POLYNOMIALS WITH MANY RATIONAL PREPERIODIC POINTS

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ABSTRACT. In this paper we study two questions related to exceptional behavior of preperiodic points of polynomials in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$. We show that for all $d \geq 2$, there exists a polynomial $f_d(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ with $2 \leq \deg(f_d) \leq d$ such that $f_d(x)$ has at least $d + \lfloor \log_2(d) \rfloor$ rational preperiodic points. Furthermore, we show that for infinitely many integers d, the polynomials $f_d(x)$ and $f_d(x) + 1$ have at least $d^2 + d\lfloor \log_2(d) \rfloor - 2d + 1$ common complex preperiodic points.

1. INTRODUCTION

Let K be a field and let $f(x) \in K[x]$ be a polynomial. We write $f^n(x)$ to denote the *n*-fold composition of f with itself. A point $\alpha \in \overline{K}$ is *preperiodic* under f(x) if the orbit $\{f^n(\alpha) : n \ge 0\}$ is finite. Let $\operatorname{PrePer}(f, K)$ denote the set of K-rational preperiodic points of f,

 $\operatorname{PrePer}(f, K) := \{ \alpha \in K : \alpha \text{ is preperiodic under } f \}.$

The following questions arise naturally in arithmetic and complex dynamics:

Question 1.1. How many rational preperiodic points can a degree-*d* polynomial $f(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ have?

Question 1.2. How many complex preperiodic points can degree-*d* polynomials $f(x), g(x) \in \mathbb{C}[x]$ have in common?

Both questions are conjectured to have answers in the form of uniform upper bounds depending only on d (subject to some minor caveats described below). Our main result proves the existence of a sequence of polynomials $f_d(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ of degree at most d which simultaneously exhibit extremal behavior for both questions: $f_d(x)$ has many rational preperiodic points, and the polynomials $f_d(x) + i$ and $f_d(x) + j$ have many common complex preperiodic points for small integers i and j.

Theorem 1.3. For all integers $d \ge 2$ there exists a polynomial $f_d(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ such that $2 \le \deg(f) \le d$ and

(1) $f_d(x)$ has at least $d + \lfloor \log_2(d) \rfloor$ rational preperiodic points,

(2) for all
$$0 \le i < j \le \log_2(d)$$
,

$$\left|\operatorname{PrePer}(f_d(x)+i,\mathbb{C})\cap\operatorname{PrePer}(f_d(x)+j,\mathbb{C})\right|<\infty,$$

(3) and

$$\left| \bigcap_{i=0}^{\lfloor \log_2(d) \rfloor} \operatorname{PrePer}(f_d(x) + i, \mathbb{C}) \right| \ge \deg(f_d)(d-1) + 1.$$

Remark. Using Lagrange interpolation one may easily construct degree-d polynomials with d + 1 rational preperiodic points. Each rational preperiodic point beyond d + 1 imposes an additional constraint. Theorem 1.3 shows that it is possible to get an improvement on the order of (at least) $\log(d)$ on the Lagrange interpolation construction.

Given an integer $d \ge 2$, let

$$B_d := \sup_{f} |\operatorname{PrePer}(f, \mathbb{Q})| \in [0, \infty],$$

$$C_d := \sup_{f,g} |\operatorname{PrePer}(f, \mathbb{C}) \cap \operatorname{PrePer}(g, \mathbb{C})| \in [0, \infty],$$

where the supremum defining B_d is taken over all polynomials $f(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ with $2 \leq \deg(f) \leq d$, and the supremum defining C_d is taken over all $f(x), g(x) \in \mathbb{C}[x]$ with $2 \leq \deg(f), \deg(g) \leq d$ such that $\operatorname{PrePer}(f, \mathbb{C}) \neq \operatorname{PrePer}(g, \mathbb{C})$. Both B_d and C_d are conjectured to be finite for all $d \geq 2$.

Northcott [18] proved that if $\deg(f) \ge 2$, then $\operatorname{PrePer}(f, \mathbb{Q})$ is finite. The Morton-Silverman Uniform Boundedness Conjecture [17, p. 100] asserts, in part, that $B_d < \infty$. This conjecture has motivated a substantial volume of work in arithmetic dynamics (see Silverman [20, Sec. 3.3]). While it is widely believed to be true, the Uniform Boundedness Conjecture has yet to be proved unconditionally in any degree. Looper [14] recently gave a conditional proof that $B_d < \infty$, assuming a generalization of the abc conjecture.

DeMarco, Krieger, and Ye [8, Conj. 1.4] conjecture that $C_d < \infty$ for all $d \ge 2$; they prove this conjecture when f and g are restricted to the family of quadratic polynomials of the form $x^2 + c$ [8, Thm. 1.1]. Mavraki and Schmidt [15] recently proved an analogous uniform bound on the number of common preperiodic points along 1-parameter families in $\operatorname{Rat}_d \times \operatorname{Rat}_d$, where Rat_d denotes the space of degree-d rational functions.

The polynomials asserted to exist in Theorem 1.3 combined with an explicit family described below in Theorem 1.10 lead to the following lower bounds on B_d and C_d .

Corollary 1.4. For all integers d > 2,

- (1) $B_d \ge d + \max(6, \lfloor \log_2(d) \rfloor),$ (2) $C_d \ge d^2 + 4d + 1.$

Furthermore, there are infinitely many d > 2 for which

$$C_d \ge d^2 + d|\log_2(d/4)| + 1.$$

One may compare Corollary 1.4(1) to known lower bounds on $A_q := \sup_X |X(\mathbb{Q})|$, where X ranges over all smooth irreducible genus-g curves defined over \mathbb{Q} . In this setting, the best known lower bound for A_g that holds for all $g \ge 2$ is linear in g (see [5]), though it is unknown whether the correct upper bound should also be linear. In that spirit, we pose the following question:

Question 1.5. What is the order of growth of B_d as $d \to \infty$? Is it true that

$$B_d = d + O(\log(d))?$$

Remark. Our proof of Theorem 1.3(3) (hence also Corollary 1.4(2)) actually shows something stronger: Given a set \mathcal{P} of polynomials, we say that a finite set $S \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ has a *finite orbit* under \mathcal{P} if $f(S) \subseteq S$ for every $f \in \mathcal{P}$. (See [3] for a detailed study of finite orbits for pairs of quadratic and cubic polynomials.) Note that if S has a finite orbit under \mathcal{P} , then $S \subseteq \bigcap_{f \in \mathcal{P}} \operatorname{PrePer}(f, \mathbb{C})$, but, in general, common preperiodic points of the elements of \mathcal{P} need not have a finite orbit under \mathcal{P} .

With this setup, we prove that for the polynomials $f_d(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ provided by Theorem 1.3, the set of maps $\mathcal{P} := \{f_d(x) + i : 0 \le i \le |\log_2(d)|\}$ has a finite orbit with at least $\deg(f_d)(d-1) + 1$ elements. As a result, it follows that Corollary 1.4(2) holds when C_d is replaced with

$$\widetilde{C}_d := \sup_{f,g} \sup_S |S| \le C_d,$$

where f and g range over all polynomials of degree $2 \leq \deg(f), \deg(g) \leq d$ such that $\operatorname{PrePer}(f, \mathbb{C}) \neq d$ $\operatorname{PrePer}(g, \mathbb{C})$ and S ranges over all finite orbits of $\mathcal{P} = \{f, g\}$.

Remark. The two uniform boundedness conjectures stated above for polynomials are believed to hold more generally for rational functions on \mathbb{P}^1 . However, the methods of this paper appear to be constrained to polynomials. Note that if B'_d and C'_d are defined analogously to B_d and C_d , but with rational functions instead of polynomials, then we have $B_d < B'_d$ and $C_d < C'_d$ for all $d \ge 2$. This inequality follows from the simple observation that every polynomial is a rational function, plus the fact that we are not counting ∞ as a preperiodic point, though it is a fixed point for every polynomial map when considered as an endomorphism of \mathbb{P}^1 .

Remark. Fu and Stoll [10] recently proved a result analogous to Corollary 1.4(2), giving lower bounds on the maximal number of common torsion x-coordinates for pairs of elliptic curves E_1, E_2 such that $x(E_{1,tors}) \neq x(E_{2,tors})$. Their results have the following dynamical interpretation: If $f_i(x)$ denotes the degree-4 flexible Lattès map associated to multiplication by 2 on the elliptic curve E_i , then $x(E_{i,tors}) =$ $\operatorname{PrePer}(f_i(x), \mathbb{C})$. Hence [10, Thm. 2] implies that there are infinitely many pairs of elliptic curves E_1 , E_2 for which

$$22 \leq |\operatorname{PrePer}(f_1(x), \mathbb{C}) \cap \operatorname{PrePer}(f_2(x), \mathbb{C}))| < \infty,$$

and [10, Thm. 3] implies that there exists an explicit pair of elliptic curves E_1 , E_2 such that

$$|\operatorname{PrePer}(f_1(x), \mathbb{C}) \cap \operatorname{PrePer}(f_2(x), \mathbb{C}))| = 34.$$
(1.1)

Using the notation of the previous remark, (1.1) implies that $C'_4 \ge 34$. On the other hand, in Section 5 we provide an example that shows that $C_4 \ge 36$, hence that $C'_4 \ge 37$.

Remark. Despite the considerable interest in proving $B_d < \infty$, we are unaware of any previous work explicitly proving nontrivial lower bounds on B_d outside of finitely many low degree cases. However, motivated by problems in complexity theory, Cohen, Shpilka, and Tal prove a result ([7, Thm. 1.5]; see also [7, p. 458]) that implies the following: For all $0 < \varepsilon < 1$, there exists d_{ε} such that for all $d \ge d_{\varepsilon}$, we have

$$B_d \ge d + |\varepsilon \log_2(d)|.$$

Our improvement on this lower bound in Corollary 1.4(1) stems from an exact evaluation of a certain lattice discriminant (see Theorem 2.1) that was only bounded in [7]. We thank Yan Sheng Ang for bringing [7] to our attention.

1.1. **Dynamical compression.** For a positive integer m, let $[m] := \{1, 2, 3, ..., m\}$. We say a degreed polynomial $g(x) \in \mathbb{C}[x]$ exhibits dynamical compression if g(x) is conjugate to some polynomial f(x)—that is, $f = \ell \circ g \circ \ell^{-1}$ for some linear polynomial $\ell(x) \in \mathbb{C}[x]$ —which satisfies

$$f([m]) \subseteq [n]$$

for some $m \ge n > d+1$. In this case, $[m] \subseteq \operatorname{PrePer}(f(x), \mathbb{Q})$. The polynomials $f_d(x)$ asserted to exist in Theorem 1.3 all exhibit dynamical compression.

Example 1.6. Let $f(x) := \frac{x^2 - 9x + 22}{2}$. One may check that

$$f([8]) \subseteq [7]. \tag{1.2}$$

Therefore, both f(x) and f(x)+1 exhibit dynamical compression and have at least 8 rational preperiodic points, namely the elements of [8]. In fact, it may be shown that f(x) and f(x)+1 have exactly 8 rational preperiodic points. Hence $B_2 \ge 8$; in fact, Poonen [19] has conjectured that $B_2 = 8$. The polynomials f(x) and f(x) + 1 are simultaneously conjugate to $x^2 - \frac{29}{16}$ and $x^2 - \frac{21}{16}$, respectively. These quadratic polynomials appear several times in the literature for their exceptional properties, including in DeMarco, Krieger, and Ye [8], Doyle, Faber and Krumm [9], Hindes [13], Morton and Raianu [16], and Poonen [19].

Example 1.7. The cubic polynomial $f(x) := \frac{x^3 - 18x^2 + 89x - 66}{6}$ satisfies $f([11]) \subseteq [11]$. Thus both f(x) and 12 - f(x) exhibit dynamical compression and have at least 11 rational preperiodic points. These examples share the current record with 8 other cubics, found by computational search in Benedetto et al. [2, Table 2], for the cubic polynomial with the most rational preperiodic points. Of the 10 record-holding cubics found by Benedetto et al., only the two conjugate to f(x) and 12 - f(x) exhibit dynamical compression.

The following proposition, proved in Section 3, makes explicit the connection between dynamical compression and polynomials with many common preperiodic points.

Proposition 1.8. Suppose that $f(x) \in \mathbb{C}[x]$ is a degree $d \geq 2$ polynomial such that

$$f([m]) \subseteq [n],$$

for some integers $m > n \ge 1$. Then

$$d(n-1) + 1 \le \Big| \bigcap_{i=0}^{m-n} \operatorname{PrePer}(f(x) + i, \mathbb{C}) \Big| < \infty.$$

Example 1.9. Returning to Example 1.6, let $f(x) := \frac{x^2 - 9x + 22}{2}$. Then (1.2) and Proposition 1.8 imply that

$$|\operatorname{PrePer}(f(x), \mathbb{C}) \cap \operatorname{PrePer}(f(x) + 1, \mathbb{C})| \ge 13.$$

However, by comparing the preperiodic points with small forward orbit for f(x) and f(x) + 1 directly, we find that $\operatorname{PrePer}(f(x), \mathbb{C}) \cap \operatorname{PrePer}(f(x)+1, \mathbb{C})$ actually contains at least 26 points. Hence $C_2 \ge 26$. That is, dynamical compression accounts for half of the known preperiodic points shared by f(x) and f(x) + 1. To the best of our knowledge, this is the current record for a lower bound on C_2 . See Table 3 in Section 5 for more lower bound records on C_d for $2 \le d \le 15$.

The proof of Theorem 1.3 uses a geometry of numbers approach to show the existence of polynomials which compress exceptionally large intervals of integers but does not produce explicit examples. Thus it remains an interesting problem to construct explicit polynomials which surpass the trivial lower bounds on B_d and C_d . Our last result provides one such family $r_d(x)$. Formulas for $r_d(x)$ are given in Section 4.

Theorem 1.10. For all $d \ge 2$, there is an explicit degree-d polynomial $r_d(x)$ such that

$$r_d([d+6]) \subseteq \begin{cases} [d+5] & \text{if } d \text{ is even,} \\ [d+4] & \text{if } d \text{ is odd.} \end{cases}$$

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2. RATIONAL PREPERIODIC POINTS

The goal of this section is to prove Theorem 1.3, which is stated in a refined form below as Theorem 2.5. Our strategy is to consider the lattice $\Lambda_{d,e}$ generated by vectors of the form $(f(0), f(1), \ldots, f(d+e))$ where f(x) is a degree-at-most-*d* integer-valued polynomial and e > 0 is an integer. (Fecall that $g(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ is said to be *integer-valued* if $g(\mathbb{Z}) \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$.) There is a natural bijection between vectors in $\Lambda_{d,e}$ contained within a small box near the origin and degree-at-most-*d* polynomials exhibiting dynamical compression. We use a classical geometry-of-numbers theorem of Minkowski to prove the existence of lattice points in this box by analyzing the discriminant of $\Lambda_{d,e}$.

2.1. Lattices and their discriminants. Let $m \ge 1$ be an integer. By a *lattice* $\Lambda \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$ we mean a discrete free abelian subgroup of \mathbb{R}^m . If Λ is a rank *n* lattice with basis v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n , then we call the compact set $\{\sum_{i=1}^n c_i v_i : 0 \le c_i \le 1\}$ a *fundamental domain* of Λ . The *discriminant* of Λ , which we denote by $\delta(\Lambda)$ is the square of the *n*-dimensional volume of a fundamental domain of Λ . If *M* is the matrix with rows v_i , then

$$\delta(\Lambda) = \det(MM^T).$$

Note that $\delta(\Lambda)$ is independent of the choice of basis for Λ .

Given integers $d, e \ge 0$, let $\Lambda_{d,e}$ be the lattice in \mathbb{R}^{d+e+1} spanned by the d+1 vectors

$$u_i := \left(\begin{pmatrix} 0\\i \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1\\i \end{pmatrix}, \dots, \begin{pmatrix} d+e\\i \end{pmatrix} \right) \in \mathbb{Z}^{d+e+1}$$

for $0 \le i \le d$. (Note that $\binom{j}{i} = 0$ if j < i.) The lattice $\Lambda_{d,e}$ has rank d + 1: Indeed, if $\sum_{i=0}^{d} a_i u_i = 0$, then the degree-at-most-d polynomial $\sum_{i=0}^{d} a_i \binom{x}{i}$ vanishes at more than d points (namely, the points $0, 1, 2, \ldots, d + e$), hence all of the coefficients must be zero. We now provide an explicit formula for $\delta(\Lambda_{d,e})$.

Theorem 2.1. The discriminant of $\Lambda_{d,e}$ is given by

$$\delta(\Lambda_{d,e}) = \prod_{i=0}^{d} \prod_{j=1}^{e} \frac{d+i+j+1}{i+j}.$$

Proof. Let $M_{d,e} = \binom{j}{i}$ be the $(d+1) \times (d+e+1)$ matrix with rows u_i . Thus,

$$\delta(\Lambda_{d,e}) = \det(M_{d,e}M_{d,e}^T).$$

To evaluate $\delta(\Lambda_{d,e})$ we use the Lindström-Gessel-Viennot lemma [12, Thm. 1] to interpret det $(M_{d,e}M_{d,e}^T)$ as the number of plane partitions which fit inside a $(d+1) \times (d+1) \times e$ box. The number of such plane partitions is given by MacMahon's formula, which provides the desired product formula for $\delta(\Lambda_{d,e})$.

A *plane partition* Π is a finite, weakly increasing sequence of partitions $\lambda_1 \leq \lambda_2 \leq \cdots \leq \lambda_k$. More intuitively, a plane partition may be thought of us a finite set of boxes stacked in the corner of a room. For example, the plane partition in Figure 1 may be visualized as the stack of boxes in Figure 2.

Given positive integers r, s, t, we say a plane partition $\Pi : \lambda_1 \leq \lambda_2 \leq \cdots \leq \lambda_k$ fits inside the $r \times s \times t$ box if $k \leq t$ and if the Young diagram of λ_k fits inside an $r \times s$ box. Equivalently, the box diagram of Π fits inside an $r \times s \times t$ box. Let N(r, s, t) denote the number of plane partitions which fit inside an $r \times s \times t$ box. We claim that $\delta(\Lambda_{d,e}) = N(d+1, d+1, e)$.

Let \mathcal{I} be the \mathbb{Z} -lattice in \mathbb{R}^2 spanned by the vectors $v_1 := (-\sqrt{3}, 1)$ and $v_2 := (\sqrt{3}, 1)$. Let $v_3 := v_1 + v_2 = (0, 2) \in \mathcal{I}$. Given positive integers a, b, c, let H(a, b, c) denote the convex hull of the six points

$$\{0, av_1, bv_2, av_1 + cv_3, bv_2 + cv_3, av_1 + bv_2 + cv_3\} \subseteq \mathcal{I}.$$

See Figure 3 for an illustration. There is a simple and well-known correspondence between plane partitions that fit inside a box of dimensions $a \times b \times c$ and rhombic tilings of H(a, b, c) (see Figure 4). This correspondence comes from the interpretation of a plane partition as a stack of cubical blocks in a the first quadrant of \mathbb{R}^3 and viewing this stack of blocks from along the ray spanned by (1, 1, 1).



FIGURE 1. Example of a plane partition, illustrated using Young diagrams.

Now consider a plane partition Π contained in a box of size $(d+1) \times (d+1) \times e$ viewed as a rhombic tiling of H(d+1, d+1, e). There are three types of rhombic tiles T_i , characterized by which v_i is parallel to the short diagonal of T_i ; see Figure 7.



FIGURE 2. Plane partition as stack of boxes



FIGURE 3. H(3,4,2) and a portion of the lattice \mathcal{I} .



FIGURE 4. Rhombic tiling of H(3,3,5) corresponding to the plane partition from Figure 2.



FIGURE 5. Plane partition in $3 \times 3 \times 5$ box with corresponding rhombic paths highlighted.

For each $0 \le i \le d$, let e_i denote the line segment from iv_1 to $(i + 1)v_1$ and let f_i denote the line segment from iv_2 to $(i + 1)v_2$. If $0 \le i, j \le d$, then we define a *rhombic path* from e_i to f_j to be a sequence of rhombic tiles starting at e_i , ending at f_j , such that to the left of the v_3 -axis, each of the tiles is of type T_2 or T_3 , and to the right of the v_3 -axis each of the tiles is of type T_1 or T_3 (see Figure 8). Equivalently, to each $(d + 1) \times (d + 1) \times e$ box we may associate an acyclic directed graph $G_{d,e}$ with disjoint sets of vertices labelled e_i and f_j such that rhombic paths from e_i to f_j correspond to directed paths from e_i to f_j in $G_{d,e}$ (see Figure 6.)

A plane partition Π determines a sequence of non-crossing rhombic paths $P_i(\Pi)$ from e_i to f_i . Figure 5 illustrates the collection of rhombic paths associated to a plane partition contained in the $3 \times 3 \times 5$ box. Conversely, any sequence P_0, P_1, \ldots, P_d of non-intersecting rhombic paths P_i from e_i to f_i determines a unique plane partition contained in a $(d + 1) \times (d + 1) \times e$ box.



FIGURE 6. The acyclic digraph $G_{2,5}$.

Note that any path P_i crosses the v_3 -axis at a unique type T_3 tile R_k with lowest point kv_3 for some $0 \le k \le d + e$. Every rhombic path from e_i to R_k consisting only of tiles of type T_2 and T_3 has length k and contains exactly i tiles of type T_3 . Hence there are $\binom{k}{i}$ such rhombic paths. Therefore, the ikth entry of $M_{d,e}$ counts the number of rhombic paths from e_i to R_k , and by symmetry it follows that the ijth entry of $M_{d,e}M_{d,e}^T$ counts the number of rhombic paths from e_i to f_j . Therefore the Lindström-Gessel-Viennot lemma [12, Cor. 2] applied to the acyclic digraph $G_{d,e}$ implies that $\delta(\Lambda_{d,e}) = \det(M_{d,e}M_{d,e}^T) = N(d+1, d+1, e)$ is the total number of non-crossing rhombic paths, hence the total number of plane partitions which fit inside a box of dimension $(d+1) \times (d+1) \times e$. On the other hand, MacMahon's theorem [21, p. 378] implies that

$$N(d+1, d+1, e) = \prod_{i=0}^{d} \prod_{j=1}^{e} \frac{d+i+j+1}{i+j}.$$



FIGURE 7. Three rhombic tiles.

FIGURE 8. Example of rhombic path from e_2 to f_2 .

Remark. The use of the Lindström-Gessel-Viennot lemma to count plane partitions and to evaluate determinants of matrices with binomial coefficient entries is not new; however, we did not find the evaluation of $\delta(\Lambda_{d,e})$ among the known results. Many variations on this idea may be found in the literature (see, for example, [11, 12, 22]).

The following corollary extracts an upper bound on $\delta(\Lambda_{d,e})$ from the product formula in Theorem 2.1 that will be used in the proof of Theorem 2.5.

Corollary 2.2. Let d, e be integers such that $d \ge 33$ and $1 \le e \le \log_2(d/2)$. Then

$$\log_2(\delta(\Lambda_{d,e})) < 2(d-1)\log_2(d/2) - e\log_2(d+e+1).$$
(2.1)

Proof. Theorem 2.1 shows that $\delta(\Lambda_{d,e})$ is an increasing function of e. Thus, it suffices to fix $e := \lfloor \log_2(d/2) \rfloor$ and show that

$$\log_2(\delta(\Lambda_{d,e})) < 2(d-1)e - e\log_2(d+e+1).$$
(2.2)

Taking the logarithm of the product formula

$$\delta(\Lambda_{d,e}) = \prod_{i=0}^{d} \prod_{j=1}^{e} \frac{d+1+i+j}{i+j}$$

yields

$$\log_{2}(\delta(\Lambda_{d,e})) = \sum_{i=0}^{d} \sum_{j=1}^{e} \log_{2} \left(\frac{d+1+i+j}{i+j} \right)$$

$$= \sum_{n=1}^{d+e} \#\{(i,j): 0 \le i \le d, \ 1 \le j \le e, \ i+j=n\} \cdot \log_{2} \left(\frac{d+1+n}{n} \right)$$

$$= \sum_{n=1}^{e} n \log_{2} \left(1 + \frac{d+1}{n} \right) + \sum_{n=d+1}^{d+e} (d+e+1-n) \log_{2} \left(1 + \frac{d+1}{n} \right)$$

$$+ e \sum_{n=e+1}^{d} \log_{2} \left(1 + \frac{d+1}{n} \right).$$

(2.3)

Note that $\log_2\left(1+\frac{d+1}{n}\right)$ is a positive, decreasing function of n. Hence,

$$\sum_{n=1}^{e} n \log_2\left(1 + \frac{d+1}{n}\right) + \sum_{n=d+1}^{d+e} (d+e+1-n) \log_2\left(1 + \frac{d+1}{n}\right) \le \binom{e+1}{2} (\log_2(d+2)+1).$$

Note that for any $\varepsilon > 0$ and for all sufficiently large d (depending on ε),

$$\binom{e+1}{2} (\log_2(d+2)+1) = \binom{e+1}{2} \log_2(d) + \binom{e+1}{2} \log_2\left(1+\frac{2}{d}\right) + \binom{e+1}{2} \\ < \left(\frac{1}{2}+\varepsilon\right)e^2 \log_2(d) + e^2.$$

In particular, for if we take $\varepsilon=.03,$ then for all $d\geq 256$ we have

$$\sum_{n=1}^{e} n \log_2\left(1 + \frac{d+1}{n}\right) + \sum_{n=d+1}^{d+e} (d+e+1-n) \log_2\left(1 + \frac{d+1}{n}\right) < .53e^2 \log_2(d) + e^2.$$
(2.4)

Interpreting the third sum in (2.3) as a right hand Riemann sum gives us

$$\sum_{n=e+1}^{d} \log_2\left(1 + \frac{d+1}{n}\right) \le \int_e^d \log_2\left(1 + \frac{d+1}{x}\right) dx$$
$$= (2d+1)\log_2(2d+1) - d\log_2(d) - (d+e+1)\log_2(d+e+1) + e\log_2(e)$$

Observe that for $d \ge 2$,

$$(2d+1)\log_2(2d+1) = 2d + 1 + (2d+1)\log_2(d) + (2d+1)\log_2\left(1 + \frac{1}{2d}\right)$$

$$\leq 2d + (2d+1)\log_2(d) + 3,$$

and

$$(d+e+1)\log_2(d+e+1) = (d+e+1)\log_2(d) + (d+e+1)\log_2\left(1 + \frac{e+1}{d}\right)$$
$$\ge (d+e+1)\log_2(d) + e+1.$$

Hence for $d \geq 2$,

$$\sum_{n=e+1}^{d} \log_2\left(1 + \frac{d+1}{n}\right) \le 2d + (2d+1)\log_2(d) + 3 - d\log_2(d) - (d+e+1)\log_2(d) - e - 1 + e\log_2(e) = 2d - e\log_2(d) + e\log_2(e) - e + 2.$$
(2.5)

Combining the estimates (2.4) and (2.5) for $d \ge 256$ we have

$$\log_2(\delta(\Lambda_{d,e})) < (2de - e^2 \log_2(d) + e^2 \log_2(e) - e^2 + 2e) + .53e^2 \log_2(d) + e^2$$
$$= 2de - .47e^2 \log_2(d) + e^2 \log_2(e) + 2e.$$

It therefore suffices to prove that

$$2de - .47e^2 \log_2(d) + e^2 \log_2(e) + 2e \le 2(d-1)e - e \log_2(d+e+1),$$

which is equivalent to

$$e^{2}\log_{2}(e) + e\log_{2}(d+e+1) + 4e \le .47e^{2}\log_{2}(d),$$
 (2.6)

which can be shown to hold for all $d \ge 1079$. One may then check by computation that the inequality (2.1) holds for $33 \le d \le 1079$, completing the proof.

Remark. Cohen, Shpilka, and Tal [7, Lem. 6.4] proved, in our notation, that

$$\log_2(\delta(\Lambda_{d,e})) \le (2d+e+1)e$$

If $e \leq \log_2(d/2)$, this gives the bound

$$\log_2(\delta(\Lambda_{d,e})) \le 2d \log_2(d/2) + \log_2(d)^2 - \log_2(d).$$
(2.7)

This bound has the same leading term as the bound we prove in Corollary 2.2, but the lower order terms in (2.7) do not suffice to prove Theorem 2.5.

2.2. Minkowski's theorem on successive minima. Suppose that $K \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$ is a compact, convex, centrally symmetric set. If $\Lambda \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$ is a rank-*m* lattice, then for $1 \le i \le m$ the *ith successive minimum* of Λ with respect to K, denoted $\lambda_i(\Lambda, K)$, is defined by

$$\lambda_i(\Lambda, K) := \min\{r \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0} : \operatorname{span}(rK \cap \Lambda) \text{ has rank at least } i\}$$

Note that the $\lambda_i(\Lambda, K)$ are positive and weakly increasing with *i*. The following classical theorem of Minkowski relates the successive minima, the volume of *K*, and the discriminant of Λ . See [6, Chp. VIII, Thm. V].

Theorem 2.3 (Minkowski). Let $m \ge 1$, let $K \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$ be a compact, convex, centrally symmetric set, and let $\Lambda \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$ be a rank-m lattice. Then

$$\operatorname{Vol}(K)\prod_{i=1}^{m}\lambda_{i}(\Lambda,K) \leq 2^{m}\sqrt{\delta(\Lambda)}.$$

Suppose that $K = [-1, 1]^m \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$. Observe that, for $v \in \mathbb{R}^m$ and $r \ge 0$, $v \in rK$ if and only if $||v||_{\infty} \le r$ where

$$||(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m)||_{\infty} := \max_i |a_i|$$

is the usual max norm on \mathbb{R}^m . We define $\lambda_i(\Lambda) := \lambda_i(\Lambda, [-1, 1]^m)$. Since $\operatorname{Vol}([-1, 1]^m) = 2^m$, we have the following useful direct corollary of Theorem 2.3.

Corollary 2.4. If $\Lambda \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$ is a rank-m lattice with discriminant $\delta(\Lambda)$, then

$$\prod_{i=1}^m \lambda_i(\Lambda) \le \sqrt{\delta(\Lambda)}.$$

2.3. Main Result. We now prove the first main result. Recall that for $d \ge 2$,

$$B_d := \sup_f |\operatorname{PrePer}(f, \mathbb{Q})| \in [0, \infty]$$

where the supremum is taken over all $f(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ with $2 \leq \deg(f) \leq d$.

Theorem 2.5. Let $d \ge 2$ be an integer. Then there exists a polynomial $f_d(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ with $2 \le \deg(f_d) \le d$ such that

$$f_d([d + \lfloor \log_2(d) \rfloor]) \subseteq [d]$$

Hence for all $d \geq 2$ *,*

$$B_d \ge d + \lfloor \log_2(d) \rfloor.$$

Proof. Let $d \ge 2$ and $e \ge 0$ be integers. Recall the rank-(d + 1) lattice $\Lambda_{d,e} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{d+e+1}$ constructed in Section 2.1 spanned by the d + 1 vectors

$$u_i := \left(\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ i \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{pmatrix}, \dots, \begin{pmatrix} d+e \\ i \end{pmatrix} \right) \in \mathbb{Z}^{d+e+1}$$

for $0 \le i \le d$. Let M be a real number such that $M > \frac{d\sqrt{d+e+1}}{2}$ and let v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_e be an orthogonal basis for the orthogonal complement of $\Lambda_{d,e}$ in \mathbb{R}^{d+e+1} such that $||v_j|| = M$ for all j. Define $\widetilde{\Lambda}_{d,e}$ to be the rank-(d + e + 1) lattice spanned by the u_i and v_j with $0 \le i \le d$ and $1 \le j \le e$. Note that for any vector $w \in \widetilde{\Lambda}_{d,e}$ supported on some v_j we have

$$||w||_{\infty} \ge \frac{||w||}{\sqrt{d+e+1}} \ge \frac{||v_j||}{\sqrt{d+e+1}} = \frac{M}{\sqrt{d+e+1}} > \frac{d}{2}.$$
(2.8)

We claim that for $d \ge 33$ and $e := \lfloor \log_2(d/2) \rfloor = \lfloor \log_2(d) \rfloor - 1$ we have

$$\lambda_3(\widetilde{\Lambda}_{d,e}) < \frac{d}{2}.$$
(2.9)

First we finish the proof of the theorem assuming (2.9), and then we return to prove the claim.

If (2.9) holds, then there are three linearly independent vectors $w_1, w_2, w_3 \in \Lambda_{d,e}$ such that $||w_i||_{\infty} < \frac{d}{2}$. Thus (2.8) implies that each w_i is supported only on the u_j with $0 \le j \le d$. Linear independence implies that at least one w_i must be supported on a u_j with $j \ge 2$. Suppose without loss of generality that $w_1 = \sum_{i=0}^d a_i u_i$ where $a_i \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $a_i \ne 0$ for some $i \ge 2$. If $g(x) := \sum_{i=0}^d a_i \binom{x}{i}$, then $w_1 = (g(0), g(1), \ldots, g(d+e))$. Hence $|g(i)| \le ||w_1||_{\infty} < d/2$ for $0 \le i \le d+e$. Note that g(x) is an integer-valued polynomial. Thus $f_d(x) := g(x-1) + \lfloor d/2 \rfloor + 1$ is an integer-valued polynomial with $2 \le \deg(f_d) \le d$ such that for all $i \in [d+e+1] = [d + \lfloor \log_2(d) \rfloor]$,

$$0 \le \lfloor d/2 \rfloor - d/2 + 1 < f_d(i) < \lfloor d/2 \rfloor + d/2 + 1 \le d + 1.$$

Therefore $f_d([d + \lfloor \log_2(d) \rfloor]) \subseteq [d]$, as we wished to show.

Now we turn to proving (2.9). By construction, we have

$$\delta(\widetilde{\Lambda}_{d,e}) = \delta(\Lambda_{d,e}) M^{2e}$$

If i > d + 1, then any set of *i* independent vectors in $\widetilde{\Lambda}_{d,e}$ must contain at least one vector *w* supported on some v_i . Hence $||w||_{\infty} \ge M/\sqrt{d+e+1}$ by (2.8). Thus for i > d+1,

$$\lambda_i(\widetilde{\Lambda}_{d,e}) \ge \frac{M}{\sqrt{d+e+1}} > \frac{d}{2}.$$

The vectors u_i all have integer entries, hence $\lambda_1(\widetilde{\Lambda}_{d,e}) \ge 1$. The monotonicity of the $\lambda_i(\widetilde{\Lambda}_{d,e})$ gives us

$$\prod_{i=1}^{d+e+1} \lambda_i(\widetilde{\Lambda}_{d,e}) \ge \lambda_3(\widetilde{\Lambda}_{d,e})^{d-1} \left(\frac{M}{\sqrt{d+e+1}}\right)^e$$

Therefore, Corollary 2.4 implies that

$$\lambda_3(\widetilde{\Lambda}_{d,e})^{d-1} \left(\frac{M}{\sqrt{d+e+1}}\right)^e \le \prod_{i=1}^{d+e+1} \lambda_i(\widetilde{\Lambda}_{d,e}) \le \sqrt{\delta(\widetilde{\Lambda}_{d,e})} = \sqrt{\delta(\Lambda_{d,e})} \cdot M^e,$$

from which we conclude that

$$\log_2(\lambda_3(\widetilde{\Lambda}_{d,e})) \le \frac{\log_2(\delta(\Lambda_{d,e})) + e \log_2(d+e+1)}{2(d-1)}$$

Corollary 2.2 implies that

$$\log_2(\delta(\Lambda_{d,e})) < 2(d-1)\log_2(d/2) - e\log_2(d+e+1)$$

for $d \geq 33$, hence

$$\log_2(\lambda_3(\widetilde{\Lambda}_{d,e})) < \log_2(d/2),$$

which is equivalent to (2.9).

Now suppose that $2 \le d \le 32$. If $2 \le d \le 7$, then $\lfloor \log_2(d/2) \rfloor \le 1$. Lagrange interpolation immediately implies the existence of polynomials $f_d(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ with degree d such that $f_d([d+1]) \subseteq [d]$. If $8 \le d \le 32$, then $\log_2(d/2) \le 4$ and the sequence of polynomials $t_d(x)$ constructed in Corollary 4.3 satisfies

$$t_d([d+4]) \subseteq [5] \subseteq [d],$$

which suffices to complete the proof.

Remark. The idea of augmenting the lattice $\Lambda_{d,e}$ by arbitrary long vectors is borrowed from the proof of [7, Theorem 1.5]. This strategy greatly simplifies our original approach.

3. COMMON PREPERIODIC POINTS

In this section we prove Proposition 1.8 and part of Corollary 1.4(2), restated as Proposition 3.2 and Theorem 3.4 below.

Lemma 3.1. If $f(x) \in \mathbb{C}[x]$ is a degree-d polynomial and $S \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ is a set with n elements, then

$$|f^{-1}(S)| \ge dn - d + 1.$$

Proof. Let e_p denote the ramification index of f(x) at $p \in \mathbb{C}$. Then for all $q \in \mathbb{C}$,

$$d = \sum_{p \in f^{-1}(q)} e_p = |f^{-1}(q)| + \sum_{p \in f^{-1}(q)} (e_p - 1).$$

A point $p \in \mathbb{C}$ has $e_p > 1$ if and only if p is a root of f'(x) with multiplicity $e_p - 1$, hence

$$d-1 = \sum_{p \in \mathbb{C}} (e_p - 1).$$

Thus,

$$|f^{-1}(S)| = \sum_{q \in S} |f^{-1}(q)| = dn - \sum_{p \in f^{-1}(S)} (e_p - 1) \ge dn - d + 1.$$

Proposition 3.2. Suppose that $f(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ is a degree $d \ge 2$ polynomial such that

$$f([m]) \subseteq [n]$$

for some integers $m > n \ge 0$. Then

(1) $f^{-1}([n]) \subseteq \bigcap_{i=0}^{m-n} \operatorname{PrePer}(f(x) + i, \mathbb{C}),$

(2) $|f^{-1}([n])| \ge dn - d + 1$, and

(3) $\operatorname{PrePer}(f(x) + i, \mathbb{C}) \neq \operatorname{PrePer}(f(x) + j, \mathbb{C})$ for all $0 \le i < j \le m - n$.

Hence

$$d(n-1)+1 \le \left|\bigcap_{i=0}^{m-n} \operatorname{PrePer}(f(x)+i,\mathbb{C})\right| < \infty.$$

Proof. Let $0 \le i \le m - n$. If $f([m]) \subseteq [n]$, then

$$f(f^{-1}([n])) + i \subseteq [n+i] \subseteq [m] \subseteq f^{-1}([n]).$$

Hence $f^{-1}([n]) \subseteq \operatorname{PrePer}(f(x) + i, \mathbb{C})$, proving (1). The lower bound $|f^{-1}([n])| \ge dn - d + 1$ follows immediately from Lemma 3.1 since [n] contains n points.

For (3) it suffices to prove that for any polynomial h(x) and any positive integer i, $\operatorname{PrePer}(h(x), \mathbb{C}) \neq \operatorname{PrePer}(h(x) + i, \mathbb{C})$. Since h(x) is a polynomial, ∞ is a superattracting fixed point, and thus the set $\operatorname{PrePer}(h(x), \mathbb{C})$ of finite complex preperiodic points of h(x) is bounded. Therefore, there exists some $q \in \operatorname{PrePer}(h(x), \mathbb{C})$ such that $q+i \notin \operatorname{PrePer}(h(x), \mathbb{C})$. Let $p \in h^{-1}(q)$. Then $p \in \operatorname{PrePer}(h(x), \mathbb{C})$ by construction. If $p \in \operatorname{PrePer}(h(x)+i, \mathbb{C})$, then $h(p)+i = q+i \in \operatorname{PrePer}(h(x)+i, \mathbb{C}) \setminus \operatorname{PrePer}(h(x), \mathbb{C})$. Otherwise, $p \in \operatorname{PrePer}(h(x), \mathbb{C}) \setminus \operatorname{PrePer}(h(x) + i, \mathbb{C})$. In either case, we have $\operatorname{PrePer}(h(x), \mathbb{C}) \neq \operatorname{PrePer}(h(x) + i, \mathbb{C})$.

Finally, Baker and DeMarco [1, Thm. 1.2] proved that if $f(x), g(x) \in \mathbb{C}(x)$ are rational functions of degree at least 2, then $\operatorname{PrePer}(f(x), \mathbb{C}) \neq \operatorname{PrePer}(g(x), \mathbb{C})$ implies $\operatorname{PrePer}(f(x), \mathbb{C}) \cap \operatorname{PrePer}(g(x), \mathbb{C})$ is finite. Therefore,

$$d(n-1) + 1 \le \Big| \bigcap_{i=0}^{m-n} \operatorname{PrePer}(f(x) + i, \mathbb{C}) \Big| < \infty.$$

Example 3.3. Consider the degree-6 polynomial

$$f(x) = \frac{x^6 - 45x^5 + 775x^4 - 6375x^3 + 25504x^2 - 45060x + 30960}{720}$$

One may check that

$$f([14]) \subseteq [10].$$

Therefore Proposition 3.2 implies that $\bigcap_{i=0}^{4} \operatorname{PrePer}(f(x) + i, \mathbb{C})$ is finite and contains at least 55 points.

Recall that C_d for $d \ge 2$ is defined by

$$C_d := \sup_{f,g} |\operatorname{PrePer}(f, \mathbb{C}) \cap \operatorname{PrePer}(g, \mathbb{C})|,$$

where the supremum is taken over all $f(x), g(x) \in \mathbb{C}[x]$ with $2 \leq \deg(f), \deg(g) \leq d$ such that $\operatorname{PrePer}(f, \mathbb{C}) \neq \operatorname{PrePer}(g, \mathbb{C})$.

Theorem 3.4. Let $d \ge 2$ be an integer. There exists a polynomial $f_d(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ with $2 \le \deg(f_d) \le d$ such that

$$\left|\operatorname{PrePer}(f_d(x) + i, \mathbb{C}) \cap \operatorname{PrePer}(f_d(x) + j, \mathbb{C})\right| < \infty \text{ for all } 0 \le i < j \le \log_2(d)$$

and

$$\left|\bigcap_{i=0}^{\lfloor \log_2(d) \rfloor} \operatorname{PrePer}(f_d(x)+i,\mathbb{C})\right| \ge \deg(f_d)(d-1)+1.$$
(3.1)

Furthermore, there exist infinitely many d such that

$$C_d \ge d^2 + d\lfloor \log_2(d) \rfloor - 2d + 1.$$
(3.2)

Proof. Theorem 2.5 implies that for $d \ge 2$ there exists a polynomial $f_d(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ with $2 \le \deg(f_d) \le d$ such that

$$f_d([d + |\log_2(d)|]) \subseteq [d]$$

Hence (3.1) follows from Proposition 3.2.

Let $e_d := \lfloor \log_2(d) \rfloor$, then

$$f_d([d+e_d]) \subseteq [d] \subseteq [d+e_d-1].$$

Hence applying Proposition 3.2 with $m = d + e_d$ and $n = d + e_d - 1$, we have

$$\deg(f_d)(d+e_d-2)+1 \le |\operatorname{PrePer}(f_d(x),\mathbb{C}) \cap \operatorname{PrePer}(f_d(x)+1,\mathbb{C})| < \infty.$$

Cohen, Shpilka, and Tal [7, Cor. 1.2] prove that for all m sufficiently large, if $f(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ is a polynomial with $\deg(f) \ge 2$ such that $f([m]) \subseteq [m-1]$, then

$$\deg(f) \ge m \Big(1 - \frac{4}{\log_2 \log_2(m)} \Big).$$

Hence, for all d sufficiently large,

$$\deg(f_d) \ge (d + e_d) \left(1 - \frac{4}{\log_2 \log_2(d + e_d)} \right) \ge d \left(1 - \frac{4}{\log_2 \log_2(d)} \right).$$

Note that the quantity on the right-hand side tends to ∞ with d; thus, the same is true for deg (f_d) .

Now, let $d' \ge 2$, and let $d := \deg f_{d'} \le d'$. By the conclusion of the previous paragraph, there are infinitely many integers d arising in this way. In this case, we have

$$C_d \ge d(d' + \lfloor \log_2(d) \rfloor - 2) + 1 \ge d^2 + d \lfloor \log_2(d) \rfloor - 2d + 1.$$

Thus (3.2) holds for infinitely many d.

4. EXAMPLES OF EXCEPTIONAL PREPERIODIC BEHAVIOR IN EVERY DEGREE

In Theorem 2.5 we showed that for all sufficiently large degrees d, there exists a degree-at-most-d polynomial with at least $d + \lfloor \log_2(d) \rfloor$ rational preperiodic points. However, the proof is not constructive, in the sense that it does not allow us to provide an explicit formula for such a polynomial. In this section we construct a family of polynomials $r_d(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ such that, for all $d \ge 2$, r_d is a degree-d polynomial with at least d + 6 rational preperiodic points. For d < 64, this improves the lower bound on B_d obtained from Theorem 2.5.

First we introduce a doubly periodic sequence $\rho(m, d)$ and use its values to interpolate an auxiliary sequence of polynomials $s_d(x)$.

Lemma 4.1. There is a unique function $\rho : \mathbb{Z}^2 \to \mathbb{Z}$ satisfying the following properties:

(i) $\rho(m+3,d) = -\rho(m,d)$ for all $(m,d) \in \mathbb{Z}^2$, (ii) $\rho(m,d+1) = -\rho(m+1,d)$ for all $(m,d) \in \mathbb{Z}^2$, and (iii) $\rho(0,0) = \rho(1,0) = 1$, and $\rho(2,0) = 0$.

Furthermore, for all $(m, d) \in \mathbb{Z}^2$ *,*

- (1) $\rho(m, d+3) = \rho(m, d)$,
- (2) $\rho(m+1, d+1) = \rho(m, d) + \rho(m, d+1),$
- (3) $\rho(m,d) = (-1)^d \rho(d+1-m,d).$

Proof. The initial values together with (i) imply that $\rho(m, 0)$ is well-defined for all $m \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then (ii) implies that $\rho(m, d) = (-1)^d \rho(m + d, 0)$. Hence these three properties uniquely determine $\rho(m, d)$ for all $(m, d) \in \mathbb{Z}^2$.

m	0	1	2	3	4	5
$\rho(m,0)$	1	1	0	-1	-1	0

TABLE 1. Initial values that determine $\rho(m, n)$

(1) Properties (i) and (ii) imply that

$$\rho(m, d+3) = (-1)^3 \rho(m+3, d) = -\rho(m+3, d) = \rho(m, d)$$

(2) Since $\rho(m+6, d) = \rho(m, d)$, we can check the following identity by inspection:

 $\rho(m+2,0) = \rho(m+1,0) - \rho(m,0).$

Replacing m by m + d yields

$$\rho((m+1) + (d+1), 0) = \rho(m + (d+1), 0) - \rho(m + d, 0),$$

and repeatedly applying (ii) gives

$$(-1)^{d+1}\rho(m+1,d+1) = (-1)^{d+1}\rho(m,d+1) + (-1)^{d+1}\rho(m,d);$$

dividing by $(-1)^{d+1}$ yields (2).

(3) Using $\rho(m+6,d) = \rho(m,d)$ we may verify that for all $m \in \mathbb{Z}$,

$$\rho(m,0) = \rho(1-m,0). \tag{4.1}$$

Thus, if d = 2n is even, then

$$\rho(m,2n) = \rho(m+2n,0) = \rho(m-4n,0) = \rho(4n+1-m,0) = \rho(2n+1-m,2n).$$

Similarly, if d = 2n + 1 is odd, then (4.1) implies that

 $\rho(m, 2n+1) = -\rho(m+2n+1, 0) = -\rho(m-4n+1, 0) = -\rho(4n-m, 0) = \rho(2n-1-m, 2n+1).$ Finally, (i) implies

$$\rho(2n-1-m,2n+1) = -\rho(2n+2-m,2n+1).$$

Hence in either case,

$$\rho(m,d) = (-1)^d \rho(d+1-m,d).$$

Let $s_d(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ be the unique degree-at-most-d polynomial such that

$$s_d(m - \frac{d+1}{2}) = \rho(m, d),$$

for $0 \le m \le d$. Lemma 4.2 establishes some basic properties of $s_d(x)$. Let δ denote the *centered difference operator* defined by

$$\delta f(x) := f(x + \frac{1}{2}) - f(x - \frac{1}{2})$$

Lemma 4.2. *Let* $d \ge 0$ *.*

(1) $s_d(-x) = (-1)^d s_d(x),$ (2) $\delta s_{d+1}(x) = s_d(x),$ (3) $\deg(s_d) = d,$ (4) $s_d(d+1-\frac{d+1}{2}) = \rho(d+1,d),$ (5) $s_d(d+2-\frac{d+1}{2}) = \rho(d+2,d)+1,$ (6) $s_d(d+3-\frac{d+1}{2}) = \rho(d+3,d)+d+2.$

Proof. (1) Suppose $f(x) \in \mathbb{R}[x]$ is a degree-at-most-*d* polynomial. Then $f(x) - (-1)^d f(-x)$ has degree at most d - 1. Hence if there are at least $\lfloor \frac{d+1}{2} \rfloor$ distinct pairs $\pm a$ of real numbers for which $f(a) = (-1)^d f(-a)$, then it follows that the identity $f(x) = (-1)^d f(-x)$ holds in $\mathbb{R}[x]$. Lemma 4.1(3) implies that for $1 \le m \le d$,

$$s_d(m - \frac{d+1}{2}) = \rho(m, d) = (-1)^d \rho(d + 1 - m, d) = (-1)^d s_d(d + 1 - m - \frac{d+1}{2}) = (-1)^d s_d(\frac{d+1}{2} - m),$$

since $1 \le m \le d$ is equivalent to $1 \le d + 1 - m \le d$. The set $\{m - \frac{d+1}{2} : 1 \le m \le d\}$ contains at least $\lfloor \frac{d+1}{2} \rfloor$ pairs $\pm a$, hence it follows that $s_d(x) = (-1)^d s_d(-x)$ for all $d \ge 0$.

(2) Let f(x) be the degree-at-most-d polynomial

$$f(x) := \det s_{d+1}(x) = s_{d+1}(x + \frac{1}{2}) - s_{d+1}(x - \frac{1}{2})$$

If $0 \le m \le d$, then by Lemma 4.1(2),

$$f(m - \frac{d+1}{2}) = s_{d+1}(m + 1 - \frac{d+2}{2}) - s_{d+1}(m - \frac{d+2}{2})$$
$$= \rho(m + 1, d + 1) - \rho(m, d + 1)$$
$$= \rho(m, d)$$
$$= s_d(m - \frac{d+1}{2}).$$

Hence $f(x) = s_d(x)$.

(3) If f(x) has degree $d \ge 1$, then $\delta f(x)$ has degree d - 1. Since $s_0(x) = 1$ has degree 0 by construction, it follows from (2) that $\deg(s_d) = d$ for all $d \ge 0$.

(4) By (1) and Lemma 4.1(3),

$$s_d(d+1-\frac{d+1}{2}) = (-1)^d s_d(0-\frac{d+1}{2}) = (-1)^d \rho(0,d) = \rho(d+1,d).$$

(5) We prove this identity by induction on d. Since $s_0(x) = 1$ is constant,

$$s_0(0+2-\frac{0+1}{2}) = 1 = \rho(2,0) + 1.$$

Now let $d \ge 1$ and suppose that the identity (5) holds for d - 1. By (2), (4), and Lemma 4.1(2),

$$s_d(d+2-\frac{d+1}{2}) = s_d(d+1-\frac{d+1}{2}) + s_{d-1}(d+1-\frac{d}{2})$$
$$= \rho(d+1,d) + \rho(d+1,d-1) + 1$$
$$= \rho(d+2,d) + 1.$$

(6) Following the induction in (5) we first observe that

$$s_0(0+3-\frac{0+1}{2}) = 1 = \rho(3,0) + 0 + 2$$

If $d \ge 1$ and we suppose that (6) holds for d - 1, then by (2), (5), and Lemma 4.1(2),

$$s_d(d+3-\frac{d+1}{2}) = s_d(d+2-\frac{d+1}{2}) + s_{d-1}(d+2-\frac{d}{2})$$

= $\rho(d+2,d) + 1 + \rho(d+2,d-1) + d - 1 + 2$
= $\rho(d+3,d) + d + 2.$

After a change of coordinates, the polynomials $s_d(x)$ provide explicit examples of a family of polynomial that compress many consecutive integers into an interval of fixed length. These examples cover the low degree cases needed to complete the proof of Theorem 2.5.

Corollary 4.3. For $d \ge 0$ let $t_d(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ be the degree d polynomial defined by

$$t_d(x) := s_d(x - 2 - \frac{d+1}{2}) + 3$$

Then

$$t_d([d+4]) \subseteq [5].$$

Proof. Lemma 4.2 and the definition of $s_d(x)$ implies that $s_d(m - \frac{d+1}{2}) \in [-2, 2] \cap \mathbb{Z}$ for all integers m such that $-2 \leq m \leq d+2$. Hence it follows that $t_d([d+4]) \subseteq [5]$.

4.1. Constructing $r_d(x)$. For $d \ge 0$, let $r_d(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ be the polynomial sequence defined by

$$r_d(x) := \begin{cases} s_d(x - 3 - \frac{d+1}{2}) + 2 & \text{if } d \text{ is even,} \\ s_d(x - 3 - \frac{d+1}{2}) - x + d + 6 & \text{if } d \text{ is odd.} \end{cases}$$

Theorem 4.4. For all $d \ge 2$, $r_d(x)$ is a degree-d, integer-valued polynomial such that if d is even, then

$$r_d([d+6]) \subseteq [d+5]$$

and if d is odd, then

$$r_d([d+6]) \subseteq [d+4].$$

Thus,

(1)
$$B_d \ge d + 6$$
 for all $d \ge 2$, and

(2) $C_d \ge d^2 + 4d + 1$ for all $d \ge 2$.

Proof. Lemma 4.2(3) implies that $r_d(x)$ has degree d, and the fact that $s_d(y - \frac{d+1}{2})$ is an integer for all $0 \le y \le d$, and therefore $r_d(x)$ is an integer for all $3 \le x \le d+3$, implies that r_d is integer-valued for all $d \ge 0$.

Suppose that $d \ge 2$ is even. If $3 \le k \le d+4$, then the definition of $s_d(x)$ and Lemma 4.2(4) gives us,

$$r_d(k) = s_d(k - 3 - \frac{d+1}{2}) + 2 = \rho(k - 3, d) + 2 \in [1, 3].$$

From $s_d(x)$ even we find that

$$r_d(d+7-x) = s_d(\frac{d+7}{2}-x) + 2 = s_d(x-\frac{d+7}{2}) + 2 = r_d(x).$$

Hence by Lemma 4.2(5) and (6),

$$r_d(1) = r_d(d+6) = s_d(d+3 - \frac{d+1}{2}) + 2 = \rho(d+3,d) + d + 4 \in [d+3,d+5],$$

$$r_d(2) = r_d(d+5) = s_d(d+2 - \frac{d+1}{2}) + 2 = \rho(d+2,d) + 3 \in [2,4].$$

Thus if d is even,

$$r_d([d+6]) \subseteq [d+5],$$

from which it follows that $B_d \ge |\operatorname{PrePer}(r_d(x), \mathbb{Q})| \ge d + 6$.

Next suppose that $d \ge 2$ is odd. If $3 \le k \le d + 4$, then as above we have

$$r_d(k) = s_d(k-3-\frac{d+1}{2}) - k + d + 6 = \rho(k-3,d) - k + d + 6 \in [1,d+4].$$

Lemma 4.2(5) and (6) gives us

$$r_d(d+5) = s_d(d+2 - \frac{d+1}{2}) + 1 = \rho(d+2,d) + 2 \in [1,3],$$

$$r_d(d+6) = s_d(d+3 - \frac{d+1}{2}) = \rho(d+3,d) + d + 2 \in [d+1,d+3].$$

Since $s_d(x)$ is odd,

$$d+5 - r_d(d+7-x) = d+5 - s_d((d+7-x) - 3 - \frac{d+1}{2}) + (d+7-x) - d - 6$$

= $-s_d(-x+3 + \frac{d+1}{2}) - x + d + 6$
= $s_d(x-3 - \frac{d+1}{2}) - x + d + 6$
= $r_d(x)$.

Thus,

$$r_d(1) = d + 5 - r_d(d + 6) \in [2, 4]$$

$$r_d(2) = d + 5 - r_d(d + 5) \in [d + 2, d + 4].$$

Therefore,

$$r_d([d+6]) \subseteq [d+4],$$

and it follows that $B_d \ge d + 6$ for all $d \ge 2$. Since for either parity of d we have

$$r_d([d+6]) \subseteq [d+5],$$

Proposition 3.2 implies that for all $d \ge 2$,

$$|\operatorname{PrePer}(r_d(x), \mathbb{C}) \cap \operatorname{PrePer}(r_d(x) + 1, \mathbb{C})| \ge d(d+4) + 1 = d^2 + 4d + 1.$$

Hence $C_d \ge d^2 + 4d + 1$ for all $d \ge 2$.

Figure 9 illustrates the typical behavior of the polynomials $r_d(x)$ in the interval [1, d + 6].



FIGURE 9. The graphs of $r_{12}(x)$ and $r_{13}(x)$

4.2. Explicit formulas for $s_d(x)$. We suspect there is more of interest to say about the dynamical properties of the sequence of polynomials $r_d(x)$. Thus to facilitate their future study we end this section by deriving explicit formulas for the polynomials $s_d(x)$, which then allow for direct calculation of $r_d(x)$.

For $d \ge 0$, let $c_d(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ be the polynomial sequence defined by

$$c_{2k}(x) := \frac{1}{(2k)!} \prod_{j=1}^{k} \left(x^2 - \frac{(2j-1)^2}{4} \right) \qquad \qquad c_{2k+1}(x) := \frac{1}{(2k+1)!} x \prod_{j=1}^{k} (x^2 - j^2).$$

Note that, by construction, $c_d(x)$ is even when d is even and $c_d(x)$ is odd when d is odd. A straightforward comparison of roots and leading coefficients implies that

$$\delta c_{d+1}(x) = c_d(x)$$

for $d \ge 0$, and $\delta c_0(x) = \delta 1 = 0$. Furthermore, $c_{2k}(x)$ is integer-valued on $\mathbb{Z} + \frac{1}{2}$ and $c_{2k+1}(x)$ is integer-valued on \mathbb{Z} .

Proposition 4.5. For all $k \ge 0$,

$$s_{2k}(x) := \sum_{j=0}^{k} (-1)^{k-j} c_{2j}(x)$$
 and $s_{2k+1}(x) := \sum_{j=0}^{k} (-1)^{k-j} c_{2j+1}(x).$

Proof. First observe that $\{c_{2k} : k \ge 0\}$ forms a basis for the vector space of even polynomials in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$. Therefore there are rational numbers α_i such that

$$s_{2k}(x) := \sum_{j=0}^k \alpha_j c_{2j}(x).$$

Since

$$c_{2k}(\frac{1}{2}) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } k = 0, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

it follows from Lemma 4.1 and Lemma 4.2 that

$$\alpha_j = \delta^{2j} s_{2k}(\frac{1}{2}) = s_{2(k-j)}(\frac{1}{2}) = \rho(k-j, 2(k-j)) = \rho(3(k-j), 0) = (-1)^{k-j} \rho(0, 0) = (-1)^{k-j}.$$

The expansion for $s_{2k+1}(x)$ follows by applying δ to the expansion of $s_{2k+2}(x)$.

5. LOW DEGREE EXAMPLES

In this final section we provide lower bounds for B_d and C_d in low degrees found by computation. Table 2 gives examples of polynomials f(x) and integers m, n such that

$$f([m]) \subseteq [n]. \tag{5.1}$$

These are the polynomials with the largest m for each degree d that we found by computer search. Thus the entries in the column labeled m also provide the best known lower bounds on B_d for $2 \le d \le 9$.

d	m	n	f(x)
2	8	7	$\frac{x^2 - 9x + 22}{2}$
3	11	11	$\frac{x^3 - 18x^2 + 89x - 66}{6}$
4	10	8	$\frac{x^4 - 22x^3 + 167x^2 - 506x + 552}{24}$
5	13	9	$\frac{x^5 - 35x^4 + 445x^3 - 2485x^2 + 5794x - 3600}{120}$
6	14	10	$\frac{x^6 - 45x^5 + 775x^4 - 6375x^3 + 25504x^2 - 45060x + 30960}{720}$
7	15	15	$\frac{x^7 - 56x^6 + 1246x^5 - 14000x^4 + 83629x^3 - 258104x^2 + 373764x - 151200}{5040}$
8	16	16	$\frac{x^8 - 68x^7 + 1918x^6 - 29036x^5 + 254989x^4 - 1309952x^3 + 3765012x^2 - 5343984x + 2862720}{20160}$
8	16	15	$\frac{x^8 - 68x^7 + 1946x^6 - 30464x^5 + 282569x^4 - 1559852x^3 + 4836124x^2 - 7320336x + 4273920}{40320}$
9	19	17	$\frac{x^9 - 90x^8 + 3426x^7 - 71820x^6 + 904449x^5 - 7002450x^4 + 32752124x^3 - 87183720x^2 + 116300160x - 55520640}{181440}$



One fast method to find these examples in low degree is to use the LLL basis reduction algorithm to find short vectors in the lattice $\Lambda_{d,e}$ defined in Section 2.1. Using this method we surveyed up to degree d = 400 and found examples giving $B_d \ge d + 8$ for all $11 \le d \le 283$ except for

 $d \in \{21, 219, 221, 235, 237, 241, 244, \dots, 247, 249, 251, 255, \dots, 266, 268, 269, 271\}.$

For all other degrees $11 \le d \le 400$ the examples showed that $B_d \ge d + 6$, which we already knew by Theorem 4.4.

When n < m in Table 2, Proposition 3.2 applied to $f([m]) \subseteq [m-1]$ allows us to extract lower bounds on C_d . Note that the lower bound on C_2 in Table 3 comes from Example 1.9.

In Table 3 we collect the best lower bounds on C_d for small d that we found through computational experiment. All of our examples came from common preperiodic points of f(x) and f(x) + 1 for some polynomial f(x) exhibiting dynamical compression.

	d	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
	$C_d \ge$	26	27	40	60	78	84	120	162	190	198	228	260	294	330
TABLE 3															

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For degrees d = 2, 4, 5, 6, 8, 9, the polynomials giving the lower bound on C_d come from Table 2. For degrees d = 3, 7, the polynomials $r_d(x)$ constructed in Section 4.1 give the lower bound. For $10 \le d \le 15$, the polynomials $f_d(x)$ giving the lower bounds on C_d are too large to print explicitly. Instead, Table 4 lists d + 1 interpolating values $(f_d(1), f_d(2), \ldots, f_d(d+1))$ which uniquely determine the polynomial $f_d(x)$.

d	$(f_d(1), f_d(2), \dots, f_d(d+1))$				
10	(14, 6, 14, 6, 1, 6, 14, 17, 14, 10, 10)				
11	(17, 1, 15, 3, 4, 14, 17, 12, 8, 9, 10, 6)				
12	(17, 1, 17, 3, 4, 14, 17, 12, 6, 3, 3, 6, 12)				
13	(17, 1, 17, 1, 3, 13, 16, 13, 10, 9, 9, 9, 8, 5)				
14	(20, 4, 20, 4, 20, 14, 1, 8, 21, 18, 6, 6, 18, 21, 8)				
15	(21, 1, 2, 20, 4, 1, 9, 10, 5, 3, 6, 11, 16, 19, 17, 12)				
π					

TABLE 4

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