

Algebra

Munir Uz Zaman

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1 Inequalities

§1.1 AM-GM Inequality

Theorem 1.1.1 (AM-GM Inequality)

For all positive real numbers a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n where $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $n \geq 2$ the following inequality holds,

$$\frac{a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_n}{n} \geq \sqrt[n]{a_1 a_2 \dots a_n}$$

Equality occurs if and only if $a_1 = a_2 = \dots = a_n$.

Proof: We will prove this theorem using a special type of induction know as *Cauchy Induction*. Here's how we'll prove it, (let P_n be the statement for n numbers.)

- We will first show that P_2 is true.
- We will show that $P_n \implies P_{2n}$
- Then we will show that $P_n \implies P_{n-1}$

When these are verified, all the assertions P_n with $n \geq 2$ are shown to be true. First we need to prove that if a_1, a_2 are two positive reals then

$$\frac{a_1 + a_2}{2} \geq \sqrt[2]{a_1 a_2}$$

This can be easily shown from the fact that $(\sqrt{a_1} - \sqrt{a_2})^2 \geq 0$. Next we need show that $P_n \implies P_{2n}$. This is also very easy.

$$a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_{2n} \geq n \sqrt[n]{a_1 a_2 \dots a_n} + n \sqrt[n]{a_{n+1} a_{n+2} \dots a_{2n}} \geq 2n \sqrt[2n]{a_1 a_2 \dots a_{2n}}$$

Now we just need to show that $P_n \implies P_{n-1}$. Let $g = \sqrt[n-1]{a_1 a_2 \dots a_{n-1}}$. Now,

$$\begin{aligned} a_1 + \dots + a_{n-1} + g &\geq n \sqrt[n]{a_1 \dots a_{n-1} \times g} \\ \implies a_1 + \dots + a_{n-1} + g &\geq n \sqrt[n]{g^{n-1} g} \\ \implies a_1 + \dots + a_{n-1} + g &\geq n g \\ \implies a_1 + \dots + a_{n-1} &\geq (n-1)g \\ \implies a_1 + \dots + a_{n-1} &\geq (n-1) \sqrt[n-1]{a_1 a_2 \dots a_{n-1}} \end{aligned}$$

By *Cauchy induction*, the inequality is true for every natural number $n \geq 2$. Equality occurs if and only if $a_1 = a_2 = \dots = a_n$.



Theorem 1.1.2 (Weighted AM-GM Inequality)

If a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n are positive real numbers with $n \geq 2$ and x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n are n non-negative real numbers such that $\sum_{i=1}^n x_i = 1$ then

$$a_1 x_1 + \dots + a_n x_n \geq a_1^{x_1} \dots a_n^{x_n}$$

Problem 1.1.3 (BDMO 2019)

Show that if a, b, c are positive real numbers then

$$\frac{a}{bc} + \frac{b}{ac} + \frac{c}{ab} \geq 2 \left(\frac{1}{a} + \frac{1}{b} - \frac{1}{c} \right)$$

Solution:

$$\begin{aligned} & (a + b - c)^2 \geq 0 \\ \implies & a^2 + b^2 + c^2 + 2(ab - bc - ca) \geq 0 \\ \implies & a^2 + b^2 + c^2 \geq 2(bc + ca - ab) \\ \implies & \frac{a^2 + b^2 + c^2}{abc} \geq 2 \left(\frac{bc + ca - ab}{abc} \right) \\ \implies & \frac{a}{bc} + \frac{b}{ac} + \frac{c}{ab} \geq 2 \left(\frac{1}{a} + \frac{1}{b} - \frac{1}{c} \right) \end{aligned}$$



2 Polynomials

Definition 2.0.1. A Polynomial $P(x)$ is an one variable expression or function of the form

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

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

§2.1 Division Algorithm

Theorem 2.1.1 (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,

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

The polynomials $Q(x)$ and $R(x)$ are known as the *quotient* and the *remainder*, respectively. If the remainder $R(x) = 0$ then we say that $B(x)$ divides $A(x)$ and write $B(x) \mid A(x)$.

Proof: We will first prove the uniqueness of the polynomials $Q(x)$ and $R(x)$. Assume,

$$\begin{aligned} A(x) &= Q_1(x)B(x) + R_1(x), & \deg R_1(x) < \deg B(x) \\ A(x) &= Q_2(x)B(x) + R_2(x), & \deg R_2(x) < \deg B(x) \end{aligned}$$

Now,

$$(Q_1(x) - Q_2(x))B(x) + (R_1(x) - R_2(x)) = 0$$

Let $q(x) = Q_1(x) - Q_2(x)$ and $r(x) = R_1(x) - R_2(x)$. Now,

$$\begin{aligned} q(x)B(x) + r(x) &= 0 \\ \implies q(x)B(x) &= -r(x) \end{aligned}$$

If $q(x) \neq 0$ then $\deg r(x) = \deg q(x) + \deg B(x) \geq \deg B(x)$. But that is impossible since $\deg R_2(x) < \deg B(x) \implies \deg (R_2(x) - R_1(x)) < \deg B(x)$. Thus $q(x)$ must be zero. Consequently $r(x)$ will also be zero. Therefore $R_1(x) = R_2(x)$ and $Q_1(x) = Q_2(x)$.

Now we will prove the existence of the polynomials $Q(x)$ and $R(x)$. Notice the following algorithm,

- 1: $A(x) \leftarrow a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_0$
- 2: $B(x) \leftarrow b_n x^n + b_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \cdots + b_0$
- 3: $R(x) \leftarrow A(x)$
- 4: **while** $\deg R(x) \geq \deg B(x)$ **do**
- 5: $a \leftarrow$ leading coefficient of $R(x)$
- 6: $b \leftarrow$ leading coefficient of $B(x)$

7: $d \leftarrow \deg R(x) - \deg B(x)$
 8: $Q(x) = Q(x) + \left(\frac{a}{b}\right) x^d$
 9: $R(x) \leftarrow R(x) - \left(\frac{a}{b}\right) x^d B(x)$
output $Q(x)$ and $R(x)$

In each iteration of the while loop, $\deg R(x)$ is decreasing (mono-variant) and the polynomial $Q(x)B(x) + R(x)$ always stays equal to $A(x)$ (invariant). At some point we will eventually get $\deg R(x) \leq \deg B(x)$ which proves the existence of $Q(x)$ and $R(x)$.

Remark 2.1.2. Notice that, if $A(x), B(x) \in \mathbb{R}[x]$ then $Q(x), R(x) \in \mathbb{R}[x]$. This implies that, if $A(x), B(x) \in \mathbb{R}[x]$ and $B(x) \mid A(x)$ then $\frac{A(x)}{B(x)} \in \mathbb{R}[x]$



For example, if $B(x) = x^2 - x + 1$ and $A(x) = x^5 + x^3 + 2x$ then,

$$x^5 + x^3 + 2x = (x^3 + x^2 + x)(x^2 - x + 1) + x$$

In this example, the remainder $R(x) = x$ and the quotient $Q(x) = x^3 + x^2 + x$.

Theorem 2.1.3 (Remainder Theorem)

If $P(x)$ is a polynomial and a is a constant then the remainder upon dividing $P(x)$ by the linear polynomial $x - a$ is equal to $P(a)$.

Proof: From the [Division Algorithm](#) we know that there exists polynomials $Q(x)$ and $R(x)$ such that,

$$P(x) = Q(x)(x - a) + R(x)$$

Since $\deg R(x) < \deg(x - a) = 1$, $R(x)$ must be a constant polynomial. Let us assume, $R(x) = r$. Now letting $x = a$ we get,

$$P(a) = Q(a) \times (a - a) + r \implies P(a) = r$$

Therefore $P(a)$ is the remainder upon dividing $P(x)$ by $x - a$. QED



Theorem 2.1.4 (Factor Theorem)

The number z will be a root of the polynomial $P(x)$ if and only if $P(x)$ is divisible by $x - z$.

Proof: We will first prove that, $P(z) = 0 \implies (x - z) \mid P(x)$. Let us assume that r is the remainder upon dividing $P(x)$ by $x - z$. Now we know from the [Remainder Theorem](#) that, $P(z) = r$. But since z is a root of $P(x)$, $P(z) = r = 0$. Therefore since $r = 0$, we must have $(x - z) \mid P(x)$. Using similar arguments one can also prove the converse.



Corollary 2.1.4.1

The number $-\frac{b}{a}$ where $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ will be a root of the polynomial $P(x)$ if and only if the polynomial $P(x)$ is divisible by $ax + b$.

If $P(x)$ has the root z then the [Factor Theorem](#) guarantees that there exists a polynomial $Q(x)$ such that,

$$P(x) = (x - z) Q(x)$$

Now if,

$$P(x) = (x - z)^m Q'(x), \quad Q'(z) \neq 0$$

then we say that z is root of $P(x)$ of *multiplicity* m .

For example, in the polynomial $P(x) = (x - 2)^2(x - 3)$ the root 2 has multiplicity 2 and the root 3 has multiplicity 1.

§2.2 The Fundamental Theorem of Algebra

Theorem 2.2.1 (The Fundamental Theorem of Algebra)

The Fundamental Theorem of Algebra states that, every polynomial $P(x)$ in $\mathbb{C}[x]$ has at least one root in \mathbb{C}

Corollary 2.2.1.1

If $P(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1 x + a_0$ is a polynomial of degree n then,

$$P(x) = k(x - z_1)(x - z_2) \cdots (x - z_n)$$

where, $k = a_n$ and $z_i \in \mathbb{C}$. The numbers z_1, z_2, \dots, z_n are not necessarily distinct.

Proof: This is an immediate consequence of [The Fundamental Theorem of Algebra](#) and [Factor Theorem](#).

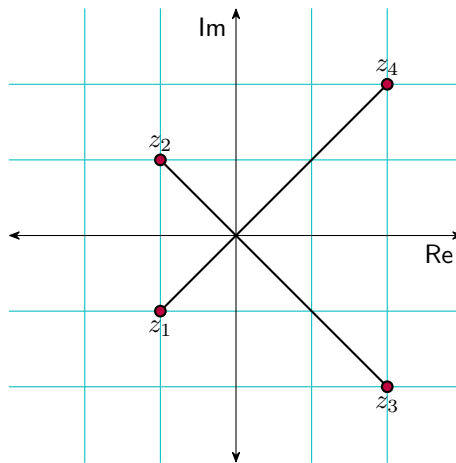


Figure 2.1: The 4 complex roots of the polynomial $x^4 - 2x^3 + 2x^2 + 8x + 16$

Theorem 2.2.2 (Complex Conjugate Root Theorem)

If $P(x) \in \mathbb{R}[x]$ and $z = a + bi$ where $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ is a complex root of the polynomial $P(x)$ then $\bar{z} = a - bi$ is also a root of the polynomial $P(x)$.

Proof 1: We have to show that, $P(z) = 0 \implies P(\bar{z}) = 0$. Let $\mathbb{C}' = \{ki : k \in \mathbb{R}\}$ and let \mathbb{R} be the set of real numbers. Now,

$$\begin{aligned} z^k + \bar{z}^k &= (a + bi)^k + (a - bi)^k \\ &= \sum_{j=0}^k \binom{k}{j} b^j a^{k-j} i^j + \sum_{j=0}^k \binom{k}{j} b^j a^{k-j} (-i)^j \\ &= \sum_{j=0}^k \binom{k}{j} b^j a^{k-j} \{i^j + (-i)^j\} \end{aligned}$$

Notice, $i^j + (-i)^j$ will be zero if j is odd. If j is even then $i^j + (-i)^j = 2i^j = 2(-1)^{\frac{j}{2}}$. Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} z^k + \bar{z}^k &= \sum_{j=0}^k \binom{k}{j} b^j a^{k-j} \{i^j + (-i)^j\} \\ &= \sum_{l=0}^{\lfloor \frac{k}{2} \rfloor} \binom{k}{2l} b^{2l} a^{k-2l} \{2(-1)^l\} \\ &= \sum_{l=0}^{\lfloor \frac{k}{2} \rfloor} \binom{k}{2l} 2(-1)^l b^{2l} a^{k-2l} \end{aligned}$$

Remark 2.2.3. The set, $\{2l : 0 \leq l \leq \lfloor \frac{k}{2} \rfloor\}$, contains all even integers (including zero) less than or equal to k .

Therefore, $z^k + \bar{z}^k \in \mathbb{R}$ for all $0 \leq k \in \mathbb{Z}$. This implies that,

$$P(z) + P(\bar{z}) = \sum_{i=0}^n a_i (z^i + \bar{z}^i) \in \mathbb{R}$$

But since $P(z) = 0$, $P(z) + P(\bar{z}) \in \mathbb{R}$ implies $P(\bar{z}) \in \mathbb{R}$. Now,

$$\begin{aligned} z^k - \bar{z}^k &= (a + bi)^k - (a - bi)^k \\ &= \sum_{j=0}^k \binom{k}{j} b^j a^{k-j} i^j - \sum_{j=0}^k \binom{k}{j} b^j a^{k-j} (-i)^j \\ &= \sum_{j=0}^k \binom{k}{j} b^j a^{k-j} \{i^j - (-i)^j\} \end{aligned}$$

If j is even then $i^j - (-i)^j$ will be equal to zero. If j is odd that is $j = 2l - 1$ for some $l \in \mathbb{N}$ then $i^j - (-i)^j = i^{2l-1} (1 - (-1)^{2l-1}) = 2i^{2l-1} = 2(-1)^l i^{-1} = 2(-1)^l i^3 = 2(-1)^{l+1} i$.

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} z^k - \bar{z}^k &= \sum_{j=0}^k \binom{k}{j} b^j a^{k-j} \{i^j - (-i)^j\} \\ &= \sum_{l=1}^{\lfloor \frac{k+1}{2} \rfloor} \binom{k}{2l-1} b^{2l-1} a^{k-2l+1} 2(-1)^{l+1} i \\ &= \left(\sum_{l=1}^{\lfloor \frac{k+1}{2} \rfloor} \binom{k}{2l-1} b^{2l-1} a^{k-2l+1} 2(-1)^{l+1} \right) i \end{aligned}$$

Remark 2.2.4. The set $\{2l - 1 : 1 \leq l \leq \lfloor \frac{k+1}{2} \rfloor\}$ contains all odd positive integers less than or equal to k .

Thus, $z^k - \bar{z}^k \in \mathbb{C}'$ for all $k \in \mathbb{N}$. Now,

$$\begin{aligned} P(z) - P(\bar{z}) &= \sum_{i=0}^n a_i (z^i - \bar{z}^i) \\ \implies P(z) - P(\bar{z}) &= \sum_{i=1}^n a_i (z^i - \bar{z}^i) + a_0 (z^0 - \bar{z}^0) \\ \implies P(z) - P(\bar{z}) &= \sum_{i=1}^n a_i (z^i - \bar{z}^i) \in \mathbb{C}' \end{aligned}$$

But since $P(z) = 0$, $P(z) - P(\bar{z}) \in \mathbb{C}'$ implies $P(\bar{z}) \in \mathbb{C}'$. And so, $P(\bar{z}) \in \mathbb{R} \cup \mathbb{C}' \implies P(\bar{z}) \in \{0\} \implies P(\bar{z}) = 0$. QED



Proof 2(wiki): Since $P(z) = 0$,

$$P(z) = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k z^k = 0$$

Now using the properties of complex conjugates,

$$P(\bar{z}) = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k \bar{z}^k = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k \overline{z^k} = \sum_{k=0}^n \overline{a_k z^k} = \overline{\sum_{k=0}^n a_k z^k} = \overline{P(z)} = \overline{0} = 0$$

Therefore, $P(\bar{z}) = 0$.



Corollary 2.2.4.1

If z is a complex root of the polynomial $P(x)$ of multiplicity m then \bar{z} is also a complex root of the polynomial $P(x)$ of multiplicity m . That is, complex conjugate roots have the same multiplicity.

Proof: If $z \in \mathbb{R}$ then obviously z and \bar{z} will have the same multiplicity as $z = \bar{z}$. Let us assume $z \notin \mathbb{R}$ and let m and n be the multiplicity of z and \bar{z} respectively. Without loss of generality, we can assume $n < m$. Now, let

$$P(x) = (x - z)^m (x - \bar{z})^n Q(x)$$

Now,

$$\begin{aligned} P(x) &= (x - z)^n (x - \bar{z})^n (x - z)^{m-n} Q(x) \\ \implies \frac{P(x)}{(x - z)^n (x - \bar{z})^n} &= (x - z)^{m-n} Q(x) \end{aligned}$$

Let, $R(x) = \frac{P(x)}{(x - z)^n (x - \bar{z})^n}$. Since $P(x) \in \mathbb{R}[x]$ and $(x - z)^n (x - \bar{z})^n \in \mathbb{R}[x]$, $R(x) \in \mathbb{R}[x]$. Therefore, $R(x) = (x - z)^{m-n} Q(x) \in \mathbb{R}[x]$. As z is a root of $R(x)$ and $R(x) \in \mathbb{R}[x]$, \bar{z} must also be a root of $R(x)$ which implies the multiplicity of $\bar{z} > n$. But that contradicts our assumption that \bar{z} has multiplicity n . Therefore, m and n must be equal.



Corollary 2.2.4.2

Every polynomial $P(x)$ in $\mathbb{R}[x]$ can be expressed in the form,

$$P(x) = f_1^{e_1}(x)f_2^{e_2}(x) \cdots f_n^{e_n}(x)$$

where the polynomials $f_i(x)$ are either linear or quadratic polynomials in $\mathbb{R}[x]$ and $e_i \in \mathbb{N}$

Corollary 2.2.4.3

If $P(x) \in \mathbb{R}[x]$ and $\deg P(x)$ is odd then $P(x)$ has at least one real root.

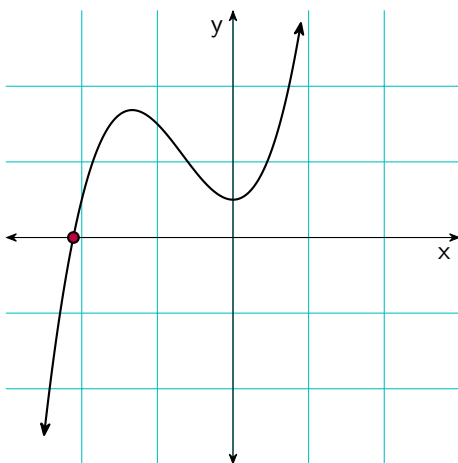


Figure 2.2: The real root of the cubic polynomial $f(x) = x^3 + 2x^2 + 0.5$

§2.3 Roots of Polynomials

Theorem 2.3.1 (Rational Root Theorem)

If $P(x)$ is a polynomial with integer coefficients and $z = \frac{p}{q}$ is a rational root, where p and q are in lowest terms, of $P(x)$ then the leading coefficient, a_n , of $P(x)$ is a multiple of p and the constant term, a_0 , of $P(x)$ is a multiple of q .

Corollary 2.3.1.1

If $P(x)$ is a polynomial with integer coefficients then every rational root of $P(x)$ is an integer.

§2.4 Quadratic Polynomials

Definition 2.4.1. A *quadratic polynomial* is a polynomial of the form,

$$P(x) = ax^2 + bx + c$$

where a, b, c are constants and $a \neq 0$.

One can find the roots of a quadratic polynomial using the well known *quadratic formula*,

$$x_{1,2} = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$$

The value $\Delta = b^2 - 4ac$ is called the *discriminant* of the quadratic polynomial.

Theorem 2.4.2

If $P(x)$ is some quadratic polynomial whose discriminant is Δ and whose two roots are x_1 and x_2 then,

- $\Delta > 0 \iff x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{R}$ and $x_1 \neq x_2$
- $\Delta = 0 \iff x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{R}$ and $x_1 = x_2$
- $\Delta < 0 \iff x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{C}$ and $x_1 \neq x_2$

Theorem 2.4.3

The value $P\left(-\frac{b}{2a}\right)$ is either the maximum (if $a > 0$) or the minimum value (if $a < 0$) of the quadratic polynomial, $P(x) = ax^2 + bx + c$

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} P(x) &= ax^2 + bx + c \\ \implies P(x) &= a \left(x^2 + 2\frac{b}{2a}x + \frac{b^2}{4a^2} \right) + c - \frac{b^2}{4a} \\ \implies P(x) &= a \left(x + \frac{b}{2a} \right)^2 + \left(c - \frac{b^2}{4a} \right) \end{aligned}$$

If $a < 0$ then,

$$P(x) = \left(c - \frac{b^2}{4a} \right) - |a| \left(x + \frac{b}{2a} \right)^2$$

$P(x)$ will reach its maximum when $x + \frac{b}{2a} = 0 \implies x = -\frac{b}{2a}$.

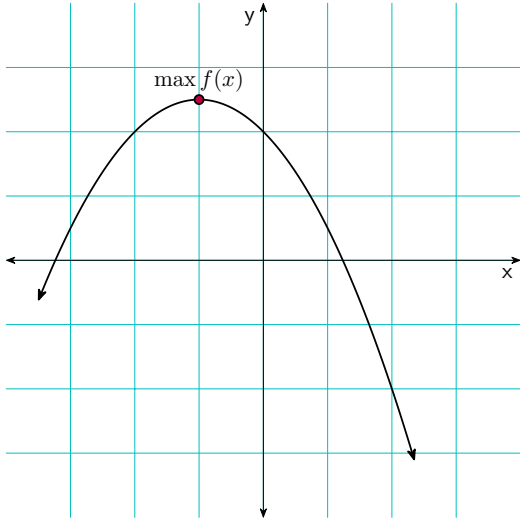
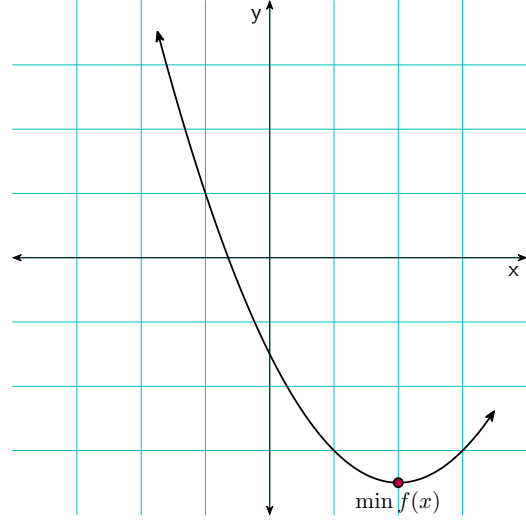
If $a > 0$ then,

$$P(x) = \left(c - \frac{b^2}{4a} \right) + a \left(x + \frac{b}{2a} \right)^2$$

$P(x)$ will reach its minimum when $x + \frac{b}{2a} = 0 \implies x = -\frac{b}{2a}$.



§2.5 Lagrange Interpolation

(a) Maximum of $f(x) = -0.5x^2 - x + 2$ (b) Minimum of $f(x) = 0.5x^2 - 2x - 1.5$ **Theorem 2.5.1** (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 β_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 $0 \leq k \leq n$.

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

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

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 $0 \leq k \leq n$



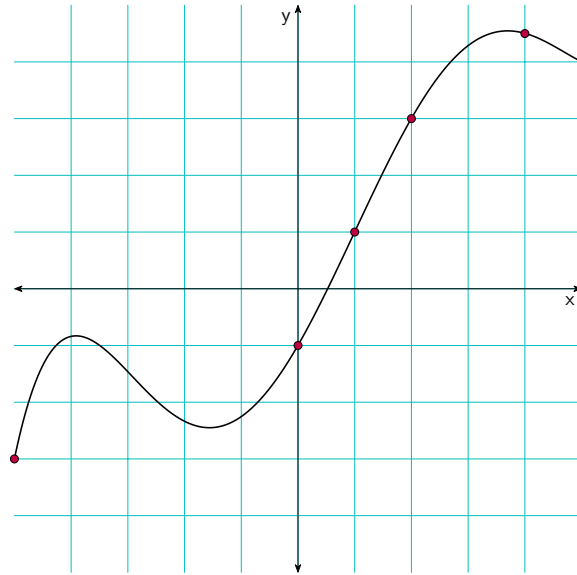


Figure 2.4: Plot of a Lagrange Polynomial

Figure 2.4 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`.

```
>>> import sympy
>>> x = sympy.symbols('x')
>>> points = [(1,1), (2,3), (0, -1), (5, 4), (-5, -3), (4, 4.5)]
>>> expr = sympy.interpolate(points, x)
>>> print(expr)
0.00281746031746032*x**5 - 0.0129761904761905*x**4 -
→ 0.111944444444445*x**3 + 0.384404761904762*x**2 +
→ 1.73769841269841*x - 1
```

Problem 2.5.2

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

Solution: From [Theorem 2.5.1](#) we have,

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

where,

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

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned}
 P(n+1) &= \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^{n-k} 2^k \frac{(n+1)n(n-1) \cdots (n-k+2)(n-k)(n-k-1) \cdots 1}{k!(n-k)!} \\
 &= \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^{n-k} 2^k \frac{(n+1)!}{k!(n-k)!(n-k+1)} \\
 &= \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^{n-k} 2^k \binom{n+1}{k} \\
 &= (-1) \left(\sum_{k=0}^{n+1} \binom{n+1}{k} 2^k (-1)^{n-k+1} \right) + 2^{n+1} \\
 &= (-1) (2-1)^{n+1} + 2^{n+1} \\
 &= 2^{n+1} - 1
 \end{aligned}$$

