

## Commuting polynomial vectors over an integral domain

by

RUDOLF LIDL (Hobart, Australia) and GARY L. MULLEN (Univeristy Park, Pa.)

**1. Introduction.** Numerous papers have been written concerning polynomials which commute under composition, see for example, [1]–[3], [8]–[10], [14], [17]. Because of the following result, the classical Chebyshev polynomials  $T_n$  of the first kind in one variable are of special interest. In [1] Bertram showed that over an integral domain of characteristic zero, if  $n \geq 2$  and the polynomial  $f$  of degree  $k \geq 1$  commutes under substitution with  $T_n$ , then  $f = T_k$  if  $n$  is even and  $f = \pm T_k$  if  $n$  is odd.

In the present paper we shall consider the problem of commuting polynomial vectors in two variables. In particular, in Section 3 we shall determine all polynomial vectors in two variables which, under componentwise composition, commute with two dimensional generalizations of the Chebyshev polynomials which were first considered by Dunn and Lidl [4], [5] and Lidl and Wells [13]. In Section 5 we present some results which extend to several variables, some of the ideas of Wells [17] and Mullen [14] concerning polynomials over finite fields which commute with linear permutations.

**2. Preliminaries.** If  $R$  is an integral domain of characteristic not two, let  $R[x, y]$  denote the ring of polynomials in two indeterminates  $x$  and  $y$  over  $R$ . If  $f_1 \in R[x, y]$ , define the degree of  $f_1$  to be the total degree of  $f_1$ . If  $f_1, f_2 \in R[x, y]$  then let  $f = (f_1, f_2) \in (R[x, y])^2$  and define the degree of  $f$  to be the maximum of the degrees of  $f_1$  and  $f_2$ .

We say that  $f, g \in (R[x, y])^2$  commute if

$$(2.1) \quad f \circ g = g \circ f$$

where  $\circ$  denotes componentwise composition. Thus (2.1) implies that

$$f_1(g_1, g_2) = g_1(f_1, f_2) \quad \text{and} \quad f_2(g_1, g_2) = g_2(f_1, f_2).$$

The classical Chebyshev polynomials in one variable defined by  $T_0 = 1$ ,  $T_1 = x$ , and  $T_n(x) = 2xT_{n-1}(x) - T_{n-2}(x)$  for  $n \geq 2$ , were extended to several variables in a series of papers [4]–[6] and [12]–[13]. Before proceeding with



our investigation of commuting polynomial vectors, we shall list some properties of the generalized Chebyshev polynomials that will prove to be useful in our later work.

If  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ , let  $P_n(x, y)$  be defined by the functional equation

$$P_n(x, y) = u^n + v^n + w^n$$

where

$$x = u + v + w, \quad y = uv + uw + vw, \quad \text{and} \quad uvw = 1.$$

Using the notation of [4],  $P_n(x, y)$  may also be defined by

$$P_n(x, y) = (1/2) P_{n,0}^{-1/2}(x, y; 1)$$

where  $P_{n,m}^{-1/2}$  is given in Definition 2.1 of [4]. The polynomials  $P_n(x, y)$  are known as *generalized Chebyshev polynomials* in two variables. Multi-dimensional Chebyshev polynomials have been studied in [4] and [12]–[13].

Similarly if  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ , let  $Q_n(x, y)$  be defined by

$$Q_n(x, y) = u^n + v^n$$

where

$$x = u + v \quad \text{and} \quad y = uv.$$

Again following the notation of [4],  $Q_n(x, y) = P_{n,0}^{-1/2}(x; y)$ . In Lausch and Nöbauer [10], the notation  $g_n(y, x)$  for  $y = a \in R$  has also been used for these polynomials, called *Dickson polynomials*.

Several results concerning these polynomials will prove to be useful. These results include

$$(2.2) \quad P_n(x, y) = P_{-n}(y, x),$$

$$(2.3) \quad P_n(x, y) = \sum_{i=0}^{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor} \sum_{j=0}^{\lfloor n/3 \rfloor} d_{ij} x^{n-2i-3j} y^i, \quad n \in \mathbb{Z}^+,$$

where

$$d_{ij} = \frac{n(-1)^j}{n-i-2j} \binom{n-i-2j}{i+j} \binom{i+j}{i}$$

is an integer with  $d_{00} = 1$  and  $d_{10} = -n$ .

$$(2.4) \quad Q_n(x, y) = \sum_{i=0}^{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor} e_i x^{n-2i} y^i$$

where

$$e_i = \frac{n(-1)^i}{n-i} \binom{n-i}{i}$$

is an integer with  $e_0 = 1$  and  $e_1 = -n$ .

For these and other details regarding generalized Chebyshev polynomials, the reader should consult Dunn and Lidl [4]–[5] and Lidl and Wells [13].

Throughout this paper let  $G_n = (P_n, P_{-n})$  and  $H_n = (Q_n, y^n)$  so that for the few values of  $n$  we have

$n$	$P_n$	$P_{-n}$	$Q_n$	$y^n$
0	3	3	2	1
1	$x$	$y$	$x$	$y$
2	$x^2 - 2y$	$y^2 - 2x$	$x^2 - 2y$	$y^2$
3	$x^3 - 3xy + 3$	$y^3 - 3xy + 3$	$x^3 - 3xy$	$y^3$
4	$x^4 - 4x^2y + 2y^2 + 4x$	$y^4 - 4xy^2 + 2x^2 + 4y$	$x^4 - 4x^2y + 2y^2$	$y^4$

We note that in the notation of [13],  $G_n = g(2, n, 1)$  and  $H_n = g(2, n, 0)$ .

If  $\varphi(x, y) = (x + y + (xy)^{-1}, x^{-1} + y^{-1} + xy)$  then it is easy to check that

$$(2.5) \quad \varphi(x, y) = \varphi(y, x) = \varphi((xy)^{-1}, y) = \varphi(x, (xy)^{-1})$$

and from the definition of  $G_n$  it can be seen that

$$(2.6) \quad G_n \circ \varphi(x, y) = (x^n + y^n + (xy)^{-n}, x^{-n} + y^{-n} + (xy)^n) = \varphi(x^n, y^n).$$

Similarly if  $\theta(x, y) = (x + y, xy)$  then

$$(2.7) \quad \theta(x, y) = \theta(y, x)$$

and from the definition of  $H_n$  we have

$$(2.8) \quad H_n \circ \theta(x, y) = (x^n + y^n, x^n y^n) = \theta(x^n, y^n).$$

3. In the first part of this section we will determine all polynomial vectors over  $R$  which commute with  $G_n$  where  $n \geq 2$ . We will then determine all polynomial vectors over  $R$  which commute with  $H_n$ . First however, we prove a lemma which will be very useful in our later work. If  $p \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $g \in R(x, y)$  has degree strictly less than  $p$  we will write  $g(x, y) = O(p)$ . As usual, the degree of a rational function  $g = r/s$  is defined as  $\text{degr} - \text{deg} s$ . We now prove

LEMMA 3.1. If

$$f(x, y) = \sum_{i+j \leq m} a_{ij} x^i y^j \in R(x, y)$$

has only finitely many terms, is of degree  $m \geq 1$  and has the property that

$$f(x^n, y^n) = [f(x, y)]^n + O(mn - p)$$

where  $n \geq 2$ , the characteristic of  $R$  does not divide  $n$ , and  $p \geq 1$ , then there exists an integer  $r$  with  $0 \leq r \leq m$  such that

$$f(x, y) = \alpha x^r y^{m-r} + O(m-p)$$

where  $\alpha^{n-1} = 1$ .

Proof. Let  $f(x, y) = \sum_{i+j \leq m} a_{ij} x^i y^j$  so that

$$(3.1) \quad \sum a_{ij} x^{ni} y^{nj} = \left[ \sum a_{ij} x^i y^j \right]^n + O(mn-p).$$

Since  $f$  has degree  $m$  the set  $\{i \mid a_{i, m-i} \neq 0\}$  is non-empty. Let  $r$  be the minimal element of this set. By equating coefficients of  $x^{nr} y^{n(m-r)}$  in (3.1) we have  $\alpha_{r, m-r}^{n-1} = 1$ .

Suppose there is a non-zero term of degree greater than or equal to  $m-p$ . Choose  $(s, t) \neq (r, m-r)$  so that  $a_{st} \neq 0$ ,  $s+t$  is maximal, and  $s$  minimal. Consider the coefficient of  $(x^r y^{m-r})^{n-1} (x^s y^t)$  in (3.1). We have

$$(r(n-1)+s, (m-r)(n-1)+t) \neq (ns, nt) \neq (nr, n(m-r))$$

so that the coefficient of this term on the left-hand side of (3.1) is zero. The degree of this term is

$$m(n-1)+(s+t) \geq m(n-1)+(m-p) = mn-p$$

so that the coefficient of it on the right-hand side of (3.1) is  $na_{r, m-r}^{n-1} a_{st}$ , which is non-zero. This completes the proof of the lemma.

We will now prove the following result which is analogous to Bertram's result in [1] for the classical Chebyshev polynomials of the first kind.

**THEOREM 3.2.** *Suppose  $n \geq 2$  and the characteristic of  $R$  does not divide  $n$ . If  $f \in (R[x, y])^2$  is of degree  $m \geq 1$ , then  $f$  commutes with  $G_n$  if and only if  $f$  is of the form*

$$(3.2) \quad f = (\alpha P_m, \alpha^2 P_{-m}) \quad \text{or} \quad f = (\alpha P_{-m}, \alpha^2 P_m)$$

where  $\alpha = 1$  if  $n \not\equiv 1 \pmod{3}$  or  $\alpha^3 = 1$  if  $n \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ .

Proof. For necessity, it is shown in Section 5 of [13] that  $G_m$  commutes with  $G_n$  so that by (2.3), we see that  $(\alpha P_m, \alpha^2 P_{-m})$  commutes with  $G_n$ . Hence if  $f = (f_1, f_2)$  commutes with  $G_n$ , then using (2.2) we have

$$f_2(P_n, P_{-n}) = P_{-n}(f_1, f_2) = P_n(f_2, f_1).$$

Similarly

$$f_1(P_n, P_{-n}) = P_{-n}(f_2, f_1)$$

so that  $(f_2, f_1)$  commutes with  $G_n$  and thus  $(\alpha^2 P_{-m}, \alpha P_m)$  commutes with  $G_n$ . Since  $\alpha^3 = 1$  we see that  $(\alpha P_{-m}, \alpha^2 P_m)$  commutes with  $G_n$ .

Conversely, suppose that  $f = (f_1, f_2)$  commutes with  $G_n$  for  $n \geq 2$  where  $n$  does not divide the characteristic of  $R$ . For  $i = 1, 2$  let the degree of  $f_i$  be  $m_i$  and let  $m = \max\{m_1, m_2\}$ . Since  $f \circ G_n = G_n \circ f$  we have

$$(3.3) \quad f \circ G_n \circ \varphi = G_n \circ f \circ \varphi.$$

From (2.6) we see that  $G_n \circ \varphi(x, y) = \varphi(x^n, y^n)$  so that if we let  $h = f \circ \varphi$  then (3.3) becomes

$$(3.4) \quad h(x^n, y^n) = G_n \circ h(x, y).$$

Let  $h = (h_1, h_2)$  where for  $i = 1, 2$  the degree of  $h_i$  is  $p_i$ . We shall now consider three cases:

Case 1:  $p_2 > p_1$ . Let

$$h_2(x, y) = \sum_{-2m_2 \leq i+j \leq p_2} a_{ij} x^i y^j$$

so that the second component of (3.4) becomes

$$(3.5) \quad \sum a_{ij} x^{ni} y^{nj} = P_{-n}(h_1, \sum a_{ij} x^i y^j).$$

In  $P_{-n}$ , the coefficient of  $y^{n-1}$  is zero and thus (3.5) yields

$$(3.6) \quad \sum a_{ij} x^{ni} y^{nj} = \left( \sum a_{ij} x^i y^j \right)^n + O(p_2(n-1)).$$

Since  $h_2(x, y)$  has the form given in Lemma 3.1, we may apply the lemma so that there exists an integer  $r$  with  $0 \leq r \leq p_2$  such that  $a_{r, p_2-r}^{n-1} = 1$ , and moreover if  $i+j \geq 0$ , and  $(i, j) \neq (r, p_2-r)$ , then  $a_{ij} = 0$ . For simplicity of notation let  $a_{r, p_2-r} = \beta$  so that

$$(3.7) \quad h_2 = \beta x^r y^{p_2-r} \sum_{-2m_2 \leq i+j \leq 0} a_{ij} x^i y^j$$

where  $\beta^{n-1} = 1$ .

Since  $\varphi(x, y) = \varphi(y, x)$  we have  $h_2(x, y) = h_2(y, x)$  and thus  $a_{p_2-r, r} = a_{r, p_2-r} \neq 0$  so that  $p_2-r = r$  and hence  $2r = p_2$ .

From (2.5), the coefficients of  $(xy)^{-r} y^r = x^{-r}$  and  $x^r (xy)^{-r} = y^{-r}$  are equal to the coefficient of  $x^r y^r$  which is  $\beta$ . Suppose that  $a_{ij} \neq 0$  for some  $i+j < 0$  with  $(i, j) \neq (0, -r)$  or  $(-r, 0)$ . Then the coefficients of  $x^{-i} y^{j-i}$  and  $x^{i-j} y^{-j}$  are non-zero so that either  $j-2i \geq 0$  or  $i-2j \geq 0$ . Thus either  $r = -i$  or  $r = j-i$  which implies that  $(i, j) = (-r, 0)$  or else  $r = -j$  or  $r = i-j$  so that  $(i, j) = (0, -r)$ . In either case we have a contradiction.

Substituting into (3.7) gives

$$(3.8) \quad h_2 = \beta(x^r y^r + x^{-r} + y^{-r})$$

where  $\beta^{n-1} = 1$  and  $2r = p_2$ . From (2.6) we have  $h_2 = \beta P_{-r} \circ \varphi$  so that  $f_2 = \beta P_{-r}$ . Since the degree of  $f_2$  is  $m_2 = r$  we see that

$$(3.9) \quad f_2 = \beta P_{-m_2}$$

where  $\beta^{n-1} = 1$ .

Now let  $l = (l_1, l_2)$  where  $l(x, y) = h(x^{-1}, y^{-1})$ . Hence from (3.8) and (3.9) we obtain

$$(3.10) \quad l_2 = \beta(x^{m_2} + y^{m_2} + (xy)^{-m_2}).$$

From (3.4)

$$h(x^{-n}, y^{-n}) = G_n \circ h(x^{-1}, y^{-1})$$

so that

$$(3.11) \quad l(x^n, y^n) = G_n \circ l(x, y).$$

Let  $l_1 = \sum_{i+j \leq q} b_{ij} x^i y^j$  be of degree  $q$ . From the second component of (3.11) we have

$$(3.12) \quad \beta(x^{nm_2} + y^{nm_2} + (xy)^{-nm_2}) = P_{-n}(l_1, \beta(x^{m_2} + y^{m_2} + (xy)^{-m_2})) \\ = \beta^n [x^{m_2} + y^{m_2} + (xy)^{-m_2}]^n + O((n-1) \max\{m_2, q\} + 1).$$

From the coefficient of  $x^{(n-1)m_2} y^{m_2}$  in (3.12) we have  $0 = n\beta^n + k$  for some constant  $k$  so that  $k = -n\beta^n \neq 0$ . For  $n \geq 2$ ,  $(n-1)q \geq nm_2$  so that  $q > m_2$ .

From the first component of (3.11) we have

$$\sum b_{ij} x^i y^j = P_n(\sum b_{ij} x^i y^j, \beta(x^{m_2} + y^{m_2} + (xy)^{-m_2})) \\ = (\sum b_{ij} x^i y^j)^n + O((n-1)q)$$

since  $q > m$  and the coefficient of  $x^{n-1}$  in  $P_n$  is zero. Thus by Lemma 3.1 there exists an integer  $s$  with  $0 \leq s \leq q$  such that  $b_{s, q-s}^{-1} = 1$  and  $b_{ij} = 0$  for  $(i, j) \neq (s, q-s)$  with  $i+j \geq 0$ .

Similarly using (2.5) we obtain

$$(3.13) \quad l_1 = \alpha((xy)^{m_1} + x^{-m_1} + y^{-m_1})$$

where  $\alpha^{n-1} = 1$  so that  $h_1 = \alpha(x^{m_1} + y^{m_1} + (xy)^{-m_1})$  and thus  $f_1 = \alpha P_{m_1}$ . Combining this with (3.9) we have

$$(3.14) \quad f = (\alpha P_{m_1}, \beta P_{-m_2})$$

where  $\alpha^{n-1} = \beta^{n-1} = 1$ .

We now show that  $m_1 = m_2$ . To this end, consider the first component of (3.13) so that  $h_1(x^n, y^n) = P_n(h_1, h_2)$ . Hence

$$(3.15) \quad \alpha(x^{m_1 n} + y^{m_1 n} + (xy)^{-m_1 n}) = \alpha^n (x^{m_1} + y^{m_1} + (xy)^{-m_1})^n + \sum_{i+j < n} c_{ij} h_1^i h_2^j \\ = \alpha x^{m_1 n} + n\alpha x^{m_1(n-1)} y^{m_1} + \dots$$

where each  $c_{ij} \in R$ . Since  $n\alpha \neq 0$  there exist integers  $i$  and  $j$  with  $i+j < n$  such that  $c_{ij} \neq 0$  and

$$x^{m_1(n-1)} y^{m_1} = (x^{m_1})^i (xy)^{m_2 j} = x^{m_1 i + m_2 j} y^{m_2 j}.$$

Thus  $m_1(n-1) = m_1 i + m_2 j$  and  $m_1 = m_2 j$  so that  $i = n-2$ . Since  $i+j < n$  and  $j \neq 0$ , we have  $j = 1$  and thus  $m_1 = m_2$ .

From (2.5) we know that  $c_{n-2,1} = -n$  so that the coefficient of  $x^{m_1(n-1)} y^{m_1}$  in (3.15) is  $0 = -n\alpha + n\alpha^{n-2} \beta$  and hence  $\beta = \alpha^2$ . Since  $P_n(x, y) = P_{-n}(y, x)$  we have  $\alpha = \beta^2$  so that  $\alpha^3 = 1$ . If  $n \not\equiv 1 \pmod{3}$  then (3.13) implies that  $\alpha = 1$ . This completes the proof in Case 1.

Case 2:  $p_2 < p_1$ . If we consider the transformation  $k = (h_2, h_1)$  then we can use an argument analogous to that used in Case 1 to show that  $f$  must be of the desired form.

Case 3:  $p_2 = p_1$ . In this case equation (3.6) becomes

$$(3.16) \quad \sum a_{ij} x^i y^j = (\sum a_{ij} x^i y^j)^n + O(p_2(n-1) + 1).$$

Using Lemma 3.1 and an argument analogous to that used in Case 1, we obtain

$$(3.17) \quad h_2 = \beta((xy)^{m_2} + x^{-m_2} + y^{-m_2} + k_2)$$

where  $\beta^{n-1} = 1$  and  $k_2 \in R$ . Applying the same argument to the first component we have

$$(3.18) \quad h_1 = \alpha((xy)^{m_1} + x^{-m_1} + y^{-m_1} + k_1)$$

where  $\alpha^{n-1} = 1$  and  $k_1 \in R$ . Since  $p_2 = p_1$  we have  $m_2 = m_1 = m$ .

As in Case 1, let  $l(x, y) = h(x^{-1}, y^{-1})$  where the degree of  $l$  is  $q$ . Arguing as in Case 1, we can see that  $q > m_2$ . Hence  $m_2 = m_1 = q$ , which is a contradiction. Thus  $f$  cannot be of the correct form and the proof of the theorem is complete.

We now prove a result analogous to Theorem 3.2 for the Dickson polynomials. In particular, we will prove

**THEOREM 3.3.** *Suppose  $n \geq 2$  and the characteristic of  $R$  does not divide  $n$ . If  $f \in (R[x, y])^2$  is of degree  $m \geq 1$ , then  $f$  commutes with  $H_n$  if and only if  $f$  is of the form*

$$(3.19) \quad f = (\alpha Q_m, \alpha^2 y^m)$$

where  $\alpha^{n-1} = 1$ .

**Proof.** In Section 5 of [13] it was shown that  $H_m$  commutes with  $H_n$ . If  $f$  has the above form, then substituting into (2.4), we obtain

$$Q_n \circ f = \sum e_i (\alpha Q_m)^{n-2i} (\alpha^2 y^m)^i = \sum e_i \alpha^n Q_m^{n-2i} y^{mi} \\ = \alpha \sum e_i Q_m^{n-2i} y^{mi} = \alpha Q_n \circ H_m = \alpha Q_m \circ H_n.$$

Hence  $Q_n \circ f = f_1 \circ H_n$  and  $(\alpha^2 y^m)^n = \alpha^2 (y^m)^n$  so that  $f$  commutes with  $H_n$ .

Conversely suppose  $f$  commutes with  $H_n$  where the degree of  $f$  is  $m$ . For simplicity of notation let  $g = (g_1, g_2) = H_n$ . Then we have

$$(3.20) \quad f \circ g \circ \theta = g \circ f \circ \theta.$$

Let  $h = f \circ \theta$  where the degree of  $h_i$  is  $p_i$  for  $i = 1, 2$ . From (2.8) and (3.20) we have

$$(3.21) \quad h(x^n, y^n) = g \circ h(x, y).$$

From the second component of (3.21) we obtain

$$(3.22) \quad h_2(x^n, y^n) = g_2(h_1(x, y), h_2(x, y)) = [h_2(x, y)]^n$$

and from Lemma 3.1 we have

$$(3.23) \quad h_2(x, y) = \beta x^r y^{p_2-r} + O(p_2 - p_2 m) = \beta x^r y^{p_2-r}$$

where  $\beta^{n-1} = 1$  and  $r$  is an integer such that  $0 \leq r \leq p_2$ . Using (2.7) we see that  $h_2(x, y) = h_2(y, x)$  so that  $2r = p_2$ . Substituting into (3.23) gives  $h_2(x, y) = \beta x^r y^r$  so that  $f_2(x, y) = \beta y^r$ . Since the degree of  $f_2$  is  $m_2$  we have

$$(3.24) \quad f_2 = \beta y^{m_2}$$

where  $\beta^{n-1} = 1$ .

Let  $y = 0$  in the first component of (3.21) so that

$$(3.25) \quad h_1(x^n, 0) = g_1(h_1(x, 0), h_2(x, 0)) = g_1(h_1(x, 0), 0).$$

Hence from [13],  $g_1(x, y) = P_n^{-1/2}(x; y)$  and furthermore  $g_1(x, 0) = x^n$ . Substituting back into (3.25) yields

$$(3.26) \quad h_1(x^n, 0) = [h_1(x, 0)]^n.$$

If we let  $y = 0$  in Lemma 3.1 we clearly have  $h_1(x, 0) = \alpha x^r$  where  $\alpha^{n-1} = 1$  and  $0 \leq r \leq p_1$ . Since  $\theta$  is symmetric,  $h_1$  is symmetric and thus  $h_1$  has the form

$$(3.27) \quad h_1(x, y) = \alpha(x^r + y^r) + xyl(x, y)$$

for some  $l \in R[x, y]$ .

Let  $h_1(x, y) = \sum_{i+j < p_1} a_{ij} x^i y^j$  and let  $q = \min\{i+j \mid a_{ij} \neq 0\}$ . Assume that  $q < m_2$  and that  $p_1 > m_2$ . Then

$$(3.28) \quad h_1(x, y) = \alpha_1 x^r y^{p_1-r} + \sum a_{ij} x^i y^j + \alpha_2 x^s y^{q-s}$$

where  $\alpha_1$  and  $\alpha_2$  are non-zero and  $r$  and  $s$  are minimal among the non-zero terms of degree  $p_1$  and  $q$  respectively.

From the first component of (3.21) we have using (2.4) and (3.23)

$$(3.29) \quad h_1(x^n, y^n) = g_1(h_1, h_2) = \sum_{k=0}^{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor} e_k h_1^{n-2k} (\beta x^r y^{m_2-r})^k.$$

If we now substitute (3.28) we obtain

$$(3.30) \quad \alpha_1 x^{nr} y^{n(p_1-r)} + \sum a_{ij} x^{ni} y^{nj} + \alpha_2 x^{ns} y^{n(q-s)} \\ = \sum e_k (\alpha_1 x^r y^{p_1-r} + \sum a_{ij} x^i y^j + \alpha_2 x^s y^{q-s})^{n-2k} (\beta x^r y^{m_2-r})^k.$$

Since  $e_0 = 1$  and  $p_1 > m_2$ , the coefficient of  $x^{nr} y^{(p_1-r)n}$  is  $\alpha_1 = \alpha_1^n$  so that  $\alpha_1^{n-1} = 1$ . Moreover since  $q < m_2$ , the term of smallest total degree is  $x^{ns} y^{n(q-s)}$  whose coefficient in (3.30) is  $\alpha_2 = \alpha_2^n$ , whence  $\alpha_2^{n-1} = 1$ .

Assume that there exists a pair  $(t, u) \neq (s, q-s)$  with  $t+u \leq m$  and  $a_{tu} \neq 0$ . Then the coefficient of  $[x^s y^{q-s}]^{n-1} (x^t y^u)$  in (3.30) is  $0 = n\alpha_1^{n-1} a_{tu}$ . Since each of these factors is non-zero, we have a contradiction.

Similarly there can be no pair  $(t, u) \neq (r, p_1-r)$  such that  $t+u \geq m$  and  $a_{tu} \neq 0$ . Hence substituting into (3.28) gives

$$(3.31) \quad h_1(x, y) = \alpha_1 x^r y^{p_1-r} + \alpha_2 x^s y^{q-s}$$

and by the symmetry of  $h_1$ , we have  $r = p_1 - r$  and  $s = q - s$ .

Clearly  $m_1 \neq 0$  so that  $p_1 \neq 0$  and thus  $r \neq 0$ . Hence (3.31) contradicts (3.27) and therefore the assumption leading to (3.28) is incorrect. Hence  $q \geq m_2$  and  $p_1 \leq m_2$ . But  $p_2 \geq q$  so that  $p_2 = q = m_2$ , which combined with (3.27) yields

$$(3.32) \quad h_1(x, y) = \alpha x^{m_2} + \sum_{i=1}^{m_2-1} a_{i, m_2-i} x^i y^{m_2-i} + \alpha y^{m_2}.$$

Assume that there exists an integer  $i$  with  $1 \leq i \leq m_2 - 1$  such that  $a_{i, m_2-i} \neq 0$ . Let  $j = \min\{i \mid a_{i, m_2-i} \neq 0\}$ . Substituting the expression for  $h_1$  given by (3.32) into (3.29) it can be seen that if, on the right-hand side,  $k \neq 0$  then the power of  $x$  is greater than or equal to  $m$ . Thus the coefficient of  $y^{m_2(n-1)} x^j y^{m-j}$  is  $0 = n\alpha_1^{n-1} a_{j, m-j}$ , a contradiction since each factor is non-zero. Hence  $h_1 = \alpha(x^{m_2} + y^{m_2})$  and thus  $f_1 = \alpha Q_{m_2}$ . We clearly have  $m_2 = m_1 = m$ , so that

$$(3.33) \quad f = (\alpha Q_m, \beta y^m)$$

where  $\alpha^{n-1} = \beta^{n-1} = 1$ .

Using (3.29) and the fact that  $(Q_m, y^m)$  commutes with  $g$ , we have

$$\alpha \sum e_k Q_m^{n-2k} (x^m y^m)^k = \sum e_k (\alpha Q_m)^{n-2k} (\beta x^m y^m)^k$$

and thus

$$\alpha \sum e_k Q_m^{n-2k} (x^m y^m)^k = \sum \alpha^{n-2k} \beta^k e_k Q_m^{n-2k} (x^m y^m)^k.$$

Since  $e_1 = -n \neq 0$  we have  $\alpha^{n-2} \beta = \alpha$ . But also  $\alpha^{n-1} = 1$  so that  $\beta = \alpha^2$  which completes the proof.

4. In this section we determine all linear commuting polynomial vectors in two variables over  $R = \text{GF}(q)$  the finite field of order  $q$ . Suppose that

$$g = (g_1, g_2) \quad \text{where} \quad g_i = a_{i1} x_1 + a_{i2} x_2 + c_i \quad \text{for} \quad i = 1, 2$$

where we assume for simplicity, that each  $a_{ij} \neq 0$ . We wish to determine all

$$f = (f_1, f_2) \quad \text{where} \quad f_i = b_{i1} x_1 + b_{i2} x_2 + d_i \quad \text{for} \quad i = 1, 2$$

such that

$$f \circ g = g \circ f.$$

To this end, let

$$D = (a_{11} - 1)(a_{22} - 1) - a_{12}a_{21}.$$

We now prove

**THEOREM 4.1.** (A) If  $D \neq 0$  then  $f \circ g = g \circ f$  if and only if the  $b_{ij}$  ( $i, j = 1, 2$ ) satisfy

$$(4.1) \quad b_{11} + [(a_{22} - a_{11})/a_{21}]b_{21} - b_{22} = 0,$$

$$(4.2) \quad b_{12} - (a_{12}/a_{21})b_{21} = 0$$

and

$$d_1 = [(a_{22} - 1)x - a_{12}y]/D, \quad d_2 = [(a_{11} - 1)y - a_{21}x]/D$$

where

$$x = (b_{11} - 1)c_1 + b_{12}c_2 \quad \text{and} \quad y = b_{21}c_1 + (b_{22} - 1)c_2.$$

(B) If  $D = 0$  then  $f \circ g = g \circ f$  if and only if the  $b_{ij}$  ( $i, j = 1, 2$ ) satisfy (4.1), (4.2), the equation

$$(4.3) \quad a_{21}x = (a_{11} - 1)y$$

and  $d_1$  and  $d_2$  satisfy

$$(4.4) \quad (a_{11} - 1)d_1 + a_{12}d_2 = x.$$

**Proof.** The vector equation  $f \circ g = g \circ f$  is equivalent to the following system of equations in the unknowns  $b_{11}, b_{12}, b_{21}, b_{22}, d_1$ , and  $d_2$ .

$$\begin{array}{rcccccc} & -a_{21}b_{12} & & +a_{12}b_{21} & & = 0, \\ -a_{12}b_{11} & + (a_{11} - a_{22})b_{12} & & + a_{12}b_{22} & & = 0, \\ -c_1b_{11} & -c_2b_{12} & & & + (a_{11} - 1)d_1 & + a_{12}d_2 = -c_1, \\ a_{21}b_{11} & & + (a_{22} - a_{11})b_{21} & - a_{21}b_{22} & & = 0, \\ & a_{21}b_{12} & & - a_{12}b_{21} & & = 0, \\ & & -c_1b_{21} & -c_2b_{22} & + a_{21}d_1 & + (a_{22} - 1)d_2 = -c_2. \end{array}$$

The theorem follows upon row reduction of the above system.

We note that if  $D \neq 0$  then there are  $q^2$  such pairs  $f = (f_1, f_2)$ .

5. In this section we extend some results of Wells [17] and Mullen [14] concerning polynomials over finite fields which commute with linear permutations of the field. We restrict our attention to the case where  $R$  is the finite field  $\text{GF}(q)$  of order  $q = p^n$  where  $p$  is a prime and  $n \geq 1$ .

In [14] Mullen characterized and enumerated those polynomials over  $\text{GF}(q)$  which commute with linear permutations, i.e., he characterized those

polynomials  $f(x)$  over  $\text{GF}(q)$  for which  $f(bx + a) = bf(x) + a$ . There are several ways to extend these ideas to commuting polynomials in several variables. The Lagrange Interpolation Formula for a finite field states that every function from  $\text{GF}(q)$  into itself can be represented as a polynomial over  $\text{GF}(q)$  of degree less than  $q$ . The above enumeration was obtained by using the Lagrange Interpolation Formula and the following combinatorial result. If  $\theta$  is a permutation of a finite set  $D$  where  $\theta$  has type  $(d_1, d_2, \dots)$ , then the number of functions  $f: D \rightarrow D$  for which  $f(\theta) = \theta(f)$  is given by

$$(5.1) \quad \prod_i (\sum_{j|i} jd_j)^{d_i}.$$

We first consider the case where the commutivity is coordinatewise. In particular, if  $f_i: R \rightarrow R$  and  $\theta_i(x) = b_i x + a_i$  for  $i = 1, \dots, m$ , let  $f = (f_1, \dots, f_m)$  and  $\theta = (\theta_1, \dots, \theta_m)$ . Then we say that  $f$  commutes with  $\theta$ , written  $f\theta = \theta f$ , if  $f_i\theta_i = \theta_i f_i$  for  $i = 1, \dots, m$ . Suppose

$$f_i(x) = c_0^{(i)} + c_1^{(i)}x + \dots + c_{q-1}^{(i)}x^{q-1}$$

for  $i = 1, \dots, m$ . Using an argument similar to that in [14], we may state

**THEOREM 5.1.** The polynomial vector  $f$  satisfies  $f\theta = \theta f$  if and only if for  $i = 1, \dots, m$

$$c_0^{(i)}(b_i - 1) = -a_i + \sum_{t=1}^{q-1} c_t^{(i)} a_t^i,$$

$$c_s^{(i)}(1 - b_i^{q-1}) = b_i^{q-1} \sum_{t=s+1}^{q-1} \binom{t}{s} c_t^{(i)} a_t^{i-s} \quad (1 \leq s \leq q-1).$$

Suppose  $b_i \neq 1$  for the subscripts  $i_1, \dots, i_e$  while for the remaining  $m - e$  subscripts,  $b_i = 1$ . For  $j = 1, \dots, e$  let  $k_{ij}$  be the multiplicative order of  $b_{ij}$ . Then using (5.1) we have

**COROLLARY 5.2.** The number of polynomial vectors  $f$  satisfying  $f\theta = \theta f$  is given by

$$(5.2) \quad q^{(m-e)qp} \prod_{j=1}^e q^{(q-1)k_{ij}}.$$

It should be pointed out that (5.2) counts the number of polynomial vectors

$$f = (f_1, \dots, f_m): R^m \rightarrow R^m$$

where  $f_i: R \rightarrow R$  and  $f_i\theta_i = \theta_i f_i$  for  $i = 1, \dots, m$ ; not the total number of functions  $g: R^m \rightarrow R^m$  such that  $g\theta = \theta g$ . To count this total number of functions  $g$  one might proceed as follows.

Let  $\theta$  be a linear permutation on  $R^m$  defined by

$$\theta(x_1, \dots, x_m) = b(x_1, \dots, x_m) + (a_1, \dots, a_m)$$

where  $0 \neq b \in R$  has multiplicative order  $k$ . We note that this is a special case of the previous situation where  $b = b_1 = \dots = b_m$ . We now count the total number of functions  $g: R^m \rightarrow R^m$  such that  $g\theta = \theta g$ . The cycles of  $\theta$  consists of  $m$ -tuples and  $\theta$  has type  $(d_1, d_2, \dots)$  given by

$$\begin{aligned} d_p &= q^m/p & \text{and} & & d_i &= 0 & \text{for } i \neq p & \text{if } b = 1, \\ d_1 &= 1 & \text{and} & & d_k &= (q^m - 1)/k & \text{if } b \neq 1. \end{aligned}$$

Thus using (5.1) again we may prove

**THEOREM 5.3.** *The number of functions  $g: R^m \rightarrow R^m$  such that  $g\theta = \theta g$  is given by*

$$\begin{aligned} q^{mq^m/p} & \text{if } b = 1, \\ q^{m(q^m-1)/k} & \text{if } b \neq 1. \end{aligned}$$

We note that if  $m = 1$  the results of this section reduce to those of Mullen [14].

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DEPARTMENT OF MATHEMATICS  
UNIVERSITY OF TASMANIA  
(7001) HOBART  
AUSTRALIA

DEPARTMENT OF MATHEMATICS  
230 McALLISTER BUILDING  
THE PENNSYLVANIA STATE UNIVERSITY  
UNIVERSITY PARK, PA 16802  
U.S.A.

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