



SOME RESULTS ON CHARACTERS OF A CLASS OF P-POLYNOMIAL TABLE ALGEBRAS

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Abstract. In this paper, we study the character values of homogeneous monotonic P-polynomial table algebras with finite dimension $d \geq 5$. To this end, we obtain a trigonometric polynomial to calculate the eigenvalues of the first intersection matrix of these table algebras using the \mathbf{z} -transform. Finally by applying some methods for tridiagonal matrices, the character values of these table algebras are given in terms of Chebyshev polynomials.

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1. INTRODUCTION

The characters of table algebras are applied to study the properties of table algebras and can be used in association schemes and finite groups (see [7] and [16]). In particular, the eigenvalues of an association scheme which determine its algebraic structure can be obtained using the characters of table algebras (see [10]). The character values of certain table algebras have also been calculated in some articles such as [19] for lower dimensions.

In our previous work [12], we have calculated the character values of two classes of perfect P-polynomial table algebras given in [17] using the eigenstructure of some special tridiagonal matrices. Here, we intend to study the character values of homogeneous monotonic P-polynomial table algebras with finite dimension $d \geq 5$ whose

exactly the same in all references. For example, table algebras are generally non-commutative in some papers (e.g., [18]). However, we follow the definitions in [4].

Let A be a finite-dimensional associative commutative algebra with a basis $\mathbf{B} = \{x_0 = 1_A, x_1, \dots, x_d\}$. Then (A, \mathbf{B}) is a *table algebra* if the following conditions are satisfied:

- (i) $x_i x_j = \sum_{m=0}^d \beta_{ijm} x_m$ with $\beta_{ijm} \in \mathbb{R}^+ \cup \{0\}$, for all i, j ;
- (ii) there is an algebra automorphism of A (denoted by $\bar{}$) such that its order divides 2 and if $x_i \in \mathbf{B}$, then $\bar{x}_i \in \mathbf{B}$ and $\bar{\bar{i}}$ is defined by $x_{\bar{\bar{i}}} = \bar{x}_i$;
- (iii) for all i, j , we have $\beta_{ij0} \neq 0$ if and only if $j = \bar{i}$, and $\beta_{\bar{i}\bar{i}0} > 0$.

In the item (i), the β_{ijm} are called the *intersection numbers* of (A, \mathbf{B}) and also, the elements of \mathbf{B} are called the *basis elements* of (A, \mathbf{B}) . (A, \mathbf{B}) is called a *real table algebra* if $i = \bar{i}$ for all $i = 0, 1, \dots, d$. Additionally, the i -th *intersection matrix* of (A, \mathbf{B}) is a matrix whose entries are the intersection numbers of (A, \mathbf{B}) in the form of:

$$B_i = \begin{pmatrix} \beta_{i00} & \beta_{i01} & \dots & \beta_{i0d} \\ \beta_{i10} & \beta_{i11} & \dots & \beta_{i1d} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \beta_{id0} & \beta_{id1} & \dots & \beta_{idd} \end{pmatrix}_{(d+1) \times (d+1)}.$$

For every table algebra (A, \mathbf{B}) , there exists a unique algebra homomorphism such as $f : A \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ with $f(x_i) = f(x_{\bar{i}}) \in \mathbb{R}^+$, $i = 0, 1, \dots, d$, (cf. [1, Lemma 2.9]). If $f(x_i) = \beta_{\bar{i}\bar{i}0}$, $i = 0, 1, \dots, d$, then (A, \mathbf{B}) is called *standard*. If $d \geq 2$ and for $i > 0$, $f(x_i)$ is constant, then (A, \mathbf{B}) is called *homogeneous*.

A *P-polynomial table algebra* (A, \mathbf{B}) is a real standard table algebra for which there exist the complex coefficient polynomials $v_i(x)$ with $v_i(x_1) = x_i$, $i = 2, \dots, d$. For every P-polynomial table algebra (A, \mathbf{B}) , there exist $b_{i-1}, a_i, c_{i+1} \in \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$x_1 x_i = b_{i-1} x_{i-1} + a_i x_i + c_{i+1} x_{i+1}, \quad (2.1)$$

with $b_i \neq 0$, ($i = 0, 1, \dots, d-1$), $c_i \neq 0$, ($i = 1, \dots, d$), and $b_{-1} = c_{d+1} = 0$. So, the first intersection matrix of a P-polynomial table algebra is a tridiagonal matrix as follows:

$$B_1 = \begin{pmatrix} a_0 & c_1 & & & \\ b_0 & a_1 & c_2 & & \\ & b_1 & a_2 & \ddots & \\ & & \ddots & \ddots & c_d \\ & & & b_{d-1} & a_d \end{pmatrix}_{(d+1) \times (d+1)}, \quad (2.2)$$

and the *valency* of the P-polynomial table algebra is $b_0 = \beta_{110}$. A *monotonic table algebra* is a P-polynomial table algebra for which $c_i \leq c_{i+1}$ ($i = 1, \dots, d$), and $b_i \geq b_{i+1}$ ($i = 0, \dots, d-2$).

Suppose that (A, \mathbf{B}) is a table algebra. It is well known that A is semisimple and the set of its primitive idempotents $\{e_0, e_1, \dots, e_d\}$ forms another basis for A (see

[2, Page 93]). Consequently, each $x_i \in \mathbf{B}$ can be written as

$$x_i = \sum_{j=0}^d p_i(j)e_j,$$

where $p_i(j) \in \mathbb{C}$. On the other hand, if we consider $\{\chi_0, \chi_1, \dots, \chi_d\}$ as the set of irreducible characters of the algebra A , we are interested in the values which each χ_i takes on the basis elements of A . These values are called the *character values* of (A, \mathbf{B}) . The $p_i(j)$ are equal to the character values of (A, \mathbf{B}) . More precisely, for each $i = 0, 1, \dots, d$

$$p_i(j) = \chi_j(x_i), \quad j = 0, 1, \dots, d,$$

see [3, Page 11] for more details.

Also, the $p_i(j)$ are equal to the eigenvalues of the i -th intersection matrix. If (A, \mathbf{B}) is a P-polynomial table algebra, then we have

$$p_i(j) = v_i(p_1(j)), \quad i = 0, 1, \dots, d, \quad (2.3)$$

where $v_i(x)$ is a complex coefficient polynomial of degree i with $v_i(x_1) = x_i$.

2.2. \mathbf{z} -transform

We now give an overview of \mathbf{z} -transform. The concept of \mathbf{z} -transform has the same role in discrete-time signals as Laplace transform does in continuous-time signals. For a discrete-time signal which is a sequence of real or complex numbers such as $x[n]$, its \mathbf{z} -transform is defined as the power series

$$X(z) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{+\infty} x[n]z^{-n}, \quad (2.4)$$

where n is an integer and z is a complex variable. The function $X(z)$ in (2.4) is called the two-sided or bilateral \mathbf{z} -transform of $x[n]$. The one-sided or unilateral \mathbf{z} -transform of $x[n]$ is defined by

$$X(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{+\infty} x[n]z^{-n} = x[0] + x[1]z^{-1} + x[2]z^{-2} + \dots.$$

We use the notation $x[n] \leftrightarrow X(z)$ to show that $X(z)$ is the \mathbf{z} -transform of $x[n]$.

The \mathbf{z} -transform is a linear operation. This means that if we have $x[n] \leftrightarrow X(z)$ and $u[n] \leftrightarrow U(z)$, then

$$ax[n] + bu[n] \leftrightarrow aX(z) + bU(z), \quad (2.5)$$

where $a, b \in \mathbb{C}$.

Let $x[n] \leftrightarrow X(z)$ and q be a positive integer. Then we have

$$x[n - q] \leftrightarrow z^{-q}X(z), \quad (2.6)$$

and

$$x[n + q] \leftrightarrow z^qX(z) - x[0]z^q - x[1]z^{q-1} - \dots - x[q-1]z. \quad (2.7)$$

and $u_1 \neq 0$. Since $Pu = \lambda u$, we have

$$\begin{cases} u[0] = 0 \\ (k+2)u[0] + (k+2)u[2] = \lambda u[1] + (2k-4)u[1] + (2-3k)u[2] \\ (k+2)u[1] + (k+2)u[3] = \lambda u[2] + (k-2)u[1] + (2-k)u[2] \\ (k+2)u[2] + (k+2)u[4] = \lambda u[3] \\ \vdots \\ (k+2)u[d-1] + (k+2)u[d+1] = \lambda u[d] \\ (k+2)u[d] + (k+2)u[d+2] = \lambda u[d+1] - (k+2)u[d+1] \\ u[d+2] = 0. \end{cases} \quad (3.2)$$

Consequently, we have the following equation:

$$(k+2)u[h+2] + (k+2)u[h] = \lambda u[h+1] + f[h+1], \quad h = 0, 1, \dots \quad (3.3)$$

where

$$f[h] = \begin{cases} (2k-4)u[1] + (2-3k)u[2] & \text{if } h = 1, \\ (k-2)u[1] + (2-k)u[2] & \text{if } h = 2, \\ -(k+2)u[d+1] & \text{if } h = d+1, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

The \mathbf{z} -transform of $f[h]$ is

$$\begin{aligned} F[z] &= \sum_{h=0}^{\infty} f[h]z^{-h} \\ &= ((2k-4)u[1] + (2-3k)u[2])z^{-1} \\ &\quad + ((k-2)u[1] + (2-k)u[2])z^{-2} - (k+2)u[d+1]z^{-(d+1)}. \end{aligned} \quad (3.4)$$

From (2.7), we calculate the \mathbf{z} -transform of (3.3) which is

$$(k+2)(z^2U(z) - u[0]z^2 - u[1]z + U(z)) = \lambda zU(z) - \lambda u[0]z + zF(z) - f[0]z$$

and since $u[0] = f[0] = 0$, we can obtain $U(z)$ as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} U(z) &= \frac{1}{(k+2)z^2 - \lambda z + k+2} (F[z] + (k+2)u[1])z \\ &= \frac{1}{(k+2)z^{-2} - \lambda z^{-1} + k+2} (F[z] + (k+2)u[1])z^{-1}. \end{aligned} \quad (3.5)$$

Note that from Remark 2.3, the eigenvalues of B_1 are real and therefore the coefficients of $(k+2)z^{-2} - \lambda z^{-1} + k+2$ are all real and two cases may arise as follows.

(i) If $(k+2)z^{-2} - \lambda z^{-1} + k+2$ has two distinct roots, then the roots are

$$\gamma_{\pm} = \frac{\lambda \pm \sqrt{\omega}}{2(k+2)},$$

where $\omega = \lambda^2 - 4(k+2)^2 \neq 0$. We can write $\gamma_{\pm} = p \pm iq$, where $p, q \in \mathbb{C}$ and $q \neq 0$. From $\gamma_+ \gamma_- = p^2 + q^2 = 1$ and $\gamma_+ + \gamma_- = 2p = \lambda/(k+2)$, it follows that

$$\gamma_{\pm} = \sqrt{p^2 + q^2} (\cos(\theta) \pm i \sin(\theta)) = e^{\pm i\theta}, \quad \cos(\theta) = \frac{\lambda}{2(k+2)}, \quad (3.6)$$

where θ is either a real or a pure imaginary number. Let

$$X(z) = \frac{1}{(k+2)z^{-2} - \lambda z^{-1} + (k+2)}.$$

From (2.6), we know that

$$z^{-q}X(z) \leftrightarrow x[j-q]H[j-q] \quad \text{where} \quad H[x] = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \geq 0, \\ 0 & \text{if } x < 0. \end{cases} \quad (3.7)$$

So that, by getting the inverse \mathbf{z} -transform from (3.5) and using (3.4), we have

$$\begin{aligned} u[j] &= (k+2)u[1]x[j-1]H[j-1] + ((2k-4)u[1] + (2-3k)u[2])x[j-2]H[j-2] \\ &\quad + ((k-2)u[1] + (2-k)u[2])x[j-3]H[j-3] \\ &\quad - (k+2)u[d+1]x[j-d-2]H[j-d-2]. \end{aligned} \quad (3.8)$$

We shall now find $x[j]$ and plug it into (3.8). By partial fractions decomposition of $X(z)$, we can write

$$X(z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\omega}} \left(\frac{1}{\gamma_- - z^{-1}} - \frac{1}{\gamma_+ - z^{-1}} \right),$$

therefore,

$$x[j] = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\omega}} \left((\gamma_-)^{-(j+1)} - (\gamma_+)^{-(j+1)} \right) = \frac{2i}{\sqrt{\omega}} \sin((j+1)\theta). \quad (3.9)$$

Note that $\{a^{-(n+1)}\}_{n=0}^{\infty} \leftrightarrow 1/(a - z^{-1})$. From (3.8) and (3.9), we have

$$\begin{aligned} u[j] &= \frac{2i}{\sqrt{\omega}} \left[(k+2)u[1] \sin(j\theta)H[j-1] \right. \\ &\quad + ((2k-4)u[1] + (2-3k)u[2]) \sin((j-1)\theta)H[j-2] \\ &\quad + ((k-2)u[1] + (2-k)u[2]) \sin((j-2)\theta)H[j-3] \\ &\quad \left. - (k+2)u[d+1] \sin((j-d-1)\theta)H[j-d-2] \right]. \end{aligned} \quad (3.10)$$

Setting $j = d+2$ in (3.10) yields

$$\begin{aligned} u[d+2] &= \frac{2i}{\sqrt{\omega}} \left[(k+2)u[1] \sin((d+2)\theta) \right. \\ &\quad + ((2k-4)u[1] + (2-3k)u[2]) \sin((d+1)\theta) \\ &\quad \left. + ((k-2)u[1] + (2-k)u[2]) \sin(d\theta) - (k+2)u[d+1] \sin(\theta) \right]. \end{aligned} \quad (3.11)$$

Similarly, when $j = d + 1$,

$$\begin{aligned} u[d+1] &= \frac{2i}{\sqrt{\omega}} \left[(k+2)u[1] \sin((d+1)\theta) \right. \\ &\quad + ((2k-4)u[1] + (2-3k)u[2]) \sin(d\theta) \\ &\quad \left. + ((k-2)u[1] + (2-k)u[2]) \sin((d-1)\theta) \right]. \end{aligned} \quad (3.12)$$

Moreover, we know that

$$\gamma_+ - \gamma_- = \frac{\sqrt{\omega}}{(k+2)} = 2i \sin(\theta). \quad (3.13)$$

From (3.11), (3.12) and (3.13), we conclude that

$$\begin{aligned} u[d+2] &= \frac{2i}{\sqrt{\omega}} \left[(k+2)u[1] \sin((d+2)\theta) + ((k-6)u[1] + (2-3k)u[2]) \sin((d+1)\theta) \right. \\ &\quad + ((2-k)u[1] + 2ku[2]) \sin(d\theta) \\ &\quad \left. + ((2-k)u[1] + (k-2)u[2]) \sin((d-1)\theta) \right]. \end{aligned}$$

From (3.2), we know that

$$u[2] = \frac{\lambda + 2k - 4}{4k} u[1], \quad (3.14)$$

and also, by (3.6), we have $\lambda = 2(k+2) \cos(\theta)$, consequently we get

$$\begin{aligned} u[d+2] &= \frac{i u[1] (k+2)}{2k\sqrt{\omega}} \left[(k+2) \sin((d+2)\theta) - 4 \sin((d+1)\theta) - 2k \sin(d\theta) \right. \\ &\quad \left. + 4 \sin((d-1)\theta) + (k-2) \sin((d-2)\theta) \right]. \end{aligned}$$

Since $u[d+2] = 0$, θ is the root of the following equation:

$$\begin{aligned} (k+2) \sin((d+2)\theta) - 4 \sin((d+1)\theta) - 2k \sin(d\theta) + 4 \sin((d-1)\theta) \\ + (k-2) \sin((d-2)\theta) = 0. \end{aligned} \quad (3.15)$$

(ii) Suppose that $(k+2)z^{-2} - \lambda z^{-1} + (k+2)$ has a repeated root. As such, $\omega = 0$ and $\lambda = \pm 2(k+2)$. Let $Y(z) = \frac{z^{-1}}{(k+2)z^{-2} - \lambda z^{-1} + (k+2)}$. From (3.4), (3.5) and (3.7), we get

$$\begin{aligned} u[j] &= (k+2)u[1]y[j] + ((2k-4)u[1] + (2-3k)u[2])y[j-1]H[j-1] \\ &\quad + ((k-2)u[1] + (2-k)u[2])y[j-2]H[j-2] \\ &\quad - (k+2)u[d+1]y[j-d-1]H[j-d-1]. \end{aligned} \quad (3.16)$$

We shall now find $y[j]$ and plug it into (3.16). We can write

$$Y(z) = \frac{z^{-1}}{(k+2)z^{-2} - \lambda z^{-1} + k+2} = \frac{z^{-1}}{(k+2)(z^{-2} - \frac{\lambda}{k+2}z^{-1} + 1)} = \frac{z^{-1}}{(k+2)(z^{-1} \pm 1)^2}.$$

That yields

$$y[j] = \frac{1}{k+2} (\pm 1)^{j+1} j. \quad (3.17)$$

Notice that the above equality is obtained due to $\{na^n\}_{n=0}^{\infty} \leftrightarrow az/(z-a)^2$ (cf. [11, Table 7.3]). From (3.16) and (3.17), we have

$$\begin{aligned} u[j] = \frac{1}{k+2} & \left[(k+2)u[1](\pm 1)^{j+1} j \right. \\ & + ((2k-4)u[1] + (2-3k)u[2]) (\pm 1)^j (j-1)H[j-1] \\ & + ((k-2)u[1] + (2-k)u[2]) (\pm 1)^{j-1} (j-2)H[j-2] \\ & \left. - (k+2)u[d+1](\pm 1)^{j-d} (j-d-1)H[j-d-1] \right]. \end{aligned} \quad (3.18)$$

If we set $j = d+2$ in (3.18), then we have

$$\begin{aligned} u[d+2] = \frac{1}{k+2} & \left[(k+2)u[1](\pm 1)^{d+3} (d+2) \right. \\ & + ((2k-4)u[1] + (2-3k)u[2]) (\pm 1)^{d+2} (d+1) \\ & \left. + ((k-2)u[1] + (2-k)u[2]) (\pm 1)^{d+1} d - (k+2)u[d+1] \right], \end{aligned}$$

and also, $u[d+1]$ is as follows

$$\begin{aligned} u[d+1] = \frac{1}{k+2} & \left[(k+2)u[1](\pm 1)^{(d+2)} (d+1) \right. \\ & + ((2k-4)u[1] + (2-3k)u[2]) (\pm 1)^{(d+1)} d \\ & \left. + ((k-2)u[1] + (2-k)u[2]) (\pm 1)^d (d-1) \right], \end{aligned}$$

so by using this and $u[d+2] = 0$, we obtain that

$$\begin{aligned} (k+2)(\pm 1)u[1](d+2) + ((k-6)u[1] + (2-3k)u[2]) (d+1) \\ + ((2-k)u[1] + 2ku[2]) (\pm 1)d - ((k-2)u[1] + (2-k)u[2]) (d-1) = 0. \end{aligned} \quad (3.19)$$

We now consider two equations (3.20) and (3.21) from (3.19) as follows. The first equation is

$$\begin{aligned} (k+2)u[1](d+2) + ((k-6)u[1] + (2-3k)u[2]) (d+1) \\ + ((2-k)u[1] + 2ku[2]) d - ((k-2)u[1] + (2-k)u[2]) (d-1) = 0. \end{aligned} \quad (3.20)$$

In this case, $\lambda = -2(k+2)$ and also from (3.14), we conclude that $u[2] = -2u[1]/k$. After some simplifications, we obtain from (3.20) that $d = -2$ which is a contradiction. The other equation is

$$\begin{aligned} - (k+2)u[1](d+2) + ((k-6)u[1] + (2-3k)u[2]) (d+1) \\ - ((2-k)u[1] + 2ku[2]) d - ((k-2)u[1] + (2-k)u[2]) (d-1) = 0. \end{aligned} \quad (3.21)$$

In this case, $\lambda = 2a$ and from (3.14), we conclude that $u[2] = u[1]$. After some simplifications, we get $d = -1$ which is a contradiction.

All in all, we conclude that the θ_i can all be obtained from (3.15) and so, from (3.6) we have $\lambda_i = 2(k+2)\cos(\theta_i)$, where the λ_i are the eigenvalues of the matrix P . Consequently, by (3.1), the eigenvalues of B_1 are

$$\eta_i = \frac{k+2}{2}\cos(\theta_i) + \frac{k-2}{2} \quad (i = 0, 1, \dots, d),$$

as expected. \square

Importantly, Theorem 1 shows that the general form of the eigenvalues of the first intersection matrix of a homogeneous monotonic P-polynomial table algebra with valency k is $\cos(\theta_i)(k+2)/2 + (k-2)/2$ which means that the eigenvalues lie in the interval

$$[-2, k],$$

and when $k > 2$, this is a better boundary than $[-k, k]$ which is given in [4, Proposition 3.1].

In the following theorem, we calculate the characters of homogeneous monotonic P-polynomial table algebras with finite dimension $d \geq 5$.

Theorem 2. *Let (A, \mathbf{B}) be a homogeneous monotonic P-polynomial table algebra with $\mathbf{B} = \{x_0 = 1_A, x_1, \dots, x_d\}$ and $d \geq 5$. Then the character values of (A, \mathbf{B}) are*

$$\begin{aligned} p_0(j) &= 1, \\ p_1(j) &= \eta_j, \\ p_i(j) &= \left(\frac{\sqrt{k+2}}{2}\right)^{i-4} \left[\left(\eta_j^2 - \frac{3k-6}{4}\eta_j - k \right) U_{i-2} \left(\frac{2\eta_j - k + 2}{2\sqrt{k+2}} \right) \right. \\ &\quad \left. - \left(\frac{\sqrt{k+2}}{2} \right)^3 \eta_j U_{i-3} \left(\frac{2\eta_j - k + 2}{2\sqrt{k+2}} \right) \right], \end{aligned}$$

where $i = 2, \dots, d$, $j = 0, 1, \dots, d$ and the η_j are the eigenvalues of B_1 which are obtained in Theorem 1.

Proof. For each i , $i = 0, 1, \dots, d$, the $p_i(j)$, $j = 0, 1, \dots, d$, are equal to the eigenvalues of the i -th intersection matrix B_i . Since $B_0 = I_{d+1}$, we have $p_0(j) = 1$ for all j . Similarly, the $p_1(j)$ are equal to the eigenvalues of B_1 which are calculated in Theorem 1. To obtain the $p_i(j)$, $i = 2, \dots, d$, we must calculate the complex coefficient polynomial $v_i(x)$, where $x_i = v_i(x_1)$. Obviously, $v_1(x) = x$, and from (1.1) and (2.1) we get

$$x_1 x_1 = k + \frac{3k-6}{4}x_1 + \frac{k+2}{4}x_2 \Rightarrow v_2(x) = \frac{4x^2 - (3k-6)x - 4k}{k+2}.$$

4. CONCLUDING REMARKS

In this paper, we use the \mathbf{z} -transform concept along with techniques from linear algebra and matrix theory to calculate the character values of homogeneous monotonic P-polynomial table algebras with finite dimension $d \geq 5$. Importantly, we calculate the eigenvalues of a special classes of tridiagonal matrices which may have applications in other fields. Next, we obtain the characters of homogeneous monotonic P-polynomial table algebras with finite dimension $d \geq 5$ in terms of Chebyshev polynomials. For $k > 2$, we plan to apply the results of Theorem 2 combined with some other techniques to find the character values in our future work.

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