NAME :



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YEAR 12 – EXT.2 MATHS

REVIEW TOPIC (SP2) POLYNOMIALS II

Factors and Zeroes

They depend on the field we are concerned with. Example: $P(x) = x^4 - 2x^2 - 3$

Over Q (rational): $P(x) = (x^2 - 3)(x^2 + 1)$, zeroes are none

Over R (real): $P(x) = (x - \sqrt{3})(x + \sqrt{3})(x^2 + 1)$, zeroes are $\sqrt{3}, -\sqrt{3}$

Over C (complex): $P(x) = (x - \sqrt{3})(x + \sqrt{3})(x - i)(x + i)$, zeroes are $\sqrt{3}, -\sqrt{3}, i, -i$

Long Division Involving Complex Numbers

Example:
$$x - i \overline{\smash)x^2 + x + 3}$$

$$x^2 - ix$$

$$(1+i)x + 3$$

$$(1+i)x + (1-i)$$

$$2+i$$

Factoring a Quadratic by Completing the Squares

Example: $x^2 - 6x + 7 = x^2 - 6x + 9 - 2 = (x - 3)^2 - (\sqrt{2})^2 = (x - 3 - \sqrt{2})(x - 3 + \sqrt{2})$

Multiplicity

- If α is a zero of multiplicity (or order) r of P(x), r > 1, then α is a zero of multiplicity r-1 of P'(x). Proof: differentiate P(x), then show that $P'(x) = (x-\alpha)^{r-1} A(x)$ where $A(\alpha) \neq 0$.
- As an implication, α is a zero of multiplicity r of P(x) if α is a zero of $P^{(r-1)}(\alpha)$, that is, $P(\alpha) = P'(\alpha) = P''(\alpha) = \dots = P^{(r-1)}(\alpha) = 0$.

The Division Transformation

This refers to the writing of P(x) as $D(x) \cdot Q(x) + R(x)$, where deg $R < \deg D$.

The Fundamental Theorem of Algebra

It states that every polynomial of degree greater than or equal to one has at least one zero over C. Implication: by mathematical induction, every polynomial of degree *n* has *n* zeroes over C (not necessarily distinct); it can be factorised into *n* linear factors.

Polynomial with Integer Coefficients

• Any integer zero α of the polynomial is a divisor of the constant term.

Proof: let $P(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0 = x(a_n x^{n-1} + a_{n-1} x^{n-2} + \dots + a_1) + a_0$

Since $P(\alpha) = 0$, $0 = \alpha (a_n \alpha^{n-1} + a_{n-1} \alpha^{n-2} + ... + a_1) + a_0$

Rearranging, $a_0 = \alpha \left(-a_n \alpha^{n-1} - a_{n-1} \alpha^{n-2} - \dots - a_1 \right)$

But: α and all a's are integral, so $\left(-a_n\alpha^{n-1}-a_{n-1}\alpha^{n-2}-\ldots-a_1\right)$ is integral.

Hence, α is a divisor of the constant term a_0 .

- The numerator of any rational zero is a divisor of the constant term, and its denominator is a divisor of the leading coefficient.
- Any non-rational zeroes occur in pairs of conjugate surds.

Polynomial with Real Coefficients (note: real includes integers)

- If P(x) has odd degree, then it has at least one real zero.
- For any P(x), the non-real zeroes occur in complex conjugate pairs.

Hence, any P(x) can be factorised into real linear and real quadratic factors. Note: $(x-\alpha)(x-\overline{\alpha}) = x^2 - (\alpha + \overline{\alpha})x + \alpha \overline{\alpha} = x^2 - 2\operatorname{Re}(\alpha)x + |\alpha|^2$, which is a real quadratic.

Polynomial with Non-Real Coefficients

No pattern; zeroes need not be conjugate pairs. Example: $x^2 + ix + 2 = (x - i)(x + 2i)$.

Sum of the Products of Roots

For
$$P(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + ... + a_1 x + a_0$$
,

Sum of the products of roots taken r at a time = $(-1)^r \frac{a_{n-r}}{a_n}$

Notations for the sums: let's take P(x) of degree 4: $\sum \alpha$, $\sum \alpha \beta$, $\sum \alpha \beta \gamma$, $\alpha \beta \gamma \delta$

Some Questions

- 1. Suppose $x^3 2x^2 + a = (x+2)Q(x) + 3$ where Q(x) is a polynomial. Find the value of a. SOLN: Since LHS has x^3 , Q(x) must have x^2 . $x^3 2x^2 + a = (x+2)(x^2 + bx + c) + 3$. Equating coefficient of x^2 , $b+2=-2 \Rightarrow b=-4$. Equating coefficient of x, $c+2b=0 \Rightarrow c=8$. a=19.
- 2. a and b are real numbers such that the sum of the squares of the roots of the equation $x^2 + (a+ib)x + 3i = 0$ is 8. Find all possible pairs of a and b. SOLN: Let the roots be α , β . $\alpha^2 + \beta^2 = (\alpha + \beta)^2 2\alpha\beta = [-(a+ib)]^2 2[3i] = a^2 b^2 + (2ab 6)i = 8$. $2ab 6 = 0 \Rightarrow a = 3/b$ and $a^2 b^2 = (3/b)^2 b^2 = 8$. Pairs (a,b): (3,1) and (-3,-1).
- 3. 1+i is a root of the equation $x^2 + (a+2i)x + (5+ib) = 0$, where a and b are real. Find the values of a and b. SOLN: Put x = 1+i into the equation and expand.

Changing the Variable to Find a New Polynomial

Let $ax^3 + bx^2 + cx + d = 0$ has three roots represented by α , that is, $a\alpha^3 + b\alpha^2 + c\alpha + d = 0$. To find an equation with roots 3α , we can replace x with x/3 so that when 2α is substituted as x, we still get $a\alpha^3 + b\alpha^2 + c\alpha + d = 0$. By writing the new equation in y instead of x, we can find the substitution systematically. Examples:

- 1. $x^3 + x^2 2x 3 = 0$ has roots α, β, γ . Find the equation with roots $\alpha^2 \beta \gamma, \alpha \beta^2 \gamma, \alpha \beta \gamma^2$. SOLN: $\alpha \beta \gamma = 3$. New roots are $3\alpha, 3\beta, 3\gamma$. Let $y = 3x \Rightarrow x = y/3$. New equation in y: $\left(\frac{y}{3}\right)^3 + \left(\frac{y}{3}\right)^2 2\left(\frac{y}{3}\right) 3 = 0$ or $y^3 + 3y^2 18y 81 = 0$.
- 2. $x^3 + 4x^2 + 2x 1 = 0$ has roots α, β, γ . Find the equation with roots $\alpha^2, \beta^2, \gamma^2$. SOLN: Let $y = x^2 \Rightarrow x = \sqrt{y}$. The equation in y with roots $\alpha^2, \beta^2, \gamma^2$ is given by: $\sqrt{y^3} + 4\sqrt{y^2} + 2\sqrt{y} - 1 = 0 \Rightarrow \sqrt{y}(y+2) = -(4y-1)$ (separate the terms with \sqrt{y}). Squaring, $y(y+2)^2 = (4y-1)^2 \Rightarrow y^3 - 12y^2 + 12y - 1 = 0$.

Not everything can be done by directly letting y = ...x and x = ...y. For example, to find the equation with roots α^4 , β^4 , γ^4 in the above two examples, we need to first find those with roots α^2 , β^2 , γ^2 , and after making it a cubic, repeat the process for $(\alpha^2)^2$, $(\beta^2)^2$, $(\gamma^2)^2$.

Evaluating $\alpha^3 + \beta^3 + \gamma^3$

We don't have to find the new cubic by replacing x with its cube root. We use the fact that $a\alpha^3 + b\alpha^2 + c\alpha + d = 0$, $a\beta^3 + b\beta^2 + c\beta + d = 0$ and $a\gamma^3 + b\gamma^2 + c\gamma + d = 0$, and then

2004 Mathematics Extension 2, Syllabus

Topic 7: Polynomials

sum them to get:
$$a(\alpha^3 + \beta^3 + \gamma^3) + b(\alpha^2 + \beta^2 + \gamma^2) + c(\alpha + \beta + \gamma) + 3d = 0$$
 $[(\alpha^2 + \beta^2 + \gamma^2)] = (\alpha + \beta + \gamma)^2 - 2(\alpha\beta + \alpha\gamma + \beta\gamma)$ if you haven't found the equation with roots $\alpha^2, \beta^2, \gamma^2$.

A quartic with symmetric coefficients $P(x) = ax^4 + bx^3 + cx^2 \pm bx + a$ can be converted to quadratic in $(x \pm \frac{1}{x})$. Method: write it as $x^2(ax^2 + bx + c \pm bx^{-1} + ax^{-2})$ $= x^2[a(x^2 + x^{-2}) + b(x \pm x^{-1}) + c]$, then use the fact that $(x + x^{-1})^2 = (x^2 + x^{-2}) + 2$. Also note that x = 0 won't be a zero because then x^{-1} is not defined.

Solving Equations over C Using Complex Number Technique

Solving $x^n \pm 1 = 0$: find the complex *n*th roots of ± 1 . Use De Moivre's theorem to find the roots in modulus-argument form. Alternatively: $x^n - 1 = 0$, *n* even can be solved by treating it as a difference of two squares; $0 = x^4 + 1 = (x^4 + 2x^2 + 1) - 2x^2$ then complete the square and treat the result as a difference of two squares; etc.

Solving
$$x^{n-1} + x^{n-2} + ... + x + 1 = 0$$
: multiply by $(x-1)$ to give $x^n - 1 = 0$
Solving $x^{n-1} - x^{n-2} + ... + (-1)^{n-1} = 0$: multiply by $(x+1)$ to give $x^n \pm 1 = 0$

Note that x = 1 won't be a solution to the last two problems above; x = -1 might be.

Solving $x^n = c$: use De Moivre's theorem

Solving $x^n + cx = 0$: write it as $x(x^{n-1} + c) = 0$; etc.

New Expressions for $\sin n\theta$ and $\cos n\theta$

Let $z = \cos \theta + i \sin \theta$. We can equate the imaginary and real parts of the expressions of z^n using De Moivre's theorem and Binomial expansion. From the imaginary part, we get $\sin n\theta$ equals some summation of products in the form of $\sin^a \theta \cos^b \theta$; similarly we get an alternative expression for $\cos n\theta$ from the real part.

Sample questions with answers:

(i) Express $\tan 5\theta$ in terms of powers of $\tan \theta$, hence show that $x^4 - 10x^2 + 5 = 0$ has roots $\pm \tan \frac{\pi}{5}$, $\pm \tan \frac{2\pi}{5}$. SOLN:

$$\tan 5\theta = \frac{\sin 5\theta}{\cos 5\theta} = \frac{5\sin \theta \cos^4 \theta - 10\sin^3 \theta \cos^2 \theta + \sin^5 \theta}{\cos^5 \theta - 10\sin^2 \theta \cos^3 \theta + 5\sin^4 \theta \cos \theta} = \frac{5\tan \theta - 10\tan^3 \theta + \tan^5 \theta}{1 - 10\tan^2 \theta + 5\tan^4 \theta},$$
after dividing top and bottom by $\cos^5 \theta$.

Then, let $x = \tan \theta$. Pay attention to the top part of the fraction above and notice that it resembles $x(x^4 - 10x^2 + 5)$, hence $\tan 5\theta = 0$ if x is a root of $x^4 - 10x^2 + 5 = 0$.

(ii) Deduce that $\tan \frac{\pi}{5} \tan \frac{2\pi}{5} \tan \frac{3\pi}{5} \tan \frac{4\pi}{5} = 5$. SOLN:

Notice that $-\tan \frac{\pi}{5} = \tan \frac{4\pi}{5}$, $-\tan \frac{2\pi}{5} = \tan \frac{3\pi}{5}$. From $x^4 - 10x^2 + 5 = 0$, the product of the four roots is 5.

(iii) By solving $x^4 - 10x^2 + 5 = 0$ another way, find the value of $\tan \frac{\pi}{5}$ as a surd. SOLN: Consider $x^4 - 10x^2 + 5 = 0$ as a quadratic in x^2 and use the quadratic formula.

Partial Fractions

Method: Set up an identity,
$$\frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} = \frac{c_1}{x - \alpha_1} + \frac{c_2}{x - \alpha_2} + \dots + \frac{c_n}{x - \alpha_n}$$
, where $Q(x) = k(x - \alpha_1)(x - \alpha_2)(\dots)(x - \alpha_n)$, all zeroes of Q(x) distinct, and deg $P < \deg Q$.

We can then rearrange this identity so that the fractions disappear by multiplying both sides by Q(x). Now, substitute selected values of x by which we can equate coefficients of x-terms to determine the constants, c's. Useful values to substitute are $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \ldots$, and if the factors

are irreducible quadratics, zero and ki (for factors like $x^2 + 1$, $x^2 + k^2$) [$i = \sqrt{-1}$]

An alternative approach to equating coefficients in the identity:

[Note: This approach is mentioned in the syllabus but is very rarely asked.]

$$c_i = \frac{P(\alpha_i)}{Q'(\alpha_i)}, \text{ where } i = 1, 2, 3, ..., n$$

Proof:
$$\frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} = \frac{c_1}{x - \alpha_1} + \frac{c_2}{x - \alpha_2} + \dots + \frac{c_n}{x - \alpha_n}$$
; let's investigate the case when $i = 1$

$$\times$$
 $(x-\alpha_i)$, i.e. $(x-\alpha_1)$ in this case: $P(x) \cdot \frac{x-\alpha_1}{Q(x)} \equiv c_1 + c_2 \cdot \frac{x-\alpha_1}{x-\alpha_2} + \dots + c_n \cdot \frac{x-\alpha_1}{x-\alpha_n}$

If we take the limit of the RHS as $x \to \alpha_1$: RHS = c_1

Taking the same limit of the LHS will give $\frac{P(\alpha_1)}{O'(\alpha_1)}$; how does it work?

Notice, in the LHS, that
$$\frac{x-\alpha_1}{Q(x)} = \frac{x-\alpha_1}{Q(x)-Q(\alpha_1)}$$
, since $Q(\alpha_1) = 0$

Also,
$$\lim_{x \to \alpha_1} \frac{Q(x) - Q(\alpha_1)}{x - \alpha_1} = Q'(\alpha_1)$$
 by the first principle of differentiation

A Case Where $\deg P \ge \deg O$

Perform division transformation with D(x) = Q(x) before setting up the identity. For example, express $\frac{x^3 - 2x^2 - 2x - 1}{x^2 - 2x - 3}$ as a sum of partial fractions.

division transformation, $x^3 - 2x^2 - 2x - 1 = (x^2 - 2x - 3)x + (x - 1)$. Hence. Using $\frac{x^3 - 2x^2 - 2x - 1}{x^2 - 2x - 3} = x + \frac{x - 1}{x^2 - 2x - 3}, \text{ then } \frac{x - 1}{x^2 - 2x - 3} \equiv \frac{c_1}{x + 1} + \frac{c_2}{x - 3} \text{ and so on.}$

Example:
$$\frac{x^2 + 1}{(x+2)(x-1)(x^2+x+1)} = \frac{c_1}{x+2} + \frac{c_2}{x-1} + \frac{ax+b}{x^2+x+1}$$

[Notice: either a or b may turn out to equal zero.]

[Remember that zeroes, factors and partial fractions depend on the number field asked. For example, there's no such thing as irreducible cubic factor over R, but there is over Q or Z. In that case, let the numerator be that cubic.]

[In general, let the degree of the numerator (of each fraction on the RHS of the identity) be one less than that of the corresponding denominator.]

A Case Where Q(x) Has Multiple Zero(es)

Example: $\frac{x^2 - 7x + 4}{(x+1)(x-1)^2} = \frac{a}{x+1} + \frac{bx+c}{(x-1)^2}$ (same zeroes must be grouped together) which

then gives
$$\frac{3}{x+1} + \frac{-2x+1}{(x-1)^2} = \frac{3}{x+1} + \frac{(-2x+2)-(1)}{(x-1)^2} = \frac{3}{x+1} + \frac{-2}{(x-1)} + \frac{-1}{(x-1)^2}$$
.

Generally,
$$\frac{P(x)}{(x-\alpha_1)^n(x-\alpha_2)} \equiv \frac{c}{(x-\alpha_1)} + \frac{d}{(x-\alpha_1)^2} + \dots + \frac{b}{(x-\alpha_1)^n} + \frac{a}{(x-\alpha_2)}$$

[The syllabus says not to discuss this case but there have been related questions on it.]

(1) (i) Prove that if α is a double root of the equation P(x) = 0 then $P'(\alpha) = 0$.

(ii) Prove that $P(x) = x^3 - 3px + q$ has a double root if $q^2 = 4p^3$.

(iii) Hence or otherwise solve the equation $x^3 + 3x + 2i = 0.$

(2) If a and b are two roots of the equation $x^3 + 4x - 2 = 0$, show that ab is a root of the equation $x^3 - 4x^2 - 4 = 0$.

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(3) (a) The complex number z and its conjugate \bar{z} satisfy the equation $z\bar{z} + 2iz = 12 + 6i$. Find the possible values of z.

3-i, 3+3i

(b) 1+i is a root of the equation $x^2 + (a+2i)x + (5+ib) = 0$, where a and b are real. Find the values of a and b.

(4) (a) 1-2i is one root of the equation $x^2 + (1+i)x + k = 0$. Find the other root and the value of k.

$$k = 5i, x = -2 + i$$

- (b) Find the zeros of $P(x) = x^4 4x^2 + 3 = 0$
 - (i) over \mathbf{Q} ;

(ii) over **R**;

 $\boxed{\pm 1, \pm \sqrt{3}}$

±1

(iii) over C,

 $\pm 1, \pm \sqrt{3}$

(5) (a) Find P(x), given that P(x) is monic, of degree 3, with 5 as a single zero and -2 as a zero of multiplicity 2.

$$P(x) = x^3 - x^2 - 16x - 20$$

(b) P(x) is an even monic polynomial of degree 4 with integer coefficients. If $\sqrt{2}$ is a zero, and the constant term is 6, factorise P(x) fully over **R**.

(6) If $P(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 - 9x + c$ has a double zero, find two possible values of c and factorise P(x) over the real numbers.

$$c = 27 P(x) = (x-3)^{2}(x+3)$$

$$c = -5 P(x) = (x+1)^{2}(x-5)$$

$$c = -5$$
 $P(x) = (x+1)^{2}(x-5)$

(7) If $ax^3 + cx + d = 0$ has a double root, show that $4c^3 + 27ad^2 = 0$.

(8) (a) When $P(x) = x^4 + ax^2 + 2x$ is divided by $x^2 + 1$, the remainder is 2x + 3. Find the value of a.

a = -2

(b) When $P(x) = x^4 + ax^2 + bx + 2$ is divided by $x^2 + 1$, the remainder is -x + 1. Find the values of a and b.

(9) (a) Two of the roots of $3x^3 + ax^2 + 23x - 6 = 0$ are reciprocals. Find the value of a and the three roots.

a = -16; roots are $3, \frac{1}{3}, 2$

(10) The equation $px^3 + qx^2 + rx + s = 0$ has roots (a - c), a, (a + c), which are in arithmetic progression. Show that the $a = \frac{-q}{3p}$ and hence show that $2q^3 - 9pqr + 27p^2s = 0$.

(11) The equation $px^3 + qx^2 + rx + s = 0$ has the roots ac, a and $\frac{a}{c}$, which are in geometric progression. Show that $a = \sqrt[3]{\left(-s/p\right)}$ and hence show that $pr^3 - q^3s = 0$.

(12) The equation $x^3 + x^2 - 2x - 3 = 0$ has roots α , β and γ . Find the equations with roots (a) $\frac{\alpha}{2}$, $\frac{\beta}{2}$ and $\frac{\gamma}{2}$;

$$8x^3 + 4x^2 - 4x - 3 = 0$$

(b) $\alpha + 2$, $\beta + 2$ and $\gamma + 2$.

(1) (i) Prove that if α is a double root of the equation P(x) = 0then $P'(\alpha) = 0$.

$$P(\pi) = (x-d)^{2} Q(x), Vu'+vv'$$

$$P'(\pi) = 2(x-d)Q(x) + (x-d)^{2}Q'(\pi),$$

$$= (x-d) \left[2Q(\pi) + (x-d)Q'(x) \right]$$

(ii) Prove that $P(x) = x^3 - 3px + q$ has a double root if $q^2 = 4p^3$. P1(x)= 372-370.

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$$P(\sqrt{p}) = (\sqrt{p})^3 - 3p(\sqrt{p}) + q$$
.

$$-q = p \sqrt{p} - 3p \sqrt{p}$$
(iii) Hence or otherwise solve the equation

$$x^3 + 3x + 2i = 0$$
.

$$3x^2+3=0$$
 $i = \pm i$

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2) If a and b are two roots of the equation $x^3 + 4x - 2 = 0$, show that ab is a root of the equation $x^3 - 4x^2 - 4 = 0$.

$$(\frac{2}{x})^3 - 4(\frac{2}{x})^2 - 4 = 0$$

$$=\frac{8}{13}-\frac{16}{112}-4$$

$$\frac{8 - 10 \times 10}{x^3} = \frac{-(x^3 + 4x - 2)}{x^3} = 0$$

(3) (a) The complex number z and its conjugate \bar{z} satisfy the equation $z\overline{z} + 2iz = 12 + 6i$. Find the possible values of z.

The complex number z and its conjugate z satisfy the equation
$$\overline{z}$$
.

At $(x+1)^{2}$ $(x+1)^{2}$ $(x+1)^{2}$ $(x+2)^{2}$ $(x+2)^{2}$ $(x+2)^{2}$ $(x+3)^{2}$ $(x$

(b) 1+i is a root of the equation $x^2+(a+2i)x+(5+ib)=0$, where a and b are real. Find the-values of a and b.

21 tatan +21 -2 +5+16-0

$$a=-3,b=-1$$

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(4) (a) 1-2i is one root of the equation $x^2 + (1+i)x + k = 0$. Find the other root and the value of k.

$$1-2i$$
, B
 $1-2i+B=-1-i$,
 $2-i+B=-1-i$,
 $8=i-2i$,
 $(-2+i)(1-2i)$,
 $=-2(1-2i)+i(1-2i)$,
 $=-2+2+i+i+1$

k = 5i, x = -2 + i

(b) Find the zeros of $P(x) = x^4 - 4x^2 + 3 = 0$

(i) over Q:
$$(u-3)(u-1)=0$$
 $(u^2-3)(u^2-1)=0$

(コ(アース)(アース)(アナリ)とり

(xL-VI) (x+VI) (x-1)(x+1)=0.

±1,±√3

±1

over C (iii)

over R;

 $\pm 1, \pm \sqrt{3}$

(5) (a) Find P(x), given that P(x) is monic, of degree 3, with 5 as a single zero and -2 as a zero of multiplicity 2.

$$ax^{3}+bx^{2}+cx+d=0.$$

$$-b = 5+-2+-2 \qquad x3-x^{2}-16x+20 = P(x).$$

$$= \pi \cdot /$$

$$c = 5(-2)+5(-2)+(2)(-2)$$

$$= -16.$$

$$d = 5(-1)(-2)$$

$$P(x) = x^3 - x^2 - 16x - 20$$

(b) P(x) is an even monic polynomial of degree 4 with integer coefficients. If $\sqrt{2}$ is a zero, and the constant term is 6, factorise P(x) fully over **R**.

$$(x-\sqrt{2})(x+\sqrt{2}) = ax^34+bx^3+cx^2+dd+e$$
.
 $+bx6=b$
 $2x6=b$.
 $x8=3$.

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(6) If $P(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 - 9x + c$ has a double zero, find two possible values of c and factorise P(x) over the real numbers.

when
$$z = 3$$
.

 $3 = 3 + 3 + 8$.

 $3 = 6 + 8$.

 $\beta = -3$.

-c = -27 c = 27.

when = -1.

$$p(x) = (x-3)^{2}(x+3)$$
. $c = 2t$
 $p(\pm) = (\pm 1)^{2}(x+5)$ $c = -5$.

$$3 = -1 + -1 + 18$$

 $3 = -2 + 18$
 $8 = 5$
 $-1 = -1 + -1 + 18$
 $8 = 5$
 $6 = -1 + -1 + 18$
 $6 = -1 + -1 + 18$
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$$c = 27 P(x) = (x-3)^{2}(x+3)$$

$$c = -5 P(x) = (x+1)^{2}(x-5)$$

(7) If $ax^3 + cx + d = 0$ has a double root, show that $4c^3 + 27ad^2 = 0$.

$$P\left(\overline{y}_{3a}\right) : \sqrt{\left(\overline{y}_{3a}\right)^3} + L\left(\sqrt{\frac{-c}{3a}}\right) + d = 0.$$

$$-\frac{dC}{3a}\left(\sqrt{\frac{-c}{3a}}\right)+c\left(-\sqrt{\frac{-c}{3a}}\right)=-d.$$

$$\sqrt{\frac{-c}{3}} \left(\frac{-c}{3} + c \right) = -d.$$

$$\sqrt{\frac{2}{3}}\left(\frac{2}{3}\right)=-d.$$

$$-\frac{c}{34a}\left(\frac{4c^2}{9}\right)=d^2.$$

$$-\frac{4c^3}{27}=d^2$$
.

$$-4c^3 = 27d^2$$

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(8) (a) When $P(x) = x^4 + \alpha x^2 + 2x$ is divided by $x^2 + 1$, the remainder is 2x + 3. Find the value of a.

$$\frac{1^{2}+1 \int 1^{4} 1^{4} + (a-1)^{7}}{1^{4} + 1^{2}} - a+1+2x = 2x+3$$

$$\frac{1^{4} + 1^{2}}{(a-1)^{4}} - a = 2$$

$$\frac{(a-1)^{4}}{(a-1)^{4}} + a-1$$

$$\frac{(a-1)^{4}}{(a-1)^{4}}$$

When $P(x) = x^4 + \alpha x^2 + bx + 2$ is divided by $x^2 + 1$, the remainder is -x + 1. Find the values of a and b.

$$x^{2} + (a-1) + (1-(a-1))$$

$$x^{2} + (a-1) + (1-(a-1))$$

$$x^{2} + (a-1) + (a-1)$$

$$x^{2} + (a-1$$

N' (3-0)4)

(9) (a) Two of the roots of $3x^3 + \alpha x^2 + 23x - 6 = 0$ are reciprocals. Find the value of a and the three roots.

$$a(\frac{1}{\mu}) + dR + \frac{1}{\alpha}R = \frac{23}{3}$$

$$1 + 2d + \frac{2}{\alpha} = \frac{23}{3}$$

$$2d + 2 = 20$$
The worth are $31/3$, 2 .

$$a = -16$$

$$1+2\lambda + \frac{2}{\lambda} = \frac{23}{3}$$

$$a = -16$$
; roots are $3, \frac{1}{3}, 2$

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(10) The equation $px^3 + qx^2 + rx + s = 0$ has roots (a - c), a, (a + c), which are in arithmetic progression. Show that the $a = \frac{-q}{3p}$ and hence show that $2q^3 - 9pqr + 27p^2s = 0$.

$$a-c+a+a+c$$
 $3a = -9/p$
 $a = -a/3p$

$$P\left(\frac{-a}{3p}\right)^{3} + 2\left(\frac{-a}{3p}\right)^{2} + v\left(\frac{-a}{3p}\right) + s = 0$$

$$-\frac{a^{3}p}{27p^{3}} + \frac{a^{3}}{9p^{2}} + \frac{-a^{2}}{3p} + s = 0$$

$$-\frac{a^{3}}{27p^{2}} + \frac{a^{3}}{9p^{2}} - \frac{a^{2}}{3p} + s = 0$$

$$-\frac{a^{3}}{27p^{2}} + \frac{a^{3}}{9p^{2}} - \frac{a^{2}}{3p} + s = 0$$

$$-\frac{a^{3}}{27p^{2}} + \frac{a^{3}}{9p^{2}} - \frac{a^{2}}{3p} + s = 0$$

$$-\frac{a^{3}}{27p^{2}} + \frac{a^{3}}{9p^{2}} - \frac{a^{2}}{3p} + s = 0$$

$$-\frac{a^{3}}{27p^{2}} + \frac{a^{3}}{9p^{2}} - \frac{a^{2}}{3p} + s = 0$$

(11) The equation $px^3 + qx^2 + rx + s = 0$ has the roots ac, a and $\frac{a}{c}$, which are in geometric progression. Show that $a = \sqrt[3]{\left(-s/p\right)}$ and hence show that $pr^3 - q^3s = 0$.

product of roots =
$$a^{3}$$
.

 $a^{3} = -5/p$.

 $a = \sqrt[3]{-5/p}$
 $A = \sqrt[3]{-5/p}$

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(12) The equation $x^3 + x^2 - 2x - 3 = 0$ has roots α , β and γ . Find the equations with roots (a) $\frac{\alpha}{2}$, $\frac{\beta}{2}$ and $\frac{\gamma}{2}$;

$$\frac{x}{z-x}.$$

$$X=2x.$$

$$(2x)^{3}+(2x)^{2}-2(2x)^{-3}$$

$$=8x^{3}+4x^{2}-4x^{-3}.$$

 $8x^3 + 4x^2 - 4x - 3 = 0$

(b) $\alpha + 2$, $\beta + 2$ and $\gamma + 2$.

X+2= X.

$$(x-1)^3 + (x-1)^2 - 2(x-1) - 3 = 0$$
.
 $(x-1)^3 + (x-1)^2 - 2(x-1) - 3 = 0$.
 $x^3 - 3x^2(x) + 3(x)(4) - (8) + (x^2 - 1)x + 4) - 2x + 4 - 3 = 0$.
 $x^3 - 6x^2 + 6x - 3 = 0$.

 $x^3 - 5x^2 + 6x - 3 = 0$