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FINITE AUTOMORPHISM GROUPS OF LAMINATED NEAR-RINGS

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1. Introduction

In [3] we initiated our study of the automorphism groups of a certain class of near-rings. Specifically, let P be any complex polynomial and let $\mathcal{N}_P$ denote the near-ring of all continuous selfmaps of the complex plane where addition of functions is pointwise and the product fg of two functions f and g in $\mathcal{N}_P$ is defined by $fg = f \circ P \circ g$. The near-ring $\mathcal{N}_P$ is referred to as a laminated near-ring with laminating element P. In [3], we characterised those polynomials $P(z) = a_n z^n + a_{n-1} z^{n-1} + \dots + a_0$ for which Aut $\mathcal{N}_P$ is a finite group. We are able to show that Aut $\mathcal{N}_P$ is finite if and only if Deg $P \geqq 3$ and $a_i \neq 0$ for some $i \neq 0, n$. In addition, we were able to completely determine those infinite groups which occur as automorphism groups of the near-rings $\mathcal{N}_P$. There are exactly three of them. One is GL(2) the full linear group of all real 2×2 nonsingular matrices and the other two are subgroups of GL(2). In this paper, we begin our study of the finite automorphism groups of the near-rings $\mathcal{N}_P$. We get a result which, in contrast to the situation for the infinite automorphism groups, shows that infinitely many finite groups occur as automorphism groups of the near-rings under consideration. In addition to this and other results, we completely determine Aut $\mathcal{N}_P$ when the coefficients of P are real and Deg $P = 3$ or 4.

2. Polynomials of arbitrary degree

In this section we get some results without placing any restriction on Deg P other than it exceed two (the cases where Deg $P = 1$ and 2 were covered in [3]). We adhere to the notation of [3]. In particular, $\mathscr{C}$ denotes the complex plane regarded as a vector space over the real field and $\Pi(P) = \{P^{-1}(P(z)) : z \in \mathscr{C}\}$. As in [3], the set $P^{-1}(P(0))$ will play a special role in our considerations and will be denoted by $Z(P)$. We will not hesitate to use without mention Corollary 2.3 of [3] which implies that for any complex polynomial P, Aut $\mathcal{N}_P$ is isomorphic to $LA(P)$ the group of all linear automorphisms t of $\mathscr{C}$ with the property that $t[A] \in \Pi(P)$ for each $A \in \Pi(P)$. We begin our considerations with a sequence of lemmas.

Lemma 2.1. *Let t be a linear automorphism of $\mathscr{C}$ which has finite order and suppose $t(1) = 1$. Then either t is the identity or there exists a real number a such that*

$$t(x + yi) = x + ay - yi \quad \textit{for all} \quad x + yi. \tag{2.1.1}$$

Proof. There exist real numbers a and b such that $t(i)=a+bi$. One readily shows that for any positive integer n, we have

$$t^n(i)=a(1+b+b^2+\ldots+b^{n-1})+b^n i. \tag{2.1.2}$$

Since t has finite order, t^n is the identity for some integer n and for that integer, it follows from (2.1.2) that

$$b^n=1 \tag{2.1.3}$$

and

$$a(1+b+b^2+\ldots+b^{n-1})=0. \tag{2.1.4}$$

Since b is real, we must have $b=1$ or $b=-1$. If $b=1$, it follows from (2.1.4) that $a=0$ which implies that t is the identity. If $b=-1$, we have $t(i)=a-i$ which implies $t(x+yi)=x+ay-yi$ and the proof is complete.

Lemma 2.2. *Let t be a linear automorphism of $\mathscr{C}$ which has finite order and suppose $t(1)=-1$. Then either $t(z)=-z$ for all $z\in\mathscr{C}$ or there exists a real number a such that*

$$t(x+yi)=-x+ay+yi \quad \text{for all} \quad x+yi. \tag{2.2.1}$$

Proof. Again, we have $t(i)=a+bi$ and one verifies that

$$t^n(i)=a(1-b+b^2-b^3+\ldots+b^{n-1})+b^n i \tag{2.2.2}$$

for an odd integer n while

$$t^n(i)=a(-1+b-b^2+\ldots+b^{n-1})+b^n i \tag{2.2.3}$$

when n is even. Since t has finite order, t^n must be the identity for some positive integer n. Regardless of whether n is odd or even, it follows from (2.2.2) and (2.2.3) that $b^n=1$ and hence we must have $b=1$ or $b=-1$. If $b=1$ then $t(i)=a+i$ which implies $t(x+yi)=-x+ay+yi$. If $b=-1$, then n is even and it follows from (2.2.3) that $a=0$. In this instance $t(i)=-i$ and we have $t(z)=-z$ for all z.

The proofs of the next two lemmas are very similar to the proofs of Lemmas 2.1 and 2.2 and for that reason will be omitted.

Lemma 2.3. *Let t be a linear automorphism of $\mathscr{C}$ which has finite order and suppose $t(i)=i$. Then either t is the identity or there exists a real number a such that*

$$t(x+yi)=-x+(ax+y)i \quad \text{for all} \quad x+yi. \tag{2.3.1}$$

Lemma 2.4. *Let t be a linear automorphism of $\mathbb{C}$ which has finite order and suppose $t(i)=-i$. Then either $t(z)=-z$ for all $z\in\mathscr{C}$ or there exists a real number a such that*

$$t(x+yi)=x+(ax-y)i \quad \textit{for all} \quad x+yi. \tag{2.4.1}$$

The next corollary is an immediate consequence of the previous four.

Corollary 2.5. *Let t be a linear automorphism of $\mathscr{C}$ which has finite order and suppose that either $t(1)=1$, $t(1)=-1$, $t(i)=i$ or $t(i)=-i$. Then the order of t is either one or two.*

Definition 2.6. Let Γ denote the linear automorphism of $\mathscr{C}$ which is defined by $\Gamma(z)=\bar{z}$ for all $z\in\mathscr{C}$.

Corollary 2.7. *Let G be a finite subgroup of $GL(2)$ which contains Γ and let t be any element in G. Then all of the following statements are valid.*

If $t(1)=1$, then either t is the identity or $t=\Gamma$. (2.7.1)

If $t(1)=-1$, then either $t(z)=-z$ for all z or $t(z)=-\bar{z}$ for all z. (2.7.2)

If $t(i)=i$, then either t is the identity or $t(z)=-\bar{z}$ for all z. (2.7.3)

If $t(i)=-i$, then either $t(z)=-z$ for all z or $t=\Gamma$. (2.7.4)

Proof. We discuss only (2.7.1) as the remaining cases follow in the same manner. By Lemma 2.1, either t is the identity or $t(x+yi)=x+ay-yi$ for some real number a. Suppose $a\neq 0$. Then $\Gamma\circ t$ is an element of G which has infinite order. This, of course, is a contradiction so $a=0$ and $t=\Gamma$.

Corollary 2.8. *Let G be a finite subgroup of $GL(2)$ which contains Γ and let t be any element of G which either maps a nonzero real number to a real number or a nonzero pure imaginary number to a pure imaginary number. Then t satisfies one of the following conditions.*

$$t \textit{ is the identity.} \tag{2.8.1}$$

$$t=\Gamma. \tag{2.8.2}$$

$$t(z)=-z \quad \textit{for all} \quad z\in\mathscr{C}. \tag{2.8.3}$$

$$t(z)=-\bar{z} \quad \textit{for all} \quad z\in\mathscr{C}. \tag{2.8.4}$$

Proof. Suppose $t(a)=b$ where $a\neq 0$. Then $t(1)=b/a$ and for any positive integer n, we have $t^n(1)=(b/a)^n$. Since t has finite order, this implies $(b/a)^n=1$ for some n which, in turn, implies $b/a=1$ or $b/a=-1$. It then follows from (2.7.1) and (2.7.2) that either (2.8.1), (2.8.2), (2.8.3) or (2.8.4) holds. The case where $t(ai)=bi$ follows in a similar manner.

The next result is an immediate consequence of the previous one.

Corollary 2.9. *Let G be a finite subgroup of GL(2) which contains Γ and suppose each element of G either maps a nonzero real number to a real number or a nonzero pure imaginary number to a pure imaginary number. Then G is either isomorphic to* $\mathbb{Z}_2$, *the cyclic group of order two or to* $\mathbb{K}_4$ *the Klein four group.*

Lemma 2.10. *Suppose all the coefficients of P are real. Then* $\Gamma \in LA(P)$.

Proof. For any $z \in \mathscr{C}$, we have $P(\bar{z}) = \overline{P(z)}$ so that $P(z_1) = P(z_2)$ if and only if $P(\Gamma(z_1)) = P(\Gamma(z_2))$. Lemma 3.1 of [3] now applies.

We are now ready to state the first theorem of this section. Its proof is accomplished by simply piecing together various previous results.

Theorem 2.11. *Let* $P(z) = a_n z^n + a_{n-1} z^{n-1} + \ldots + a_0$ *be a polynomial with real coefficients such that* $n = \operatorname{Deg} P > 3$ *and* $a_i \neq 0$ *for some* $i \neq 0$ *or n. Suppose also that all the zeros of* $P(z) - a_0$ *are real. Then* $\operatorname{Aut} \mathscr{N}_P$ *is isomorphic to either* $\mathbb{Z}_2$ *or* $\mathbb{K}_4$.

Proof. By Theorem 3.6 of [3], $LA(P)$ is finite and $\Gamma \in LA(P)$ by Lemma 2.10. By hypothesis, $Z(P)$ consists of real numbers and contains at least one nonzero real number. Since each $t \in LA(P)$ must map $Z(P)$ onto $Z(P)$ it follows from Corollary 2.9 that $LA(P)$ is isomorphic to either $\mathbb{Z}_2$ or $\mathbb{K}_4$.

We will later see that both situations occur. That is, there are polynomials P for which $\operatorname{Aut} \mathscr{N}_P$ is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}_2$ and others for which $\operatorname{Aut} \mathscr{N}_P$ is isomorphic to $\mathbb{K}_4$.

Lemma 2.12. *Let* $P(z) = a_n z^n + a_{n-1} z^{n-1} + \ldots + a_0$ $(a_n \neq 0)$ *and suppose* $P^{-1}(P(z_1)) = \{z_1, z_2, \ldots, z_n\}$ *where the* z_i *are all distinct. Then* $z_1 + z_2 + \ldots + z_n = -(a_{n-1}/a_n)$.

Proof. $\{z_1, z_2, \ldots, z_n\}$ is the collection of zeros of the polynomial

$$P(z) - P(z_1) = a_n z^n + a_{n-1} z^{n-1} + \ldots + a_1 z + (a_0 - P(z_1))$$

and it is well known that the sum of the zeros is $-(a_{n-1}/a_n)$.

Theorem 2.13. *Let* $P(z) = a_n z^n + a_{n-1} z^{n-1} + \ldots + a_0$ *where* $n = \operatorname{Deg} P \geqq 3$, *all* a_i *are real and* $a_{n-1} \neq 0$. *Then* $\operatorname{Aut} \mathscr{N}_P$ *is isomorphic to* $\mathbb{Z}_2$.

Proof. $LA(P)$ contains both the identity map and Γ because of Lemma 2.10. We need only show that there are no other elements in $LA(P)$. With this in mind, suppose $t \in LA(P)$ and choose z_1 such that

$$P^{-1}(P(z_1)) = \{z_1, z_2, \ldots, z_n\}$$

consists of n distinct elements. Then $t[P^{-1}(P(z_1))] = P^{-1}(P(w))$ for some w and we have

$$P^{-1}(P(w)) = \{t(z_1), t(z_2), \ldots, t(z_n)\}.$$

From Lemma 2.12 we get

$$t(a_{n-1}/a_n)=t(-(z_1+z_2+\ldots+z_n))=-(t(z_1)+t(z_2)+\ldots+t(z_n))=a_{n-1}/a_n$$

which readily implies that $t(1)=1$. Now $LA(P)$ is finite by Theorem 3.6 of [3] so Corollary 2.7 now applies and we conclude that either t is the identity or $t=\Gamma$.

In order to state our next theorem, we need to introduce a class of finite groups. Specifically, for each positive integer n, we denote by GR_n the group of all 2×2 real matrices of the form

$$\begin{bmatrix} a, & -b \\ b, & a \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } \begin{bmatrix} a, & b \\ b, & -a \end{bmatrix}$$

where $a=\cos(2k\pi/n)$ and $b=\sin(2k\pi/n)$ $k=1,2,3,\ldots,n$. These are precisely the matrices which represent the linear automorphisms t and $\bar{t}$ defined by $t(z)=\omega z$ and $\bar{t}(z)=\omega\bar{z}$ where ω is an n^{th} root of unity. We will not hesitate to identify GR_n with its corresponding group of linear automorphisms when it is convenient to do so. It is easy to see that GR_n is a group of order $2n$. It is commutative only when $n=1$ or 2 and in these cases it is isomorphic respectively to $\mathbb{Z}_2$ and $\mathbb{K}_4$. Since GR_3 contains six elements and is not commutative, it must necessarily be isomorphic to S_3 the symmetric group on three elements. And now we are in a position to state and prove

Theorem 2.14. *Let $P(z)=az^n+bz^m+c$ where $n\geqq 3$, $n>m>1$ and a, b and c are all real numbers with $a\neq 0\neq b$. Then* Aut $\mathcal{N}_P$ *is isomorphic to GR_{n-m}.*

Proof. According to Lemma 3.2 of [3] it is sufficient to show that Aut $\mathcal{N}_P$ is isomorphic to GR_{n-m} where $Q(z)=z^n+dz^m$ and d is a nonzero real number. Let $n-m=k$ and we have

$$Q(z)=z^m(z^k+d). \tag{2.14.1}$$

Lemma 2.10 tells us that $\Gamma\in LA(Q)$. This fact will be used at various times throughout the remainder of the proof without explicit mention. In the first case we consider, Γ turns out to be the only element in $LA(Q)$ other than the identity.

Case 1: $k=1$. Then $Q(z)=z^n+dz^{n-1}$ and it follows immediately from Theorem 2.13 that Aut $\mathcal{N}_Q$ is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}_2=GR_1$.

Case 2: $k=2$. Here, we have $Z(Q)=\{0,(-d)^{\frac{1}{2}},-(-d)^{\frac{1}{2}}\}$ where $(-d)^{\frac{1}{2}}$ and $-(-d)^{\frac{1}{2}}$ are either both real numbers or both pure imaginary numbers depending upon whether or not d is negative or positive. Thus, any element $t\in LA(Q)$ must either carry a nonzero real number to a nonzero real number or a pure imaginary number to a pure imaginary number. It follows from Corollary 2.9 that $LA(Q)$ is isomorphic to either $\mathbb{Z}_2$ or $\mathbb{K}_4$. The latter is, in fact, the case and to see that, all we need to do is exhibit a $t\in LA(Q)$ which is distinct from the identity and from Γ. Consider $t(z)=-z$. Then $Q(t(z))$ is either $Q(z)$

or $-Q(z)$ depending upon whether m is even or odd. In either event we have $Q(z_1) = Q(z_2)$ if and only if $Q(t(z_1)) = Q(t(z_2))$ and it follows from Lemma 3.1 of [3] that $t \in LA(Q)$. Thus $LA(Q)$ is isomorphic to $\mathbb{K}_4 = GR_2$.

Case 3: $k \geqq 3$ and $k \neq 4$. Let $\{\omega_1, \omega_2, \ldots, \omega_k\}$ be the k^{th} roots of unity and for each $i = 1, 2, 3, \ldots, k$ define

$$t_i(z) = \omega_i z \quad \text{for all} \quad z \in \mathscr{C} \tag{2.14.2}$$

and

$$\bar{t}_i(z) = \omega_i \bar{z} \quad \text{for all} \quad z \in \mathscr{C}. \tag{2.14.3}$$

Then we have

$$GR_k = \{t_i\}_{i=1}^k \cup \{\bar{t}_i\}_{i=1}^k. \tag{2.14.4}$$

One readily shows that

$$Q(t_i(z)) = \omega_i^m Q(z) \tag{2.14.5}$$

and

$$Q(\bar{t}_i(z)) = \omega_i^m \overline{P(z)} \tag{2.14.6}$$

from whence it readily follows that $Q(z_1) = Q(z_2)$ if and only if $Q(t_i(z_1)) = Q(t_i(z_2))$ if and only if $Q(\bar{t}_i(z_1)) = Q(\bar{t}_i(z_2))$. Thus

$$GR_k \subset LA(Q) \tag{2.14.7}$$

by Lemma 3.1 of [3]. We will show, in fact, that $GR_k = LA(Q)$. Let $r = |d|^{1/k}$ and let $\{\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \ldots, \alpha_k\}$ denote the k^{th} roots of -1 if $d > 0$ and the k^{th} roots of 1 if $d < 0$. Then

$$Z(Q) = \{0, r\alpha_1, r\alpha_2, \ldots, r\alpha_k\}. \tag{2.14.8}$$

Now we take any element $t \in LA(Q)$ and since t maps $Z(Q)$ bijectively onto $Z(Q)$ the hypothesis of Lemma 4.1 of [3] is satisfied (note: it is not satisfied when $k = 4$). It follows that either $t(z) = wz$ or $t(z) = w\bar{z}$ for an appropriate complex number $w \neq 0$. Suppose the former holds. Then $w\alpha_1 = t(\alpha_1) = \alpha_i$ for some i which implies $w = \alpha_i/\alpha_1$. It follows that w is a k^{th} root of unity regardless of whether the α_j are k^{th} roots of -1 or k^{th} roots of 1. Thus, $t = t_j$ for some j which means $t \in GR_k$. Similarly, one shows that if $t(z) = w\bar{z}$, then $t = \bar{t}_j$ for some j and hence, in this case also, $t \in GR_k$. Consequently, $GR_k = LA(Q)$ and we conclude that $\operatorname{Aut} \mathscr{N}_Q$ is isomorphic to GR_k when $k \geqq 3$ and $k \neq 4$. It remains for us to treat

Case 4: $k = 4$. With one exception, this case is identical to the preceding case even up to the point where we have $GR_4 \subset LA(Q)$. The exception occurs because we cannot use Lemma 4.1 of [3] to show $LA(Q) \subset GR_4$. Instead, we have to do this directly. We will discuss the details only in the case $d>0$ which means that $\{\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3, \alpha_4\}$ represent the 4th roots of -1. Let $q=(r\sqrt{2}/2)$, $v=1+i$ and $w=-i+1$ and we have

$$Z(Q)=\{0, qv, -qv, qw, -qw\}. \tag{2.14.9}$$

Since any $t \in LA(Q)$ must map $Z(Q)$ bijectively onto itself, $t(v)$ can be any one of the vectors v, $-v$, w, $-w$ and $t(w)$ can be any one of the remaining two vectors which are each linearly independent from $t(v)$. With some calculation one shows that t must be given by one of the following equations:

$$t(z)=z, \quad t(z)=-z, \quad t(z)=iz, \quad t(z)=-iz$$

$$t(z)=\bar{z}, \quad t(z)=-\bar{z}, \quad t(z)=i\bar{z}, \quad t(z)=-i\bar{z}.$$

In other words, $t \in GR_4$. We have thus shown that $GR_4 = LA(Q)$ and the proof is now complete.

3. Third and fourth degree polynomials

Theorem 4.3 of [3] tells us that if $\operatorname{Deg} P=1$ or $\operatorname{Deg} P=2$ and the coefficient of z is zero then $\operatorname{Aut}\mathcal{N}_p$ is isomorphic to $GL(2)$. It further tells us that if $\operatorname{Deg} P=2$ and the coefficient of z is not zero then $\operatorname{Aut}\mathcal{N}_p$ is isomorphic to G_1, the group of all real 2×2 matrices of the form

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1, & a \\ 0, & b \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{where} \quad b \neq 0.$$

We have therefore completely determined $\operatorname{Aut}\mathcal{N}_p$ when $\operatorname{Deg} P$ is either one or two. In this section we supplement this information by determining $\operatorname{Aut}\mathcal{N}_p$ when P has real coefficients and $\operatorname{Deg} P=3$ or 4. The result for $\operatorname{Deg} P=3$ is an immediate consequence of several of our preceeding results.

Theorem 3.1. *Let $P(z)=az^3+bz^2+cz+d$ be a cubic polynomial with real coefficients. Then*

$$\operatorname{Aut}\mathcal{N}_P \text{ is isomorphic to } \mathbb{Z}_2 \text{ if } b \neq 0, \tag{3.1.1}$$

$$\operatorname{Aut}\mathcal{N}_P \text{ is isomorphic to } \mathbb{K}_4 \text{ if } b=0 \text{ and } c \neq 0, \tag{3.1.2}$$

$$\operatorname{Aut}\mathcal{N}_P \text{ is isomorphic to } G_c \text{ if } b=0=c. \tag{3.1.3}$$

Proof. (3.1.1) follows from Theorem 2.13, (3.1.2) follows from Theorem 2.14 and (3.1.3) follows from Theorem 4.4 of [3].

Theorem 3.2. *Let $P(z)=a_4z^4+a_3z^3+a_2z^2+a_1z+a_0$ be a fourth degree polynomial with real coefficients. Then we have the following:*

$$\operatorname{Aut}\mathcal{N}_P \text{ is isomorphic to } \mathbb{Z}_2 \text{ if } a_3\neq 0. \tag{3.2.1}$$

$$\operatorname{Aut}\mathcal{N}_P \text{ is isomorphic to } \mathbb{Z}_2 \text{ if } a_3=0,\ a_2\neq 0 \text{ and } a_1\neq 0. \tag{3.2.2}$$

$$\operatorname{Aut}\mathcal{N}_P \text{ is isomorphic to } \mathbb{K}_4 \text{ if } a_3=0,\ a_2\neq 0 \text{ and } a_1=0. \tag{3.2.3}$$

$$\operatorname{Aut}\mathcal{N}_P \text{ is isomorphic to } S_3 \text{ if } a_3=0,\ a_2=0 \text{ and } a_1\neq 0. \tag{3.2.4}$$

$$\operatorname{Aut}\mathcal{N}_P \text{ is isomorphic to } G_c \text{ if } a_3=0,\ a_2=0 \text{ and } a_1=0. \tag{3.2.5}$$

Proof. (3.2.1) follows from Theorem 2.13, both (3.2.3) and (3.2.4) follow from Theorem 2.14 and (3.2.5) follows from Theorem 4.3 of [3]. It remains for us to verify (3.2.2). We need only show that $LA(Q)$ is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}_2$ where $Q(z)=z^4+az^2+bz$ and $a\neq 0\neq b$.

Case 1: $Z(Q)$ consists entirely of real numbers.

Then $Z(Q)$ is either $\{0,r\}$, $\{0,r_1,r_2\}$ or $\{0,r_1,r_2,r_3\}$. Let $t\in LA(Q)$. Then $t(1)=d$ and d must be real since otherwise t would not map $Z(Q)$ into $Z(Q)$. Since t has finite order n, we have $1=t^n(1)=d^n$ which implies $t(1)=1$ or $t(1)=-1$. It follows that either t is the identity on real numbers or t takes every real number to its negative. If $Z(Q)$ is either $\{0,r\}$ or $\{0,r_1,r_2,r_3\}$ it evidently contains some real number and not its negative so that in these instances we must have $t(1)=1$. If $Z(Q)=\{0,r_1,r_2\}$, we may assume $Q(z)=z(z-r_1)^2(z-r_2)$ which implies $r_2=-2r_1$ (since the coefficient of z^3 is zero). Since $r_2\neq -r_1$ we must again have $t(1)=1$. It now follows from Corollary 2.7 that t must be either the identity or Γ.

Case 2: $Z(Q)$ contains nonreal numbers.

Since $0\in Z(Q)$ and complex roots occur in conjugate pairs, $Z(Q)$ must contain exactly two complex numbers. Moreover, $Z(Q)$ must contain a nonzero real number since the coefficient of z is not 0 while the constant term is. Thus, we have

$$Z(Q)=\{0,r,v,\bar{v}\} \tag{3.2.6}$$

where $r\neq 0$ is real and v is not. This means that we have

$$Q(z)=z(z-r)(z-v)(z-\bar{v}). \tag{3.2.7}$$

Now let $t\in LA(Q)$. We want to show that $t(r)=r$. Suppose, to the contrary, that $t(r)\neq r$. There is no loss in generality if we assume that $t(r)=v$. Let $v=c+di$. Since the coefficient of z^3 is zero, we have $r+v+\bar{v}=0$ which implies $c=-r/2$. Let $k=-2d/r$ and we have

$$v=-\frac{r}{2}(1+ki),\quad \bar{v}=-\frac{r}{2}(1-ki). \tag{3.2.8}$$

Now $t(r)=v$ implies $t(1)=v/r$ and from (5.16.8) we get

$$t(1)=-\tfrac{1}{2}(1+ki). \qquad (3.2.9)$$

Next choose a real number r_1 between 0 and r such that $P^{-1}(P(r_1))$ contains another real number r_2 distinct from r_1 which also lies between 0 and r. Since $t\in LA(Q)$, we have $Q(t(r_1))=Q(t(r_2))$. From (3.2.9) we see that

$$t(r_j)=-\frac{r_j}{2}(1+ki) \qquad j=1,2. \qquad (3.2.10)$$

Next, use (3.2.7), (3.2.8) and (3.2.9) to compute each $Q(t(r_j))$. Setting $Q(t(r_1))=Q(t(r_2))$ and equating imaginary parts we obtain

$$(1+k^2)/4=[r^2(r_1^2-r_2^2)-(r_1^4-r_2^4)]/[r^2(r_1^2-r_2^2)-2(r_1^4-r_2^4)+r^3(r_1-r_2)]. \qquad (3.2.11)$$

By setting $Q(r_1)=Q(r_2)$ we obtain

$$(1+k^2)/4=[r^2(r_1^2-r_2^2)-(r_1^4-r_2^4)]/[r^2(r_1^2-r_2^2)-r^3(r_1-r_2)]. \qquad (3.2.12)$$

From (3.2.11) and (3.2.12) we obtain $r_1^4-r_2^4=r^3(r_1-r_2)$ and by replacing $r_1^4-r_2^4$ by $r^3(r_1-r_2)$ in either (3.2.11) or (3.2.12) we get $(1+k^2)/4=1$ or, equivalently,

$$k^2=3. \qquad (3.2.13)$$

From (3.2.7) and (3.2.8), one shows that the coefficient of z^2 is $|v|^2-r^2$. But (3.2.13) and (3.2.8) together imply $|v|^2-r^2=0$. This is the contradiction we seek for we are considering the case $Q(z)=z^4+az^2+bz$ where neither a nor b are zero. Therefore we must indeed have $t(r)=r$ and it follows from Corollary 3.7 that either t is the identity or $t=\Gamma$. Thus, $LA(Q)$ is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}_2$ and the proof is complete.

Some concluding remarks are in order. It is evident that much remains to be done in order to completely determine $\operatorname{Aut}\mathcal{N}_p$ for an arbitrary complex polynomial P. The next step is probably to determine $\operatorname{Aut}\mathcal{N}_p$ when $\operatorname{Deg}P=5$ and P has real coefficients. Although many of the special cases follow from previous results and techniques used in this paper and in [3], we are still unable to completely solve the problem for 5$^{\text{th}}$ degree polynomials. In particular, we are unable to determine $LA(P)$ whenever

$$Z(P)=\{0, v, \bar{v}, -v, -\bar{v}\}.$$

Once $\operatorname{Aut}\mathcal{N}_p$ is known for $\operatorname{Deg}P=5$, we might have enough information to make some educated guesses at what the general results (if such exist) might be.

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