

# CHAPTER 13

## ROOTS OF POLYNOMIALS

**Definition:**  $a$  is a **root of a polynomial**  $P(x)$  if  $P(a) = 0$ .

! The  $x$ -intercept is that value of  $x$  where the graph of  $y = P(x)$  touches the  $x$  axis  $\implies$  At  $x$  intercept,  $y = P(x) = 0 \implies x$ -intercept are roots.

### 13.1 Polynomial division. Factor Theorem

Do you remember the long division in arithmetics ?

$$\text{dividend} = \text{quotient} \times \text{divisor} + \text{remainder}, \quad \text{with } 0 \leq \text{remainder} < \text{divisor}$$

Let us try the same for polynomials divided by monomials.

Ex. 1:

$$f(x) = 2x^2 - 7x + 3,$$

$$g(x) = x - 3,$$

$$f(x) \div g(x)$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 2x - 1 \\ x - 3 \overline{) 2x^2 - 7x + 3} \\ \underline{2x^2 - 6x} \phantom{+ 3} \\ -x + 3 \\ \underline{-x + 3} \\ = \end{array}$$

Ex. 2:

$$f(x) = 2x^2 + 7x + 3,$$

$$g(x) = x - 2,$$

$$f(x) \div g(x)$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 2x + 11 \\ x - 2 \overline{) 2x^2 + 7x + 3} \\ \underline{2x^2 - 4x} \phantom{+ 3} \\ 11x + 3 \\ \underline{11x - 22} \\ +25 \end{array}$$

Independent classwork:

Ex. 3:

$$f(x) = x^2 - 3x - 10 \qquad g(x) = x - 5$$

So in general we have

**The Factor Theorem:**  $x - a$  is a factor of a polynomial  $P(x) \iff a$  is a root of  $P(x)$ .

**Proof:**

" $\implies$ "  $(x - a)$  is a factor  $\implies P(x) = (x - a) \cdot (\dots) \implies P(a) = 0 \cdot (\dots) \implies a$  is a root.

" $\impliedby$ "  $a$  root of  $P(x) \implies P(a) = 0$ , but  $P(x) = Q(x) \cdot (x - a) + R$  and according to the remainder theorem, the remainder is a number  $\implies R = 0$ .

## 13.2 Polynomial factoring

Ex. 4:

Use the Factor Theorem to prove that  $(x + 1)$  is a factor of  $x^5 + 1$ .

Proof:

$-1$  is a root of  $x^5 + 1$  since  $(-1)^5 + 1 = 0 \implies$  according to the Factor Theorem,  $(x + 1)$  is a factor.

We can prove it using the division of polynomials:

$$\begin{array}{r} x^4 - x^3 + x^2 - x + 1 \\ x + 1 \mid \overline{x^5 + 0x^4 + 0x^3 + 0x^2 + 0x + 1} \\ \underline{x^5 + x^4} \phantom{+ 0x^3 + 0x^2 + 0x + 1} \\ -x^4 \phantom{+ 0x^3 + 0x^2 + 0x + 1} \\ \underline{-x^4 - x^3} \phantom{+ 0x^2 + 0x + 1} \\ x^3 \phantom{+ 0x^2 + 0x + 1} \\ \underline{x^3 + x^2} \phantom{+ 0x + 1} \\ -x^2 \phantom{+ 0x + 1} \\ \underline{-x^2 - x} \phantom{+ 1} \\ x \phantom{+ 1} \\ \underline{x + 1} \\ = \end{array}$$

Thus  $x^5 + 1 = (x + 1)(x^4 - x^3 + x^2 - x + 1)$ .

Independent classwork:

Ex. 5:

Construct a polynomial having as the only roots  $-1$ ,  $1$  and  $3$ .

## 13.3 Vieta's formulas (Viète's formulas) for quadratic equations

$y = ax^2 + bx + c$  is a polynomial function of second degree.

$ax^2 + bx + c = 0$  is a quadratic equation.

From the Factor Theorem, if  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  are roots of the second degree polynomial function  $f(x) = ax^2 + bx + c$ , then  $f(x) = a(x - x_1)(x - x_2) = a(x^2 - x_1x - x_2x + x_1x_2) = a(x^2 - (x_1 + x_2)x + x_1x_2)$ . Thus, if  $a = 1$ , then  $x_1 + x_2 = -b$  and  $x_1x_2 = c$ .

These formulas can be used to guess factors and find roots.

## 13.4 Problems

1. Factor  $x^2 + 18x + 81$  using  $(a + b)^2 = a^2 + 2ab + b^2$ .

We observe that it fits the pattern of a perfect square:

$$\begin{cases} x_1 + x_2 = -18 \\ x_1 \cdot x_2 = 81 \end{cases} \implies x_1 = -9, \quad x_2 = -9$$

$$\implies (x + 9)^2 = x^2 + 18x + 81.$$

2. Factor  $x^2 + 10x + 21$  using Viète's formulas.

$$\begin{cases} x_1 \cdot x_2 = 21 \\ x_1 + x_2 = -10 \end{cases} \implies x_1 = -3, \quad x_2 = -7$$

$$\implies (x + 3)(x + 7) = x^2 + 10x + 21,$$

$$x(x + 3) + 7(x + 3) = x^2 + 3x + 7x + 21 \text{ (split the middle)}$$

3. Factor  $x^2 + x - 12$  using Viète's formulas.

$$\begin{cases} x_1 \cdot x_2 = -12 \\ x_1 + x_2 = -1 \end{cases} \implies x_1 = -3, x_2 = 4 \text{ or } x_1 = 3, x_2 = -4 \quad \Bigg| \implies x_1 = 3, x_2 = -4$$

$$\implies (x - 3)(x + 4) = x^2 + x - 12,$$

$$x^2 + x - 12 = x^2 + 4x - 3x - 12 = (x^2 + 4x) - (3x + 12) = x(x + 4) - 3(x + 4) = (x - 3)(x + 4)$$

## 13.5 Completing the square

The "completing the square" method uses the formula

$$(x + y)^2 = x^2 + 2xy + y^2$$

For instance, we can rewrite:

$$x^2 + 6x + 2 = x^2 + 2 \cdot 3x + 9 - 7 = (x + 3)^2 - 7$$

and then,  $x^2 + 6x + 2 = 0$  if and only if  $(x + 3)^2 = 7$ , which gives  $x + 3 = \sqrt{7}$  or  $x + 3 = -\sqrt{7}$ , thus the roots are  $x_1 = -3 - \sqrt{7}$  and  $x_2 = -3 + \sqrt{7}$ .

So, more generally but supposing  $a = 1$ , we can write

$$x^2 + bx + c = x^2 + 2 \cdot \frac{b}{2} \cdot x + c = x^2 + 2 \cdot \frac{b}{2} \cdot x + \frac{b^2}{2^2} - \frac{b^2}{2^2} + c = \left(x + \frac{b}{2}\right)^2 - \frac{D}{4}, \text{ where } D = b^2 - 4c.$$

Now, solving  $x^2 + bx + c = 0$  becomes equivalent to solving

$$\left(x + \frac{b}{2}\right)^2 = \frac{D}{4}$$

For the general case ( $a$  is not 1, nor zero), we can first divide everything by  $a$ , to equivalently solve

$$x^2 + \frac{b}{a}x + \frac{c}{a} = 0 \iff \left(x + \frac{b}{2a}\right)^2 = \frac{D}{4a^2}, \text{ and now } D = b^2 - 4ac$$

In order to have solutions, we need  $D \geq 0$ . Otherwise, if  $D < 0$ , there are no solutions. So, when  $D \geq 0$ ,

$$x + \frac{b}{2a} = \pm \frac{\sqrt{D}}{2a} \iff x_{1,2} = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{D}}{2a}$$

## 13.6 Homework problems

1. Simply the following quotients using polynomial division:

(a)  $\frac{x^4 + 3x^3 - x^2 - x + 6}{x + 3}$

(b)  $\frac{2x^4 - 5x^3 + 2x^2 + 5x - 10}{x - 2}$

(c)  $\frac{x^3 - 2x^2 + 2x - 4}{x - 2}$

(d)  $\frac{x^3 - 1}{x - 1}$

2. Factor using Viète's formulas the following second degree polynomials

(a)  $x^2 + 9x + 14$

(b)  $x^2 - 6x - 7$

(c)  $8x^2 - 24x + 16$

(d)  $y^4 + y^2 - 12$

3. Think how should Viète's formulas look for

$$ax^3 + bx^2 + cx + d = 0$$