# Quadratic factors of $f(X)-g(Y)$ in odd characteristic 

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# QUADRATIC FACTORS OF $f(X)-g(Y)$ IN ODD CHARACTERISTIC 

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#### Abstract

If $f, g \in K[X]$ where $K$ has odd characteristic, and $f(X)-g(Y)$ has an irreducible quadratic factor in $K[X, Y]$, we show that $f$ and $g$ must have the same degree and can be expressed in terms of Dickson polynomials. This generalizes a theorem of Bilu in characteristic zero.


## Introduction.

The motivation for this study comes from a characteristic zero problem in Diophantine equations. That problem is to decide, for given polynomials $f, g \in \mathbf{Z}[X]$, whether there are infinitely many integral solutions for the equation $f(x)=g(y)$. The work of several people, including notably deep work of M.Fried, culminated in a remarkable theorem of Y.Bilu \& R.Tichy [3]. The approach to the Bilu-Tichy theorem depends on the classical theorem of Siegel which asserts : Let $F(X, Y) \in \mathbf{Q}[X, Y]$ be absolutely irreducible. If $F(X, Y)=0$ has infinitely many integral solutions, then the plane curve $F(X, Y)=0$ has genus 0 and at the most two points at infinity. The question as to whether the number of points at infinity for the curve $f(x)=g(y)$ is at most 2, was shown by M.Fried to reduce to two questions, one of which is whether $f(X)-g(Y)$ has a quadratic factor in $\mathbf{Q}[X, Y]$. Y.Bilu [1] solved this problem and we try to generalize this to positive characteristic. Berrondo and Gallardo [2] have considered a special case of the polynomial $f(x)-g(y)$ when characteristic is 2 . We confine ourselves to odd characteristic.
Even though our result here has no applications to Diophantine equations that we are aware of, it may still be worthwhile to study these problems in positive characteristic as well. The reason is that many of the ideas involved in the (characteristic zero) approach have bearing on other problems in number theory like Kronecker conjugacy which may have formulations in positive characteristic also.

## Some notations.

Before stating the theorem, we recall some notations. Let $K$ be any field of positive characteristic $p$. For any polynomial $P \in K[X]$ and any $c \in \bar{K}$, the $c$-type of $P$ is defined to be the tuple $\left(e_{1}, e_{2}, \cdots, e_{r}\right)$ of multiplicities $e_{1} \leq e_{2} \leq \cdots e_{r}$ of the irreducible factors of $P(X)-c$ over $\bar{K}$. If $P$ is nonconstant, it is said to be tame if $p$ divides neither deg $P$ nor any of the $e_{i}$ 's occurring in the $c$-type for any $c$. It should be noted that every nonconstant polynomial of degree $<p$ is tame.

[^0]
## Main theorem.

Let $K$ be a field of odd characteristic $p$.
Assume :
(i) $f(X)-g(Y) \in K[X, Y]$ has an irreducible quadratic factor $q(X, Y)$, and
(iii) either deg $(f)$ or $\operatorname{deg}(g)$ is not a multiple of $p$.

Then, there exist $\phi, f_{1}, g_{1} \in K[X]$ such that :
(i) $f=\phi \circ f_{1}, g=\phi \circ g_{1}$, and
(ii) $q(X, Y) \mid\left(f_{1}(X)-g_{1}(Y)\right)$, with $\operatorname{deg} f_{1}=\operatorname{deg} g_{1}$.

Moreover, if one of $f, g$ is tame, then $f_{1}, g_{1}$ are of the form

$$
\begin{gathered}
f_{1}(X)=D_{n}(X+\beta, a) \\
g_{1}(X)=D_{n}\left((\alpha X+\gamma)\left(\zeta+\zeta^{-1}\right), a\right)
\end{gathered}
$$

for some $n \in \mathbf{N}, a, \beta, \gamma \in K, \alpha \in K^{*}$.
Finally, in general, if $f$ is not necessarily tame, but neither $p$ nor 4 divides deg $f$, then one may write $f_{1}=P_{1} \circ P_{2} \cdots \circ P_{r}$ where each $P_{i}$ is an indecomposable polynomial in $K[X]$ which is either linear or $D_{l}(X, 1)$ or $X^{l}$ for some prime $l \neq p$.
Further, in this case $g_{1}$ is explicitly expressible in terms of the coefficients of $q(X, Y)$ and those of the polynomials occurring in the decomposition of $f_{1}$ above.

Here $D_{n}(X, a)$ is the Dickson polynomial of degree $n$ defined below, and $\zeta$ is a primitive $n$-th root of unity in $\bar{K}$.
Our proof follows that of Bilu in characteristic 0 , but we require some results due to G.Turnwald and P.Müller to carry it through. We have only considered the case when the characteristic $p$ does not divide the egree of $f$ because only under this condition, we have enough understanding of the monodromy group of $f$ to conclude facts like the existence of an $n$-cycle in it where $n=$ $\operatorname{deg} f$. In the non-tame case, we have assumed that the degree is not a multiple of 4 because we need a certain technical result (quoted as an observation at the end of the proof) on the zeroes of Dickson polynomials. The article [5] is a convenient source for analogues in positive characteristic of several characteristic 0 results.

## Dickson polynomials

Let $A$ be any integral domain with quotient field $F$.
Denote by $\bar{F}$, an algebraic closure of $F$. We shall be applying the facts on Dickson polynomials only when $A=K$, a field of positive characteristic.
For $a \in A$, and $n \in \mathbf{N}$, the Dickson polynomial $D_{n}(X, a) \in A[X]$ is the unique polynomial of degree $n$ which satisfies $D_{n}(z+a / z, a)=z^{n}+a^{n} / z^{n}$.
The existence of $D_{n}(X, a)$ is easily proved by the recursion

$$
D_{n+2}(X, a)=X D_{n+1}(X, a)-a D_{n}(X, a)
$$

and from

$$
D_{1}(X, a)=X, D_{2}(X, a)=X^{2}-2 a
$$

It is also seen then that the coefficients are polynomials in $a$ with (image in $A$ of) integer coefficients.
We note the evident properties :
(i) If char $A=p>0$, then $D_{n p}(X, a)=D_{n}(X, a)^{p}$,
(ii) $D_{m n}(X, a)=D_{m}\left(D_{n}(X, a), a^{n}\right)$,
(iii) $D_{n}\left(b X, b^{2} a\right)=b^{n} D_{n}(X, a)$.

The following important property is elementary to prove :

## Proposition 1 ( [5], proposition 1.7)

Assume that $\bar{F}$ contains a primitive $n$-th root of unity $\zeta$ (so char $F \backslash n$ ) and that $A$ contains $\zeta+\zeta^{-1}$. Then, for each $a \in A, D_{n}(X, a)-D_{n}(Y, a)$ factorises in $A[X, Y]$ into irreducible factors of degrees $\leq 2$ as follows:

$$
\begin{gathered}
D_{n}(X, a)-D_{n}(Y, a)= \\
(X-Y) \prod_{k=1}^{(n-1) / 2}\left(X^{2}-\left(\zeta^{k}+\zeta^{-k}\right) X Y+Y^{2}+a\left(\zeta^{k}-\zeta^{-k}\right)\right)
\end{gathered}
$$

or

$$
\left(X^{2}-Y^{2}\right) \prod_{k=1}^{(n-2) / 2}\left(X^{2}-\left(\zeta^{k}+\zeta^{-k}\right) X Y+Y^{2}+a\left(\zeta^{k}-\zeta^{-k}\right)\right)
$$

according as to whether $n$ is odd or even. The quadratic factors are all distinct when $a \neq 0$.
The following result provides a key link between $c$-types and the Dickson polynomials. The first part is from [5], lemma 1.11 and the second one is from [3], theorem 5.2.

## Proposition 2 .

Assume $f \in F[X]$ is monic, of degree $n \geq 3$. Assume that char $F$ does not divide $n$. Then, in either of the following two cases, we must have $f(X)=D_{n}(X+b, a)+c$ for some $a, b, c \in F$ and $a \neq 0$ :
(a) Suppose that, for each $c \in \bar{F}$ the c-type of $f$ is either $(1,1, \cdots, 1)$ or $(1, d, d, \cdots, d)$ for some d (depending on $c$ but) not divisible by char $F$, or
(b) suppose that there are exactly two constants $c_{1}, c_{2}$ such that $f$ has $c_{1}$-type $(1,1,2,2, \cdots, 2)$ and $c_{2}$-type $(2,2, \cdots, 2)$ and no other $c$ such that $f(X)-c$ has multiple roots.

## Arithmetic monodromy groups.

Start with char $K=p>0$ odd and fix an algebraic closure $\bar{K}$. Let $X, t$ be algebraically independent elements over $K$. One works with the irreducible, separable polynomial $f(X)-t$ over $K(t)$. Let $U_{f}$ denote the splitting field of $f(X)-t$ over $K(t)$, Its Galois group is called the arithmetic monodromy group of $f$ over $K$ and is denoted by $\operatorname{Mon}_{K}(f)$; it is viewed as a permutation group of the roots of $f(X)-t \in K(t)[X]$. The corresponding Galois group when $K$ is replaced by $\bar{K}$ is called the geometric monodromy group and is denoted by $\operatorname{Mon}(f)$. Let $\tilde{K}$ denote the constant subfield of $U_{f}$; i.e., the algebraic closure of $K$ in $U_{f}$. Then $\tilde{K}$ is Galois over $K$ and the monodromy group $\operatorname{Mon}(f)$ is the normal subgroup of $\operatorname{Mon}_{K}(f)$ which fixes
$\tilde{K}(t)$. The Galois group $\operatorname{Gal}(\tilde{K} / K)$ can be identified with the quotient. In other words, we have an exact sequence

$$
1 \rightarrow \operatorname{Mon}(f) \rightarrow \operatorname{Mon}_{K}(f) \rightarrow \operatorname{Gal}(\tilde{K} / K) \rightarrow 1
$$

Lemma 1. ([5], lemmata 3.3,3.4)
If $c \in \bar{K}$ is such that $f(X)$ has c-type $\left(e_{1}, e_{2}, \cdots, e_{r}\right)$ and, if $p$ does not divide $e_{1} e_{2} \cdots e_{r}$, then $\operatorname{Mon}_{K}(f)$ contains an element of cycle type $\left(e_{1}, e_{2}, \cdots, e_{r}\right)$. Moreover, if $p \nmid n$, then $\operatorname{Mon}_{K}(f)$ always contains an $n$-cycle.

The discussion of a solvable monodromy group for a polynomial in positive characteristic is carried out in [6] using some classical theorems of Galois and Ritt on primitive permutation groups. It is proved by Turnwald in [6] that :

## Lemma 2.

Let $f \in K[X]$ have degree $n>1$ with char $K=p$ not dividing $n$.
(i) If $f$ has a decomposition $f=f_{1} \circ f_{2} \circ \cdots f_{r}$ in $K[X]$, then $M_{K}(f)$ is solvable if, and only if, each $\operatorname{Mon}_{K}\left(f_{i}\right)$ is.
(ii) If $f$ is indecomposable, then $M_{K}(f)$ is a primitive permutation group (that is, stabilisers of points are maximal subgroups).
(iii) If $f$ is indecomposable, and $\operatorname{Mon}_{K}(f)$ is also solvable, one must have $n=4$ or $n$ must be a prime.

## Dihedral groups

Recall that the dihedral group $D_{n}$ of order $2 n$ is the group of symmetries of the regular $n$-gon; it can be defined by the presentation $\left\langle x, y \mid x^{2},(x y)^{2}, y^{n}\right\rangle$.
We have the characterisation :
A finite group which is generated by two involutions $x, x y$ whose product has order $n$, is isomorphic to $D_{n}$.
$D_{n}$ can be realised as a subgroup of $S_{n}$ generated by an $n$-cycle and a product of $[(n-1) / 2]$ disjoint transpositions.
A subgroup of $S_{n}$ which contains an $n$-cycle and is isomorphic to some $D_{k}$, must be isomorphic to $D_{n}$ (that is, $k=n$ ). We also note :
(i) All subgroups of $S_{n}$ which are isomorphic to $D_{n}$ are conjugate. Each $n$-cycle is contained in a unique such subgroup.
(ii) A nontrivial element of subgroup of $S_{n}$ which is isomorphic to $D_{n}$ must be either a product of ( $(n / d)$ number of) disjoint $d$-cycles for some $d \mid n$ or a product of $[(n-1) / 2]$ disjoint transpositions; that is, the cycle types occurring are of the type $(d, d, \cdots, d)$ or $(1,2,2, \cdots, 2)$ (when $n$ is odd) or $(1,1,2,2, \cdots, 2)$ (when $n$ is even).

## A lemma of Bilu.

Bilu proved the following result in characteristic 0 but it works in positive characteristic $p$ not dividing $n$ as well. One may rewrite his proof replacing symbols like cosine and sine etc. by the appropriate expressions in terms of primitive roots of unity.

Lemma 3. ( [1])
For $n \geq 3$, $p \nmid n$, the absolute monodromy group $\operatorname{Mon}\left(D_{n}(X, a)\right) \cong D_{n}$ if, $a \neq 0$, and is cyclic of order $n$ for $a=0$.
In particular, if $U_{D_{n}(X, a)}$ denotes the splitting field of $D_{n}(X, a)-t$ over $K(t)$, then the degree of the field $\bar{K} U_{D_{n}(X, a)}$ over $\bar{K}(t)$ is $2 n$ or $n$ according as to whether $a \neq 0$ or $a=0$.
Moreover, the constant subfield in the respective cases, is $K\left(\zeta+\zeta^{-1}\right)$ and $K(\zeta)$, where $\zeta$ is a primitive $n$-th root of unity in $\bar{K}$.

## Proof of main theorem.

We take $f$ monic for convenience, and that $p \nless \operatorname{deg} f$ without loss of generality. The proof will proceed by induction on $\operatorname{deg} f$.

Start with a root $x_{0} \in \overline{K(t)}$ of $f(X)-t$.
Let $y_{0} \in \overline{K(t)}$ be such that $q\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)=0$; then $g\left(y_{0}\right)=t$.
Thus, we have two finite extensions $K\left(x_{0}\right), K\left(y_{0}\right)$ of $K(t)$.
Look at $K\left(x_{0}\right) \cap K\left(y_{0}\right)$.
By Luröth's theorem, it is $K(z)$ for some $z \in \overline{K(t)}$ which is integral over $K[t]$. In fact, since

$$
K(t)=K\left(f\left(x_{0}\right)\right) \subseteq K\left(x_{0}\right) \cap K\left(y_{0}\right) \subseteq K\left(x_{0}\right)
$$

and

$$
K(t)=K\left(g\left(y_{0}\right)\right) \subseteq K\left(x_{0}\right) \cap K\left(y_{0}\right) \subseteq K\left(y_{0}\right)
$$

by Luröth's theorem, there exist $f_{0}, g_{0} \in K[X]$ such that

$$
z=f_{0}\left(x_{0}\right)=g_{0}\left(y_{0}\right)
$$

and

$$
K\left(x_{0}\right) \cap K\left(y_{0}\right)=K(z)
$$

Writing $\phi_{0} \in K[X]$ such that $\phi_{0}(z)=t$, we have

$$
f=\phi_{0} \circ f_{0}, g=\phi_{0} \circ g_{0}
$$

Note that $f_{0}\left(x_{0}\right)-g_{0}\left(y_{0}\right)=0$.
Being irreducible, $q(X, Y)$ must divide any polynomial $h(X, Y) \in K[X, Y]$ which satisfies $h\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)=0$. Therefore, $q(X, Y)$ divides $f_{0}(X)-g_{0}(Y)$.
If

$$
K\left(x_{0}\right) \cap K\left(y_{0}\right)=K(z)=K\left(f_{0}\left(x_{0}\right)\right)=K\left(g_{0}\left(y_{0}\right)\right)
$$

is a proper extension of $K(t)=K\left(f\left(x_{0}\right)\right)=K\left(g\left(y_{0}\right)\right)$, then degree of $f_{0}$ is less than deg $f$. Proceed similarly with $f_{0}, g_{0}$ in place of $f, g$. Thus, after a finite number of steps, we get polynomials $f_{1}, g_{1}$ such that $q(X, Y)$ divides $f_{1}(X)-g_{1}(Y), f=\phi_{1} \circ f_{1}, g=\phi_{1} \circ g_{1}$ for some
$\phi_{1} \in K[X]$ and $K\left(x_{0}\right) \cap K\left(y_{0}\right)=K(t)$. From now onwards, we shall assume this and call $f_{1}, g_{1}$ as $f, g$ again. As we shall see, the splitting field $U_{f}$ will turn out to be the field $K\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$.

Claims: If $K\left(x_{0}\right) \cap K\left(y_{0}\right)=K(t)$, then
(i) $\operatorname{deg} f=\operatorname{deg} g$.
(ii) The coefficients of $X^{2}, Y^{2}$, and $X Y$ in $q(X, Y)$ are all non-zero.
(iii) The splitting field $U_{f}$ of $f(X)-t$ over $K(t)$ is $K\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$. In particular, Mon $(f)$, is the Galois group Gal $\left(U_{f} / K(t)\right) \cong D_{n}$ where $\operatorname{deg} f=\operatorname{deg} g=n$.

## Proof.

A key observation is that since $q\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)=0$, the degrees

$$
\left[K\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right): K\left(x_{0}\right)\right],\left[K\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right): K\left(x_{0}\right)\right] \leq 2
$$

On the other hand, these degrees cannot be 1 ; otherwise, $x_{0}$ or $y_{0}$ would be in $K\left(x_{0}\right) \cap K\left(y_{0}\right)=$ $K(t)$, and therefore the irreducible polynomial $f(X)-t$ must have degree 1 , a contradiction. Hence, we have

$$
\left[K\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right): K\left(x_{0}\right)\right]=\left[K\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right): K\left(x_{0}\right)\right]=2
$$

Thus,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& {\left[K\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right): K(t)\right]=\left[K\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right): K\left(x_{0}\right)\right]\left[K\left(x_{0}\right): K(t)\right]=2 \text { deg } f} \\
& {\left[K\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right): K(t)\right]=\left[K\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right): K\left(y_{0}\right)\right]\left[K\left(y_{0}\right): K(t)\right]=2 \text { degg }}
\end{aligned}
$$

We conclude $\operatorname{deg} f=\operatorname{deg} g$ which proves claim (i).
To see (ii), write $q(X, Y)=\alpha X^{2}+\beta X Y+\gamma Y^{2}+$ terms of degree $\leq 1$. If $\gamma=0$, then $q\left(x_{0}, Y\right)$ is linear in $Y$ and then $K\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)=K\left(x_{0}\right)$, a contradiction.
Similarly, we have $\alpha \neq 0$.
Now, if $\beta=0$, we can write $q(X, Y)=f_{0}(X)-g_{0}(Y)$ with deg $f_{0}$, deg $g_{0}=2$. Note that $f_{0}\left(x_{0}\right)=g_{0}\left(y_{0}\right) \in K\left(x_{0}\right) \cap K\left(y_{0}\right)=K(t)$. Then,

$$
\operatorname{deg} f=\left[K\left(x_{0}\right): K(t)\right] \leq\left[K\left(x_{0}\right): K\left(f_{0}\left(x_{0}\right)\right)\right] \leq \operatorname{deg} f_{0} \leq 2
$$

which is a contradiction.
For proving (iii), we use the notation $U_{f}$ for the splitting field of $f(X)-t$ introduced earlier.
Now, $K\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$ is a separable extension of $K(t)$; let us consider its normal closure $L$ in $\overline{K(t)}$.
Then, the subgroup Gal $\left(L / K\left(x_{0}\right)\right)$ of $\operatorname{Gal}(L / K(t))$ leaves invariant the quadratic extension $K\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$ of $K\left(x_{0}\right)$.
Similarly, the subgroup $\operatorname{Gal}\left(L / K\left(y_{0}\right)\right)$ of $\operatorname{Gal}(L / K(t))$ leaves invariant the quadratic extension $K\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$ of $K\left(y_{0}\right)$.
By the hypothesis that $K\left(x_{0}\right) \cap K\left(y_{0}\right)=K(t)$, these two subgroups generate the whole of Gal $(L / K(t))$, which must itself leave invariant the field $K\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$.
This means $L=K\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$ and so $K\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$ is a Galois extension of $K(t)$.
Therefore, $U_{f} \subseteq K\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$.

It suffices to show now that $y_{0} \in U_{f}$.
Now, if we write

$$
q(X, Y)=\alpha X^{2}+\beta X Y+\gamma Y^{2}+u X+v Y+w
$$

then $q\left(X, y_{0}\right) \in K\left(y_{0}\right)[X]$ has two roots $x_{0}$ and $x_{1}$, say.
Note that $f\left(x_{1}\right)=t$ and so $x_{1}$ is also in $U_{f}$.
Thus, $x_{0}+x_{1} \in U_{f}$.
But,

$$
x_{0}+x_{1}=-\left(\beta y_{0}+u\right) / \alpha
$$

which gives (since $\beta \neq 0$ ) that $y_{0} \in U_{f}$.
This proves

$$
U_{f}=K\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)
$$

and (iii) follows from the characterisation of $D_{n}$ recalled above, since the nontrivial elements of $\operatorname{Gal}\left(U_{f} / K\left(x_{0}\right)\right)$ and of $\operatorname{Gal}\left(U_{f} / K\left(y_{0}\right)\right)$ have order 2 , and generate $\operatorname{Mon}_{K}(f)=G a l\left(U_{f} / K(t)\right)$ in view of

$$
K\left(x_{0}\right) \cap K\left(y_{0}\right)=K(t)
$$

We have also used the fact that $\operatorname{Mon}_{K}(f)$ contains an $n$-cycle as $p \nmid n$.

## Completion of proof when $f$ is tame :

Firstly, we note that if the original polynomial $f$ is tame, then any polynomial $f_{1}$ with $f=\phi \circ f_{1}$ is also tame ([5], remark 4.2), and we are working now with such $f_{1}$ as our $f$.
Using the observation (ii) on dihedral groups, $\operatorname{Mon}_{K}(f)$ is a subgroup of $S_{n}$ whose nontrivial elements have the cycle types $(d, d, \cdots, d)$ for some $d \mid n$ or $(1,2,2, \cdots, 2)$ or $(1,1,2,2, \cdots, 2)$.
As $f$ is tame, lemma 1 tells us that the only possible $c$-types of $f$ for any $c \in \bar{K}$ are either $(d, d, \cdots, d)$ for some $d \mid n$ or $(1,2,2, \cdots, 2)$ or $(1,1,2,2, \cdots, 2)$.
Let us separately consider the cases when the degree $n$ of $f$ is odd and when it is even.
First, consider the case when $n$ is odd.
If there is some $c$ with the $c$-type $(d, d, \cdots, d)$ with $1<d \leq n$, then $f(X)-c=\prod_{i=1}^{l}\left(X-\alpha_{i}\right)^{d}$ implies that there are $l(d-1)$ roots of $f^{\prime}$ by this $c$. As $l d=n$, we have $n(d(c)-1) / d(c) \geq 2 n / 3$ roots for $f^{\prime}$ from this $c$ as $d(c) \geq 3$. If we had two such different $c$ 's, then we would have at least $4 n / 3$ roots for $f^{\prime}$, an impossibility since $4 n / 3>n-1$.
Further, if this $c$ were the only constant giving a root of $f^{\prime}$, then we would have $n(d(c)-$ $1) / d(c)=n-1$; that is, $n=d(c)$. Hence, $f(X)-c=(X-\alpha)^{n}=D_{n}(X-\alpha, 0)$.
Now, suppose that apart from $c$, there is at least one other constant $c^{\prime}$ giving a root of $f^{\prime}$; then necessarily $f$ has $c^{\prime}$-type $(1,2,2, \cdots, 2)$.
Writing $f(X)-c^{\prime}=(X-\beta) \prod_{i=1}^{r}\left(X-\theta_{i}\right)^{2}$, this $c^{\prime}$ accounts for $r=(n-1) / 2$ roots of $f^{\prime}$. Since $2 n / 3+(n-1) / 2>n-1$, this is impossible as well.
Finally, if there is no $c$ such that $f$ has $c$-type of the form $(d, d, \cdots, d)$ for ay divisor $d>1$ of $n$, then there must be exactly two constants $c_{1}, c_{2}$ with $f$ having $c_{i}$-type $(1,2, \cdots, 2)$ for $i=1,2$. By proposition 2 (i), we must have $f(X)=D_{n}(X+b, a)+c$ for some constants $a, b, c \in K$.
Now, let $n$ be even.

Then, any constant $c$ giving a multiple root for $f(X)-c$ gives type $(d, d, \cdots, d)$ for some divisor $d>1$ of $n$ or type $(1,1,2, \cdots, 2)$.
If $f(X)-c_{1}=\prod_{i=1}^{l}\left(X-\alpha_{i}\right)^{d\left(c_{1}\right)}$, then we get $l\left(d\left(c_{1}\right)-1\right)=n\left(d\left(c_{1}\right)-1\right) / d\left(c_{1}\right) \geq n / 2$ roots for $f^{\prime}$. Thus, if we had two such constants $c_{1}, c_{2}$, then we would have $\geq n / 2+n / 2>n-1$ roots for $f^{\prime}$, an impossibility.
Suppose there is exactly one $c_{1}$ such that $f$ has $c_{1}$-type $(d, d, \cdots, d)$ for some divisor $d>1$ of $n$.
If there are no other constants giving roots for $f^{\prime}$, then we have $n-1=\operatorname{deg} f^{\prime}=n\left(d\left(c_{1}\right)-\right.$ $1) / d\left(c_{1}\right)$; that is, $d\left(c_{1}\right)=n$. So, $f(X)-c_{1}=(X-\alpha)^{n}=D_{n}(X-\alpha, 0)$.
Suppose there is some $c_{0}$ such that $f$ has $c_{0}$-type $(1,1,2, \cdots, 2)$. This gives rise to $(n-2) / 2$ roots of $f^{\prime}$. As $c_{1}$ gives $n\left(d\left(c_{1}\right)-1\right) / d\left(c_{1}\right) \geq n / 2$ roots of $f^{\prime}$, we must have $d\left(c_{1}\right)=2$ and $c_{1}, c_{0}$ are the only constants giving roots of $f^{\prime}$. This time, we can apply proposition 2 (ii) to get that $f(X)=D_{n}(X+b, a)+c$ for some $a, b, c \in K$.
Finally, if there is no $c_{1}$ giving the type $(d, d, \cdots, d)$ for any divisor $d>1$ of $n$, then we must have $n=4$ and exactly three $c$ 's which give the type $(1,1,2)$.
Writing $f(X)-c_{i}=\left(X-\alpha_{i}\right)\left(X-\beta_{i}\right)\left(X-\theta_{i}\right)^{2}$ for $i=1,2,3$, we have that all the $\alpha$ 's, $\beta$ 's and $\theta$ 's to be distinct.
Hence $f^{\prime}(X)=4 \prod_{i=1}^{3}\left(X-\theta_{i}\right)$. We claim that this is impossible.
The coefficient of $X^{3}$ in $\left(X-\alpha_{1}\right)\left(X-\beta_{1}\right)\left(X-\theta_{1}\right)^{2}-\left(X-\alpha_{2}\right)\left(X-\beta_{2}\right)\left(X-\theta_{2}\right)^{2}$ is zero, as this polynomial is a constant $c_{2}-c_{1}$. This gives us

$$
\alpha_{2}+\beta_{2}-\alpha_{1}-\beta_{1}=2 \theta_{1}-2 \theta_{2} \cdots(A)
$$

On the other hand, $f^{\prime}(X)=\left(f(X)-c_{1}\right)^{\prime}$ gives

$$
4\left(X-\theta_{2}\right)\left(X-\theta_{3}\right)=\left(2 X-\alpha_{1}-\beta_{1}\right)\left(X-\theta_{1}\right)+2\left(X-\alpha_{1}\right)\left(X-\beta_{1}\right)
$$

The coefficient of $X$ gives

$$
2\left(\theta_{2}+\theta_{3}\right)=\theta_{1}+\alpha_{1}+\beta_{1}
$$

Similarly,

$$
2\left(\theta_{1}+\theta_{3}\right)=\theta_{2}+\alpha_{2}+\beta_{2}
$$

Subtracting, we have

$$
2 \theta_{1}-2 \theta_{2}=\alpha_{2}+\beta_{2}-\alpha_{1}-\beta_{1}+\theta_{2}-\theta_{1} \cdots(B)
$$

But then (A) and (B) imply $\theta_{1}=\theta_{2}$, a contradiction of the assumption that $\theta$ 's are distinct. Hence this case $n=4$ with exactly three $c$ 's of type $(1,1,2)$ cannot arise.
Hence, we have shown in all cases that $f(X)=D_{n}(X+b, a)+c$ for some $a, b, c \in K$.
We shall show now that $g(X)= \pm D_{n}\left(\frac{u X+v}{\zeta^{k(n-1) / 2}+1 / \zeta^{k(n-1) / 2}}, a\right)+c$ for some $k \in\{0,1, \cdots, n-1\}$ with $\zeta^{k} \neq-1$.

Now, as in the proof of claim (iii), using the notation $x_{0}$ and $x_{1}$ for the two roots of $q\left(X, y_{0}\right)$, the sum $x_{0}+x_{1}=-\left(\beta y_{0}+u\right) / \alpha$ for some $\alpha, \beta \in K^{*}$.
Since $f\left(x_{0}\right)=f\left(x_{1}\right)=t$, and since $f(X)=D_{n}(X+b, a)+c$, the polynomial $D_{n}(X, a)+c-t$ has roots $x_{0}+b, x_{1}+b$.

We now use the observation (made in [1]) that the sum $x_{0}+x_{1}+2 b$ must be a root of a certain polynomial of the form $D_{n}(u X+v, a) \pm(c-t)$.
More precisely, the following observation implies that $x_{0}+x_{1}+2 b$ is a root of $D_{n}\left(\frac{X}{\zeta^{k(n-1) / 2}+1 / \zeta^{k(n-1) / 2}}, a\right)-$ $(t-c)$ for some $k \in\{0,1, \cdots, n-1\}$ with $\zeta^{k} \neq-1$.

## Observation.

Assume that a primitive $n$-th root of unity $\zeta \notin K$ and that $\zeta+\zeta^{-1} \in K$ when $a=0$. If $x_{0}, x_{1}$ are roots of $D_{n}(X, a)-t$ with $x_{0}+x_{1} \neq 0$, then $x_{0}+x_{1}$ is a root of $D_{n}\left(\frac{X}{\zeta^{k(n-1) / 2}+1 / \zeta^{k(n-1) / 2}}, a\right)-t$ for some
$k \in\{0,1, \cdots, n-1\}$ with $\zeta^{k} \neq-1$.

## Proof.

If we write $x_{0}=z+a / z$ for some $z$, then the various roots of $D_{n}(X, a)-t$ are clearly $\zeta^{k} z+a / \zeta^{k} z$ for $k \in\{0,1, \cdots, n-1\}$. We have then $x_{1}=\zeta^{k} z+a / \zeta^{k} z$ for one of these $k \neq 0$. As $x_{0}+x_{1} \neq 0$, clearly $\zeta^{k} \neq-1$.
We have

$$
\begin{gathered}
x_{0}+x_{1}=\left(1+\zeta^{k}\right) z+\frac{a}{z}+\frac{a}{\zeta^{k} z} \\
=\left(\zeta^{k(n-1) / 2}+\frac{1}{\zeta^{k(n-1) / 2}}\right)\left(\frac{z}{\zeta^{k(n-1) / 2}}+\frac{a \zeta^{k(n-1) / 2}}{z}\right) .
\end{gathered}
$$

Thus,

$$
D_{n}\left(\frac{z}{\zeta^{k(n-1) / 2}}+\frac{a \zeta^{k(n-1) / 2}}{z}, a\right)=z^{n}+\frac{a^{n}}{z^{n}}=D_{n}\left(x_{0}, a\right)=t
$$

This proves that $x_{0}+x_{1}$ is a root of

$$
D_{n}\left(\frac{X}{\zeta^{k(n-1) / 2}+\frac{1}{\zeta^{k(n-1) / 2}}}, a\right)-t
$$

This completes the proof of the observation.
Getting back to our $f(X)=D_{n}(X+b)+c$, note that the roots $x_{0}, x_{1}$ of $q\left(X, y_{0}\right)$ are such that $x_{0}+x_{1} \neq 0$; otherwise, we will have a contradiction as follows. Recall

$$
q(X, Y)=\alpha X^{2}+\beta X Y+\gamma Y^{2}+u X+v Y+w
$$

in $K[X, Y]$ means that $x_{0}+x_{1}=-\left(\beta y_{0}+u\right) / \alpha$ can be zero only if $y_{0} \in K$. This being impossible, we do have $x_{0}+x_{1} \neq 0$ and, in the above observation, we have shown that $x_{0}+x_{1}+2 b=$ $2 b-\left(\beta y_{0}+u\right) / \alpha$ is a root of $D_{n}\left(\frac{X}{\zeta^{k(n-1) / 2}+1 / \zeta^{k(n-1) / 2}}, a\right)-(t-c)$.
We rewrite $x_{0}+x_{1}+2 b=r y_{0}+s$ for some $r, s \in K, r \neq 0$.
In other words, $y_{0}$ is a root of the irreducible polynomial $D_{n}\left(\frac{r X+s}{\zeta^{k(n-1) / 2}+1 / \zeta^{k(n-1) / 2}}, a\right)-(t-c)$ over $K(t)$.
As $g(X)-t$ is also an irreducible polynomial over $K(t)$ having the same degree and for which $y_{0}$ is a root, we must have

$$
\lambda g(X)=D_{n}\left(\frac{r X+s}{\zeta^{k(n-1) / 2}+1 / \zeta^{k(n-1) / 2}}, a\right)-(t-c)
$$

for some $\lambda \in K^{*}$.
Comparing the coefficients of $t$, (as $t, x$ are algebraically independent over $K$ ), one obtains $\lambda=1$. We have

$$
g(X)=D_{n}\left(\frac{r X+s}{\zeta^{k(n-1) / 2}+1 / \zeta^{k(n-1) / 2}}, a\right)+c
$$

Thus, if we choose $\phi(X)=X+c$, we note that $f(X)=\left(\phi \circ f_{1}\right)(X)$ where $f_{1}(X)=D_{n}(X+b, a)$. Further, if $g_{1}(X)=D_{n}\left(\frac{r X+s}{\zeta^{k(n-1) / 2}+1 / \zeta^{k(n-1) / 2}}, a\right)$, then noting that $g=\phi \circ g_{1}$ and that $q(X, Y)$ divides $f_{1}(X)-g_{1}(Y)$, the theorem is proved in the tame case.

## Completion of proof in the general (non-tame) case.

Recall the assumption that 4 does not divide $\operatorname{deg} f$ was made in the theorem. We shall use the following remarkable result due to P.Müller ( [4], Theorem 4) which is proved using valuation theory :

Proposition 3. ( [4])
Let $K$ be of odd characteristic $p$, and let $P \in K[X]$ have degree a prime $l \neq p$. Suppose $\operatorname{Mon}(P)$ is a solvable group. Then, $P(X)=\lambda D_{l}(X, a)+\mu$ where $a=0$ or 1 .

Recall that the claims in the body of the proof yield the corollary that $\operatorname{Mon}_{K}(f)$ is solvable. In fact, we know that it is isomorphic to the dihedral group $D_{n}$.
By lemma 2 (ii) and (iii), $f$ is a composition of indecomposable polynomials of degrees 1,4 or a prime whose monodromy groups are solvable. By our assumption, (since neither 4 nor $p$ divides $\operatorname{deg} f$ ), in the decomposition of $f$, each of the indecomposable polynomials has degree 1 or a prime $\neq p$.
Applying the above proposition of Muller, we have that $f$ must have the form

$$
f=P_{1} \circ P_{2} \circ \cdots \circ P_{r}
$$

for polynomials $P_{i} \in K[X]$ each of which is either linear or equals $D_{l}(X, 1)$ or $X^{l}$ for some prime $l \neq p$.
We may write $f(X)=D_{l}(h(X), a)$ where $a=0$ or 1 and $h=P_{2} \circ P_{3} \circ \cdots \circ P_{r}$ - the situation when $P_{1}$ is linear is easily taken care of at the end.
If $h(X)=h_{0}+h_{1} X+\cdots+h_{m} X^{m}$, then $h\left(x_{0}\right), h\left(x_{1}\right)$ are roots of $D_{l}(X, 1)-t$. Therefore, $h\left(x_{0}\right)+h\left(x_{1}\right)$ is a root of $D_{l}\left(\frac{X}{\zeta^{k(l-1) / 2}+\zeta^{-k(l-1) / 2}}, a\right)-t$.

Before proceeding with the rest of the proof, we recall that the polynomial $q\left(X, y_{0}\right)$ of degree 2 in $X$ has the two roots $x_{0}$ and $x_{1}$. We have

$$
\begin{gathered}
x_{0}+x_{1}=r y_{0}+s \\
x_{0} x_{1}=u y_{0}^{2}+v y_{0}+w
\end{gathered}
$$

for some $r, s, u, v, w \in K$ with $r u \neq 0$.
Using the above expressions for the sum and product of $x_{0}, x_{1}$, one shows by induction on $m$ that $x_{0}^{m}+x_{1}^{m}$ is a polynomial $P_{m}\left(y_{0}\right)$ of degree $m$ over $K$. Thus, it follows that $h\left(x_{0}\right)+h\left(x_{1}\right)=$
$Q_{m}\left(y_{0}\right)$ where $Q_{m} \in K[X]$ has degree $m$.
Therefore,

$$
D_{l}\left(\frac{Q_{m}\left(y_{0}\right)}{\zeta^{k(l-1) / 2}+\zeta^{-k(l-1) / 2}}, a\right)=t
$$

By the irreducibility of $g(Y)-t$ over $K(t)$, the fact that $q(X, Y)$ divides each polynomial $F(X, Y)$ satisfying $F\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)=0$ and the fact $g\left(y_{0}\right)=t$, it follows that

$$
g(X)=D_{l}\left(\frac{Q_{m}(X)}{\zeta^{k(l-1) / 2}+\zeta^{-k(l-1) / 2}}, a\right)
$$

Finally, when the decomposition of $f$ starts with a linear polynomial, then evidently one may take $\phi$ to be linear and $f_{1}(X), g_{1}(Y)$ to be the polynomials

$$
\begin{gathered}
f_{1}(X)=D_{l}(h(X), a), \\
g_{1}(X)=D_{l}\left(\frac{Q_{m}(X)}{\zeta^{k(l-1) / 2}+\zeta^{-k(l-1) / 2}}, a\right)
\end{gathered}
$$

for some $k \in\{0,1, \cdots, l-1\}, a=0$ or 1 .
We note that $Q_{m}(X)$ can be explicitly determined in terms of the coefficients of $q(X, Y)$ and the polynomials occurring in the decomposition of $f$.
This completes the proof of the theorem.

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