UBC Math Circle 2019 Problem Set 9

Problems will be ordered roughly in increasing difficulty

1. The equation $x^4 + Ax^3 + Bx^2 + Cx + D = 0$ has solutions $x = 3 \pm \sqrt{2}, 1 \pm \sqrt{5}$. Find A + B + C + D.

Solution: Let $P(x) = x^4 + Ax^3 + Bx^2 + Cx + D$. We have P(1) = 1 + A + B + C + D. Since *P* is monic, we also know $P(x) = (x - 3 - \sqrt{2})(x - 3 + \sqrt{2})(x - 1 - \sqrt{5})(x - 1 + \sqrt{5})$ so plug in 1 to get $A + B + C + D + 1 = -10 \Rightarrow A + B + C + D = -11$.

2. Find all rational polynomials $p(x) = x^3 + ax^2 + bx + c$ such that a, b, c are roots of p.

Solution: By Vietas formula

 $\begin{cases} a+b+c = -a \\ ab+bc+ac = b \\ abc = -c \end{cases}$

From the third equation (ab + 1)c = 0. Thus ab = -1 or c = 0. If c = 0, then a + b = -a and ab = b. Hence (a, b, c) = (0, 0, 0) or (1, -2, 0).

If ab = -1, then c = -2a - b and

$$-1 + b(-2a - b) + (-2a - b)a = b$$
$$2a^{2} - 2 + b + b^{2} = 0$$
$$2a^{4} - 2a^{2} + a^{2}b + a^{2}b^{2} = 0$$
$$2a^{4} - 2a^{2} - a + 1 = 0$$

Since a is rational, the only solution is a = 1 and (a, b, c) = (1, -1, -1).

3. Let p(x) be a polynomial with integer coefficients. Assume that p(a) = p(b) = p(c) = -1, where a, b, c are three different integers. Prove that p(x) has no integral zeros.

Solution: Suppose for contradiction that p has an integral zero. Then we can write p(x) = (x - d)Q(x) for some integer d. Then we get

$$-1 = (a - d)Q(a)$$
$$= (b - d)Q(b)$$
$$= (c - d)Q(c)$$

Note that $Q(k) \in \text{if } k \in$, and similarly, $k - n \in \text{for } k, n \in$. Now the only way to multiply two integers to get -1 is for one of them to be +1 and the other to be -1. Thus, by pigeonhole, two of a - d, b - d, c - d are the same, which implies that two of a, b, c are the same, a contradiction.

4. A monic polynomial, p, of degree 4 satisfies p(1) = 10, p(2) = 20, and p(3) = 30. Determine p(12) + p(-8).

Solution: We have that p(x) - 10x is monic and has roots at 1, 2, 3. Thus p(x) - 10x = (x - 1)(x - 2)(x - 3)(x - c). Then p(12) = 11(10)(9)(12 - c) + 120 and p(-8) = -9(-10)(-11)(-8 - c) - 80. Thus p(12) + p(-8) = 990(12 - c) + 990(8 + c) + 40 = 990(20) + 40 = 19840.

5. A polynomial P with integer coefficients is called *tri-divisible* if P(x) is a multiple of 3 for all integers x. Determine necessary and sufficient conditions for P to be tri-divisible.

Solution: $P(0), P(1), P(-1) \equiv 0(3)$ are necessary and sufficient (which can easily be seen by reducing the equation mod 3).

6. Determine all polynomials P for which $P(x)^2 - 2 = 2P(2x^2 - 1)$.

Solution: Denote P(1) = a. We have $a^2 - 2a - 2 = 0$. Then we have that P(x) - a has a root at 1, so $P(x) - a = (x - 1)P_1(x)$, or $P(x) = (x - 1)P_1(x) + a$. Substituting this into the initial relation and simplifying gets us $(x - 1)[(x - 1)P_1(x)^2 + 2aP_1(x)] = 4(x^2 - 1)P_1(2x^2 - 1) - a^2 + a + 2$. Thus for $x \neq 1$, we get $(x - 1)P_1(x)^2 + 2aP_1(x) = 4(x + 1)P_1(2x^2 - 1)$. By continuity, we get that the same expression must hold for x = 1 as well, as long as it is finite. Evaluating at x = 1 gets us $2aP_1(1) = 8P_1(1)$. Now, as $a \neq 4$ (which can be verified by the quadratic formula), we see that either $P_1(1) = 0$, or $P_1(1)$ is infinite. Of course, the latter option isnt possible as P is a polynomial. Thus, we can write $P_1(x) = (x - 1)P_2(x)$, giving us $P(x) = (x - 1)^2P_2(x) + a$. We can repeat this indefinitely, which is problematic as we should be bounded by the degree of P. More precisely, suppose that $P(x) = (x1)^n Q(x) + a$, where $Q(1) \neq 0$. Once again, substituting into the initial relation and simplifying yields $(x - 1)^n Q(x)^2 + 2aQ(x) = 4(x + 1)^n Q(2x^2 - 1)$, giving us Q(1) = 0, a contradiction. It follows then that P(x) = a, of which the precise value is left as an exercise in the quadratic formula.

7. Let P(x) be a polynomial of degree n > 1 with integer coefficients and let k be a positive integer. Consider the polynomial $Q_k(x) = P(P(...P(P(x))...))$, where P occurs k times. Prove that there are at most n integers t such that $Q_k(t) = t$.

Solution: If there is at most one integer t satisfying $Q_k(t) = t$, then we are done. Otherwise, let s, t be integers such that $Q_k(s) = s$, $Q_k(t) = t$. As P(x) is a polynomial with integral coefficients, u - v|P(u) - P(v) for any integers u, v. So

$$s - t |P(s) - P(t)|Q_2(s) - Q_2(t)| \dots |Q_k(s) - Q_k(t)| = s - t$$

and hence both s-t|P(s)-P(t) and P(s)-P(t)|s-t. This implies that P(s)-P(t) = s-t or P(s) - P(t) = t-s. In other words,

$$P(s) - s = P(t) - t$$
 or $P(s) + s = P(t) + t$ (1)

It is impossible to have P(s) - P(t) = s - t and P(u) - P(t) = t - u for distinct integral roots s, u, t of the equation $Q_k(x) = x$. Otherwise P(s) - P(u) = s - t - (t - u) = s + u - 2t. But P(s) - P(u) = s - uoru - s. In either cases, it yields s = t or u = t. So only one equation in (1) is true for all the integer roots of $Q_k(x) = x$.

In either case, let us fix t. Then all integral roots of $Q_k(x) = x$ are also, at the same times, roots of the equation P(x)x = 0 or P(x) + x = 0. Note that P(x)x and P(x) + x are polynomials of degree n, so there are at most n such roots.