# Vanishing Polynomials and Polynomial Functions 

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## Rings

## 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).

## Vanishing Polynomials

## Definition (Polynomial)

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

$$
a_{n} x^{n}+a_{n-1} x^{n-1}+\cdots+a_{1} x+a_{0}
$$

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.

## Simple Vanishing Polynomials

## 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 $R=\Pi_{n=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{Z}_{2}$. 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.

## Polynomial Functions

## Definition (Polynomial function)

A polynomial function $f: R \rightarrow R$ 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.

## Polynomial Functions

## 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.

## Ideal of Vanishing Polynomials

## Definition (Ideal)

A subring $S \subseteq R$ is an ideal if $r s \in S$ for all $r \in R$ and $s \in S$.
Lemma (Well-known)
Vanishing polynomials form an ideal.

## Vanishing Polynomials Over $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$

## Theorem (Singmaster, 1974)

Any element of the ideal of vanishing polynomials over $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$ is of the form

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

where $B_{k}(x)=(x+1)(x+2) \ldots(x+k)$ with $B_{0}(x)=1$, and $s$ is the smallest integer such that $n \mid s!. F(x)$ is a polynomial which is uniquely defined based on $G(x)$, and $a_{k}$ 's are integers also uniquely defined in the range $0 \leq a_{k}<\operatorname{gcd}(k!, n)$.

## Vanishing Polynomials Over $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$

## 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 $F(x)=n G(x)$, all resulting coefficients in $F(x)$ must be integers.


## Vanishing Polynomials Over $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$

$\binom{x}{k}=\frac{x(x-1) \cdots(x-k+1)}{k!}$ 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 $G(x)=\sum_{k=1}^{m} c_{k}\binom{x}{k}$. Thus, every vanishing polynomial $F(x)$ over $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$ can be uniquely represented as

$$
F(x)=\sum_{k=1}^{m} n c_{k}\binom{x}{k}
$$

where $c_{k}, m \in \mathbb{Z}$.

## Vanishing Polynomials Over $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$

## Theorem (Borodin, Liu, Zhang, 2022)

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

- $n c_{k}\binom{x}{k}$ has integer coefficients $\Longrightarrow k!\mid n c_{k}$.
- The smallest such $c_{k}$ is $k!/ \operatorname{gcd}(n, k!)$ and any greater $c_{k}$ would be a multiple of this, so any valid $c_{k}$ can be written as $a_{k} \cdot(k!/ \operatorname{gcd}(n, k!))$ for integer $0 \leq a_{k}<\operatorname{gcd}(n, k!)$ (any $a_{k}$ outside this range is redundant in $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$ ).
- If we define $s$ to be the smallest integer such that $n \mid s!$, any polynomial $n \cdot a_{k} \frac{k!}{\operatorname{gcd}(k!, n)}\binom{x}{k}$, where $k \geq s$, is a polynomial multiple of $\binom{x}{s}$.


## Vanishing Polynomials Over $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$

- If we define $s$ to be the smallest integer such that $n \mid s!$, any polynomial $n \cdot a_{k} \frac{k!}{\operatorname{gcd}(k!, n)}\binom{x}{k}$, where $k \geq s$, is a polynomial multiple of $\binom{x}{s}$.
- Therefore we have arrived at Singmaster's formulation, except with $B_{k}(x)$ written in the form $\binom{x}{k} \cdot k!$.


## Theorem (Singmaster 1974)

Any element of the ideal of vanishing polynomials over $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$ is of the form

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

where $B_{k}(x)=(x+1)(x+2) \ldots(x+k)$ with $B_{0}(x)=1$, and $s$ is the smallest integer such that $n \mid s!. F(x)$ is a polynomial which is uniquely defined based on $G(x)$, and $a_{k}$ 's are integers also uniquely defined in the range $0 \leq a_{k}<\operatorname{gcd}(k!, n)$.

## Vanishing Polynomials Over $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$

## Corollary

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

$$
\left\{\left.\frac{n}{\operatorname{gcd}(k!, n)} \cdot B_{k}(x) \right\rvert\, k \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}\right\}
$$

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

$$
\left\{\left.\frac{n}{\operatorname{gcd}(k!, n)} \cdot B_{k}(x) \right\rvert\, k \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}\right\}
$$

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 $\cdot\binom{x}{i} \cdot i$ ! and $a \cdot\binom{x}{j} \cdot j$ ! 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 $(n / \operatorname{gcd}(k!, n))\binom{x}{k} \cdot k$ ! for which $k$ is not the minimal integer which gives the same value of $\operatorname{gcd}(k!, n)$.


## Quotient Rings

## Definition (Quotient)

A quotient of a ring $R$ by an ideal $I$ is a partitioning of the ring $R$ into cosets of the form $r_{1}+I, r_{2}+I, r_{3}+I, \ldots$, which form a ring under $(a+l)+(b+l)=((a+b)+l)$ and $(a+I) \times(b+I)=((a \times b)+I)$.

## Quotient Rings

## 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

$(y)=\{a y: a \in R\}$, 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

$$
F_{y}(x)=\left(x-a_{1}\right)\left(x-a_{2}\right) \ldots\left(x-a_{k}\right)
$$

## Lemma (Borodin, Liu, Zhang, 2022)

Given nonzero $y_{1} y_{2}=0$, the polynomials

$$
G(x)=y_{2} F_{y_{1}}(x)
$$

and

$$
H(x)=F_{y_{1}}(x) F_{y_{2}}(x)
$$

are vanishing.

## Vanishing Polynomials Over General Rings

## Theorem (Borodin, Liu, Zhang, 2022)

Given nonzero $y_{1} y_{2} \ldots y_{m}=0$ and an indexing set $N$ such that if $i \in N$ then $R /\left(y_{i}\right)$ 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.

## Vanishing Polynomials Over General Rings

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

## Example

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

$$
\begin{aligned}
& G(x)=(x)(x-1)(x-2)(x-3)(x-4) \\
& \quad(x)(x-1)(x-2)(x-3)(x-4)(x-5)(x-6)
\end{aligned}
$$

which can be reduced to

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

## Vanishing Polynomials Over General Rings

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.

## Vanishing Polynomials Over General Rings

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.
- $(1,0,0,0,0 \ldots)(x-(0,0,0,0,0 \ldots))(x-(1,0,0,0,0 \ldots))$ is vanishing.
- ( $0,0,0,0,0 \ldots$ ) and ( $1,0,0,0,0 \ldots$ ) can be replaced by any representatives from the corresponding cosets.


## Vanishing Polynomials Over General Rings

## 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 $x(x-1)(x-2) \ldots(x-k)$ is divisible by $\operatorname{gcd}(n, k!)$. Now we can instead use a product of $F_{y_{i}}(x)$ 's where $y_{i}$ 's multiply to $\operatorname{gcd}(n, k!)$ 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 $(a, b) \mid a \in A, b \in B$ such that

$$
\left(a_{1}, b_{1}\right)+\left(a_{2}, b_{2}\right)=\left(a_{1}+a_{2}, b_{1}+b_{2}\right)
$$

where $a_{1}+a_{2}$ is the sum of $a_{1}$ and $a_{2}$ in $A$. Similarly,

$$
\left(a_{1}, b_{1}\right) \cdot\left(a_{2}, b_{2}\right)=\left(a_{1} \cdot a_{2}, b_{1} \cdot b_{2}\right) .
$$

## Vanishing Polynomials Over Product Rings

## Example

Consider the two elements $a=(0,1)$ and $b=(1,0)$ in $\mathbb{Z}_{2} \times \mathbb{Z}_{2}$. We have

$$
a+b=(1,1) \text { and } a b=(0,0)
$$

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.

## Vanishing Polynomials Over Product Rings

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.


## Vanishing Polynomials Over Product Rings

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 $R_{1}, \ldots, R_{k}$.

## Vanishing Polynomials Over Product Rings

## 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.

| $\mathrm{R}[\mathrm{x}]$ | $\mathbb{Z}_{2}[x] \times \mathbb{Z}_{2}[x]$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| $(1,0) \mathrm{x}$ | $(\mathrm{x}, 0)$ |
| $(1,0) \mathrm{x}^{4}+(0,1) x^{3}+(1,1) x$ | $\left(\mathrm{x}^{4}+x, \mathrm{x}^{3}+x\right)$ |
| $(1,0) \mathrm{x}^{3}+(1,1) \mathrm{x}^{2}+(0,1) x$ | $\left(\mathrm{x}^{3}+\mathrm{x}^{2}, \mathrm{x}^{2}+\mathrm{x}\right)$ |

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 $\mathbb{Z}_{2} \times \mathbb{Z}_{2}$.

| $(\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{b})$ | 0 | 1 | x | $\mathrm{x}+1$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | $(0,0)$ | $(1,0)$ | $(1,0) \mathrm{x}$ | $(1,0) \mathrm{x}+(1,0)$ |
| 1 | $(0,1)$ | $(1,1)$ | $(1,0) \mathrm{x}+(0,1)$ | $(1,0) \mathrm{x}+(1,1)$ |
| x | $(0,1) \mathrm{x}$ | $(0,1) \mathrm{x}+(1,0)$ | $(1,1) \mathrm{x}$ | $(1,1) \mathrm{x}+(1,0)$ |
| $\mathrm{x}+1$ | $(0,1) \mathrm{x}+(0,1)$ | $(0,1) \mathrm{x}+(1,1)$ | $(1,1) \mathrm{x}+(0,1)$ | $(1,1) \mathrm{x}+(1,1)$ |

The set of polynomial functions over $\mathbb{Z}_{2} \times \mathbb{Z}_{2}$ is

$$
\begin{aligned}
& (0,0),(1,0),(0,1),(1,1) \\
& (1,0) x,(1,0) x+(1,0),(1,0) x+(0,1),(1,0) x+(1,1) \\
& (0,1) x,(0,1) x+(1,0),(0,1) x+(0,1),(0,1) x+(1,1) \\
& (1,1) x,(1,1) x+(1,0),(1,1) x+(0,1),(1,1) x+(1,1)
\end{aligned}
$$

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