# Investigations on cubic polynomials 

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#### Abstract

Several investigations on cubic polynomials are presented. The studies reported here deal with certain relationships which hold between the roots of the general cubic equation and other appropriate parameters derived from the same polynomial. Each section is organized in a monotonic sequence; that is, statement, demonstration and verification.


## 1. Introduction

Despite the fact that efforts made to solve cubic-and quartic-polynomials culminated in the well-known works of Galois about a hundred and fifty years ago [1], I studied the subject further to find out if there were points still beyond the current knowledge. This paper, being in many aspects suggestive rather than instructive, is a product of that attempt.

The following section contains an expression indicating a sort of 'balance' between the roots of the general cubic polynomial and those of its first derivative. Section 3 concerns itself with a different approach of obtaining the exact zeros. A method of reducing the order of polynomials for computing roots approximately is introduced in section 4 . The paper concludes with two simple formulae yielding the roots of a cubic for the case when the equation has double roots.

## 2. A balance of roots

Statement. Consider a third-degree polynomial

$$
P_{3}(x)=x^{3}+a x^{2}+b x+c
$$

with its roots $x_{1}, x_{2}$ and $x_{3}$. Further, suppose that the derivative function

$$
P_{2}(x)=3 x^{2}+2 a x+b
$$

has the roots $\Theta_{1}, \Theta_{2}$ (see the figure). We then claim that the following relationship holds regardless of the choice of roots (i.e. $x_{j}, \Theta_{\alpha}$ may be any one of the indicated roots: $j=1,2,3$ and $\alpha=1,2$ ).

$$
\frac{x_{2}-\Theta_{1}}{x_{1}-\Theta_{1}}-\frac{x_{2}-\Theta_{2}}{x_{3}-\Theta_{2}}=\frac{\left(x_{2}-x_{1}\right)-\left(x_{3}-x_{2}\right)}{\left(x_{1}-x_{3}\right)}
$$

Demonstration. To illustrate the above statement numerically, let

$$
\begin{gathered}
p_{3}(x)=x^{3}+x^{2}-4 x+6=[x-(1+i)][x-(1-i)][x+3] \\
d p_{3}(x) / d x=p_{2}(x)=3 x^{2}+2 x-4=3[x+(1-\sqrt{ } 13) / 3][x+(1+\sqrt{ } 13) / 3]
\end{gathered}
$$

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and if we denote $x_{1}=(1+i), \quad x_{2}=(1-i), \quad x_{3}=-3, \quad \Theta_{1}=(-1+\sqrt{13}) / 3$, $\Theta_{2}=-(1+\sqrt{ } 13) / 3$ then,
$$
\frac{(1-i)+(1-\sqrt{ } 13) / 3}{(1+i)+(1-\sqrt{13}) / 3}-\frac{(1-i)+(1+\sqrt{ } 13) / 3}{-3+(1+\sqrt{13}) / 3}=\frac{[(1-i)-(1+i)]-[-3-(1-i)]}{[(1+i)-(-3)]}
$$
after some simple algebra we arrive at the result
$$
\frac{13-16 i}{17}=\frac{13-16 i}{17}
$$

It is worthwhile to note that interchanging $\Theta_{1}$ with $\Theta_{2}$ would not affect the result since the right-hand side of the equality is independent of $\Theta_{1}$ and of $\Theta_{2}$. Moreover, by assuming that all the roots are real and that $x_{1}<\Theta_{1}<x_{2}<\Theta_{2}<x_{3}$ as a special case, a geometric interpretation can be made. The figure depicts such a pattern.

Verification. A straightforward verification can be achieved through direct substitution. Let the zeros be $x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}$, then

$$
\begin{array}{r}
P_{3}(X)=X^{3}-\left(x_{1}+x_{2}+x_{3}\right) X^{2}+\left(x_{1} x_{2}+x_{1} x_{3}+x_{2} x_{3}\right) X-x_{1} x_{2} x_{3} \\
d P_{3}(X) / d X=P_{2}(X)=3 X^{2}-2\left(x_{1}+x_{2}+x_{3}\right) X+\left(x_{1} x_{2}+x_{1} x_{3}+x_{2} x_{3}\right)
\end{array}
$$

and $\Theta_{1}=(\Sigma+\sqrt{ } \Delta) / 3, \Theta_{2}=(\Sigma-\sqrt{ } \Delta) / 3$ (the suffices may of course be interchanged) where

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \Sigma=\left(x_{1}+x_{2}+x_{3}\right) \\
& \Delta=\left(x_{1}+x_{2}+x_{3}\right)^{2}-3\left(x_{1} x_{2}+x_{1} x_{3}+x_{2} x_{3}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Starting with the left-hand side of the equality

$$
\frac{x_{2}-(\Sigma+\sqrt{ } \Delta) / 3}{x_{1}-(\Sigma+\sqrt{ } \Delta) / 3}-\frac{x_{2}-(\Sigma-\sqrt{ } \Delta) / 3}{x_{3}-(\Sigma-\sqrt{ } \Delta) / 3}
$$

and performing some algebra with the substitution of $\Sigma, \Delta$ yield

$$
\frac{\left(x_{2}-x_{1}\right)-\left(x_{3}-x_{2}\right)}{\left(x_{1}-x_{3}\right)}
$$

which is the same as the right-hand side.

## 3. Exact solutions: a different approach

Statement. Inspired by the previous statement I further proceed to show a direct connection between the roots of a cubic equation and the quantities affected by differentiating the polynomial itself. Consider

$$
\begin{array}{rll}
P_{3}(x)=x^{3}+a x^{2}+b x+c=0 & & x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3} \\
d P_{3}(x) / d x= & P_{2}(x)=3 x^{2}+2 a x+b=0 & \Theta_{1}, \Theta_{2} \\
d^{2} P_{3}(x) / d x^{2}=P_{1}(x)=6 x+2 a=0 & \Theta
\end{array}
$$

$\Theta=-a / 3$ is simply the root of the function obtained through twice differentiating the general cubic polynomial. (This quantity is the same as the constant employed in the Tschirnhaus transformation [1].) If the solutions to the roots $x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}$ are of the following forms [1, 2]:

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
x_{1}=A+\alpha_{11} & \sqrt[3]{ }\left(B+\alpha_{1} \sqrt{ } C\right)+\alpha_{12} & \sqrt[3]{ }\left(B+\alpha_{2} \sqrt{ } C\right) \\
x_{2}=A+\alpha_{21} & \sqrt[3]{ }\left(B+\alpha_{1} \sqrt{ } C\right)+\alpha_{22} & \sqrt[3]{ }\left(B+\alpha_{2} \sqrt{ } C\right) \\
x_{3}=A+\alpha_{31} & \sqrt[3]{ }\left(B+\alpha_{1} \sqrt{ } C\right)+\alpha_{32} & \sqrt[3]{ }\left(B+\alpha_{2} \sqrt{ } C\right)
\end{array}
$$

where $\alpha_{1}=+1, \quad \alpha_{2}=-1$ are the roots of $\alpha^{2}=+1$, and $\alpha_{11}=\alpha_{12}=+1$, $\alpha_{21}=(-1+\sqrt{3 i}) / 2, \alpha_{22}=-(1+\sqrt{ } 3 \mathrm{i}) / 2, \alpha_{31}=\alpha_{22}, \alpha_{32}=\alpha_{21}$ are the roots of $\alpha^{3}=+1$, then the foregoing parameters can be expressed as follows:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& A=\Theta=-a / 3 \\
& B=-\frac{1}{2} P_{3}(\Theta) \\
& C=\left[-\frac{1}{2} P_{3}(\Theta)\right]^{2}+\left[\frac{1}{3} P_{2}(\Theta)\right]^{3}
\end{aligned}
$$

Demonstration. As a numerical example, let

$$
\begin{aligned}
& p_{3}(x)=x^{3}+x^{2}+x+1 \\
& p_{2}(x)=3 x^{2}+2 x+1 \\
& p_{1}(x)=6 x+2 \quad \Theta=-\frac{1}{3}
\end{aligned}
$$

The other quantities would read

$$
\begin{aligned}
p_{3}(\Theta) & =\left(-\frac{1}{3}\right)^{3}+\left(-\frac{1}{3}\right)^{2}+\left(-\frac{1}{3}\right)+1=+20 / 27 \\
p_{2}(\Theta) & =3\left(-\frac{1}{3}\right)^{2}+2\left(-\frac{1}{3}\right)+1=+\frac{2}{3} \\
A & =-\frac{1}{3} \\
B & =-\frac{1}{2}(+20 / 27)=-10 / 27 \\
C & =\left[-\frac{1}{2}(+20 / 27)\right]^{2}+\left[\frac{1}{3}\left(+\frac{2}{3}\right)\right]^{3}=+108 / 729 \\
x_{1} & =-\frac{1}{3}+\sqrt[3]{[(-10 / 27)+\sqrt{ }(108 / 729)]+\sqrt[3]{[(-10 / 27)}-\sqrt{ }(108 / 729)]=-1}
\end{aligned}
$$

Similarly, $x_{2}=+i$, and $x_{3}=-\mathrm{i}$.
Verification. A simple substitution gives

$$
\begin{aligned}
B & =-\frac{1}{2} P_{3}(\Theta)=-\frac{1}{2}\left[(-a / 3)^{3}+a(-a / 3)^{2}+b(-a / 3)+c\right] \\
& =(1 / 27)\left[-a^{3}+(9 / 2) a b-(27 / 2) c\right] \\
P_{2}(\Theta) & =3(-a / 3)^{2}+2 a(-a / 3)+b=\frac{1}{3}\left[-a^{2}+3 b\right] \\
C & =\left[-\frac{1}{2} P_{3}(\Theta)\right]^{2}+\left[\frac{1}{3} P_{2}(\Theta)\right]^{3} \\
& =\left[(-1 / 54)\left(2 a^{3}-9 a b+27 c\right)\right]^{2}+\left[(1 / 9)\left(-a^{2}+3 b\right)\right]^{3} \\
& =(1 / 18)^{2}\left[-3 a^{2} b^{2}+12 b^{3}+12 a^{3} c+81 c^{2}-54 a b c\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

which are in complete agreement with the known solutions [2]. The interested reader is directed to reference [3] where a full account of the subject with historical remarks and various solution techniques can be found.

Before closing this argument let us briefly look at the case of quadratic polynomials. Consider

$$
\begin{aligned}
P_{2}(x) & =x^{2}+a x+b & & x_{1}, x_{2} \\
d P_{2}(x) / d x=P_{1}(x) & =2 x+a & & \Theta=-a / 2 \\
P_{2}(\Theta) & =\frac{1}{4}\left(4 b-a^{2}\right) . & &
\end{aligned}
$$

If we assume the roots $x_{1}, x_{2}$ as

$$
x_{1}=A+\alpha_{1} \sqrt{ } B \quad \text { and } \quad x_{2}=A+\alpha_{2} \sqrt{ } B
$$

it is possible to show that

$$
A=\Theta=-a / 2 \quad B=\left[-P_{2}(\Theta) / 1\right]
$$

and $\alpha_{1} \doteq+1, \alpha_{2}=-1$ are the roots of $\alpha^{2}=+1$. Essentially the above simple deduction has established a basis for extending the application to cubic polynomials.

## 4. An approximate method

Statement. We now take up the problem of obtaining approximate solutions and claim that a degree-three equation can be degenerated into a quadratic in order to get approximate roots. If we are given,

$$
P_{3}(x)=x^{3}+a x^{2}+b x+c \quad x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}
$$

the following quadratic equations render at least one of the three roots, the solution accuracy being increased with ascending order.

Order neglected
3rd
4th
5th

Corresponding equation

$$
a x^{2}+b x+c=0
$$

$$
\left(b-a^{2}\right) x^{2}+(c-a b) x-a c=0
$$

$$
\left[a\left(a^{2}-2 b\right)+c\right] x^{2}+\left[b\left(a^{2}-b\right)-a c\right] x+c\left(a^{2}-b\right)=0
$$

Higher order approximations can be computed in a straightforward manner, but the equations become cumbersome and therefore impractical.

Demonstration. To observe the nature of the proposed method, four particularly selected equations are inspected. For the sake of brevity, only fourth and fifth order approximations are considered. The approximate equations are divided by the coefficients of $x^{2}$ in order to avoid large numbers.

Real roots
$p_{3}(x)=(x-0.7)(x+2.5)(x+4.0)=x^{3}+5 \cdot 80 x^{2}+5 \cdot 45 x-7.00$
4 th order: $x^{2}+1.37 x-1.44 \quad x_{1}=+0.70 \quad x_{2}=-2.07$
5th order: $x^{2}+1.56 x-1.58 \quad x_{1}=+0.70 \quad x_{2}=-2.26$
Real roots, larger magnitude
$p_{3}(x)=(x+7 \cdot 0)(x+9 \cdot 0)(x+15 \cdot 0)=x^{3}+31 \cdot 0 x^{2}+303 \cdot 0 x+945 \cdot 0$
4th order: $x^{2}+12.84 x+44.52 \quad x_{1}=-6.42+1.82 \mathrm{i} \quad x_{2}=-6.42-1.82 \mathrm{i}$
5 th order: $x^{2}+14.23 x+52.03 \quad x_{1}=-7.12+1.19 \mathrm{i} \quad x_{2}=-7 \cdot 12-1 \cdot 19 \mathrm{i}$
10th order: $x^{2}+15.87 x+62.09 \quad x_{1}=-7.00 \quad x_{2}=-8.87$

Complex conjugate roots, magnitude less than third root
$p_{3}(x)=[x+(0 \cdot 5+0 \cdot 5 i)][x+(0 \cdot 5-0 \cdot 5 i)][x+2 \cdot 0]=x^{3}+3 \cdot 0 x^{2}+2 \cdot 5 x+1 \cdot 0$
4 th order: $x^{2}+1.00 x+0.46 \quad x_{1}=-(0.50+0.46 \mathrm{i}) \quad x_{2}=-(0.50-0.46 \mathrm{i})$
5th order: $x^{2}+1.02 x+0.50 \quad x_{1}=-(0.51+0.49 \mathrm{i}) \quad x_{2}=-(0.51-0.49 \mathrm{i})$
Complex conjugate roots, magnitude greater than third root
$p_{3}(x)=[x-(3.0+2.0 \mathrm{i})][x-(3.0-2.0 \mathrm{i})][x-0.5]=x^{3}-6.5 x^{2}+16.0 x-6.5$
4 th order: $x^{2}-3.71 x+1.61 \quad x_{1}=+0.50 \quad x_{2}=+3.21(?)$
5th order: $x^{2}-5.17 x+2.33 \quad x_{1}=+0.50 \quad x_{2}=+4.67$ (?)
Convergence is obviously faster for the roots closer to unity. Otherwise, a computer routine is necessary as disclosed in the second example. It can also be demonstrated that convergence speed is greatly dependent on the sign of the roots. Unlike most of the other approximate solution techniques, this method does not require any initial guess and the iteration proceeds towards smaller roots from the very beginning. The method however fails to give any solution and convergence becomes unstable when roots are equal or considerably closer in magnitude. The reason will be clear in the next section.

Verification. The method is now explained to justify the preceding results. Let us start with

$$
P_{3}(x)=x^{3}+a x^{2}+b x+c=0 \quad x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}
$$

and introduce a transformation such that $x=k z$ where $k$ is an unknown constant to be determined later. Upon substitution,

$$
\begin{aligned}
k^{3} z^{3}+a k^{2} z^{2}+b k z+c & =0 \\
z^{3}+(a / k) z^{2}+\left(b / k^{2}\right) z+\left(c / k^{3}\right) & =0
\end{aligned}
$$

We have tacitly assumed that $k \neq 0$. To determine $k$, we set $\left(c / k^{3}\right)=1$, namely $k=\sqrt[3]{c}$, and obtain

$$
z^{3}+(a / \sqrt[3]{c}) z^{2}+\left(b /(\sqrt[3]{c})^{2}\right) z+1=0
$$

Due to the fact that $z_{1} z_{2} z_{3}=-1$ the above equation has at least one root whose magnitude is less than unity, unless all the roots are equal (the deficiency mentioned earlier originates from this exception). Leaving this particular case aside, we can proceed as follows. If

$$
\left|z_{i}\right|<1 \quad \text { then } \quad\left|z_{i}\right|^{3}<\left|z_{i}\right|^{2}<\left|z_{i}\right|
$$

Here $z_{i}$ denotes the root(s) less than unity. A rough approximation can readily be made by setting $z^{3}=0$ :

$$
(a / \sqrt[3]{c}) z^{2}+\left(b /(\sqrt[3]{c})^{2}\right) z+1=0
$$

Recalling $z=x / k, k=\sqrt[3]{c}$,

$$
a x^{2}+b x+c=0
$$

Let us refine the approximation. Consider the transformed equation

$$
z^{3}=-\left[(a / \sqrt[3]{c}) z^{2}+\left(b /(\sqrt[3]{ } c)^{2}\right) z+1\right]
$$

Multiplying both sides by $z$ gives

$$
z^{4}=-\left[(a / \sqrt[3]{c}) z^{3}+\left(b /(\sqrt[3]{c})^{2}\right) z^{2}+z\right]
$$

We neglect $z^{4}$ and make use of the previous equation for $z^{3}$

$$
-(a / \sqrt[3]{c})\left[(a / \sqrt[3]{c}) z^{2}+\left(b /(\sqrt[3]{c})^{2}\right) z+1\right]+\left(b /(\sqrt[3]{c})^{2}\right) z^{2}+z=0
$$

After employing $z=x / \sqrt[3]{c}$, the fourth order term being neglected, we certainly have a better approximation:

$$
\left(b-a^{2}\right) x^{2}+(c-a b) x-a c=0
$$

The procedure can similarly be repeated to compute higher order approximations. It is worthy of remark that the approximate equations can be obtained without employing the transformation $x=k z$, that is to say, multiplying the equation by $x$, neglecting the highest order term and replacing $x^{3}$ by $-\left(a x^{2}+b x+c\right)$.

## 5. Case of double roots

Statement. The special case of double roots is now analysed. If the equation

$$
P_{3}(x)=x^{3}+a x^{2}+b x+c=0 \quad x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}
$$

has double roots, $x_{1}=x_{2}$, besides the third root $x_{3}$, the roots may be expressed as

$$
x_{1}=x_{2}=\frac{(a b-9 c)}{2\left(3 b-a^{2}\right)} \quad x^{3}=\frac{\left(a^{3}-4 a b+9 c\right)}{\left(3 b-a^{2}\right)}
$$

Demonstration. Consider

$$
\begin{aligned}
p_{3}(x) & =(x-2)^{2}(\mathrm{x}+3)=x^{3}-x^{2}-8 x+12 \\
x_{1} & =x_{2}=\frac{[(-1)(-8)-9(+12)]}{2\left[3(-8)-(-1)^{2}\right]}=+\frac{100}{50}=+2 \\
x_{3} & =\frac{\left[(-1)^{3}-4(-1)(-8)+9(+12)\right]}{3(-8)-(-1)^{2}}=-\frac{75}{25}=-3
\end{aligned}
$$

Verification. Denote $x_{1}=x_{2}=x$, and $x_{3}=y$. We then have (see the first equation of the verification in section 2)

$$
\begin{aligned}
2 x+y & =-a \\
x^{2}+2 x y & =+b \\
x^{2} y & =-c
\end{aligned}
$$

By using the above set, one can easily show that

$$
\begin{array}{r}
x^{3}-2 x^{2} y+x y^{2}=\frac{1}{2}(9 c-a b) \\
x(x-y)^{2}=\frac{1}{2}(9 c-a b)
\end{array}
$$

On the other hand,

$$
(x-y)^{2}=a^{2}-3 b
$$

thus,

$$
x=\frac{(a b-9 c)}{2\left(3 b-a^{2}\right)}
$$

The third root is obviously

$$
\begin{aligned}
& y=-a-2 x=-a-(a b-9 c) /\left(3 b-a^{2}\right) \\
& y=\frac{\left(a^{3}-4 a b+9 c\right)}{\left(3 b-a^{2}\right)}
\end{aligned}
$$

## References

[1] Stewart, I., 1973, Galois Theory (New York: Halstead), pp. 161-163.
[2] Borofsky, S., 1950, Elementary Theory of Equations (New York: Macmillan), pp. 115-130.
[3] Aleksandrov, A. D., Kolmogorov, A. N., and Lavrent'ev, M. A., 1963, Mathematics: Its Content, Methods, and Meaning, Vol. 1 (Cambridge, Mass: MIT Press), pp. 261-310, 190-193.


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