# 1 Polynomials

**Definition 1.0.1.** A Polynomial P(x) is an one variable expression or function of the form

$$P(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} a_i x^i = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$$

where  $a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n$  are constants and  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . The constants  $a_i$  are called the *coefficients* of the polynomial. We will denote A[x] as the set of all polynomials with  $a_i \in A$ . If  $n \neq 0$  then n is called the *degree* of the polynomial P(x) and write  $\deg P(x) = n$ . If  $a_n = 1$  then we say that the polynomial is *moinc*.

r is called a root of the polynomial P(x) if and only if P(r) = 0.

#### §1.1 Division Algorithm

**Theorem 1.1.1** (The Division Algorithm)

Given two polynomial A(x) and B(x) there exists unique polynomials Q(x) and R(x) with deg  $R(x) < \deg B(x)$  such that,

$$A(x) = Q(x)B(x) + R(x)$$

## §1.2 Roots of Cubic Polynomials

Finding the roots of a cubic polynomial is quite hard. So, we are going to first try to solve the cubic polynomial,

$$f(x) = x^3 + px + q$$

where  $p, q \in \mathbb{R}$ . Setting p = -3ab and  $q = a^3 + b^3$  we get,

$$f(x) = x^3 + a^3 + b^3 - 3abx$$

Now using the formula,

$$a^{3} + b^{3} + c^{3} - 3abc = (a + b + c)(a^{2} + b^{2} + c^{2} - ab - bc - ca)$$

we get,

$$f(x) = (x + a + b)(x^2 - (a + b)x + a^2 + b^2 - ab)$$

Therefore the 3 roots of f are,

$$x_{1} = -a - b$$

$$x_{2}, x_{3} = \frac{a + b \pm \sqrt{a^{2} + b^{2} + 2ab - 4a^{2} - 4b^{2} + 4ab}}{2}$$

$$= \frac{a + b \pm \sqrt{-3a^{2} - 3b^{2} + 6ab}}{2}$$

$$= \frac{a + b \pm \sqrt{-3(a - b)^{2}}}{2}$$

$$= \frac{a + b \pm \sqrt{3}i(a - b)}{2}$$

$$= \frac{(1 + \sqrt{3}i)a \pm (1 - \sqrt{3}i)b}{2}$$

$$= \frac{1 + \sqrt{3}i}{2}a \pm \frac{1 - \sqrt{3}i}{2}b$$

Now we have express the root in terms of p, q that is, we have to express a, b in terms of p, q. Now,

$$q = a^{3} + b^{3}$$

$$p = -3ab$$

$$\implies a^{3}b^{3} = -\frac{p^{3}}{27}$$

Let  $u = a^3$  and  $v = b^3$ . Notice that u and v are the roots of the quadratic polynomial,

$$P(x) = x^{2} - (u+v)x + uv = x^{2} - q^{3}x - \frac{p^{3}}{27}$$

Using the quadratic equation we get,

$$u, v = \frac{q^3 \pm \sqrt{q^6 + \frac{4}{27}p^3}}{2}$$
$$a, b = \sqrt[3]{\frac{q^3}{2} \pm \frac{\sqrt{q^6 + \frac{4}{27}p^3}}{2}}$$
$$= \sqrt[3]{\frac{q^3}{2} \pm \sqrt{\frac{q^6}{4} + \frac{p^3}{27}}}$$

So let's now try to solve the cubic equation using the results we've got so far,

$$f(x) = x^3 - x^2 - 2x + 1$$

First we have to use substitution to transform the polynomial into another polynomial of the form,

$$x^3 + px + q$$

Since every polynomial can be uniquely defined by its coefficients, we can associate or express a polynomial of degree n by a unique point in n+1 dimensional space. For example we can express the polynomial,

$$(1) \cdot x^3 + (-1) \cdot x^2 + (-2) \cdot x + (1)$$

as,

$$(1) \cdot x^3 + (-1) \cdot x^2 + (-2) \cdot x + (1) \rightarrow (1, -1, -2, 1)$$

Likewise, the point (5, -1, 0, 1) can be used to represent the polynomial,

$$(5,-1,0,1) \rightarrow 5x^3 - x^2 + 1$$

Notice that,

$$(x_3, x_2, \dots, x_0) + (y_3, y_2, \dots, y_0) = (x_3 + y_3, x_2 + y_2, \dots, x_0 + y_0)$$

Say that there exists a polynomial u(x) = (x+n) where  $n \in \mathbb{C}$  such that,

$$x^{3} - x^{2} - 2x + 1 = u(x)^{3} + pu(x) + q$$

This equation can also be represented as,

$$(1,-1,-2,1) = (1,3n,3n^2,n^3) + (0,0,p,pn) + (0,0,0,q) \implies (1,-1,-2,1) = (1,3n,3n^2+p,n^3+pn+q)$$

This gives us the system of equation,

$$3n = -1$$
$$3n^2 + p = -2$$
$$n^3 + pn + q = 1$$

Therefore,

$$n = -\frac{1}{3}$$
$$p = -\frac{7}{3}$$
$$q = \frac{7}{27}$$

Thus,

$$x^{3} - x^{2} - 2x + 1 = \left(x - \frac{1}{3}\right)^{3} - \frac{7}{3}\left(x - \frac{1}{3}\right) + \frac{7}{27} \implies f(x) = g\left(x - \frac{1}{3}\right)$$

where

$$g(x) = x^3 - \frac{7}{3}x + \frac{7}{27}$$

Now we can use the results we've proved earlier to solve the polynomial g(x). After that we add  $\frac{1}{3}$  to the 3 roots of g(x). The 3 numbers we will get by adding  $\frac{1}{3}$  are the 3 roots of f(x).

## §1.3 Lagrange Interpolation

#### **Theorem 1.3.1** (Lagrange Interpolation)

Let  $\alpha_0, \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$  be distinct real numbers and  $\beta_0, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_n$  be another set of n+1 real numbers. Then there exists a unique polynomial,

$$P(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} \left( \prod_{\substack{j=0\\j\neq i}}^{n} \frac{x - \alpha_j}{\alpha_i - \alpha_j} \right) \beta_i$$

with  $\deg P(x) \leq n$  such that  $P(\alpha_k) = \beta_k$  for all  $0 \leq k \leq n$ .

**Proof:** Let,

$$D_k(x) = \prod_{\substack{j=0\\j\neq k}}^n \frac{x - \alpha_j}{\alpha_k - \alpha_j} = \frac{(x - \alpha_0)(x - \alpha_1)\cdots(x - \alpha_{k-1})(x - \alpha_{k+1})\cdots(x - \alpha_n)}{(\alpha_k - \alpha_0)(\alpha_k - \alpha_1)\cdots(\alpha_k - \alpha_{k-1})(\alpha_k - \alpha_{k+1})\cdots(\alpha_k - \alpha_n)}$$

If  $x = \alpha_k$  then  $D_k(x) = 1$  else if  $x = \alpha_i$  where  $i \neq k$  then  $D_k(x) = 0$ . Thus the polynomial,

$$P(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} D_k(x)\beta_k$$

will be equal to  $\beta_k$  for all  $x = \alpha_k$ . It is also clear that the polynomial P(x) has degree at most n since deg  $D_k(x) = n$  for all  $0 \le k \le n$ .

Now suppose that there exists two polynomials  $P_1(x)$  and  $P_2(x)$ , with degree at most n, such that,

$$P_1(\alpha_k) = P_2(\alpha_k) = \beta_k, \ 0 \le k \le n$$

Therefore the polynomial  $Q(x) = P_1(x) - P_2(x)$  has n+1 distinct roots. But that is impossible since we know that  $\deg Q(x) \leq n$  and a polynomial of degree n has at most n distinct roots. This proves that the polynomial P(x) must be unique, that is, P(x) is the only polynomial, with degree at most n, such that,  $P(\alpha_k) = \beta_k$  for all  $0 \leq k \leq n$ 

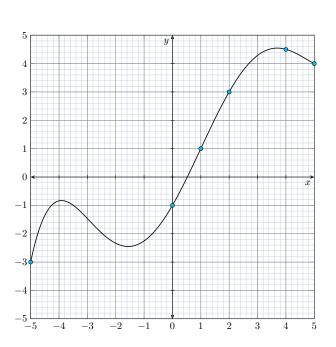


Figure 1.1: Plot of a Lagrange Polynomial

Figure 1.1 shows the Lagrange polynomial going through the points,

$$\{(1,1),(2,3),(0,-1),(5,4),(-5,-3),(4,4.5)\}$$

We can easily compute Lagrange polynomials in python using sympy.

#### Problem 1.3.1

Let P(x) be a polynomial of degree n such that,  $P(k) = 2^k$  for all  $0 \le k \le n$ . Find P(n+1).

**Solution:** From Theorem 1.3.1 we have,

$$P(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} 2^k D_k(x)$$

where,

$$D_k(x) = \frac{x(x-1)\cdots(x-k+1)(x-k-1)(x-k-2)\cdots(x-n+1)(x-n)}{(k)(k-1)\cdots(1)(-1)(-2)\cdots(k-n+1)(k-n)}$$
$$= (-1)^{n-k} \frac{x(x-1)\cdots(x-k+1)(x-k-1)(x-k-2)\cdots(x-n+1)(x-n)}{k!(n-k)!}$$

Therefore,

$$P(n+1) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} (-1)^{n-k} 2^k \frac{(n+1)n(n-1)\cdots(n-k+2)(n-k)(n-k-1)\cdots1}{k!(n-k)!}$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{n} (-1)^{n-k} 2^k \frac{(n+1)!}{k!(n-k)!(n-k+1)}$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{n} (-1)^{n-k} 2^k \binom{n+1}{k}$$

$$= (-1) \left(\sum_{k=0}^{n+1} \binom{n+1}{k} 2^k (-1)^{n-k+1}\right) + 2^{n+1}$$

$$= (-1) (2-1)^{n+1} + 2^{n+1}$$

$$= 2^{n+1} - 1$$

## §1.4 Computing Roots of Polynomials

Given a quadratic polynomial  $P(x) = ax^2 + bx + c$  we can easily find the roots of the polynomial P(x) using the quadratic formula,

$$x = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$$

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