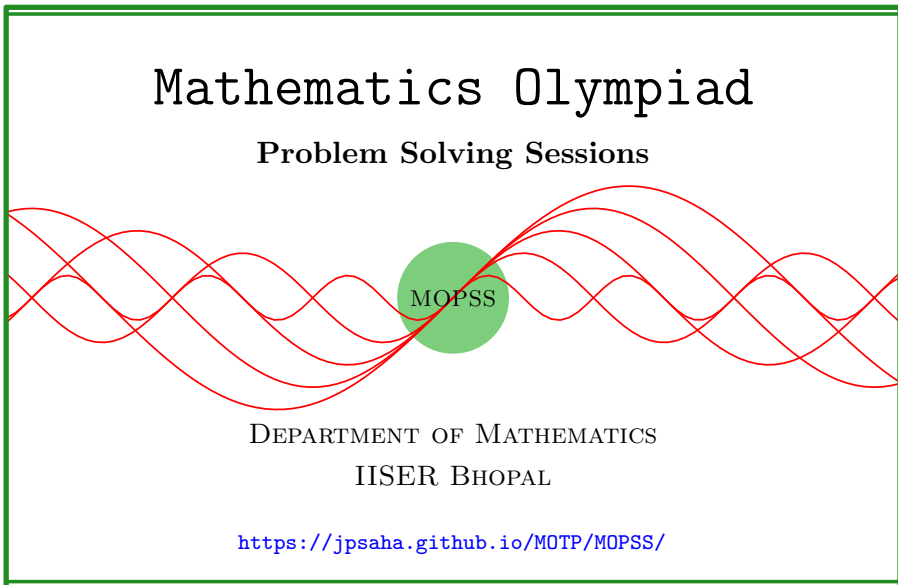


# Quadratic polynomials

MOPSS

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## Suggested readings

- **Evan Chen's**
  - advice *On reading solutions*, available at <https://blog.evanchen.cc/2017/03/06/on-reading-solutions/>.
  - *Advice for writing proofs/Remarks on English*, available at <https://web.evanchen.cc/handouts/english/english.pdf>.
- **Evan Chen** discusses why *math olympiads are a valuable experience for high schoolers* in the post on *Lessons from math olympiads*, available at <https://blog.evanchen.cc/2018/01/05/lessons-from-math-olympiads/>.

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## §1 Quadratic polynomials

**Example 1.1** (Hungary MO 2001/02, Grades 11 and 12 — technical schools, P2). Consider the following 2000 equations:

$$\begin{aligned}
 1x^2 + 2 \cdot 2x + 3 &= 0 \\
 2x^2 + 2 \cdot 3x + 4 &= 0 \\
 3x^2 + 2 \cdot 4x + 5 &= 0 \\
 &\vdots \\
 2000x^2 + 2 \cdot 2001x + 2002 &= 0.
 \end{aligned}$$

For each equation, consider the product of the sum of the real roots and the sum of their reciprocals (if it exists). What is the product of these products?

**Solution 1.** Note that a quadratic polynomial with nonzero constant term has nonzero roots, and hence the reciprocals of its roots exist. Moreover, if  $\alpha, \beta$  denote the roots of a quadratic polynomial  $ax^2 + bx + c$  with  $ac \neq 0$ , then  $1/\alpha, 1/\beta$  are the roots of quadratic polynomial  $cx^2 + bx + a$ . Note that

$$\alpha + \beta = -\frac{b}{a}, \frac{1}{\alpha} + \frac{1}{\beta} = -\frac{b}{c}$$

Since

$$(2(n+1))^2 - 4n(n+2) = 4n^2 + 8n + 4 - 4n^2 - 8n = 4 \geq 0,$$

it follows that the given 2000 equations have real roots. The product of the products considered is equal to

$$\frac{2^2 \cdot 2^2}{1 \cdot 3} \times \frac{2^2 \cdot 3^2}{2 \cdot 4} \times \frac{2^2 \cdot 4^2}{3 \cdot 5} \times \frac{2^2 \cdot 5^2}{4 \cdot 6} \times \cdots \times \frac{2^2 \cdot 2000^2}{1999 \cdot 2001} \times \frac{2^2 \cdot 2001^2}{2000 \cdot 2002}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \frac{4^{2000} \cdot 2^2 \cdot 3^2 \cdot \dots \cdot 2001^2}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3^2 \cdot 4^2 \cdot \dots \cdot 2000^2} \cdot \frac{1}{2001 \cdot 2002} \\
&= \frac{4^{2000} \cdot 2^2 \cdot 2001^2}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 2001 \cdot 2002} \\
&= \frac{2001}{1001} \times 2^{4000}.
\end{aligned}$$

■

**Example 1.2 (Canada CMO 1971 P4).** Determine all real numbers  $a$  such that the two polynomials  $x^2 + ax + 1$  and  $x^2 + x + a$  have at least one root in common.

**Solution 2.** Let  $a$  be a real number such that the two polynomials  $x^2 + ax + 1$  and  $x^2 + x + a$  have at least one root in common. Let  $\alpha$  denote a common root of these polynomials. The equations

$$\alpha^2 + a\alpha + 1 = 0, \alpha^2 + \alpha + a = 0$$

yield

$$(a - 1)\alpha = a - 1.$$

If  $a \neq 1$ , then  $\alpha = 1$  and hence  $a = -2$ . This proves that  $a = 1, -2$ .

If  $a = 1$ , then the given polynomials have at least one root in common. If  $a = -2$ , then the given polynomials vanish at 1.

We conclude that  $a = 1, -2$  are precisely all the real numbers such that the given polynomials have at least one common root. ■

**Example 1.3 (India RMO 2003 P6).** Find all real numbers  $a$  for which the equation

$$x^2 + (a - 2)x + 1 = 3|x|$$

has exactly three distinct real solutions for  $x$ .

**Solution 3.** Let  $a$  be a real number such that  $x^2 + (a - 2)x + 1 = 3|x|$  has exactly three distinct real solutions. Note that the equation

$$(x^2 + (a - 2)x + 1 - 3x)(x^2 + (a - 2)x + 1 + 3x) = 0$$

also has exactly three distinct real solutions. It follows that the discriminant of one of the polynomials  $x^2 + (a - 2)x + 1 - 3x$ ,  $x^2 + (a - 2)x + 1 + 3x$  vanishes, and the discriminant of the other is positive. The discriminants of these polynomials are

$$\begin{aligned}
(a - 5)^2 - 4 &= a^2 - 10a + 21 \\
&= (a - 3)(a - 7),
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}(a+1)^2 - 4 &= a^2 + 2a - 3 \\ &= (a+3)(a-1)\end{aligned}$$

respectively. It follows that  $a$  does not belong to  $(-\infty, -3) \cup (-3, 1) \cup (1, 3) \cup (3, 7) \cup (7, \infty)$ , or equivalently,  $a$  belongs to  $\{-3, 1, 3, 7\}$ .

**Let us determine whether the given equation has three distinct real roots if  $a$  lies in  $\{-3, 1, 3, 7\}$ .** Let us assume that  $a$  lies in  $\{-3, 1, 3, 7\}$ . Note that then one of  $(a-3)(a-7)$ ,  $(a+3)(a-1)$  vanishes and another is positive, and consequently, one of the polynomials

$$x^2 + (a-2)x + 1 - 3x, x^2 + (a-2)x + 1 + 3x$$

have distinct real roots, and the other has a double root, which is a real number. Observe that if  $x^2 + (a-2)x + 1 - 3x$  has a double root, then that root is equal to  $-\frac{a-5}{2}$ . Note that

$$\begin{aligned}\left(\frac{a-5}{2}\right)^2 - (a+1)\left(\frac{a-5}{2}\right) + 1 &= \frac{1}{4}(a^2 - 10a + 25 - 2a^2 + 8a + 10 + 4) \\ &= \frac{1}{4}(-a^2 - 2a + 39),\end{aligned}$$

which has a negative discriminant. This shows that if  $x^2 + (a-2)x + 1 - 3x$  has a real double root, then that cannot be a zero of  $x^2 + (a-2)x + 1 + 3x$ . Also note that

$$\begin{aligned}\left(\frac{a+1}{2}\right)^2 - (a-5)\frac{a+1}{2} + 1 &= \frac{1}{4}(a^2 + 2a + 1 - 2a^2 + 8a + 10 + 4) \\ &= \frac{1}{4}(-a^2 + 10a + 15),\end{aligned}$$

whose roots are not integers. Using that  $a$  is an integer, it follows that if  $x^2 + (a-2)x + 1 + 3x$  has a real double root, then that cannot be a root of  $x^2 + (a-2)x + 1 - 3x$ . We conclude that if  $a$  lies in  $\{-3, 1, 3, 7\}$ , then

$$(x^2 + (a-2)x + 1 - 3x)(x^2 + (a-2)x + 1 + 3x) = 0$$

has exactly three distinct real solutions, or equivalently, the equation

$$x^2 + (a-2)x + 1 = 3|x|$$

has exactly three distinct real solutions for  $x$ .

So the required real numbers are  $a = -3, 1, 3, 7$ . ■

**Example 1.4 (All-Russian MO 2007 Grade 8 P1).** If  $a, b, c$  are real numbers, show that at least one of the equations

$$x^2 + (a-b)x + (b-c) = 0,$$

$$\begin{aligned}x^2 + (b - c)x + (c - a) &= 0, \\x^2 + (c - a)x + (a - b) &= 0\end{aligned}$$

has a real solution.

**Solution 4.** The sum of the discriminants of the above quadratic polynomials is

$$\begin{aligned}(a - b)^2 - 4(b - c) + (b - c)^2 - 4(c - a) + (c - a)^2 - 4(a - b) \\= (a - b)^2 + (b - c)^2 + (c - a)^2,\end{aligned}$$

which is positive if not all of  $a, b, c$  are equal. Consequently, if not all of the three real numbers  $a, b, c$  are equal, then at least one of the quadratic polynomials

$$x^2 + (a - b)x + (b - c), x^2 + (b - c)x + (c - a), x^2 + (c - a)x + (a - b)$$

has positive discriminant, and hence admits real solutions. Moreover, if all of  $a, b, c$  are equal, at least one (in fact, all) of the above polynomials admits a real root. ■

**Example 1.5 (India RMO 2007 P3).** Find all pairs  $(a, b)$  of real numbers such that whenever  $\alpha$  is a root of  $x^2 + ax + b = 0$ ,  $\alpha^2 - 2$  is also a root of the equation.

**Solution 5.** Let  $a, b$  be real numbers such that for any root  $\alpha$  of  $x^2 + ax + b = 0$ ,  $\alpha^2 - 2$  is also a root. Denote the roots of  $x^2 + ax + b$  by  $\alpha, \beta$ . There are the following possibilities.

- (1)  $\alpha^2 - 2 = \alpha, \beta^2 - 2 = \beta,$
- (2)  $\alpha^2 - 2 = \beta, \beta^2 - 2 = \alpha,$
- (3)  $\alpha^2 - 2 = \beta^2 - 2 = \alpha,$
- (4)  $\alpha^2 - 2 = \beta^2 - 2 = \beta.$

If  $\alpha = \beta$ , then these four cases are equivalent to

$$\alpha^2 - 2 = \beta^2 - 2 = \alpha = \beta,$$

which shows that  $\alpha$  is equal to 2 or  $-1$ , and hence  $(a, b)$  is equal to  $(-4, 4)$  or  $(2, 1)$ .

It remains to consider the case that  $\alpha \neq \beta$ , which we assume from now on.

In Case (1),  $\alpha, \beta$  satisfy the equation  $X^2 - X - 2 = 0$ . So  $(\alpha, \beta)$  is equal to  $(2, -1)$  or  $(-1, 2)$ , and hence  $(a, b)$  is equal to  $(-1, -2)$ .

In Case (2), we have  $\alpha^2 - \beta^2 = \beta - \alpha$ , which gives  $\alpha + \beta = -1$  (since  $\alpha \neq \beta$ ). So

$$\alpha\beta = \frac{1}{2}(\alpha + \beta)^2 - \frac{1}{2}(\alpha^2 + \beta^2) = \frac{1}{2}(\alpha + \beta)^2 - \frac{1}{2}(\alpha + \beta + 4) = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{3}{2} = -1.$$

This shows that  $\alpha, \beta$  are roots of the quadratic polynomial  $x^2 + x - 1$ , and hence,  $(a, b)$  is equal to  $(1, -1)$ .

In Case (3), note that  $\alpha$  is equal to 2 or  $-1$ . Using  $\beta^2 = 2 + \alpha$  and  $\alpha \neq \beta$ , it follows that  $(\alpha, \beta)$  is equal to  $(2, -2)$  or  $(-1, 1)$ , and hence  $(a, b)$  is equal to  $(0, -4)$  or  $(0, -1)$ .

Similarly, in Case (4),  $(\alpha, \beta)$  is equal to  $(-2, 2)$  or  $(-1, 1)$ , which shows  $(a, b)$  is equal to  $(0, -4)$  or  $(0, -1)$ .

So  $(a, b)$  is equal to one of  $(-4, 4), (2, 1), (-1, -2), (1, -1), (0, -4), (0, -1)$ .

Moreover, if  $(a, b)$  is equal to any of these six pairs, then it can be checked that for any root  $\alpha$  of  $x^2 + ax + b = 0$ ,  $\alpha^2 - 2$  is also a root.

We conclude that all the required pairs are  $(-4, 4), (2, 1), (-1, -2), (1, -1), (0, -4), (0, -1)$ . ■

**Example 1.6 (India RMO 2010 P2).** Let

$$P_1(x) = ax^2 - bx - c, P_2(x) = bx^2 - cx - a, P_3(x) = cx^2 - ax - b$$

be three quadratic polynomials where  $a, b, c$  are nonzero real numbers. Suppose there exists a real number  $\alpha$  such that  $P_1(\alpha) = P_2(\alpha) = P_3(\alpha)$ . Prove that  $a = b = c$ .

**Solution 6.** Since  $P_1(\alpha), P_2(\alpha)$  are equal, we get

$$(a - b)\alpha^2 = (b - c)\alpha + (c - a),$$

which gives

$$(a - b)(\alpha^2 + 1) = (b - c)(\alpha - 1).$$

Similarly, using  $P_2(\alpha) = P_3(\alpha)$ , we obtain

$$(b - c)(\alpha^2 + 1) = (c - a)(\alpha - 1).$$

If  $\alpha = 1$ , then it follows that  $a = b = c$ . Henceforth, let us assume that  $\alpha \neq 1$ . Then the above yields

$$(a - b)(c - a) = (b - c)^2.$$

Using a similar argument as above, it follows that

$$(b - c)(a - b) = (c - a)^2, (c - a)(b - c) = (a - b)^2.$$

Adding these equations, we obtain

$$a^2 + b^2 + c^2 = ab + bc + ca.$$

Since  $a, b, c$  are real, it follows that  $a = b = c$ . This completes the proof. ■

**Example 1.7 (India RMO 2012f P1).** Find nonzero real numbers  $a, b$  such that  $x^2 + ax + b, x^2 + x + ab, ax^2 + x + b$  are three distinct polynomials with a common root.

**Solution 7.** Let  $a, b$  be real numbers such that  $x^2 + ax + b, x^2 + x + ab, ax^2 + x + b$  are three distinct polynomials with a common root  $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ . We obtain

$$\alpha^2 + a\alpha + b = \alpha^2 + \alpha + ab = a\alpha^2 + \alpha + b = 0,$$

which gives  $a\alpha + b = \alpha + ab$ , that is,  $(a - 1)(\alpha - b) = 0$ . Since  $x^2 + ax + b, x^2 + x + ab, ax^2 + x + b$  are distinct, it follows that  $a \neq 1$ . This shows that  $\alpha = b$ . Since the polynomials  $x^2 + x + ab, ax^2 + x + b$  vanish at  $x = \alpha = b$ , we obtain

$$b(a + b + 1) = b(ab + 2) = 0.$$

Using  $b$  is nonzero, we get  $a + b + 1 = ab + 2 = 0$ . Note that  $1 + ab - a - b = 0$ . Since  $a \neq 1$ , we obtain  $b = 1$ , which combined with  $ab + 2 = 0$  implies that  $a = -2$ .

Also note that for  $a = -2, b = 1$ , the given polynomials are equal to

$$x^2 - 2x + 1, x^2 + x - 2, -2x^2 + x + 1,$$

which are all distinct and they vanish at  $x = 1$ .

We conclude that precisely for  $(a, b) = (-2, 1)$ , the given polynomials are all distinct and have a common root. ■

**Example 1.8 (India RMO 2015d P2).** Let  $P(x) = x^2 + ax + b$  be a quadratic polynomial with real coefficients. Suppose there are real numbers  $s$  is not equal to  $t$  such that  $P(s) = t$  and  $P(t) = s$ . Prove that  $b - st$  is a root of the equation  $x^2 + ax + b - st = 0$ .

**Solution 8.** We have

$$s^2 + as + b = t, t^2 + at + b = s.$$

Taking their difference, we obtain  $(s - t)(s + t + a + 1) = 0$ , which gives  $s + t + a + 1 = 0$  since  $s \neq t$ . Using the above, we obtain

$$s(s^2 + as + b) - t(t^2 + at + b) = 0,$$

or equivalently,

$$(s - t)(b + a(s + t) + s^2 + st + t^2) = 0.$$

Combining the above with  $s + t + a + 1 = 0$  and  $s \neq t$ , we obtain

$$b - (s + t) - st = 0.$$

Note that

$$\begin{aligned}(b-st)^2 + a(b-st) + b-st &= (b-st)(b-st+a+1) \\ &= (b-st)(s+t+a+1) \\ &= 0.\end{aligned}$$

This completes the proof. ■

**Example 1.9 (India RMO 2015a P2).** Let  $P(x) = x^2 + ax + b$  be a quadratic polynomial where  $a, b$  are real numbers. Suppose  $\langle P(-1)^2, P(0)^2, P(1)^2 \rangle$  is an AP of positive integers. Prove that  $a, b$  are integers.

**Solution 9.** Note that  $P(-1)^2, P(0)^2, P(1)^2$  are equal to

$$1 + a^2 + b^2 - 2a + 2b - 2ab, b^2, 1 + a^2 + b^2 + 2a + 2b + 2ab$$

respectively. Since they form an arithmetic progression, we obtain

$$1 + a^2 + b^2 - 2a + 2b - 2ab + 1 + a^2 + b^2 + 2a + 2b + 2ab = 2b^2,$$

or equivalently,  $a^2 + 2b + 1 = 0$ . It follows that

$$b^2 - 2a - 2ab, b^2, b^2 + 2a + 2ab$$

form an arithmetic progression of positive integers. Note that

$$\begin{aligned}(2a + 2ab)^2 &= 4a^2(b+1)^2 \\ &= -4(2b+1)(b+1)^2 \\ &= -4(2b^3 + 5b^2 + 4b + 1) \\ &= -4((2b^2 + 4)b + 5b^2 + 1).\end{aligned}$$

Since  $b^2$  is an integer, it follows that  $b$  is rational number. Since  $b$  is rational and  $b^2$  is an integer, it follows that  $b$  is an integer. Using  $a^2 + 2b + 1 = 0$ , it follows that  $a^2$  is an integer. Moreover, if  $b = -1$ , then  $a$  is an integer. If  $b \neq -1$ , then using that  $2a + 2ab$  is an integer, we obtain  $a$  is rational. Since  $a^2$  is an integer and  $a$  is rational, it follows that  $a$  is an integer. This completes the proof. ■

**Example 1.10 (India RMO 2015b P2).** Let  $P(x) = x^2 + ax + b$  be a quadratic polynomial where  $a$  is real and  $b \neq 2$ , is rational. Suppose  $P(0)^2, P(1)^2, P(2)^2$  are integers, prove that  $a$  and  $b$  are integers.

**Solution 10.** Since  $b$  is rational and  $P(0)^2 = b^2$  is an integer, it follows that  $b$  is an integer. Note that

$$P(1)^2 = (1 + a + b)^2$$



$$\begin{aligned}
&= 1 + a^2 + b^2 + 2a + 2b + 2ab, \\
P(2)^2 &= (4 + 2a + b)^2 \\
&= 16 + 4a^2 + b^2 + 16a + 8b + 4ab.
\end{aligned}$$

Since  $b$  is an integer, the given conditions imply that  $a^2 + 2a + 2ab$ ,  $4a^2 + 16a + 4ab$  are integers. This shows that

$$\begin{aligned}
4a^2 + 16a + 4ab - 2(a^2 + 2a + 2ab) &= 2a^2 + 12a, \\
4a^2 + 16a + 4ab - 4(a^2 + 2a + 2ab) &= 8a - 4ab
\end{aligned}$$

are integers. Since  $b \neq 2$  and  $b$  is an integer, it follows that  $a$  is a rational number. Combining this with the fact that  $2a^2 + 12a$  is rational, it follows that  $a$  is equal to  $\frac{n}{2}$  for some integer  $n$ . Indeed, write  $a = \frac{x}{y}$  where  $x, y$  are integers with  $y \geq 1$  and  $\gcd(x, y) = 1$ . Note that  $2\frac{x^2}{y} + 12x$  is an integer. Since  $x$  and  $y$  are relatively prime, this implies that  $y$  divides 2. Consequently,  $a$  is equal to  $\frac{n}{2}$  for some integer  $n$ . Using that  $2a^2 + 12a$  is an integer, we get that  $\frac{n^2}{2}$  is also an integer. This shows that  $n$  is even, and hence  $a$  is an integer. This completes the proof.  $\blacksquare$

**Example 1.11 (India RMO 2015e P2).** Let  $P_1(x) = x^2 + a_1x + b_1$  and  $P_2(x) = x^2 + a_2x + b_2$  be two quadratic polynomials with integer coefficients. Suppose  $a_1 \neq a_2$  and there exist integers  $m \neq n$  such that  $P_1(m) = P_2(n)$ ,  $P_2(m) = P_1(n)$ . Prove that  $a_1 - a_2$  is even.

**Solution 11.** Using  $P_1(m) = P_2(n)$ , we get

$$m^2 + a_1m + b_1 = n^2 + a_2n + b_2,$$

that is,

$$(m^2 - n^2) + (a_1m - a_2n) + b_1 - b_2 = 0.$$

Similarly, using  $P_1(n) = P_2(m)$ , we get

$$(n^2 - m^2) + (a_1n - a_2m) + b_1 - b_2 = 0.$$

This yields

$$2(m^2 - n^2) + (a_1 + a_2)(m - n) = 0.$$

Since  $m \neq n$ , we get  $2(m + n) + a_1 + a_2 = 0$ . It follows that  $a_1 + a_2$  is even, and hence, so is  $a_1 + a_2 - 2a_2 = a_1 - a_2$ .  $\blacksquare$