

Computing a finite automaton for an integer sequence modulo p^α

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Catalan numbers modulo 2

What do integer sequences look like modulo p^α ?

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

$$C(n) = \frac{1}{n+1} \binom{2n}{n}$$

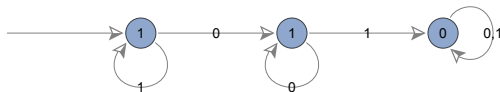


$$C(3) = 5$$

$$(C(n) \bmod 2)_{n \geq 0} = 1, 1, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, \dots$$

Theorem (follows from Kummer 1852)

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



Catalan numbers modulo 4 and 8

Theorem (Eu–Liu–Yeh 2008)

For all $n \geq 0$,

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

Theorem 4.2. Let C_n be the n th 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

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

Benefits

By computing an automaton for a sequence modulo p^α , we can...

- Compute the n th term modulo p^α quickly.
- Compute the forbidden residues modulo p^α .
- Compute the frequencies of the residues (if they exist).
- Decide whether the sequence of residues is eventually periodic.
- etc.

$C(n)_{n \geq 0}$ is algebraic:

$y = 1 + 1x + 2x^2 + 5x^3 + 14x^4 + 42x^5 + 132x^6 + \dots$ satisfies

$$x y^2 - y + 1 = 0$$

in $\mathbb{Q}[[x]]$.

What about $C(n) \bmod 2$?

Benefits

By computing an automaton for a sequence modulo p^α , we can...

- Compute the n th term modulo p^α quickly.
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$C(n)_{n \geq 0}$ is algebraic:

$y = 1 + 1x + 0x^2 + 1x^3 + 0x^4 + 0x^5 + 0x^6 + \dots$ satisfies

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

in $\mathbb{F}_2[[x]]$.

What about $C(n) \bmod 2$? Also algebraic. $\xrightarrow{\text{Christol}}$ 2-automatic.

An algebraic sequence, reduced modulo p , is p -automatic.

Sequences modulo p^α

Prime powers?

The proof of Christol's theorem depends on $(a + b)^p = a^p + b^p$.

The **diagonal** of a formal power series (in two variables) is

$$\mathcal{D} \left(\sum_{n,m \geq 0} a_{n,m} x^n y^m \right) := \sum_{n \geq 0} a_{n,n} x^n.$$

Theorem (Denef–Lipshitz 1987)

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

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

Algebraic sequences are diagonals of rational power series.

Algebraic \rightarrow diagonal

Theorem (Furstenberg 1967)

Let $f(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[[x]]$ and $P(x, y) \in \mathbb{Q}[x, y]$ such that $P(x, f(x)) = 0$.
If $f(0) = 0$ and $\frac{\partial P}{\partial y}(0, 0) \neq 0$, then

$$f(x) = \mathcal{D}\left(\frac{y \frac{\partial P}{\partial y}(xy, y)}{\frac{1}{y}P(xy, y)}\right).$$

$\sum_{n \geq 0} C(n)x^n$ satisfies $xy^2 - y + 1 = 0$. But $C(0) = 1 \neq 0$.

$y = 0 + \sum_{n \geq 1} C(n)x^n$ satisfies $P(x, y) = 0$, where

$$\begin{aligned} P(x, y) &:= x(y+1)^2 - (y+1) + 1 & \frac{\partial P}{\partial y}(x, y) &= 2x(y+1) - 1 \\ P(xy, y) &= xy^3 + 2xy^2 + xy - y & \frac{\partial P}{\partial y}(xy, y) &= 2xy(y+1) - 1 \end{aligned}$$

Check: $\frac{\partial P}{\partial y}(0, 0) = -1 \neq 0$.

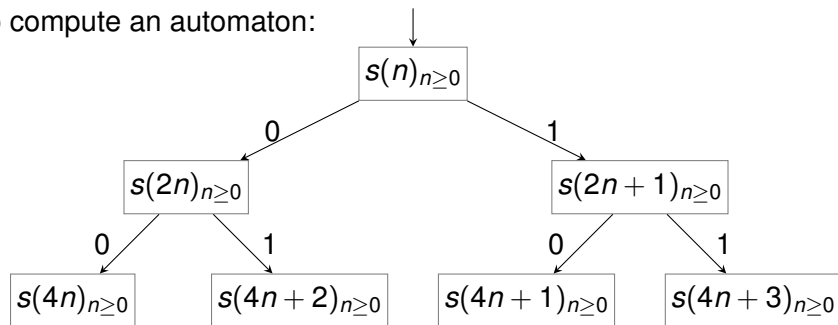
$$\sum_{n \geq 1} C(n)x^n = \mathcal{D}\left(\frac{y(2xy^2 + 2xy - 1)}{xy^2 + 2xy + x - 1}\right)$$

States are kernel sequences

Sure enough:

$$\begin{aligned} 1 + \frac{y(2xy^2 + 2xy - 1)}{xy^2 + 2xy + x - 1} &= 1x^0y^0 + 1x^0y + 0x^0y^2 + 0x^0y^3 + 0x^0y^4 + \dots \\ &+ 0x^1y^0 + 1x^1y + 0x^1y^2 - 1x^1y^3 + 0x^1y^4 + \dots \\ &+ 0x^2y^0 + 1x^2y + 2x^2y^2 + 0x^2y^3 - 2x^2y^4 + \dots \\ &+ 0x^3y^0 + 1x^3y + 4x^3y^2 + 5x^3y^3 + 0x^3y^4 + \dots \\ &+ 0x^4y^0 + 1x^4y + 6x^4y^2 + 14x^4y^3 + 14x^4y^4 + \dots \\ &+ \dots \end{aligned}$$

To compute an automaton:



Cartier operator

Let $0 \leq d \leq p - 1$. The **Cartier operator** on $\mathbb{Z}_p[[x, y]]$ is defined by

$$\Lambda_d \left(\sum_{n,m \geq 0} a_{n,m} x^n y^m \right) := \sum_{n,m \geq 0} a_{pn+d, pm+d} x^n y^m.$$

Proposition

$$\Lambda_d \left(\frac{R(\mathbf{x})}{Q(\mathbf{x})^{p^\alpha}} \right) \equiv \frac{\Lambda_d(R(\mathbf{x}))}{Q(\mathbf{x})^{p^{\alpha-1}}} \pmod{p^\alpha}.$$

For $C(n) \pmod{2} \dots$

$$\begin{aligned} 1 + \frac{y(2xy^2+2xy-1)}{xy^2+2xy+x-1} &\equiv \frac{xy^2+x+y+1}{xy^2+x+1} \pmod{2} \\ &= \frac{xy^2+x+y+1}{xy^2+x+1} \cdot \frac{(xy^2+x+1)^1}{(xy^2+x+1)^1} \equiv \frac{x^2y^4+x^2+xy^3+xy+y+1}{(xy^2+x+1)^2} \end{aligned}$$

Apply Λ_0, Λ_1 :

$$\frac{x^2y^4+x^2+xy^3+xy+y+1}{xy^2+x+1} \qquad \frac{y+1}{xy^2+x+1}$$

We can simply work with the numerators.

Computation

Initial “state” (numerator):

$$xy^2 + x + y + 1$$

Images under $s(x, y) \mapsto \Lambda_d(s(x, y) \cdot Q(x, y)) \bmod 2$:

$$xy^2 + x + 1 \qquad y + 1$$

Two new states.

Images of $xy^2 + x + 1$:

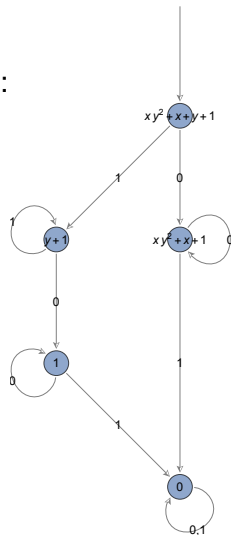
$$xy^2 + x + 1 \qquad 0$$

Images of $y + 1$:

$$1 \qquad y + 1$$

Two new states, so keep going...

But there are only finitely many possible states.



Algorithm

Given a power series satisfying $P(x, y) = 0$, compute $\frac{R(\mathbf{x})}{Q(\mathbf{x})} = \frac{y \frac{\partial P}{\partial y}(xy, y)}{\frac{1}{y} P(xy, y)}$.

Compute an automaton for the coefficients of $\mathcal{D}\left(\frac{R(\mathbf{x})}{Q(\mathbf{x})}\right) \bmod p^\alpha$:

- 1 Start with initial state $R(\mathbf{x}) \cdot Q(\mathbf{x})^{p^\alpha-1} \in (\mathbb{Z}/(p^\alpha\mathbb{Z}))[\mathbf{x}]$.
- 2 For each new state $s(\mathbf{x})$ and each $d \in \{0, \dots, p-1\}$, draw the edge

$$s(\mathbf{x}) \xrightarrow{d} \Lambda_d \left(s(\mathbf{x}) \cdot Q(\mathbf{x})^{p^\alpha-p^{\alpha-1}} \right).$$

- 3 Iterate, and stop when all images have been computed.
- 4 Assign the output of each state $s(\mathbf{x})$ to be $s(0, \dots, 0)$.

Apéry numbers

$A(n) = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k}^2 \binom{n+k}{k}^2$ 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

$$\frac{1}{(1-x_1-x_2)(1-x_3-x_4) - x_1x_2x_3x_4}.$$

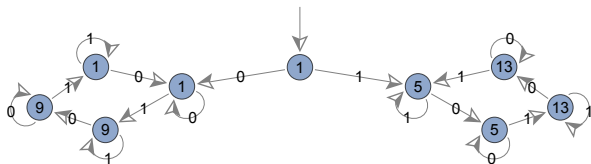
Therefore $(A(n) \bmod p^\alpha)_{n \geq 0}$ is p -automatic.

Apéry numbers modulo 16

Gessel (1982) 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.



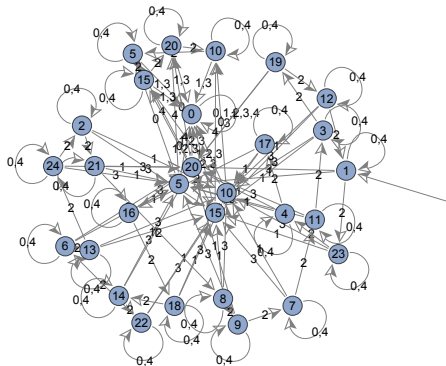
Theorem

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

Apéry numbers modulo 25

Theorem (special case of a conjecture of Beukers 1995)

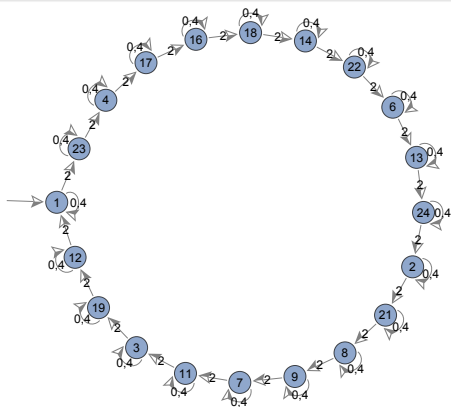
If there are at least two 1s and 3s in the base-5 representation of n , then $A(n) \equiv 0 \pmod{5^2}$.



Apéry numbers modulo 25

Theorem

Let $|n|_d$ be the number of d 's in the base-5 representation of n .
If $|n|_1 = |n|_3 = 0$, then $A(n) \equiv A(2)^{|n|_2} \pmod{25}$.



Why is 25 special?

Constant terms of Laurent polynomials

$C(n)$ is the coefficient of x^0 in $(1 - x) \left(\frac{1}{x} + 2 + x\right)^n$:

n	$(1 - x) \left(\frac{1}{x} + 2 + x\right)^n$
0	$1 - x$
1	$\frac{1}{x} + 1 - x - x^2$
2	$\frac{1}{x^2} + \frac{3}{x} + 2 - 2x - 3x^2 - x^3$
3	$\frac{1}{x^3} + \frac{5}{x^2} + \frac{9}{x} + 5 - 5x - 9x^2 - 5x^3 - x^4$

Other kernel sequences...

$$\begin{aligned}C(2n) \bmod 2 &= [x^0] \left((1 + x) \left(\frac{1}{x} + x\right)^{2n} \right) \\&= [x^0] \left((1 + x) \left(\frac{1}{x^2} + x^2\right)^n \right) \\&= [x^0] \left(1 \cdot \left(\frac{1}{x^2} + x^2\right)^n \right) \\&= [x^0] \left(\frac{1}{x} + x\right)^n\end{aligned}$$

Constant terms of Laurent polynomials

A kernel sequence is represented by a pair of polynomials.
Again there are only finitely many:

$$C(n) \bmod 2 = [x^0] \left((1+x) \left(\frac{1}{x} + x \right)^n \right)$$

$$C(2n) \bmod 2 = [x^0] \left(\frac{1}{x} + x \right)^n$$

$$C(2n+1) \bmod 2 = C(n) \bmod 2$$

$$C(4n) \bmod 2 = C(2n) \bmod 2$$

$$C(4n+2) \bmod 2 = 0$$

