

Appendix A.3 – Polynomials

We have described algebra as a generalization of arithmetic in which letters are used to represent real numbers. From now on, we shall use the letters at the end of the alphabet, such as x , y , and z , to represent variables and use the letters at the beginning of the alphabet, such as a , b , and c , to represent constants. In the expressions $3x + 5$ and $ax + b$, it is understood that x is a variable and that a and b are constants, even though the constants a and b are unspecified. As you will find out, the context usually makes the intended meaning clear.

Recognize Monomials

A monomial in one variable is the product of a constant and a variable raised to a nonnegative integer power. A monomial is of the form ax^k , where a is a constant, x is a variable, and $k \geq 0$ is an integer. The constant a is called coefficient of the monomial. If $a \neq 0$, then k is called the degree of the monomial.

Example 1: Examples of Monomials

Monomial	Coefficient	Degree
a) $5x^2$	5	2
b) $-\sqrt{7}x^3$	$-\sqrt{7}$	3
c) 4	4	0
d) $-6x$	-6	1
e) x^4	1	4

Example 2: Examples of Nonmonomial Expressions

- a) $4x^{\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)}$ is not a monomial, since the exponent of the variable x is $\frac{1}{3}$ and $\frac{1}{3}$ is not a nonnegative integer.
- b) $6x^{-4}$ is not monomial, since the exponent of the variable x is -4 and -4 is not a nonnegative integer.

Recognize Polynomials

Two monomials with the same variable raised to the same power are called **like terms**. For example, $5x^3$ and $-8x^3$ are like terms. In contrast, the monomials $2x^4$ and $9x^2$ are not like terms, since their powers are not the same.

You can add and subtract like terms using the Distributive Property.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{For example, } 3x^2 + 5x^2 &= (3+5)x^2 & \text{ and } & 9x^4 - 3x^4 = (9-3)x^4 \\ &= 8x^2 & & = 6x^4 \end{aligned}$$

The sum or difference of two monomials having different degrees is called a **binomial**. The sum or difference of three monomials with three different degrees is called a **trinomial**.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{For example, } x^3 - 7 & \text{ is a binomial.} \\ x^2 + 4x - 7 & \text{ is a trinomial.} \\ 4x^2 + 6x^2 - 5 &= 10x^2 - 5 \text{ is a binomial.} \end{aligned}$$

Definition: A **polynomial** in one variable is an algebraic expression of the form $a_nx^n + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1x + a_0$, where $a_n, a_{n-1}, \dots, a_1, a_0$ are constants, called the **coefficients** of the polynomial, $n \geq 0$ is an integer, and x is a variable.

If $a_n \neq 0$, it is called the **leading coefficient**, a_nx^n is called the **leading term**, and n is the **degree** of the polynomial.

So, a polynomial is a sum of monomials.

Appendix A.3 – Polynomials (continued)

The monomials that make up a polynomial are called its **terms**. If all of the coefficients are 0, the polynomial is called the **zero polynomial**, which has no degree.

Polynomials are usually written in **standard form**, beginning with the nonzero term of highest degree and continuing with terms in descending order according to degree. If a power of x is missing, it is because its coefficient is zero.

Example 3: Examples of Polynomials

Polynomial	Coefficients	Degree
a) $7x^4 - 5x^2 + x - 6$	7, -5, 1, -6	4
b) $4x^2 - 7 = 4x^2 + 0x + (-7)$	4, 0, -7	2
c) $6 - 5x + 2x^2 = 2x^2 - 5x + 6$	2, -5, 6	2
d) $8x + \sqrt{6}$	$8, \sqrt{6}$	1
e) 9	9	0
f) 0	0	No degree

Although we have been using x to represent the variable, letters such as y and z are also commonly used.

$4x^3 - 5x + 3$ is a polynomial (in x) of degree 3.

$8y^4 - 6y^3 + 2y - 5$ is a polynomial (in y) of degree 4.

$z^5 + 3z^2 + 2\pi$ is a polynomial (in z) of degree 5.

Algebraic expressions such as $\frac{2}{x}$ and $\frac{x^2 + 4}{x - 7}$ are not polynomials.

$\frac{2}{x}$ is not a polynomial because $\frac{2}{x} = 2x^{-1}$ has an exponent that is not a nonnegative integer.

The second expression is a quotient of two polynomials, but the polynomial in the denominator has degree greater than 0, so the expression cannot be a polynomial.

Know Formulas for Special Products

Certain products, which we call **special products**, occur frequently in algebra. For example, you can find the product of two binomials using the **FOIL (First, Outer, Inner, Last)** method.

$$\begin{array}{l}
 \begin{array}{c}
 \text{Outer} \\
 \text{First} \\
 \text{Inner} \\
 \text{Last}
 \end{array} \\
 (ax + b)(cx + d) = ax(cx + d) + b(cx + d)
 \end{array}
 \quad = \quad
 \begin{array}{l}
 \text{First} \quad \text{Outer} \quad \text{Inner} \quad \text{Last} \\
 ax \cdot cx + ax \cdot d + b \cdot cx + b \cdot d \\
 = acx^2 + adx + bcx + bd \\
 = acx^2 + (ad + bc)x + bd
 \end{array}$$

Example 4: Using FOIL

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{a) } (x + 4)(x - 4) &= x^2 - 4x + 4x - 16 \\
 &= x^2 - 16
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{b) } (2x - 3)(4x - 5) &= 8x^2 - 10x - 12x + 15 \\
 &= 8x^2 - 22x + 15
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{c) } (3x + 7)^2 &= (3x + 7)(3x + 7) \\
 &= 9x^2 + 21x + 21x + 49 \\
 &= 9x^2 + 42x + 49
 \end{aligned}$$

Appendix A.3 – Polynomials (continued)

Some products have been given special names because of their form. In the list that follows, x and a are real numbers.

Difference of Two Squares: $x^2 - a^2 = (x + a)(x - a)$

Squares of Binomials, or Perfect Squares: $(x + a)^2 = x^2 + 2ax + a^2$

$$(x - a)^2 = x^2 - 2ax + a^2$$

Cubes of Binomials, or Perfect Cubes: $(x + a)^3 = x^3 + 3ax^2 + 3a^2x + a^3$

$$(x - a)^3 = x^3 - 3ax^2 + 3a^2x - a^3$$

Difference of Two Cubes: $x^3 - a^3 = (x - a)(x^2 + ax + a^2)$

Sum of Two Cubes: $x^3 + a^3 = (x + a)(x^2 - ax + a^2)$

Divide Polynomials Using Long Division

The procedure for dividing two polynomials is similar to the procedure for dividing two integers.

Divide 446 by 13.

$$\begin{array}{r}
 \text{Quotient} \swarrow \\
 \begin{array}{r}
 34 \\
 13 \overline{) 446} \\
 \underline{-39} \\
 56 \\
 \underline{-52} \\
 4 \\
 \text{Remainder} \longleftarrow
 \end{array} \\
 \text{Divisor} \longrightarrow
 \end{array}$$

In the long-division process, the number 13 is called the **divisor**, the number 446 is called the **dividend**, the number 34 is called the **quotient**, and the number 4 is called the **remainder**.

$$\text{So, } \frac{446}{13} = 34 + \frac{4}{13}$$

To check the answer obtained in a division problem, multiply the quotient by the divisor and add the remainder. The answer should be the dividend.

$$(\text{Quotient})(\text{Divisor}) + \text{Remainder} = \text{Dividend}$$

To divide two polynomials, the polynomials must be in standard form. The process then follows a pattern similar to the division problem above.

Example 5: Use Long Division to divide $x^3 + 3x^2 - 4x - 14$ by $x - 2$.

$$\begin{array}{r}
 \text{Quotient} \swarrow \\
 \begin{array}{r}
 x^2 + 5x + 6 \\
 \text{Divisor} \longrightarrow x - 2 \overline{) x^3 + 3x^2 - 4x - 14} \\
 \underline{-(x^3 - 2x^2)} \\
 5x^2 - 4x \\
 \underline{-(5x^2 - 10x)} \\
 6x - 14 \\
 \underline{-(6x - 12)} \\
 -2 \\
 \text{Remainder} \longleftarrow
 \end{array} \\
 \text{Dividend} \longleftarrow
 \end{array}$$

Appendix A.3 – Polynomials (continued)

Check:

$$\begin{aligned}
(\text{Quotient})(\text{Divisor}) + \text{Remainder} &= (x^2 + 5x + 6)(x - 2) + -2 \\
&= (x^3 + 5x^2 + 6x) - (2x^2 + 10x + 12) - 2 \\
&= x^3 + 5x^2 + 6x - 2x^2 - 10x - 12 - 2 \\
&= x^3 + 3x^2 - 4x - 14 \\
&= \text{Dividend}
\end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Thus, } \frac{x^3 + 3x^2 - 4x - 14}{x - 2} = x^2 + 5x + 6 - \frac{2}{x - 2}$$

If the dividend, say $4x^3 + 7x^2 + 5$, is missing a term (here the x term is missing), you must put a placeholder in the dividend for the missing term (here put in $0x$).

The process of dividing two polynomials leads to the following theorem.

Theorem: Let Q be a polynomial of positive degree, and let P be a polynomial whose degree is greater than or equal to the degree of Q . The remainder after dividing P by Q is either the zero polynomial or a polynomial whose degree is less than the degree of the divisor Q .

Factor Polynomials

Consider the following product: $(2x - 3)(x + 4) = 2x^2 + 5x - 12$

The two polynomials on the left side are called **factors** of the polynomial on the right side. Expressing a given polynomial as a product of other polynomials, that is, finding the factors of a polynomial, is called **factoring**.

We will restrict our discussion here to factoring polynomials in one variable into products of polynomials in one variable, where all coefficients are integers. We call this **factoring over the integers**.

Any polynomial can be written as the product of 1 times itself or as -1 times its additive inverse. If a polynomial cannot be written as the product of two other polynomials (excluding 1 and -1), then the polynomial is said to be prime. When a polynomial has been written as a product consisting only of prime factors, it is said to be **factored completely**. Examples of prime polynomials (over the integers) are

$$2x^3 - 7x^2 + x - 1, \quad x^2 + 2, \quad 3x - 5, \quad x^2 + 3$$

The first factor to look for in a factoring problem is a common monomial factor present in each term of the polynomial. If one is present, use the Distributive Property to factor it out.

Example 6: Identifying Common Monomial Factors

Polynomial	Common Monomial Factor	Remaining Factor	Factored Form
$2x + 4$	2	$x + 2$	$2x + 4 = 2(x + 2)$
$3x - 6$	3	$x - 2$	$3x - 6 = 3(x - 2)$
$2x^2 - 4x + 8$	2	$x^2 - 2x + 4$	$2x^2 - 4x + 8 = 2(x^2 - 2x + 4)$
$8x - 12$	4	$2x - 3$	$8x - 12 = 4(2x - 3)$
$x^2 + x$	x	$x + 1$	$x^2 + x = x(x + 1)$
$x^3 - 3x^2$	x^2	$x - 3$	$x^3 - 3x^2 = x^2(x - 3)$
$6x^2 + 9x$	$3x$	$2x + 3$	$6x^2 + 9x = 3x(2x + 3)$

Notice that, once all common monomial factors have been removed from a polynomial, the remaining factor is either a prime polynomial of degree 1 or a polynomial of degree 2 or higher.

Appendix A.3 – Polynomials (continued)

The following example illustrates several factoring techniques.

Example 7: Factoring Polynomials

Factor each polynomial completely.

$$\begin{array}{lll} \text{a) } x^4 - 16 & \text{b) } x^3 - 1 & \text{c) } 9x^2 - 6x + 1 \\ \text{d) } x^2 + 4x - 12 & \text{e) } 3x^2 + 10x - 8 & \text{f) } x^3 - 4x^2 + 2x - 8 \end{array}$$

Solution:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{a) } x^4 - 16 = (x^2 + 4)(x^2 - 4) & \text{Difference of squares} \\ & = (x^2 + 4)(x + 2)(x - 2) \quad \text{Difference of squares} \\ \text{b) } x^3 - 1 = (x - 1)(x^2 + x + 1) & \text{Difference of cubes} \\ \text{c) } 9x^2 - 6x + 1 = (3x - 1)^2 & \text{Perfect square} \\ \text{d) } x^2 + 4x - 12 = (x + 6)(x - 2) & \text{The product of 6 and } -2 \text{ is } -12, \text{ and the sum of 6 and } -2 \text{ is 4} \\ \text{e) } 3x^2 + 10x - 8 = (3x - 2)(x + 4) & \\ \text{f) } x^3 - 4x^2 + 2x - 8 = (x^3 - 4x^2) + (2x - 8) & \text{Group terms} \quad \text{Known as factoring by grouping} \\ & = x^2(x - 4x) + 2(x - 4) \quad \text{Distributive Property} \\ & = (x^2 + 2)(x - 4) \quad \text{Distributive Property} \end{array}$$

Complete the Square

The idea behind completing the square in one variable is to “adjust” an expression of the form $x^2 + bx$ to make it a perfect square. Perfect squares are trinomials of the form $x^2 + 2ax + a^2 = (x + a)^2$ or $x^2 - 2ax + a^2 = (x - a)^2$. For example, $x^2 + 6x + 9$ is a perfect square because $x^2 + 6x + 9 = (x + 3)^2$ and $p^2 - 12p + 36$ is a perfect square because $p^2 - 12p + 36 = (p - 6)^2$.

So, how do you “adjust” $x^2 + bx$ to make it a perfect square? You do so by adding a number.

Completing the Square: To complete the square of the expression $x^2 + bx$, add the square of half of the

coefficient of x , that is, add $\left(\frac{b}{2}\right)^2$.

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

Example 8: Find the term that should be added to the expression to create a perfect square trinomial (perfect square).

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{a) } x^2 - 8x & \text{b) } x^2 + 7x \\ x^2 - 8x & \\ \left(\frac{b}{2}\right)^2 = \left(\frac{-8}{2}\right)^2 & \left(\frac{b}{2}\right)^2 = \left(\frac{7}{2}\right)^2 \\ = (-4)^2 & = \frac{49}{4} \\ = 16 & \\ x^2 - 8x + \left(\frac{-8}{2}\right)^2 = x^2 - 8x + (-4)^2 & x^2 + 7x + \left(\frac{7}{2}\right)^2 = x^2 + 7x + \frac{49}{4} \\ = x^2 - 8x + 16 & = \left(x + \frac{7}{2}\right)^2 \\ = (x - 4)^2 & \end{array}$$

Appendix A.3 – Polynomials (continued)

When completing the square, you need the leading coefficient a to be 1. If it is not 1, factor out a before completing the square.

Example 9: Solve $x^2 + 10x = 24$ by completing the square.

$$x^2 + 10x = 24$$

$$\left(\frac{b}{2}\right)^2 = \left(\frac{10}{2}\right)^2$$

$$= 5^2$$

$$= 25$$

$$x^2 + 10x + 25 = 24 + 25$$

$$(x + 5)^2 = 49$$

$$x + 5 = \pm\sqrt{49}$$

$$x + 5 = \pm 7$$

$$x = -5 \pm 7$$

$$x = -5 + 7 \text{ or } x = -5 - 7$$

$$x = 2 \text{ or } x = -12$$

Example 10: Solve $3x^2 - 6x - 9 = 0$ by completing the square.

$$3x^2 - 6x = 9$$

$$3(x^2 - 2x) = 9$$

$$\left(\frac{b}{2}\right)^2 = \left(\frac{-2}{2}\right)^2$$

$$= (-1)^2$$

$$= 1$$

$$3(x^2 - 2x + 1) = 9 + 3$$

$$3(x - 1)^2 = 12$$

$$(x - 1)^2 = 4$$

$$x - 1 = \pm\sqrt{4}$$

$$x - 1 = \pm 2$$

$$x = 1 \pm 2$$

$$x = 1 + 2 \text{ or } x = 1 - 2$$

$$x = 3 \text{ or } x = -1$$