

21MAB143 Rings and Polynomials: Week 7

1 Symmetric polynomials

Definition 1.1. Let K be a field. A polynomial $f \in K[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ is **symmetric** if it is unchanged by every permutation of the variables x_1, \dots, x_n .

Examples: Let's look at a couple of examples in $\mathbf{R}[x, y, z]$.

The polynomials

$$\begin{aligned} f &= x^3 + y^3 + z^3 \\ g &= x^6yz + xy^6z + xyz^6 - 17x^7y^7z^7 \end{aligned}$$

are both symmetric. The polynomial

$$h = xy^2 + yz^2 + zx^2$$

is not symmetric: if we swap x and y it is transformed into the polynomial

$$h' = x^2y + xz^2 + y^2z$$

which is not equal to h .

Definition 1.2. Fix a positive integer n . For a positive integer k , the **k -th elementary symmetric polynomial in x_1, \dots, x_n** , denoted $\sigma_k(x_1, \dots, x_n)$, is the element of $K[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ defined as

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma_k(x_1, \dots, x_n) &= \sum_{1 \leq j_1 < j_2 < \dots < j_k \leq n} x_{j_1} \cdots x_{j_k} && \text{for } 1 \leq k \leq n \\ &= 0 && \text{for } k > n. \end{aligned}$$

In the first formula we are summing over all monomials obtained by taking the product of any chosen set of k out of the n variables. We may sometimes write just σ_k instead of $\sigma_k(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ if the value of n is clear from context.

Writing these out more explicitly, for any n we have

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_1 &= x_1 + \cdots + x_n \\ \sigma_2 &= x_1x_2 + \cdots + x_1x_n + x_2x_3 + \cdots + x_2x_n + \cdots + x_{n-1}x_n \\ &\vdots \\ \sigma_n &= x_1x_2 \cdots x_n\end{aligned}$$

For small values of n we can write out all n of the nonzero elementary symmetric polynomials in full:

- $n = 1$: Here there is only one nonzero elementary symmetric polynomial

$$\sigma_1(x) = x$$

- $n = 2$: Here we have two nonzero elementary symmetric polynomials:

$$\sigma_1(x, y) = x + y$$

$$\sigma_2(x, y) = xy$$

- $n = 3$: Here the three nonzero elementary symmetric polynomials are:

$$\sigma_1(x, y, z) = x + y + z$$

$$\sigma_2(x, y, z) = xy + xz + yz$$

$$\sigma_3(x, y, z) = xyz$$

The importance of the elementary symmetric polynomials is that **every** symmetric polynomial in $K[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ can be written in terms of them. Here is the formal statement:

Theorem 1.3 (Fundamental Theorem of Symmetric Polynomials). *Let $f \in K[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ be a symmetric polynomial. Then there is a polynomial $F \in K[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ such that*

$$f = F(\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n).$$

The proof requires a way to “order” polynomials in the polynomial ring $K[x_1, \dots, x_n]$, which we now introduce.

Definition 1.4. *In the ring $K[x_1, \dots, x_n]$, the **multidegree** of a monomial*

$$m = ax_1^{d_1} \cdots x_n^{d_n}$$

(where $a \in K$ and the d_i are nonnegative integers) is defined to be

$$\text{mdeg}(m) = (d_1, \dots, d_n).$$

For two multidegrees (d_1, \dots, d_n) and (e_1, \dots, e_n) we write

$$(d_1, \dots, d_n) > (e_1, \dots, e_n)$$

if, for the first i such that $d_i \neq e_i$, we have $d_i > e_i$.

For two monomials m_1 and m_2 we write $m_1 > m_2$ if $\text{mdeg}(m_1) > \text{mdeg}(m_2)$.

Finally, for a polynomial $f \in K[x_1, \dots, x_n]$, we define its **leading term** $\text{lt}(f)$ to be the unique monomial m in f such that $m > m'$ for all other monomials m' in f , and we define the multidegree of f to be

$$\text{mdeg}(f) = \text{mdeg}(\text{lt}(f))$$

where the right-hand side is defined above since $\text{lt}(f)$ is a monomial.

Example: The symmetric polynomial

$$f = x^3yz + xy^3z + xyz^3 - 2x^2 - 2y^2 - 2z^2 + 4$$

has 7 monomials with the following multidegrees:

$$\text{mdeg}(x^3yz) = (3, 1, 1)$$

$$\text{mdeg}(xy^3z) = (1, 3, 1)$$

$$\text{mdeg}(xyz^3) = (1, 1, 3)$$

$$\text{mdeg}(-2x^2) = (2, 0, 0)$$

$$\text{mdeg}(-2y^2) = (0, 2, 0)$$

$$\text{mdeg}(-2z^2) = (0, 0, 2)$$

$$\text{mdeg}(4) = (0, 0, 0)$$

We can order these monomials using the order relation above:

$$4 < -2z^2 < -2y^2 < xyz^3 < xy^3z < -2x^2 < x^3yz.$$

In particular the leading term of f is

$$\text{lt}(f) = x^3yz.$$

and hence

$$\begin{aligned} \text{mdeg}(f) &= \text{mdeg}(x^3yz) \\ &= (3, 1, 1). \end{aligned}$$

Before we start the proof, we need to prove a lemma about the multidegrees of symmetric polynomials.

Lemma 1.5. Let $f \in K[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ be a symmetric polynomial. If

$$\text{mdeg}(f) = (d_1, \dots, d_n)$$

then $d_1 \geq d_2 \geq \dots \geq d_n$.

Proof of Lemma. Suppose that the multidegree of f is (d_1, \dots, d_n) . So the leading term of f is

$$\text{lt}(f) = \alpha x_1^{d_1} \cdots x_n^{d_n}$$

for some constant $\alpha \in K$. Since f is symmetric, it must contain all the monomials obtained by permuting the exponents in $\text{lt}(f)$: that is, all the monomials of the form

$$\alpha x_1^{e_1} \cdots x_n^{e_n}$$

where (e_1, \dots, e_n) is any permutation of (d_1, \dots, d_n) . But by definition $\text{lt}(f)$ has the biggest multidegree among all the monomials in f , so this means that $(d_1, \dots, d_n) > (e_1, \dots, e_n)$ for any nontrivial permutation of the d_i . This implies that

$$d_1 \geq d_2 \geq \dots \geq d_n.$$

□

Proof of Theorem ??. If f is the zero polynomial there is nothing to prove. For nonzero symmetric polynomials f , we prove the theorem by induction on the multidegree. This makes sense because for a given multidegree (d_1, \dots, d_n) , there are only finitely many possible multidegrees $(e_1, \dots, e_n) < (d_1, \dots, d_n)$ such that $e_1 \geq e_2 \geq \dots \geq e_n$, and Lemma ?? the degree of any symmetric polynomial must satisfy these conditions.

The base case of multidegree $(0, \dots, 0)$ is trivial: any such polynomial is a constant $\alpha \in K$, and so the theorem holds with $F = \alpha$, a constant polynomial.

For the inductive step, given our symmetric polynomial f we claim that we can find a polynomial Φ such that $\Phi(\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n)$ has the same leading term as f . Then $f - \Phi(\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n)$ will be a symmetric polynomial with smaller multidegree than f , so by induction there exists a polynomial G such that

$$\begin{aligned} f - \Phi(\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n) &= G(\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n) \quad \text{hence} \\ f &= (\Phi + G)(\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n) \end{aligned}$$

and so the theorem is proved with $F = \Phi + G$.

It remains to prove the claim. Let

$$\text{lt}(f) = \alpha x_1^{d_1} \cdots x_n^{d_n}$$

where $\alpha \in K$. Note that $\text{mdeg}(f) = (d_1, \dots, d_n)$. Consider the polynomial

$$\alpha \sigma_1^{\delta_1} \cdots \sigma_n^{\delta_n}$$

where

$$\delta_1 = d_1 - d_2, \delta_2 = d_2 - d_3, \dots, \delta_n = d_n.$$

Lemma ?? shows that each of the δ_i is non-negative, so this is indeed a well-defined polynomial. One can check that

$$\begin{aligned} \text{mdeg}(\alpha \sigma_1^{\delta_1} \cdots \sigma_n^{\delta_n}) &= (\delta_1 + \delta_2 + \cdots + \delta_n, \delta_2 + \cdots + \delta_n, \dots, \delta_n) \\ &= (d_1, \dots, d_n) \end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$\begin{aligned} \text{lt}(f) &= \alpha x_1^{d_1} \cdots x_n^{d_n} \\ &= \text{lt}(\alpha \sigma_1^{\delta_1} \cdots \sigma_n^{\delta_n}) \end{aligned}$$

Therefore the difference $f - \alpha \sigma_1^{\delta_1} \cdots \sigma_n^{\delta_n}$ has multidegree smaller than that of f , as required. \square

1.1 Examples

The proof of Theorem ?? has the nice property that it actually gives an algorithm to write a given symmetric polynomial in terms of elementary symmetric polynomials. Let's see how it works.

Example: Let's start with a simple example where $n = 2$. Here there are two elementary symmetric polynomials:

$$\sigma_1(x, y) = x + y, \quad \sigma_2(x, y) = xy.$$

Let's write the symmetric polynomial

$$f = x^4 y^2 + x^2 y^4$$

in terms of σ_1 and σ_2 .

According to the proof of Theorem ?? we need to start by finding the leading term of f . The terms of f have the following multidegrees:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{mdeg}(x^4 y^2) &= (4, 2) \\ \text{mdeg}(x^2 y^4) &= (2, 4). \end{aligned}$$

So $\text{lt}(f) = x^4 y^2$. In this term we have $d_1 = 4, d_2 = 2$. This gives

$$\begin{aligned} \delta_1 &= d_1 - d_2 = 2 \\ \delta_2 &= d_2 = 2. \end{aligned}$$

So let

$$\begin{aligned}
 f_1 &= f - \sigma_1^{\delta_1} \sigma_2^{\delta_2} \\
 &= f - (x + y)^2 (xy)^2 \\
 &= x^4 y^2 + x^2 y^4 - (x^4 y^2 + 2x^3 y^3 + x^2 y^4) \\
 &= -2x^3 y^3.
 \end{aligned}$$

The multidegree of f_1 is now $(3, 3)$, so it is smaller than that of f , as we want.

Now we apply the same procedure to f_1 . The leading term of f_1 is $-2x^3 y^3$ which has multidegree $(3, 3)$. Here $d_1 = d_2 = 3$, so $\delta_1 = 0$, $\delta_2 = 3$. So let

$$\begin{aligned}
 f_2 &= f_1 - (-2\sigma_1^{\delta_1} \sigma_2^{\delta_2}) \\
 &= f_1 + 2(xy)^3 \\
 &= 0.
 \end{aligned}$$

That is, $f_1 = -2\sigma_2^3$.

Finally we get

$$\begin{aligned}
 f &= f_1 + \sigma_1^2 \sigma_2^2 \\
 &= -2\sigma_2^3 + \sigma_1^2 \sigma_2^2
 \end{aligned}$$

which is the required expression for f in terms of elementary symmetric polynomials.

Example: Now let's do an example with $n = 3$. Consider the symmetric polynomial

$$f = x^2 y z + x y^2 z + x y z^2$$

Let's write f in terms of the elementary symmetric polynomials in the variables x, y, z .

Recall

$$\begin{aligned}
 \sigma_1 &= x + y + z \\
 \sigma_2 &= xy + xz + yz \\
 \sigma_3 &= xyz
 \end{aligned}$$

We have

$$f = x^2 y z + x y^2 z + x y z^2$$

so the terms have multidegrees $(2, 1, 1)$, $(1, 2, 1)$, and $(1, 1, 2)$ respectively.

Hence the leading term is $\text{lt}(f) = x^2 y z$ which gives us

$$d_1 = 2, d_2 = 1, d_3 = 1$$

from which we compute

$$\delta_1 = d_1 - d_2 = 1$$

$$\delta_2 = d_2 - d_3 = 0$$

$$\delta_3 = d_3 = 1$$

We set

$$\begin{aligned} f_1 &= f - \sigma_1^{\delta_1} \sigma_2^{\delta_2} \sigma_3^{\delta_3} \\ &= f - \sigma_1 \sigma_3 \\ &= f - (x + y + z)(xyz) \\ &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

So $f = \sigma_1 \sigma_3$.

2 Applications

2.1 Roots and coefficients of polynomials

Let $f \in \mathbb{C}[x]$ be a monic polynomial of degree d :

$$f = x^d + a_{d-1}x^{d-1} + \cdots + a_1x + a_0$$

According to the Fundamental Theorem of Algebra we know that f has d complex roots z_1, \dots, z_d (possibly repeated) and that f factors as

$$f = (x - z_1) \cdots (x - z_d).$$

Expanding out the right-hand side, we see that the coefficients of f are (plus or minus) the values of the elementary symmetric polynomials in d variables, evaluated on the roots of f . That is, the coefficient a_k of x^k in f can be written as

$$a_k = (-1)^{d-k} \sigma_{d-k}(z_1, \dots, z_d).$$

For example this includes the well-known equalities

$$\begin{aligned} a_{d-1} &= -\sigma_1(z_1, \dots, z_d) \\ &= -(z_1 + \dots + z_d) \\ a_0 &= (-1)^d \sigma_d(z_1, \dots, z_d) \\ &= (-1)^d z_1 \cdots z_d. \end{aligned}$$

Theorem ?? then tells us the following:

Corollary 2.1. *For a polynomial $f \in \mathbb{C}[x]$, any symmetric polynomial function of the roots of f can be expressed in terms of the coefficients of f .*

Example: In Week 4 we stated (but did not prove) one formula for the discriminant of a one-variable polynomial f as follows:

$$\text{Disc}(f) = a_d^{2d-2} \prod_{1 \leq i < j \leq d} (\lambda_i - \lambda_j)^2$$

where a_d is the leading coefficient of f and the λ_i are the roots of f .

On the face of it, this formula doesn't make it at all clear that $\text{Disc}(f)$ can actually be expressed just in terms of the coefficients of f . However, the right-hand side of the formula is a symmetric polynomial function of the roots λ_i : a permutation may rearrange some of the factors $(\lambda_i - \lambda_j)$ or send $(\lambda_i - \lambda_j)$ to $(\lambda_j - \lambda_i)$, but once we square and take the product we get the same thing. Therefore Corollary ?? guarantees that the expression on the right-hand side is indeed a polynomial in the coefficients of f .

Note: Remember that our actual definition of $\text{Disc}(f)$ was in terms of the resultant of f and f' , and this is automatically a function of the coefficients of f .)

2.2 Power sums and characteristic polynomial of a matrix

Definition 2.2. Fix a positive integer k . In the ring $C[x_1, \dots, x_n]$, the k -th power sum polynomial $\pi_k(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ is defined as

$$\pi_k(x_1, \dots, x_n) = x_1^k + \dots + x_n^k$$

Clearly $\pi_k(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ is a symmetric polynomial in the variables x_i , so by Theorem ?? we can write it in terms of the elementary symmetric polynomials $\sigma_i(x_1, \dots, x_n)$. The notable feature of power sum polynomials is that the converse is also true, as shown by the following theorem.

Theorem 2.3 (Newton's identities). Let π_1, \dots, π_n be the first n power sum polynomials in n variables, and let σ_k be one of the elementary symmetric polynomials in n variables.

$$k\sigma_k = \sum_{i=1}^k (-1)^{i-1} \sigma_{k-i} \pi_i$$

Applying this recursively we get:

Corollary 2.4. There is a polynomial $B \in C[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ such that

$$\sigma_k = B(\pi_1, \dots, \pi_n)$$

We won't give the proof of the theorem, but let's work out an example.

Example: Let's take $n = 3$. The theorem says that the elementary symmetric polynomials

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_1(x, y, z) &= x + y + z \\ \sigma_2(x, y, z) &= xy + xz + yz \\ \sigma_3(x, y, z) &= xyz\end{aligned}$$

should all be expressible as polynomials in the power sum polynomials

$$\begin{aligned}\pi_1(x, y, z) &= x + y + z \\ \pi_2(x, y, z) &= x^2 + y^2 + z^2 \\ \pi_3(x, y, z) &= x^3 + y^3 + z^3\end{aligned}$$

Evidently $\pi_1 = \sigma_1$ so there is nothing to prove here. What about the other cases?

For σ_2 we compute:

$$\begin{aligned}\pi_1^2 &= (x + y + z)^2 \\ &= x^2 + y^2 + z^2 + 2(xy + xz + yz) \\ &= \pi_2 + 2\sigma_2.\end{aligned}$$

So $\sigma_2 = \frac{1}{2}(\pi_1^2 - \pi_2)$.

For σ_3 we compute:

$$\begin{aligned}\pi_1(\sigma_2 - \pi_2) &= (x + y + z)(xy + xz + yz - x^2 - y^2 - z^2) \\ &= 3xyz - x^3 - y^3 - z^3 \\ &= 3\sigma_3 - \pi_3\end{aligned}$$

So we have

$$\begin{aligned}3\sigma_3 &= \pi_1\sigma_2 - \pi_1\pi_2 + \pi_3 \\ &= \pi_1\left(\frac{1}{2}(\pi_1^2 - \pi_2)\right) - \pi_1\pi_2 + \pi_3\end{aligned}$$

which gives

$$\sigma_3 = \frac{1}{6}\pi_1^3 - \frac{1}{2}\pi_1\pi_2 + \frac{1}{3}\pi_3.$$

To apply this to linear algebra, recall that for a $d \times d$ matrix M , the **characteristic polynomial of M** is defined as

$$p_M(\lambda) = (-1)^d \det(M - \lambda I_d)$$

where I_d is the $d \times d$ identity matrix. This polynomial is important because its roots are exactly the eigenvalues of M .

In practice, however, as M becomes large it is computationally expensive to calculate $p_M(\lambda)$ directly as a determinant. The theory of symmetric polynomials gives a shortcut to do this. Let's see how it works.

Suppose the eigenvalues of M are $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_d$. These are exactly the roots of $p_M(\lambda)$, which is a monic polynomial, so as explained above, the coefficients of $p_m(\lambda)$ are exactly (plus or minus) the elementary symmetric functions evaluated on the λ_i :

$$p_m(\lambda) = \lambda^d + a_{d-1}\lambda^{d-1} + \dots + a_1\lambda + a_0$$

where

$$a_k = (-1)^{d-k} \sigma_{d-k}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_d).$$

For a nonnegative integer k , consider the matrix M^k . Its eigenvalues are $\lambda_1^k, \dots, \lambda_d^k$. We are going to look at the **traces** of the matrices M^k . By definition the trace is equal to the sum of the diagonal elements, which is straightforward to compute.

On other other hand, by diagonalisation we can also see that $\text{tr}(M^k)$ equals the sum of the eigenvalues. So for any nonnegative integer k we have

$$\begin{aligned}\text{tr}(M^k) &= \lambda_1^k + \cdots + \lambda_d^k \\ &= \pi_k(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_d).\end{aligned}$$

Therefore, using the formulae for the elementary symmetric polynomials σ_k in terms of π_1, \dots, π_d , we can compute the coefficients α_k of the characteristic polynomial in terms of the traces $\text{tr}(M^k)$.

Example: Consider the 3×3 matrix

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

We have

$$M^2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 4 & 2 \\ -1 & 1 & 3 \\ -3 & -2 & 4 \end{pmatrix}, \quad M^3 = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 6 & 8 \\ -4 & -1 & 7 \\ -7 & -8 & 6 \end{pmatrix}.$$

So

$$\text{tr}(M) = 4, \text{tr}(M^2) = 6, \text{tr}(M^3) = 4.$$

If the characterstic polynomial of M is

$$p_M(\lambda) = \lambda^3 + \alpha_2\lambda^2 + \alpha_1\lambda + \alpha_0$$

then using the identities from the previous section we see that

$$\begin{aligned}\alpha_2 &= -\sigma_1 = -\pi_1 \\ &= -\text{tr}(M) \\ &= -4 \\ \alpha_1 &= \sigma_2 = \frac{1}{2}(\pi_1^2 - \pi_2) \\ &= \frac{1}{2}((\text{tr}(M))^2 - \text{tr}(M^2)) \\ &= 5 \\ \alpha_0 &= -\sigma_3 = -\frac{1}{6}(\pi_1^3 - 3\pi_1\pi_2 + 2\pi_3) \\ &= -\frac{1}{6}((\text{tr}(M))^3 - 3\text{tr}(M)\text{tr}(M^2) + 2\text{tr}(M^3)) \\ &= 0\end{aligned}$$

So the characteristic polynomial of M is

$$p_M(\lambda) = \lambda^3 - 4\lambda^2 + 5\lambda.$$

The eigenvalues of M are the roots of this cubic, which are not difficult to find:

$$\lambda_1 = 0, \lambda_2 = 2 + i, \lambda_3 = 2 - i.$$