### 0.1 Factorization

## 0.1 The Quadratic Identities

For two real numbers a and b, we have

$$(a+b)^2 = a^2 + 2ab + b^2$$
 (1st square formula)

$$(a-b)^2 = a^2 - 2ab + b^2$$
 (2nd square formula)

$$(a+b)(a-b) = a^2 - b^2$$
 (3rd square formula)

# The language box

 $(a+b)^2$  and  $(a-b)^2$  are called **complete squares**.

The 3rd square formula is also called the **conjugate formula**.

All the square formulas are *identities*. An **identity** is an equation that is satisfied no matter which values are given to the variables in the equation.

### Example 1

Rewrite  $a^2 + 8a + 16$  to a complete square.

$$a^{2} + 8a + 16 = a^{2} + 2 \cdot 4a + 4^{2}$$
  
=  $(a+4)^{2}$ 

## Example 2

Rewrite  $k^2 + 6k + 7$  to an expression where k is part of a complete square.

#### Answer

$$k^{2} + 6k + 7 = k^{2} + 2 \cdot 3k + 7$$
$$= k^{2} + 2 \cdot 3k + 3^{2} - 3^{2} + 7$$
$$= (k+3)^{2} - 2$$

### Example 3

Factorize  $x^2 - 10x + 16$ .

#### Answer

We start by creating a complete square:

$$x^{2} - 10x + 16 = x^{2} - 2 \cdot 5x + 5^{2} - 5^{2} + 16$$
$$= (x - 5)^{2} - 9$$

We note that  $9 = 3^2$ , and use the 3rd square formula:

$$(x-5)^2 - 3^2 = (x-5+3)(x-5-3)$$
$$= (x-2)(x-8)$$

Thus,

$$x^2 - 10x + 16 = (x - 2)(x - 8)$$

## 0.1 The Quadratic Identities (explanation)

The square formulas follow directly from the distributive law in multiplication (see MB).

### 0.2 The Sum-Product Method

Given  $x, b, c \in \mathbb{R}$ . If  $a_1 + a_2 = b$  and  $a_1 a_2 = c$ , then

$$x^{2} + bx + c = (x + a_{1})(x + a_{2})$$
(1)

### Example 1

Factorize the expression  $x^2 - x - 6$ .

#### Answer

Since 
$$2(-3) = -6$$
 and  $2 + (-3) = -1$ , we have 
$$x^2 - 1x - 6 = (x+2)(x-3)$$

### Example 2

Factorize the expression  $b^2 - 5b + 4$ .

#### Answer

Since 
$$(-4)(-1) = 4$$
 and  $(-4) + (-1) = -5$ , we have

$$b^2 - 5b + 4 = (b - 4)(b - 1)$$

## Example 3

Solve the inequality

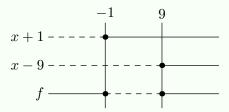
$$x^2 - 8x - 9 \le 0$$

#### Answer

Since 1(-9) = -9 and 1 + (-9) = -8, we have

$$x^2 - 8x - 9 = (x+1)(x-9)$$

We set f = (x+1)(x-9), and make a sign table:



The sign table shows the following:

- The expression x + 1 is negative when x < -1, equals 0 when x = -1, and is positive when x > -1.
- The expression x 9 is negative when x < 9, equals zero 0 when x = 9, and is positive when x > 9.

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• Since f = (x+1)(x-9),

$$f > 0$$
 when  $x \in [-\infty, -1) \cup (9, \infty]$   
 $f = 0$  when  $x \in \{-1, 9\}$   
 $f < 0$  when  $x \in (-1, 9)$ 

Therefore,  $x^2 - 8x - 9 \le 0$  when  $x \in [-1, 9]$ .

# 0.2 The Sum-Product Method (explanation)

We have

$$(x + a_1)(x + a_2) = x^2 + xa_2 + a_1x + a_1a_2$$
  
=  $x^2 + (a_1 + a_2)x + a_1a_2$ 

If  $a_1 + a_2 = b$  og  $a_1 a_2 = c$ , then

$$(x + a_1)(x + a_2) = x^2 + bx + c$$

# 0.2 Quadratic Equations

### 0.3 Quadratic equation with constant term

Given the equation

$$ax^2 + bx + c = 0 (2)$$

where  $a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then

$$x = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$$
 (abc-formula)

If  $x = x_1$  and  $x = x_2$  are the solutions given by the *abc*-formula, is

$$ax^{2} + bx + c = a(x - x_{1})(x - x_{2})$$
(3)

### Example 1

- a) Solve the equation  $2x^2 7x + 5 = 0$ .
- b) Factorize the expression on the left side in task a).

#### Answer

a) We use the *abc*-formula. Then  $a=2,\,b=-7$  and c=5. Now we get that

$$x = \frac{-(-7) \pm \sqrt{(-7)^2 - 4 \cdot 2 \cdot 5}}{2 \cdot 2}$$

$$= \frac{7 \pm \sqrt{49 - 40}}{4}$$

$$= \frac{7 \pm \sqrt{9}}{4}$$

$$= \frac{7 \pm 3}{4}$$

$$x = \frac{7+3}{4} = \frac{10}{4} = \frac{5}{2}$$

or

$$x = \frac{7-3}{4} = 1$$

b) 
$$2x^2 - 7x + 5 = 2(x-1)\left(x - \frac{5}{2}\right)$$

## Example 2

Solve the equation

$$x^2 + 3x - 10 = 0$$

#### Answer

We use the *abc*-formula. Then  $a=1,\,b=3,$  and c=-10. Now we get that

$$x = \frac{-3 \pm \sqrt{3^2 - 4 \cdot 1 \cdot (-10)}}{2 \cdot 1}$$

$$= \frac{-3 \pm \sqrt{9 + 40}}{2}$$

$$= \frac{-3 \pm \sqrt{49}}{2}$$

$$= \frac{-3 \pm 7}{2}$$

Thus

$$x = -5$$
  $\vee$   $x = 2$ 

## Example 3

Solve the equation

$$4x^2 - 8x + 1 = 0$$

### Answer

By the abc-formula, we have that

$$x = \frac{8 \pm \sqrt{(-8)^2 - 4 \cdot 4 \cdot 1}}{2 \cdot 4}$$

$$= \frac{8 \pm \sqrt{64 - 16}}{8}$$

$$= \frac{8 \pm \sqrt{48}}{8}$$

$$= \frac{8 \pm 4\sqrt{3}}{8}$$

$$= \frac{2 \pm \sqrt{3}}{2}$$

Thus

$$x = \frac{2 + \sqrt{3}}{2} \quad \lor \quad x = \frac{2 - \sqrt{3}}{2}$$

## Quadratic Equations (explanation)

Given the equation

$$ax^2 + bx + c = 0$$

We start by rewriting the equation:

$$x^2 + \frac{b}{a}x + \frac{c}{a} = 0$$

Then we make a perfect square and use the conjugate root theorem to factorize the expression:

$$x^{2} + \frac{b}{a}x + \frac{c}{a} = x^{2} + 2 \cdot \frac{b}{2a}x + \frac{c}{a}$$

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

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

$$= \left(x + \frac{b}{2a}\right)^{2} - \left(\sqrt{\frac{b^{2} - 4ac}{4a^{2}}}\right)^{2}$$

$$= \left(x + \frac{b}{2a} + \frac{\sqrt{b^{2} - 4ac}}{2a}\right) \left(x + \frac{b}{2a} - \frac{\sqrt{b^{2} - 4ac}}{2a}\right)$$

The expression above equals 0 when

$$x = \frac{-b + \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a} \qquad \lor \qquad x = \frac{-b - \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$$

# 0.3 Polynomial Division

#### 0.3.1 Methods

When two given numbers are not divisible by each other, we can use fractions to express the quotient. For example,

$$\frac{17}{3} = 5 + \frac{2}{3} \tag{4}$$

The idea behind (4) is that we rewrite the numerator so that we bring out the part of 17 that is divisible by 3:

$$\frac{17}{3} = \frac{5 \cdot 3 + 2}{3} = 5 + \frac{2}{3}$$

The same reasoning can be applied to fractions with polynomials, and then it's called **polynomial division**.

### Example 1

Perform polynomial division on the expression

$$\frac{2x^2 + 3x - 4}{x + 5}$$

#### Answer

Method 1

We do the following steps; starting with the highest power of x in the numerator, we create expressions that are divisible by the

denominator.

$$\frac{2x^2 + 3x - 4}{x + 5} = \frac{2x(x + 5) - 10x + 3x - 4}{x + 5}$$
$$= 2x + \frac{-7x - 4}{x + 5}$$
$$= 2x + \frac{-7(x + 5) + 35 - 4}{x + 5}$$
$$= 2x - 7 + \frac{31}{x + 5}$$

#### Method 2

\_\_\_\_\_ (See the calculation under the points)

- i) We observe that the term with the highest order of x in the dividend is  $2x^2$ . This expression can be obtained by multiplying the dividend by 2x. We write 2x to the right of the equals sign, and subtract  $2x(x+5) = 2x^2 + 10x$ .
- ii) The difference from point ii) is -7x 4. We can bring out the term with the highest order of x by multiplying the dividend by -7. We write -7 to the right of the equals sign, and subtract -7(x+5) = -7x 35.
- iii) The difference from point iii) is 31. This is an expression that has a lower order of x than the dividend, and thus we write  $\frac{31}{x+5}$  to the right of the equals sign.

$$(2x^{2} + 3x - 4) : (x + 5) = 2x - 7 + \frac{31}{x + 5}$$

$$- \underbrace{(2x^{2} + 10x)}_{-7x - 4}$$

$$- \underbrace{(-7x - 35)}_{31}$$

## Example 2

Perform polynomial division on the expression

$$\frac{x^3 - 4x^2 + 9}{x^2 - 2}$$

#### Answer

#### Method 1

$$\frac{x^3 - 4x^2 + 9}{x^2 - 2} = \frac{x(x^2 - 2) + 2x - 4x^2 + 9}{x^2 - 2}$$

$$= x + \frac{-4x^2 + 2x + 9}{x^2 - 2}$$

$$= x + \frac{-4(x^2 - 2) - 8 + 2x + 9}{x^2 - 2}$$

$$= x - 4 + \frac{2x + 1}{x^2 - 2}$$

## Method 2

$$(x^{3} - 4x^{2} + 9) : (x^{2} - 2) = x - 4 + \frac{2x + 1}{x^{2} - 2}$$

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

$$-4x^{2} + 2x + 9$$

$$-(-4x^{2} + 8)$$

$$2x + 1$$

## Example 3

Perform polynomial division on the expression

$$\frac{x^3 - 3x^2 - 6x + 8}{x - 4}$$

#### Answer

Method 1

$$\frac{x^3 - 3x^2 - 6x + 8}{x - 4} = \frac{x^2(x - 4) + 4x^2 - 3x^2 - 6x + 8}{x - 4}$$

$$= x^2 + \frac{x^2 - 6x + 8}{x - 4}$$

$$= x^2 + \frac{x(x - 4) + 4x - 6x + 8}{x - 4}$$

$$= x^2 + x + \frac{-2x + 8}{x - 4}$$

$$= x^2 + x - 2$$

Method 2

$$(x^{3} - 3x^{2} - 6x + 8) : (x - 4) = x^{2} + x - 2$$

$$-(x^{3} - 4x^{2})$$

$$x^{2} - 6x + 8$$

$$-(-x^{2} + 4x)$$

$$-2x + 8$$

$$-(-2x + 8)$$

$$0$$

## 0.3.2 Divisibility and Factors

The examples on pages 11-15 point to some important relationships that apply to general cases:

## 0.4 Polynomial Division

Let  $A_k$  denote a polynomial A of degree k. Given the polynomial  $P_m$ , then there exist polynomials  $Q_n$ ,  $S_{m-n}$ , and  $R_{n-1}$ , where  $m \ge n > 0$ , such that

$$\frac{P_m}{Q_n} = S_{m-n} + \frac{R_{n-1}}{Q_n} \tag{5}$$

## The language box

If  $R_{n-1} = 0$ , we say that  $P_m$  is **divisible** by  $Q_n$ .

### Example 1

Investigate whether the polynomials are divisible by x-3.

a) 
$$P(x) = x^3 + 5x^2 - 22x - 56$$

b) 
$$K(x) = x^3 + 6x^2 - 13x - 42$$

#### Answer

a) By polynomial division, we find that

$$\frac{P}{x-3} = x^2 + 8x + 2 - \frac{50}{x-3}$$

Thus, P is not divisible by x-3.

b) By polynomial division, we find that

$$\frac{K}{x-3} = x^2 + 9x + 14$$

Thus, K is divisible by x-3.

### 0.5 Factors in Polynomials

Given a polynomial P(x) and a constant a. Then we have that

$$P$$
 is divisible by  $x - a \iff P(a) = 0$  (6)

If this is true, there exists a polynomial S(x) such that

$$P = (a - x)S \tag{7}$$

### Example 1

Given the polynomial

$$P(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 - 6x + 8$$

- a) Show that x = 1 solves the equation P = 0.
- b) Factorize P.

#### Answer

a) We investigate P(1):

$$P(1) = 1^3 - 3 \cdot 1^2 - 6 \cdot 1 + 8$$
$$= 0$$

Thus, P = 0 when x = 1.

b) Since P(1) = 0, x - 1 is a factor in P. By polynomial division, we find that

$$P = (x-1)(x^2 - 2x - 8)$$

Since 2(-4) = -8 and -4 + 2 = -2, we have

$$x^{2} - 2x - 8 = (x+2)(x-4)$$

This means that

$$P = (x-1)(x+2)(x-4)$$

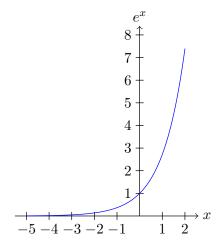
### 0.4 Euler's Number

**Euler's Number** is a constant of such significant importance in mathematics that it has been given its own letter; **e**. The number is irrational<sup>1</sup>, and the first ten digits are

$$e = 2.718281828...$$

The most fascinating properties of this number become apparent when investigating the function  $f(x) = e^x$ . This is an exponential function of such importance that it is simply known as

the exponential function. This function will be examined more closely in Appendix ?? and Chapter ??.



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>And transcendental.

# 0.5 Logarithms

In MB, we looked at powers, which consist of a base and an exponent. A **logarithm** is a mathematical operation relative to a number. If a logarithm is relative to the base of a power, the operation will result in the exponent.

The logarithm relative to 10 is written  $\log_{10}$ . For example,

$$\log_{10} 10^2 = 2$$

Furthermore, for example,

$$\log_{10} 1000 = \log_{10} 10^3 = 3$$

Consequently, we can write

$$1000 = 10^{\log_{10} 1000}$$

With the power rules as a starting point (see MB), many rules for logarithms can be derived.

## 0.6 Logarithms

Let  $\log_a$  denote the logarithm relative to a > 0. For  $m \in \mathbb{R}$ , then

$$\log_a a^m = m \tag{8}$$

Alternatively, we can write

$$m = a^{\log_a m} \tag{9}$$

Example 1 
$$\log_5 5^9 = 9$$

Example 2 
$$3 = 8^{\log_8 3}$$

## The language box

 $\log_{10}$  is often written as  $\log$ , while  $\log_e$  is often written as  $\ln$  or (!)  $\log$ . When using digital aids to find logarithm values, it is therefore important to check what the base is. In this book, we shall write  $\log_e$  as  $\ln$ .

The logarithm with e as the base is called the **natural logarithm**.

Example 3

$$\log 10^7 = 7$$

Example 4

$$\ln e^{-3} = -3$$

## 0.7 Logarithm Rules

Note: The logarithm rules are here given by the natural logarithm. The same rules will apply by replacing  $\ln$  with  $\log_a$ , and e with a, for a>0.

For x, y > 0, we have that

$$ln e = 1$$
(10)

$$ln 1 = 0$$
(11)

$$ln(xy) = ln x + ln y$$
(12)

$$\ln\left(\frac{x}{y}\right) = \ln x - \ln y \tag{13}$$

For a number y and x > 0, is

$$ln x^y = y ln x$$
(14)

**Example 1** 
$$\ln(ex^5) = \ln e + \ln x^5 = 1 + 5 \ln x$$

Example 2 
$$\ln \frac{1}{2} = \ln 1 - \ln 2 = -\ln 2$$

## Logarithm Rules (explanation)

Equation (10)

$$\ln e = \ln e^1 = 1$$

Equation (11)

$$ln 1 = ln e^0 = 0$$

## Equation (12)

For  $m, n \in \mathbb{R}$ , we have that

$$\ln e^{m+n} = m+n$$
$$= \ln e^m + \ln e^n$$

We set  $x = e^m$  and  $y = e^n$ . Since  $\ln e^{m+n} = \ln(e^m \cdot e^n)$ , then

$$\ln(xy) = \ln x + \ln y$$

#### Equation (13)

By examining  $\ln a^{m-n}$ , and by setting  $y = a^{-n}$ , the explanation is analogous to that given for equation (12).

## Equation (14)

Since 
$$x = e^{\ln x}$$
 and  $\left(e^{\ln x}\right)^y = e^{y \ln x}$ , we have that 
$$\ln x^y = \ln e^{y \ln x}$$
$$= y \ln x$$

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>It is taken for granted here that all positive numbers different from 0 can be expressed as a power.

 $<sup>^2</sup>$ See power rules in MB.

# 0.6 Explanations

## 0.4 Polynomial Division (explanation)

Given the polynomials

 $P_m$ , where  $ax^m$  is the term with the highest degree

 $Q_n$ , where  $bx^n$  is the term with the highest degree

Then we can write

$$P_m = \frac{a}{b}x^{m-n}Q_n - \frac{a}{b}x^{m-n}Q_n + P_m$$

We set  $U = -\frac{a}{b}x^{m-n}Q_n + P_m$ , and note that U necessarily has a degree lower or equal to m-1. Further, we have that

$$\frac{P_m}{Q_n} = \frac{a}{b}x^{m-n} + \frac{U}{Q_n} \tag{15}$$

Let's call the first and the second term on the right side in (15) respectively a "power term" and a "remaining fraction". By following the procedure that led us to (15), we can also express  $\frac{U}{Q_n}$  by a "power term" and a "remaining term". This "power term" will have a degree less or equal to m-1, while the numerator in the "remaining term" will have a degree less or equal to m-2. By applying (15) we can continually create new "power terms" and "remaining terms" until we have a "remaining term" with a degree of n-1.

## 0.5 Factorization of Polynomials (explanation)

P is divisible by  $x - a \Rightarrow P(a) = 0$ .

For a polynomial S, we have from (5) that

$$\frac{P}{x-a} = S$$
$$P = (x-a)S$$

Then obviously x = a is a solution for the equation P = 0.

P is divisible by  $x - a \Leftarrow P(a) = 0$ .

From (5), there exists a polynomial S and a constant R such that

$$\frac{P}{x-a} = S + \frac{R}{x-a}$$

$$P = (x-a)S + R$$

Since P(a) = 0, 0 = R, and then P is divisible by x - a.