

# COUNTING PLANES IN FINITE FIELDS

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ABSTRACT. On the field with  $2^n$  elements, we count the number of relationships of the form  $a + b + c = 0$ , modulo the group generated by the Frobenius automorphism and multiplication by nonzero elements: there are roughly  $\frac{2^n}{6n}$  relationships, meaning the group acts “mostly” freely on them. We also solve a similar counting problem on any finite field.

*Keywords : finite upper half planes*

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## 1. MOTIVATION : THE ADDITION TABLE IN $\mathbb{F}_{2^n}$ .

Let  $\zeta$  be a root of the irreducible polynomial  $X^6 + X + 1$  on  $\mathbb{F}_2$  : the field with  $2^6 = 64$  elements,  $\mathbb{F}_{64}$ , coincides with  $\mathbb{F}_2[\zeta]$ , and one can moreover show that  $\zeta$  is primitive in  $\mathbb{F}_{64}^\times$ , i.e.

$$\mathbb{F}_{64}^\times = \{\zeta^{-31}, \dots, 1, \zeta, \dots, \zeta^{31}\} \simeq (\mathbb{Z}/63\mathbb{Z}, +)$$

(just check that  $\zeta^{63/3}$  and  $\zeta^{63/7}$  are both different from 1).

Given  $a, b \in [-31, 31]$  distinct, how do we find  $c$  such that  $\zeta^a + \zeta^b = \zeta^c$  ? (This “discrete logarithm” problem is thought to be computationally hard.) It is enough to treat the case  $b = 0$ , up to multiplying by  $\zeta^b$ . Discarding  $a = 0$ , this leaves  $2^6 - 2 = 62$  relationships to determine. For example, we already know that

$$1 + \zeta = \zeta^6 .$$

One easily checks the following relationships:

$$\begin{aligned} 1 + \zeta^{-11} &= \zeta^{14} \\ 1 + \zeta^9 &= \zeta^{-18} \\ 1 + \zeta^{21} &= \zeta^{-21} . \end{aligned}$$

By applying the Frobenius automorphism  $\sigma$  (i.e. doubling all exponents), one finds more relationships. Multiplying by powers of  $\zeta$  yields more still (e.g. the first one gives  $1 + \zeta^{-1} = \zeta^5$ ). In fact, the four relationships above are enough to determine all others in just this way. Indeed, if we write, next to each Frobenius iterate of a relationship, the values of  $a$  for which it lets us express  $1 + \zeta^a$ , we find

$1 + \zeta = \zeta^6$	$\pm 1, \pm 6, \pm 5$	$1 + \zeta^{-11} = \zeta^{14}$	$\pm 11, \pm 14, \pm 25$
$1 + \zeta^2 = \zeta^{12}$	$\pm 2, \pm 12, \pm 10$	$1 + \zeta^{-22} = \zeta^{28}$	$\pm 22, \pm 28, \pm 13$
$1 + \zeta^4 = \zeta^{24}$	$\pm 4, \pm 24, \pm 20$	$1 + \zeta^{19} = \zeta^{-7}$	$\pm 19, \pm 7, \pm 26$
$(\sigma \downarrow) 1 + \zeta^8 = \zeta^{-15}$	$\pm 8, \pm 15, \pm 23$		
$1 + \zeta^{16} = \zeta^{-30}$	$\pm 16, \pm 30, \pm 17$		
$1 + \zeta^{-31} = \zeta^3$	$\pm 31, \pm 3, \pm 29$		
$1 + \zeta^9 = \zeta^{-18}$	$\pm 9, \pm 18, \pm 27$	$1 + \zeta^{21} = \zeta^{-21}$	$\pm 21$

(The last two relationships are sent to themselves by  $\sigma$ , up to some factor  $\zeta^\nu$  and a permutation of the terms. Every relationship is sent to itself by  $\sigma^6 = \text{Id}_{\mathbb{F}_{64}}$ , but

sometimes also by  $\sigma^d$  for  $d$  some divisor of 6.) One can check that all numbers from  $\pm 1$  to  $\pm 31$  arise in the table.

If we replace  $64 = 2^6$  with  $2^n$ , how many relationships will it take to determine the full addition table of  $\mathbb{F}_{2^n}$ ? How many of them have an orbit of length  $n$  (i.e. maximal) under  $\sigma$ ? A triple of exponents  $\{a, b, c\}$  such that  $\zeta^a + \zeta^b + \zeta^c = 0$  is the same as a 2-plane (on  $\mathbb{F}_2$ ) within  $\mathbb{F}_{2^n}$ : namely the plane  $\{0, \zeta^a, \zeta^b, \zeta^c\}$ . One is thus led to compute the number  $N$  of orbits of such 2-planes, under the action of  $\mathbb{F}_{2^n}^\times \rtimes \text{Frob}$ , where  $\text{Frob} = \{1, \sigma, \dots, \sigma^{n-1}\}$  denotes the Galois group. One finds the following values:

$n =$	2	3	4	5	<b>6</b>	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	...
$N =$	1	1	2	1	<b>4</b>	3	8	11	20	31	64	105	...

**Proposition 1.** *For all  $n \geq 2$ , the number  $N(n)$  of orbits of relationships in  $\mathbb{F}_{2^n}$  is*

$$N(n) = \frac{1}{6n} \sum_{d|n} \phi(d) \left[ 2^{\frac{n}{d}} \left( 1 + \underset{\text{if } 2|d}{3} + \underset{\text{if } 3|d}{2} \right) + 2 \underset{\text{if } 3 \nmid d}{(-1)^{\frac{n}{d}}} \right]$$

where  $\nu|d$  (resp.  $\nu \nmid d$ ) means that  $\nu$  divides (resp. does not divide)  $d$ , and  $\phi(d)$  is the number of integers coprime to  $d$  in  $\{1, \dots, d\}$  (Euler's totient function). A term such as “ $\underset{\text{if } 2|d}{3}$ ” is by definition 3 if  $2|d$  and 0 otherwise.

This proposition will follow from an analogous count of orbits of planes in any finite field.

**Corollary 2.** *For large  $n$ , one has  $N \sim \frac{2^n}{6n}$  and only  $o(N)$  Frobenius orbits have length  $< n$ .*

*Proof.* Since  $n = ab$  entails  $\min\{a, b\} \leq \sqrt{n}$ , every integer  $n$  has at most  $2\sqrt{n}$  divisors. Therefore, for any  $\varepsilon > 0$ ,

$$\sum_{d|n} \phi(d) \cdot 2^{\frac{n}{d}} \leq 2^{\frac{n}{1}} + 2\sqrt{n} \cdot n \cdot 2^{\frac{n}{2}} \underset{n \rightarrow \infty}{=} 2^n + o\left(2^{n(\frac{1}{2} + \varepsilon)}\right).$$

Thus, the term  $d = 1$  dominates in the formula of Proposition 1; in fact, the left half (roughly) of the digits of  $N(n)$  coincide with those of  $\frac{2^n}{6n}$ . The corollary follows (an orbit of length  $k$  yields up to  $6k$  relationships of the form  $1 + \zeta^a = \zeta^c$ , by multiplication by  $\zeta^\nu$  and switching sides). In fact, for  $n$  prime  $\geq 5$  the formula yields  $N(n) = \frac{2^n - 2}{6n}$  and all orbits have length exactly  $n$ .  $\square$

## 2. THE GENERAL PROBLEM

Let  $q$  be a prime power, and  $n > 1$  an integer. On the field  $\mathbb{F}_q$  we may construct a vector space  $(\mathbb{F}_q)^n$  of dimension  $n$ , which contains exactly

$$\frac{(q^n - 1)(q^n - q)}{(q^2 - 1)(q^2 - q)}$$

2-planes, by a classical argument.

Now identify  $(\mathbb{F}_q)^n$  with  $\mathbb{F}_{q^n}$ , the field with  $q^n$  elements. On this space (and its 2-planes), there is an action by the Frobenius automorphism (of order  $n$ ) and the multiplicative group  $\mathbb{F}_{q^n}^\times$  (of order  $q^n - 1$ ). We shall count the number  $N = N(q, n)$  of orbits of 2-planes under the action of the group

$$\mathbb{F}_{q^n}^\times \rtimes \text{Frob}$$

generated by these two transformations: if  $\sigma$  is the Frobenius map  $X \mapsto X^q$ , the semidirect product structure is given by  $(u, \sigma^k)(v, \sigma^l) = (u\sigma^k(v), \sigma^{k+l})$ , and the action on  $\mathbb{F}_{q^n}$  by  $(u, \sigma^k)x = u\sigma^k(x)$ .

Note for example that all 2-planes of the form  $u\mathbb{F}_{q^2}$  (with  $u \in \mathbb{F}_{q^n}^\times$  and  $n$  being even) belong to the same orbit, of cardinality  $\frac{q^n-1}{q^2-1}$ .

**Theorem 3.** *For all  $n \geq 2$  one has:*

$$N(q, n) = \frac{1 + (-1)^n}{4} + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{d|n} \phi(d) \left( \frac{d \wedge (q-1)}{2} \frac{q^{\frac{n}{d}} - 1}{q-1} + \frac{d \wedge (q+1)}{2} \frac{q^{\frac{n}{d}} - (-1)^{\frac{n}{d}}}{q+1} - \frac{q^{\frac{n}{d}-1}}{\text{if } d \wedge q = 1} \right)$$

where  $d \wedge \nu$  denotes the largest common divisor of  $d$  and  $\nu$ .

The rest of this note is devoted to proving this theorem (and its special case Proposition 1). For this, consider not the 2-planes, but the *2-planes endowed with a basis seen up to homothety*. (A homothety is a multiplication by an element of  $\mathbb{F}_q^\times$ ; note that multiplication by  $u \in \mathbb{F}_{q^n}^\times$  is generally *not* a homothety in this sense). The group  $\text{PGL}_2(\mathbb{F}_q)$  acts simply transitively on such projectivized bases and it will be enough to quotient out by this action. Thus, one has

$$N = \left| \frac{\left\{ \overline{(x, y)} \in (\mathbb{F}_{q^n}^\times)^2 / \mathbb{F}_q^\times \mid \frac{x}{y} \notin \mathbb{F}_q \right\}}{(\mathbb{F}_{q^n}^\times / \mathbb{F}_q^\times \rtimes \text{Frob}) \times \text{PGL}_2(\mathbb{F}_q)} \right|.$$

Here the action is given by

$$\left( \mathbb{F}_q^\times u, \sigma^k, \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & \beta \\ \gamma & \delta \end{pmatrix} \right) \cdot \mathbb{F}_q^\times \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \mathbb{F}_q^\times \begin{pmatrix} u\sigma^k(\alpha x + \beta y) \\ u\sigma^k(\gamma x + \delta y) \end{pmatrix}$$

and it is a routine exercise to check that it is well-defined.

An element  $g = \left( \mathbb{F}_q^\times u, \sigma^k, \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & \beta \\ \gamma & \delta \end{pmatrix} \right)$  will sometimes be written  $g = ([u], k, \varphi)$  for conciseness. There are  $\frac{q^n-1}{q-1} n \frac{(q^2-1)(q^2-q)}{q-1} = nq(q+1)(q^n-1)$  possible values for  $g$ .

Fix  $\overline{\left(\frac{x}{y}\right)} \in (\mathbb{F}_{q^n}^\times)^2 / \mathbb{F}_q^\times$ , and define  $\xi := \frac{x}{y} \in \mathbb{F}_{q^n} \setminus \mathbb{F}_q$ . Consider the fixed-point equation in  $g = ([u], k, \varphi)$ :

$$\mathbb{F}_q^\times \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \mathbb{F}_q^\times \begin{pmatrix} u\sigma^k(\alpha x + \beta y) \\ u\sigma^k(\gamma x + \delta y) \end{pmatrix}.$$

For given  $k, \varphi$ , there exists at most one solution  $u \in \mathbb{F}_{q^n}^\times / \mathbb{F}_q^\times$  (namely the value  $u = \mathbb{F}_q^\times \frac{x}{\sigma^k(\alpha x + \beta y)}$ ), and it does exist if and only if

$$\frac{x}{y} = \frac{\sigma^k(\alpha x + \beta y)}{\sigma^k(\gamma x + \delta y)}$$

or equivalently

$$\xi = \sigma^k(\varphi(\xi))$$

where  $\text{PGL}_2(\mathbb{F}_q) \ni \varphi$  acts on  $\mathbb{P}^1\mathbb{F}_{q^n}$  by Möbius transformations in the usual sense (e.g. of [finite] upper half planes) — one agrees that  $\sigma$  fixes infinity, and that  $\mathbb{P}^1\mathbb{F}_{q^d} \subset \mathbb{P}^1\mathbb{F}_{q^n}$  when  $d|n$ . Only  $\xi = \frac{x}{y}$  matters:  $y$  may be chosen at will inside  $\mathbb{F}_{q^n}^\times$ , which corresponds to “multiplication by  $\zeta^a$ ” in the Introduction.

Therefore,  $N + 1$  is just the number of orbits of  $\mathbb{P}^1\mathbb{F}_{q^n}$  under the group  $\text{Frob} \times \text{PGL}_2(\mathbb{F}_q)$ , of order  $n(q^3 - q)$  (the extra “+1” corresponds to the orbit  $\mathbb{P}^1\mathbb{F}_q$ , which must be discarded since we request  $\xi \notin \mathbb{F}_q$ ). Apply the class equation: the number of orbits is the average number of fixed points, i.e.

$$N + 1 = \frac{1}{n(q^3 - q)} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} N_k$$

$$\text{where } N_k = \# \{ (\varphi, \xi) \in \text{PGL}_2(\mathbb{F}_q) \times \mathbb{P}^1\mathbb{F}_{q^n} \mid \varphi(\xi) = \sigma^k(\xi) \}.$$

Note that  $\sigma^k(\xi) = \varphi(\xi)$  implies  $\sigma^{k\nu}(\xi) = \varphi^\nu(\xi)$  for all  $\nu \in \mathbb{Z}$ , by a straightforward induction (the coefficients of  $\varphi \in \mathrm{PGL}_2(\mathbb{F}_q)$  are fixed under  $\sigma$ ). Since  $\sigma^l(\xi)$  depends solely on the residue class of  $l$  modulo  $n$ , one sees that  $\sigma^k(\xi)$  belongs to the orbit  $\mathrm{PGL}_2(\mathbb{F}_q) \cdot \xi$  if and only if  $\sigma^{k \wedge n}(\xi)$  does. If  $\mathbb{1}_U$  denotes the characteristic function of a set  $U$ , then by writing

$$N_k = \sum_{\xi \in \mathbb{P}^1 \mathbb{F}_{q^n}} |\mathrm{Stab}_{\mathrm{PGL}_2(\mathbb{F}_q)}(\xi)| \mathbb{1}_{\mathrm{PGL}_2(\mathbb{F}_q) \cdot \xi}(\sigma^k(\xi))$$

we see immediately that  $N_k = N_{k \wedge n}$ . But for every divisor  $d$  of  $n$ , the number of values of  $k$  in  $\{0, 1, \dots, n-1\}$  such that  $k \wedge n = d$  is exactly  $\phi\left(\frac{n}{d}\right)$ . Therefore,

$$N + 1 = \frac{1}{n(q^3 - q)} \sum_{d|n} \phi\left(\frac{n}{d}\right) \sum_{\varphi \in \mathrm{PGL}_2(\mathbb{F}_q)} \# \{ \xi \in \times \mathbb{P}^1 \mathbb{F}_{q^n} \mid \varphi(\xi) = \sigma^d(\xi) \} .$$

Suppose that the order of  $\varphi$  does not divide  $\frac{n}{d}$ , i.e.  $\varphi^{\frac{n}{d}} \neq 1$ : then the relationship  $\varphi(\xi) = \sigma^d(\xi)$  implies  $\varphi^{\frac{n}{d}}(\xi) = \sigma^n(\xi) = \xi$ , i.e.  $\xi \in \mathrm{Fix}\left(\varphi^{\frac{n}{d}}\right) = \mathrm{Fix}(\varphi)$ . The solutions are exactly the  $\xi \in \mathrm{Fix}(\varphi) \cap \mathrm{Fix}(\sigma^d)$  that belong to  $\mathbb{P}^1 \mathbb{F}_{q^n}$ : there may be either 0 or 1 or 2 of them; we will discuss the various possibilities below.

**Proposition 4.** *Suppose, on the contrary, that  $\varphi^{\frac{n}{d}} = 1$ . Then the equation  $\varphi(\xi) = \sigma^d(\xi)$ , i.e.*

$$\xi^{q^d} = \frac{\alpha\xi + \beta}{\gamma\xi + \delta} ,$$

*has precisely  $q^d + 1$  distinct solutions  $\xi$  in  $\mathbb{P}^1 \mathbb{F}_{q^n}$ .*

*Proof.* (Fix representatives  $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta \in \mathbb{F}_q$ .) The point  $\xi = \infty$  is a solution if and only if  $\gamma = 0$ . As to finite solutions, they are the distinct roots of the polynomial

$$P := (\gamma X + \delta)X^{q^d} - (\alpha X + \beta)$$

in  $\mathbb{F}_{q^n}$ . Let

$$\mathcal{A} := \mathbb{F}_q[X] \left[ \frac{1}{X - \eta} \right]_{\eta \in \mathbb{F}_q}$$

be the ring of rational functions whose denominator is split over  $\mathbb{F}_q$ , and let  $\mathcal{I}$  be the ideal of  $\mathcal{A}$  generated by  $P$  (i.e. by  $X^{q^d} - \frac{\alpha X + \beta}{\gamma X + \delta}$ ). Whenever  $X^{q^{vd}} - \varphi^\nu(X) \in \mathcal{I}$  and  $\varphi^\nu = \left(\frac{\alpha' \beta'}{\gamma' \delta'}\right)$ , the following elements all belong to  $\mathcal{I}$ :

$$\begin{aligned} (\gamma' X + \delta')X^{q^{vd}} &- (\alpha' X + \beta') \\ (\gamma' X^{q^d} + \delta')X^{q^{(\nu+1)d}} &- (\alpha' X^{q^d} + \beta') \\ \left( \gamma' \frac{\alpha X + \beta}{\gamma X + \delta} + \delta' \right) X^{q^{(\nu+1)d}} &- \left( \alpha' \frac{\alpha X + \beta}{\gamma X + \delta} + \beta' \right) \\ (\gamma'(\alpha X + \beta) + \delta'(\gamma X + \delta)) X^{q^{(\nu+1)d}} &- (\alpha'(\alpha X + \beta) + \beta'(\gamma X + \delta)) \\ X^{q^{(\nu+1)d}} &- \frac{\alpha' \left( \frac{\alpha X + \beta}{\gamma X + \delta} \right) + \beta'}{\gamma' \left( \frac{\alpha X + \beta}{\gamma X + \delta} \right) + \delta'} \\ X^{q^{(\nu+1)d}} &- \varphi^{\nu+1}(X) . \end{aligned}$$

Thus, by induction,  $X^{q^n} \equiv \varphi^{\frac{n}{d}}(X) = X$  modulo  $\mathcal{I}$ , which means that  $X^{q^d} - \frac{\alpha X + \beta}{\gamma X + \delta}$  divides  $X^{q^n} - X$  (which has a simple zero at every point of  $\mathbb{F}_{q^n}$ ) in  $\mathcal{A}$ . In other words,  $P$  has all its roots in  $\mathbb{F}_{q^n}$ , and they are all simple except possibly the ones belonging to  $\mathbb{F}_q$ .

Let  $\xi$  be a multiple root of  $P$  in  $\mathbb{F}_q$ : then  $P(\xi) = P'(\xi) = 0$  and  $\xi^q = \xi$  together yield

$$\begin{aligned} (\gamma\xi + \delta)\xi - (\alpha\xi + \beta) &= 0 \\ \gamma\xi - \alpha &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

hence  $\delta\xi - \beta = 0$  and finally

$$\begin{pmatrix} \gamma & \alpha \\ \delta & \beta \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \xi \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} = 0$$

which is impossible since  $\varphi = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & \beta \\ \gamma & \delta \end{pmatrix}$  is invertible. Therefore, all roots of  $P$  are simple and belong to  $\mathbb{F}_{q^n}$ . There are  $q^d + 1$  of them, or exceptionally  $q^d$  when  $\gamma = 0$  (but in that case we already had the solution  $\xi = 0$ ). The Proposition is proved.  $\square$

**Observation 5.** *The group  $\mathrm{PGL}_2(\mathbb{F}_q)$  is a union of the following subgroups, which pairwise meet only at the identity:*

- (1) *Groups conjugated to  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & * \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ , of order  $q$ , numbering  $q+1$  copies (characterized by their fixed slope), isomorphic to  $(\mathbb{F}_q, +)$ . Their nontrivial elements will be called *trigonalizable*; they fix exactly one point of  $\mathbb{P}^1\mathbb{F}_q$ .*
- (2) *Groups conjugated to  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & * \end{pmatrix}$ , of order  $q-1$ , numbering  $\frac{(q+1)q}{2}$  copies (choice of two fixed slopes), isomorphic to  $\mathbb{F}_q^\times \simeq \mathbb{Z}/(q-1)\mathbb{Z}$ . Their nontrivial elements shall be called *diagonalizable*; they fix exactly two points of  $\mathbb{P}^1\mathbb{F}_q$ .*
- (3) *Groups stabilizing a pair of conjugate points  $\eta, \bar{\eta}$  of  $\mathbb{P}^1\mathbb{F}_{q^2} \setminus \mathbb{P}^1\mathbb{F}_q$ , numbering  $\frac{q^2-q}{2}$  copies (choice of the pair  $\{\eta, \bar{\eta}\}$ ), isomorphic to  $\mathbb{Z}/(q+1)\mathbb{Z}$  (being contained in the cyclic group  $\mathrm{Stab}_{\mathrm{PGL}_2(\mathbb{F}_{q^2})}(\eta, \bar{\eta}) \simeq \mathbb{F}_{q^2}^\times$  and acting freely transitively on  $\mathbb{P}^1\mathbb{F}_q$ ). Their nontrivial elements will be called *eigenvector-free* (in  $\mathbb{P}^1\mathbb{F}_q$ , that is).*

Indeed, each nontrivial element  $\varphi$  of  $\mathrm{PGL}_2(\mathbb{F}_q)$  clearly belongs to a unique group from the list above, depending on where its fixed points lie in  $\mathbb{P}^1\mathbb{F}_{q^2}$ . Total cardinalities check out:

$$|\mathrm{PGL}_2(\mathbb{F}_q)| = q^3 - q = \underbrace{1}_{\text{identity}} + \underbrace{(q-1)(q+1)}_{\text{trigonalizable}} + \underbrace{(q-2)\frac{(q+1)q}{2}}_{\text{diagonalizable}} + \underbrace{q\frac{q^2-q}{2}}_{\text{e.v.-free}}.$$

(Note also the analogy with the classification of real Möbius transformations into parabolic, hyperbolic, and elliptic families according to the position of their fixed points in  $\mathbb{P}^1\mathbb{C}$ .) We may now write

$$\begin{aligned} N+1 &= \frac{1}{n(q^3-q)} \times \sum_{d|n} \phi\left(\frac{n}{d}\right) \left( \sum_{\substack{\varphi \in \mathrm{PGL}_2(\mathbb{F}_q) \\ \varphi^{\frac{n}{d}} = 1}} (q^d + 1) \right. \\ &\quad \left. + \sum_{\substack{\varphi \in \mathrm{PGL}_2(\mathbb{F}_q) \\ \varphi^{\frac{n}{d}} \neq 1}} |\mathrm{Fix}(\varphi) \cap \mathrm{Fix}(\sigma^d) \cap \mathbb{P}^1\mathbb{F}_{q^n}| \right). \end{aligned}$$

Noticing that  $\sum_{d|n} \phi(\frac{n}{d}) = n$  and  $|\mathrm{PGL}_2(\mathbb{F}_q)| = q^3 - q$ , and exchanging  $d$  with  $\frac{n}{d}$ , this amounts to

$$N = \frac{1}{n(q^3 - q)} \sum_{d|n} \phi(d) \left( \sum_{\substack{\varphi \in \mathrm{PGL}_2(\mathbb{F}_q) \\ \varphi^d = 1}} q^{\frac{n}{d}} + \sum_{\substack{\varphi \in \mathrm{PGL}_2(\mathbb{F}_q) \\ \varphi^d \neq 1}} |\mathrm{Fix}(\varphi) \cap \mathrm{Fix}(\sigma^{\frac{n}{d}}) \cap \mathbb{P}^1 \mathbb{F}_{q^n}| - 1 \right).$$

For all  $d \in \mathbb{N}$ , the number of elements  $\varphi$  of  $\mathrm{PGL}_2(\mathbb{F}_q)$  such that  $\varphi^d = 1$  is

$$\begin{aligned} A_d &= 1 && \text{(the identity)} \\ &+ \frac{q(q+1)}{2} \cdot [d \wedge (q-1) - 1] && \text{(diagonalizables)} \\ &+ \frac{q(q-1)}{2} \cdot [d \wedge (q+1) - 1] && \text{(eigenvector-free)} \\ &+ (q+1) \cdot [q-1] && \text{(trigonalizables)} \\ &\quad \text{if } d \wedge q \neq 1 \end{aligned}$$

or, rearranging the terms,

$$A_d = \frac{q(q+1)}{2} [d \wedge (q-1)] + \frac{q(q-1)}{2} [d \wedge (q+1)] - (q^2 - 1) \quad \text{if } d \wedge q = 1.$$

Among the  $q^3 - q - A_d$  remaining elements  $\varphi$ , i.e. those satisfying  $\varphi^d \neq 1$  (none of which is the identity!), the number  $|\mathrm{Fix}(\varphi) \cap \mathrm{Fix}(\sigma^{\frac{n}{d}}) \cap \mathbb{P}^1 \mathbb{F}_{q^n}| - 1$  will be 0 if  $\varphi$  is trigonalizable, 1 if  $\varphi$  is diagonalizable, and  $(-1)^{\frac{n}{d}}$  if  $\varphi$  is eigenvector-free. Thus, using the shorthand  $d_{q\pm 1}$  for  $d \wedge (q \pm 1)$ , we get

$$N = \frac{1}{n(q^3 - q)} \sum_{d|n} \phi(d) \left( \begin{array}{l} \frac{q(q+1)}{2} [d_{q-1} q^{\frac{n}{d}} + (q-1 - d_{q-1})] \\ + \frac{q(q-1)}{2} [d_{q+1} q^{\frac{n}{d}} + (q+1 - d_{q+1})(-1)^{\frac{n}{d}}] \\ - (q^2 - 1) \cdot q^{\frac{n}{d}} \\ \text{if } d \wedge q = 1 \end{array} \right).$$

Observe finally that  $\frac{q(q+1)}{2}(q-1) + \frac{q(q-1)}{2}(q+1)(-1)^{\frac{n}{d}}$  equals  $q^3 - q$  if  $\frac{n}{d}$  is even (i.e.  $2d|n$ ) and 0 otherwise. The identity  $\sum_{d|n} \phi(d) = n$  easily implies  $\sum_{2d|n} \phi(d) = \frac{n}{2}$  if  $n$  is even and 0 otherwise, i.e.  $\frac{1+(-1)^n}{4}n$  in general. It follows that

$$N = \frac{1+(-1)^n}{4} + \frac{1}{n(q^3 - q)} \sum_{d|n} \phi(d) \left( \begin{array}{l} \frac{q(q+1)}{2} [d \wedge (q-1)] (q^{\frac{n}{d}} - 1) \\ + \frac{q(q-1)}{2} [d \wedge (q+1)] (q^{\frac{n}{d}} - (-1)^{\frac{n}{d}}) \\ - (q^2 - 1) \cdot q^{\frac{n}{d}} \\ \text{if } d \wedge q = 1 \end{array} \right).$$

For instance, when  $d$  is coprime to the numbers  $q-1, q, q+1$  (i.e. to  $q^3 - q$ ), then the term in parentheses equals  $q^{\frac{n}{d}} - q$  (if  $\frac{n}{d}$  is odd) or  $q^{\frac{n}{d}} - q^2$  (if  $\frac{n}{d}$  is even). For  $d$  arbitrary, the term in parentheses will be at least as large as these values. The case  $d = 1$  gives the leading term (as in Corollary 2) :  $N \underset{n \rightarrow \infty}{\sim} \frac{q^n}{n(q^3 - q)}$ , meaning that there is only a very small proportion of fixed points in the class equation.

We may simplify some fractions for concision:

$$\begin{aligned} N &= \frac{1+(-1)^n}{4} + \sum_{d|n} \frac{\phi(d)}{n} \left( \frac{d \wedge (q-1)}{2} \frac{q^{\frac{n}{d}} - 1}{q-1} + \frac{d \wedge (q+1)}{2} \frac{q^{\frac{n}{d}} - (-1)^{\frac{n}{d}}}{q+1} - q^{\frac{n}{d} - 1} \right) \\ &= \frac{\mathbb{1}_{2\mathbb{N}}(n)}{2} + \sum_{d|n} \frac{\phi(d)}{2^{\frac{n}{d}}} \left( \frac{q^{\frac{n}{d}} - 1}{d \vee (q-1)} - \frac{2q^{\frac{n}{d}}}{d \cdot q} + \frac{q^{\frac{n}{d}} - (-1)^{\frac{n}{d}}}{d \vee (q+1)} \right) \end{aligned}$$

(the first expression is that of Theorem 3). One easily recovers Proposition 1 by specializing to  $q = 2$  and using again the identity  $\sum_{2d|n} \phi(d) = \frac{n}{2} \mathbb{1}_{2\mathbb{N}}(n)$  encountered above.