

## References

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*Proof.* If he can win, the Paul can somehow pack  $n$   $k$ -sets, normal and abnormal. The bound follows then immediately from Lemmas 4.1 and 4.2.  $\square$

With this, we are now ready to present the main result of the section. Let  $\epsilon > 0$ , and  $k$  fixed.

**Theorem 4.4.** *There exists  $q_0$  sufficiently large such that for all  $q \geq q_0$ , for any  $n$  such that Paul wins the  $k$ -lie,  $q$  question game from position  $(n, 0, \dots, 0)$ ,*

$$n \leq (2^k + \epsilon) \frac{2^q}{\binom{q}{k}}.$$

*Proof.* Let  $x = c_k \sqrt{q \ln q}$ , with  $c_k > \sqrt{\frac{k}{2}}$ .

To win the game, Paul must be able to pack  $n$   $k$ -sets in the Decision Tree. By Lemma 4.3 we get that

$$n \leq \frac{2^q}{\sum_{i=1}^k \binom{\frac{q}{2} - x + i - 1}{i}} + \sum_{i=0}^{\frac{q}{2} - x} \binom{q}{i}.$$

Since

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\frac{q}{2} - x} \binom{q}{i} = 2^q \Pr[ S \text{ contains less than } (\frac{q}{2} - c_k \sqrt{q \ln q}) Ns ]$$

where  $S$  is a random sequence of  $q$  Ys and Ns, Chernoff-type bounds yield that

$$\Pr[ S \text{ contains less than } (\frac{q}{2} - c_k \sqrt{q \ln q}) Ns ] \leq e^{-c_k^2 q \ln q / (q/2)} = q^{-2c_k^2} = o\left(\binom{q}{k}^{-1}\right),$$

by our choice of  $c_k$ .

Thus there exists a  $q_0$  large enough such that

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\frac{q}{2} - x} \binom{q}{i} < 2^{k-1} \epsilon \frac{2^q}{\binom{q}{k}}. \quad (7)$$

Since  $\sum_{i=1}^k \binom{\frac{q}{2} - x + i - 1}{i}$  is a polynomial in  $q$  of degree  $k$ , and since  $x = o(q)$ , it follows that

$$\sum_{i=1}^k \binom{\frac{q}{2} - x + i - 1}{i} \sim \binom{\frac{q}{2}}{k} \sim 2^{-k} \binom{q}{k}.$$

Hence there must be a  $q$  large enough so as to have

$$\sum_{i=1}^k \binom{\frac{q}{2} - x + i - 1}{i} \geq \frac{1}{2^k + \frac{\epsilon}{2}} \binom{q}{k}. \quad (8)$$

From equations (7) and (8), it follows that for any  $q \geq q_0$ ,

$$n \leq (2^k + \epsilon) \frac{2^q}{\binom{q}{k}},$$

and the theorem is proved.  $\square$

## 4 Upper Bounds

We will start with a double definition. Let  $x$  be a parameter later to be optimized.

**Definition 6.** A  $k$ -set  $A$  is normal if all sequences  $w \in A$  have at least  $\frac{q}{2} - x$  Ns. Otherwise the set is abnormal.

This definition allows for two easy lemmas.

**Lemma 4.1.** The minimum size of a  $k$ -set is bounded from below by

$$\sum_{i=1}^k \binom{\frac{q}{2} - x + i - 1}{i}.$$

*Proof.* We look at the number of points on the  $i$ th level of the  $k$ -tree corresponding to the  $k$ -set. These are paths for which exactly  $i$  lies have been committed by Carole.

Let the path from the root of the  $k$ -tree down to node  $w \in \{Y, N\}^q$  on level  $i$  be  $r_0 = \text{root}, r_1, \dots, r_i$ , and let  $\delta(r_j, r_{j+1})$ , for all  $0 \leq j \leq i - 1$ , be the place where  $r_{j+1}$  first differs from its parent.

Let  $n_{j+1}$  = number of Ns in  $r_j$  before position  $\delta(r_j, r_{j+1})$ , for all  $0 \leq j \leq i - 1$ . Then it follows that to each sequence

$$1 \leq n_1 \leq n_2 \leq \dots \leq n_i,$$

corresponds exactly one point on level  $i$ . Since we have at least  $\frac{q}{2} - x$  choices for  $n_i$  (but we could in fact have much more), it follows that level  $i$  must contain at least  $\binom{\frac{q}{2} - x + i - 1}{i}$  different points.

By adding all these lower bounds for levels 0 through  $i$  we get the result of the lemma.  $\square$

**Lemma 4.2.** The total number of abnormal sets we can pack in the Decision Tree is at most

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\frac{q}{2} - x} \binom{q}{i}.$$

*Proof.* Since they must be disjoint (because of the packing), it follows that the total number of abnormal sequences cannot surpass the total number of sequences with less than  $\frac{q}{2} - x$  Ns. The result follows.  $\square$

The two lemmas above allow us to give the following upper bound.

**Lemma 4.3.** If Paul can win the  $k$ -lie game with  $q$  questions starting from position  $(n, 0, \dots, 0)$ , then

$$n \leq \frac{2^q}{\sum_{i=1}^k \binom{\frac{q}{2} - x + i - 1}{i}} + \sum_{i=0}^{\frac{q}{2} - x} \binom{q}{i},$$

for any  $x$ .

But this says that Paul wins the  $r - a2^k(k+1)$  question game from position  $(\sum_{i=1}^{k-1} ap_i(s-k)2^{k-i}, 0, \dots, 0)$ , provided that  $r$  is large enough.

Since as  $q \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $r \rightarrow \infty$ , this holds when  $q$  is large enough.  $\square$

Thus, we can pack the  $a2^k$   $k$ -sets and the  $\sum_{i=1}^{k-1} ap_i(s-k)2^{k-i}$   $(k-1)$ -sets in a disjoint fashion in the full binary tree on  $2^r$  vertices. But how much space do we have left? The  $k$ -sets take up  $O(1)$  space, the  $(k-1)$ -sets take up at most  $1 + \binom{s-k}{1} + \dots + \binom{s-k}{k-1}$  space each, by Lemma 2.3; hence by (6), the total space taken is at most

$$O(1) + \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} ap_i(s-k)2^{k-i} \left( 1 + \binom{s-k}{1} + \dots + \binom{s-k}{k-1} \right) = o(2^r).$$

Since the singletons, all  $ap_k(s-k)$  of them, take up at most a constant fraction  $\alpha'/2^k$  of the total size of the tree, it follows that, by use of Lemma 3.9, Paul wins the  $r$  question game starting at  $(a2^k, \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} ap_i(s-k)2^{k-i}, 0, \dots, 0, ap_k(s-k))$ , and because this position dominates  $(a2^k, ap_1(s-k)2^{k-1}, \dots, ap_k(s-k))$ , he also wins with  $r$  questions from the latter position.  $\square$

**Remark 3.11.** *An alternate proof of Lemma 3.10 may be given by proving that Paul wins the (harder) full lie  $r$ -question game from position  $(a2^k, ap_1(s-k)2^{k-1}, \dots, ap_k(s-k))$ . It is shown in [5] that for all  $k$  there exists  $c$  such that for  $r$  sufficiently large Paul wins the  $r$ -question full lie game from position  $(x_k, \dots, x_0)$  whenever*

$$\sum_{i=0}^k x_i \left( \sum_{j=0}^i \binom{r}{j} \right) < 2^r - cr^k$$

*A calculation shows that for  $r$  sufficiently large the initial position of Lemma 3.10 satisfies this condition.*

All that is left is now to put together the results of this section.

**Theorem 3.12.** *For all  $k$  and  $\alpha < 2^k$ , there exists a  $q$  large enough so that for any  $n \leq \alpha \frac{2^q}{\binom{q}{k}}$ , Paul can win the  $q$ -question game from position  $(n, 0, 0, \dots, 0)$ .*

*Proof.* Using the results of Lemma 3.3, it is enough to prove the theorem for  $n = a2^s$  with  $a \in (2^T, 2^{T+1}] \cap \mathbb{N}$ . But since  $(a2^s, 0, \dots, 0)$  is dominated by  $(a2^s, a2^{s-1}, \dots, a2^{s-1})$ , it is sufficient to show that Paul can win the  $q$ -question game starting from the latter position.

From  $(a2^s, a2^{s-1}, \dots, a2^{s-1})$ , Paul first makes the  $s-k$  perfect splits of Lemma 3.8, resulting in position  $(a2^k, ap_1(s-k)2^{k-1}, \dots, ap_k(s-k))$ . By Lemma 3.10 he then wins with  $r = q - s + k$  further questions.  $\square$

$Ns$  (which means that in effect we will be packing the  $(k-1)$ -sets into the full binary tree of size  $2^{r-a2^k(k+1)}$ ).

**Claim 3.10.1.** *Under all the assumptions above, for  $q$  large enough, we can pack  $\sum_{i=1}^{k-1} ap_i(s-k)2^{k-i}$   $(k-1)$ -sets in the full binary tree of size  $2^{r-a2^k(k+1)}$ .*

*Proof.* From the fact that  $a2^s \leq \alpha \frac{2^q}{\binom{q}{k}}$  one easily obtains that

$$a \binom{s-k}{k} < \frac{\alpha}{2^k} 2^r, \quad (4)$$

and hence, given some small  $\delta$  such that  $\alpha' = \alpha + \delta < 2^k$ , for  $q$  large enough, we shall have that  $ap_k(s-k) < \frac{\alpha'}{2^k} 2^r$ .

From (4) we also obtain that as  $q$  gets large,

$$a \binom{s-k}{k-1} = o(2^{r(\frac{k-1}{k} + \epsilon)}), \quad (5)$$

where  $\epsilon < \frac{1}{k}$  is an arbitrary (but fixed) small number.

Now since

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k-1} ap_i(s-k)2^{k-i} = 2a \binom{s-k}{k-1} (1 + o(1))$$

in asymptotic notation (because the polynomials, with the exception of  $p_{k-1}$ , are all of degree smaller than  $k-1$ , and the leading term in  $p_{k-1}(t)$  is  $\binom{t}{k-1}$ ), (5) implies that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k-1} ap_i(s-k)2^{k-i} = o(2^{r(\frac{k-1}{k} + \epsilon)}).$$

Since  $k$  is fixed, but  $r$  is allowed to be very large, it follows that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k-1} ap_i(s-k)2^{k-i} = o(2^{r(\frac{k-1}{k} + \epsilon)}) = o\left(\frac{2^{r-a2^k(k+1)}}{\binom{r}{k-1}}\right). \quad (6)$$

Consider now the  $k-1$  lie problem; fix  $\tilde{\alpha} < 2^{k-1}$ , for example  $\tilde{\alpha} = \frac{1}{2}$ . By induction, Paul wins the  $s$ -question game from starting position  $(\sum_{i=1}^{k-1} ap_i(s-k)2^{k-i}, 0, \dots, 0)$ , provided that  $s$  is large enough to have

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k-1} ap_i(s-k)2^{k-i} < \frac{1}{2} \frac{2^s}{\binom{s}{k-1}}.$$

Now choose  $s = r - a2^k(k+1)$ . From (6), for  $r$  large enough,

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k-1} ap_i(s-k)2^{k-i} = o\left(\frac{2^{r-a2^k(k+1)}}{\binom{r}{k-1}}\right) \leq \frac{1}{2} \frac{2^s}{\binom{s}{k-1}}.$$

**Lemma 3.8.** For any  $k, a$  and  $s \geq k$  integers, from starting position  $(a2^s, a2^{s-1}, a2^{s-1}, \dots, a2^{s-1})$ , Paul can make  $s - k$  perfect splits. Furthermore, after the  $j$ th split, the resulting position is  $(a2^{s-j}, ap_1(j)2^{s-1-j}, \dots, ap_k(j)2^{s-k-j})$ .

*Proof.* The proof follows directly from Lemmas 3.5 and 3.6.  $\square$

**Lemma 3.9.** If  $\sum_{i=1}^k x_i(1 + q + \dots + \binom{q}{i}) = 2^q - S$  with  $S \geq 0$ , and if Paul wins the  $q$  question game from  $(x_k, \dots, x_1, 0)$  then he wins from  $(x_k, \dots, x_1, S)$ .

*Proof.* By Theorem 2.4, since Paul wins we can simultaneously pack all  $x_i$  of the  $i$ -sets, for all  $1 \leq i \leq k$ . Because of their size limitation (see Lemma 2.3), this packing leaves at least  $S$  points of  $\{Y, N\}^q$  uncovered – but each point can be a 0-set, and hence we can add another  $S$  0-sets to the packing. Thus Paul wins from  $(x_k, \dots, x_1, S)$ .  $\square$

The last lemma we need is the following.

Let now  $k, \alpha < 2^k$ , and  $T$  be fixed, satisfying Lemma 3.3. Let  $p_0, \dots, p_k$  the polynomials of Lemma 3.6.

**Lemma 3.10.** There exists  $q_1$  such that for all  $q \geq q_1$ , the following holds. Let  $a, s$  be integers such that  $2^t < a \leq 2^{T+1}$  and  $a2^s \leq \alpha \frac{2^q}{\binom{q}{k}}$ . Set  $r = q - s + k$ . Then Paul can win the  $r$ -question game from position  $(a2^k, ap_1(s-k)2^{k-1}, \dots, ap_k(s-k))$ .

*Proof.* What we must do here is to show that it is possible to simultaneously pack  $a2^k$   $k$ -sets,  $a2_{k-1}p_1(s-k)$   $(k-1)$ -sets,  $\dots$ , and  $ap_k(s-k)$  0-sets in the full binary  $2^r$  tree.

Since  $a2^s \leq \alpha \frac{2^q}{\binom{q}{k}}$ ,  $s \leq q - k \log_2 q + O(1)$ , and hence  $r = q - s + k \rightarrow \infty$  as  $q \rightarrow \infty$ .

We proceed by induction over  $k$ . For  $k = 0$  (the no-lie case), we know that if  $a2^s \leq a2^q$ , then we can win the game starting at  $(a)$  with  $r$  questions, as  $a \leq 2^{q-s} = 2^r$ .

Assume now that we have proved the statement for all numbers smaller than  $k - 1$ , and we will now show it for  $k$ .

Now since  $(a2^k, \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} ap_i(s-k)2^{k-i}, 0, \dots, 0, ap_k(s-k))$  dominates  $(a2^k, ap_1(s-k)2^{k-1}, \dots, ap_k(s-k))$ , it suffices to pack  $a2^k$   $k$ -sets,  $\sum_{i=1}^{k-1} ap_i(s-k)2^{k-i}$   $(k-1)$ -sets, and  $ap_k(s-k)$  0-sets in the full binary  $2^r$  tree.

We will choose the  $a2^k$   $k$ -sets as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} S_1 &= \{e_1, e_2, \dots, e_{k+1}\} \\ S_2 &= \{e_{k+2}, e_{k+3}, \dots, e_{2k+2}\} \\ &\dots \\ S_{a2^k} &= \{e_{(a2^k-1)(k+1)+1}, e_{(a2^k-1)(k+1)+2}, \dots, e_{a2^k(k+1)}\}, \end{aligned}$$

where  $e_r$  is the sequence of all  $N$ s except for the  $r$ th location which contains a  $Y$  (for example,  $e_1 = YNNNN\dots$ ). Here we assume that  $q$  is much larger than  $a2^k(k+1)$ .

It is immediate to check that these are indeed  $k$ -sets and they are disjoint.

To insure that the  $(k-1)$ -sets that we construct are disjoint from these, we will require that *any* point in  $\{Y, N\}^q$  that goes into any one of the  $(k-1)$ -sets starts with  $a2^k(k+1)$

*Proof.* Since the initial values (at  $s = 0$ ) of the polynomials satisfy the same kind of recurrence as the  $m_i$ s of Lemma 3.5, it follows by the argument used there that  $p_j(s) \geq p_{j-1}(s)$  for all integer  $s$  and  $j \geq 1$ .

The second part of this technical lemma can be proved inductively. For  $j = 1$ , we see from the recurrence that  $p_1(s) = s + 1 = \binom{s}{1} + 1$  for all  $s$ .

Assume now that we have proved the result for all  $i \leq j - 1$  and let us prove it for  $j$ .

First, note that the polynomial recurrence can be replaced by the simpler 2-term recurrence

$$p_j(s + 1) = p_j(s) + p_{j-1}(s + 1) .$$

Hence, by going backwards, we obtain that

$$p_j(s + 1) = \sum_{k=1}^{s+1} p_{j-1}(k) + p_j(0) = 2^{j-1} + \sum_{k=1}^{s+1} p_{j-1}(k) .$$

By induction,  $p_{j-1}(k) = \binom{k}{j-1} + q_{j-1}(k)$ , where  $q_{j-1}$  is a polynomial of degree at most  $j - 2$ . Thus,

$$p_j(s + 1) = 2^{j-1} + \sum_{k=1}^{s+1} p_{j-1}(k) = 2^{j-1} + \sum_{k=1}^{s+1} \left( \binom{k}{j-1} + q_{j-1}(k) \right) .$$

By the additive property of binomial coefficients,

$$\begin{aligned} p_j(s + 1) &= \binom{s+2}{j} + \sum_{k=1}^{s+1} q_{j-1}(k) + 2^{j-1} \\ &= \binom{s+1}{j} + \left( 2^{j-1} + \sum_{k=1}^{s+1} q_{j-1}(k) + \binom{s+2}{j} - \binom{s+1}{j} \right) . \end{aligned}$$

Since the degree of  $q_{j-1}$  is at most  $j - 2$ , it follows that  $\sum_{k=1}^{s+1} q_{j-1}(k)$  is a polynomial of degree at most  $j - 1$ . Thus the polynomial

$$q_j(s + 1) = 2^{j-1} + \sum_{k=1}^{s+1} q_{j-1}(k) + \binom{s+2}{j} - \binom{s+1}{j}$$

has degree at most  $j - 1$  (since  $\binom{s+2}{j} - \binom{s+1}{j}$  has degree  $j - 1$ ), and the lemma is proved by induction.  $\square$

**Remark 3.7.** *In fact, one can prove that*

$$p_j(s) = \binom{s+j}{j} + \sum_{i=2}^j 2^{j-2} \binom{s+j-i}{j-i} ,$$

for all  $j, s \geq 0$ .

**Remark 3.4.** Note that if  $\alpha$  is considerably smaller than  $2^k$ , one does not have to go too far to find a suitable  $T$ ; it is when  $\alpha$  is close to  $2^k$  that  $T$  gets large. However, since  $\alpha$  is always fixed, so is  $T$ .

The following result is a crucial splitting lemma.

**Lemma 3.5.** Let  $a \in \mathbb{N}$ . Let  $1 = m_0, m_1, \dots, m_k$  such that  $m_i \geq \sum_{j=0}^{i-1} m_j$ , for all  $1 \leq i \leq k$ .

Set  $j_0 = n_0 = 1$ . For  $1 \leq i \leq k$  set

$$\begin{aligned} j_i &= m_i - m_{i-1} - m_{i-2} - \dots - m_0 && \text{and} \\ n_i = 2m_i - j_i &= m_i + m_{i-1} + m_{i-2} + \dots + m_0 \end{aligned}$$

Let  $t > k$ . Then from position  $(am_0 2^t, am_1 2^{t-1}, \dots, am_k 2^{t-k})$  we can make a perfect split by asking question  $(aj_0 2^{t-1}, aj_1 2^{t-2}, \dots, aj_k 2^{t-k-1})$ , with resulting position  $(an_0 2^{t-1}, an_1 2^{t-2}, \dots, an_k 2^{t-k-1})$ . Furthermore,  $n_i \geq \sum_{j=0}^{i-1} n_j$ , for all  $1 \leq i \leq k$ .

*Proof.* Note that the requirement that  $m_i \geq \sum_{j=0}^{i-1} m_j$ , for all  $1 \leq i \leq k$ , insures that the question Paul asks for the split is an allowable one (basically, it insures that  $0 \leq j_i \leq m_i$  for all  $i$ ).

The formulas for  $j_i$  and  $n_i$  are easily established by inspection. Let us now examine what it means for the  $n_i$ s to inherit the “growth property” of the  $m_i$ s. We must show that

$$n_i \geq n_{i-1} + n_{i-2} + \dots + n_0 ,$$

and since

$$n_i = m_i + m_{i-1} + \dots + m_0 ,$$

it suffices to show that  $m_{j+1} \geq n_j$  for all  $0 \leq j \leq i-1$ . Since  $n_j = m_j + \dots + m_0$ , the latter inequality is just the condition we imposed on the  $m_i$ s, and we are done.  $\square$

We now need to establish a technical result.

We define a (uniquely determined) infinite sequence of polynomials  $p_0, p_1, \dots, p_j, \dots$ , by the recursion

$$p_0(s) = 1, \forall s \tag{1}$$

$$p_j(s+1) = p_j(s) + p_{j-1}(s) + \dots + p_0(s), \forall j \geq 1, \tag{2}$$

$$p_j(0) = 2^{j-1}, \forall j \geq 1. \tag{3}$$

**Lemma 3.6.** For every  $j \geq 1$  and every  $s \geq 0$

$$p_j(s) \geq p_{j-1}(s) .$$

Furthermore,  $p_j(s) = \binom{s}{j} + q_j(s)$  for some polynomial  $q_j$  with  $\deg(q_j) \leq j-1$ .



In what follows we show that for any given  $k$ ,  $\alpha < 2^k$ , and  $q$  large enough, there exists a “small” multiple of a power of 2 between  $\alpha 2^q / \binom{q}{k}$  and  $2^k 2^q / \binom{q}{k}$ .

**Lemma 3.3.** *For any  $k \geq 1$  and  $\alpha$  such that  $\alpha < 2^k$ , there exist integers  $T$  and  $q_0$  such that for all  $q \geq q_0$ , there exists at least one  $a \in (2^T, 2^{T+1}] \cap \mathbb{N}$  such that*

$$\lceil \alpha \frac{2^q}{\binom{q}{k}} \rceil \leq a 2^s < \lfloor \frac{2^k + \alpha}{2} \frac{2^q}{\binom{q}{k}} \rfloor$$

for some integer  $s$ .

*Proof.* Given  $k$  and  $\alpha$  as in the statement of the lemma, a simple calculation shows that there is a value  $q_0$  such that for all  $q \geq q_0$ ,

$$\frac{\lfloor \frac{2^k + \alpha}{2} \frac{2^q}{\binom{q}{k}} \rfloor - \lceil \alpha \frac{2^q}{\binom{q}{k}} \rceil}{\lceil \alpha \frac{2^q}{\binom{q}{k}} \rceil} > \frac{2^k - \alpha}{4\alpha} .$$

Thus, choose  $q \geq q_0$ , and  $T$  the smallest integer such that

$$\frac{1}{2^T} \leq \frac{2^k - \alpha}{4\alpha} ,$$

and consider all numbers of the form  $a 2^s$ , with  $a \in (2^T, 2^{T+1}] \cap \mathbb{N}$  and  $s$  an integer. Let  $n_1 = (a_1 - 1) 2^{s_1}$  be the largest such number smaller than or equal to  $\lceil \alpha \frac{2^q}{\binom{q}{k}} \rceil$ . We will show that  $a_1 2^{s_1}$  is strictly between  $\lceil \alpha \frac{2^q}{\binom{q}{k}} \rceil$  and  $\lfloor \frac{2^k + \alpha}{2} \frac{2^q}{\binom{q}{k}} \rfloor$ .

To begin with, it is clear by choice of  $a_1$  and  $s_1$  that

$$\lceil \alpha \frac{2^q}{\binom{q}{k}} \rceil < a_1 2^{s_1} .$$

The other inequality is almost as easy to prove. Indeed,

$$\begin{aligned} a_1 2^{s_1} &= \left( \frac{1}{a_1 - 1} + 1 \right) (a_1 - 1) 2^{s_1} \leq \\ &\leq \left( \frac{1}{2^T} + 1 \right) \lceil \alpha \frac{2^q}{\binom{q}{k}} \rceil \\ &\leq \left( \frac{2^k - \alpha}{4\alpha} + 1 \right) \lceil \alpha \frac{2^q}{\binom{q}{k}} \rceil \\ &< \lfloor \frac{2^k + \alpha}{2} \frac{2^q}{\binom{q}{k}} \rfloor , \end{aligned}$$

by way of choosing  $T$  and  $q_0$ . □

Using Claim 2.2.1, we get that all  $A_{yes}(i, j)$  are  $i$ -sets, and all  $B_{yes}(i, j)$  are  $(i-1)$ -sets. Moreover, both  $A_{yes}(i, j)$ s and  $B_{yes}(i, j)$ s are packed in the right subtree of the root. But since Carole has answered “yes”, Paul *will* be searching in the right subtree of the root! And since by induction, because these  $i$ - and  $(i-1)$ -sets are packed in the right subtree (and thus in the  $q-1$  question Decision Tree), it follows that Paul can use the strategy to win.

□

The second implication is proved, and so is the lemma.

□

### 3 Lower bounds

We will start with a definition. Here we are using the vector format previously described.

**Definition 4.** *We say that from position  $(x_0, x_1, \dots, x_k)$  we can make a perfect split if there exists an allowable question  $(a_0, a_1, \dots, a_k)$  that Paul can ask, such that the outcome in the case of an affirmative answer is the same as for a negative one.*

If they exist, the integers  $a_0, \dots, a_k$  are (uniquely) defined by the following set of equations:

$$\begin{aligned} a_0 &= \frac{x_0}{2}, \\ a_i &= \frac{x_i - x_{i-1} + a_{i-1}}{2}, \quad \forall 1 \leq i \leq k. \end{aligned}$$

**Remark 3.1.** *There are two ways in which a perfect split can fail to exist: the first one is due to issues of parity, and the second one is due to the fact that the question might not be allowable (for a question to be allowable we must have  $0 \leq a_i \leq x_i$  for every  $0 \leq i \leq k$ ).*

For example, from  $(2, 1)$  we can make a perfect split by asking the question  $(1, 0)$ , which regardless of the answer takes Paul to position  $(1, 1)$ .

Intuitively, whenever one is in need of perfect splits in the Halffie game, the best initial values to start from are powers of 2 (or “close” to a power of 2, like a “small” multiple of a power of 2). Unfortunately, not every number is of such a form, which is an inconvenience. However, in this game, there is a concept of dominance which will make things easier, and will allow us to reduce the study of the problem to numbers  $n = a2^s$  where  $a$  will be “small” compared to  $s$ .

**Definition 5.** *We will say that position  $p = (x_0, x_1, \dots, x_k)$  dominates position  $p' = (x'_0, x'_1, \dots, x'_k)$  if for all  $i \leq k$ ,  $\sum_{j=0}^i x_j \geq \sum_{j=0}^i x'_j$ . For example,  $(2, 3, 0, 0, 1)$  dominates  $(2, 1, 1, 1, 1)$ .*

**Remark 3.2.** *The essential fact about a position  $p$  dominating another position  $p'$  is that, trivially, if  $p$  is a winning position for Paul in  $q$  moves, then so is  $p'$ . In particular, if  $n \leq a2^s$  for some  $a$  and  $s$ , and if  $(a2^s, 0, \dots, 0)$  is a winning position for Paul when  $q$  questions are left, then so is  $(n, 0, \dots, 0)$ .*

game, starting at this position. If we look at the set  $P_{i,j}$  of possible paths that lead to a given answer (call it  $\alpha_{i,j}$ ) from among the  $x_i$  possible answers in the case when Carol has already lied  $k - i$  times, we can easily see that  $P_{i,j}$  is an  $i$ -set. Since all such sets, for all the  $i$ 's, are disjoint, it follows that they represent a packing of  $x_i$   $i$ -sets,  $i = 0, \dots, k$ , in the full binary tree of size  $2^q$ .

For the other direction, we will show how to construct the splitting questions which lie at the nodes of the Decision Tree. We can pack the  $i$ -sets,  $0 \leq i \leq k$ , and we choose to label each set of leaves that correspond to an  $i$ -set by a number from 1 through  $n := x_k + \dots + x_0$ . Also, we assume that the packing is done so that the “no” branches to the left, whereas the “yes” branches to the right, just like in Figure 2.

For each node  $z$  of the Decision Tree we define

$$\begin{aligned} L(z) &= \{r : \text{some leaf in the left subtree of } z \text{ has label } r\} \\ Q(z) &= \{1, 2, \dots, n\} \setminus L(z) . \end{aligned}$$

At node  $z$ , we place the question “Is the answer in  $Q(z)$ ?”.

**Claim 2.4.1.** *The questions we indicated above represent a strategy for Paul.*

*Proof.* We proceed by induction on the number of questions  $q$ . The case  $q = 0$  corresponds to  $n = 1$  and  $k = 0$ , in other words Paul knows what the answer is and no questions are needed.

Assume we have proved that packing implies winning for any number of questions smaller than  $q$ , and let us examine the question at the root of the  $q$ -Decision Tree. Paul asks the question “Is the answer in  $Q(\text{root})$ ?” and

- If Carole’s answer is “no”, Paul knows that she is telling the truth, and it follows that the answer *must* be one of the labels present at the leaves of the left subtree of the root. Since she answered “no”, that is where he will search.

Let

$$A_{no}(i, j) = \{w : Nw \in P(i, j) \text{ and } P(i, j)\text{'s stem starts with a N}\};$$

any one of these paths lead to a valid answer, and any valid answer has such a path leading to it.

Using Claim 2.2.1, we get that  $A_{no}(i, j)$  is an  $i$ -set. Since these  $i$ -sets are packed in the left subtree, they are packed in the Decision Tree corresponding to the  $q - 1$  question game. By induction, Paul can use the same strategy to win.

- If Carole’s answer is “yes”, Paul cannot, generally, determine the truthfulness of her answer.

Let

$$\begin{aligned} A_{yes}(i, j) &= \{w : Yw \in P(i, j) \text{ and } P(i, j)\text{'s stem starts with a Y}\} \\ B_{yes}(i, j) &= \{w : Yw \in P(i, j) \text{ and } P(i, j)\text{'s stem starts with a N}\} , \end{aligned}$$

and again each such path leads to a valid answer and any valid answer has such a path leading to it.

*Proof.* We will show that the number of elements on level  $i$  of the  $k$ -tree is bounded from above by  $\binom{q}{i}$ .

Let  $w$  be a node at level  $i$ , and let  $r = x_0, x_1, \dots, x_i = w$  be the path from the root  $r$  to  $w$  in the tree. Let  $p_1 = \delta(x_0, x_1)$ ,  $p_2 = \delta(x_1, x_2)$ ,  $\dots$ ,  $p_i = \delta(x_{i-1}, x_i)$ . Note that  $1 \leq p_1 < p_2 < \dots < p_i \leq q$ .

By the definition of the  $k$ -tree, the choice of the positions  $p_1, \dots, p_i$  determines the element  $w$  completely. Since there are at most  $\binom{q}{i}$  possibilities for the choice of the  $p_i$ s, it follows that there are at most  $\binom{q}{i}$  elements on the  $i$ th level of the tree.  $\square$

### 2.3 The Synthesis

The final result that we state and prove in this section is the following crucial equivalence theorem, which connects the two formats of the Halflie game (vectorial and  $k$ -set) that we have presented here.

**Theorem 2.4.** *Given a number  $q$  of questions, the position  $(x_k, x_{k-1}, \dots, x_1, x_0)$  is a winning position in  $q$  moves for Paul if and only if one can find a family  $\mathcal{P}$  of disjoint sets  $P_{i,j}$ ,  $0 \leq i \leq k$ ,  $1 \leq j \leq x_i$ , such that*

1. for all  $i$  and  $j$ ,  $P_{i,j}$  is an  $i$ -set;
2. for all  $i$  and  $j$ , the elements of  $P_{i,j}$  are in  $\{Y, N\}^q$ .

*If such a family of disjoint sets exists, we will say that we can pack (simultaneously)  $x_i$   $i$ -sets,  $i = 0, \dots, k$ , in the full binary tree of size  $2^q$ .*

For an example of what it means to “pack” a  $k$ -set, refer to Figure 2 below.

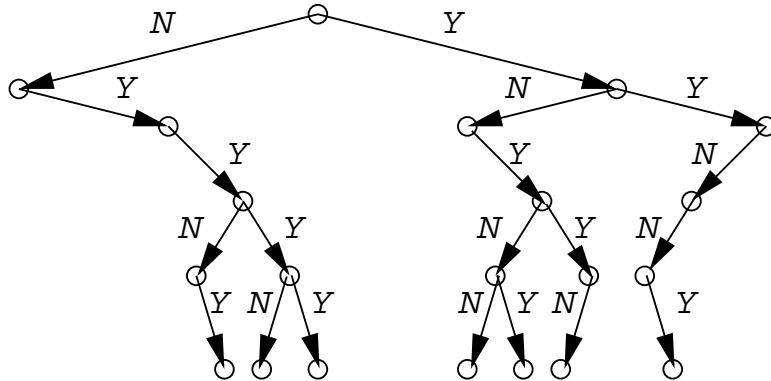


Figure 2: Packing the 2-set of Figure 1 into the Decision Tree; the rest of the Decision Tree vertices are not drawn for convenience

*Proof.* The “left to right” direction of the argument is easy; indeed, if Paul can win the game from  $(x_k, x_{k-1}, \dots, x_1, x_0)$  in  $q$  moves, let us examine the decision tree for the Halflie

2. Let  $r'$  be a nonroot point, with parent  $r^*$ , and of depth less than  $k$ . For each  $i > \delta(r', r^*)$  for which  $r'_i = N$ , there exists exactly one child  $\tilde{r}$  of  $r'$  such that  $\delta(\tilde{r}, r') = i$ . Moreover, these are all the children of  $r'$ .

**Definition 3.** We call the set of nodes of a  $k$ -tree a  $k$ -set, and we call the sequence at the root of the tree the stem.

To better illustrate the definitions above, we have inserted Figure 1.

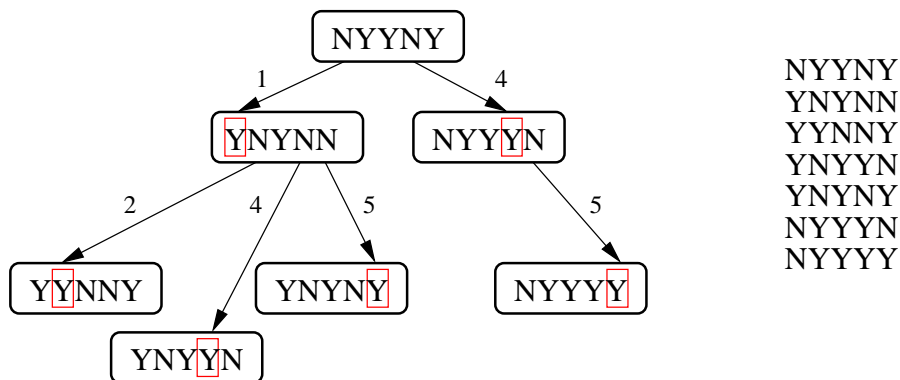


Figure 1: A 2-tree (left) and the corresponding 2-set (list, right) when  $q = 5$ ; the boxed letters and the numbers on the arrows the represent  $\delta(\text{parent}, \text{child})$  and the place where  $N$  has turned into  $Y$  in the child sequence

**Remark 2.2.** Note that any point in  $\{Y, N\}^q$  is a 0-set; critically, the set of paths leading to a given value  $\alpha$  in the decision tree for the Halflie game with  $k$  lies form an  $k$ -set (and this would be an equivalent alternative definition of a  $k$ -set).

**Claim 2.2.1.** Let  $A$  be a  $k$ -set in  $\{Y, N\}^q$  with stem  $v$ .

- (i). Suppose  $v$  starts with an  $Y$ . Then  $\{w : Yw \in A\}$  is a  $k$ -set (in  $\{Y, N\}^{q-1}$ ) and  $\{w : Nw \in A\} = \emptyset$ .
- (ii). Suppose  $v$  begins with an  $N$ . Then  $\{w : Yw \in A\}$  is a  $(k-1)$ -set (in  $\{Y, N\}^{q-1}$ ) and  $\{w : Nw \in A\}$  is a  $k$ -set.

*Proof.* The proof is immediate from the definition. □

The  $k$ -sets prove to be essential for proving both upper and lower asymptotic bounds for  $A_k(q)$ ; we will state and prove here two results that will be used in the next sections.

The following lemma follows easily from the definition.

**Lemma 2.3.** For any  $k$  and  $q$ , the maximum size of a  $k$ -set in  $\{Y, N\}^q$  is at most

$$m_k(q) = 1 + \binom{q}{1} + \dots + \binom{q}{k} .$$

It follows that Carole still has the opportunity to lie  $i$  more times. Let us then say that possibility  $\alpha$  is in state  $i$ .

We can thus describe the position of the game as a vector  $(x_k, x_{k-1}, \dots, x_0)$  where  $x_i$  is the number of possibilities in state  $i$ .

We further consider a query “Is  $x \in A$ ?” by Paul to be described by a vector  $(a_k, \dots, a_0)$  where  $a_i$  is the number of  $\alpha \in A$  of state  $i$ . Now consider the two possibilities.

- Carole says “no.” Paul knows this is a truthful answer. Then none of the  $a_i$  possibilities of state  $i$  that were in  $A$  are viable, while the  $x_i - a_i$  possibilities of state  $i$  that were not in  $A$  are still in state  $i$ . The new position is  $(x_k - a_k, \dots, x_0 - a_0)$ .
- Carole says “yes.” The  $a_i$  possibilities of state  $i$  that were in  $A$  remain in state  $i$ ; further, as Carole may have been lying, the  $x_i - a_i$  possibilities of state  $i$  that were not in  $A$  move to state  $i - 1$  (when  $i = 0$  these possibilities are no longer viable). The new position is then  $(a_k, a_{k-1} + x_k - a_k, \dots, a_0 + x_1 - a_1)$ .

We can describe the vector game without any reference to lying. There are  $q$  rounds. There is an initial vector  $\vec{P} = (z_k, \dots, z_0)$  with all  $z_j$  nonnegative integers. Each round Paul selects a vector  $\vec{a} = (a_k, \dots, a_0)$  with all  $a_j$  integers satisfying  $0 \leq a_j \leq z_j$ . Carole then resets  $\vec{P}$  to either  $(x_k - a_k, \dots, x_0 - a_0)$  or  $(a_k, a_{k-1} + x_k - a_k, \dots, a_0 + x_1 - a_1)$ . Paul wins if at the end of the game the sum of the coefficients of  $\vec{P}$  is either zero or one. (Strictly speaking, a move by Carole that sets  $\vec{P} = \vec{0}$  would be cheating. It is convenient, however, to allow this move and then declare Paul the winner.)

The halfliar game with parameters  $(n, q, k)$  is then equivalent to the  $q$ -round vector game with initial vector  $\vec{P} = (n, 0, \dots, 0)$  (of length  $k+1$ ).

**Remark 2.1.** *The vector format may also be used in the full lie problem. The only distinction is that when  $\vec{P} = (x_k, \dots, x_0)$  and Paul selects  $\vec{a} = (a_k, \dots, a_0)$  then Carole may reset  $\vec{P}$  to either  $(a_k, a_{k-1} + x_k - a_k, \dots, a_0 + x_1 - a_1)$  (as above) or  $(x_k - a_k, x_{k-1} - a_{k-1} + a_k, \dots, x_0 - a_0 + a_1)$ .*

## 2.2 Packing $k$ -Trees

In this subsection we define two concepts that proved to be crucial in our understanding of the problem, by providing a second format to the Halfliar Game.

First, we introduce the (perhaps familiar)  $\delta$  function, which we use to define the two concepts mentioned above: those of  $k$ -tree and  $k$ -set.

**Definition 1.** *Given two points in  $\{Y, N\}^q$ ,  $w = w_1 w_2 \dots w_q$  and  $w' = w'_1 w'_2 \dots w'_q$ , we define  $\delta(w, w')$  to be the smallest  $i$  for which  $w_i \neq w'_i$ .*

**Definition 2.** *A  $k$ -tree is a rooted tree of depth at most  $k$  whose vertices are points of  $\{Y, N\}^q$  with the following properties:*

1. *Let the root be  $r = r_1 r_2 \dots r_q$ . For each  $1 \leq i \leq q$  such that  $r_i = N$ , there exists exactly one child  $r'$  of  $r$  with  $\delta(r, r') = i$ . Moreover, these are all the children of  $r$ ;*

Berlekamp [1]. Pelc [3] solved the problem completely when  $k = 1$ . Spencer [5] solved the problem completely for any fixed  $k$  with  $q$  sufficiently large. In particular, it is known that for any fixed  $k$

$$A_k^*(q) \sim \frac{2^q}{\binom{q}{k}}$$

where the asymptotics are as  $q \rightarrow \infty$ .

In this paper we modify Carole’s ability to lie: she is still allowed to lie at most  $k$  times, but she is *only* allowed to lie when the truthful answer is “No”. In other words, for Paul, any “No” he hears is a truthful answer and thus completely trustworthy; and any “Yes” answer he hears is a potential lie.

We call this the *halfie* game. We shall set  $A_k(q)$  equal to the maximal  $n$  such that Paul has a winning strategy in the halfie game with parameters  $(n, q, k)$ . Our main result is the following:

**Theorem 1.1.** *For any fixed  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ ,*

$$A_k(q) \sim 2^k \frac{2^q}{\binom{q}{k}}$$

where the asymptotics are as  $q \rightarrow \infty$ .

Informally, the restriction of Carole to halfies, as opposed to full lies, allows Paul to probe  $2^k$  times as many possibilities.

Many authors have commented on the connection between the now classic liar problem and the classic coding theory problem of sending  $n$  messages through a binary channel which may make up to  $k$  errors. The two problems are equivalent if Paul is required to pose all  $q$  queries at once – i.e., if his strategy must be nonadaptive. Alternatively, the liar problem is the coding theory problem with “feedback.”

We may make a similar connection to the halfliar game. Consider what is sometimes called in the coding theory literature the Z-channel. In this channel, a one may be accidentally transformed into a zero, but a zero is never transformed into a one. We naturally identify zero with Yes and one with No. Our halfliar game may then be considered, roughly, the coding theory problem on the Z-channel with feedback.

Our result for  $k = 1$  (Carole is allowed 1 lie) has been proven independently by F. Cicalese and D. Mundici [2]. Indeed, a number of the key ideas of their paper have proven to be very useful in our argument for general fixed  $k$ .

## 2 Two Perspectives

### 2.1 The Vector Game

There is a natural way to describe the state of the game in a middle position, after Paul has asked and Carole has answered a certain number of questions. For each (still) valid answer  $\alpha$  there must be a certain number of lies that Carole has already used. If that number is greater than  $k$  then  $\alpha$  is no longer a possibility (it is not *viable*). Suppose then that for a certain still viable  $\alpha$ , the number of lies Carole has used is  $k - i$  for some  $0 \leq i \leq k$ .

# A Halfliar's Game

Ioana Dumitriu <sup>\*</sup>  
Joel Spencer <sup>†</sup>

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## Abstract

In Ulam's game Paul tries to find one of  $n$  possibilities with  $q$  Yes-No questions, while responder Carole is allowed to lie a fixed number  $k$  of times. We consider an asymmetric variant in which Carole must say yes when that is the correct answer (whence the *halfliar*). We show that this variation allows Paul to distinguish between roughly  $2^k$  as many possibilities as in Ulam's game.

## 1 Introduction

The basic liar game has two players whom we call Paul and Carole and three integer parameters  $(n, q, k)$ . Paul is trying to find an unknown  $x \in \{1, \dots, n\}$  by asking  $q$  questions of Carole. The questions must all be of the form "Is  $x \in A$ ?", where  $A$  is a subset of  $\{1, \dots, n\}$ . Carole, the responder, is allowed to lie; however, she may lie at most  $k$  times. Paul wins if at the end of the  $q$  questions and responses the answer  $x$  is known with certainty.

Carole is allowed to play (and *will* play) an adversary strategy. That is, she does not preselect a particular  $x$ , but rather answers questions in a manner consistent with at least one possible  $x$ . At the end of the game, if there are at least two answers  $x, x'$  still valid (i.e., for which Carole has lied at most  $k$  times) then Carole has won; otherwise Paul is the winner of the game.

We further note that Paul's questions may (and generally *will*) be adaptive. That is, Paul's choice of question depends on Carole's previous answers.

In this formulation we have a two person perfect information game; thus we know that for any given triplet  $(n, q, k)$  either Paul or Carole has a perfect strategy. The question is, which one? Due to monotonicity, it suffices to answer the following more explicit question: given  $q$  and  $k$ , what is the maximal  $n$  (which we will denote by  $A_k^*(q)$ ) for which Paul has a winning strategy?

Much work on the basic liar game was inspired by comments in the autobiography of Stanislas Ulam [6]. For this reason we, like many other authors, refer to the liar game as Ulam's game. Other early references include work by Alfred Rényi [4] and Elwyn

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<sup>\*</sup>Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Dept. of Math. E-mail: dumitriu@math.mit.edu

<sup>†</sup>Courant Institute of Mathematical Sciences (New York). E-mail: spencer@cims.nyu.edu