A complete classification of \mathbb{Z}_p -sequences corresponding to a polynomial

Leonard Huang

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Let *p* be a prime number and set $\mathbb{Z}_p = \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$. A \mathbb{Z}_p -sequence is a function $S : \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}_p$. Let \mathcal{R} be the set $\{P \in \mathbb{R}[X] \mid P(\mathbb{Z}) \subseteq \mathbb{Z}\}$. We prove that the set of sequences of the form $(P(n) \pmod{p})_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$, where $P \in \mathcal{R}$, is precisely the set of periodic \mathbb{Z}_p -sequences with period equal to a *p*-power. Given a \mathbb{Z}_p -sequence, we will also determine all $P \in \mathcal{R}$ that correspond to the sequence according to the manner above.

1. Preliminaries

Let $\mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, 3, \ldots\}$ and $\mathbb{N}_0 = \{0, 1, 2, \ldots\}$.

Definition 1. Define the sequence $(P_i)_{i \in \mathbb{N}_0}$ of polynomials in $\mathbb{R}[X]$ as follows:

$$P_0 = 1$$
 and for all $i \in \mathbb{N} : P_i = {\binom{X}{i}} = \frac{\prod_{j=0}^{i-1} (X-j)}{i!}.$

Lemma 2 [Niven et al. 1991, pp. 42–43, Problems 11, 14, 15]. We have

$$\mathcal{R} = \left\{ \sum_{i=0}^{m} c_i P_i \mid m \in \mathbb{N}_0, c_0, \dots, c_m \in \mathbb{Z} \right\}.$$

Proof. Clearly, $\Re \supseteq \left\{ \sum_{i=0}^{m} c_i P_i \mid m \in \mathbb{N}_0, c_0, \dots, c_m \in \mathbb{Z} \right\}$, so we only need to prove the reverse inclusion.

Let $P \in \Re$ have degree *m*. If the system of equations

$$P(j) = \sum_{i=0}^{m} c_i P_i(j), \quad j = 0, \dots, m,$$
(1)

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in the unknowns c_0, \ldots, c_m has a solution $(c_0, \ldots, c_m) \in \mathbb{Z}^{m+1}$, then $P = \sum_{i=0}^m c_i P_i$ because P and $\sum_{i=0}^m c_i P_i$ are polynomials of degree at most m that agree at the m+1 points $0, \ldots, m$. However, (1) is equivalent to the system

$$c_j = P(j) - \sum_{i=0}^{j-1} {j \choose i} c_i, \quad j = 0, \dots, m,$$

which clearly has a unique solution $(c_0, \ldots, c_m) \in \mathbb{Z}^{m+1}$.

Lemma 3. Let p be a prime number. For every $k \in \mathbb{N}$,

$$\binom{p^k}{0} \equiv 1 \pmod{p} \quad and \quad for \ all \ i \in \{1, \dots, p^k - 1\} : \binom{p^k}{i} \equiv 0 \pmod{p}.$$

Proof. The first identity is clearly true. When $i \in \{1, ..., p^k - 1\}$, we have

$$\frac{p^k}{i} = \frac{\binom{p^k}{i}}{\binom{p^k - 1}{i - 1}}.$$

Write *i* as $p^l m$, where $l \in \mathbb{N}_0$ and *m* is a positive integer not divisible by *p*. From the equation

$$\frac{p^{k-l}}{m} = \frac{p^k}{i} = \frac{\binom{p^k}{i}}{\binom{p^k-1}{i-1}},$$

we immediately obtain

$$p^{k-l}\binom{p^k-1}{i-1} = m\binom{p^k}{i}.$$

Since $i < p^k$, we have $k - l \ge 1$. Thus p divides $m\binom{p^k}{i}$, and since it does not divide m, it must divide $\binom{p^k}{i}$. This proves that

$$\binom{p^k}{i} \equiv 0 \pmod{p}.$$

As $i \in \{1, \ldots, p^k - 1\}$ was arbitrary, Lemma 3 is true.

Lemma 4. Let p be a prime number. Then, for every $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, $k \in \mathbb{N}_0$ and $i \in \{0, \ldots, p^k - 1\}$,

$$\binom{n+p^k}{i} \equiv \binom{n}{i} \pmod{p}.$$
 (2)

Proof. Let $k \in \mathbb{N}_0$. Define a well-ordering \prec on $\{0, \ldots, p^k - 1\} \times \mathbb{N}_0$ by setting $(i, n) \prec (i', n')$ if either (i) i < i', or (ii) i = i' and n < n'. By the principle of induction, it suffices to prove the following statements:

(A) For every $i \in \{0, ..., p^k - 1\}$,

$$\binom{0+p^k}{i} \equiv \binom{0}{i} \pmod{p}.$$

(B) Given $(i^*, n^*) \in \{0, \dots, p^k - 1\} \times \mathbb{N}_0$, if

for every
$$(i, n) \preceq (i^*, n^*)$$
: $\binom{n+p^k}{i} \equiv \binom{n}{i} \pmod{p},$ (3)

and

for every
$$(i, n) \preceq (i^*, n^*)$$
: $\binom{-n+p^k}{i} \equiv \binom{-n}{i} \pmod{p},$ (4)

then, respectively,

$$\binom{n^*+1+p^k}{i^*} \equiv \binom{n^*+1}{i^*} \pmod{p} \tag{5}$$

and

$$\binom{-(n^*+1)+p^k}{i^*} \equiv \binom{-(n^*+1)}{i^*} \pmod{p}.$$
(6)

Statement (A) holds by Lemma 3. For Statement (B), we consider two cases: (i) $i^* = 0$ and (ii) $i^* > 0$. In Case (i), (B) is vacuously true. In Case (ii), we deduce (5) from (3) by applying Pascal's Rule:

$$\binom{n^*+1+p^k}{i^*} = \binom{n^*+p^k}{i^*-1} + \binom{n^*+p^k}{i^*} \quad \text{(by Pascal's Rule)}$$
$$\equiv \binom{n^*}{i^*-1} + \binom{n^*}{i^*} \quad \text{(from (3))}$$
$$\equiv \binom{n^*+1}{i^*} \pmod{p} \quad \text{(by Pascal's Rule again).}$$

In a similar fashion, we deduce (6) from (4):

$$\binom{-(n^*+1)+p^k}{i^*} = \binom{-n^*+p^k}{i^*} - \binom{-(n^*+1)+p^k}{i^*-1} \\ \equiv \binom{-n^*}{i^*} - \binom{-(n^*+1)}{i^*-1} \equiv \binom{-(n^*+1)}{i^*} \pmod{p}.$$

Therefore (B) is true in Case (ii). Since $k \in \mathbb{N}_0$ was arbitrary, Lemma 4 is true. \Box **Corollary 5.** For every $i \in \mathbb{N}_0$, the sequence $\binom{n}{i} \pmod{p}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$ is periodic with period equal to a *p*-power.

Proof. Choose $k \in \mathbb{N}_0$ such that $i < p^k$. By Lemma 4, $\binom{n+p^k}{i} \equiv \binom{n}{i} \pmod{p}$ for every $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. This clearly implies the claim.

Corollary 6. For every $P \in \mathcal{R}$, the sequence $(P(n) \pmod{p})_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$ is periodic with period equal to a *p*-power.

Proof. Let $P \in \mathcal{R}$. By Lemma 2, there exist $m \in \mathbb{N}_0$ and $c_0, \ldots, c_m \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $P = \sum_{i=0}^m c_i P_i$. Then,

$$(P(n) \pmod{p})_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} = \left(\sum_{i=0}^{m} c_i P_i(n) \pmod{p}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}.$$

By Corollary 5, each $(P_i(n) \pmod{p})_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$ is periodic with period equal to a *p*-power. We conclude that $(P(n) \pmod{p})_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$ is also periodic with period equal to a *p*-power.

2. Main results

Theorem 7. Let $p\mathcal{R}$ be the subset of \mathcal{R} obtained by multiplying every $P \in \mathcal{R}$ by p. A polynomial $P \in \mathcal{R}$ lies in $p\mathcal{R}$ if and only if p divides P(n) for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$; in symbols,

$$p\mathcal{R} = \left\{ P \in \mathcal{R} \mid (P(n) \pmod{p})_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} = (0)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \right\}$$

Proof. It is clear that every polynomial in $p\mathcal{R}$ corresponds to $(0)_{n\in\mathbb{Z}}$, so let us suppose that $P \in \mathcal{R}$ satisfies

$$(P(n) \pmod{p})_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} = (0)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}.$$

Then, by Lemma 2, there exist $m \in \mathbb{N}_0$ and $c_0, \ldots, c_m \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $P = \sum_{i=0}^m c_i P_i$. We claim that $c_0, \ldots, c_m \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$.

To prove the claim, we use mathematical induction. By our hypothesis,

$$P(0) = \sum_{i=0}^{m} c_i P_i(0) = c_0 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}.$$

Hence, the claim is true for c_0 . Next, suppose that $k \in \mathbb{N}_0$ and that the claim is true for c_j for every $j \le k$. If j = m, we are done. If j < m, then

$$P(j+1) = \sum_{i=0}^{m} c_i P_i(j+1) \equiv c_{j+1} \equiv 0 \pmod{p}.$$

Hence, the claim is true for c_{j+1} as well. By induction, the claim is true for all c_0, \ldots, c_m . This shows that $P \in p\mathcal{R}$.

Theorem 8. The set of sequences of the form $(P(n) \pmod{p})_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$, where $P \in \mathbb{R}$, is precisely the set of periodic \mathbb{Z}_p -sequences with period equal to a *p*-power.

Proof. By virtue of Corollary 6, we only have to prove that every periodic \mathbb{Z}_p -sequence with period equal to a *p*-power corresponds to some $P \in \mathcal{R}$.

Let $k \in \mathbb{N}_0$. Define A to be the set

$$\Big\{\sum_{i=0}^{p^k-1} c_i P_i \mid c_1, \ldots, c_{p^k-1} \in \{0, \ldots, p-1\}\Big\},\$$

and *B* to be set of all periodic \mathbb{Z}_p -sequences with period equal to p^l , where $0 \le l \le k$. By Lemma 4 and Theorem 7, every polynomial in *A* corresponds to a unique sequence in *B*. Since $|A| = |B| = p^{p^k}$, the correspondence is actually one-to-one. Therefore, every periodic \mathbb{Z}_p -sequence with period p^k corresponds to a unique polynomial of the form

$$\sum_{i=0}^{p^k-1} c_i P_i,$$

where $c_1, \ldots, c_{p^k-1} \in \{0, \ldots, p-1\}$. Since k was arbitrary, Theorem 8 is proven.

The theorem, however, would not be of much use unless the coefficients c_i can be determined. Hence, let *S* be a periodic \mathbb{Z}_p -sequence with period p^k , where $k \in \mathbb{N}_0$. By the first part, there exist $c_1, \ldots, c_{p^k-1} \in \{0, \ldots, p-1\}$ such that

$$S = \left(\sum_{i=0}^{p^k - 1} c_i P_i(n) \pmod{p}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}.$$

From this identity, we obtain the equations

$$S(j) = \sum_{i=0}^{p^{k}-1} c_i {j \choose i}, \quad j = 0, \dots, p^{k} - 1.$$

Some algebraic manipulation shows that the c_i 's satisfy

$$c_i \equiv \sum_{j=0}^{i} (-1)^j {i \choose j} S(i-j) \pmod{p}, \quad i = 0, \dots, p^k - 1.$$

Corollary 9. Let S be a periodic \mathbb{Z}_p -sequence with period p^k , where $k \in \mathbb{N}_0$. Then, the set of all $P \in \mathbb{R}$ which correspond to S is

$$\left(\sum_{i=0}^{p^k-1}c_iP_i\right)+p\mathfrak{R},$$

where c_i is the least positive residue of $\sum_{j=0}^{i} (-1)^j {i \choose j} S(i-j) \pmod{p}$ for every $i = 0, \ldots, p^k - 1$.

Proof. Let c_i satisfy the hypothesis given in the corollary. By Theorem 8,

$$S - \left(\sum_{i=0}^{p^k-1} c_i P_i(n) \pmod{p}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} = (0)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}.$$

The corollary now follows directly from Theorem 7.

With both theorems and Corollary 9, we have a complete classification of \mathbb{Z}_p -sequences corresponding to a polynomial. Let us now look at some examples.

3. Examples

Example 10. To determine whether or not a \mathbb{Z}_p -sequence corresponds to a polynomial, simply investigate its periodicity. For example, the \mathbb{Z}_7 -sequence

$$\ldots, \widehat{4}, 0, 6, 4, 0, 6, \ldots$$

(the $\widehat{}$ marks the zeroth element of the sequence) does not correspond to any polynomial because, although periodic, it has period 3, which is not a power of 7.

Example 11. The \mathbb{Z}_3 -sequence

$$\dots, \widehat{1}, 0, 1, 2, 0, 1, 1, 0, 2, \dots$$

is periodic with period $9 = 3^2$, so it corresponds to a polynomial. The proof of Theorem 8 says that the sequence corresponds to

$$\binom{X}{0} + 2\binom{X}{1} + 2\binom{X}{2} + \binom{X}{3} + 2\binom{X}{4} + \binom{X}{5} + \binom{X}{6} + 2\binom{X}{7} + 2\binom{X}{8}.$$

4. Conclusion

We can add some algebraic flavor to the classification problem as follows. Let \mathscr{G} denote the set of periodic \mathbb{Z}_p -sequences with period equal to a *p*-power. It is not difficult to see that \mathscr{G} forms an abelian group under component-wise addition. Notice also that \mathscr{R} is a free abelian group generated by the set $\{P_i \mid i \in \mathbb{N}_0\}$ and that the mapping

$$\phi: \mathcal{R} \to \mathcal{G},$$

$$\phi: P \mapsto (P(n) \pmod{p})_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$$

is a surjective group homomorphism. By the first isomorphism theorem for groups, $\Re/\ker(\phi) \cong \mathscr{G}$. However, Theorem 7 says that $\ker(\phi) = p\Re$, so we obtain $\Re/p\Re \cong \mathscr{G}$. This elegant algebraic identity summarizes much of the effort invested in this paper.

Theorem 8 may be generalized so as to obtain a complete classification of all \mathbb{Z}_m -sequences corresponding to a polynomial for an arbitrary integer $m \ge 2$. The

first step to doing this is to consider the case when *m* is a prime-power. It would be too good to be true for Lemma 4 to hold if we replace *p* in (2) by p^a for arbitrary $a \in \mathbb{N}$, and indeed it is.¹ We have the following counterexample:

$$\binom{4+3^2}{3} \equiv 7 \pmod{9} \quad \text{but} \quad \binom{4}{3} \equiv 4 \pmod{9}.$$

However, an analogous equation for prime-powers may be obtained from the following proposition (see Theorem 1 of [Granville 1997]):

Proposition 12. Let *p* be a prime number. For any positive integer *a*, define $(a!)_p$ to be the product of those positive integers $\leq a$ which are not divisible by *p*. Let *q*, *m*, *n* and *r* be positive integers such that n = m+r. Write *n* in base *p* as $\sum_{i=0}^{d} n_i p^i$ and let N_j be the least positive residue of $[n/p^j] \pmod{p^q}$ for each $j \geq 0$ (so that $N_j = \sum_{i=0}^{q-1} n_{j+i} p^i$). Also, make the corresponding definitions for m_j , M_j , r_j and R_j . Let e_j denote the number of 'carries', when adding *m* and *r* in base *p*, on and beyond the *j*-th digit. Then,

$$\frac{(\pm 1)^{e_{q-1}}}{p^{e_0}} \binom{n}{m} \equiv \left(\prod_{j=0}^d \frac{(N_j!)_p}{(M_j!)_p (R_j!)_p}\right) \pmod{p^q},$$

where $(\pm 1) = -1$ except if p = 2 and $q \ge 3$.

We will not attempt to generalize Theorem 8 in this paper because it would take us too far afield.

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¹Note that Theorem 7 still holds if we replace p by p^a , or even by any integer ≥ 2 . It is only for Theorem 8 that this method fails, which, in turn, happens because it fails for Lemmas 3 and 4.

LEONARD HUANG

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huan0074@ntu.edu.sg School of Physical and Mathematical Sciences, Nanyang Technological University, SPMS-04-01, 21 Nanyang Link, 637371, Singapore

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