

Polynomial Properties

Def: A polynomial is an expression

$$a_d x^d + a_{d-1} x^{d-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$$

where $a_d, a_{d-1}, \dots, a_1, a_0$ are called coefficients and x is called the variable.

The degree of a polynomial is the largest integer d such that $a_d \neq 0$.

Ex: $3x^4 + 2x - 7$ is degree 4.

We can view polynomials as functions in $\mathbb{R}$.

Ex: $p(x) = 3x^4 + 2x - 7$ can be a function

$$p: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}.$$

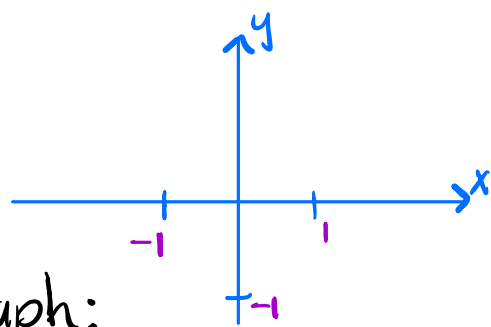
$$p(2) = 3(2)^4 + 2(2) - 7 = 48 + 4 - 7 = 45$$

Def: a is a root of $p(x)$ if $p(a) = 0$.

$$\text{Ex: } p(x) = x^2 - 1 =$$

$$\text{Roots: } p(1) = p(-1) = 0$$

When viewing $p: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, can graph:



When viewed as functions $\mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, get two key polynomial properties.

Property 1: A non-zero polynomial of degree d has at most roots.

Ex: Constant polynomials (degree) have zero roots.

$p(x) = 5$ has no roots!

Ex: Parabolas (degree)

$p(x) = x^2 - 1$ has roots

$p(x) = x^2$ has root:

$p(x) = x^2 + 1$ has no roots!

Ex: Zero polynomial $p(x) =$ is an exception!

All inputs are roots.

Say degree of zero polynomial is .

Property 2: Given $d+1$ pairs $(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_{d+1}, y_{d+1})$ ^{or}

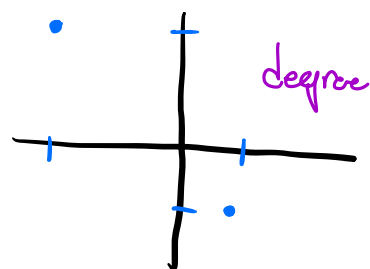
there is a unique polynomial, $p(x)$, of degree d or less passing through them

(meaning $p(x_1) = , \dots, p(x_{d+1}) =$).

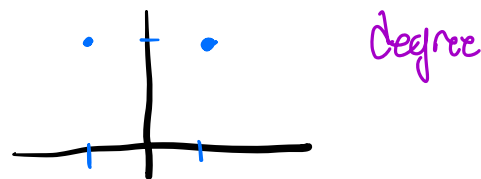
Important: Assume $x_1, \dots, x_{d+1}$ are .

Ex: Lines (degree 1 or 0)

$(-2, 2), (1, -1) : p(x) =$

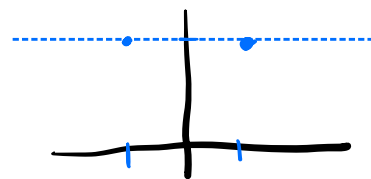


$(-1, 2), (1, 2) : p(x) =$



Warning: Other polys on degree ≥ 1 can also pass through these points!

For instance, $p(x) = 2x^2$.



First Goal: Prove two properties.

Start with Property 1.

Polynomial Division

Recall Division Theorem: Given n, m .

Could write $n = q \cdot m + r \rightarrow$ remainder

Division Theorem for Polynomials: Given $p(x), s(x)$

We can write $p(x) = q(x) \cdot s(x) + r(x)$ where
degree of r is less than degree of s .

Ex: $p(x) = 3x - 5, s(x) = x + 2$

$$3x - 5 = \underbrace{(x + 2)}_{q(x), \text{ deg}} - \underbrace{7}_{r(x), \text{ deg}}$$

$$p(x) = x^2 - 2x, \quad s(x) = x + 1$$

$$x^2 - 2x = \underbrace{(\quad)}_{q(x), \deg} (x+1) + \underbrace{\quad}_{r(x), \deg}$$

More generally, can do long division (see Notes).

Property 1: A non-zero polynomial of degree d has at most d roots.

Proof: To prove this, we will show that if $p(x)$ is degree d and has d roots $a_1, \dots, a_d$, distinct, then it can have no other roots.

Lemma: If a_1 is a root of $p(x)$ with degree $d \geq 1$, then $p(x) = (x - a_1)q(x)$ where $q(x)$ is degree $d - 1$.

Proof of Lemma: By the Division Theorem with $p(x)$ and $s(x) = x - a_1$, we know

$p(x) = (x - a_1)q(x) + r(x)$ where $r(x)$ has degree 0. So, $r(x) = \cdot \rightarrow$

Plugging in a_1 ,

$$= p(a_1) = (a_1 - a_1)q(a_1) + r(a_1) = \cdot$$

So, $c =$. Thus, $p(x) =$.

Also, $p(x)$ has degree d so $q(x)$ has degree . $\square$

Now, consider $p(x)$ of degree d with d roots $a_1, \dots, a_d$. By the lemma,

$$p(x) = (x - a_1)q(x). \quad q(x) \text{ has roots}$$

Repeat the lemma on $q(x)$, and so on.

Exercise: Do this formally by induction.

$$\text{Get } p(x) = c(x - a_1)(x - a_2) \cdots (x - a_d), \quad c \neq 0.$$

Now, we see that $p(a) \neq$ if a is different from $a_1, \dots, a_d$. $\square$

Lagrange Interpolation

Given $d+1$ pairs $(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_{d+1}, y_{d+1})$.

We will design an algorithm to return a polynomial of degree d or less passing through the points.

Finding this algorithm proves part of Property 2.

Consider points $(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n)$.

Suppose we made a polynomial $\Delta_{x_i}(x)$ so that
 $\Delta_{x_i}(x_i) = 1$ and $\Delta_{x_i}(x_j) = 0$ if $i \neq j$.

Then put, $p(x) = \sum_{j=1}^n y_j \cdot \Delta_{x_j}(x) = y_1 \cdot \Delta_{x_1}(x) + \dots + y_n \cdot \Delta_{x_n}(x)$

For each x_i : $p(x_i) = y_i$. Works!

How to make Δ_{x_i} ? Brute force!

Let $Z_{x_i}(x) = (x-x_1) \cdots (x-x_{i-1})(x-x_{i+1}) \cdots (x-x_n)$

So, $Z_{x_i}(x_j) = 0$ when $i \neq j$.

Also, $Z_{x_i}(x_i) \neq 0$, but... don't know $Z_{x_i}(x_i) = 1$!

Fix: Put $\Delta_{x_i}(x) = \frac{Z_{x_i}(x)}{Z_{x_i}(x_i)}$.

Then, $\Delta_{x_i}(x_j) = \frac{Z_{x_i}(x_j)}{Z_{x_i}(x_i)} = 0$ when $i \neq j$.

$\Delta_{x_i}(x_i) = \frac{Z_{x_i}(x_i)}{Z_{x_i}(x_i)} = 1$.

This is Lagrange interpolation!

1. Compute $\Delta_{x_i}(x)$ for each i .

2. Put $p(x) = \sum_{j=1}^n y_j \cdot \Delta_{x_j}(x)$.

Ex: $(0, -2), (1, 1), (3, 7)$

$$\Delta_0(x) = \underline{\hspace{2cm}} =$$

$$\Delta_1(x) = \underline{\hspace{2cm}} =$$

$$\Delta_3(x) = \underline{\hspace{2cm}} =$$

$$p(x) = \quad \cdot \Delta_0(x) + \quad \cdot \Delta_1(x) + \quad \cdot \Delta_3(x)$$

$$= -\frac{2}{3}(x-1)(x-3) - \frac{1}{2}x(x-3) + \frac{7}{6}x(x-1)$$

$$= -\frac{2}{3}x^2 + \frac{8}{3}x - 2 - \frac{1}{2}x^2 + \frac{3}{2}x + \frac{7}{6}x^2 - \frac{7}{6}x$$

$$= \boxed{\hspace{2cm}} \rightarrow \text{polynomial of degree } \hspace{1cm} !$$

Property 2: Given $d+1$ pairs $(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_{d+1}, y_{d+1})$
there is a unique polynomial, $p(x)$, of degree
 d or less passing through them.

Proof: $p(x)$ exists via Lagrange interpolation.

Note each $\Delta_{x_i}(x)$ will be degree d , so $p(x)$
will be degree d or less.

We must show uniqueness. Suppose $p(x)$ and $q(x)$ both pass through $(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_{d+1}, y_{d+1})$ and are degree d or less. Consider $r(x) =$, which is degree d or less.

Notice $r(x_i) =$ $=$ $=$

for all i . So, $r(x)$ has at roots.

But, recall Property 1: A non-zero polynomial of degree d has at most d roots.

So, $r(x)$ must be the zero polynomial!

So, $p(x) = q(x)$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$. They are the same! □

Galois Fields

We want to consider polynomials mod N .

Ideally, we want our two properties to hold.

In the proofs, we used the fact that we could by nonzero real numbers

(a.k.a by inverses of nonzero reals).

Def: A **field** is a number system where you may add, subtract, multiply, and every nonzero number has an inverse.

When is arithmetic mod **N** a field?

When **N** is **prime**! Write **$N=p$** .

Def: If **p** is prime, the **Galois field mod p** is the set **$GF(p) = \{0, 1, \dots, p-1\}$** , where we do arithmetic simplified mod **p** .

Ex: Polynomials in **$GF(3)$** .

$$p(x) = x^2 + 2$$

$GF(3)$ means work

$$p(0) = \quad , \quad p(1) = \quad = \quad \quad p(2) = \quad = \quad$$

Seems like **$p(x)$** has roots at $\quad$ and $\dots$

$$\text{In fact, } (x-1)(x-2) =$$

Fact: The two polynomial properties hold in **$GF(p)$** .

Minor Ex: In Lagrange interpolation, we put

$$\Delta_{x_i}(x) = \frac{Z_{x_i}(x)}{Z_{x_i}(x_i)} \cdot \text{Now, put } \Delta_{x_i}(x) = Z_{x_i}(x) \left(\begin{matrix} \vdots \\ \downarrow \end{matrix} \right)^{-1}$$

Confusing Ex: Consider $GF(3)$.

Consider points $(0,0), (1,1), (2,2), (3,3)$

By Property 2, should be a unique polynomial of degree or less passing through.

$p(x) = x$ works.

$p(x) = x^3$ works too... $p(2) =$, $p(3) =$

Two ways to make sense of this.

1. In $GF(3)$, and are the same point! So only have points.

2. By FLT, $x^3 \equiv \pmod{3}$ so the polynomials are the same!

Two important lessons:

1. In $GF(p)$, there are finitely many possible different inputs to a polynomial (and outputs).

2. In $GF(p)$, two polynomials of different degree can be identical on all inputs.

Since options are finite in $GF(p)$, we can count the number of different polynomials.

Ex: In $GF(5)$, how many polynomials of degree 2 or less?

$$p(x) = a_2x^2 + a_1x + a_0$$


options per coefficient: $= \boxed{}$ polynomials

Ex: In $GF(5)$, how many polynomials of degree 2 or less that pass through $(0,2)$ and $(2,3)$?

Pick some other input, like 1.

There are possibilities for where 1 maps:

$$(1, 1), (1, 2), (1, 3), (1, 4), (1, 0)$$

For each of possible y , there is a unique polynomial of degree 2 or less passing

through $(0,2), (1,y), (2,3)$ by Property 2.

Each of these polynomials is distinct since

they map 1 to different values.

So, $\boxed{5}$ possible polynomials.

Fact: In $GF(p)$, there are p^{d-n+1} polynomials of degree d or less passing through a set of $n \leq d+1$ distinct points.

Secret Sharing

Setup: You have a secret, which is an integer $s > 0$.

You have a group of n friends.

Individually, no one should be able to find the secret. But, if $k < n$ work together, they should be able to get the secret.

Procedure: 1. Pick a polynomial $p(x)$ with degree $k-1$ and with $p(0) = s$.

2. For each friend 1 to n , give friend i the point $(i, p(i))$.

If k friends get together, they can do Lagrange interpolation to find $q(x)$ of degree

$k-1$ or less that passes through all their points.

But: $p(x)$ is degree $k-1$ and passes through their points! By uniqueness in Property 2, $q(x) = p(x)$! So, they can get the secret.

If a smaller group of friends does Lagrange interpolation and gets $q(x)$, then $q(0)$ could be anything! Can't get secret.

Often, we want to do this in $GF(p)$ for some prime p so we can work with integers.

Make sure: $p > k$ (else secret is cut off)
 $p > n$ (else not enough distinct points to give out!)