

# Solutions to Recitation 5

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This is my own solution to the Recitation 5 of [18.014](#), which includes Exercise 9abc, 11, 1ab, and 4a from Apostol's *Calculus* (1: 57, 63).

1. This exercise develops some fundamental properties of polynomials. Let  $f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n c_k x^k$  be a polynomial of degree  $n$ . Prove each of the following:

- (a) If  $n \geq 1$  and  $f(0) = 0$ , then  $f(x) = x g(x)$ , where  $g$  is a polynomial of degree  $n - 1$ .

*Proof.* Since  $n \geq 1$ , we can rewrite  $f$  as

$$f(x) = c_0 + \sum_{k=1}^n c_k x^k = c_0 + x \sum_{k=1}^n c_k x^{k-1}.$$

But  $f(0) = 0$ , which implies  $c_0 = 0$ . Then let  $g(x) = \sum_{k=1}^n c_k x^{k-1}$  and we obtain

$$f(x) = x \sum_{k=1}^n c_k x^{k-1} = x g(x). \quad \square$$

- (b) For each real  $a$ , the function  $p$  given by  $p(x) = f(x + a)$  is a polynomial of degree  $n$ .

*Proof.* We have

$$\begin{aligned} f(x + a) &= \sum_{k=0}^n c_k (x + a)^k \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^n \left\{ c_k \sum_{i=0}^k \binom{k}{i} a^{k-i} x^i \right\} \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^n \sum_{i=0}^k \binom{k}{i} c_k a^{k-i} x^i \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^n \left\{ \sum_{i=0}^{n-k} \binom{k+i}{k} c_{k+i} a^i \right\} x^k. \end{aligned} \quad \square$$

The above proof says too much, which not only shows the new polynomial is of the same degree but also provide a way to compute the coefficients for it. A less combinatorial proof is as follows.

*Proof.* The statement clearly holds for  $n = 0$  since  $f(x + a) = f(x) = c_0$ . Suppose the statement holds for some  $n \geq 0$  and  $f$  is a polynomial of degree  $n + 1$ . We decompose  $f(x + a)$  into

$$f(x + a) = \sum_{k=0}^{n+1} c_k (x + a)^k = \left( \sum_{k=0}^n c_k (x + a)^k \right) + c_{n+1} (x + a)^{n+1}.$$

Let  $g(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n c_k x^k$ . Since  $g$  is a polynomial of degree  $n$ , then there must be a sequence of

coefficients  $d_k$  such that  $g(x+a) = \sum_{k=0}^n d_k x^k$ . Thus

$$\begin{aligned} f(x+a) &= g(x+a) + c_{n+1}(x+a)^{n+1} \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^n d_k x^k + c_{n+1} \sum_{k=0}^{n+1} \binom{n+1}{k} a^{n+1-k} x^k \\ &= \left( \sum_{k=0}^n d_k x^k \right) + \left\{ \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n+1}{k} c_{n+1} a^{n+1-k} x^k \right\} + c_{n+1} x^{n+1} \\ &= \left\{ \sum_{k=0}^n \left[ d_k + \binom{n+1}{k} c_{n+1} a^{n+1-k} \right] x^k \right\} + c_{n+1} x^{n+1}. \end{aligned}$$

Let

$$e_k = \begin{cases} d_k + \binom{n+1}{k} c_{n+1} a^{n+1-k}, & 0 \leq k \leq n, \\ c_{n+1}, & k = n+1. \end{cases}$$

Then we could rewrite  $f(x+a)$  as

$$f(x+a) = \left( \sum_{k=0}^n e_k x^k \right) + e_{n+1} x^{n+1} = \sum_{k=0}^{n+1} e_k x^k. \quad \square$$

- (c) If  $n \geq 1$  and  $f(a) = 0$  for some real  $a$ , then  $f(x) = (x-a)h(x)$ , where  $h$  is a polynomial of degree  $n-1$ .

*Proof.* Let  $g(x) = f(x+a)$ . By the result from (b),  $g$  is a polynomial of degree  $n$ . Since  $n \geq 1$  and  $g(0) = f(a) = 0$ , by the result from (a),  $g(x) = x p(x)$ , where  $p(x)$  is a polynomial of degree  $n-1$ . Let  $h(x) = p(x-a)$ . Again by the result from (b),  $h$  is also a polynomial of degree  $n-1$ . Then  $f(x) = g(x-a) = (x-a)p(x-a) = (x-a)h(x)$ .  $\square$

2. In each case, find all polynomials  $p$  of degree  $\leq 2$  which satisfy the given conditions for all real  $x$ .

- (a)  $p(x) = p(1-x)$ .

The coefficient  $c_0$  can be any real number regardless of the degree.

When the degree is zero, the condition clearly holds for all constant polynomials.

When the degree is 1 ( $c_1 \neq 0$ ), we have

$$\begin{aligned} c_1 x &= c_1(1-x), \text{ or} \\ c_1(2x-1) &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

Since  $c_1$  is not zero, it must be the case that  $x = 1/2$ . This means there is no polynomial of degree 1 which satisfies the above condition for all real  $x$ .

When the degree is 2 ( $c_2 \neq 0$ ), we have

$$c_1 x + c_2 x^2 = c_1(1-x) + c_2(1-x)^2,$$

which simplifies to

$$(c_1 + c_2)(2x-1) = 0.$$

By the same reasoning in the case of degree 1, it must be the case that  $c_1 + c_2 = 0$ .

- (b)  $p(x) = p(1+x)$ .

As in the previous exercise, the coefficient  $c_0$  can be any real number regardless of the degree.

By the same reasoning, it's easy to show that there is no polynomial of degree 1 which satisfies the above condition for all real  $x$ .

When the degree is 2 ( $c_2 \neq 0$ ), we have

$$c_1 x + c_2 x^2 = c_1(1+x) + c_2(1+x)^2,$$

which simplifies to

$$c_1 + c_2(2x+1) = 0.$$

Since  $c_2$  is not zero, no matter what value  $c_1$  is, we can always find a real number  $x$  such that  $c_1 + c_2(2x+1) \neq 0$ . This means there is no polynomial of degree 2 which satisfies the above condition for all real  $x$  either.

(c)  $p(2x) = 2p(x)$ .

The coefficient  $c_0$  must be zero regardless of the degree for the above condition to hold for all real  $x$ , since

$$p(2 \cdot 0) = 2p(0), \text{ or}$$

$$p(0) = c_0 = 0.$$

When the degree is zero, the only polynomial satisfying the stated condition for all real  $x$  is  $p(x) = 0$ .

When the degree is 1, we have

$$c_0 + c_1(2x) = 2(c_0 + c_1x)$$

and since  $c_0 = 0$ , the above equality can be simplified into

$$2c_1x = 2c_1x,$$

which is a tautology. This means  $c_1$  can take any value except zero as long as  $c_0$  is zero.

When the degree is 2, we have

$$c_2(2x)^2 = 2c_2x^2, \text{ or}$$

$$2c_2x^2 = 0.$$

Since  $c_2 \neq 0$ , the last equality is only satisfied when  $x = 0$ . This means there is no polynomial of degree 2 satisfying the stated condition for all real  $x$ .

(d)  $p(3x) = p(x + 3)$ .

As before, the coefficient  $c_0$  can be any real number regardless of the degree.

When the degree is zero, the stated condition holds for all constant polynomials.

When the degree is 1 ( $c_1 \neq 0$ ), we have

$$c_1(3x) = c_1(x + 3), \text{ or}$$

$$x = \frac{3}{2}.$$

This means there is no polynomial of degree 1 satisfying the stated condition for all real  $x$ .

When the degree is 2, we have

$$c_1(3x) + c_2(3x)^2 = c_1(x + 3) + c_2(x + 3)^2, \text{ or}$$

$$[c_1 + c_2(4x + 3)](2x - 3) = 0.$$

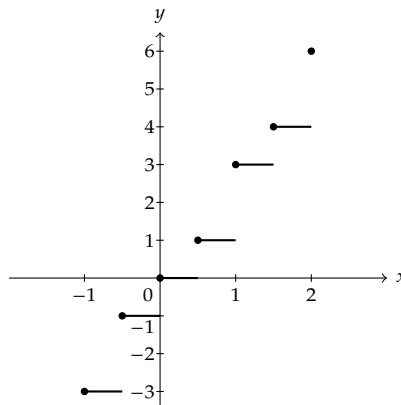
Solve the last equation and we obtain

$$x = -\frac{1}{4}\left(\frac{c_1}{c_2} + 3\right) \quad \text{or} \quad x = \frac{3}{2}.$$

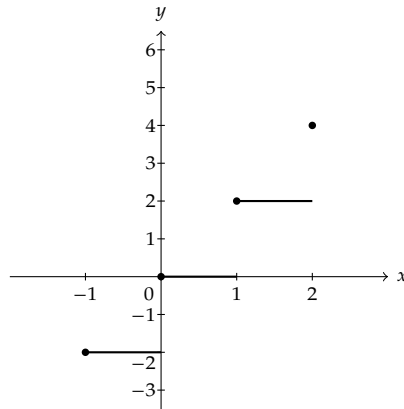
This means there is no polynomial of degree 2 satisfying the stated condition for all real  $x$ .

3. Let  $f(x) = [x]$  and let  $g(x) = [2x]$  for all real  $x$ . In each case, draw the graph of the function  $h$  defined over the interval  $[-1, 2]$  by the formula given.

(a)  $h(x) = f(x) + g(x)$ .



(b)  $h(x) = f(x) + g(x/2)$ .



4. Prove that  $[x + n] = [x] + n$  for every integer  $n$ .

*Proof.* By definition of greatest-integer function, we have

$$[x] \leq x < [x] + 1 \quad (1)$$

and

$$[x + n] \leq x + n < [x + n] + 1. \quad (2)$$

We multiply (1) by  $-1$ , add the result to (2), and obtain

$$[x + n] - [x] - 1 < n < [x + n] - [x] + 1,$$

which is the same as

$$n - 1 < [x + n] - [x] < n + 1.$$

The only integer lies between  $n - 1$  and  $n + 1$  is  $n$  and this is to say  $[x + n] - [x] = n$ .  $\square$