# Linearly Similar Polynomials 

Arthur Holshouser<br>3600 Bullard St.<br>Charlotte, NC, USA<br>Harold Reiter<br>Department of Mathematical Sciences<br>University of North Carolina Charlotte,<br>Charlotte, NC 28223, USA<br>hbreiter@uncc.edu

A standard technique for solving the recursion $x_{n+1}=g\left(x_{n}\right)$, where $g: \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is a complex function, is to first find a fairly simple function $\bar{g}: \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ and a bijection (i.e., a 1-1 onto function) $f: \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ such that $g=f^{-1} \circ \bar{g} \circ f$ where $\circ$ is the composition of functions and $f^{-1}$ is the inverse function of $f$. Then $x_{n}=g^{n}\left(x_{0}\right)=\left(f^{-1} \circ \bar{g}^{n} \circ f\right)\left(x_{0}\right)$ where $g^{n}$ and $\bar{g}^{n}$ are the $n$-fold compositions and $\bar{g}^{n}$ is fairly easy to compute. With this motivation we are in general interested in studying all pairs of rational functions $g, \bar{g}$ such that for some $a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{C}$

$$
g=\left(\frac{a x+b}{c x+d}\right)^{-1} \circ \bar{g} \circ\left(\frac{a x+b}{c x+d}\right)
$$

where $a, b, c, d$ satisfy $\left|\begin{array}{ll}a & b \\ c & d\end{array}\right| \neq 0$.
In this paper we study an intermediate problem by finding all pairs of quadratic polynomials $g, \bar{g}$ and also all pairs of cubic polynomials $g, \bar{g}$ such that for some $a, b \in \mathbb{C}, a \neq 0, g=$ $(a x+b)^{-1} \circ \bar{g} \circ(a x+b)$. We denote such pairs by $g \approx \bar{g}$ and we show that $g \approx \bar{g}$ if and only if $g$ and $\bar{g}$ have the same signature which we define as those invariants that quadratic and cubic polynomials have under the linear transformation $g=(a x+b)^{-1} \circ \bar{g} \circ(a x+b)$.

## 1 Introductory Concepts

Let $\mathbb{C}$ be the set of complex numbers. If $g: \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ and $\bar{g}: \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ are arbitrary functions from $\mathbb{C}$ into $\mathbb{C}$, we say that $g$ and $\bar{g}$ are similar (denoted by $g \sim \bar{g}$ ) if there exists a bijection (i.e., a 1-1 onto function) $f: \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ such that $g=f^{-1} \circ \bar{g} \circ f$ where $\circ$ is the composition of functions. From elementary set theory, we know that the word similar means exactly what it says. Thus, for example, suppose that $g$ and $\bar{g}$ are similar bijections on $\mathbb{C}$. If we break each of $g$ and $\bar{g}$ down into its cycles..., $g^{-2}(x), g^{-1}(x), g^{0}(x)=x, g(x), g^{2}(x), \ldots$, then the types of these cycles will be the same in both $g$ and $\bar{g}$.

For example, if all of the cycles in $g$ are the 3-cycles $x, g(x), g^{2}(x), g^{3}(x)=x$, then all of the cycles in $\bar{g}$ will also be the 3 -cycles $x, \bar{g}(x), \bar{g}^{2}(x), \bar{g}^{3}(x)=x$. If $g$ and $\bar{g}$ are rational functions (i.e., the quotient of polynomials) and

$$
g=\left(\frac{a x+b}{c x+d}\right)^{-1} \circ \bar{g} \circ\left(\frac{a x+b}{c x+d}\right),
$$

then we encounter a stronger type of similarity which we will call algebraic similarity. Intuitively algebraic similarity means that $g$ and $\bar{g}$ have similar algebraic properties. However, we have not been able to define exactly what this means. None-the-less we have still been able to use this intuitive concept to heuristically derive a technique for computing all of the invariants that $g$ and $\bar{g}$ must have when $g$ and $\bar{g}$ are either polynomials or rational functions of any arbitrary degree and $g=\left(\frac{a x+b}{c x+d}\right)^{-1} \circ \bar{g} \circ\left(\frac{a x+b}{c x+d}\right),\left|\begin{array}{ll}a & b \\ c & d\end{array}\right| \neq 0$.

We will show the reader how to do this when $g=(a x+b)^{-1} \circ \bar{g} \circ(a x+b)$ and $g, \bar{g}$ are polynomials of degree 2 or degree 3. These same ideas also generalize for higher degree polynomials. However, the invariants quickly become so complex that they must all be proved with a computer. Indeed, one of the three invariants used in this paper was (for convenience only) computer proved.

## 2 Very Linearly Similar Quadratic Polynomials

Definition 1 Suppose $g$ and $\bar{g}$ are nth degree complex polynomials. We say that $g$ and $\bar{g}$ are very linearly similar (denoted by $g \approx \bar{g}$ ) if there exists $a, b \in \mathbb{C}, a \neq 0$, such that $g=(a x+b)^{-1} \circ \bar{g} \circ(a x+b)$.

Theorem 1 The relation $\approx$ is an equivalence relation on the collection of all complex polynomials.

Proof. We let the reader verify the following three conditions which define an equivalence relation.
a. $g \approx g$.(reflexive condition).
b. $g \approx \bar{g}$ implies $\bar{g} \approx g$. (symmetric condition).
c. $g \approx \bar{g}$ and $\bar{g} \approx g^{*}$ implies $g \approx g^{*}$. (transitive condition).

Problem 1 Suppose $g(x)=A x^{2}+B x+C, A \neq 0$, is a quadratic polynomial.
Define $\left(\frac{x}{a}-\frac{b}{a}\right) \circ\left(A x^{2}+B x+C\right) \circ(a x+b)=\bar{g}(x)=\bar{A} x^{2}+\bar{B} x+\bar{C}$ where $a \neq 0, b$ are arbitrary complex numbers and $(a x+b)^{-1}=\frac{x}{a}-\frac{b}{a}$.

We wish to compute an invariant for $g(x)$ and $\bar{g}(x)$. This means that we wish to find an expression involving $A, B, C$ that remains unchanged when we substitute $\bar{A}, \bar{B}, \bar{C}$ for $A, B, C$.

Solution 1 Suppose that $A x+B x+C$ and $\bar{A} x^{2}+\bar{B} x+\bar{C}, A \neq 0, \bar{A} \neq 0$ are any arbitrary complex quadratics.

We now show that we can linearly transform $A x^{2}+B x+C$ into $\bar{A} x^{2}+\bar{B} x+\bar{C}$ by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\bar{A} x^{2}+\bar{B} x+\bar{C}=\left(\frac{x}{a}-\frac{b}{a}\right) \circ\left(A x^{2}+B x+C\right) \circ(a x+b) \tag{*}
\end{equation*}
$$

(where $a \neq 0$ ) if and only if a certain condition is met, and this condition will define the invariance relation that $(A, B, C)$ and $(\bar{A}, \bar{B}, \bar{C})$ have under the above linear transformation (*) .

Now

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left(\frac{x}{a}-\frac{b}{a}\right) \circ\left(A x^{2}+B x+C\right) \circ(a x+b) \\
= & \left(\frac{x}{a}-\frac{b}{a}\right) \circ\left[A(a x+b)^{2}+B(a x+b)+C\right] \\
= & \left(\frac{x}{a}-\frac{b}{a}\right) \circ\left(A a^{2} x^{2}+(2 A a b+B a) x+A b^{2}+B b+C\right) \\
= & A a x^{2}+(2 A b+B) x+\frac{A b^{2}+(B-1) b+C}{a} \\
= & \bar{A} x^{2}+\bar{B} x+\bar{C} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Now $A a=\bar{A}, 2 A b+B=\bar{B}$ implies $a=\frac{\bar{A}}{A}, b=\frac{\bar{B}-B}{2 A}$.
Therefore,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\bar{C} & =\frac{1}{a}\left[A b^{2}+(B-1) b+C\right] \\
& =\frac{A}{\bar{A}}\left[A\left(\frac{\bar{B}-B}{2 A}\right)^{2}+(B-1)\left(\frac{\bar{B}-B}{2 A}\right)+C\right] .
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore,

$$
\begin{aligned}
4 \overline{A C} & =(\bar{B}-B)^{2}+2(B-1)(\bar{B}-B)+4 A C \\
& =\bar{B}^{2}-2 \bar{B} B+B^{2}+2 B \bar{B}-2 \bar{B}-2 B^{2}+2 B+4 A C .
\end{aligned}
$$

This implies $\left(B^{2}-2 B\right)-4 A C=\left(\bar{B}^{2}-2 \bar{B}\right)-4 \overline{A C}$. Therefore, $(B-1)^{2}-4 A C=$ $(\bar{B}-1)^{2}-4 \overline{A C}$, and this expression must be the invariant relation when $A x^{2}+B x+$ $C \approx \bar{A} x^{2}+\bar{B} x+\bar{C}$. This invariant can also easily be checked (by hand) by substituting $\bar{A}=A a, \bar{B}=2 A b+B, \bar{C}=\frac{A b^{2}+(B-1) b+C}{a}$ for $A, B, C$ in $(B-1)^{2}-4 A C$ and showing that $(B-1)^{2}-4 A C$ remains unchanged.

Definition 2 We call $\theta=(B-1)^{2}-4 A C$ the signature of $A x^{2}+B x+C$.
In solving Problem 1, we have also proved Theorem 2.
Theorem 2 Suppose $A x^{2}+B x+C, \bar{A} x^{2}+\bar{B} x+\bar{C}, A \neq 0, \bar{A} \neq 0$, are arbitrary complex quadratics. Then $A x^{2}+B x+C \approx \bar{A} x^{2}+\bar{B} x+\bar{C}$ if and only if $A x^{2}+B x+C$ and $\bar{A} x^{2}+\bar{B} x+\bar{C}$ have the same signature $\theta$.

### 2.1 A note on the Discriminant of a Polynomial

If $P(x)=a_{0} x^{n}+a_{1} x^{n-1}+\cdots+a_{0}$ is any single variable polynomial, then from algebra we know that there is a standard expression (denoted by $\rho\left(P(x), P^{\prime}(x)\right.$ ) which is called the discriminant of $P(x)$. See p. 99, [1].

When the discriminant of $P(x)$ is zero, we know from algebra that $P(x)$ has a repeated root, and when the discriminant of $P(x)$ is non-zero, we know that the $n$ roots of $P(x)$ are all distinct.

Of course, the discriminant of the quadratic $P(x)=a_{0} x^{n}+a_{1} x+a_{2}$ is $a_{1}^{2}-4 a_{0} a_{2}$.
We observe that the invariant of the quadratic $A x^{2}+B x+C, A \neq 0$, that was derived in the last section is also the discriminant of $A b^{2}+(B-1) b+C$, when we substitute $b=x$ for $b$ and where $\bar{A} x^{2}+\bar{B} x+\bar{C}=A a x^{2}+(2 A b+B) x+\frac{A b^{2}+(B-1) b+C}{a}$.

This simple observation (with one slight modification) appears to generalize for arbitrary degree polynomials, and it will soon be used to compute the second invariant of cubic polynomials.

### 2.2 Computing the Linear Transformation of Cubic Polynomials

By straightforward calculations we see that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left(\frac{x}{a}-\frac{b}{a}\right) \circ\left(A x^{3}+B x^{2}+C x+D\right) \circ(a x+b) \\
= & \left(\frac{x}{a}-\frac{b}{a}\right) \circ\left(A(a x+b)^{3}+B(a x+b)^{2}+C(a x+b)+D\right) \\
= & \left(\frac{x}{a}-\frac{b}{a}\right) \circ\left[\begin{array}{c}
A a^{3} x^{3}+\left(3 A a^{2} b+B a^{2}\right) x^{2} \\
+\left(3 A a b^{2}+2 B a b+C a\right) x+A b^{3}+B b^{2}+C b+D
\end{array}\right] \\
= & A a^{2} x^{3}+(3 A a b+B a) x^{2}+\left(3 A b^{2}+2 B b+C\right) x+\left(A b^{3}+B b^{2}+(C-1) b+D\right) / a \\
= & \bar{A} x^{3}+\bar{B} x^{2}+\bar{C} x+\bar{D} .
\end{aligned}
$$

### 2.3 Two Invariants of Cubic Polynomials under Linear Transformation

Problem 2 Suppose $g(x)=A x^{3}+B x^{2}+C x+D, A \neq 0$, is a cubic polynomial.
Define $\left(\frac{x}{a}-\frac{b}{a}\right) \circ\left(A x^{3}+B x^{2}+C x+D\right) \circ(a x+b)=\bar{g}(x)=\bar{A} x^{3}+\bar{B} x^{2}+\bar{C} x+\bar{D}$ where $a \neq 0, b$ are arbitrary complex numbers. We wish to compute two invariants for $g(x)$ and $\bar{g}(x)$. This means that we wish to find two expressions involving $A, B, C, D$ that remain unchanged when we substitute $\bar{A}, \bar{B}, \bar{C}, \bar{D}$ for $A, B, C, D$.

Solution 2 The first invariant can be computed exactly as we did in solving Problem 1. From the previous section; we must have $A a^{2}=\bar{A}, 3 A a b+B a=\bar{B}, 3 A b^{2}+2 B b+C=\bar{C}$ and $\frac{A b^{3}+B b^{2}+(C-1) b+D}{a}=\bar{D}$.

Now $a^{2}=\bar{A} / A, b=\frac{\bar{B}-B a}{3 A a}$, from which it follows that $\bar{C}=3 A\left[\frac{\bar{B}-B a}{3 A a}\right]^{2}+2 B\left[\frac{\bar{B}-B a}{3 A a}\right]+$ $C=\frac{(\bar{B}-B a)^{2}}{3 A a^{2}}+\frac{2 B(\bar{B}-B a)}{3 A a}+C$. Hence, $\bar{C}=\frac{\bar{B}^{2}-2 B \bar{B} a+B^{2} a^{2}+2 B \bar{B} a-2 B^{2} a^{2}+3 A a^{2} C}{3 A a^{2}}$. Thus $3 A a^{2} \bar{C}=$
$\bar{B}^{2}-B^{2} a^{2}+3 A a^{2} C$. Therefore, $3 A\left(\frac{\bar{A}}{A}\right) \bar{C}=\bar{B}^{2}-B^{2}\left(\frac{\bar{A}}{A}\right)+3 A\left(\frac{\bar{A}}{A}\right) C$. Thus $3 \overline{A C}=\bar{B}^{2}-$ $\frac{B^{2} \bar{A}}{A}+3 \bar{A} C$. Finally it follows that $3 C-\frac{B^{2}}{A}=3 \bar{C}-\frac{\bar{B}^{2}}{\bar{A}}$.

We will call $\theta=C-\frac{B^{2}}{3 A}$ the first invariant of $g(x)=A x^{3}+B x^{2}+C x+D$ under the linear transformation $\bar{g}(x)=(a x+b)^{-1} \circ g(x) \circ(a x+b)$.

We observe that $\theta$ is also equivalent to $\rho\left(3 A x^{2}+2 B x+C\right) / A$ where we substitute $b=x$ in $\bar{C}=3 A b^{2}+2 B b+C$. This invariant $\theta$ can also easily be verified by showing that $\theta$ remains unchanged when we substitute $\bar{A}=A a^{2}, \bar{B}=3 A a b+B a$ and $\bar{C}=3 A b^{2}+2 B b+C$ in $\theta$ for $A, B, C$ respectively. This can easily be done by hand. When we try to compute the second invariant for $A x^{3}+B x^{2}+C x+D \approx \bar{A} x^{3}+\bar{B} x^{2}+\bar{C} x+\bar{D}$ in this exact same way, we run into insurmountable difficulty. Therefore, we will simply conjecture that the second invariant called $\phi=\rho\left(A x^{3}+B x^{2}+(C-1) x+D\right) / A^{k}$ where $k$ is decided by using a specific example. This division by $A^{k}$ is the modification that we referred to earlier.

Now the standard discriminant for the cubic polynomial $P(x)=a_{0} x^{3}+a_{1} x^{2}+a_{2} x+$ $a_{3}$ is $\rho\left(P(x), P^{\prime}(x)\right)=-27 a_{0}^{2} a_{3}^{2}+18 a_{0} a_{1} a_{2} a_{3}-4 a_{1}^{3} a_{3}-4 a_{0} a_{2}^{3}+a_{1}^{2} a_{2}^{2}$. Therefore, $\phi=$ $\left(-27 A^{2} D^{2}+18 A B(C-1) D-4 B^{3} D-4 A(C-1)^{3}+B^{2}(C-1)^{2}\right) / A$ since a specific example shows that $A^{k}=A$ must be true.

Professor Ben Klein of Davidson College has verified that $\phi$ is an invariant by using the Mathematica software.

Definition 3 We define the signature of the cubic polynomial $A x^{3}+B x^{2}+C x+D, A \neq 0$, to be the ordered pair $(\theta, \phi)$ where $\theta$ and $\phi$ are the invariants specified above.

The rest of this paper is devoted mainly to proving that two cubic polynomials $g(x)$ and $\bar{g}(x)$ are very linearly similar if and only if $g(x)$ and $\bar{g}(x)$ have the same signature $(\theta, \phi)$.

## 3 Proving our Main Results for Cubic Polynomials

Theorem 3 The signature of the cubic polynomial $x^{3}+C x+D$ is $(\theta, \phi)=\left(C,-27 D^{2}-4(C-1)^{3}\right)$.
Proof. Using $A=1, B=0, C=C, D=D$ in the formulas for $\theta, \phi$ gives the signature $(\theta, \phi)$.

Corollary 1 Suppose $x^{3}+C x+D$ has a signature $(\theta, \phi)$.
Then $C=\theta$ and $D \in\left\{\sqrt{\frac{-\phi-4(\theta-1)^{3}}{27}},-\sqrt{\frac{-\phi-4(\theta-1)^{3}}{27}}\right\}$.
Proof. Follow from Theorem 3.
Theorem 4 Suppose $A x^{3}+B x^{2}+C x+D, A \neq 0$, is any arbitrary cubic polynomial. Then there exists a cubic polynomial $x^{3}+\bar{C} x+\bar{D}$ such that $A x^{3}+B x^{2}+C x+D \approx x^{3}+\bar{C} x+\bar{D}$.

Proof. Now

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left(\frac{x}{a}-\frac{b}{a}\right) \circ\left(A x^{3}+B x^{2}+C x+D\right) \circ(a x+b) \\
= & A a^{2} x^{3}+(3 A a b+B a) x^{2}+\left(3 A b^{2}+2 B b+C\right) x \\
& +\frac{A b^{3}+B b^{2}+(C-1) b+D}{a} \\
= & x^{3}+0 \cdot x^{2}+\bar{C} x+\bar{D} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Let $a, b$ be defined so that $A a^{2}=1,3 A a b+B a=0$. Therefore, $a= \pm \sqrt{\frac{1}{A}}, b=\frac{-B}{3 A}$ which completes the proof.

Theorem 5 Suppose $x^{3}+C x+D$ and $x^{3}+\bar{C} x+\bar{D}$ have the same signature $(\theta, \phi)$. Then $x^{3}+C x+D \approx x^{3}+\bar{C} x+\bar{D}$.

Proof. From Corollary 1 we know that $C=\bar{C}=\theta$. Also, from Corollary $1, D, \bar{D} \in$ $\left\{\sqrt{\frac{-\phi-4(\theta-1)^{3}}{27}}-\sqrt{\frac{-\phi-4(\theta-1)^{3}}{27}}\right\}$.

Therefore, $D=\bar{D}$ or else $D=-\bar{D}$.
Therefore, we can complete the proof by assuming that $D=-\bar{D}$. Using $A=1, B=$ $0, C=C, D=D, \bar{A}=1, \bar{B}=0, \bar{C}=\bar{C}, \bar{D}=\bar{D}$ in the proof of Theorem 4, we have $a= \pm 1, b=0$. Let us use $a=-1$. Therefore, $a x+b=-x$ and we have $(-x) \circ\left(x^{3}+C x+D\right) \circ$ $(-x)=(-x) \circ\left(-x^{3}-C x+D\right)=x^{3}+C x-D$.

Therefore, $x^{3}+C x+D \approx x^{3}+C x-D=x^{3}+\bar{C} x+\bar{D}$.
Main Theorem 6. Two cubic polynomials $g(x)$ and $\bar{g}(x)$ are very linearly similar if and only if $g(x)$ and $\bar{g}(x)$ have the same signature $(\theta, \phi)$.

Proof. Of course, if $g(x)$ and $\bar{g}(x)$ are very linearly similar, then they must have the same signature $(\theta, \phi)$ since $\theta$ and $\phi$ are invariants under $\approx$.

Conversely, if $g(x)$ and $\bar{g}(x)$ have the same signature $(\theta, \phi)$, then we know from Theorems 4,5 and from the equivalence relation properties of $\approx$ that were proved in Theorem 1 that $g(x) \approx \bar{g}(x)$ must be true.

## 4 Some Concluding Remarks

We note that the signature of $\bar{g}(x)=x^{3}=1 \cdot x^{3}+0 \cdot x^{2}+0 \cdot x+0$ is $(\theta, \phi)=(0,4)$. Also, we note that the recursion $x_{n+1}=x_{n}^{3}$ can easily be solved in a closed form. Suppose $g(x)=$ $A x^{3}+B x^{2}+C x+D, A \neq 0$, is any cubic polynomial that has a signature $(\theta, \phi)=(0,4)$. From this we know that $g(x) \approx x^{3}$, and we can now easily solve the recursion $x_{n+1}=g\left(x_{n}\right)$ in a closed form.

Also this paper can be generalized as follows. Suppose $g(x)=a_{0} x^{n}+a_{1} x^{n-1}+\cdots+a_{n}$ and $\bar{g}(x)=\bar{a}_{0} x^{n}+\bar{a}_{1} x^{n-1}+\cdots+\bar{a}_{n}$ are very linearly similar $n^{\text {th }}$ degree complex polynomials. That is, $g(x)=(a x+b)^{-1} \circ \bar{g}(x) \circ(a x+b)$ for some $a, b \in \mathbb{C}, a \neq 0$.

Then we can almost certainly derive the $n-1$ invariants that $g(x)$ and $\bar{g}(x)$ must have. We do this exactly as we did in this paper, and we then prove that the invariants are correct by using a computer program such as Mathematica.

## References

[1] Barbeau, E. J. Polynomials, (Problem Books in Mathematics) (Paperback), Springer Verlag, New York, 1989.
[2] Weisner, Louis, Introduction to the Theory of Equation, The MacMillan company, New York, 1949.

