

**Remark:** Letting  $U(g) = A - V(g)$ , the identity  $V(g_1) \cup \cdots \cup V(g_m) = V(g_1 \cdots g_m)$  translates to  $U(g_1) \cap \cdots \cap U(g_m) = U(g_1 \cdots g_m)$ . This suggests to define a topology on  $A$  whose basis of open sets consists of the sets  $U(g)$ . In this topology (called the Zariski topology), the sets of the form  $V(g)$  are closed sets. Also, when  $g_1, \dots, g_m \in A[X_1, \dots, X_n]$  and  $n \geq 2$ , understanding the structure of the closed sets of the form  $V(g_1) \cap \cdots \cap V(g_m)$  is quite difficult, and it is the object of algebraic geometry (at least, its classical part).



When  $f \in A[X_1, \dots, X_n]$  and  $n \geq 2$ , one should not apply Proposition 30.27 abusively. For example, let

$$f(X, Y) = X^2 + Y^2 - 1,$$

considered as a polynomial in  $\mathbb{R}[X, Y]$ . Since  $\mathbb{R}$  is an infinite field and since

$$f\left(\frac{1-t^2}{1+t^2}, \frac{2t}{1+t^2}\right) = \frac{(1-t^2)^2}{(1+t^2)^2} + \frac{(2t)^2}{(1+t^2)^2} - 1 = 0,$$

for every  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ , it would be tempting to say that  $f = 0$ . But what's wrong with the above reasoning is that there are no two infinite subsets  $R_1, R_2$  of  $\mathbb{R}$  such that  $f(\alpha_1, \alpha_2) = 0$  for all  $(\alpha_1, \alpha_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ . For every  $\alpha_1 \in \mathbb{R}$ , there are at most two  $\alpha_2 \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $f(\alpha_1, \alpha_2) = 0$ . What the example shows though, is that a nonnull polynomial  $f \in A[X_1, \dots, X_n]$  where  $n \geq 2$  can have an infinite number of zeros. This is in contrast with nonnull polynomials in one variables over an infinite field (which have a number of roots bounded by their degree).

We now look at polynomial interpolation.

## 30.7 Polynomial Interpolation (Lagrange, Newton, Hermite)

Let  $K$  be a field. First, we consider the following interpolation problem: Given a sequence  $(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_{m+1})$  of pairwise distinct scalars in  $K$  and any sequence  $(\beta_1, \dots, \beta_{m+1})$  of scalars in  $K$ , where the  $\beta_j$  are not necessarily distinct, find a polynomial  $P(X)$  of degree  $\leq m$  such that

$$P(\alpha_1) = \beta_1, \dots, P(\alpha_{m+1}) = \beta_{m+1}.$$

First, observe that if such a polynomial exists, then it is unique. Indeed, this is a consequence of Proposition 30.24. Thus, we just have to find any polynomial of degree  $\leq m$ . Consider the following so-called *Lagrange polynomials*:

$$L_i(X) = \frac{(X - \alpha_1) \cdots (X - \alpha_{i-1})(X - \alpha_{i+1}) \cdots (X - \alpha_{m+1})}{(\alpha_i - \alpha_1) \cdots (\alpha_i - \alpha_{i-1})(\alpha_i - \alpha_{i+1}) \cdots (\alpha_i - \alpha_{m+1})}.$$

Note that  $L(\alpha_i) = 1$  and that  $L(\alpha_j) = 0$ , for all  $j \neq i$ . But then,

$$P(X) = \beta_1 L_1 + \cdots + \beta_{m+1} L_{m+1}$$