## Twists of hyperelliptic curves by integers in progressions modulo p

by

DAVID KRUMM (Portland, OR) and PAUL POLLACK (Athens, GA)

**1. Introduction.** Let  $f(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$  be a nonconstant polynomial with nonzero discriminant, and let C be the hyperelliptic curve over  $\mathbb{Q}$  defined by  $y^2 = f(x)$ . For every squarefree integer d, let  $C_d$  denote the quadratic twist  $dy^2 = f(x)$ . The main object of interest in this article is the set  $S_{\mathbb{Q}}(f)$ consisting of all squarefree integers d such that  $C_d$  has a nontrivial rational point, i.e., an affine rational point  $(x_0, y_0)$  with  $y_0 \neq 0$ . Specifically, we are interested in the following conjecture, which was proposed by the first author [4].

CONJECTURE 1. For every large enough prime p, and every integer r not divisible by p, there exist infinitely many  $d \in S_{\mathbb{Q}}(f)$  such that  $d \equiv r \pmod{p}$ .

This conjecture is proved in [4] in the case where deg  $f \leq 2$ . Furthermore, when deg f = 3, or when deg f = 4 and f(x) has a rational root, the conjecture is shown to follow from the Parity Conjecture for elliptic curves over  $\mathbb{Q}$ . In this paper we explain how to leverage known results on squarefree values of polynomials and binary forms to prove the following two theorems.

First, using work of Granville [1] we show that Conjecture [1] follows from the abc conjecture; in fact, the latter can be used to prove a stronger statement. Let us denote by  $S_{\mathbb{Z}}(f)$  the set of all squarefree integers d such that  $C_d$  has a nontrivial *integral* point.

THEOREM 2. The abc conjecture implies that for every large enough prime p, and every integer r not divisible by p, there exist infinitely many  $d \in S_{\mathbb{Z}}(f)$  such that  $d \equiv r \pmod{p}$ .

Second, we prove an unconditional result by using work of Greaves 2.

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THEOREM 3. Conjecture 1 holds if every irreducible factor of f(x) over  $\mathbb{Q}$  has degree at most 6.

In addition, we consider the distribution of elements of  $S_{\mathbb{Z}}(f)$  modulo p when p is a "small" prime, by which we mean that at least one of the conditions in (4) is not satisfied.

2. Assuming abc: proof of Theorem 2. We will need the following special case of 1. Theorem 1.

PROPOSITION 4 (Granville). Assume the abc conjecture is true. Let g(x) be a nonconstant polynomial with integer coefficients and nonzero discriminant, and suppose that there is no prime p such that p | g(n) for all integers n. Then there exist infinitely many integers n such that g(n) is squarefree.

Recall that an integer k is called a *fixed divisor* of f(x) if k | f(n) for every integer n. The set of all fixed divisors of f(x) is finite, and therefore has a largest element, which we denote by D. It is a simple exercise to show that D is maximal also in the sense that every fixed divisor of f(x) divides D.

Let p be a prime number, let  $\operatorname{ord}_p$  denote the p-adic valuation on  $\mathbb{Z}$ , and let  $\varepsilon \in \{0,1\}$  be the parity of  $\operatorname{ord}_p(D)$ . For every integer  $r \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$  and every integer  $v \geq 0$  we define a statement S(r, v) as follows:

(1) 
$$S(r,v) \begin{cases} \text{there exist } h, x_0, y_0 \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ satisfying} \\ \bullet hy_0^2 \equiv f(x_0) \pmod{p^{2(v+\varepsilon)+1}}, \\ \bullet & \operatorname{ord}_p(y_0) = v + \varepsilon, \text{ and} \\ \bullet & h \equiv r \pmod{p}. \end{cases}$$

The proof of the following proposition establishes the key ideas to be used throughout this article.

PROPOSITION 5 (assuming abc). Let r be an integer not divisible by p. Suppose that S(r, v) holds true for some  $v \ge 0$ , and that f(x) has an irreducible factor whose discriminant is not divisible by p. Then there exist infinitely many integers  $d \in S_{\mathbb{Z}}(f)$  such that  $d \equiv r \pmod{p}$ .

*Proof.* For every nonzero rational number x we denote by  $\operatorname{sqf}(x)$  the squarefree part of x, i.e., the unique squarefree integer representing the coset of x in  $(\mathbb{Q}^*)/(\mathbb{Q}^*)^2$ . By definition of  $\varepsilon$ , we have  $\operatorname{ord}_p(D) = 2k + \varepsilon$  for some nonnegative integer k. Write  $D = \operatorname{sqf}(D)t^2$ . It is necessarily the case that  $\operatorname{ord}_p(t) = k$  and  $\operatorname{ord}_p(\operatorname{sqf}(D)) = \varepsilon$ ; thus, we may write  $t = p^k u$ , where  $p \nmid u$ , and  $\operatorname{sqf}(D) = p^{\varepsilon}\delta$  for some squarefree integer  $\delta$  not divisible by p.

Since S(r, v) holds true, there exist integers  $h, x_0$ , and  $y_0$  satisfying the properties listed in (1). In particular,  $\operatorname{ord}_p(y_0) = v + \varepsilon$ , so we may write  $y_0 = p^{v+\varepsilon} z_0$ , where  $p \nmid z_0$ .

By the Chebotarev density theorem (1), there exists a prime  $q \nmid D$  such that  $qu \equiv z_0 \pmod{p}$  and f(x) has a simple root modulo q. The latter property ensures, via Hensel's lemma (2), that there exists  $m \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $q^2 \parallel f(m)$ .

For every prime  $s \neq p$  dividing D, let  $e_s = \operatorname{ord}_s(D)$  and let  $n_s$  be an integer such that  $f(n_s) \not\equiv 0 \pmod{s^{e_s+1}}$ . (Such an integer must exist, for otherwise  $\operatorname{lcm}(s^{e_s+1}, D) = sD$  would be a fixed divisor of f(x), contradicting the maximality of D.)

Choose  $b \in \mathbb{Z}$  satisfying

- $b \equiv x_0 \pmod{p^{2(v+\varepsilon)+1}}$ ,
- $b \equiv m \pmod{q^3}$ , and
- $b \equiv n_s \pmod{s^{e_s+1}}$  for every prime  $s \mid D, s \neq p$ .

Let  $a = q^2 p^{2(v+\varepsilon)+1} \prod_s s^{e_s+1}$ , and define a polynomial g(x) by the equation

$$\Delta \cdot g(x) = f(ax+b), \text{ where } \Delta = Dq^2 p^{2(v-k)+\varepsilon}$$

Note that  $v \ge k$ , so that  $\Delta \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Indeed, the properties in (1) imply that  $\operatorname{ord}_p(f(x_0)) = 2(v + \varepsilon)$ . Since  $D \mid f(x_0)$ , we have  $\operatorname{ord}_p(D) \le \operatorname{ord}_p(f(x_0))$ , so  $2k + \varepsilon \le 2v + 2\varepsilon$ , and therefore  $k \le v$ .

We claim that q(x) satisfies all the hypotheses of Proposition 4. A Taylor expansion shows that  $f(ax + b) = f(b) + a \cdot P(x)$  for some polynomial  $P(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ . Thus, in order to show that  $g(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$  it suffices to show that  $\Delta$  divides both f(b) and a. From the definitions it follows easily that  $\operatorname{ord}_{\ell}(a) \geq \operatorname{ord}_{\ell}(\Delta)$  for every prime  $\ell$  dividing  $\Delta$ , so  $\Delta \mid a$ . Similarly, the definition of b implies that  $\Delta \mid f(b)$ . Hence  $g(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ . Now suppose that  $\ell$ is a fixed prime divisor of q(x). We claim that  $\ell \nmid a$ . If  $\ell = q$ , then  $q \mid q(q)$ , so  $q^3 \mid f(aq+b)$ . However,  $f(aq+b) \equiv f(b) \equiv f(m) \not\equiv 0 \pmod{q^3}$ . Thus  $\ell \neq q$ . Suppose now that  $\ell$  is one of the primes s, and let  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Then  $s \mid g(n)$ , so  $s^{e_s+1} \mid f(an+b)$ . However,  $f(an+b) \equiv f(b) \equiv f(n_s) \not\equiv 0 \pmod{s^{e_s+1}}$ . Thus  $\ell \neq s$ . Similarly, we can show that p does not divide q(n) for any integer n. For if  $p \mid q(n)$ , then  $f(an + b) \equiv 0 \pmod{p^{2(v+\varepsilon)+1}}$ . However,  $f(an + b) \equiv f(b) \equiv f(x_0) \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p^{2(v+\varepsilon)+1}}$ . This proves that  $\ell \nmid a$ . Now, since the map  $x \mapsto (ax + b)$  is invertible modulo  $\ell$ , the assumption that  $\ell$  is a fixed divisor q(x) implies that it is also a fixed divisor of f(x). It follows that  $\ell \mid D$ , but this has already been ruled out above. Therefore, q(x) has no fixed prime divisor. Finally, disc  $g(x) \neq 0$  since disc  $f(x) \neq 0$  by assumption.

<sup>(&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>) See [4] Lemma 4.4] for details. The crucial fact we use here is that if h(x) is an irreducible factor of f(x) such that  $p \nmid \operatorname{disc} h(x)$ , then the intersection of the splitting field of h(x) and the cyclotomic field  $\mathbb{Q}(\zeta_p)$  is  $\mathbb{Q}$ .

<sup>(&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>) Let  $\alpha$  be a simple root of f(x) modulo q. Hensel lifting allows us to find an integer  $\beta$  such that  $\beta \equiv \alpha \pmod{q}$  and  $f(\beta) \equiv 0 \pmod{q^3}$ . Then  $m = \beta + q^2$  satisfies  $q^2 \mid f(m)$ .

As shown above, neither p nor any of the primes s can divide g(n) for any integer n. Thus,

(2) 
$$gcd(g(n), pD) = 1$$
 for every integer  $n$ .

The last step in the proof is to show that there is a well-defined map

 $\psi: \{n \in \mathbb{Z} : g(n) \text{ is squarefree}\} \to \{d \in S_{\mathbb{Z}}(f) : d \equiv r \pmod{p}\}$ 

given by  $n \mapsto \delta g(n)$ . Note that the domain of  $\psi$  is infinite by Proposition 4. Let  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$  be such that g(n) is squarefree. Tracking through the definitions we find that

(3) 
$$f(ax+b) = \delta g(x)(qu)^2 p^{2v+2\varepsilon}$$

By (2) we have  $gcd(g(n), \delta) = 1$ , so (3) implies that

$$d := \operatorname{sqf}(f(an+b)) = \delta g(n).$$

Reducing (3) modulo  $p^{2(v+\varepsilon)+1}$  and recalling that  $y_0 = p^{v+\varepsilon} z_0$ , we obtain

$$d(qu)^2 p^{2v+2\varepsilon} \equiv f(b) \equiv f(x_0) \equiv hy_0^2 \equiv hp^{2v+2\varepsilon} z_0^2 \pmod{p^{2(v+\varepsilon)+1}}$$

It follows that  $d(qu)^2 \equiv hz_0^2 \pmod{p}$ . Since  $qu \equiv z_0 \pmod{p}$  by construction and  $h \equiv r \pmod{p}$  by the assumptions in (1), this implies that  $d \equiv r \pmod{p}$ . Moreover, it is clear from the definitions that  $d \in S_{\mathbb{Z}}(f)$ . Thus, we have shown that the map  $\psi$  is well defined.

Note that  $\psi$  has finite fibers, since the equation g(x) = g(y) can have at most finitely many real solutions x for any given real number y. Hence, the fact that the domain of  $\psi$  is infinite implies that its image is infinite as well. This completes the proof of Proposition 5.

REMARKS. (i) Proposition 4 is known to hold unconditionally if every irreducible factor of f(x) has degree at most 3 (see 3 Chap. 4). Our arguments show that Proposition 5 also holds unconditionally in this case.

(ii) The version of Proposition 4 given in [1] states that the number of positive integers  $n \leq B$  such that g(n) is squarefree is asymptotic to  $\kappa B$  (as  $B \to \infty$ ) for some positive constant  $\kappa$ . Modifying the proof of Proposition 5 appropriately to take advantage of this, one can show that

$$#\{d \in S_{\mathbb{Z}}(f) : |d| \leq B \text{ and } d \equiv r \pmod{p}\} \gg B^{1/\deg f}$$

COROLLARY 6 (assuming abc). Let r be an integer not divisible by p. Suppose that  $p \nmid D$ ,  $p \nmid \text{disc } f(x)$ , and  $ry_0^2 \equiv f(x_0) \pmod{p}$  for some integers  $x_0, y_0$  with  $p \nmid y_0$ . Then there exist infinitely many integers  $d \in S_{\mathbb{Z}}(f)$  such that  $d \equiv r \pmod{p}$ .

*Proof.* The hypotheses imply that the statement S(r, 0) holds true. The result then follows immediately from Proposition 5

Proof of Theorem 2. Assuming the abc conjecture, we must show that for every large enough prime p, and every integer r not divisible by p, there

exist infinitely many  $d \in S_{\mathbb{Z}}(f)$  such that  $d \equiv r \pmod{p}$ . Let lc(f) be the leading coefficient of f(x), and let g be the genus of the curve  $y^2 = f(x)$ . Suppose that p is a prime satisfying

(4) 
$$p \nmid \operatorname{lc}(f), \quad p \nmid D, \quad p \nmid \operatorname{disc} f(x), \quad p > 4g^2 + 6g + 4.$$

Let r be an integer not divisible by p. The Hasse–Weil bound implies that every smooth projective curve of genus g over  $\mathbb{F}_p$  has at least 2g + 5 points defined over  $\mathbb{F}_p$ ; in particular, this applies to the hyperelliptic curve over  $\mathbb{F}_p$ defined by  $ry^2 = f(x)$ . This curve can have at most 2g + 4 trivial points defined over  $\mathbb{F}_p$ , so it must have a nontrivial point. Applying Corollary 6 we obtain the desired result.

**3.** The case of small primes p. Let  $R(p) \subseteq \mathbb{F}_p^*$  be the set consisting of all the nonzero residue classes modulo p which are represented in the set  $S_{\mathbb{Z}}(f)$ . We have shown that if p is large enough, then  $R(p) = \mathbb{F}_{p}^{*}$ . In this section we discuss the problem of determining R(p) when p is a "small" prime, meaning that the conditions (4) are not all satisfied.

LEMMA 7. Let r be an integer not divisible by p, and let v be a nonnegative integer. Suppose that S(r, v) holds. Then S(a, v) holds for every integer a in the same square class as r modulo p.

*Proof.* Let  $h, x_0$ , and  $y_0$  be integers satisfying the conditions in (1). Let g be a primitive root modulo p, and let z be a multiplicative inverse of g modulo  $p^{2(v+\varepsilon)+1}$ . By hypothesis,  $a \equiv rg^{2k} \pmod{p}$  for some positive integer k. From the definitions it follows that

- $hg^{2k}(z^k y_0)^2 \equiv hy_0^2 \equiv f(x_0) \pmod{p^{2(v+\varepsilon)+1}}$ ,  $\operatorname{ord}_p(z^k y_0) = \operatorname{ord}_p(y_0) = v + \varepsilon$ , and
- $hg^{2k} \equiv rg^{2k} \equiv a \pmod{p}$ .

Hence, S(a, v) holds.

**PROPOSITION 8** (assuming abc). Suppose that f(x) has an irreducible factor whose discriminant is not divisible by p. Then R(p) is either empty or equal to one of the sets  $\mathbb{F}_p^*$ ,  $(\mathbb{F}_p^*)^2$ , or  $\mathbb{F}_p^* \setminus (\mathbb{F}_p^*)^2$ .

*Proof.* We claim that if R(p) contains a square, then  $R(p) \supseteq (\mathbb{F}_p^*)^2$ . Let a and r be nonzero quadratic residues modulo p, and suppose that there exists  $d \in S_{\mathbb{Z}}(f)$  such that  $d \equiv r \pmod{p}$ . Then we have  $dy_0^2 = f(x_0)$  for some integers  $x_0, y_0$  with  $y_0 \neq 0$ . Letting  $v = \operatorname{ord}_p(y_0) - \varepsilon$ , it is easy to verify that  $v \ge 0$  and S(r, v) holds. By Lemma 7, S(a, v) also holds. Hence, by Proposition 5, there exists  $d' \in S_{\mathbb{Z}}(f)$  such that  $d' \equiv a \pmod{p}$ . This proves the claim. A similar argument shows that if R(p) contains a nonsquare, then  $R(p) \supseteq \mathbb{F}_p^* \setminus (\mathbb{F}_p^*)^2.$ 

Suppose that R(p) is nonempty. If R(p) contains only squares, then the above argument implies that  $R(p) = (\mathbb{F}_p^*)^2$ ; similarly, if R(p) contains only nonsquares, then  $R(p) = \mathbb{F}_p^* \setminus (\mathbb{F}_p^*)^2$ . Finally, if R(p) contains both a square and a nonsquare, then  $R(p) = \mathbb{F}_p^*$ .

We now provide examples in which the various possibilities of Proposition  $\underline{8}$  occur with small primes p.

EXAMPLE 9. Let p be any prime such that  $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ , and consider the polynomial  $f(x) = (x^2+1)((x^p-x)^2+p)$ . Note that f(x) has a repeated root modulo p, so that  $p \mid \text{disc } f(x)$ , and p is a small prime for f(x). We have  $\operatorname{ord}_p(f(n)) = 1$  for every integer n, which implies that  $p \mid \operatorname{sqf}(f(n))$  for all n. Hence, every element of  $S_{\mathbb{Z}}(f)$  is divisible by p, and  $R(p) = \emptyset$ .

EXAMPLE 10. Let p be an arbitrary prime, and consider the polynomial  $f(x) = x^p - x + 1$ . Note that p is small for f(x). We claim that  $R(p) = (\mathbb{F}_p^*)^2$ . Let r be an integer not divisible by p, and suppose that  $d \in S_{\mathbb{Z}}(f)$  satisfies  $d \equiv r \pmod{p}$ . Then  $dy_0^2 = x_0^p - x_0 + 1$  for some integers  $x_0, y_0$ . Reducing modulo p we obtain  $ry_0^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ , from which it follows that r is a square modulo p. Thus,  $R(p) \subseteq (\mathbb{F}_p^*)^2$ . Conversely, if r is a nonzero square modulo p, then  $ry_0^2 \equiv 1 \equiv f(x_0) \pmod{p}$  for some integer  $y_0$  and for every integer  $x_0$ . Since  $p \nmid D = 1$  and  $p \nmid \operatorname{disc} f(x)$ , Corollary [6] implies that there exists  $d \in S_{\mathbb{Z}}(f)$  such that  $d \equiv r \pmod{p}$ . Hence,  $R(p) = (\mathbb{F}_p^*)^2$ , as claimed. A similar argument shows that if we define  $f(x) = x^p - x + a$ , where a is a quadratic nonresidue modulo p, then  $R(p) = \mathbb{F}_p^* \setminus (\mathbb{F}_p^*)^2$ .

EXAMPLE 11. Let p be prime, let v be a nonnegative integer, and consider

$$f(x) = x(x^p - x)^{2\nu+2} + p^{2\nu+1}x.$$

We will show that  $R(p) = \mathbb{F}_p^*$ . Note that  $p \mid \text{disc } f(x)$ , so p is small for f(x). Clearly,  $p^{2v+1}$  is a fixed divisor of f(x), so  $p^{2v+1} \mid D$ ; in fact  $p^{2v+1} \mid D$  since  $p^{2v+2} \nmid f(1)$ . In particular, the parity of  $\operatorname{ord}_p(D)$  is  $\varepsilon = 1$ . The statement S(r, v) can now be seen to hold for every integer  $r \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ : indeed,

$$r(p^{v+1})^2 \equiv f(rp) \pmod{p^{2v+3}}.$$

Moreover, f(x) has an irreducible factor (namely x) whose discriminant is not divisible by p. Thus, by Proposition 5, there exists  $d \in S_{\mathbb{Z}}(f)$  such that  $d \equiv r \pmod{p}$ . We conclude that  $R(p) = \mathbb{F}_p^*$ .

In the last example we show that when the discriminant condition in Proposition 8 is not satisfied, the conclusion may not hold.

EXAMPLE 12. Let p be an odd prime, and let f(x) be the pth cyclotomic polynomial. Then f(x) is irreducible and  $p | \operatorname{disc} f(x)$ . We will show that  $R(p) = \{1\}$ . Clearly  $1 \in R(p)$  because the curve  $y^2 = f(x)$  has a nontrivial integral point, namely (0, 1). Now suppose that  $d \in S_f(\mathbb{Z})$  is not divisible by p. We have d > 0 because f(x) only takes positive values for  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . If q is any prime dividing d, then f(x) has a simple root modulo q. Let K denote the cyclotomic field  $\mathbb{Q}[x]/(f(x))$ . By the Dedekind–Kummer theorem in algebraic number theory [5] Proposition 8.3], some prime (and therefore every prime) of  $\mathcal{O}_K$  lying over (q) has ramification index and residue degree equal to 1. Hence, q splits completely in K. It follows that  $q \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$  (see [5], Corollary 10.4], for instance). Since d > 0 and every prime divisor of d is congruent to 1 modulo p, we get  $d \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ . Therefore,  $R(p) = \{1\}$ .

**4.** An unconditional result: proof of Theorem **3**. We will need the following special case of the main theorem in **2**.

PROPOSITION 13 (Greaves). Let  $F(x, y) \in \mathbb{Z}[x, y]$  be a binary form of degree d with nonzero discriminant, and suppose that the coefficient of  $y^d$  in F(x, y) is nonzero. Let A, B, M be integers with M > 0. Assume that for every prime  $\ell$  there exist integers  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  such that

(5) 
$$\alpha \equiv A \pmod{M}, \quad \beta \equiv B \pmod{M}, \quad \ell^2 \nmid F(\alpha, \beta).$$

If every irreducible factor of F(x, y) has degree at most 6, then there exist infinitely many pairs of integers  $\alpha, \beta$  such that  $\alpha \equiv A \pmod{M}, \beta \equiv B \pmod{M}$ , and  $F(\alpha, \beta)$  is squarefree.

REMARK. The result in 2 assumes that F(x, y) has nonzero terms in both  $x^d$  and  $y^d$ . To obtain Proposition 13, one should apply the result of 2 with F(x, y) replaced with F(x, kx + y) for an integer k chosen so that the coefficient of  $x^d$  is nonzero.

PROPOSITION 14. Let r be an integer not divisible by p. Suppose that S(r, v) holds true for some  $v \ge 0$ , and that f(x) has an irreducible factor whose discriminant is not divisible by p. Moreover, suppose that deg  $f \ge 3$  and that every irreducible factor of f(x) has degree at most 6. Then there exist infinitely many integers  $d \in S_{\mathbb{Q}}(f)$  such that  $d \equiv r \pmod{p}$ .

Proof. The hypotheses allow us to define a polynomial g(x) as in the proof of Proposition 5; we will use here the notation introduced in that proof. Let G(x, y) be the homogenization of g(x),  $\partial = \deg g$ , and  $F(x, y) = y^{\sigma}G(x, y)$ , where  $\sigma \in \{0, 1\}$  is the parity of  $\partial$ . We have disc  $F \neq 0$  since disc  $g(x) \neq 0$ . Note that  $g(0) = f(b)/\Delta$ , and  $f(b) \neq 0$  because  $f(b) \equiv f(m) \not\equiv 0 \pmod{q^3}$ . It follows that the coefficient of  $y^{\partial+\sigma}$  in F(x, y) is nonzero.

We will apply Proposition 13 with A = q, B = 1, M = pD. We must show that for every prime  $\ell$  there exist  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{Z}$  satisfying (5). By (2) we have gcd(g(q), pD) = 1. Thus, if  $\ell \mid pD$ , then  $\ell \nmid g(q) = F(q, 1)$ , so we may take  $\alpha = q, \beta = 1$ . For  $\ell = q$ , we have  $q \nmid g(q) = F(q, 1)$ , as shown in the proof of Proposition 5. Suppose now that  $\ell \nmid pqD$ , so that  $\ell \nmid a$ . We claim that there exists  $\alpha \equiv q \pmod{pD}$  such that  $\ell \nmid F(\alpha, 1)$ . If not, then  $\ell \mid f(a\alpha + b)$  for every such  $\alpha$ . Since a is invertible modulo  $\ell$ , this implies that  $\ell$  is a fixed divisor of f(x), and hence divides D, which is a contradiction.

Let P be the set of all pairs of integers  $(\alpha, \beta)$  such that  $\alpha \equiv q \pmod{pD}$ ,  $\beta \equiv 1 \pmod{pD}$ , and  $F(\alpha, \beta)$  is squarefree. By Proposition 13, P is an infinite set. We claim that there is a well-defined map

$$\psi: P \to \{ d \in S_{\mathbb{Q}}(f) : d \equiv r \pmod{p} \}, \quad (\alpha, \beta) \mapsto F(\alpha, \beta) \delta.$$

Given  $(\alpha, \beta) \in P$ , let  $\lambda = \alpha/\beta$  and  $d = F(\alpha, \beta)\delta$ . Then  $\beta^{\partial+\sigma}g(\lambda) = F(\alpha, \beta)$ , so  $\operatorname{sqf}(g(\lambda)) = F(\alpha, \beta)$ . Note that  $F(\alpha, \beta)$  is relatively prime to D: if  $\ell$  is a prime dividing D, then  $\ell \nmid g(q) = F(q, 1)$ , and therefore  $\ell \nmid F(\alpha, \beta)$  since  $F(\alpha, \beta) \equiv F(q, 1) \pmod{\ell}$ . Thus d is squarefree. Using (3) we obtain

$$\beta^{\partial + \sigma} f(a\lambda + b) = d(qu)^2 p^{2v + 2\varepsilon}$$

from which it follows that  $\operatorname{sqf}(f(a\lambda + b)) = d$ , and therefore  $d \in S_{\mathbb{Q}}(f)$ . We claim that  $d \equiv r \pmod{p}$ . Since  $\beta$  is a unit modulo p, we see that  $\lambda$  belongs to the local ring  $\mathbb{Z}_{(p)}$ . In this ring we have the congruence  $a\lambda + b \equiv b \pmod{p^{2(v+\varepsilon)+1}}$ ; hence, by the displayed equation above,

$$d(qu)^2 p^{2v+2\varepsilon} \equiv \beta^{\partial+\sigma} f(b) \pmod{p^{2(v+\varepsilon)+1}}.$$

The definition of b implies that  $f(b) \equiv hz_0^2 p^{2(v+\varepsilon)} \pmod{p^{2(v+\varepsilon)+1}}$ . It follows that  $d(qu)^2 \equiv \beta^{\partial+\sigma}hz_0^2 \equiv \beta^{\partial+\sigma}rz_0^2 \pmod{p}$ . Since  $qu \equiv z_0 \pmod{p}$  and  $\beta \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ , we obtain  $d \equiv r \pmod{p}$ , as claimed. This proves that the map  $\psi$  is well defined.

We end by showing that  $\psi$  has finite fibers. For this purpose it suffices to show that F can represent a given nonzero integer only finitely many times. If F is irreducible, then, since deg  $F \ge \deg f \ge 3$ , this follows from a well-known theorem of Thue. If F is reducible, the proof of this finiteness statement is a straightforward exercise.

Proof of Theorem 3. Assuming that every irreducible factor of f(x) has degree at most 6, we must show that for every large enough prime p, and every integer r not divisible by p, there exist infinitely many  $d \in S_{\mathbb{Q}}(f)$  such that  $d \equiv r \pmod{p}$ .

By the results of [4] mentioned in the introduction, we may assume that deg  $f \geq 3$ . As seen in the proof of Theorem 2, if p satisfies the conditions (4), then S(r,0) holds for every integer  $r \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ . Applying Proposition 14 we obtain the desired result.

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David Krumm Mathematics Department Reed College 3203 SE Woodstock Blvd. Portland, OR 97202, U.S.A. E-mail: dkrumm@reed.edu http://maths.dk Paul Pollack Department of Mathematics University of Georgia Boyd Graduate Studies Research Center Athens, GA 30602, U.S.A. E-mail: pollack@uga.edu http://pollack.uga.edu