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Generalizations of Polynomials in Chebyshev Form

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Abstract

Arbitrary polynomial of degree n can be written in Chebyshev form. In this paper, we generalize this Chebyshev form and study its root distributions.

Keywords: Polynomial, Chebyshev Form, Root Distribution

1. Introduction

Chebyshev polynomials are of great importance in many areas of mathematics, particularly approximation theory. Many papers and books^[1,2] have been written about these polynomials. Let $T_n(x)$ be the Chebyshev polynomial of the first kind. These polynomials satisfy the recurrence relations

$$\begin{split} T_0(x) = 1, \quad T_1(x) = x, \\ T_{n+1}(x) = 2x \, T_n(x) - T_{n-1}(x) \quad (n \geq 1) \end{split}$$

Arbitrary polynomial of degree *n* can be written in terms of the Chebyshev polynomials of the first kind. Such a polynomial $p_n(x)$ is of the form

$$p_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k T_k(x)$$

Define for a constant c,

$$p_n(c,x) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} a_k T_k(x) + c T_n(x)$$

Then $p_n(c, x)$ is a generalization of $p_n(x)$ and $p_n(a_n, x) = p_n(x)$. If x_0 is a root of $p_n(c, x)$, i.e., $p_n(c, x_0)=0$, then

$$\begin{split} 0 &= \sum_{k=0}^{n-1}\!\!\! a_k T_k(x_0) + c\,T_n(x_0) \\ &= p_n(x_0) + (c-a_n)\,T_n(x_0) \end{split}$$

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and so c is uniquely determined by

$$c = -\frac{p_n(x_0)}{T_n(x_0)} + a_n$$

provided that $T_n(x_0) \neq 0$. In this case

$$\begin{split} p_n(c,x) &= \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} a_k T_k(x) + \left(- \frac{p_n(x_0)}{T_n(x_0)} + a_n \right) T_n(x) \\ &= p_n(x) - \frac{p_n(x_0)}{T_n(x_0)} T_n(x), \end{split}$$

and the roots (including x_0) of $p_n(c, x)=0$ satisfy

$$p_n(x) = rac{p_n(x_0)}{T_n(x_0)} T_n(x)$$

2. Results and Examples

We summarize the above in Section 1 as follows.

Proposition 1 Let $p_n(x)$ be a polynomial of degree *n*. Write

$$p_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k T_k(x)$$

Define

$$p_n(c,x) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} a_k T_k(x) + c T_n(x)$$

If x_0 is a root of $p_n(c, x)$, then all roots of $p_n(c, x_0)=0$ satisfy

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$$p_n(x) = \frac{p_n(x_0)}{T_n(x_0)} T_n(x)$$

As an example of Proposition 1, we consider the polynomial

$$p_n(x) = (1+x)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} x^k$$

Using (1.5.32) in p. 55 of [2], we may compute that

$$(1+x)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n {}'A_k T_k(x)$$

where \sum^{\prime} means a sum with the first term halved and

$$\begin{split} A_k &= \frac{1}{2^{k-1}} \! \left(\! \binom{n}{k} \! + \! \sum_{j=1}^{\left[\frac{n-k}{2} \right]} \frac{\binom{k+2j}{j} \binom{n}{k+2j}}{2^{2j}} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2^{n-1}} \frac{\Gamma(1\!+\!2n)}{\Gamma(1\!-\!k\!+\!n)\Gamma(1\!+\!k\!+\!n)} \\ &= \frac{1}{2^{n-1}} \binom{2F_1(n\!+\!k,n\!-\!k,2n\!+\!1;\!1)}{2^{n-1}}, \end{split}$$

where $_{2}F_{1}(a, b, c; x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(a)_{n}(b)_{n}}{(c)_{n}n!} x^{n}$, |x| < 1, is the hypergeometric function and $(\theta)_{n} = \theta(\theta + 1)...(\theta + n - 1)$ for n > 0 and $(\theta)_{0} = 1$. So

$$\begin{split} p_n(x) = & (1+x)^n = \frac{1}{2^{n-1}} \\ & \sum_{k=0}^{n} {'}_2 F_1(n+k,n-k,2n+1;1) \ T_k(x) \end{split}$$

Suppose that x_0 is a root of

$$\begin{split} p_n(c,x) = & \frac{1}{2^{n-1}} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1'} {}_2F_1(n+k,n-k,2n+1;1) \\ & T_k(x) + c\,T_n(x) = 0 \end{split}$$

Then by Proposition 1, all roots of $p_n(c, x)=0$ satisfy

$$(1\!+\!x)^n = \! \frac{(1\!+\!x_0)^n}{T_n(x_0)} \, T_n(x)$$

We consider a special case when $x_0 = -1/2$, and study root distribution of $p_n(c, x)=0$ when n = 6k or 6k+3. Since for $k \ge 0$,

$$T_n \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = \begin{cases} 1, & n = 6k, \\ -1, & n = 6k+3, \\ \frac{1}{2}, & n = 6k+1, 6k+5, \\ -\frac{1}{2}, & n = 6k+2, 6k+4, \end{cases}$$

we have

$$(1+x)^n = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2^n} T_n(x), & n = 6k, 6k+3, \\ \frac{-1}{2^{n-1}} T_n(x), & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Proposition 2 Let $p_n(x) = (1+x)^n$. With the same notations used above, if $x_0 = -1/2$ and n = 6k or 6k+3, then all real roots of $p_n(c, x) = 0$ lie in $(-\infty, -1/2]$ and there are exactly n/3 or n/3+1 real roots in (-1, -1/2].

Proof Let

$$f_1(x):=(1\!+\!x)^n,\quad f_2(x):=\!\frac{1}{2^n}\,T_n(x)$$

and $x = \cosh \theta$, $\theta \ge 0$ so that $x \ge 1$. Then $T_n(x) = \cosh n\theta$, and

$$f_1(x) - f_2(x) = \frac{1}{2^n} \left((2 + e^{\theta} + e^{-\theta})^n - \frac{e^{n\theta} + e^{-n\theta}}{2} \right) > 0$$

So there are no real roots in $[1, \infty)$. If $-1 \le x \le 1$, then $|T_n(x) \le 1|$ and so

$$\left|f_{2}(x)\right| \leq \frac{1}{2^{n}}$$

The equation $|f_1(x)| = |f_2(x)|$ implies that $-1 \le x \le -1/2$. We observe that $f_1(x)$ is increasing for $x \ge -1$ and, on the interval [-1, 1] all of the extrema of $f_2(x)$ have values that are either $1/2^n$ or $-1/2^n$. Since

$$f_1\left(-\frac{1}{2}\right) = f_2\left(-\frac{1}{2}\right) = \frac{1}{2^{n,}}$$

and $f_2(x)$ have n/3 roots

$$f_2(-1) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2^n}, & n = 6k, \\ -\frac{1}{2^n}, & n = 6k+3, \end{cases}$$

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in (-1, -1/2), $f_1(x) = f_2(x)$ has exactly n/3 or n/3+1 real roots in (-1, -1/2].

Remark In case of $x_0 = -1/2$ and n = 6k or 6k+3, it seems that there is only one real root in $(-\infty, -1]$. Other cases can be considered similarly.

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