## The (inescapable) *p*-adics

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Example (Fibonacci)

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

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.

Example (A periodic sequence)

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 $a_n$  is periodic now.

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$$a_0 = 1, a_1 = 0, a_2 = 2, a_3 = 0$$
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not periodic but the zeroes do have a regular repeating pattern.

# **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

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

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

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 $\frac{1}{(1-x^2)^2} \leftrightarrow 1, 0, 2, 0, 3, 0, 4, 0, 5, 0, 6, 0, 7, 0, 8, 0, 9, 0, 10, 0, 11, 0, 12, 0, 13, 0, 14, 0$ 

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#### **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?

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

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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!

The only absolute values on  ${\bf Q}$  are

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 *p*-adic exponential function has finite radius of convergence.

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

for each fixed r this function of 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 arithmetric progressions, i.e. they are all of the form nM + b for some  $b \in B \subset \{0, ..., M - 1\}$ ,  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

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