

# USEMO 2019/2

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Episode 10

## Problem

Let  $\mathbb{Z}[x]$  denote the set of single-variable polynomials in  $x$  with integer coefficients. Find all functions  $\theta: \mathbb{Z}[x] \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}[x]$  (i.e. functions taking polynomials to polynomials) such that

- for any polynomials  $p, q \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ ,  $\theta(p + q) = \theta(p) + \theta(q)$ ;
- for any polynomial  $p \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ ,  $p$  has an integer root if and only if  $\theta(p)$  does.

## Video

<https://youtu.be/V2TNgUwbs6A>

## Solution

The answer is that

$$\theta(x) = r(x) \cdot p(\pm x + c)$$

for any choice of  $c \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $r(x)$  without an integer root, with the choice of sign fixed. For the converse direction we present two approaches.

**First solution** It's clear that this works, so we prove it is the only one. Let  $r(x) = \theta(1)$ , which has no integer root since the constant 1 has no roots at all.

**Part 1.** We fix a positive integer  $n$  and start by determining  $\theta(x^n)$  which is the bulk of the problem. Let  $f(x) = \theta(x^n)$ . We look at

$$\theta(ax^n + b) = a \cdot f(x) + b \cdot r(x).$$

Let  $g(x) = f(x)/r(x)$ , a quotient of two polynomials whose denominator never vanishes. By using the problem condition in both directions, varying  $x \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $-b/a \in \mathbb{Q}$ , we find that

$$\frac{f(x)}{r(x)} \text{ takes on exactly the values } \dots, (-2)^n, (-1)^n, 0^n, 1^n, 2^n, 3^n, \dots \text{ for } x \in \mathbb{Z}$$

So let  $g(x) = f(x)/r(x)$  now.

**Claim** (Rational functions can't be integer-valued forever). Since  $g$  maps integers to integers, it must actually be a polynomial with rational coefficients.

*Proof.* We will only need the condition that  $g$  maps integers to integers.

If not, then by the division algorithm, we have  $g(x) = d(x) + \frac{f_1(x)}{f_2(x)}$  for some polynomials  $d(x), f_1(x), f_2(x)$  in  $\mathbb{Q}[x]$  with  $\deg f_2 > \deg f_1 \geq 0$ . There exists an integer  $D$  such that  $D \cdot d(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$  (say the lcm of the denominators of the coefficients of  $g$ ).

But for large enough integers  $x$  the value of  $\frac{f_1(x)}{f_2(x)}$  is a nonzero and has absolute value less than  $\frac{1}{D}$ . This is a contradiction.  $\square$

**Remark.** You can't drop the condition that  $g$  has rational (rather than integer) coefficients in the proof above; consider  $g(x) = \frac{1}{2}x(x+1)$  for example.

A common wrong approach is to try to use the same logic on  $\theta(x^n)/\theta(x^{n-1})$  for  $n \geq 2$ . This doesn't work since  $\theta(x^n)$  and  $\theta(x^{n-1})$  could have a common root for  $n \geq 2$  and therefore the problem condition essentially says nothing.

Let  $C$  be an integer divisible by every denominator in the coefficients of  $g$ . Then apparently

$$h(x) = C^n \cdot g(x)$$

is a polynomial which only takes only  $n$ th powers as  $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

**Claim** (Polya and Szego). Since  $h$  is a polynomial with integer coefficients whose only values are  $n$ th powers, it must itself be the  $n$ th power of a polynomial.

*Proof.* This is a classical folklore problem, but we prove it for completeness.

Decompose  $h$  into irreducible factors as

$$h(x) = c \cdot f_0(x)^{e_0} \cdot f_1(x)^{e_1} \cdot f_2(x)^{e_2} \cdot f_3(x)^{e_3} \cdot \dots \cdot f_m(x)^{e_m}$$

where the  $f_i$  are nonconstant and  $c$  is an integer, and  $e_i > 0$  for all  $i > 0$ . We also assume  $m > 0$ .

We use the following facts:

- In general, if  $A(x), B(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$  are coprime, then  $\gcd(A, B)$  is bounded by some constant  $C_{A,B}$ . This follows by Bezout lemma.
- If  $A(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$  is a nonconstant polynomial, then there are infinitely many primes dividing some element in the range of  $A$ . This is called Schur's theorem.
- Let  $A(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$  be an irreducible polynomial, and let  $A'(x)$  be its derivative. Then if  $p$  is prime and  $p > C_{A,A'}$ , and  $p$  has root in  $\mathbb{F}_p$ , then there exists  $x$  with  $\nu_p(A(x)) = 1$ . This follows by Hensel lemma.

Now for the main proof. By the above facts and the Chinese remainder theorem (together with Dirichlet theorem), we can select enormous primes  $p_1 < p_2 < \dots < p_m < q$  (exceeding  $c, e, \max e_i, \max C_{f_i, x}, \max C_{f_i, f_j}$  for all  $i$  and  $j$ ) and a single integer  $N$  satisfying the following constraints:

- $\nu_{p_i}(f_i(N)) = 1$  for all  $i = 1, \dots, m$ , by requiring  $N \equiv t_i \pmod{p_i^2}$  for suitable constant  $t_i$  not divisible by  $p_i$  (because of Hensel lemma);
- $p_i \nmid f_j(N)$  whenever  $i \neq j$ ; this follows by the fact that  $p_i > C_{f_i, f_j}$ ;

Now look at the value of  $f(N)$ . It has

$$\begin{aligned} \nu_{p_1}(f(N)) &= e_1 \\ \nu_{p_2}(f(N)) &= e_2 \\ &\vdots \\ \nu_{p_m}(f(N)) &= e_m. \end{aligned}$$

Now  $f(N)$  is a  $n$ th power so  $n$  divides all of  $e_1, \dots, e_m$ . Finally  $c$  must be an  $n$ th power too.  $\square$

So  $h(x)$  is an  $n$ th power; thus so is  $g(x)$ . Let's write  $g(x) = p(x)^n$  then; so we find that the range of  $p(x)$  contains either  $k$  or  $-k$ , for every integer  $k$ . For density reasons, this forces  $p$  to be linear, and actually of the form  $p(x) = \pm x + c$  for some constant  $c$ .

**Part 2.** We have now shown  $\theta(x^n) = (\pm x + c)^n r(x)$ , for every  $n$ , for some sign and choice of  $c$  depending possibly on  $n$ . It remains to show that the choices of signs and constants are compatible across the different values of  $n$ . So let's verify this.

By applying a suitable transformation on  $x$  let's assume  $\theta(x) = x$  for simplicity. Then look at  $\theta(x^n + ax) = (\pm x + c)^n + ax$  for choices of integers  $a$ . This is apparently supposed to have a root for each choice of  $a$ , but if  $c \neq 0$ , this means  $\frac{1}{x}(\pm x + c)^n$  can take any integer value, which is obviously not true for density reasons. This means  $c = 0$ , so it shows  $\theta(x^n) = \pm x^n$  for any integer  $n$ .

Finally, by considering  $\theta(x^n + x - 2) = \pm x^n - x + 2$ , we see the sign must be  $+$  for the RHS to have an integer root. This finishes the proof.

**Second solution, outline (by contestants)** The solution is like the previous one, but replaces the high-powered Polya and Szego with the following simpler result.

**Claim** (Odd-degree polynomials are determined by their range). Let  $P(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$  be an odd-degree polynomial. Let  $Q(x)$  be another polynomial with the same range as  $P$  over  $\mathbb{Z}$ . Then  $P(x) = Q(\pm x + c)$  for some  $\pm$  and  $c$ .

*Proof.* First,  $Q$  also has odd degree since it must be unbounded in both directions. By negating if needed, assume  $Q$  has positive leading coefficient.

Take a sufficiently large integer  $n_0$  such that  $P(x)$  and  $Q(x)$  are both strictly increasing for  $x \geq n_0$ , and moreover  $P(n_0) > \max_{x < n_0} P(x)$ ,  $Q(n_0) > \max_{x < n_0} P(x)$ . Then take an even larger integer  $n_1 > n_0$  such that  $\min(P(n_1), Q(n_1)) > \max(P(n_0), Q(n_0))$ . Choose  $n_2 > n_0$  such that  $P(n_1) = Q(n_2)$ . We find that this implies

$$\begin{aligned} P(n_1) &= Q(n_2) \\ P(n_1 + 1) &= Q(n_2 + 1) \\ P(n_1 + 2) &= Q(n_2 + 2) \\ P(n_1 + 3) &= Q(n_2 + 3) \end{aligned}$$

and so on. So  $P$  is a shift of  $Q$  as needed.  $\square$

This is enough to force  $\theta(x^n) = (\pm x + c)^n r(x)$  when  $n$  is odd. When  $n$  is even, for each integer  $k$  one can consider

$$\theta(kx^{n+3} + x^n) = k\theta(x^{n+3}) + \theta(x^n)$$

and use the claim on  $\theta(x^{n+3})$  and  $\theta(kx^{n+3} + x^n)$  to pin down  $\theta(x^n)$ .

**Third solution (from author)** The answers are as before and we prove only the converse direction.

**Lemma.** *Given two polynomials  $P, Q \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ , if  $P + nQ$  has an integer root for all  $n$ , then either  $P$  and  $Q$  share an integer root or  $P(x) = \left(\frac{x+m}{k}\right) Q(x)$  for some integers  $m, k$  with  $k \neq 0$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $d = \gcd(P(0), Q(0))$  so  $P(0) = dr$  and  $Q(0) = ds$ . Now, for an integer root  $k_n$  of  $P + nQ$ ,

$$k_n | P(0) + nQ(0) = dr + nds = d(r + ns).$$

Let  $p$  be a prime  $\equiv r \pmod{s}$ , of which there are infinitely many by Dirichlet's theorem. Now, for  $n = \frac{p-r}{s}$ , we have

$$k_n | dp.$$

As the divisors of  $dp$  are exactly those of  $d$  times 1 or  $p$ , there exists a (not necessarily positive) divisor  $j$  of  $d$  and a  $t \in \{1, p\}$  so that  $k_n = dt$  for infinitely many  $n$ . In the first case, we have that  $P(j) + nQ(j) = 0$  for infinitely many  $n$  and some fixed  $j$ , which implies that  $j$  is a root of both  $P$  and  $Q$ . In the second case, we have, noting  $p = r + ns$ , that

$$P(j(r + ns)) + nQ(j(r + ns)) = 0.$$

As this holds for infinitely many  $n$ , we may rewrite it as a polynomial equation

$$P(x) = (ax + b)Q(x)$$

for some rational  $a, b$ . Now, we know that  $(ax + b + n)Q(x)$  has a rational root for all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ . If  $Q$  has an integer root then  $P$  does as well and we are in our first case; otherwise,  $\frac{n+b}{a} \in \mathbb{Z}$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ . This implies that  $1/a \in \mathbb{Z}$ , let it be  $k$ . Then  $b/a \in \mathbb{Z}$ ; let it be  $m$ . This finishes the proof.  $\square$

Now, let  $P_n(x) = f(x^n)$ . We claim that  $P_1(x) = (\pm x + t)P_0(x)$  for some  $t \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Indeed,  $P_1 + nP_0$  has an integer root for all  $n$ , so either  $P_1$  and  $P_0$  share an integer root or  $P_1(x) = \left(\frac{x+m}{k}\right)P_0(x)$  for some  $m, k \in \mathbb{Z}$ . They clearly cannot share a root, since  $P_0(x)$  cannot have any integer roots. Now,

$$kP_1(x) + P_0(x) = (x + m + k)P_0(x)$$

has an integer root, so  $kx + 1$  must as well, and thus  $k = \pm 1$ , as desired. Now, we see that

$$\theta(a(x^n - c^n) + b(x - c)) = a(P_n(x) - c^n P_0(x)) + b(P_1(x) - cP_0(x))$$

has an integer root for any  $c, a, b$ . Let  $Q = P_n - c^n P_0$  and  $R = P_1 - cP_0$ . Since  $aQ + bR$  has an integer root for all  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ , we can apply our lemma on both the pair  $(Q, R)$  and  $(R, Q)$ ; if they do not share an integer root, then  $Q$  must be a linear polynomial times  $R$  and  $R$  must be a linear times  $Q$ , a contradiction unless they are both 0 (in which case they share any integer root). So,  $Q$  and  $R$  share an integer root. We have

$$R(x) = P_1(x) - cP_0(x) = (\pm x + t - c)P_0(x),$$

and  $P_0$  has no integer root as 1 has no integer root, so we have that  $\pm(c - t)$  is the only integer root of  $R$  and is thus also a root of  $Q$ ; in particular

$$P_n(\pm(c - t)) = c^n P_0(\pm(c - t))$$

for all  $c \in \mathbb{Z}$ . This is a polynomial equation that holds for infinitely many  $c$  so we must have that

$$P_n(\pm(x - t)) = x^n P_0(\pm(x - t)) \implies P_n(x) = (\pm x + t)^n P_0(x).$$

Thus, if  $Q(x) = \sum_{i=0}^d a_i x^i$ ,

$$\theta(Q(x)) = \theta\left(\sum_{i=0}^d a_i x^i\right) = \sum_{i=0}^d a_i (\pm x + t)^i P_0(x) = P_0(x)Q(\pm x + t),$$

finishing the proof.