# The Cubic Curve is an Adding Machine 

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The authors of [1] consider a special quadratic function property which involves real numbers $x, y$, and $x+y$. This property is used to prove a wellknown identity about Fibonacci numbers. They then proceed to show that under mild restrictions, this property characterizes this type of function. Here, we consider a property which connects certain types of cubic polynomials with the addition of real numbers. In the spirit of [1], this is followed by a proof that under very simple conditions (e.g., that the function is bounded on some open interval $(c, d)$ ), this property characterizes certain polynomials of degree at most 3 .

Our first theorem describes this additive connection. It is not new (see [2], [3], [4]) but the second part spells out in detail a special case which is usually omitted in the literature. We believe that our other results are essentially new. Figure 1 goes here.
THEOREM 1. Let $f(x)=A+B x+C x^{3}$, with $C \neq 0$.
(a) If $u \neq v$ and $L$ is the line through the points $(-u, f(-u))$ and $(-v, f(-v))$, then $L$ intersects the graph of $f(x)$ also at the point $(u+v, f(u+v))$.
(b) If $L$ is the tangent line to the graph of $f(x)$ at the point $(-u, f(-u))$, then $L$ intersects the graph of $f(x)$ also at the point $(2 u, f(2 u))$.
Proof.
(a) If the equation of $L$ is $y=m x+b$, then $g(x)=f(x)-m x-b$ is a cubic polynomial with quadratic term 0 and two distinct roots at $x=-u$
and $x=-v$. Since the quadratic term of $g(x)$ is 0 , the sum of the roots of $g(x)$ is 0 . Therefore, the third root $w$ of $g(x)$ satisfies $w-u-v=0$ or $w=u+v$. It follows that $L$ intersects the graph of $f(x)$ also at the point $(u+v, f(u+v))$.
(b) The equation of the tangent line $L$ to the graph of $f(x)$ at $(-u, f(-u))$ is

$$
y_{T}=f(-u)+f^{\prime}(-u)(x+u) .
$$

By Taylor's Formula,

$$
\begin{aligned}
f(x) & =\frac{f^{\prime \prime \prime}(-u)}{3!}(x+u)^{3}+\frac{f^{\prime \prime}(-u)}{2!}(x+u)^{2}+\frac{f^{\prime}(-u)}{1!}(x+u)+f(-u) \\
& =(x+u)^{2}[C(x+u)-3 C u]+y_{T} \\
& =C(x+u)^{2}(x-2 u)+y_{T} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Then, since $C \neq 0$ and $g(x)=f(x)-y_{T}=C(x+u)^{2}(x-2 u), g(x)$ must have a double root at $x=-u$ and the remaining root at $x=2 u$. Hence, $L$ intersects the graph of $f(x)$ also at the point $(2 u, f(2 u))$.

Part (b) of THEOREM 1 is intended to extend Part (a) to the case where $u=v$. Also, it should be noted that in Part (a), the point $(u+v, f(u+v))$ might coincide with either $(-u, f(-u))$ or $(-v, f(-v))$. This occurs when $v=-2 u$ or $u=-2 v$, respectively. When this happens, we get a situation similar to Part (b).

By THEOREM 1, functions of the form $f(x)=A+B x+C x^{3}$ satisfy:
$\operatorname{PROPERTY}(\boldsymbol{\star})$. For all real $x$ and $y$, the points $(-x, f(-x)),(-y, f(-y))$, and $(x+y, f(x+y))$ are collinear.
This property is a little more general than the result of THEOREM 1 in that it also clearly applies to straight lines (i.e., functions of the above type with $C=0$ ). Our second result shows that under a rather minimal additional restriction on $f(x)$, PROPERTY $(\star)$ characterizes functions of the type $f(x)=A+B x+C x^{3}$, for any constants $A, B, C$.
THEOREM 2. If $f(x)$ satisfies $\operatorname{PROPERTY}(\star)$ and $f^{\prime}(0)$ exists, then there are constants $A, B$, and $C$ such that $f(x)=A+B x+C x^{3}$ for all real $x$.
Proof. Let $f(x)$ be a function which satisfies PROPERTY ( $\boldsymbol{\star})$ and assume that $f^{\prime}(0)$ exists. Then, for all real $x$ and $y$ such that $-x,-y$, and $x+y$ are distinct, $\operatorname{PROPERTY}(\boldsymbol{\star})$ implies that we may equate the slopes determined
by the pair $(-x, f(-x))$ and $(x+y, f(x+y))$ and the pair $(-y, f(-y))$ and $(x+y, f(x+y))$ to obtain

$$
\frac{f(x+y)-f(-x)}{2 x+y}=\frac{f(x+y)-f(-y)}{x+2 y}
$$

or

$$
\begin{equation*}
(y-x) f(x+y)=(x+2 y) f(-x)-(2 x+y) f(-y) . \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since it is easily checked that condition (1) is also true if at least two of $-x$, $-y$, and $x+y$ are equal, condition (1) is true for all real $x$ and $y$. Further, a straightforward computation shows that condition (1) holds for any function of the form $f(x)+M$, where $M$ is a fixed constant. As a result, if we let $g(x)=f(x)-f(0)$, then $g(0)=0, g^{\prime}(0)=f^{\prime}(0)$, and

$$
\begin{equation*}
(y-x) g(x+y)=(x+2 y) g(-x)-(2 x+y) g(-y) \tag{*}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all real $x$ and $y$.
By setting $y=0$ in $\left(1^{*}\right)$, we get

$$
-x g(x)=x g(-x)
$$

for all $x$ and hence (since $g(0)=0$ ),

$$
\begin{equation*}
g(-x)=-g(x) \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all real $x$. Then, when $x \neq y,\left(1^{*}\right)$ becomes

$$
g(x+y)=\frac{x+2 y}{x-y} g(x)+\frac{2 x+y}{y-x} g(y)
$$

and we have

$$
\begin{align*}
\frac{g(x+y)-g(x)}{y} & =\frac{3}{x-y} g(x)+\frac{2 x+y}{y-x} \cdot \frac{g(y)}{y} \\
& =\frac{3}{x-y} g(x)+\frac{2 x+y}{y-x} \cdot \frac{g(y)-g(0)}{y} \tag{3}
\end{align*}
$$

when $y \neq x, 0$. Therefore, for $x \neq 0$ and $B=g^{\prime}(0)$,

$$
\begin{align*}
g^{\prime}(x) & =\lim _{y \rightarrow 0}\left[\frac{3}{x-y} g(x)+\frac{2 x+y}{y-x} \cdot \frac{g(y)-g(0)}{y}\right] \\
& =\frac{3}{x} g(x)-2 B \tag{4}
\end{align*}
$$

For $x>0,(4)$ is a homogeneous differential equation which can be solved by using the substitution $g(x)=x^{3} z$. Its general solution is

$$
\begin{equation*}
g(x)=B x+C x^{3}, \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

for some arbitrary constant $C$. Then, condition (2) and the fact that $g(0)=0$ imply that (5) is true for all real $x$. Finally, if $A=f(0)$, then for all real $x$,

$$
f(x)=g(x)+A=A+B x+C x^{3} .
$$

In this proof, the key step is to show that condition (1) and the existence of $f^{\prime}(0)$ imply that $g(x)=f(x)-f(0)$ satisfies a first order differential equation. For another simple example of this approach, see [5].

The next few results show some ways to relax the condition that $f^{\prime}(0)$ exists and still get the desired conclusion.
COROLLARY 3. If $f(x)$ satisfies $\operatorname{PROPERTY}(\boldsymbol{\star})$ and $f^{\prime}(a)$ exists for at least one real number $a$, then there are constants $A, B$, and $C$ such that $f(x)=A+B x+C x^{3}$ for all real $x$.
Proof. We may suppose that $a \neq 0$. If $g(x)=f(x)-f(0)$, then as in the proof of THEOREM 2, condition (3) holds for $x=a$. Therefore,

$$
\frac{g(a+y)-g(a)}{y}=\frac{3}{a-y} g(a)+\frac{2 a+y}{y-a} \cdot \frac{g(y)-g(0)}{y}
$$

or equivalently,

$$
\frac{g(y)-g(0)}{y}=\frac{y-a}{2 a+y} \cdot \frac{g(a+y)-g(a)}{y}+\frac{3}{2 a+y} \cdot g(a)
$$

for $y \neq 0, a$, or $-2 a$. As a result,

$$
\begin{aligned}
f^{\prime}(0) & =g^{\prime}(0)=\lim _{y \rightarrow 0}\left[\frac{y-a}{2 a+y} \cdot \frac{g(a+y)-g(a)}{y}+\frac{3}{2 a+y} \cdot g(a)\right] \\
& =-\frac{1}{2} g^{\prime}(a)+\frac{3}{2 a} g(a) .
\end{aligned}
$$

The conclusion now follows from THEOREM 2.
LEMMA 4. If $f(x)$ satisfies $\operatorname{PROPERTY}(\boldsymbol{\star})$ and $f(x)$ is continuous at $x=a$, where $a \neq 0$, then $f^{\prime}\left(-\frac{a}{2}\right)$ exists.

Proof. Since $f(x)$ is continuous at $x=a, \lim _{h \rightarrow 0} f(a-h)=f(a)$. Then, apply $\operatorname{PROPERTY}(\boldsymbol{\star})$ to $x=\frac{a}{2}$ and $y=\frac{a}{2}-h$ (with $h$ chosen so that $-x,-y$, and $x+y$ are distinct) to obtain

$$
\frac{f(-y)-f(-x)}{x-y}=\frac{f(x+y)-f(-x)}{2 x+y}
$$

or

$$
\frac{f\left(-\frac{a}{2}+h\right)-f\left(-\frac{a}{2}\right)}{h}=\frac{f(a-h)-f\left(-\frac{a}{2}\right)}{\frac{3 a}{2}-h} .
$$

Therefore,

$$
f^{\prime}\left(-\frac{a}{2}\right)=\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a-h)-f\left(-\frac{a}{2}\right)}{\frac{3 a}{2}-h}=\frac{2}{3} \cdot \frac{f(a)-f\left(-\frac{a}{2}\right)}{a} .
$$

LEMMA 5. If $f(x)$ satisfies PROPERTY $(\boldsymbol{\star})$ and $f(x)$ is bounded on some open interval $(c, d)$, then for any non-zero point $a \in(c, d), f(x)$ is continuous at $x=-\frac{a}{2}$.
Proof. Let $a \in(c, d)$ with $a \neq 0$. As in LEMMA 4, for appropriately chosen values of $h$, we may apply $\operatorname{PROPERTY}(\boldsymbol{\star})$ to $x=\frac{a}{2}$ and $y=\frac{a}{2}-h$ to get

$$
\frac{f\left(-\frac{a}{2}+h\right)-f\left(-\frac{a}{2}\right)}{h}=\frac{f(a-h)-f\left(-\frac{a}{2}\right)}{\frac{3 a}{2}-h}
$$

or

$$
f\left(-\frac{a}{2}+h\right)=f\left(-\frac{a}{2}\right)+h \cdot \frac{f(a-h)-f\left(-\frac{a}{2}\right)}{\frac{3 a}{2}-h}
$$

Therefore,

$$
\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} f\left(-\frac{a}{2}+h\right)=\lim _{h \rightarrow 0}\left[f\left(-\frac{a}{2}\right)+h \cdot \frac{f(a-h)-f\left(-\frac{a}{2}\right)}{\frac{3 a}{2}-h}\right]=f\left(-\frac{a}{2}\right)
$$

since

$$
\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{h}{\frac{3 a}{2}-h}=0
$$

and $f(a-h)-f\left(-\frac{a}{2}\right)$ is bounded for small values of $h$. It follows that $f(x)$ is continuous at $x=-\frac{a}{2}$.

By combining COROLLARY 3 and LEMMAS 4 and 5, we have
THEOREM 6. If $f(x)$ satisfies $\operatorname{PROPERTY}(\boldsymbol{\star})$ and $f(x)$ is bounded on some open interval $(c, d)$, then there are constants $A, B$, and $C$ such that $f(x)=A+B x+C x^{3}$ for all real $x$.

Note that if $f(x)$ satisfies $\operatorname{PROPERTY}(\boldsymbol{\star})$ and $f(x)$ is not a polynomial of degree at most 3 , then $f(x)$ must be unbounded on every open interval $(c, d)$. Such a function would have to be quite wild.

Our final results show that THEOREMS 1 and 6 can be extended in a natural way to general cubic polynomials.
THEOREM 7. Let $f(x)=A+B X+C x^{2}+D x^{3}$, with $D \neq 0$.
(a) If $u \neq v$ and $L$ is the line through the points $(-u, f(-u))$ and $(-v, f(-v))$, then $L$ intersects the graph of $f(x)$ also at the point $\left(u+v-\frac{C}{D}, f\left(u+v-\frac{C}{D}\right)\right)$.
(b) If $L$ is the tangent line to the graph of $f(x)$ at the point $(-u, f(-u))$, then $L$ intersects the graph of $f(x)$ also at the point $\left(2 u-\frac{C}{D}, f\left(2 u-\frac{C}{D}\right)\right)$.
Proof. We leave the details to the reader. One possibility is to imitate the approach used in THEOREM 1, using the fact that if $g(x)=\bar{A}+\bar{B} x+\bar{C} x^{2}+\bar{D} x^{3}$, with $\bar{D} \neq 0$, then the sum of the roots of $g(x)$ is $-\frac{\bar{C}}{\bar{D}}$. Another suggestion is to show that the function $\bar{f}(x)=f\left(x-\frac{C}{D}\right)$ satisfies THEOREM 1 and use this to produce the desired conclusions.

As in our previous situation, arbitrary cubic polynomials satisfy the following more general property.
$\operatorname{PROPERTY}(\star \star)$. There is a constant $K$ such that for all real $x$ and $y$, the points $(-x, f(-x))(-y, f(-y))$, and $(x+y-K, f(x+y-K))$ are collinear.

The last result shows that PROPERTY $(\star \star)$ essentially characterizes cubic polynomials.
THEOREM 8. If $f(x)$ satisfies PROPERTY $(\boldsymbol{\star} \boldsymbol{\star})$ and $f(x)$ is bounded on some open interval $(c, d)$, then there are constants $A, B, C$, and $D$ such that $f(x)=A+B X+C x^{2}+D x^{3}$ for all real $x$.

Proof. Let $\bar{f}(x)=f\left(x-\frac{K}{3}\right)$ for all real $x$. Then, if we apply
$\operatorname{PROPERTY}(\star \star)$ to the points $x+\frac{K}{3}$ and $y+\frac{K}{3}$, the result is that $\left(-x-\frac{K}{3}, f\left(-x-\frac{K}{3}\right)\right),\left(-y-\frac{K}{3}, f\left(-y-\frac{K}{3}\right)\right)$, and $\left(x+y-\frac{K}{3}, f\left(x+y-\frac{K}{3}\right)\right)$ are collinear, i.e., $\left(-x-\frac{K}{3}, \bar{f}(-x)\right),\left(-y-\frac{K}{3}, \bar{f}(-y)\right)$, and $\left(x+y-\frac{K}{3}, \bar{f}(x+y)\right)$ are collinear. Let $L$ be a line containing these 3 points and $L_{K}$ be the line obtained by translating $L$ horizontally by $\frac{K}{3}$ units. Since $(\bar{x}, \bar{y})$ is on $L$ if and only if $\left(\bar{x}+\frac{K}{3}, \bar{y}\right)$ is on $L_{K}$, it follows that the points $(-x, \bar{f}(-x))$, $(-y, \bar{f}(-y))$, and $(x+y, \bar{f}(x+y))$ are on $L_{K}$ and hence, these points are collinear also. Therefore, $\bar{f}(x)$ satisfies $\operatorname{PROPERTY}(\star)$. Further, since $f(x)$ is bounded on $(c, d), \bar{f}(x)$ is bounded on $\left(c+\frac{K}{3}, d+\frac{K}{3}\right)$. By THEOREM 6 , there are constants $\bar{A}, \bar{B}$, and $\bar{C}$ such that $\bar{f}(x)=\bar{A}+\bar{B} x+\bar{C} x^{3}$ for all real $x$. Finally, for all real $x$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
f(x) & =\bar{f}\left(x+\frac{K}{3}\right)=\bar{A}+\bar{B}\left(x+\frac{K}{3}\right)+\bar{C}\left(x+\frac{K}{3}\right)^{3} \\
& =A+B x+C x^{2}+D x^{3},
\end{aligned}
$$

for appropriate constants $A, B, C$, and $D$.
Observe that if the details of the last step of this proof are carried out, we get $C=\bar{C} K$ and $D=\bar{C}$. If $D \neq 0$, it follows that $K=\frac{C}{D}$, which connects our result with THEOREM 7. We might also note that there is an algebraic connection between THEOREMS 1 and 7 . It is an exercise in many abstract algebra books to show that for any constant $K, x \oplus y=x+y-K$ is a group operation on $\mathbb{R}$ and that the groups $(\mathbb{R}, \oplus)$ and $(\mathbb{R},+)$ are isomorphic. Hence, general cubic polynomials produce a group operation on $\mathbb{R}$ which reduces to real addition when the polynomial has no quadratic term.

THEOREM 1 can be generalized as follows. Suppose $p(x, y)=0$ is a curve satisfying (1) $p(x, y)$ is a polynomial in $x$ and $y$, (2) each term $c x^{a} y^{b}$ of $p(x, y)$ satisfies $c \neq 0,0 \leq a, 0 \leq b$, and $0 \leq a+b \leq 3$, (3) at least one term $c x^{a} y^{b}$ satisfies $a+b=3$, and (4) $p(x, y)$ cannot be factored as a product of two non-constant polynomials. These curves are called elliptic curves (see
[6]). Also, suppose $p(x, y)=0$ has a true inflection point (as opposed to a cusp) which we call $\overline{0}$. It is possible, using a continuous monotone scale, to turn any such curve $p(x, y)=0$ into an adding machine. Of course, this would normally be extremely clumsy as compared with our simple scale.

## REFERENCES

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Fig. 1. The cubic curve is an adding machine.

