Congruences for some sequences arising in combinatorics

Eric Rowland

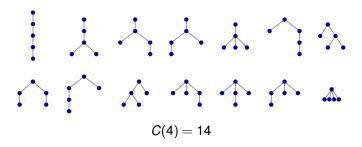
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Joint work with Reem Yassawi

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What do combinatorial sequences look like modulo *m*?

How many plane trees have *n* edges?



Catalan numbers:

$$C(n)_{n\geq 0}=1,1,2,5,14,42,132,429,\ldots$$

Modulo 2: 1, 1, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, . . .

Theorem (follows from Kummer 1852)

C(n) is odd if and only if n + 1 is a power of 2.

Catalan numbers modulo 4: 1, 1, 2, 1, 2, 2, 0, 1, 2, 2, 0, 2, 0, 0, 0, 1, . . .

Theorem (Eu-Liu-Yeh 2008)

For all $n \ge 0$,

$$C(n) \bmod 4 = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n+1=2^a \text{ for some } a \geq 0 \\ 2 & \text{if } n+1=2^b+2^a \text{ for some } b > a \geq 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

In particular, $C(n) \not\equiv 3 \mod 4$.

Catalan numbers modulo 8: 1, 1, 2, 5, 6, 2, 4, 5, 6, 6, 4, 2, 4, 4, 0, 5, ...

Theorem 4.2. Let C_n be the nth Catalan number. First of all, $C_n \not\equiv_8 3$ and $C_n \not\equiv_8 7$ for any n. As for other congruences, we have

$$C_n \equiv_8 \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n = 0 \text{ or } 1; \\ 2 & \text{if } n = 2^a + 2^{a+1} - 1 \text{ for some } a \ge 0; \\ 4 & \text{if } n = 2^a + 2^b + 2^c - 1 \text{ for some } c > b > a \ge 0; \\ 5 & \text{if } n = 2^a - 1 \text{ for some } a \ge 2; \\ 6 & \text{if } n = 2^a + 2^b - 1 \text{ for some } b - 2 \ge a \ge 0; \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Liu and Yeh (2010) determined C(n) mod 16:

Theorem 5.5. Let c_n be the n-th Catalan number. First of all, $c_n \not\equiv_{16} 3, 7, 9, 11, 15$ for any n. As for the other congruences, we have

$$c_{n} \equiv_{16} \left\{ \begin{array}{c} 1 \\ 5 \\ 13 \\ \end{array} \right\} \quad if \quad d(\alpha) = 0 \ and \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \beta \leq 1, \\ \beta = 2, \\ \beta \geq 3, \end{array} \right.$$

$$c_{n} \equiv_{16} \left\{ \begin{array}{c} 1 \\ 13 \\ \end{array} \right\} \quad if \quad d(\alpha) = 1, \ \alpha = 1 \ and \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \beta = 0 \ or \ \beta \geq 2, \\ \beta = 1, \end{array} \right.$$

$$if \quad d(\alpha) = 1, \ \alpha \geq 2 \ and \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{c} (\alpha = 2, \beta \geq 2) \ or \ (\alpha \geq 3, \beta \leq 1), \\ (\alpha = 2, \beta \leq 1) \ or \ (\alpha \geq 3, \beta \leq 2), \end{array} \right.$$

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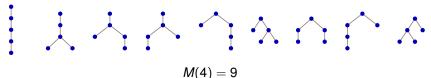
$$\left\{ \begin{array}{c} 1 \\ \beta = 1, \end{array} \right.$$

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They also determined C(n) mod 64.

Can we obtain and prove such results automatically? What is the right framework?

How many plane trees with *n* edges have the property that each vertex has at most 2 children?



Excluded:



Motzkin numbers:

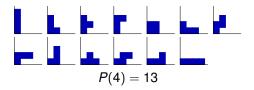
$$M(n)_{n\geq 0}=1,1,2,4,9,21,51,127,\ldots$$

Modulo 8: 1, 1, 2, 4, 1, 5, 3, 7, 3, 3, 4, 6, 7, 3, 2, 4, . . .

Theorem (Eu-Liu-Yeh; conj. by Deutsch-Sagan-Amdeberhan)

 $M(n) \not\equiv 0 \mod 8$ for all n > 0.

Number of directed animals: $P(n)_{n>0} = 1, 1, 2, 5, 13, 35, 96, 267, ...$



Number of restricted hexagonal polyominoes:

$$H(n)_{n\geq 0}=1,1,3,10,36,137,543,2219,\ldots$$

Riordan numbers: $R(n)_{n\geq 0} = 1, 0, 1, 1, 3, 6, 15, 36, \dots$

Theorem (Deutsch-Sagan 2006)

There exists a set $C = \{1, 3, 4, 5, 7, \dots\}$ with the property that

- P(n) is even if and only if $n \in 2C$,
- H(n) is even if and only if $n \in 4C 1$ or $n \in 4C$, and
- R(n) is even if and only if $n \in 2C 1$.

Algebraic sequences

 $s(n)_{n\geq 0}$ is algebraic if there is a nonzero polynomial P(x,y) such that

$$P\left(x,\sum_{n\geq 0}s(n)x^n\right)=0.$$

Example

For the Catalan numbers...

$$y = \sum_{n \ge 0} C(n)x^n$$
 satisfies $xy^2 - y + 1 = 0$ over \mathbb{Q} .

$$y = \sum_{n>0} (C(n) \mod 3) x^n$$
 satisfies $xy^2 + 2y + 1 = 0$ over \mathbb{F}_3 .

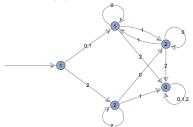
 \mathbb{F}_q denotes the finite field with q elements.

Automatic sequences

 $s(n)_{n\geq 0}$ is q-automatic if there is an automaton that outputs s(n) when fed the base-q digits of n.

Convention in this talk: start with the least significant digit.

This automaton computes C(n) mod 3:



$$C(9) \equiv ? \mod 3$$
. Since $9 = 100_3$, $C(9) \equiv \boxed{2} \mod 3$.

 $(C(n) \mod 3)_{n>0} = 1, 1, 2, 2, 2, 0, 0, 0, 2, 2, \dots$ is 3-automatic.

Theorem (Christol 1979/1980)

A sequence $s(n)_{n\geq 0}$ of elements in \mathbb{F}_q is algebraic if and only if it is q-automatic.

Two ways to represent such sequences: polynomials and automata.

$$xy^2 + 2y + 1 = 0$$

How do we convert between them in a space-efficient way?

How to construct an automaton?

Let $r \in \{0, 1, \dots, q-1\}$.

The Cartier operator Λ_r picks out every qth term, starting with s(r):

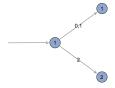
$$\Lambda_r(s(n)_{n\geq 0}):=s(qn+r)_{n\geq 0}$$

Iteratively apply $\Lambda_0, \Lambda_1, \dots, \Lambda_{q-1}$ to $s(n)_{n \geq 0}$.

Create one state in the automaton for each distinct sequence.

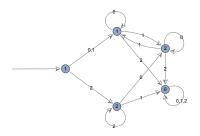
Let
$$s(n) = (C(n) \mod 3)$$
. $s(n)_{n>0} = 1, 1, 2, 2, 2, 0, 0, 0, 2, ...$

$$\begin{array}{ll} \Lambda_0(s(n)_{n\geq 0}) = s(3n+0)_{n\geq 0} = 1,2,0,2,1,0,0,0,0,\dots & \text{new!} \\ \Lambda_1(s(n)_{n\geq 0}) = s(3n+1)_{n\geq 0} = 1,2,0,2,1,0,0,0,0,\dots & = \Lambda_0(s(n)_{n\geq 0}) \\ \Lambda_2(s(n)_{n>0}) = s(3n+2)_{n>0} = 2,0,2,1,0,0,0,0,2,\dots & \text{new!} \end{array}$$



Label each state with the initial term of the corresponding sequence.

$$\begin{array}{ll} \Lambda_0(\Lambda_0(s(n)_{n\geq 0})) = 1,2,0,2,1,0,0,0,0,2,\ldots = \Lambda_0(s(n)_{n\geq 0}) \\ \Lambda_1(\Lambda_0(s(n)_{n\geq 0})) = 2,1,0,1,2,0,0,0,0,1,\ldots & \text{new!} \\ \Lambda_2(\Lambda_0(s(n)_{n\geq 0})) = 0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,\ldots & \text{new!} \\ \Lambda_r(\Lambda_2(s(n)_{n\geq 0})) & \ldots \end{array}$$



A sequence is *q*-automatic if and only if this process terminates.

But we can't tell if sequences are equal from finitely many terms. Use a different representation: diagonals of rational functions. $\sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} (C(n) \bmod 3) x^n \text{ is the } \frac{\text{diagonal of}}{n}$

$$\begin{split} \frac{y \frac{\partial P}{\partial y}(xy,y)}{P(xy,y)/y} &= \frac{y(2xy^2 + (2xy + 2))}{xy^2 + (2xy + 2) + x} = & \quad 0x^0y^0 + 1x^0y^1 + 0x^0y^2 + 0x^0y^3 + 0x^0y^4 + 0x^0y^5 + \cdots \\ & \quad + 0x^1y^0 + 1x^1y^1 + 0x^1y^2 + 2x^1y^3 + 0x^1y^4 + 0x^1y^5 + \cdots \\ & \quad + 0x^2y^0 + 1x^2y^1 + 2x^2y^2 + 0x^2y^3 + 1x^2y^4 + 2x^2y^5 + \cdots \\ & \quad + 0x^3y^0 + 1x^3y^1 + 1x^3y^2 + 2x^3y^3 + 0x^3y^4 + 1x^3y^5 + \cdots \\ & \quad + 0x^4y^0 + 1x^4y^1 + 0x^4y^2 + 2x^4y^3 + 2x^4y^4 + 0x^4y^5 + \cdots \\ & \quad + 0x^5y^0 + 1x^5y^1 + 2x^5y^2 + 0x^5y^3 + 0x^5y^4 + 0x^5y^5 + \cdots \\ & \quad + \cdots \end{split}$$

Theorem (Furstenberg 1967)

Let K be a field, and let $P(x,y) \in K[x,y]$ such that $\frac{\partial P}{\partial y}(0,0) \neq 0$. If $F(x) \in K[x]$ satisfies F(0) = 0 and P(x,F(x)) = 0, then

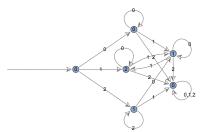
$$F(x) = \operatorname{diag}\left(rac{yrac{\partial P}{\partial y}(xy,y)}{P(xy,y)/y}
ight).$$

We have embedded $s(n)_{n\geq 1}$ into a series $\frac{S_0}{Q}:=\frac{y(2xy^2+(2xy+2))}{xy^2+(2xy+2)+x}$. Construct an automaton by iterating $\lambda_{r,r}(S):=\Lambda_{r,r}(S\cdot Q^{q-1})$.

$$\lambda_{0,0}(S_0) = xy^2 + xy$$
 new!
 $\lambda_{1,1}(S_0) = 2$ new!
 $\lambda_{2,2}(S_0) = y + 1$ new!

$$\lambda_{0,0}(xy^2 + xy) = xy^2 + xy = \lambda_{0,0}(S_0)$$
 ...

If two numerators are equal, the corresponding diagonals are equal.



The automaton may not be minimal.

Prime power moduli

This algorithm can be adapted to work modulo p^{α} .

Theorem (Denef–Lipshitz 1987)

Let $\alpha \geq 1$. Let $R(\mathbf{x}), Q(\mathbf{x}) \in \mathbb{Z}_p[\mathbf{x}]$ such that $Q(0, \dots, 0) \not\equiv 0 \mod p$. Then the coefficient sequence of $\left(\operatorname{diag} \frac{R(\mathbf{x})}{Q(\mathbf{x})}\right) \mod p^{\alpha}$ is p-automatic.

 \mathbb{Z}_p denotes the set of *p*-adic integers.

By computing an automaton for a sequence $\operatorname{mod} p^{\alpha}$, we can answer. . .

- Are there forbidden residues?
- What is the limiting distribution of residues (if it exists)?
- Is the sequence eventually periodic?
- Many other questions known to be decidable.

Catalan numbers modulo 8 and modulo 16:



Theorem (Liu-Yeh)

 $C(n) \not\equiv 9 \mod 16$ for all $n \ge 0$.

Catalan numbers modulo 2^{α} :

Theorem (Rowland-Yassawi 2015)

For all $n \geq 0$,

- $C(n) \not\equiv 17, 21, 26 \mod 32$,
- $C(n) \not\equiv 10, 13, 33, 37 \mod 64$,
- $C(n) \not\equiv 18,54,61,65,66,69,98,106,109 \mod 128$.

Only $\approx 35\%$ of the residues modulo 512 are attained by some C(n).

Open question

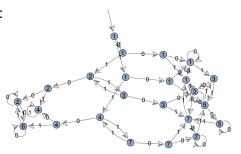
Does the density of residues modulo 2^{α} that are attained by some Catalan number tend to 0 as α gets large?

For the Motzkin numbers...

Theorem (Eu–Liu–Yeh; conj. by Deutsch–Sagan–Amdeberhan)

 $M(n) \not\equiv 0 \mod 8$ for all $n \ge 0$.

Automated proof:



Theorem (Rowland-Yassawi)

 $M(n) \not\equiv 0 \mod 5^2$ and $M(n) \not\equiv 0 \mod 13^2$ for all $n \ge 0$.

Apéry numbers

$$A(n) := \sum_{k=0}^{n} {n \choose k}^2 {n+k \choose k}^2$$
 arose in Apéry's proof that $\zeta(3)$ is irrational.

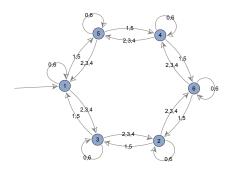
$$A(n)_{n\geq 0} = 1, 5, 73, 1445, 33001, 819005, 21460825, \dots$$

Straub 2014: $\sum_{n\geq 0} A(n)x^n$ is the diagonal of

$$\frac{1}{(1-w-x)(1-y-z)-wxyz}.$$

Therefore $(A(n) \mod p^{\alpha})_{n \geq 0}$ is *p*-automatic.

A(n) modulo 7:



Theorem (Gessel 1982)

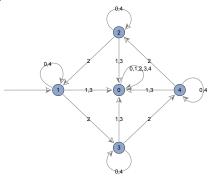
Let p be a prime. The Apéry numbers satisfy the Lucas congruence

$$A(pn+d) \equiv A(n)A(d) \mod p$$

for all $n \ge 0$ and all $d \in \{0, 1, ..., p-1\}$.

$$A(2039) = A(56427) \equiv A(5)A(6)A(4)A(2) \equiv 5 \cdot 1 \cdot 3 \cdot 3 \equiv 3 \mod 7$$

A(n) modulo 5:



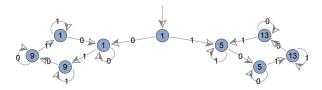
If the base-5 representation of n contains 1 or 3, then $A(n) \equiv 0 \mod 5$.

A(n) modulo 2^{α} ...

Gessel proved the conjecture of Chowla-Cowles-Cowles that

$$A(n) \bmod 8 = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n \text{ is even} \\ 5 & \text{if } n \text{ is odd.} \end{cases}$$

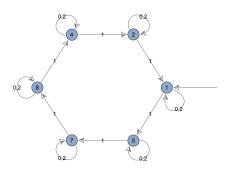
Gessel asked whether A(n) is periodic modulo 16.



Theorem (Rowland-Yassawi)

 $(A(n) \mod 16)_{n \ge 0}$ is not eventually periodic.

A(n) modulo 9:

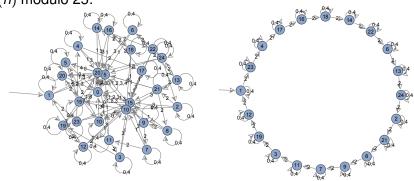


Theorem (Gessel)

 $A(3n+d) \equiv A(n)A(d) \mod 9$ for all $n \ge 0$ and all $d \in \{0,1,2\}$.

For $p \ge 5$, the Lucas congruence does not always hold modulo p^2 .

A(n) modulo 25:



Restrict the digit set.

Theorem (Rowland-Yassawi)

 $A(5n+d) \equiv A(n)A(d) \mod 25 \text{ for all } n \geq 0 \text{ and all } d \in \{0,2,4\}.$

Which digits support a Lucas congruence for A(n) modulo p^2 ?

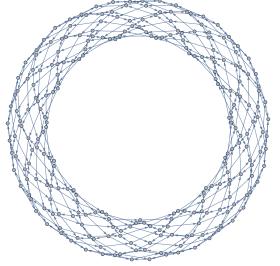
A(n) modulo 7^2 :



digit set: {0, 2, 3, 4, 6}

 $(A(0), A(2), A(3), A(4), A(6)) \equiv (1, 24, 24, 24, 1) \mod 7^2$

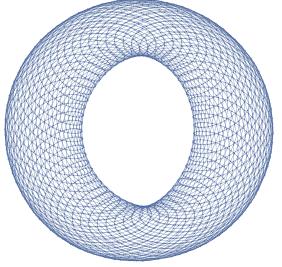
A(n) modulo 23²:



digit set: $\{0, 7, 11, 15, 22\}$

 $(A(0), A(7), A(11), A(15), A(22)) \equiv (1,415,473,415,1) \mod 23^2$

A(n) modulo 59^2 :



digit set: $\{0, 6, 29, 52, 58\}$

 $(A(0), A(6), A(29), A(52), A(58)) \equiv (1, 460, 2813, 460, 1) \mod 59^2$

Theorem (Malik–Straub 2016)

$$A(d) \equiv A(p-1-d) \mod p$$
 for each $d \in \{0, 1, \dots, p-1\}$.

Let
$$D(p) := \left\{ d \in \{0, 1, \dots, p-1\} : A(d) \equiv A(p-1-d) \mod p^2 \right\}.$$

In particular, $\{0, \frac{p-1}{2}, p-1\} \subseteq D(p).$ $\{0, 2, 4\} \subseteq D(5)$

Theorem (Rowland-Yassawi 2021)

Let p be a prime and $d \in \{0, 1, \dots, p-1\}$. The congruence

$$A(pn+d) \equiv A(n)A(d) \mod p^2$$

holds for all $n \ge 0$ if and only if $d \in D(p)$.

Primes p with $|D(p)| \ge 4$:

р	D(p)
7	{0,2,3,4,6}
23	$\{0, 7, 11, 15, 22\}$
43	$\{0, 5, 18, 21, 24, 37, 42\}$
59	$\{0, 6, 29, 52, 58\}$
79	$\{0, 18, 39, 60, 78\}$
103	{0, 17, 51, 85, 102}
107	$\{0, 14, 21, 47, 53, 59, 85, 92, 106\}$
127	{0, 17, 63, 109, 126}
131	{0,62,65,68,130}
139	$\{0, 68, 69, 70, 138\}$
151	$\{0, 19, 75, 131, 150\}$
167	$\{0, 35, 64, 83, 102, 131, 166\}$

How does the size of the automaton (number of states) depend on the x-degree (height) and y-degree (degree) of the polynomial?

Theorem (Bridy 2017)

Let $s(n)_{n\geq 0}$ be an algebraic sequence of elements in \mathbb{F}_q . If its minimal polynomial has height h, degree d, and genus g, then the number of states in its minimal automaton is at most

$$(1+o(1))q^{h+d+g-1},$$

where o(1) tends to 0 as any of q, h, d, g gets large.

The genus satisfies $g \le (h-1)(d-1)$; generically g = (h-1)(d-1).

Corollary

The number of states is at most $(1 + o(1))q^{hd}$.

Can we get this bound without algebraic geometry? Yes.

Is the bound sharp? We suspect yes.

Corollary

The number of states is at most $(1 + o(1))q^{hd}$.

The factor 1 + o(1) cannot be removed.

Example

Let q = 2 and

$$P = (x^3 + x^2 + 1)y^3 + (x^3 + 1)y^2 + (x^3 + x^2 + x + 1)y + x^3 + x^2$$

with h = 3 and d = 3. The number of states is $532 > 512 = q^{hd}$.