Roots of a Polynomial

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§1 Introduction

We discuss algebraic manipulations with the roots of polynomials to find symmetric sums and to solve polynomials.

Q2 Symmetric Sums of Roots

2.1 Vieta's Formulas

To motivate this section, we give Vieta's upfront.

Vieta's Formulas. Consider polynomial $a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1 x + a_0$ with roots r_1, r_2, \ldots, r_n . Then

$$\sum_{1 \le i_1 < i_2 < \dots < i_k} r_{i_1} r_{i_2} \dots r_{i_k} = (-1)^k \frac{a_{n-k}}{a_n}.$$

So what does this mean, and what's the right way to think about Vieta's? The answer is through factoring the polynomial and matching coefficients.

Example (Quadratic). Let the roots of $x^2 + 7x - 30$ be r_1, r_2 . Find $r_1 + r_2$.

We're not going to just use Vieta's Theorem blindly here. Instead we'll try to motivate its discovery.

Solution. Note that $x^2 + 7x - 30 = (x - r_1)(x - r_2)$, **by definition**. Expanding gives $x^2 + 7x + 30 = x^2 - (r_1 + r_2)x + r_1r_2$. Matching coefficients

Let's explicitly formalize this matching coefficients idea.

Matching Coefficients. Consider polynomials $f(x) = a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + \cdots$ and $g(x) = b_0 + b_1 x + b_2 x^2 + \cdots$. Then f(x) = g(x) if and only if $a_i = b_i$ for all i.

With this idea in mind we can now prove Vieta's formulas.

Proof (Vieta's Formulas). Expand $(x - r_1)(x - r_2)...(x - r_n)$ and compare its coefficients with the coefficients of $a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1 x + a_0$.

¹We use \cdots even though the polynomials are terminating because $a_k = 0$ for all $k > \deg f$. In other words, at some point it's just coefficients of 0 going forward.

2.2 Newton's Sums

Newton's Sums are about the sum $r_1^k + r_2^k + \cdots + r_n^k$, where r_1, r_2, \ldots, r_k are the roots of some polynomial P. These sums are often called **power sums**.

Newton's Sums. Consider some degree n polynomial $P(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_0$ with roots r_1, r_2, \ldots, r_n . Then let $Z_k = r_1^k + r_2^k + \cdots + r_n^k$. Then

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n} a_i Z_{k-n+i} = a_n Z_k + a_{n-1} Z_{k-1} + \dots + a_{n-(k-1)} Z_1 + a_0 Z_{k-n} = 0.$$

The proof is actually surprisingly obvious.

Proof. Note that for any root x of P(x), $x^{k-n}(a_nx^n + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_0) = 0 = a_nx^k + a_{n-1}x^{k-1} + \cdots + a_0x^{k-n}$. Now just take $x = r_1, r_2, \ldots, r_n$ and sum all the equations.

Here's a direct example of Newton's Sums.

Example (AMC 12A 2019/17). Let s_k denote the sum of the kth powers of the roots of the polynomial $x^3 - 5x^2 + 8x - 13$. In particular, $s_0 = 3$, $s_1 = 5$, and $s_2 = 9$. Let a, b, and c be real numbers such that $s_{k+1} = as_k + bs_{k-1} + cs_{k-2}$ for k = 2, 3, ... What is a + b + c?

Solution. By Newton's Sums, $s_{k+1} - 5s_k + 8s_{k-1} - 13s_{k-2}$, or $s_{k+1} = 5s_k - 8s_{k-1} + 13s_{k-2}$. Thus a + b + c = 5 - 8 + 13 = 10.

2.3 Reciprocal Roots

Reciprocal Roots. If $f(x) = a_k x^k + a_{k-1} x^{k-1} \dots + a_0$ has roots $r_1, r_2 \dots r_k$, then $g(x) = a_0 x^k + a_1 x^{k-1} \dots + a_k$ has roots $\frac{1}{r_1}, \frac{1}{r_2} \dots \frac{1}{r_k}$.

Proof With Vieta's. Use Vieta's to show that the polynomial with roots $\frac{1}{r_1}$, $\frac{1}{r_2}$... $\frac{1}{r_k}$ and leading coefficient a_0 is indeed g(x).

Proof Without Vieta's. Alternatively, consider $f(\frac{1}{x})$. $f(\frac{1}{x})$ has reciprocal roots so $x^k(\frac{1}{x^k}a_k + \frac{1}{x^{k-1}}a_{k-1}...+a_0 = a_0x^k + a_1x^{k-1}...+a_k) = (x - \frac{1}{r_1})(x - \frac{1}{r_2})...(x - \frac{1}{r_k})$

After doing this, you can find symmetric sums of $\frac{1}{r_1} \dots \frac{1}{r_k}$ using Vieta's and other polynomial techniques. In many cases like computing $\frac{1}{r_1} \dots + \frac{1}{r_k}$ or $\sum \frac{1}{r_i r_j}$, it's simply easier to combine under a common denominator and apply Vieta's on f(x). However, this trick is very useful for sums like $\frac{1}{r_1^2} + \frac{1}{r_2^2} \dots + \frac{1}{r_k^2}$ where the numerator isn't very easy to work with using the original roots. In this example, once you switch to the reciprocal roots, it simply becomes Newton's Sums. This often trivializes certain problems.

One interesting corollary of this is that for polynomials with palindromic coefficients, that is $a_i = a_{k-i}$, r is a root of f(x) if and only if $\frac{1}{r}$ is a root.

Example (AMC 12B 2021/16). Let g(x) be a polynomial with leading coefficient 1, whose three roots are the reciprocals of the three roots of $f(x) = x^3 + ax^2 + bx + c$, where 1 < a < b < c. What is g(1) in terms of a, b, and c?

Solution. Using the previous theorem, $cx^3 + bx^2 + ax + 1$ has the reciprocal roots of f(x). Then, we divide by c to get a leading coefficient of 1 so $g(x) = \frac{cx^3 + bx^2 + ax + 1}{c}$. Hence, $g(1) = \frac{a + b + c + 1}{c}$.

3 Solving Polynomials

3.1 Substitutions

The big idea is that you make substitutions to simplify a seemingly very complicated equation such as a quartic or higher degree polynomial. Then, you work backwards to find the solutions in the original variable. In this section, we'll present some common substitutions.

Note that a common substitution is $y = x + \frac{1}{x}$, particularly for polynomials which are palindromic.

Example (HMMT February 2014). Find all real numbers k such that $r^4 + kr^3 + r^2 + 4kr + 16 = 0$ is true for exactly one real number r.

Solution. We divide by r^2 to get $r^2 + \frac{16}{r^2} + k(r + \frac{4}{r}) + 1 = 0$. Then substitute $t = r + \frac{4}{r}$ to get

$$t^{2} - 8 + kt + 1 = 0$$

$$t^{2} + kt - 7 = 0$$

$$k^{2} - 28 = 0$$

$$k = \pm 2\sqrt{7}$$

When you have a factorization of the form (x + a)(x + b)(x + c)(x + d) where a + d = b + c = k, group together $(x + a)(x + d) = x^2 + kx + ad$ and $(x + b)(x + c) = x^2 + kx + bc$. Then substituting $y = x^2 + kx$, or in some cases $y = x^2 + kx + \frac{ad + bc}{2}$ to take advantage of difference of squares, will help This applies more generally in that you should try to group together terms to produce polynomials that

This applies more generally in that you should try to group together terms to produce polynomials that only differ in the constant term.

Example (AMC 10A 2019/19). What is the least possible value of

$$(x+1)(x+2)(x+3)(x+4) + 2019$$

where x is a real number?

Solution. We group together $(x + 1)(x + 4) = x^2 + 5x + 4$ and $(x + 2)(x + 3) = x^2 + 5x + 6$. We make the substitution $y = x^2 + 5x + 5$. Then, the expression is $(y - 1)(y + 1) + 2019 = y^2 + 2018 \ge 2018$ with equality if y = 0. We use the quadratic formula and see that $\Delta^a > 0$, so y = 0 is actually possible. Then, the minimum is **2018**.

^aThis denotes the discriminant of the quadratic.

3.2 Symmetry

Basically, we use some kind of symmetry in the function to find solutions. This can just be that the function is symmetric about x = c. Note that if we make a substitution, we can use the symmetry of the substitution, even if the polynomial in terms of the substitution isn't actually symmetric.

Example (HMMT February 2014). Find the sum of all real numbers x such that $5x^4 + 10x^3 + 10x^2 + 5x - 11 = 0$.

Solution. First, note that we cannot just use Vieta's because it specifies real roots. Now, to make the equation more symmetric, we rewrite this as

$$5x^4 + 10x^3 + 10x^2 + 5x = 11.$$

The left hand, which we will call f(x), side factors to

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

$$= 5(x + 1)(x^3 + x^2 + x)$$

$$= 5x(x + 1)(x^2 + x + 1)$$

$$= 5(x^2 + x)(x^2 + x + 1)$$

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

which is a polynomial in $x^2 + x$. Since $x^2 + x$ is symmetric about $\frac{-1}{2}$, f(x) is also symmetric about $\frac{-1}{2}$. This implies that if f(x) = -11, then f(-1 - x) = 11. So, the real solution x's come in pairs that sum to -1 (note that $\frac{-1}{2}$ isn't a solution). Now we need to find the number of these pairs. We subtitute in

$$5k^2 + 5k = 11 \implies 5k^2 + 5k - 11$$

 $5\kappa + 5\kappa = 11 \implies 5\kappa^- + 5k - 11$ which has solutions $\frac{-5\pm7\sqrt{5}}{10}$. Now, note that $5k^2 + 5k = 5(k+\frac{1}{2})^2 - \frac{5}{4}$ so it has a minimum of $\frac{-5}{4}$. Then, $\frac{-5-7\sqrt{5}}{10}$ is less than this minimum but $\frac{-5+7\sqrt{5}}{10}$ is greater than this minimum. So, there is only one pair, yielding an answer of -1.

3.3 Polynomial Interpolation

Fundamental Theorem of Algebra. If a polynomial f(x) has degree d > 0, then it has d complex roots.

Equal Polynomials. If two polynomials f(x) has degree d and g(x) has a degree less than or equal to d and f(x) = g(x) for $x_1, x_2 ... x_{d+1}$, then f(x) = g(x).

Proof. Consider the polynomial f(x) - g(x) which has degree at most d. Then, f(x) - g(x) has d + 1 roots $x_1, x_2 \dots x_{d+1}$. Because there are more roots than the degree d, by the Fundamental Theorem of Algebra, this implies that f(x) - g(x) is the zero polynomial and that $f(x) - g(x) = 0 \implies f(x) = g(x)$.

Example (Mandelbrot). There is a unique polynomial P(x) of the form

$$P(x) = 7x^7 + c_1x^6 + c_2x^5 + \dots + c_6x + c_7$$

such that P(1) = 1, P(2) = 2, ..., and P(7) = 7. Find P(0).

Solution. Note that P(x) - x has the 7 roots 1, 2...7. By the Fundamental Theorem of Algebra, it can have no other roots so $P(x) - x = a(x - 1)(x - 2) \cdots (x - 7)$. We are given that the leading coefficient of P(x) is 7 so a = 7. Then, $P(0) - 0 = -7! \cdot 7 = -35280$.

3.4 Root Rules

This is an assorted collection of rules and theorems about the roots of a polynomials. These don't come up often as the whole problem but may be useful as intermediate steps.

Descartes' Rule of Signs. The number of sign changes in the coefficients of a polynomial f(x) is the maximum possible number of positive zeros. Also, the number of sign changes in the coefficients of polynomial f(-x) from is the maximum possible number of negative zeros.

Example. Using Descartes' Rule of Signs, what is the maximum number of positive real solutions to $x^4 - x^3 + x^2 + 1$?

Solution. The coefficients change sign two times, 1 to -1 and -1 to 1. So, 2.

Rational Root Theorem. A rational root of the polynomial $f(x) = a_k x^k + a_{k-1} x^{k-1} \dots + a_0$ is in the form $\frac{p}{a}$ where p, q are relatively prime integers such that $p|a_0$ and $q|a_k$.

Conjugate Root Theorem. If a polynomial f(x) with real coefficients has a complex root a + bi, then the complex conjugate a - bi is also a root.

Example. Find the roots of the polynomial $x^4 - 14x^3 + 71x^2 - 136x + 58$ given that 5 - 2i is a root.

Solution. By Conjugate Root Theorem, 5+2i is also a root. Then, $(x-5-2i)(x-5+2i) = x^2-10x+29$. We apply long division and the Quadratic Formula on x^2-4x+2 to find the other roots of $2\pm\sqrt{2}$.

Radical Conjugate Root Theorem. If a polynomial f(x) with rational coefficients has a root of the form $a + b\sqrt{c}$, then $a - b\sqrt{c}$ is also a root.

Q4 Problems

Minimum is [60 ♣]. Problems denoted with ♠ are required. (They still count towards the point total.)

"It is the time you have wasted for your rose that makes your rose so important."

The Little Prince

[1 **Å**] Problem 1 (AMC 12B 2019/8)

Let $f(x) = x^2(1-x)^2$. What is the value of the sum

$$f\left(\frac{1}{2019}\right) - f\left(\frac{2}{2019}\right) + f\left(\frac{3}{2019}\right) - f\left(\frac{4}{2019}\right) + \dots + f\left(\frac{2017}{2019}\right) - f\left(\frac{2018}{2019}\right)$$
?

[2 **A**] **Problem 2 (BMT 2015)** Let r, s, and t be the three roots of the equation $8x^3 + 1001x + 2008 = 0$. Find $(r+s)^3 + (s+t)^3 + (t+r)^3$.

[3 **≜**] **Problem 3 (PuMAC 2019)** Let Q be a quadratic polynomial. If the sum of the roots of $Q^{100}(x)$ (where $Q^i(x)$ is defined by $Q^1(x) = Q(x)$, $Q^i(x) = Q(Q^{i-1}(x))$ for integers $i \ge 2$) is 8 and the sum of the roots of Q is S, compute $|\log_2(S)|$.

[3 \blacktriangle] **Problem 4 (PHS HMMT TST 2020)** Let a, b, c be the distinct real roots of $x^3 + 2x + 5$. Find $(8 - a^3)(8 - b^3)(8 - c^3)$.

[3 \triangle] **Problem 5 (AMC 10A 2017/24)** For certain real numbers a, b, and c, the polynomial

$$g(x) = x^3 + ax^2 + x + 10$$

has three distinct roots, and each root of g(x) is also a root of the polynomial

$$f(x) = x^4 + x^3 + bx^2 + 100x + c.$$

What is f(1)?

[3 \triangle] **Problem 6 (AMC 10A 2019/24)** Let p, q, and r be the distinct roots of the polynomial $x^3 - 22x^2 + 80x - 67$. It is given that there exist real numbers A, B, and C such that

$$\frac{1}{s^3 - 22s^2 + 80s - 67} = \frac{A}{s - p} + \frac{B}{s - q} + \frac{C}{s - r}$$

for all $s \notin \{p, q, r\}$. What is $\frac{1}{A} + \frac{1}{B} + \frac{1}{C}$?

[3 \triangle] **Problem 7 (Canada)** If a, b, c are roots of $a^3 - a - 1 = 0$, compute

$$\frac{1+a}{1-a} + \frac{1+b}{1-b} + \frac{1+c}{1-c}$$

[3 **A**] **Problem 8 (William Dai)** If r_1 , r_2 , r_3 and r_4 are the roots of $x^4 + 5x^3 + 3x^2 + 2x + 1$, find $\frac{1}{r_1^3} + \frac{1}{r_2^3} + \frac{1}{r_3^3} + \frac{1}{r_4^3}$.

[3 **A**] **Problem 9 (AIME 1993/5)** Let $P_0(x) = x^3 + 313x^2 - 77x - 8$. For integers $n \ge 1$, define $P_n(x) = P_{n-1}(x-n)$. What is the coefficient of x in $P_{20}(x)$?

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[4 **Å**] Problem 10 (BMT 2019)

Let r_1 , r_2 , r_3 be the (possibly complex) roots of the polynomial $x^3 + ax^2 + bx + \frac{4}{3}$. How many pairs of integers a, b exist such that $r_1^3 + r_2^3 + r_3^3 = 0$?

- [4 2] **Problem 11 (AMC 12B 2017/23)** The graph of y = f(x), where f(x) is a polynomial of degree 3, contains points A(2,4), B(3,9), and C(4,16). Lines AB, AC, and BC intersect the graph again at points D, E, and F, respectively, and the sum of the x-coordinates of D, E, and F is 24. What is f(0)?
- [4 **A**] **Problem 12 (FARML 2007/T9)** For fixed numbers x, y, z, let $p(n) = x^n + y^n + z^n$. If p(2) = 2, $p(4) = \frac{3}{2}$, and $p(6) = \frac{29}{24}$, compute p(8).
- [4 \clubsuit] **Problem 13 (David's Problem Stash)** Let a, b, and c be nonzero real numbers such that a + b + c = 0 and

$$28(a^4 + b^4 + c^4) = a^7 + b^7 + c^7.$$

Find $a^3 + b^3 + c^3$.

[4 \clubsuit] **Problem 14** Give all unordered pairs of (x, y) where x and y are complex numbers satisfying:

$$x + y = 3$$

$$x^5 + y^5 = 33$$

- [4 **2**] **Problem 15 (HMMT 2008)** The equation $x^3 9x^2 + 8x + 2 = 0$ has three real roots p, q, r. Find $\frac{1}{p^2} + \frac{1}{q^2} + \frac{1}{r^2}$.
- [4 **A**] **Problem 16 (NanoMath Fall Meet 2020)** If x + y = 6 and $x^3 + y^3 = 108$, find $x^5 + y^5$.
- [6 **Å**] Problem 17 (AIME I 2014/14)

Let *m* be the largest real solution to the equation

$$\frac{3}{x-3} + \frac{5}{x-5} + \frac{17}{x-17} + \frac{19}{x-19} = x^2 - 11x - 4$$

There are positive integers a, b, and c such that $m = a + \sqrt{b + \sqrt{c}}$. Find a + b + c.

[6 **Å**] **Problem 18 (SLKK AIME 2020)** Let a, b, and c be the three distinct solutions to $x^3 - 4x^2 + 5x + 1 = 0$. Find

$$(a^3 + b^3)(a^3 + c^3)(b^3 + c^3).$$

[6 \clubsuit] **Problem 19 (AIME I 2019/10)** For distinct complex numbers $z_1, z_2, \ldots, z_{673}$, the polynomial

$$(x-z_1)^3(x-z_2)^3\cdots(x-z_{673})^3$$

can be expressed as $x^{2019} + 20x^{2018} + 19x^{2017} + g(x)$, where g(x) is a polynomial with complex coefficients and with degree at most 2016. The value of

$$\left| \sum_{1 \le j < k \le 673} z_j z_k \right|$$

can be expressed in the form $\frac{m}{n}$, where m and n are relatively prime positive integers. Find m + n.

[9 **Å**] **Problem 20 (HMMT Feburary 2017)** A polynomial P of degree 2015 satisfies the equation $P(n) = \frac{1}{n^2}$ for n = 1, 2, ..., 2016. Find $\lfloor 2017P(2017) \rfloor$

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[9 \blacktriangle] **Problem 21 (AIME 1990/15)** Find $ax^5 + by^5$ if the real numbers a, b, x, and y satisfy the equations

$$ax + by = 3,$$

$$ax^{2} + by^{2} = 7,$$

$$ax^{3} + by^{3} = 16,$$

$$ax^{4} + by^{4} = 42.$$

[12 **A**] **Problem 22 (HMMT February 2020)** Let P(x) be the unique polynomial of degree at most 2020 satisfying $P(k^2) = k$ for k = 0, 1, 2, ..., 2020. Compute $P(2021^2)$.