The (inescapable) p-adics

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Linear recurrence sequences

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Example (Fibonacci)

$a_0 = 0, a_1 = 1$ and $a_n = a_{n-1} + a_{n-2}$ for $n \geq k = 2$:

$0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, 55, 89, 144, 233, 377, 610, 987, 1597, 2584, 4181,$

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a_n grows exponentially.

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a_n is periodic now.

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Example (Natural numbers interlaced with zeroes)

$a_0 = 1, a_1 = 0, a_2 = 2, a_3 = 0$ with $a_n = 2a_{n-2} - a_{n-4}$

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not periodic but the zeroes *do* have a regular repeating pattern.

The ultimate question

Question

What possible patterns are there for the zeroes of a linear recurrence sequence?

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Observation

A linear recurrence sequence is the Taylor expansion around 0 of a rational function

$$\frac{a_1 + a_2 x + \cdots + a_\ell x^\ell}{b_1 + b_2 x \cdots + b_k x^k}$$

with $b_1 \neq 0$ (so that the expansion makes sense).

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$$\frac{(1+x)^3-x^3}{(1+x)^5-x^5} \leftrightarrow 1,-2,3,-5,10,-20,35,-50,50,0,-175,625,$$

$$-1625,3625,-7250,13125,-21250,29375,-29375,$$

$$0,106250,-384375,1006250,-2250000,4500000,$$

$$-8140625,13171875,-18203125,18203125,0,-65859$$

Consequences

Observation

The set of all linear recurrence sequences is a vector space! Hard to tell how the rule changes.

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We can always mess up a finite amount of behaviour. So assume a_n has infinitely many zeroes, what is the structure of the zero set?

Example

$$\frac{1}{(1-x^2)^2}-(1-x+2x^2+3x^4+4x^6) \leftrightarrow 0,1,0,0,0,0,0,0,5,0,6,0,7,0,8,0,$$

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Still has periodic zero set, all n congruent to $2, 3$ modulo 4.

Approach

Expand into partial fractions

$$\frac{p(x)}{q(x)} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n_j} \frac{r_{ij}}{(1 - \alpha_i x)^j}$$

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Upshot: there are polynomials $A_i(n)$ such that

$$a_n = \sum_{i=1}^{m} A_i(n) \alpha_i^n.$$

Like that formula for Fibonacci with the golden ratio in.

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Ridiculous suggestion

What if the integers were bounded? In that case infinitely many zeroes $\implies$ the function is zero!

Theorem (Ostrowski)

The only absolute values on $\mathbf{Q}$ *are*

$$\textit{the usual one } \& \ |\cdot|_p$$

defined by $|p|_p = \frac{1}{p}$ *and* $|q|_p = 1$ *for all other primes* $q \neq p$.

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The fix

Choose p so that $|\alpha_i|_p = 1$ for all i, then $\alpha_i^{p-1} = 1 + \lambda_i$ with $|\lambda_i|_p \leq \frac{1}{p}$. Now $(\alpha_i^{p-1})^n$ is analytic!

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for each fixed r this function of n' is analytic. Infinitely many zeroes for integer n means $\exists r$ with infinitely many zeroes of the form $r+(p-1)n'$. So the function

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} A_i(r+(p-1)n')\alpha_i^r(\alpha_i^{(p-1)})^{n'}$$

is identically zero, and all these $a_n = 0$ when $n \equiv r \pmod{p-1}$.

Finale

Theorem (Skolem $\rightsquigarrow$ Mahler $\rightsquigarrow$ Lech)

All except finitely many indicies of the zeroes of a linear recurrence lie in a finite union of arithmetic progressions, i.e. they are all of the form $nM + b$ for some $b \in B \subset \{0, \ldots, M-1\}$, $n \in \mathbf{N}$.

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