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Linear recurrence sequences and twisted binary forms

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Abstract

Let $\prod_{i=1}^{d}(X-\alpha_i Y) \in \mathbb{C}[X,Y]$ be a binary form and let $\epsilon_1,\dots,\epsilon_d$ be nonzero complex numbers. We consider the family of binary forms $\prod_{i=1}^{d}(X-\alpha_i\epsilon_i^a Y)$, $a \in \mathbb{Z}$, which we write as

$$X^d - U_1(a)X^{d-1}Y + \cdots + (-1)^{d-1}U_{d-1}(a)XY^{d-1} + (-1)^d U_d(a)Y^d.$$

In this paper we study these sequences $\bigl(U_h(a)\bigr)_{a\in\mathbb{Z}}$ which turn out to be linear recurrence sequences.

Résumé

Soit $\prod_{i=1}^{d}(X-\alpha_i Y)$ une forme binaire de $\mathbb{C}[X,Y]$ et soit $\epsilon_1,\dots,\epsilon_d$ des nombres complexes non nuls. Nous considérons la famille des formes binaires $\prod_{i=1}^{d}(X-\alpha_i\epsilon_i^a Y)$, $a \in \mathbb{Z}$, que nous écrivons sous la forme

$$X^d - U_1(a)X^{d-1}Y + \cdots + (-1)^{d-1}U_{d-1}(a)XY^{d-1} + (-1)^d U_d(a)Y^d.$$

Le but de cet article est d'étudier ces suites $\bigl(U_h(a)\bigr)_{a\in\mathbb{Z}}$ qui s'avèrent être des suites récurrentes linéaires.

`Keywords:` Linear recurrence sequences; binary forms; units of algebraic number fields; families of Diophantine equations; exponential polynomials

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1 Introduction

Let us consider a binary form $F_0(X,Y) \in \mathbb{C}[X,Y]$ which satisfies $F_0(1,0) = 1$. We write it as

$$F_0(X,Y) = X^d + a_1X^{d-1}Y + \cdots + a_dY^d \ = \ \prod_{i=1}^{d}(X - \alpha_iY).$$

Let $\epsilon_1, \dots, \epsilon_d$ be d nonzero complex numbers not necessarily distinct. Twisting F_0 by the powers $\epsilon_1^a, \dots, \epsilon_d^a$ ($a \in \mathbb{Z}$), we obtain the family of binary forms

$$F_a(X,Y) = \prod_{i=1}^{d}(X - \alpha_i\epsilon_i^aY), \tag{1}$$

which we write as

$$F_a(X,Y) = X^d - U_1(a)X^{d-1}Y + \cdots + (-1)^{d-1}U_{d-1}(a)XY^{d-1} + (-1)^dU_d(a)Y^d. \tag{2}$$

Therefore

$$U_h(0) = (-1)^h a_h \qquad (1 \leq h \leq d).$$

In [6] and [7], we consider some families of diophantine equations

$$F_a(x,y) = m$$

obtained in the same way from a given irreducible form $F(X,Y)$ with coefficients in $\mathbb{Z}$, when $\epsilon_1, \dots, \epsilon_d$ are algebraic units and when the algebraic numbers $\alpha_1\epsilon_1, \dots, \alpha_d\epsilon_d$ are Galois conjugates with $d \geq 3$. The results in [7] are effective, the results in [6] are more general but not effective. The next result follows from Theorem 3.3 of [6].

Theorem 1. *Let K be a number field of degree $d \geq 3$, S a finite set of places of K containing the places at infinity. Denote by $\mathcal{O}_S$ the ring of S–integers of K and by $\mathcal{O}_S^\times$ the group of S–units of K. Assume $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_d, \epsilon_1, \dots, \epsilon_d$ belong to $K^\times$. Then there are only finitely many (x,y,a) in $\mathcal{O}_S \times \mathcal{O}_S \times \mathbb{Z}$ satisfying*

$$F_a(x,y) \in \mathcal{O}_S^\times, \quad xy \neq 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \mathrm{Card}\{\alpha_1\epsilon_1^a, \dots, \alpha_d\epsilon_d^a\} \geq 3.$$

Section 2 is an introduction to linear recurrence sequences. In Section 3 we observe that in the general case each of the sequences $\big(U_h(a)\big)_{a\in\mathbb{Z}}$ coming from the coefficients of the relation (2) is a linear recurrence sequence.

2 Linear recurrence sequences

Let us recall some well known facts about linear recurrence sequences; (see for instance [10], Chapter C of [11], and also [1], [2], [4], [5], [9]). Then we apply these results to the families of binary forms given in (1) and (2).

2.1 Generalities

Let $\mathbb{K}$ be a field of characteristic 0. The sequences $\big(u(a)\big)_{a\in\mathbb{Z}}$, with values in $\mathbb{K}$ and indexed by $\mathbb{Z}$, form a vector space $\mathbb{K}^{\mathbb{Z}}$ over $\mathbb{K}$. Let $\mathbf{c}=(c_1,\dots,c_d)\in\mathbb{K}^d$ with $c_d\neq 0$. The sequences, satisfying the linear recurrence relation of order d given by

$$u(a+d)=c_1u(a+d-1)+\cdots+c_du(a), \tag{3}$$

form a $\mathbb{K}$–vector subspace $E_{\mathbf{c}}$ of $\mathbb{K}^{\mathbb{Z}}$ of dimension d, a natural canonical basis being given by the d sequences $u_0,\dots,u_{d-1}$ defined by the initial conditions

$$u_j(a)=\delta_{ja}\quad(0\le j,a\le d-1),$$

δ_{ja} being the Kronecker symbol

$$\delta_{ja}=\begin{cases}1 & \text{if } j=a,\\ 0 & \text{if } j\neq a.\end{cases}$$

For $u\in E_{\mathbf{c}}$, we have

$$u=u(0)u_0+u(1)u_1+\cdots+u(d-1)u_{d-1}.$$

By definition, the characteristic polynomial of the linear recurrence relation (3) is

$$P(T)=T^d-c_1T^{d-1}-\cdots-c_{d-1}T-c_d\in\mathbb{K}[T],$$

where $P(0)=-c_d\neq 0$.

A sequence $u\in\mathbb{K}^{\mathbb{Z}}$ satisfies a linear recurrence relation of order $\le d$ if and only if the sequences

$$\big(u(a+j)\big)_{a\in\mathbb{Z}}\quad(j=0,1,2,\dots)$$

generate a vector space over $\mathbb{K}$ of dimension $\le d$. Remark that a linear recurrence relation of order d may be viewed as a linear recurrence relation of order $d+s$ for any $s\ge 1$. The dimension d_0 of this vector space is the minimal order of the linear recurrence relation satisfied by u. The linear recurrence relation of order d_0 satisfied by u is unique; the characteristic polynomial of this relation generates an ideal of $\mathbb{K}[T]$ and the characteristic polynomials of these linear recurrence relations satisfied by u are the monic polynomials of this ideal.

2.2 Decomposed characteristic polynomial

As a preliminary step, let us assume that the polynomial $P(T)$ of degree d splits completely in $\mathbb{K}[T]$ as a product of linear factors:

$$P(T) = \prod_{j=1}^{\ell} (T - \gamma_j)^{t_j}$$

with $t_j \geq 1,\ \ t_1 + \cdots + t_\ell = d$ and with nonvanishing pairwise distinct elements $\gamma_1, \ldots, \gamma_\ell$. Let us prove that a basis of $E_{\mathbf{c}}$ is given by the d sequences

$$\left(a^i \gamma_j^a\right)_{a \in \mathbb{Z}} \quad (1 \leq j \leq \ell,\ \ 0 \leq i \leq t_j - 1).$$

Firstly, we will show that these d sequences belong to the vector space $E_{\mathbf{c}}$ (this part was omitted in [5]). Next, we will prove that they form a linearly independent subset of $E_{\mathbf{c}}$.

By hypothesis, for $1 \leq j \leq \ell$ and $0 \leq i \leq t_j - 1$, the derivative of order i of the polynomial $P(T)$ is vanishing at the point γ_j. Let us recall that the characteristic of $\mathbb{K}$ is 0. Instead of using the operator $\mathrm{d}/\mathrm{d}T$, we will use the operator $T\mathrm{d}/\mathrm{d}T$ which has the property

$$\left(T \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}T}\right)^i T^h = h^i T^h$$

for $i \geq 0$ and $h \geq 0$; we stipulate that $h^i = 1$ for $i = h = 0$. For $a \in \mathbb{Z}$, $1 \leq j \leq \ell$ and $0 \leq i \leq t_j - 1$, the equation

$$\left(T \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}T}\right)^i (T^a P)(\gamma_j) = 0$$

can be written as

$$(a+d)^i \gamma_j^{a+d} = \sum_{k=1}^{d} (a+d-k)^i c_k \gamma_j^{a+d-k} \qquad (a \in \mathbb{Z}),$$

with the convention that for $k = a+d$, the term $(a+d-k)^i$ takes the value 1 for $i = 0$ and the value 0 for $i \geq 1$. Therefore the sequence $\left(a^i\gamma_j^a\right)_{a\in\mathbb{Z}}$ belongs to the vector space $E_{\mathbf{c}}$ for $1 \leq j \leq \ell$ and $0 \leq i \leq t_j - 1$.

Remark. In the literature, there are at least two further classical proofs of this fact. One is to write the linear recurrence relation in a matrix form

$$U(a+1) = CU(a)$$

with

$$U(a) = \begin{pmatrix} u(a) \\ u(a+1) \\ \vdots \\ u(a+d-1) \end{pmatrix}, \quad C = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 \\ c_d & c_{d-1} & c_{d-2} & \cdots & c_1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

The determinant of $I_dT - C$ (the characteristic polynomial of C) is nothing but $P(T)$. To obtain the result, one writes the matrix C in its Jordan normal form.

The other method consists in introducing the formal power series

$$U(z) = \sum_{a\geq 0} u(a)z^a.$$

One has

$$\left(1 - \sum_{i=1}^{d} c_i z^i\right) U(z) = \sum_{j=0}^{d-1} \left(u(j) - \sum_{i=1}^{j} c_i u(j-i)\right) z^j.$$

Hence $U(z)$ is a rational fraction, with denominator

$$1 - \sum_{i=1}^{d} c_i z^i = z^d P(1/z) = \prod_{j=1}^{\ell} (1-\gamma_j z)^{t_j},$$

while the numerator is of degree $< d$. This rational fraction can be rewritten using a partial fraction decomposition:

$$U(z) = \sum_{j=1}^{\ell} \sum_{i=0}^{t_j-1} \frac{q_{ij}}{(1-\gamma_j z)^{i+1}}.$$

For $1 \leq j \leq \ell,$ one develops $(1-\gamma_j z)^{-i-1}$ as a power series expansion to get

$$\frac{1}{(1-\gamma_j z)^{i+1}} = \frac{1}{i!\gamma_j^i}\left(\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}z}\right)^i \frac{1}{1-\gamma_j z} = \sum_{a\geq 0} \frac{(a+1)(a+2)\cdots(a+i)}{i!}\gamma_j^a z^a.$$

This allows to write $u(a)$ as a linear combination of the elements γ_j^a with coefficients being polynomials of degree $< t_j$ evaluated at a.

Proving the linear independence of the set of the d sequences

$$\left(a^i\gamma_j^a\right)_{a\in\mathbb{Z}}, \qquad \text{with } 1\leq j\leq \ell \text{ and } 0\leq i\leq t_j-1,$$

boils down to showing that the determinant of the matrix

$$A = \left(\begin{array}{ccccccc}
1 & \gamma_1 & \gamma_1^2 & \dots & \gamma_1^k & \dots & \gamma_1^{d-1} \\
0 & 1 & 2\gamma_1 & \dots & k\gamma_1^{k-1} & \dots & (d-1)\gamma_1^{d-2} \\
\vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & \binom{k}{t_1-1}\gamma_1^{k-t_1+1} & \dots & \binom{d-1}{t_1-1}\gamma_1^{d-t_1} \\
\hline
1 & \gamma_2 & \gamma_2^2 & \dots & \gamma_2^k & \dots & \gamma_2^{d-1} \\
0 & 1 & 2\gamma_2 & \dots & k\gamma_2^{k-1} & \dots & (d-1)\gamma_2^{d-2} \\
\vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & \binom{k}{t_2-1}\gamma_2^{k-t_2+1} & \dots & \binom{d-1}{t_2-1}\gamma_2^{d-t_2} \\
\hline
\vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\
\hline
1 & \gamma_\ell & \gamma_\ell^2 & \dots & \gamma_\ell^k & \dots & \gamma_\ell^{d-1} \\
0 & 1 & 2\gamma_\ell & \dots & k\gamma_\ell^{k-1} & \dots & (d-1)\gamma_\ell^{d-2} \\
\vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & \binom{k}{t_\ell-1}\gamma_\ell^{k-t_\ell+1} & \dots & \binom{d-1}{t_\ell-1}\gamma_\ell^{d-t_\ell}
\end{array}\right) \tag{4}$$

is different from 0. Note that $\binom{r}{k} = 0$ for $r < k$. Let us define s_j to be

$$s_j = t_1 + \cdots + t_{j-1} \quad \text{ for } \quad 1 \leq j \leq \ell \text{ with } s_1 = 0.$$

For $1 \leq j \leq \ell$, $0 \leq i \leq t_j - 1$, $\;0 \leq k \leq d-1$, the (s_j+i,k) entry of the matrix A is

$$\frac{1}{i!}\left(\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}T}\right)^i T^k\Big|_{T=\gamma_j} = \binom{k}{i}\gamma_j^{k-i}.$$

As a matter of fact, A is best described as being made of ℓ vertical blocks $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_\ell$ where for $1 \le j \le \ell$, A_j is the $t_j \times d$ matrix

$$A_j = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \gamma_j & \gamma_j^2 & \cdots & \gamma_j^{t_j-1} & \gamma_j^{t_j} & \cdots & \gamma_j^{d-1} \\ 0 & 1 & \binom{2}{1}\gamma_j & \dots & \binom{t_j-1}{1}\gamma_j^{t_j-2} & \binom{t_j}{1}\gamma_j^{t_j-1} & \dots & \binom{d-1}{1}\gamma_j^{d-2} \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \dots & \binom{t_j-1}{2}\gamma_j^{t_j-3} & \binom{t_j}{2}\gamma_j^{t_j-2} & \dots & \binom{d-1}{2}\gamma_j^{d-3} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 & \binom{t_j}{t_j-1}\gamma_j & \cdots & \binom{d-1}{t_j-1}\gamma_j^{d-t_j} \end{pmatrix}. \tag{5}$$

Denote by $C_0, \dots, C_{d-1}$ the d columns of A. Let $b_0, \dots, b_{d-1}$ be complex numbers such that

$$b_0 C_0 + \cdots + b_{d-1} C_{d-1} = \mathbf{0}.$$

The left side of this equality is an element of $\mathbb{K}^d$, the d components of which are all 0, and these d relations mean that the polynomial

$$b_0 + b_1 T + \cdots + b_{d-1} T^{d-1}$$

vanishes at the point γ_j with multiplicity at least t_j for $1 \le j \le \ell$. Since $t_1 + \cdots + t_\ell = d$, we deduce that $b_0 = \cdots = b_{d-1} = 0$.

The determinant of A was calculated in [5]:

$$\det A = \prod_{1 \le i < j \le \ell} (\gamma_j - \gamma_i)^{t_i t_j}.$$

2.3 Interpolation.

The matrix A is associated with the linear system of d equations in d unknowns which amounts to finding a polynomial $f \in \mathbb{K}[z]$ of degree $< d$ for which the d numbers

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}^i f}{\mathrm{d} z^i}(\gamma_j), \qquad (1 \le j \le \ell,\ 0 \le i \le t_j - 1)$$

take prescribed values. Sharp estimates related with this linear system are provided by Lemma 3.1 of [8].

Before stating and proving the next proposition, we introduce the following notation.

Let $g \in \mathbb{K}(z)$, let $z_0 \in \mathbb{K}$ and let $t \geq 1$. Assume z_0 is not a pole of g. We set

$$T_{g,z_0,t}(z) = \sum_{i=0}^{t-1} \frac{\mathrm{d}^i g}{\mathrm{d}z^i}(z_0) \frac{(z-z_0)^i}{i!}.$$

In other words, $T_{g,z_0,t}$ is the unique polynomial in $\mathbb{K}[z]$ of degree $< t$ such that there exists $r(z) \in \mathbb{K}(z)$ having no pole at z_0 with

$$g(z) = T_{g,z_0,t}(z) + (z-z_0)^t r(z).$$

Notice that if g is a polynomial of degree $< t$, then $g = T_{g,z_0,t}$ for any $z_0 \in \mathbb{K}$.

Proposition 1. *Let γ_j $(1 \leq j \leq \ell)$ be distinct elements in $\mathbb{K}$, t_j $(1 \leq j \leq \ell)$ be positive integers, η_{ij} $(1 \leq j \leq \ell,\ 0 \leq i \leq t_j - 1)$ be elements in $\mathbb{K}$. Set $d = t_1 + \cdots + t_\ell$. There exists a unique polynomial $f \in \mathbb{K}[z]$ of degree $< d$ satisfying*

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}^i f}{\mathrm{d}z^i}(\gamma_j) = \eta_{ij}, \qquad (1 \leq j \leq \ell,\ 0 \leq i \leq t_j - 1). \tag{6}$$

For $j = 1, \ldots, \ell$, define

$$h_j(z) = \prod_{\substack{1 \leq k \leq \ell \\ k \neq j}} \left(\frac{z - \gamma_k}{\gamma_j - \gamma_k} \right)^{t_k} \qquad \textit{and} \qquad p_j(z) = \sum_{i=0}^{t_j - 1} \eta_{ij} \frac{(z-\gamma_j)^i}{i!}.$$

Then the solution f of the interpolation problem (6) *is given by*

$$f = \sum_{j=1}^{\ell} h_j T_{\frac{p_j}{h_j}, \gamma_j, t_j}. \tag{7}$$

Proof. The conditions (6) can be written

$$T_{f,\gamma_k,t_k} = p_k \quad \text{for} \quad k = 1, \ldots, \ell.$$

The unicity is clear: the difference between two solutions is a polynomial of degree $< d$ which vanishes at d points (including multiplicity), hence is the zero polynomial.

Since $h_j(\gamma_j) = 1$, the quantity $q_j = T_{\frac{p_j}{h_j}, \gamma_j, t_j}$ is well defined and is a polynomial of degree $< t_j$. Since h_j is a polynomial of degree $d - t_j$, the polynomial f in (7), namely

$$f = h_1 q_1 + \cdots + h_\ell q_\ell,$$

is a polynomial of degree $< d$. Let us prove that this polynomial f verifies the equalities in (6). For $1 \leq k \neq j \leq \ell$ and $0 \leq i \leq t_k - 1$, we have

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}^i h_j}{\mathrm{d}z^i}(\gamma_k) = 0,$$

and therefore also

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}^i (h_j q_j)}{\mathrm{d}z^i}(\gamma_k) = 0.$$

Hence, for the function f given by (7) and for $1 \leq k \leq \ell$, $0 \leq i \leq t_k - 1$, we have

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}^i f}{\mathrm{d}z^i}(\gamma_k) = \frac{\mathrm{d}^i (h_k q_k)}{\mathrm{d}z^i}(\gamma_k).$$

In other words, for $1 \leq k \leq \ell$, we have

$$T_{f,\gamma_k,t_k} = T_{h_k q_k,\gamma_k,t_k}.$$

By definition of T, the function $q_k - \dfrac{p_k}{h_k}$ has a zero of multiplicity $\geq t_k$ at γ_k, hence the same is true for the function $h_k q_k - p_k$. Therefore, for any $k \in \{1, \ldots, \ell\}$, we have

$$T_{h_k q_k,\gamma_k,t_k} = p_k,$$

whereupon, $T_{f,\gamma_k,t_k} = p_k$. This completes the proof. □

The Lagrange–Hermite interpolation formula [3] deals with this question when $\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{C}$ and when the values η_{ij} are of the form

$$\eta_{ij} = \frac{\mathrm{d}^i F}{\mathrm{d}z^i}(\gamma_j) \qquad (1 \leq j \leq \ell,\ 0 \leq i \leq t_j - 1)$$

for a function F which is analytic in a domain containing the points $\gamma_1, \ldots, \gamma_\ell$.

Proposition 2. *Let D be a domain in $\mathbb{C}$, F an analytic function in D, $\gamma_1, \ldots, \gamma_\ell$ distinct points in D and Γ a simple curve inside which the points $\gamma_1, \ldots, \gamma_\ell$ are located. Then the unique polynomial $f \in \mathbb{C}[z]$ of degree $< d$ satisfying*

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}^i f}{\mathrm{d}z^i}(\gamma_j) = \frac{\mathrm{d}^i F}{\mathrm{d}z^i}(\gamma_j), \qquad (1 \leq j \leq \ell,\ 0 \leq i \leq t_j - 1)$$

is given, for z inside Γ, by

$$f(z) = F(z) + \frac{1}{2i\pi} \int_\Gamma \Phi(\zeta) d\zeta$$

with

$$\Phi(\zeta) = \frac{F(\zeta)}{z-\zeta} \prod_{j=1}^{\ell} \left(\frac{z-\gamma_j}{\zeta-\gamma_j} \right)^{t_j}.$$

Proof. The residue at $\zeta = z$ of $\Phi(\zeta)$ is $-F(z)$. Under the assumptions of Proposition 2 and with the notations of Proposition 1, we have

$$p_j = T_{F,\gamma_j,t_j}.$$

It remains to show that for $1 \le j \le \ell$, the residue at $\zeta = \gamma_j$ of $\Phi(\zeta)$ is

$$h_j(z) T_{\frac{p_j}{h_j},\gamma_j,t_j}(z).$$

We first notice that for $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $t \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $t \ge 0$, the residue at $\zeta = 0$ of

$$\zeta^m \left(\frac{z}{\zeta} \right)^t \frac{1}{z-\zeta}$$

is z^m for $m \le t-1$ and $z \ne 0$, and is 0 otherwise, namely for $z = 0$ as well as for $m \ge t$. Therefore, when $\varphi(\zeta)$ is analytic at $\zeta = \gamma$, the residue at $\zeta = \gamma$ of

$$\varphi(\zeta) \left(\frac{z-\gamma}{\zeta-\gamma} \right)^t \frac{1}{z-\zeta}$$

is $T_{\varphi,\gamma,t}(z)$. Since

$$\Phi(\zeta) = \frac{F(\zeta)}{z-\zeta} \left(\frac{z-\gamma_j}{\zeta-\gamma_j} \right)^{t_j} \frac{h_j(z)}{h_j(\zeta)},$$

and since $h_j(\gamma_j) \ne 0$, the residue at $\zeta = \gamma_j$ of $\Phi(\zeta)$ is

$$h_j(z) T_{\frac{F}{h_j},\gamma_j,t_j}(z).$$

Finally, we notice that when φ_1 and φ_2 are analytic at γ, then $T_{\varphi_1\varphi_2,\gamma,t} = T_{\widetilde{\varphi}_1\varphi_2,\gamma,t}$ with $\widetilde{\varphi}_1 = T_{\varphi_1,\gamma,t}$. This final remark with $\gamma = \gamma_j$, $t = t_j$, $\varphi_1 = F$, $\widetilde{\varphi}_1 = p_j$, $\varphi_2 = 1/h_j$ completes the proof.

□

There are other formulae for the solution to the interpolation problem (6). For instance, writing t_j times each γ_j, one gets a sequence $z_1, \dots, z_d$, and the so–called *Newton's divided differences interpolation polynomials* give formulae for the coefficients $c_0, \dots, c_{d-1}$ in

$$f(z) = c_0 + c_1(z-z_1) + c_2(z-z_1)(z-z_2) + \cdots + c_{d-1}(z-z_1)(z-z_2)\cdots(z-z_{d-1}).$$

2.4 Polynomial combinations of powers.

From the preceding sections, we deduce that the linear recurrence sequences over an algebraically closed field of characteristic 0 are in bijection with the linear combinations of the powers γ_j^a $(1 \le j \le \ell)$ with polynomial coefficients of the form

$$u(a) = \sum_{j=1}^{\ell} \sum_{i=0}^{t_j-1} v_{ij} a^i \gamma_j^a \qquad (a \in \mathbb{Z}). \tag{8}$$

The piece of data $\mathbf{c} = (c_1, \dots, c_d) \in \mathbb{K}^d$ is equivalent to being given ℓ distinct nonzero complex numbers $\gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_\ell$ and ℓ positive integers $t_1, \dots, t_\ell$ together with the property that

$$T^d - c_1 T^{d-1} - \cdots - c_{d-1} T - c_d = \prod_{j=1}^{\ell} (T - \gamma_j)^{t_j}$$

with $d = t_1 + \cdots + t_\ell$.

A change of basis for $\mathbb{K}^d$, involving the transition matrix

$$\left(a^i \gamma_j^a\right)_{\substack{0 \le a \le d-1 \\ 1 \le j \le \ell, 0 \le i \le t_j - 1}},$$

allows to switch from the initial conditions $u(a)$ for $0 \le a \le d-1$ to the d coefficients v_{ij} of (8).

Since

$$\frac{1}{1 - \gamma_j z} = \sum_{a \ge 0} (\gamma_j z)^a$$

and

$$\left(z \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}z}\right)^i (\gamma_j z)^a = a^i (\gamma_j z)^a,$$

the generating function of the sequence $\big(u(a)\big)_{a \in \mathbb{Z}}$ given by (8) is

$$U(z) = \sum_{a \ge 0} u(a) z^a = \sum_{j=1}^{\ell} \sum_{i=0}^{t_j-1} v_{ij} \left(z \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}z}\right)^i \left(\frac{1}{1 - \gamma_j z}\right),$$

which is a rational fraction with denominator $\displaystyle\prod_{j=1}^{\ell} (1 - \gamma_j z)^{t_j}$, as expected.

2.5 The ring of linear recurrence sequences.

A sum and a product of two polynomial combinations of powers is still a polynomial combination of powers. If U_1 and U_2 are two linear recurrence sequences of characteristic polynomials P_1 and P_2 respectively, then U_1+U_2 satisfies the linear recurrence, the characteristic polynomial of which is

$$\frac{P_1P_2}{\gcd(P_1,P_2)}\cdot$$

Consequently, the union of all vector spaces $E_{\mathbf{c}}$, with $\mathbf{c}$ running through the set of d–tuples $(c_1,\ldots,c_d)\in\mathbb{K}^d$ subject to $c_d\neq 0$, and d running through the set of integers ≥ 1, is still a vector subspace of $\mathbb{K}^{\mathbb{Z}}$.

Moreover, if the characteristic polynomials of the two linear recurrence sequences U_1 and U_2 are respectively

$$P_1(T)=\prod_{j=1}^{\ell}(T-\gamma_j)^{t_j}\quad\text{and}\quad P_2(T)=\prod_{k=1}^{\ell'}(T-\gamma'_k)^{t'_k},$$

then U_1U_2 satisfies the linear recurrence, the characteristic polynomial of which is

$$\prod_{j=1}^{\ell}\prod_{k=1}^{\ell'}(T-\gamma_j\gamma'_k)^{t_j+t'_k-1}.$$

As a consequence, the linear recurrence sequences form a ring.

2.6 Non homogeneous linear recurrence sequences

Let us suppose now that a factorisation of the characteristic polynomial $P(T)$ of a linear recurrence relation is of the form $P=QR$, with R completely decomposed in $\mathbb{K}[T]$. Let us write

$$P(T)=T^d-\sum_{i=1}^{d}c_iT^{d-i},\quad Q(T)=T^m-\sum_{i=1}^{m}b_iT^{m-i},\quad R(T)=\prod_{j=1}^{\ell}(T-\gamma_j)^{t_j}.$$

Hence $d=m+t_1+\cdots+t_\ell$. Then the elements of $E_{\mathbf{c}}$ are the sequences $\bigl(u(a)\bigr)_{a\in\mathbb{Z}}$ for which there exist $d-m$ elements

$$\lambda_{ij}\qquad(1\leq j\leq \ell,\quad 0\leq i\leq t_j-1)$$

in $\mathbb{K}$ such that

$$u(a+m) = b_1 u(a+m-1) + \cdots + b_m u(a) + \sum_{j=1}^{\ell} \sum_{i=0}^{t_j-1} \lambda_{ij} a^i \gamma_j^a. \qquad (9)$$

In order to define an element $\bigl(u(a)\bigr)_{a\in\mathbb{Z}}$ of $E_{\mathbf{c}}$ by using the homogenous recurrence relation in (3), we have to give d initial values, for instance $u(0), \ldots, u(d-1)$. In order to define this sequence by using the non homogeneous recurrence relation (9), it is sufficient to have m initial conditions, say $u(0), \ldots, u(m-1)$, but we also have to know the elements λ_{ij} for $1 \le j \le \ell$ and $0 \le i \le t_j - 1$ (which altogether are d conditions, as is required in a vector space of dimension d).

Consider the transition matrix associated to the change of basis, allowing to switch from the initial conditions

$$u(a) \;\text{ for }\; 0 \le a \le d-1$$

to the initial conditions

$$u(a) \;\text{ for }\; 0 \le a \le m-1 \;\text{ and }\; \lambda_{ij} \;\text{ for }\; 1 \le j \le \ell \;\text{ and }\; 0 \le i \le t_j - 1.$$

It is a matrix which has only a diagonal of two blocks,

$$\begin{pmatrix} I_m & 0 \\ 0 & A \end{pmatrix} \qquad \text{with} \qquad A = \begin{pmatrix} A_1 \\ \vdots \\ A_\ell \end{pmatrix}.$$

The first block I_m is the $m \times m$ identity matrix. The second block A is a generalized Vandermonde matrix similar to the matrix in (4) made of the blocks $A_1, \ldots, A_\ell$ described in (5).

A particular case is the trivial one when $P = Q$, $m = d$ and $R = 1$. Another one is when $P = R$, $Q = 1$ and $m = 0$, which corresponds to the case studied in Section 2.2.

Example. Let us consider

$$P(T) = (T-\gamma)^2, \quad Q(T) = R(T) = T - \gamma.$$

There are three ways of defining an element $\bigl(u(a)\bigr)_{a\in\mathbb{Z}}$ of the vector space $E_{\mathbf{c}}$ when $\mathbf{c} = (2, -1)$. The first one is to mention that the sequence satisfies the binary linear recurrence relation

$$u(a+2) = 2u(a+1) - u(a) \quad (a \in \mathbb{Z})$$

and give two initial values, for, say $u(0)$ and $u(1)$. The second one is to write

$$u(a) = (\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 a)\gamma^a \quad (a \in \mathbb{Z})$$

and give the values of λ_1 and λ_2. The third one is in-between the previous ones; one writes that the sequence satisfies

$$u(a+1) = \gamma u(a) + \lambda\gamma^a \quad (a \in \mathbb{Z})$$

while providing an initial value, for, say $u(0)$, and the value of λ.

2.7 Exponential polynomials

The sequence of derivatives of an exponential polynomial evaluated at one point satisfies a linear recurrence relation. This allows us to deduce the following well known result (Ch. I, §7 of [12]).

Lemma 1. *Let $a_1(z), \dots, a_\ell(z)$ be nonzero polynomials of $\mathbb{C}[z]$ of degrees smaller than $t_1, \dots, t_\ell$ respectively. Let $\gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_\ell$ be distinct complex numbers. Let us suppose that the function*

$$F(z) = a_1(z)e^{\gamma_1 z} + \cdots + a_\ell(z)e^{\gamma_\ell z}$$

is not identically 0. Then its vanishing order at a point z_0 is smaller than or equal to $t_1 + \cdots + t_\ell - 1$.

Proof. Define $d = t_1 + \cdots + t_\ell$. We give two proofs of Lemma 1. A short one by induction on d is as follows. For $d = 1$ we have $\ell = 1$ and F has no zero. Assume $\ell \geq 2$. Without loss of generality we may assume $\gamma_1 = 0$. If F has a zero of multiplicity $\geq T_0$ at z_0, then $F(z) - a_1(z)$ has a zero of multiplicity $\geq T_0 - t_1$ at z_0. The result follows.

Our second proof relates Lemma 1 with linear recurrence sequences. We now assume $\gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_\ell$ all nonzero, as we may without loss of generality. Write the Taylor expansion of $F(z + z_0)$ at $z = 0$:

$$F(z + z_0) = \sum_{a \geq 0} \frac{u(a)}{a!} z^a.$$

Let us show that the sequence $(u(0), u(1), \dots, u(a), \dots)$ satisfies a linear recurrence relation of order $\leq d$. Define $a_{ij} \in \mathbb{C}$ by

$$a_j(z + z_0)e^{\gamma_j z_0} = \sum_{i=0}^{t_j - 1} a_{ij} z^i \quad (1 \leq j \leq \ell),$$

so that

$$F(z+z_0)=\sum_{j=1}^{\ell}\sum_{i=0}^{t_j-1} a_{ij}z^i e^{\gamma_j z}.$$

Since $\gamma_j \neq 0$ for $j=1,\ldots,\ell$,

$$u(a)=\sum_{j=1}^{\ell}\sum_{i=0}^{t_j-1} a_{ij}a(a-1)\cdots(a-i+1)\gamma_j^{a-i}$$

has the same form as in (8). Therefore the sequence $\bigl(u(a)\bigr)_{a\in\mathbb{Z}}$ satisfies a linear recurrence relation of order $\le d$. It follows that the conditions

$$u(0)=\cdots=u(d-1)=0$$

imply $u(a)=0$ for any $a\ge 0$. $\square$

We can state this lemma in the following way: When the complex numbers γ_j are distinct, the determinant

$$\left|\left(\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}z}\right)^a \left(z^i e^{\gamma_j z}\right)_{z=0}\right|_{\substack{0\le i\le t_j-1,\ 1\le j\le \ell\\ 0\le a\le d-1}}$$

is different from 0. This is no surprise that we come across the determinant of the matrix (4).

3 Families of binary forms

The equations (1) and (2) give, for $1\le h\le d$ and $a\in\mathbb{Z}$,

$$U_h(a)=\sum_{1\le i_1<\cdots<i_h\le d}\alpha_{i_1}\cdots\alpha_{i_h}(\epsilon_{i_1}\cdots\epsilon_{i_h})^a. \tag{10}$$

For example, for $a\in\mathbb{Z}$,

$$U_1(a)=\sum_{i=1}^{d}\alpha_i\epsilon_i^a,\quad U_d(a)=\prod_{i=1}^{d}\alpha_i\epsilon_i^a.$$

The relations (10) show that for $1\le h\le d$, the sequence $\bigl(U_h(a)\bigr)_{a\in\mathbb{Z}}$ is a linear combination of the sequences

$$\bigl((\epsilon_{i_1}\cdots\epsilon_{i_h})^a\bigr)_{a\in\mathbb{Z}},\quad (1\le i_1<\cdots<i_h\le d).$$

For $1 \leq h \leq d$, consider the set

$$\mathcal{E}_h = \{\epsilon_{i_1} \cdots \epsilon_{i_h} \mid 1 \leq i_1 < \cdots < i_h \leq d\}$$

and note m_h its cardinality. The elements of $\mathcal{E}_h$ are values of monomials in m_1 variables of degree h. The map from $\mathcal{E}_h$ to $\mathcal{E}_{d-h}$ defined by

$$\eta \mapsto \epsilon_1 \cdots \epsilon_d \eta^{-1}$$

is a bijection and we have

$$m_h = m_{d-h} \leq \min \left\{ \binom{d}{h}, \binom{m_1 + h - 1}{h}, \binom{m_1 + d - h - 1}{d - h} \right\}.$$

The sequence $\bigl(U_h(a)\bigr)_{a \in \mathbb{Z}}$ satisfies the linear recurrence relation of order m_h with the characteristic polynomial

$$\prod_{\eta \in \mathcal{E}_h} (T - \eta).$$

This polynomial is also written as

$$\prod_{\eta \in \mathcal{E}_{d-h}} (T - \epsilon_1 \cdots \epsilon_d \eta^{-1}),$$

which is matching (10) via

$$U_h(a) = U_d(a) \sum_{1 \leq j_1 < \cdots < j_{d-h} \leq d} (\alpha_{j_1} \cdots \alpha_{j_{d-h}})^{-1} (\epsilon_{j_1} \cdots \epsilon_{j_{d-h}})^{-a}.$$

For example, the sequence $\bigl(U_{d-1}(a)\bigr)_{a \in \mathbb{Z}}$ satisfies the linear recurrence relation of order d, the characteristic polynomial of which is

$$\prod_{i=1}^{d} (T - \epsilon_1 \cdots \epsilon_d \epsilon_i^{-1}) = (T - \epsilon_2 \cdots \epsilon_d)(T - \epsilon_1 \epsilon_3 \cdots \epsilon_d) \cdots (T - \epsilon_1 \cdots \epsilon_{d-1}).$$

The case $\epsilon_1 = \ldots = \epsilon_d$ is trivial: we have

$$U_h(a) = \epsilon_1^a U_h(0) = (-1)^h a_h \epsilon_1^a,$$

and each of the sequences $\bigl(U_h(a)\bigr)_{a \in \mathbb{Z}}$ satisfies

$$U_h(a+1) = \epsilon_1 U_h(a).$$

Let us consider the example

$$\epsilon_1 = \ldots = \epsilon_\ell = \epsilon, \quad \epsilon_{\ell+1} = \ldots = \epsilon_d = \eta,$$

with ϵ and η being two distinct complex numbers. We have

$$\mathcal{E}_1 = \{\epsilon, \eta\}, \qquad \mathcal{E}_{d-1} = \{\epsilon^{\ell-1}\eta^{d-\ell}, \epsilon^\ell \eta^{d-\ell-1}\}$$

and

$$\mathcal{E}_2 = \{\epsilon^2, \epsilon\eta, \eta^2\}, \quad \mathcal{E}_{d-2} = \{\epsilon^{\ell-2}\eta^{d-\ell}, \epsilon^{\ell-1}\eta^{d-\ell-1}, \epsilon^\ell \eta^{d-\ell-2}\}.$$

The sequence $\big(U_1(a)\big)_{a\in\mathbb{Z}}$ satisfies the binary recurrence relation, the characteristic polynomial of which is

$$(T-\epsilon)(T-\eta);$$

the sequence $\big(U_{d-1}(a)\big)_{a\in\mathbb{Z}}$ satisfies the binary recurrence relation, the characteristic polynomial of which is

$$(T-\epsilon^{\ell-1}\eta^{d-\ell})(T-\epsilon^\ell\eta^{d-\ell-1}),$$

while the sequence $\big(U_2(a)\big)_{a\in\mathbb{Z}}$ satisfies the ternary recurrence relation, the characteristic polynomial of which is

$$(T-\epsilon^2)(T-\eta^2)(T-\epsilon\eta).$$

In particular, if one writes

$$(T-\epsilon^2)(T-\eta^2) = T^2 - AT - B,$$

then there exists a constant $C \in \mathbb{C}$ such that, for any $a \in \mathbb{Z}$, one has

$$U_2(a+2) = AU_2(a+1) + BU_2(a) + C(\epsilon\eta)^a.$$

Finally, the sequence $\big(U_{d-2}(a)\big)_{a\in\mathbb{Z}}$ satisfies the ternary recurrence relation, the characteristic polynomial of which is

$$(T-\epsilon^{\ell-2}\eta^{d-\ell})(T-\epsilon^{\ell-1}\eta^{d-\ell-1})(T-\epsilon^\ell\eta^{d-\ell-2}).$$

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