

## Zhegalkin polynomials (May. 05, 2020.)

### (A) The equivalence of Boolean rings and Boolean algebras

The theorems below show us that Boolean rings and Boolean algebras can be transformed each into other.

**Theorem 1.** *Let  $(B, \vee, \wedge, -, \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{1})$  be a Boolean algebra, and let us define the operations*

$$\begin{aligned} a + b &:= (a \wedge \bar{b}) \vee (\bar{a} \wedge b) \text{ and} \\ a \cdot b &:= a \wedge b \end{aligned}$$

for all  $a, b \in B$ . Then  $(B, +, \cdot)$  is a Boolean ring.

*Proof.*  $+$  and  $\cdot$  are binary interior operations by their definitions. Clearly, they are commutative also. " $\cdot$ " is associative, since  $a \wedge b$  is associative. It is not hard to check that

$$(a + b) + c = a + (b + c), \text{ for any } a, b, c \in B,$$

hence  $+$  is also associative.

We have  $a + \mathbf{0} = (a \wedge \mathbf{1}) \vee (\bar{a} \wedge \mathbf{0}) = a \vee \mathbf{0} = a$ , and

$$a + a = (a \wedge \bar{a}) \vee (\bar{a} \wedge a) = \mathbf{0} \vee \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0}.$$

The latter equality means that for any element  $a \in B$ , its additive inverse  $-a$  there exists and  $-a = a$ .

It can be also easily checked that  $a \cdot (b + c) = a \cdot b + a \cdot c$ , and because  $\cdot$  is commutative it follows also:

$$(b + c) \cdot a = b \cdot a + c \cdot a.$$

Therefore,  $(B, +, \cdot)$  satisfies the axioms of a commutative ring. We are going to prove that  $(B, +, \cdot)$  is Boolean ring. Indeed, we have  $a \cdot \mathbf{1} = a \wedge \mathbf{1} = a$ , for all  $a \in B$ , i.e.  $\mathbf{1}$  is the unit of  $\cdot$ . Moreover,

$$a^2 = a \cdot a = a \wedge a = a,$$

and all these together mean that  $(B, +, \cdot)$  is a Boolean ring.  $\square$

**Theorem 2.** *Let  $(B, +, \cdot)$  be a Boolean ring and define:*

$$a \vee b := a + b + a \cdot b;$$

$$a \wedge b := a \cdot b;$$

$$\bar{a} = 1 + a$$

for all  $a, b \in B$ . Then  $(B, \vee, \wedge, -, \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{1})$  be a Boolean algebra, where  $\mathbf{0}$  denotes the neutral element of  $+$  and  $\mathbf{1}$  stands for the neutral element of  $\cdot$ .

*Proof.* We check the distributive lattice axioms for the operations  $\vee$  and  $\wedge$  and then the equalities:  $a \vee \mathbf{0} = a$ ,

$$a \wedge \mathbf{1} = a; a \wedge \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0}, a \vee \mathbf{1} = \mathbf{1}.$$

$$a \vee \bar{a} = \mathbf{1}, a \wedge \bar{a} = \mathbf{0}, \bar{\bar{a}} = a.$$

(This is a routine to check: for instance  $a \wedge \bar{a} = a \cdot (1 + a) = a + a^2 = a + a = \mathbf{0}$  and  $\bar{\bar{a}} = 1 + (1 + a) = (1 + 1) + a = \mathbf{0} + a = a$ . in any Boolean ring.)  $\square$

Let us observe that the transformations given in the above two theorems are, in fact, inverses each of other.

**Theorem 3.**(i) Let  $(B, \vee, \wedge, -, \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{1})$  be a Boolean algebra, and  $(B, +, \cdot)$  the a Boolean ring corresponding to it by Theorem 1. Then the Boolean algebra constructed from  $(B, +, \cdot)$  by using the transformations given in Theorem 2, is the same as the starting algebra  $(B, \vee, \wedge, -, \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{1})$ .

(ii) Let  $(B, +, \cdot)$  be a Boolean ring and  $(B, \vee, \wedge, -, \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{1})$  the Boolean algebra corresponding to it by Theorem 2. Then the Boolean ring constructed from  $(B, \vee, \wedge, -, \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{1})$  by using the transformations given in Theorem 1, is the same as the starting ring  $(B, +, \cdot)$ .

*Proof.* We prove only (ii), the proof of (i) being completely analogous. Clearly, the underlying set of the first and the last ring is the same set  $B$ . We will show that the operators in the last ring are the same as in the first. Denote the operations in the last ring by  $\oplus$  and  $\odot$ . Then for any  $a, b \in B$  we have:

$$a \odot b = a \wedge b = a \cdot b,$$

hence  $\cdot$  and  $\odot$  are the same. We obtain also:

$$\begin{aligned} a \oplus b &= (a \wedge \bar{b}) \vee (\bar{a} \wedge b) = a \cdot \bar{b} \vee \bar{a} \cdot b = a \cdot \bar{b} + \bar{a} \cdot b + a \cdot \bar{b} \cdot \bar{a} \cdot b = \\ &= a(1+b) + (1+a) \cdot b + a(1+b) \cdot (1+a) \cdot b = a + a \cdot b + b + a \cdot b + a \cdot b(1+a+b+a \cdot b) = \\ &= a + b + a \cdot b + a^2 \cdot b + a \cdot b^2 + a^2 \cdot b^2 = a + b + a \cdot b + a \cdot b + a \cdot b + a \cdot b = a + b. \end{aligned}$$

Thus  $+$  and  $\oplus$  are also the same, and hence the two rings are the same.  $\square$

### Examples for the above equivalence.

1) Let us consider the Boolean algebra  $(\wp(X), \cup, \cap, -, \emptyset, A)$  considered in the last lecture. Then for any  $A, B \in \wp(X)$  we have.

$$A + B = (A \cap \bar{B}) \cup (\bar{A} \cap B) = (A \setminus B) \cup (B \setminus A) = A \Delta B,$$

and

$$A \cdot B = A \cap B.$$

Hence, in view of Theorem 1,  $(B, \Delta, \cap)$  is a Boolean ring.

2) Let  $(T^{(n)}, \vee, \wedge, \neg, \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{1})$  be the Boolean algebra of the truth functions with at most  $n$ -variables. Then for any  $f, g \in T^{(n)}$  we have:

$f + g := (f \wedge \neg g) \vee (\neg f \wedge g) = f \oplus g$  (where  $\oplus$  stands for the antivalence operation.), and

$$f \cdot g = f \wedge g.$$

Therefore, according to Theorem 1,  $(T^{(n)}, \oplus, \wedge)$  is a Boolean ring.

3) Now let  $(\mathbb{Z}_2, \oplus, \cdot)$  the Boolean ring with two elements,  $\mathbb{Z}_2 = \{0, 1\}$

Then by defining the operations:

$$a \vee b := a \oplus b \oplus a \cdot b,$$

$$a \wedge b := a \cdot b,$$

$$\bar{a} = 1 \oplus a.$$

we obtain the Boolean algebra with two elements  $(\{0, 1\}, \vee, \wedge, -, \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{1})$ .

**Application.** By applying Theorem 1 and 2 to the Boolean algebra of the truth functions, for any  $f, g \in T^{(n)}$  we obtain the following identities:

$$f \vee g = f \oplus g \oplus (f \wedge g) \text{ and } \neg f = 1 \oplus f$$

**Corollary 1.** Any truth function can be expressed using only the operations  $\oplus$ ,  $\wedge$  and the constant 1.

*Proof.* The assertion follows from Theorem 2, where  $\vee, \wedge$  and  $\neg$  are expressed only by the mean of these operations.  $\square$

## (B) Zhegalkin polynomials

Let  $(A, +)$  be a ring. A unary polynomial over  $A$  is an expression

$$p(x) = a_0 \cdot x^n + a_1 \cdot x^{n-1} + \dots + a_{n-1} \cdot x + a_n,$$

built with the ring operations, where  $a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n \in A$ . Their set will be denoted by  $A[x]$ .

For instance, if  $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$  is the ring of the integers, then  $\mathbb{Z}[x]$  means the set of unary polynomials with integer coefficients. We present without proof the following

**Proposition 1.** *If  $(A, +)$  is a ring then  $(A[x], +, \cdot)$  is also a ring.*

We can consider also polynomials with several variables. For instance,  $\mathbb{R}[x, y]$  means the set (in fact: the ring) of polynomials with real coefficients and at most two variables. Example:  $\frac{1}{3}xy^2 - 5xy + \sqrt{2} \in \mathbb{R}[x, y]$ . Similarly we can define polynomials with  $n$ -variables over the ring  $(A, +)$ ; their set will be denoted by  $A[x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n]$  and it can be proved that  $(A[x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n], +, \cdot)$  is also a ring- where  $+$  denotes the addition and  $\cdot$  denotes the multiplication of these polynomial with coefficients in  $A$ .

Let us consider now the Boolean ring  $(\mathbb{Z}_2, \oplus, \cdot)$  with two elements (where  $\mathbb{Z}_2 = \{0, 1\}$ ). Now  $a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n \in \mathbb{Z}_2$  means, that these coefficients can be 0 or 1. We learned that  $x^k = x$ , for all  $k \geq 1$  in  $(\mathbb{Z}_2, \oplus, \cdot)$ , i.e. any unary polynomial has at most degree one. 0 and 1 will be considered constant, i.e. nullary polynomials, their degree being 0. it is easy to see that the only unary polynomials with degree 1 are only  $x$  and  $x \oplus 1$ . The polynomials with  $n$ -variables over  $(\mathbb{Z}_2, \oplus, \cdot)$  will be simply some sums of the products of type  $x_{i_1} \cdot x_{i_2} \cdot \dots \cdot x_{i_k}$ , where  $i_1, i_2, \dots, i_k \in \{1, \dots, n\}$  and  $k \leq n$ . For instance,  $p(x_1, x_2, x_3) = x_1 \cdot x_2 \cdot x_3 \oplus x_2 \cdot x_3 \oplus 1$  is a ternary polynomial over  $(\mathbb{Z}_2, \oplus, \cdot)$ . The polynomials  $p(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{Z}_2[x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n]$  with (at most)  $n$  variables over  $(\mathbb{Z}_2, \oplus, \cdot)$  will be called as far as follows *Zhegalkin polynomials*.

For instance, for  $n = 1$  we get that 0, 1,  $x$ ,  $x \oplus 1$  are the only Zhegalkin polynomials with at most one variable. Other examples are  $f(x_1, x_2, x_3) = x_1x_2 \oplus x_3 \oplus 1$ ,  $g(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) = x_1x_2x_3x_4 \oplus x_1x_3x_4 \oplus x_1x_2 \oplus x_2x_3 \oplus x_4$ . observe, that both the coefficients both the exponents in a Zhegalkin polynomial can be only 0 or 1, and the multiplication  $\cdot$  several times is not marked (it might be noted or it might be not marked, as we like), like in the case of algebraical expressions.

**Remark 1.** An expression built with the operations of the Boolean ring  $(\mathbb{Z}_2, \oplus, \cdot)$  is considered to be a Zhegalkin polynomial, only in the case if there are no unefuctuated operation, i.e. in the case when it can not be simplified. For instance  $x_1x_2 \oplus x_3 \oplus x_1x_2x_3 \oplus x_1x_2 \oplus x_1x_2x_3 \oplus x_1x_2 = x_1x_2 \oplus x_3$ , therefore the right side is not a Zhegalkin polynomial (but the left side it is), and similarly  $x_1^2x_2 \oplus x_1x_2x_3^2$  is not a Zhegalkin polynomial, because:  
 $x_1^2x_2 \oplus x_1x_2x_3^2 = x_1x_2 \oplus x_1x_2x_3$ .

**Theorem 4.** Any truth function can be expressed in the form of a Zhegalkin polynomial.

*Proof.* Let  $f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  be a truth function with  $n$  variables  $(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n \in \{0, 1\})$ . Then, as we learned,  $f$  can be written in the standard normal form:

$$f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = \left| \bigvee \{x_1^{i_1} \cdot x_2^{i_2} \cdot \dots \cdot x_n^{i_n} \mid f((i_1, i_2, \dots, i_n) = 1\} \right|.$$

First, observe that two different elementary conjunctions  $x_1^{i_1} \cdot x_2^{i_2} \cdot \dots \cdot x_n^{i_n}$  and  $x_1^{j_1} \cdot x_2^{j_2} \cdot \dots \cdot x_n^{j_n}$  (where  $(i_1, i_2, \dots, i_n) \neq (j_1, j_2, \dots, j_n)$ ) exclude each other. Indeed, we know that  $|x_1^{i_1} \cdot x_2^{i_2} \cdot \dots \cdot x_n^{i_n}| = 1 \Leftrightarrow (|x_1|, |x_2|, \dots, |x_n|) = (i_1, i_2, \dots, i_n)$ , and

$$|x_1^{i_1} \cdot x_2^{j_2} \cdot \dots \cdot x_n^{j_n}| = 1 \Leftrightarrow (|x_1|, |x_2|, \dots, |x_n|) = (j_1, j_2, \dots, j_n).$$

Hence  $|x_1^{i_1} \cdot x_2^{i_2} \cdot \dots \cdot x_n^{i_n}| = 1$  implies  $|x_1^{j_1} \cdot x_2^{j_2} \cdot \dots \cdot x_n^{j_n}| = 0$ , and conversely,

$$|x_1^{i_1} \cdot x_2^{j_2} \cdot \dots \cdot x_n^{j_n}| = 1 \text{ implies } |x_1^{i_1} \cdot x_2^{i_2} \cdot \dots \cdot x_n^{i_n}| = 0.$$

In such a case the operation  $\vee$  can be substituted with the exclusive or, i.e.  $\oplus$ .

Hence we can write

$$f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = \left| \bigoplus \{x_1^{i_1} \cdot x_2^{i_2} \cdot \dots \cdot x_n^{i_n} \mid f((i_1, i_2, \dots, i_n) = 1\} \right|.$$

Now let us examine an arbitrary term  $x_1^{i_1} \cdot x_2^{i_2} \cdot \dots \cdot x_n^{i_n}$ . Without lost of generality we can assume that

$i_1 = 1, \dots, i_k = 1$  and  $i_{k+1} = 0, \dots, i_n = 0$ . Then  $x_1^{i_1} = x_1, \dots, x_k^{i_k} = x_k$  and  $x_{k+1}^{i_{k+1}} = x_{k+1}^0 = \neg x_{k+1}, \dots, x_n^{i_n} = x_n^0 = \neg x_n$ .

Since in  $(\mathbb{Z}_2, \oplus, \cdot)$  we have  $\neg x_{k+1} = 1 \oplus x_{k+1}, \dots, \neg x_n = 1 \oplus x_n$ , we obtain:

$$\begin{aligned} f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) &= \left| \bigoplus \{x_1 \cdot \dots \cdot x_k \cdot (1 \oplus x_{k+1}) \cdot \dots \cdot (1 \oplus x_n) \mid f((i_1, i_2, \dots, i_n) = 1\} \right| = \\ &= \left| \sum x_1 \cdot \dots \cdot x_k \oplus x_1 \cdot \dots \cdot x_k \cdot x_{k+1} \oplus \dots \oplus x_1 \cdot x_2 \cdot \dots \cdot x_n \right| \text{-however this is a} \\ &\text{Zhegalkin polynomial.} \quad \square \end{aligned}$$

*Example 2.* We will illustrate the algorithm presented in the proof of the above theorem by the next example:

Let  $f(x_1, x_2, x_3) = |x_1^1x_2^1x_3^0 \vee x_1^0x_2^1x_3^1|$  be the standard normal form of a fixed truth function  $f(x_1, x_2, x_3)$ . We will transform it into a Zhegalkin polynomial. Indeed, we can write:

$$\begin{aligned} f(x_1, x_2, x_3) &= |x_1x_2\neg x_3 \oplus \neg x_1x_2x_3| = |x_1x_2(1 \oplus x_3) \oplus (1 \oplus x_1)x_2x_3| = \\ &= |x_1x_2 \oplus x_1x_2x_3 \oplus x_2x_3 \oplus x_1x_2x_3| = |x_1x_2 \oplus x_2x_3|. \end{aligned}$$

Thus  $p(x_1, x_2, x_3) = x_1x_2 \oplus x_2x_3$  is the corresponding Zhegalkin polynomial.

We finish our exposition with the following:

**Theorem 5.** The Zhegalkin polynomials with at most  $n$ -variables also form a Boolean ring, in other words,  $(\mathbb{Z}_2[x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n], \oplus, \cdot)$  is a Boolean ring.