This, (4.3) and (4.6) give
$$|S| \geqslant \frac{e^{1/2} \frac{A\nu}{30^{\nu}} \cdot e^{-\log^{1/3} \frac{1}{\delta}} e^{-24}}{30^{\nu}} \cdot e^{-\log^{1/3} \frac{1}{\delta}} e^{-24}$$
$$> \left(\frac{1}{\delta}\right)^{1/2} \exp\left\{-\log^{1/3} \frac{1}{\delta} - 2\log 30 \cdot \frac{\log \frac{1}{\delta}}{\log \log \frac{1}{\delta}} - \frac{1}{6} \left(\log \frac{1}{\delta}\right)^{1/3} - 24\right\}$$
$$> 2\left(\frac{1}{\delta}\right)^{1/2} \exp\left(-8 \frac{\log \frac{1}{\delta}}{\log \log \frac{1}{\delta}}\right).$$

Using now (3.14) and (4.2) we obtain

$$(4.7) \quad \frac{\omega^{\nu}}{\nu!} \max_{e^{-\omega} \leqslant y \leqslant 1} |F(y)| \geqslant \left(\frac{1}{\delta}\right)^{1/2} \exp\left(-8 \cdot \frac{\log \frac{1}{\delta}}{\log \log \frac{1}{\delta}}\right) - c_8 \sum_{j=1}^{\nu} \frac{\omega^{\nu-j}}{(\nu-j)!}.$$

But

$$\frac{\omega^{\nu}}{\nu!} \leqslant \left(\frac{e\log\frac{1}{\delta}}{\nu}\right)^{\nu} < e^{\frac{3\log 1/\delta}{\log\log 1/\delta}\log\log\log 1/\delta}$$

and also

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\nu} \frac{\omega^{\nu-j}}{(\nu-j)!} \leqslant \nu \frac{\omega^{\nu}}{\nu!},$$

whence by (4.7)

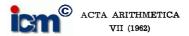
$$\max_{\delta \leqslant y \leqslant 1} \lvert F(y) \rvert > \left(\frac{1}{\delta}\right)^{1/2} \exp\left(-4 \frac{\log \frac{1}{\delta}}{\log \log \frac{1}{\delta}} \log \log \log \frac{1}{\delta}\right),$$

Q.E.D.

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Reçu par la Rédaction le 23. 2. 1961



A theorem on "ordered" polynomials in a finite field

b

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Let F denote the finite field GF(q) of order q, where $q = p^n$ is odd. Put $\psi(a) = +1, -1$ or 0 according as a is a non-zero square, a non-square or zero in F. Then we have

$$\psi(a) = a^m,$$

where q = 2m + 1. The writer has proved the following theorem.

THEOREM A. Let f(x) be a permutation polynomial such that

(2)
$$f(0) = 0, \quad f(1) = 1$$

and

(3)
$$\psi(f(x)-f(y))=\psi(x-y)$$

for all $x, y \in F$. Then we have

$$f(x) = x^{p^j}$$

for some j in the range $0 \le j < n$.

We recall that a polynomial f(x) with coefficients in F is a permutation polynomial if the numbers f(a), $a \in F$, are distinct. Also two polynomials f(x), g(x) are defined as equal if f(a) = g(a) for all $a \in F$; this is equivalent to the statement

$$f(x) \equiv g(x) \pmod{x^q - x}$$
.

Now it is evident that the hypothesis (3) implies that f(x) is a permutation polynomial. Also we may drop the hypothesis (2) and replace Theorem A by the following slightly more general theorem.

THEOREM B. Let f(x) be a polynomial with coefficients ϵF such that

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$$\psi(f(x)-f(y)) = \lambda\psi(x-y)$$

for all $x, y \in F$, where $\lambda = \pm 1$ is fixed. Then we have

$$f(x) = ax^{p^j} + b$$

for some j in the range $0 \leqslant j < n$ and where $a,b \in F, \ \psi(a) = \lambda.$ Acta Arithmetica VII

A theorem on "ordered" polynomials in a finite field

We now consider polynomials f(x, y) with coefficients ϵF such that

(6)
$$\psi(f(x,y)-f(z,y)) = \lambda \psi(x-z) ,$$

(7)
$$\psi(f(x,y)-f(x,z)) = \mu\psi(y-z)$$

for all $x, y, z \in F$, where $\lambda = \pm 1$ are fixed.

By Theorem B it follows from (6) that for each $y \in F$

$$f(x,y) = a(y)x^{p^{j(y)}} + c(y),$$

where $0 \leq j(y) < n$ and

$$9) \qquad \qquad \psi(a(y)) = \lambda$$

for all $y \in F$. Similarly from (7) we get

$$f(x, y) = b(x)y^{p^{k(x)}} + d(x),$$

where $0 \le k(x) < n$ and

$$(11) \qquad \psi(b(x)) = \mu$$

for all $x \in F$. We may evidently assume that a(y), b(y), c(x), d(x) are polynomials in the respective variables.

The case q = p is particularly simple. In this case (8) and (10) become

$$f(x, y) = a(y)x + c(y) = b(x)y + d(x)$$
,

from which it is clear that

(12)
$$f(x,y) = axy + bx + cy + d \quad (a, b, c, d \in F).$$

By (6) we get

$$\psi((ay+b)(x-z)) = \lambda \psi(x-z),$$

for all $x, y, z \in F$. In particular for x-z=1 this becomes

$$\psi(ay+b)=\lambda$$

for all $y \in F$. Consequently a = 0 and (12) reduces to

$$f(x,y) = bx + cy + d,$$

where $\psi(b) = \lambda$, $\psi(c) = \mu$, while d is arbitrary.

The general case is not quite so easy. Let M_r denote the set of $y \in F$ such that the exponent j(y) in (8) satisfies j(y) = r. Let $g_r(u)$ be the unique polynomial of degree < q such that

$$g_r(y) = \begin{cases} 1 & (y \in M_r), \\ 0 & (y \notin M_r); \end{cases}$$

if M_r is vacuous it is clear that $g_r(u) = 0$. Then (8) becomes

$$f(x, y) = a(y) \sum_{r=0}^{n-1} g_r(y) x^{p^r} + e(y)$$
.



Changing the notation, we may write

(14)
$$f(x, y) = \sum_{r=0}^{n-1} a_r(y) x^{p^r} + c(y),$$

where the $a_r(y)$ are polynomials $\epsilon F[y]$. Similarly it follows from (10) that

(15)
$$f(x, y) = \sum_{s=0}^{n-1} b_s(x) y^{p^s} + d(x),$$

where the $b_s(x)$ are polynomials $\epsilon F[x]$.

Comparing (15) with (14) it follows that

$$(16) \quad f(x,y) = \sum_{r,s=0}^{n-1} a_{rs} x^{pr} y^{ps} + \sum_{r=0}^{n-1} b_r x^{pr} + \sum_{s=0}^{n-1} c_s y^{ps} + d \quad (a_{rs}, b_r, c_s, d \in F) .$$

If we apply (6) to (16) we get

(17)
$$\psi\left\{\sum_{r,s}a_{rs}(x-z)^{pr}y^{ps}+\sum_{r}b_{r}(x-z)^{pr}\right\}=\lambda\psi(x-z)$$

for all $x, y, z \in F$. In particular, for y = 0, (17) reduces to

$$\psi\left(\sum_{\mathbf{r}}b_{\mathbf{r}}(x-z)^{\mathbf{p}^{\mathbf{r}}}\right)=\lambda\psi(x-z)$$
.

Applying Theorem B to the polynomial

$$f(x) = \sum_{r=0}^{n-1} b_r x^{p^r}$$

it follows that all $b_r = 0$ except b_{r_0} , say, where $\psi(b_{r_0}) = \lambda$. A similar argument applies to the coefficients c_s . Hence (16) reduces to

(18)
$$f(x,y) = \sum_{r,s=0}^{n-1} a_{rs} x^{pr} y^{ps} + b x^{pr_0} + c y^{ps_0} + d,$$

where $\psi(b) = \lambda$, $\psi(c) = \mu$.

Applying (6) to (18) we get

(19)
$$\psi\left\{\sum_{r,s} a_{rs}(x-z)^{p^r}y^{p^s} + b(x-z)^{p^{rs}}\right\} = \lambda\psi(x-z).$$

For fixed y define

$$f(x) = f_{y}(x) = \sum_{r=0}^{n-1} x^{p^{r}} \sum_{s=0}^{n-1} a_{rs} y^{p^{s}} + b x^{p^{r_{0}}}.$$

In view of (19) we have

$$\psi(f(x)-f(z))=\lambda\psi(x-z).$$

By Theorem B, $f_y(x)$ must be a monomial in x for each y. Assume that not all the coefficients $a_{rs}=0$. If for some r_1 not all $a_{r_1s}=0$, then the equation

$$\sum_{s=0}^{n-1} a_{r_1 s} y^{p^s} + b \delta_{r_0 r_1} = 0$$

has at most p^{n-1} solutions y. If $r_1 \neq r_0$ then not all $a_{r_0 \theta} = 0$. But by the above remark it is evidently impossible to have two non-vanishing rows.

Thus in the matrix (a_{rs}) all elements except possibly those in the r_0 -th row vanish. In like fashion we can show that all elements except possibly those in the s_0 -th column vanish. Consequently (18) becomes

$$f(x,y) = ax^{pr_0}y^{ps_0} + bx^{pr_0} + cy^{ps_0} + d,$$

where $a = a_{r_0 s_0}$.

Applying (6) once more we get

$$\psi((ay^{ps_0}+b)(x-z)^{pr_j})=\lambda\psi(x-z)$$

for all $x, y, z \in F$. For x-z=1 this reduces to

$$\psi(ay^{ps_0}+b)=\lambda.$$

If $a \neq 0$, we take

$$y = -\left(b/a\right)^{p^{n-s_0}}$$

to get a contradiction.

We have therefore proved the following result.

THEOREM C. Let f(x,y) be a polynomial with coefficients ϵF such that (6) and (7) hold for all x,y,z ϵF , where $\lambda=\pm 1,\ \mu=\pm 1$ are fixed. Then

$$f(x, y) = bx^{pr} + cy^{ps} + d,$$

where $0 \le r < n$, $0 \le s < n$ and

$$\psi(b) = \lambda$$
, $\psi(c) = \mu$.

The general case is covered by the following theorem.

THEOREM D. Let $f(x_1, \ldots, x_k)$ be a polynomial with coefficients ϵ F such that

22)
$$\psi(f(x_1, \ldots, x_{r-1}, x_r, x_{r+1}, \ldots, x_k) - f(x_1, \ldots, x_{r-1}, y_r, x_{r+1}, \ldots, x_k))$$

$$= \lambda_r \psi(x_r - y_r) \quad (r = 1, 2, \ldots, k)$$



for all $x_i, y_i \in F$, where the λ_i are fixed, $\lambda_i = \pm 1$. Then

(23)
$$f(x_1, ..., x_k) = \sum_{j=1}^{k} b_j x_j^{p^{r_j}} + d,$$

where

$$\psi(b_j) = \lambda_j \quad (j = 1, 2, ..., k)$$
.

It will suffice to sketch briefly the proof of the theorem. We assume the truth of the theorem for k variables. Then for fixed $x = x_{k+1}$, it follows from the inductive hypothesis and (22) with k replaced by k+1 that

$$f(x_1, \ldots, x_k, x) = \sum_{j=1}^k b_j(x) x_j^{pr_j(x)} + d(x)$$
.

Then, exactly as in the proof of (14), we get

(24)
$$f(x_1, ..., x_k, x) = \sum_{r=0}^{n-1} \sum_{j=1}^k b_{rj}(x) x_j^{p^r} + d(x).$$

On the other hand, for fixed $x_1, ..., x_k$, we have

(25)
$$f(x_1, ..., x_k, x) = a(x_1, ..., x_k) x^{pt} + c(x_1, ..., x_k)$$

for some t. Comparison of (25) with (24) yields

$$(26) \quad f(x_1, \ldots, x_k, x) = \sum_{j=1}^k \sum_{r,s=0}^{n-1} a_{jrs} x_j^{p^r} x^{p^s} + \sum_{j=1}^k \sum_{r=0}^{n-1} b_{jr} x_j^{p^r} + \sum_{s=0}^{n-1} c_s x^{p^s} + d.$$

For x=0 the inductive hypothesis requires that for each j all $b_{ir}=0$ except b_{jrj} , say; similarly, for $x_1=...=x_k=0$, all $c_s=0$ except c_{s_0} , say. We then show first that all $a_{jrs}=0$ except possibly a_{jrjs_0} . Thus (26) reduces to

(27)
$$f(x_1, ..., x_k, x) = \sum_{j=1}^k a_j x_j^{pr_j} x^{pr_0} + \sum_{j=1}^k b_j x_j^{pr_j} + c_{s_0} x^{pr_0} + d,$$

where $a_j = a_{jr_js_0}$, $b_j = b_{jr_j}$.

Now by (27) and the hypothesis of the theorem

$$\psi\left(\sum_{j=1}^k a_j x_j^{pr_j} + c_{s_0}\right) = \lambda_{k+1}$$

for all $x_1, \ldots, x_k \in F$. If any $a_j \neq 0$ this is impossible since the equation

$$\sum_{i=1}^k a_i x_i^{p^{r_i}} + c_{s_0} = 0$$

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is solvable in F. Hence (27) reduces to

$$f(x_1, \ldots, x_k, x) = \sum_{j=0}^k b_j x_j^{p^{ij}} + c_{s_0} x^{p^{s_0}} + d,$$

where clearly

$$\psi(b_j) = \lambda_j \quad (j = 1, ..., k), \quad \psi(c_{s_0}) = \lambda_{k+1},$$

and the induction is complete.

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Recu par la Rédaction le 9. 3. 1961

ACTA ARITHMETICA VII (1962)

Congruence properties of certain linear homogeneous difference equations

p.

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1. Introduction. In a recent paper [1] the writer considered the recurrence

$$(1.1) u_{n+1} = f(n) u_n + g(n) u_{n-1},$$

where f(n), g(n) are polynomials in n (and possibly some additional indeterminates) with integral coefficients. It was assumed that

$$(1.2) u_0 = 1, u_1 = f(0), g(0) = 0.$$

The main result of [1] is contained in the congruence

(1.3)
$$\sum_{s=0}^{r} (-1)^{s} {r \choose s} u_{n+sm} u_{m}^{r-s} \equiv 0 \pmod{m^{r_{1}}},$$

for all $n \ge 0$, $m \ge 1$, $r \ge 1$ and where

$$(1.4) r_1 = [(r+1)/2],$$

the greatest integer $\leq (r+1)/2$. Indeed, to get (1.3) it is only necessary to assume that the coefficients of the polynomials f(n), g(n) are integral (mod m).

A number of applications of (1.3) were given, in particular to the polynomials of Hermite and Laguerre.

It seems natural to consider the recurrence

$$u_{n+1}^{(k)} = a_0(n) u_n^{(k)} + a_1(n) u_{n-1}^{(k)} + \dots + a_k(n) u_{n-k}^{(k)}$$

of order k+1, where the $a_i(n)$ are polynomials in n with integral coefficients. Corresponding to (1.2) we now assume that

(1.6)
$$a_j(s) = 0 \quad (s = 0, 1, ..., j-1, j = 1, ..., k);$$

also we suppose that (1.5) holds for all $n \ge 0$. In view of (1.6) it is not necessary to explicitly define $u_{-1}^{(k)}, \ldots, u_{-k}^{(k)}$. We take $u_0^{(k)} = 1$ and it follows that

$$u_1^{(k)} = a_0(0)$$
, $u_2^{(k)} = a_0(1)u_1^{(k)} + a_1(1)$, etc.