Vanishing Polynomials and Polynomial Functions

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Definition (Ring)

A **ring** is a set A with operation + and \times such that:

- A is closed under + and \times .
- + is commutative and has inverses (so exists).
- There is an additive identity (denoted 0).
- Both operations are associative.
- The distributive law holds $((a + b) \times c = a \times c + b \times c)$.

We will be working with commutative rings (so \times is commutative).

Definition (Polynomial)

A **polynomial** F(x) in a polynomial ring R[x] is a formal sum

$$a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$$

for some nonnegative integer n, where each $a_i \in R$ and x is an indeterminate.

Definition (Vanishing polynomial)

A vanishing polynomial $F(x) \in R[x]$ is a polynomial such that F(a) = 0 for all $a \in R$. By definition, 0 itself is a vanishing polynomial.

Example

Consider the polynomial $F(x) = x^2 + x$ over \mathbb{Z}_2 . Notice that F(0) = 0 and F(1) = 2 = 0.

Example

Consider the ring $R = \prod_{n=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{Z}_2$. Notice that $x^2 + x$ is vanishing in this ring as well.

Example

Over the ring \mathbb{Z}_6 , the polynomial x(x-1)(x-2)(x-3)(x-4)(x-5) clearly vanishes; however, the lower degree x(x-1)(x-2) and 3(x-1)(x-2) also vanish.

Definition (Polynomial function)

A **polynomial function** $f : R \to R$ is a function on R for which there exists a polynomial $F(x) \in R[x]$ such that f(r) = F(r) for all $r \in R$.

Polynomials are denoted with uppercase letters while polynomial functions are denoted with lowercase letters.

Thus, F(x) is a polynomial but f(x) is a polynomial function.

Example

Over \mathbb{Z}_6 , $F(x) = x^2 + 1$ is a polynomial while the mapping induced, namely f which maps $0 \rightarrow 1, 1 \rightarrow 2, 2 \rightarrow 5, 3 \rightarrow 4, 4 \rightarrow 5, 5 \rightarrow 2$, is a polynomial function.

Definition (Ideal)

A subring $S \subseteq R$ is an **ideal** if $rs \in S$ for all $r \in R$ and $s \in S$.

Lemma (Well-known)

Vanishing polynomials form an ideal.

Theorem (Singmaster, 1974)

Any element of the ideal of vanishing polynomials over \mathbb{Z}_n is of the form

$$G(x) = F(x)B_s(x) + \sum_{k=0}^{s-1} a_k \cdot \frac{n}{\gcd(k!,n)} \cdot B_k(x)$$

where $B_k(x) = (x + 1)(x + 2) \dots (x + k)$ with $B_0(x) = 1$, and s is the smallest integer such that n | s!. F(x) is a polynomial which is uniquely defined based on G(x), and a_k 's are integers also uniquely defined in the range $0 \le a_k < \gcd(k!, n)$.

Definition

A polynomial P(x) is **integer valued** if for all integers n, P(n) is an integer.

- Any vanishing polynomial F(x) corresponds to an integer valued polynomial G(x) = F(x)/n.
- Conversely, in order for an integer-valued polynomial G(x) to correspond to a polynomial F(x) = nG(x), all resulting coefficients in F(x) must be integers.

$$\binom{x}{k} = \frac{x(x-1)\cdots(x-k+1)}{k!}$$
 denotes the "choose" function.

Lemma (Well-known)

Any integer-valued polynomial can be uniquely expressed as a linear sum with integer coefficients of functions of the form $\binom{x}{k}$.

By the lemma, every such G(x) can be uniquely represented as a sum $G(x) = \sum_{k=1}^{m} c_k {x \choose k}$. Thus, every vanishing polynomial F(x) over \mathbb{Z}_n can be uniquely represented as

$$F(x) = \sum_{k=1}^{m} nc_k \binom{x}{k},$$

where $c_k, m \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Theorem (Borodin, Liu, Zhang, 2022)

If any term in the summation $\sum_{k=1}^{m} nc_k \binom{x}{k}$ has a non-integer coefficient then the resulting polynomial cannot have integer coefficients.

- $nc_k \binom{x}{k}$ has integer coefficients $\implies k! \mid nc_k$.
- The smallest such ck is k!/gcd(n, k!) and any greater ck would be a multiple of this, so any valid ck can be written as ak · (k!/gcd(n, k!)) for integer 0 ≤ ak < gcd(n, k!) (any ak outside this range is redundant in Zn).
- If we define s to be the smallest integer such that n | s!, any polynomial $n \cdot a_k \frac{k!}{\gcd(k!,n)} {x \choose k}$, where $k \ge s$, is a polynomial multiple of ${x \choose s}$.

Vanishing Polynomials Over \mathbb{Z}_n

- If we define s to be the smallest integer such that n | s!, any polynomial $n \cdot a_k \frac{k!}{\gcd(k!,n)} {x \choose k}$, where $k \ge s$, is a polynomial multiple of ${x \choose s}$.
- Therefore we have arrived at Singmaster's formulation, except with B_k(x) written in the form ^x_k · k!.

Theorem (Singmaster 1974)

Any element of the ideal of vanishing polynomials over \mathbb{Z}_n is of the form

$$G(x) = F(x)B_s(x) + \sum_{k=0}^{s-1} a_k \cdot \frac{n}{\gcd(k!,n)} \cdot B_k(x)$$

where $B_k(x) = (x + 1)(x + 2) \dots (x + k)$ with $B_0(x) = 1$, and s is the smallest integer such that n | s!. F(x) is a polynomial which is uniquely defined based on G(x), and a_k 's are integers also uniquely defined in the range $0 \le a_k < \gcd(k!, n)$.

Vanishing Polynomials Over \mathbb{Z}_n

Corollary

The generating set for the ideal of vanishing polynomials over \mathbb{Z}_n is

$$\left\{rac{n}{\mathsf{gcd}(k!,n)}\cdot B_k(x)\mid k\in\mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}
ight\}$$

for either definition of $B_k(x)$.

- If k is less than the smallest prime divisor of n, the only element in the above set is the zero polynomial.
- We can immediately find the degree of the minimal degree monic vanishing polynomial and minimal degree non-monic vanishing polynomial, which would be *s* and the smallest prime factor of *n*, respectively.
- The minimal degree non-monic polynomial must be unique up to multiplication by a constant since the generating set only contains a single nonzero polynomial of that degree or lower.

Vanishing Polynomials Over \mathbb{Z}_n

Corollary

The generating set for the ideal of vanishing polynomials over \mathbb{Z}_n is

$$\left\{rac{n}{\gcd(k!,n)}\cdot B_k(x)\mid k\in\mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}
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for either definition of $B_k(x)$.

- Many of the elements in the generating set are redundant.
- In particular, if we have two polynomials a ⋅ (^x_i) ⋅ i! and a ⋅ (^x_j) ⋅ j! for some integer a, and i < j then the polynomial containing j is a polynomial multiple of the other and therefore redundant in a generating set.
- Therefore, in order to minimize our generating set we can remove any polynomials (n/gcd(k!, n)) (^x_k) · k! for which k is not the minimal integer which gives the same value of gcd(k!, n).

Definition (Quotient)

A quotient of a ring *R* by an ideal *I* is a partitioning of the ring *R* into cosets of the form $r_1 + I$, $r_2 + I$, $r_3 + I$, ..., which form a ring under (a + I) + (b + I) = ((a + b) + I) and $(a + I) \times (b + I) = ((a \times b) + I)$.

Example

 $5\mathbb{Z}$ is the ideal generated by 5 consisting of all integer multiples of 5. The quotient $\mathbb{Z}/5\mathbb{Z}$ is summarized in the following table:

Representative	Coset		
0	$0+5\mathbb{Z} = \{\ldots, -5, 0, 5, 10, \ldots\}$		
1	$1+5\mathbb{Z} = \{\ldots, -4, 1, 6, 11, \ldots\}$		
2	$2+5\mathbb{Z} = \{\ldots, -3, 2, 7, 12, \ldots\}$		
3	$3+5\mathbb{Z} = \{\ldots, -2, 3, 8, 13, \ldots\}$		
4	$4+5\mathbb{Z} = \{\ldots, -1, 4, 9, 14, \ldots\}$		

Vanishing Polynomials Over General Rings

 $(y) = \{ay : a \in R\}$, the ideal generated by y.

Definition

For a $y \in R$ such that R/(y) is finite and creates the cosets $a_1 + (y), a_2 + (y), \ldots, a_k + (y)$ we define

$$F_y(x) = (x - a_1)(x - a_2) \dots (x - a_k).$$

Lemma (Borodin, Liu, Zhang, 2022)

Given nonzero $y_1y_2 = 0$, the polynomials

$$G(x) = y_2 F_{y_1}(x)$$

and

$$H(x) = F_{y_1}(x)F_{y_2}(x)$$

are vanishing.

Theorem (Borodin, Liu, Zhang, 2022)

Given nonzero $y_1y_2...y_m = 0$ and an indexing set N such that if $i \in N$ then $R/(y_i)$ is finite and M containing all other indices the polynomial

$$H(x) = \prod_{j \in M} y_j \cdot \prod_{i \in N} F_{y_i}(x)$$

is vanishing.

Note that we often get duplicate terms which can be removed.

Example

Over $\mathbb{Z}_{35},$ we get the vanishing polynomial

$$G(x) = (x)(x-1)(x-2)(x-3)(x-4) \cdot (x)(x-1)(x-2)(x-3)(x-4)(x-5)(x-6)$$

which can be reduced to

$$G(x) = (x)(x-1)(x-2)(x-3)(x-4)(x-5)(x-6).$$

Some duplicate terms cannot be removed.

Example

Consider the polynomial $(x)(x-1) \cdot (x)(x-1)$ over the ring \mathbb{Z}_4 using the zero divisors $2 \cdot 2 = 0$. These duplicate terms cannot be removed since (x)(x-1) is not vanishing over \mathbb{Z}_4 .

Precise description of when terms can be removed is more complicated.

This method allows us to find vanishing polynomials not only for finite rings but also for infinite ones.

Example

- Consider $R = \prod_{n=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{Z}_2$.
- $(0, 1, 1, 1, 1, \ldots) \cdot (1, 0, 0, 0, 0, \ldots) = 0.$
- $R/((0,1,1,1,1,\ldots)) \cong \mathbb{Z}_2$ so it is finite.
- (1,0,0,0,0...)(x (0,0,0,0,0...))(x (1,0,0,0,0...)) is vanishing.
- (0, 0, 0, 0, 0, ...) and (1, 0, 0, 0, 0, ...) can be replaced by any representatives from the corresponding cosets.

Theorem (Borodin, Liu, Zhang, 2022)

If $R = \mathbb{Z}_n$, this description is sufficient to give a generating set of all vanishing polynomials if we take $y_1 \cdot \ldots \cdot y_k = n$ to be the prime factorization of n.

Proof sketch.

Number theoretic proof from before uses the fact that x(x-1)(x-2)...(x-k) is divisible by gcd(n, k!). Now we can instead use a product of $F_{y_i}(x)$'s where y_i 's multiply to gcd(n, k!) to achieve the same result. Removing duplicates gives the desired degree.

Vanishing Polynomials Over Product Rings

We now have a classification of vanishing polynomials for \mathbb{Z}_n .

- How to extend to more general rings?
- Extend to direct products of rings of integers modulo a number.

Definition (Direct Product)

The **direct product** $A \times B$ of rings A and B is the set of elements $(a, b)|a \in A, b \in B$ such that

$$(a_1, b_1) + (a_2, b_2) = (a_1 + a_2, b_1 + b_2)$$

where $a_1 + a_2$ is the sum of a_1 and a_2 in A. Similarly,

$$(a_1, b_1) \cdot (a_2, b_2) = (a_1 \cdot a_2, b_1 \cdot b_2).$$

Example

Consider the two elements a = (0, 1) and b = (1, 0) in $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$. We have

$$a + b = (1, 1)$$
 and $ab = (0, 0)$.

Notice that \mathbb{Z}_4 is not the same as $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$: in \mathbb{Z}_4 , the identity added to itself gives 1 + 1 = 2, while in $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$ it gives (1, 1) + (1, 1) = (0, 0), the zero element.

Besides extending above results, what can direct product be used for?

- Any finite ring can be decomposed into prime power order rings.
- Very small set of distinct prime power order rings for any given prime power.

Lemma (Well-known)

Let R be the direct product of k rings R_1, \ldots, R_k . Then, we have

 $R[x] \cong R_1[x] \times \cdots \times R_k[x].$

Theorem (Borodin, Liu, Zhang, 2022)

Let R be the direct product of k rings R_1, \ldots, R_k . Then, the ring of polynomial functions on R has the same ring structure as the direct product of the rings of polynomial functions on R_1, \ldots, R_k .

Example

Consider $R = \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$.

We can then express any element of R[x] as an element of $\mathbb{Z}_2[x] \times \mathbb{Z}_2[x]$ and vice versa.

R[x]	$\mathbb{Z}_2[x] \times \mathbb{Z}_2[x]$	
(1,0)×	(x,0)	
$(1,0)x^4 + (0,1)x^3 + (1,1)x$	(x^4+x,x^3+x)	
$(1,0)x^3 + (1,1)x^2 + (0,1)x$	$(x^3 + x^2, x^2 + x)$	

Notice that all vanishing polynomials in R[x] correspond to pairs of vanishing polynomials in $\mathbb{Z}_2[x] \times \mathbb{Z}_2[x]$.

Vanishing Polynomials Over Product Rings

Example

We now apply this theorem to find the set of polynomial functions over $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$.

(a,b)	0	1	х	x+1
0	(0,0)	(1,0)	(1,0)×	(1,0)x + (1,0)
1	(0,1)	(1,1)	(1,0)x + (0,1)	(1,0)x + (1,1)
х	(0,1)×	(0,1)x + (1,0)	(1,1)×	(1,1)x + (1,0)
x+1	(0,1)x + (0,1)	(0,1)x + (1,1)	(1,1)x + (0,1)	(1,1)x + (1,1)

The set of polynomial functions over $\mathbb{Z}_2\times\mathbb{Z}_2$ is

(0,0), (1,0), (0,1), (1,1),(1,0)x, (1,0)x + (1,0), (1,0)x + (0,1), (1,0)x + (1,1)(0,1)x, (0,1)x + (1,0), (0,1)x + (0,1), (0,1)x + (1,1)(1,1)x, (1,1)x + (1,0), (1,1)x + (0,1), (1,1)x + (1,1). We would like to express our sincere thanks to our mentor, Prof. Jim Coykendall for his continuous guidance and support throughout this project.

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