding partial derivatives of polynomials and error-correcting codes.

2.1 Partial and directional derivatives

In this section we define partial and directional derivatives of polynomials over finite fields and discuss some of their properties.

We start by defining the partial derivatives of a monomial. Let \( M(x) = x_1^{c_1} \cdots x_n^{c_n} \) be a monomial in \( n \) variables so that \( c_i \geq 0 \) for all \( i \). The partial derivative of \( M(x) \) with respect to \( x_i \) is zero if \( c_i = 0 \) and

\[
\frac{\partial M}{\partial x_i}(x) = c_i x_1^{c_1-1} \cdots x_i^{c_i-1} \cdots x_n^{c_n}
\]

if \( c_i > 0 \). The definition extends to general polynomials by linearity. It is easy to verify that if \( \deg(q) = d \) then all of the partial derivatives of \( q \) are of degree at most \( d - 1 \). Also, since we assume that the individual degrees are smaller than the characteristic of the field we have that \( \frac{\partial q}{\partial x_i}(x) \equiv 0 \) iff \( x_i \) does not appear in \( q(x) \). We denote by

\[
\Delta_q(x) = \left( \frac{\partial q}{\partial x_1}(x), \ldots, \frac{\partial q}{\partial x_n}(x) \right)
\]

the partial derivative vector of \( q \). The directional derivative of a polynomial \( q \in \mathbb{F}[x_1, \ldots, x_n] \) in direction \( a \in \mathbb{F}^n \) is denoted by \( \partial_q(x, a) \) and is defined as

\[
\partial_q(x, a) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i \cdot \frac{\partial q}{\partial x_i}(x).
\]

That is, \( \partial_q(x, a) \) is the inner product of \( a \) and \( \Delta_q(x) \).

The following lemma gives a more “geometric” view of the partial derivatives of \( q \) by connecting them to difference of \( q \) along certain directions.

Lemma 2.1. Let \( q \in \mathbb{F}_d[x_1, \ldots, x_n] \) and let \( q_d \) be its homogeneous part of degree \( d \). Let \( a, b \in \mathbb{F}^n \). Then

\[
q(x + a) - q(x + b) = \partial_{q_d}(x, a - b) + E(x),
\]

where \( \deg(E) \leq d - 2 \) (we use the convention that \( \deg(0) = -\infty \)). That is, the directional derivative of \( q_d \) in direction \( a - b \) is given by the homogeneous part of degree \( d - 1 \) in the difference \( q(x + a) - q(x + b) \).

Proof. It is enough to prove the lemma for the case that \( q \) is a monomial of degree \( d \). The result will then follow from linearity and from the fact that the derivatives of all monomials in \( q \) of degree smaller than
When we start with the basic definitions of error-correcting codes. Let $\text{deg} E \leq d$ be a monomial of degree $d$. We observe that the expression $M(x + a)$ can be written as

$$M(x + a) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} (x_i + a_i)^{c_i} = M(x) + \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i \frac{\partial M}{\partial x_i}(x) + E_1(x),$$

where $\text{deg}(E_1) \leq d - 2$. Now, subtracting $M(x + b)$ from $M(x + a)$, the term $M(x)$ cancels out and we are left with the desired expression.

The next easy lemma shows that a homogeneous polynomial $q$ can be reconstructed from its partial derivatives.

**Lemma 2.2.** Let $q \in \mathbb{F}_d[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ be a homogeneous polynomial of degree at least 1. Given the vector of partial derivatives $\Delta_q(x)$, it is possible to reconstruct $q$ in polynomial time.

**Proof.** We go over all monomials of degree $\leq d$ and find out the coefficient they have in $q$ using the following method. For a monomial $M$ let $i$ be the first index such that $x_i$ appears in the monomial $M$ with positive degree. Consider $\frac{\partial q}{\partial x_i}(x)$ and check whether the coefficient of the derivative of that monomial is zero or not. For example, if we want to “decode” the monomial $x_1^5 \cdot x_2^3$ we will look at the coefficient of $x_1^5 \cdot x_2^3$ in $\frac{\partial q}{\partial x_i}(x)$. To get the coefficient in $q$ we have to divide it by the degree of $x_i$ in the monomial, that is by 5 (remember that the individual degrees are smaller than $p = |\mathbb{F}| = \text{char}(\mathbb{F}))$. \hfill \Box

### 2.2 Error-correcting codes

We start with the basic definitions of error-correcting codes. Let $\mathbb{F}$ be a field and let $E : \mathbb{F}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{F}^m$. Denote by $C = E(\mathbb{F}^m)$ the image of $E$. Then $C$ is called an $[m, n, k]$-code if for any two codewords $E(v), E(u) \in C$, where $u \neq v$, we have that $\text{dist}(E(u), E(v)) \geq k$ (“dist” denotes the Hamming distance). We refer to $m$ as the block length of $C$ and to $k$ as the minimal distance of $C$. We denote by $R = n/m$ the relative rate of $C$ and by $\delta = k/m$ the relative minimal distance of $C$, and say that $C$ is an $[R, \delta]$-code. When $E$ is a linear mapping we say that $C$ is a linear code and call the $m \times n$ matrix computing $E$ the generator matrix of $C$. A map $D : \mathbb{F}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{F}^m$ can correct $t$ errors (with respect to $E$) if for any $v \in \mathbb{F}^m$ and any $w \in \mathbb{F}^m$ such that $\text{dist}(E(v), w) \leq t$ we have that $D(w) = v$. Such a $D$ is called a decoding algorithm for $C$.

A family of codes $\{C_i\}$, where $C_i$ is an $[R_i, \delta_i]$-code of block length $m_i$, has constant rate if there exists a constant $R > 0$ such that for all codes in the family it holds that $R_i \geq R$. The family has a linear distance if there exists a constant $\delta > 0$ such that for all codes in the family we have $\delta_i \geq \delta$. In such a case we say that the family is a family of $[R, \delta]$-codes. If a family of codes as above has $\lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} m_i = \infty$, a constant rate and a linear minimal distance then we say that the family is a family of good codes and that the codes in the family are good. Similarly, we say that the family of codes has a decoding algorithm for a fraction $\tau$ of errors if for each $C_i$ there is a decoding algorithm $D_i$ that can correct a $\tau$ fraction of errors.

When $C$ is a linear code we define the dual of $C$ in the following way:

$$C^\perp \triangleq \{ y \in \mathbb{F}^m : \forall x \in C \langle y, x \rangle = 0 \}.$$
**Lemma 2.3.** Let \( C \) be an \([m,n,k]\)-code over \( \mathbb{F} \) such that \( C \) has an efficient decoding algorithm that can correct an \( \alpha \) fraction of errors. For \( i \in [m] \) let \( a_i \in \mathbb{F}^n \) be the \( i \)-th row of the generator matrix of \( C \). Then,

1. Let \( S^0 = (a_1, \ldots, a_m, \bar{0}, \ldots, \bar{0}) \in (\mathbb{F}^n)^{2m} \). Then \( S^0 \) is an \((n, 1, \alpha/2)\)-NIS with an efficient interpolation algorithm.

2. Let \( S = (a_1, \ldots, a_m) \in (\mathbb{F}^n)^m \) and suppose that the maximal Hamming weight of a codeword in \( C \) is smaller than \((1 - 2\alpha) \cdot m\). Then \( S \) is an \((n, 1, \alpha)\)-NIS with an efficient interpolation algorithm.

*Proof.*

1. Let \( q \) be a degree-1 polynomial. The interpolation algorithm for \( S^0 \) will work as follows: we first look at the values of \( q(x) \) on the last \( m \) points (the zeros). The majority of these values will be \( q(0) \) which will give us the constant term in \( q \). Let \( q_1(x) = q(x) - q(0) \) be the linear part of \( q \). Subtracting \( q(0) \) from the values in the first \( m \) coordinates we reduce ourselves to the problem of recovering the homogeneous linear function \( q_1 \) from its values on \((a_1, \ldots, a_m)\) with at most \( \alpha \cdot m \) errors. This task is achieved using the decoding algorithm for \( C \), since the vector \((q_1(a_1), \ldots, q_1(a_m))\) is just the encoding of the vector of coefficients of \( q_1 \) with the code \( C \).

2. Here we cannot decipher the constant term of \( q(x) \) so easily. Let \((v_1, \ldots, v_m) \in \mathbb{F}^m \) be the list of input values given to us. \((v_i = q(a_i)) \) for a \( 1 - \alpha \) fraction of the values \( i \). What we will do is we will go over all \( p = |\mathbb{F}| \) possible choices for \( q(0) \) and for each “guess” \( c \in \mathbb{F} \) do the following: Subtract \( c \) from the values \((v_1, \ldots, v_m)\) and then use the decoding algorithm of \( C \) to decode the vector \( V_c = (v_1 - c, \ldots, v_m - c) \). It is clear that for \( c = q(0) \), this procedure will give us the list of coefficients of \( q(x) \) (without the constant term). Our task is then to figure out which invocation of the decoding algorithm is the correct one. Say that the decoding algorithm, on input \( V_c \), returned a linear polynomial \( q_c(x) \) (there is no constant term). We can then check to see whether \( q_c(a_i) + c \) is indeed equal to \( v_i \) for a \( 1 - \alpha \) fraction of the values \( i \). If we could show that this test will succeed only for a single \( c \in \mathbb{F} \) then we are done and the lemma will follow. Suppose for contradiction that there are two linear polynomials \( q_c(x) \) and \( q_{c'}(x) \) such that both agree with a fraction \( 1 - \alpha \) of the input values. This means that there exist two codewords \( W_c, W_{c'} \in \mathbb{F}^n \) (the encodings of \( q_c \) and \( q_{c'} \)) in \( C \) such that \( \text{dist}(V_c, W_c) \leq \alpha \cdot m \) and \( \text{dist}(V_{c'}, W_{c'}) \leq \alpha \cdot m \). Therefore

\[
\text{dist}(V_c - V_{c'}, W_c - W_{c'}) \leq 2\alpha \cdot m.
\]

The vector \( V_c - V_{c'} \) has the value \( c' - c \neq 0 \) in all of its coordinates and so we get that the Hamming weight of the codeword \( W_c - W_{c'} \) is at least \((1 - 2\alpha) \cdot m\), contradicting the properties of \( C \).

\[\square\]

**Lemma 2.4.** Let \( C \) be an \([m,n,k]\)-code over \( \mathbb{F} \) such that the dual \( C^\perp \) has minimal distance \( > r \). Let \( S \subseteq \mathbb{F}^n \) be the set of points corresponding to the rows of the generator matrix of \( C \). Then \( S \) satisfies condition \( \star_s \) for \( s \geq r/2 \).
Proof. Let $0 < d \leq r/2$ be an integer and let $S_d = S + \ldots + S_d$ times. We will prove the lemma by showing that
\[ \{ x \in S_d \mid N_d(x) > d \} \subseteq S_{d-2}, \]
(the reader is encouraged to review Definition 1.4 for the definition of $N_d(x)$). Let $x \in S_d$. We can thus write
\[ x = a_1 + \ldots + a_d, \]
with $a_1, \ldots, a_d \in S$. Suppose now that $N_d(x) > d$. This means that there exists a way to write $x$ as a sum of elements in $S$ as follows
\[ x = b_1 + \ldots + b_{d-1} + c, \]
with $c \notin \{a_1, \ldots, a_d\}$. Combining the two ways to write $x$ we get
\[ a_1 + \ldots + a_d - b_1 - \ldots - b_{d-1} - c = 0. \]
Since the distance of the dual is larger than $2d$ the above equality must be a trivial one. That is, every vector must appear with a coefficient that is a multiple of $p$ (the characteristic). Since $c \notin \{a_1, \ldots, a_d\}$, we infer that $c$ must appear as one of the values $b_1$ (otherwise it would have coefficient $-1$). This means that $x$ is in $S_{d-2}$. \qed

3 Constructing a NIS

In this section we prove Theorem 1.2 and Corollary 1.3. We start with the proof of Corollary 1.3, which is a simple application of known results in coding theory.

Proof of Corollary 1.3. To prove the corollary, all we need to do is to construct, for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, an $(n, 1, \varepsilon)$-NIS $S_1^{(n)}$ with an efficient interpolation algorithm and $\varepsilon$ which does not depend on $n$. The corollary will then follow by applying Theorem 1.2.

To construct $S_1$ we take a good family of linear codes $\{C_n\}$, where $C_n$ is an $[m_n, n, k_n]$-code over $\mathbb{F}$ (see Section 2.2) that has an efficient decoding algorithm that can decode a constant fraction of errors and such that the generator matrix of $C_n$ can be found in polynomial time (such families of codes are known to exist, see [10, Chap. 10]). Let $a_1, \ldots, a_{m_n} \in \mathbb{F}^n$ be the rows of its generator matrix. We define $S_1^{(n)}$ to be the list of points $(a_1, \ldots, a_{m_n}, b_1, \ldots, b_{m_n})$, where for each $j \in [m_n]$ we set $b_j = 0$. That is, $S_1^{(n)}$ contains the rows of the generator matrix of a good code, together with the points $0$, taken with multiplicity $m_n$. Section 2.3 now shows that $S_1^{(n)}$ satisfies all the required conditions. \qed

3.1 Proof of Theorem 1.2

Let $S_1 = (a_1, \ldots, a_m) \in (\mathbb{F}^n)^m$ be an $(n, 1, \varepsilon_1)$-NIS of size $|S_1| = m$. Let $S_{d-1} = (b_1, \ldots, b_r) \in (\mathbb{F}^n)^r$ be an $(n, d-1, \varepsilon_{d-1})$-NIS of size $|S_{d-1}| = r$. Let $A_{d-1}$ and $A_1$ be interpolation algorithms for $S_{d-1}$ and $S_1$ respectively, as described in Definition 1.1. Let $S_d = S_{d-1} \uplus S_1$. We will prove the theorem by showing that $S_d$ has an interpolation algorithm that makes at most a polynomial number of calls to $A_{d-1}$ and to $A_1$ and can “correct” a fraction
\[ \varepsilon_d = \frac{\varepsilon_1 \cdot \varepsilon_{d-1}}{2} \]
of errors. We will describe the algorithm $A_d$ and prove its correctness simultaneously (the number of calls to $A_{d-1}$ and $A_1$ will clearly be polynomial and so we will not count them explicitly).

Fix $q \in \mathbb{F}_d[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ to be some degree-$d$ polynomial and let $q_d$ be its homogeneous part of degree $d$. Let us denote $S_d = (c_1, \ldots, c_{mr})$, where each $c_i$ is in $\mathbb{F}^m$. We also denote by $e = (e_1, \ldots, e_{mr}) \in \mathbb{F}^{mr}$ the list of “errors,” so that $\{i \in [mr] \mid e_i \neq 0\} \leq e_d \cdot mr$. The list $S_d$ can be partitioned in a natural way into all the “shifts” of the list $S_{d-1}$. Let us define for each $i \in [m]$ the list $T(i) = (b_1 + a_i, \ldots, b_r + a_i) \in (\mathbb{P}^n)'$. We thus have that $S_d$ is the concatenation of $T(1), \ldots, T(m)$ (the order does not matter here). We can also partition the list of errors in a similar way into $m$ lists $e^{(1)}, \ldots, e^{(m)}$, each of length $r$, such that $e^{(i)}$ is the list of errors corresponding to the points in $T(i)$.

We say that an index $i \in [m]$ is good if the fraction of errors in $T(i)$ is at most $\varepsilon_{d-1}/2$, otherwise we say that $i$ is bad. That is, $i$ is good if

$$\{j \in [r] \mid e^{(i)}_j \neq 0\} \leq (\varepsilon_{d-1}/2) \cdot |T(i)| = (\varepsilon_{d-1}/2) \cdot r.$$ 

Let $E = \{i \in [m] \mid i \text{ is bad}\}$. From the bound on the total number of errors we get that

$$|E| \leq e_1 \cdot m.$$  

(3.1)

**Overview** The algorithm is divided into three steps. In the first step we look at all pairs $(T(i), T(j))$ and from each one attempt to reconstruct, using $A_{d-1}$, the directional derivative $\partial q_d(x,a_i-a_j)$. We will claim that this step gives the correct output for most pairs $(T(i), T(j))$ (namely, for all pairs in which both $i$ and $j$ are good). In the second step we take all the directional derivatives obtained in the previous step (some of them erroneous) and from them reconstruct, using $A_1$, the vector of derivatives $\Delta q_d(x)$ and so also recover $q_d(x)$. In the last step of the algorithm we recover the polynomial $q_{\leq d-1}(x) = q(x) - q_d(x)$, again using $A_{d-1}$. This will give us $q(x) = q_{\leq d-1}(x) + q_d(x)$.

**Step I:** Let $i \neq j \in [m]$ be two good indices as defined above. We will show how to reconstruct $\partial q_d(x,a_i-a_j)$ from the values in $T(i), T(j)$. Recall that we have at our disposal two lists of values

$$L_i = \left(q(b_1 + a_i) + e^{(i)}_1, \ldots, q(b_r + a_i) + e^{(i)}_r\right)$$

and

$$L_j = \left(q(b_1 + a_j) + e^{(j)}_1, \ldots, q(b_r + a_j) + e^{(j)}_r\right).$$

Taking the difference of the two lists we obtain the list

$$L_{ij} = \left(q(b_1 + a_i) - q(b_1 + a_j) + e^{(i)}_1 - e^{(j)}_1, \ldots, q(b_r + a_i) - q(b_r + a_j) + e^{(i)}_r - e^{(j)}_r\right).$$

Observe that since $i$ and $j$ are both good we have that the term $e^{(i)}_\ell - e^{(j)}_\ell$ is non zero for at most $\varepsilon_{d-1} \cdot r$ values of $\ell \in [r]$. Therefore, we can use algorithm $A_{d-1}$ to recover the degree-$(d-1)$ polynomial $Q_{ij}(x) = q(x+a_i) - q(x+a_j)$ from the list $L_{ij}$. From **Section 2.1** we see that throwing away all monomials of degree less than $d-1$ in $Q_{ij}$ leaves us with $\partial q_d(x,a_i-a_j)$. 

**Theory of Computing**, Volume 7 (2011), pp. 1–18
We now show how to recover \( h \). We denote by \( R_{ij}(x) \). Therefore, we can use the polynomial \( h \) obtained in the first step and recover from them the polynomial \( \Delta_{q_d}(x) \) (then, using Section 2.2, we will also have \( q_d(x) \)). We start by setting up some notations: The set of degree-(\( d - 1 \)) monomials is indexed by the set

\[
I_{d-1} = \{ (\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n) | 0 \leq \alpha_i \leq p-1, \alpha_1 + \ldots + \alpha_n = d-1 \}.
\]

We denote by \( x^\alpha = \prod_{i=1}^n x_i^{\alpha_i} \) and also denote by \( \text{coef}(x^\alpha, h) \) the coefficient of the monomial \( x^\alpha \) in a polynomial \( h(x) \). Let \( \alpha \in I_{d-1} \) and define the degree-1 polynomial

\[
U_\alpha(y_1, \ldots, y_n) = \sum_{\ell=1}^n \text{coef} \left( x^\alpha, \frac{\partial q_d}{\partial x_\ell} \right) \cdot y_\ell.
\]

Observe that

\[
\partial_{q_d}(x, a_i - a_j) = \sum_{\ell=1}^n (a_i - a_j)_\ell \cdot \frac{\partial q_d}{\partial x_\ell}(x) = \sum_{\alpha \in I_{d-1}} x^\alpha \cdot U_\alpha(a_i - a_j).
\]

Therefore, for each pair \( i, j \) such that both \( i \) and \( j \) are good we can get the (correct) values \( U_\alpha(a_i - a_j) \) for all \( \alpha \in I_{d-1} \) by observing the coefficients of \( R_{ij} \).

Fix some \( \alpha \in I_{d-1} \). Using the procedure implied above for all pairs \( i \neq j \in [m] \), we get \( \binom{m}{2} \) values \( u_{ij} \in \mathbb{F} \) such that if \( i \) and \( j \) are good then

\[
u_{ij} = U_\alpha(a_i - a_j).
\]

We now show how to recover \( U_\alpha \) from the values \( u_{ij} \). Repeating this procedure for all \( \alpha \in I_{d-1} \) will give us \( \Delta_{q_d}(x) \).

Since we fixed \( \alpha \) let us denote by \( U(y) = U_\alpha(y) \). We have at our disposal a list of values \( (u_{ij})_{i,j \in [m]} \) such that there exists a set \( E = \{ i \in [m] | i \text{ is bad} \} \) of size \( |E| \leq \varepsilon_1 \cdot m \) such that if \( i \) and \( j \) are not in \( E \) then \( u_{ij} = U(a_i - a_j) \). Let us partition the list \( (u_{ij}) \) according to the index \( j \) into \( m \) disjoint lists: \( B_j = (u_{1j}, \ldots, u_{mj}) \). If \( j \not\in E \) than the list \( B_j \) contains the values of the degree-1 polynomial \( U_j(y) = U(y - a_j) \) on the set \( S_1 \) with at most \( \varepsilon_1 \cdot m \) errors (the errors will correspond to indices \( i \in E \)). Therefore, we can use \( A_1 \) in order to reconstruct \( U_j \), and from it \( U \). The “problem” is that we do not know which values \( j \) are good. This problem can be easily solved by applying the above procedure for all \( j \in [m] \) and then taking the majority vote. Since all the good values of \( j \) will return the correct \( U(y) \) we will have a clear majority of at least a \( 1 - \varepsilon_1 \) fraction. Combining all of the above gives us the polynomial \( q_d(x) \) and so the second step is complete.
Step III: Having recovered \( q_d \) in the last step we now subtract the value \( q_d(c_i) \) from the input list of values (these are the values of \( q(x) \) on \( S_d \), with \( \leq \varepsilon_d \) fraction of errors). This reduces us to the problem of recovering the degree-\((d-1)\) polynomial \( q_{\leq d-1}(x) = q(x) - q_d(x) \) from its values in \( S_d \) with a fraction \( \varepsilon_d \) of errors. Solving this problem is easy to do by using the algorithm \( A_{d-1} \) on the values in each list \( T^{(j)} \) (defined in the beginning of this section) and then taking the majority. Since for a good value \( j \), the list \( T^{(j)} \) contains at most \( \varepsilon_{d-1} \cdot r \) errors, and since more than half of the values \( j \) are good, we will get a clear majority and so be able to recover \( q_{\leq d-1} \).

4 Constructing a proper NIS

In this section we prove Theorem 1.5 and Corollary 1.6. As before we start with the proof of Corollary 1.6 and then go on to prove the theorem.

Proof of Corollary 1.6. This will be similar to the proof of Corollary 1.3. All we need to do is find, for each \( n \), a proper \((n, 1, \varepsilon)\)-NIS that satisfies condition \( \star_n \). In order to do so we will need a good family of codes \( \{ C_n \} \), such that each \( C_n \) is an \([m_n, n, k_n]\)-code, which satisfies the following three conditions:

1. \( \{ C_n \} \) has an efficient decoding algorithm that can decode a constant fraction \( \alpha = \Omega(1) \) of errors.
2. The minimal distance of the dual \( C_n^\perp \) is larger than \( 2 \cdot d \).
3. Each codeword in \( C_n \) has Hamming weight at most \((1 - 2\alpha) \cdot m_n \).

Such a family of codes can be constructed explicitly using standard techniques (see Section 6).

The points in \( S_1 \) are given by the rows of the generator matrix of the code \( C_n \). The rows are all distinct since otherwise we would have a codeword of weight 2 in the dual. From Section 2.4 we get that \( S_1 \) satisfies condition \( \star_1 \) and from item 2. of Section 2.3 we get that \( S_1 \) is an \((n, 1, \alpha)\)-proper NIS with an efficient interpolation algorithm. \( \square \)

4.1 Proof of Theorem 1.5

The proof of Theorem 1.5 uses the same arguments as the proof of Theorem 1.2. The only difference is that the “shifts” of \( S_{d-1} \) (denoted by \( T_i, i = 1, \ldots, m \)) might intersect. However, using the fact that \( S_1 \) satisfies condition \( \star_k \) for \( k \geq d \), we will be able control the effect of these intersections. To be more precise, the only place where the proof will differ from the proof of Theorem 1.2 is where we claim that there are not too many “bad” indices \( i \in [m] \) (see below for details). The rest of the proof will be identical and so we will not repeat the parts that we do not have to.

We start by setting the notations for the proof. Let \( S_1 \subseteq \mathbb{F}^m \) be a proper \((n, 1, \varepsilon_1)\)-NIS such that \( |S_1| = m \) and let \( S_{d-1} \subseteq \mathbb{F}^m \) be a proper \((n, d-1, \varepsilon_{d-1})\)-NIS obtained by summing \( S_1 \) with itself \( d-1 \) times. Let \( A_{d-1} \) and \( A_1 \) be interpolation algorithms for \( S_{d-1} \) and \( S_1 \) respectively. Let \( S_d = S_{d-1} + S_1 \). As before, the theorem will follow by giving an interpolation algorithm for \( S_d \) that makes at most a polynomial number of calls to \( A_{d-1} \) and to \( A_1 \) and can “correct” a fraction

\[ \varepsilon_d = \frac{\varepsilon_{d-1} \cdot \varepsilon_1}{3d} \]  

(4.1)
of errors (the expression for $\epsilon_d$ appearing in the theorem can be deduced from this equation by a simple induction).

Fix a degree-$d$ polynomial $q \in \mathbb{F}_d[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ and let $q_d$ be its homogeneous part of degree $d$. Write $S_1 = \{a_1, \ldots, a_m\}$ (the $a_i$ are distinct). The set $S_d$ can be divided into $m$ (possibly overlapping) sets $T_1, \ldots, T_m$ such that

$$T_i = S_{d-1} + a_i \quad \text{and} \quad S_d = \bigcup_{i \in [m]} T_i.$$  

Our algorithm is given a list of values of $q(x)$ on the set $S_d$ with at most $\epsilon_d \cdot |S_d|$ errors. Let $B \subseteq S_d$ be the set of points in $S_d$ such that the value of $q(x)$ on these points contains an error. We therefore have

$$|B| \leq \epsilon_d \cdot |S_d|. \quad (4.2)$$

We say that an index $i \in [m]$ is bad if

$$|T_i \cap B| > (\epsilon_{d-1}/2) \cdot |T_i| = (\epsilon_{d-1}/2) \cdot |S_{d-1}|.$$  

The next claim bounds the number of bad values $i$.

**Claim 4.1.** Let $E = \{i \in [m] \mid i \text{ is bad}\}$. Then

$$|E| \leq \epsilon_1 \cdot m.$$  

If we can prove Claim 4.1 then the rest of the proof of Theorem 1.5 will be identical to the proof of Theorem 1.2 (starting from the part titled “Step I”), as the reader can easily verify. Indeed Claim 4.1 is the analog of Equation (3.1) for the case of proper sets. We therefore end this section with a proof of Claim 4.1.

**4.1.1 Proof of Claim 4.1**

In order to prove Claim 4.1 we will require the following auxiliary claim on the growth rate of the sumsets of $S$.

**Claim 4.2.** Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{F}^n$ be of size $m$ such that $S$ satisfies condition $\star_k$ and let the sets $S_0, S_1, \ldots, S_k$ be as in Definition 1.4 (the sumsets of $S$). Then there exists a constant $C_1$ depending only on $k$ such that if $|S| > C_1$ then for every $d \leq k$ we have

$$|S_d| \geq \frac{1}{2d} \cdot |S_{d-1}| \cdot |S|. \quad (4.3)$$

**Proof.** The proof is by induction on $d$. For $d = 1$ the bound in (4.3) is trivial. Suppose the bound holds for $d - 1$ and lets prove it for $d$. Let us denote $S = \{a_1, \ldots, a_m\}$ and $T_i = S_{d-1} + a_i$. Clearly $S_d = \bigcup_{i=1}^m T_i$. We will lower bound the number of points in $S_d$ in the following way: For each $i$ we will take all points $x \in T_i$ such that $N_{d}(x) \leq d$ and than divide the number of points we got by $d$. Since there are at most $|S_{d-2}|$ elements $x \in S_d$ with $N_d(x) > d$, we get the bound

$$|S_d| \geq \frac{1}{d} \sum_{i=1}^m (|T_i| - |S_{d-2}|)$$

$$= \frac{1}{d} \cdot |S| \cdot |S_{d-1}| - \frac{1}{d} \cdot |S| \cdot |S_{d-2}|.$$

**Theory of Computing**, Volume 7 (2011), pp. 1–18 13
Using the inductive hypothesis on the second term yields

\[ |S_d| \geq \frac{1}{d} \cdot |S| \cdot |S_{d-1}| - \frac{2d - 2}{d} \cdot |S_{d-1}| \]
\[ \geq \frac{1}{2d} \cdot |S| \cdot |S_{d-1}| , \]

where the last inequality holds for sufficiently large \(|S|\) (as a function of \(d\)). \(\square\)

**Proof of Claim 4.1.** Let \(t = |E|\) and suppose in contradiction that \(t > \varepsilon_1 \cdot m = \varepsilon_1 \cdot |S|\). This means that there are at least \(t\) sets \(T_i, \ldots, T_t\) such that \(|B \cap T_i| \geq (\varepsilon_{d-1}/2) \cdot |S_{d-1}|\). From condition \(\bigstar_d\) we know that, apart from a set of size at most \(|S_{d-2}|\), each “bad” element appears in at most \(d\) sets \(T_i\). Therefore

\[ \varepsilon_d \cdot |S_d| \geq \frac{1}{d} \cdot |S| \cdot \left( \frac{\varepsilon_{d-1}}{2} \cdot |S_{d-1}| - |S_{d-2}| \right) \]
\[ = \frac{\varepsilon_{d-1} \cdot \varepsilon_1}{2d} \cdot |S_{d-1}| \cdot |S| - \frac{\varepsilon_1}{d} \cdot |S| \cdot |S_{d-2}| \]
\[ \geq \frac{\varepsilon_{d-1} \cdot \varepsilon_1}{2d} \cdot |S_d| - \frac{\varepsilon_1}{d} \cdot |S| \cdot |S_{d-2}| . \]

Using Claim 4.2 twice we get that

\[ |S| \cdot |S_{d-2}| \leq 2(d-1) \cdot |S_{d-1}| \leq 4d(d-1) \cdot \frac{|S_d|}{|S|} . \]

Plugging this inequality into the previous one we get that

\[ \varepsilon_d \cdot |S_d| \geq \frac{\varepsilon_{d-1} \cdot \varepsilon_1}{2d} \cdot |S_d| - \varepsilon_1 \cdot 4 \cdot (d-1) \cdot \frac{|S_d|}{|S|} , \]

which after division by \(|S_d|\) gives

\[ \varepsilon_d \geq \frac{\varepsilon_{d-1} \cdot \varepsilon_1}{2d} - \frac{\varepsilon_1 \cdot 4 \cdot (d-1)}{|S|} \]
\[ > \frac{\varepsilon_{d-1} \cdot \varepsilon_1}{3d} , \]

(when \(m = |S|\) is sufficiently large, as a function of \(\varepsilon_1\) and \(d\)) contradicting Equation (4.2). \(\square\)

5 **Other finite fields**

We briefly sketch how one can extend Theorems 1.2 and 1.5 to non-prime finite fields.

The main difference is that over extension fields, one has to consider the weight-degree instead of the degree. Specifically, let \(\mathbb{F}\) be a field of order \(p^r\) for a prime \(p\). Given an integer \(d < p^r\) let \(d = \sum_{i=0}^{r-1} a_i p^i\), \(0 \leq a_i < p\), be its base-\(p\) expansion. The weight of \(d\), denoted \(wt(d)\), is defined as \(wt(d) = \sum_{i=0}^{r-1} a_i\). For example, the weight of 14 over \(\mathbb{F}_9\) is 4 as \(14 = 1 \cdot 9 + 1 \cdot 3 + 2\) and \(1 + 1 + 2 = 4\). The weight-degree of a monomial \(x^d\) is simply the weight of \(d\). Similarly the weight-degree of a multivariate monomial \(\prod_{i=1}^{n} x_i^{d_i}\)
is $\sum_{i=1}^n \text{wt}(d_i)$. The weight-degree of a polynomial $q(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ is the maximum of the weight-degrees of its monomials. Intuitively, the weight-degree is the correct notion of degree as the polynomial $x^\alpha$ is in fact a linear map over $\mathbb{F}$, and so $x^{\alpha p^r}$ “behaves” like a polynomial of degree $\alpha$.

It is not hard to see that polynomials of weight-degree $d$ in $\mathbb{F}_{p^r}[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ that map $(\mathbb{F}_{p^r})^n$ to $\mathbb{F}$ correspond to degree-$d$ polynomials in $n r$ variables over $\mathbb{F}_p$ and vice versa (see, e. g., [4]).

Now, given a polynomial $q$ of weight-degree $d$ over $\mathbb{F}_{p^r}$ and any $\alpha \in \mathbb{F}_{p^r}$, let $q_\alpha(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ be defined as $q_\alpha = \text{Tr}(\alpha \cdot q(x_1, \ldots, x_n))$, where $\text{Tr}$ is the trace operator; $\text{Tr}(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{r-1} x^i$. It is easy to see that $q_\alpha$ is of weight-degree at most $d$ and that $q_\alpha : (\mathbb{F}_{p^r})^n \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$. It is also not hard to see that if one can learn all the values $q_\alpha$ then one can easily reconstruct $q$ (by a simple linear transformation).

The argument above shows that in order to construct NIS for polynomials of weight-degree $d$ over $\mathbb{F}_{p^r}$ it is sufficient to construct NIS for polynomials of degree $d$ in $n r$ variables. This explains how Theorems 1.2 and 1.5 can be extended to non-prime finite fields. We thus obtain the following Theorem that enables an immediate translation of the results stated in Theorems 1.2 and 1.5 and Corollaries 1.3, 1.6 and 1.7 to the context of fields of prime power order.

**Theorem 5.1.** Let $p$ be a prime number, $n, r$ and $d$ integers, and $\varepsilon > 0$ a real number. Fix a basis for $\mathbb{F}_{p^r}$ over $\mathbb{F}_p$. If $S_d$ is an $(n r, d, \varepsilon)$-NIS over $\mathbb{F}_p$ then, when viewed as a collection of $n$-tuples over $\mathbb{F}_{p^r}$ according to the fixed basis, $S_d$ is an $(n, d, \varepsilon)$-NIS over $\mathbb{F}_{p^r}$ (i. e., it is a NIS for polynomials of weight-degree $d$ over $\mathbb{F}_{p^r}$). Moreover, if $S_d$ has an interpolation algorithm that runs in time $T$ over $\mathbb{F}_p$ then it has such an algorithm also when viewed as a NIS over $\mathbb{F}_{p^r}$. The algorithm can handle the same amount of errors and its running time is $O(r T) + \text{poly}(n)$. In addition, if $S_d$ is a proper NIS over $\mathbb{F}_p$ then it is a proper NIS over $\mathbb{F}_{p^r}$.

We leave the exact details of the proof to the reader.

### 6 A family of codes with special properties

In the proof of Corollary 1.6 we used a family of good linear error-correcting codes $\{C_n\}$, over a field $\mathbb{F}$ of prime order $p$, such that $C_n$ has message length $n$ and such that the following three properties

1. The family $\{C_n\}$ has an efficient encoding/decoding algorithm from a constant fraction of errors.
2. The dual distance of $C_n$ is $\omega(1)$.
3. If the block length of $C_n$ is $m_n$ then every codeword in $C_n$ has Hamming weight at most $(1 - \delta) \cdot m_n$ for some constant $\delta > 0$.

Efficient codes with good dual distance are known to exists over any finite field. Results of this type can be found, e. g., in [10]. It is possible that some of these codes already posses property (3) above, however, we could not find a proof for that anywhere. Since we only require the dual distance to be super-constant we can give a simple self-contained construction satisfying all three conditions above. We sketch the argument below without giving a complete proof.

Say we wish to construct a code as above for messages of length $n$. We pick an integer $\ell$ such that $\ell \cdot p^\ell = \Theta(n)$ (more accurately, we pick $\ell$ such that, say, $\ell \cdot p^\ell$ is at most $0.9 n$ and at least $0.8 n / p$). Notice
that \( \ell < \log(n) \). We construct a field \( \mathbb{E} \) of order \( p^\ell \) (this can be done deterministically in time \( \text{poly}(n) \)). We now take a Reed-Solomon code \( R \) over \( \mathbb{E} \), of block length \( p^\ell \), whose messages are univariate polynomials of degree \( \alpha \cdot p^\ell \), for some constant \( \alpha \). Notice that this code has minimal distance \( (1 - \alpha) \cdot p^\ell \) (over \( \mathbb{E} \)), relative rate \( \alpha \), and its dual distance is at least \( \alpha \cdot p^\ell \). Let \( \varphi : \mathbb{E} \to \mathbb{F}^{\ell} \) be the natural representation of \( \mathbb{E} \) as \( \ell \)-tuples over \( \mathbb{F} \). We can extend \( \varphi \) in the natural way to be a mapping from \( \mathbb{E}^{p^\ell} \) to \( (\mathbb{F}^{\ell})^{p^\ell} \). In particular we can think of \( \varphi(R) \) as a code over \( \mathbb{F} \) of the same relative rate and of at least the same minimal distance. It is not hard to see that there exists an invertible linear transformation \( A : \mathbb{F}^{\ell} \to \mathbb{F}^{\ell} \), such that \( v = (v_1, \ldots, v_{p^\ell}) \in R^\perp \) if and only if \( (A\varphi(v_1), \ldots, A\varphi(v_{p^\ell})) \in \varphi(R)^\perp \) (there is a slight abuse of notation here, but the meaning is clear). In particular we get that the minimal distance of \( \varphi(R)^\perp \) is the same as the minimal distance of \( R^\perp \).

Now, for every \( 1 \leq i \leq p^\ell \) we pick a code \( \tilde{C}_i : \mathbb{F}^{\ell} \to \mathbb{F}^{m_i} \), such that \( m_i = O(\ell) \) and such that \( \sum_{i=1}^{p^\ell} m_i = n \). Moreover, we would like the codes \( \tilde{C}_i \) to satisfy the three properties stated above. It is not hard to play a little with the parameters to get that such \( \tilde{C}_i \) and \( m_i \) exist. We also note that the \( \tilde{C}_i \) can be constructed recursively. We now “concatenate” the code\(^4\) \( \varphi(R) \) with the \( \tilde{C}_i \) such that \( C_i \) is applied on the \( i \)-th block, of length \( \ell \), of \( \varphi(R) \). Denote the resulting code with \( C_n \). It is now easy to verify that indeed the block length of \( C_n \) is \( n \), that it has constant rate and linear minimal distance, and that \( C_n^\perp \) has minimal distance \( \omega(1) \).

**Acknowledgement**

We would like to thank Parikshit Gopalan for bringing the problem to our attention, Emanuele Viola for sharing the manuscript of [14] with us, and Shachar Lovett and Chris Umans for helpful discussions. We also thank the anonymous reviewers for comments that improved the presentations of the results. We are thankful to Laci Babai for helpful comments.

**References**

[1] **Sanjeev Arora, Carsten Lund, Rajeev Motwani, Madhu Sudan, and Mario Szegedy**: Proof verification and the hardness of approximation problems. *J. ACM*, 45(3):501–555, 1998. [doi:10.1145/278298.278306] 2

[2] **Sanjeev Arora and Shmuel Safra**: Probabilistic checking of proofs: A new characterization of NP. *J. ACM*, 45(1):70–122, 1998. [doi:10.1145/273865.273901] 2

[3] **László Babai, Lance Fortnow, Noam Nisan, and Avi Wigderson**: BPP has subexponential-time simulations unless \( \text{EXPTIME} \) has publishable proofs. *Comput. Complexity*, 3(4):307–318, 1993. [doi:10.1007/BF01275486] 2

[4] **Eli Ben-Sasson and Madhu Sudan**: Limits on the rate of locally testable affine-invariant codes. *Electron. Colloq. on Comput. Complexity (ECCC)*, 17:108, 2010. [ECCC:TR10-108] 15

\(^{4}\)We would like to have \( \varphi(R)^\perp = \varphi(R^\perp) \), however this is not true, so we have \( A \) that “fixes” this.

\(^{5}\)This is not the usual definition of code concatenation, however it is similar in spirit to the construction of Justesen codes [8].
NOISY INTERPOLATING SETS FOR LOW-DEGREE POLYNOMIALS

[5] ANDREJ BOGDANOV: Pseudorandom generators for low degree polynomials. In Proc. 37th STOC, pp. 21–30. ACM Press, 2005. [doi:10.1145/1060590.1060594] 3

[6] ANDREJ BOGDANOV AND EMANUELE VIOLA: Pseudorandom bits for polynomials. SIAM J. Comput., 39(6):2464–2486, 2010. [doi:10.1137/070712109] 3

[7] RUSSELL IMPAGLIAZZO AND AVI WIGDERSON: P=BPP unless E has subexponential circuits: Derandomizing the XOR lemma. In Proc. 29th STOC, pp. 220–229. ACM Press, 1997. [doi:10.1145/258533.258590] 2

[8] J. JUSTESEN: A class of constructive asymptotically good algebraic codes. IEEE Trans. Inform. Theory, 18(5):652–656, 1972. [doi:10.1109/TIT.1972.1054893] 16

[9] SHACHAR LOVETT: Unconditional pseudorandom generators for low degree polynomials. Theory of Computing, 5(1):69–82, 2009. [doi:10.4086/toc.2009.v005a003] 3

[10] F. J. MACWILLIAMS AND N. J. A. SLOANE: The Theory of Error-Correcting Codes, Part II. North-Holland, 1977. 2, 9, 15

[11] RONEN SHALTIEL AND CHRISTOPHER UMANS: Simple extractors for all min-entropies and a new pseudorandom generator. J. ACM, 52(2):172–216, 2005. [doi:10.1145/1059513.1059516] 2

[12] MADHU SUDAN, LUCA TREVISAN, AND SALIL VADHAN: Pseudorandom generators without the XOR lemma. J. Comput. System Sci., 62(2):236–266, 2001. [doi:10.1006/jcss.2000.1730] 2

[13] AMNON TA-SHMA, DAVID ZUCKERMAN, AND SHMUEL SAFRA: Extractors from Reed-Muller codes. J. Comput. System Sci., 72(5):786–812, 2006. [doi:10.1016/j.jcss.2005.05.010] 2

[14] EMANUELE VIOLA: The sum of \(d\) small-bias generators fools polynomials of degree \(d\). Comput. Complexity, 18(2):209–217, 2009. [doi:10.1007/s00037-009-0273-5] 3, 16

AUTHORS

Zeev Dvir
post-doctoral researcher
Princeton University, Princeton, NJ
zeev.dvir@gmail.com
http://www.cs.princeton.edu/~zdvir/

Amir Shpilka
associate professor
Technion – Israel Institute of Technology, Haifa, Israel
shpilka@cs.technion.ac.il
http://www.cs.technion.ac.il/~shpilka/
ABOUT THE AUTHORS

ZEEV DVIR is currently a postdoc in the Computer Science department at Princeton University. He received his Ph. D. from the Weizmann Institute in Israel in 2008. His advisors were Ran Raz and Amir Shpilka. He is interested mainly in questions in computational complexity that have a connection with classical mathematics.

AMIR SHPILKA obtained his Ph. D. in Computer Science and Mathematics from the Hebrew University in Jerusalem in 2001 under the supervision of Avi Wigderson. As of 2005 he is a CS faculty member at the Technion. He is married to Carmit and has two children. His research interests lie in Complexity Theory, mainly in Arithmetic Circuit Complexity. When not working or enjoying his family he likes to read and play chess.