

SEQUENCES OF INTEGERS SATISFYING RECURRENCE RELATIONS

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Let us consider the recurrence relation

$$(1) \quad n^3 u_n - (34n^3 - 51n^2 + 27n - 5)u_{n-1} + (n-1)^3 u_{n-2} = 0.$$

Apery has proved that for $(u_0, u_1) = (1, 5)$ all of the u_n 's are integers, and it is proved in [1] and [2] that, if all the numbers of a sequence satisfying (1) are integers, then $(u_0, u_1) = \lambda(1, 5)$, where λ is an integer. We give here a generalization of this result, with a simple proof, and applications to Apery's numbers as well as to the recurrence relation

$$(2) \quad L_{n-1} F_n u_n - 5 F_n F_{n-1} F_{2n-1} u_{n-1} - F_{n-1} L_n u_{n-2} = 0,$$

where F_n, L_n are the usual Fibonacci and Lucas numbers.

1. The Main Result

Let $\{a_n\}, \{b_n\}$ be two sequences of rational numbers with $\{u_n\}$ the sequence defined by (u_0, u_1) and the recurrence relation

$$(3) \quad u_n = a_n u_{n-1} + b_n u_{n-2}, \quad n \geq 2.$$

We then have two results.

Theorem 1: Suppose that

$$(4) \quad a) \quad \text{For all integers } n \geq 2, \quad b_n \neq 0.$$

$$(5) \quad b) \quad \text{There exists a real number } P \text{ such that } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \prod_{k=2}^n |b_k| = P.$$

Then the recurrence relation (3) has two linearly independent integer solutions only if $|b_n| = 1$ for all large n .

Theorem 2: Suppose that

$$(6) \quad a) \quad \text{For all } n \geq 2, \quad b_n \neq 0 \text{ and } |b_n| = 1 \text{ for all large } n.$$

$$(7) \quad b) \quad \text{For all } n \geq 2, \quad a_n \neq 0 \text{ and } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |a_n| = a.$$

Then relation (3) has two linearly independent integer solutions only if $a_n = a$ for all large n , where a is an integer different from zero.

Remark: Recall that two sequences $\{p_n\}$ and $\{q_n\}$ are linearly dependent if two numbers (λ, μ) exist (not both zero) such that, for all n ,

$$\lambda p_n + \mu q_n = 0.$$

In the other case, the sequences are linearly independent. It is easy to prove that $\{p_n\}$ and $\{q_n\}$, when satisfying (3), are linearly dependent if and only if

$$(8) \quad p_0 q_1 - p_1 q_0 = 0.$$

2. Proof of Theorem 1

Let us suppose that $\{p_n\}$ and $\{q_n\}$ are two independent integer solutions of (3) and define the sequence Δ_n by

$$(9) \quad \Delta_n = p_{n-1} q_n - p_n q_{n-1}, \quad n \geq 1.$$

It is easily proved that

$$(10) \quad \Delta_n = -b_n \Delta_{n-1}, \quad n \geq 2.$$

Hence,

$$(11) \quad \Delta_n = (-1)^{n-1} b_2 \dots b_n \Delta_1, \quad n \geq 2.$$

By the Remark above, $\Delta_1 = p_0 q_1 - p_1 q_0 \neq 0$, and by (5) we have

$$(12) \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |\Delta_n| = |\Delta_1| P;$$

thus, the sequence of integers $|\Delta_n|$ converges and we deduce from (12) that

$$(13) \quad |\Delta_n| = |\Delta_1| P, \quad \text{for all large } n.$$

By (11) we have $\Delta_n \neq 0$ for all n (since $b_n \neq 0$ and $\Delta_1 \neq 0$). Hence, (13) shows that $P \neq 0$. By (10) we have

$$1 = \frac{|\Delta_n|}{|\Delta_{n-1}|} = |b_n|, \quad \text{for all large } n.$$

This concludes the proof of Theorem 1.

3. Proof of Theorem 2

Suppose that $\{p_n\}$ and $\{q_n\}$ are two independent integer solutions of (3) and define the sequence D_n of integers by

$$D_n = p_{n-2} q_n - p_n q_{n-2}, \quad n \geq 2.$$

It is obvious that

$$(14) \quad D_n = \alpha_n \Delta_{n-1}, \quad n \geq 2.$$

However, by (6) we have, for n large, since $|b_n| = 1$,

$$|\Delta_n| = |\Delta_1| P \neq 0.$$

Hence,

$$(15) \quad |D_n| = |\alpha_n| |\Delta_1| P \neq 0, \quad \text{for all large } n,$$

and by (7),

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |D_n| = a |\Delta_1| P.$$

Thus, for all large n ,

$$(16) \quad |D_n| = a |\Delta_1| P.$$

Note that $a \neq 0$, since $D_n \neq 0$, and that a is a rational number by (16). Comparison of (15) and (16) shows that

$$|\alpha_n| = a, \quad \text{for all large } n.$$

Let us now write $a = p/q$, where p and q are relatively prime integers. Without loss of generality, we can assume that

$$(17) \quad u_n = \pm \frac{p}{q} u_{n-1} \pm u_{n-2}, \quad \text{for } n \geq 2.$$

Consider the solution $\{v_n\}$ of (17) defined by the initial values $(0, 1)$. Note that $\Delta_1 v_n$ is an integer, namely,

$$\Delta_1 v_n = -q_0 p_n + p_0 q_n.$$

The relation

$$\Delta_1 v_n = \pm \frac{p}{q} \Delta_1 v_{n-1} \pm \Delta_1 v_{n-2}$$

shows that

$$q|\Delta_1 v_{n-1}|, \text{ for } n \geq 2.$$

By mathematical induction, it is easy to prove that for all integers $m \geq 1$ and $n \geq 1$, $q^m|\Delta_1 v_n|$. Therefore, $q = 1$, and a is an integer.

4. Application

Suppose that $|b_n| = C_{n-1}/C_n$, with $C_n \neq 0$ for all n , $C_n \neq C_{n-1}$, and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} C_n = C$.

We can then write

$$\prod_{k=2}^n |b_k| = \frac{C_1}{C_n}, \text{ so that } P = \frac{C_1}{C}.$$

By Theorem 1, the sequence (3) cannot have two linearly independent solutions, since $|b_n| \neq 1$.

This result can be applied to (1) with $C_n = n^3$, and also to the recurrences

$$(18) \quad nu_n - (2m + 1)(2n - 1)u_{n-1} + (n - 1)u_{n-2} = 0,$$

and

$$(19) \quad n^2u_n - (11n^2 - 11n + 3)u_{n-1} - (n - 1)^2u_{n-2} = 0,$$

with $C_n = n$ in (18), $C_n = n^2$ in (19). Note that (18) and (19) admit integer solutions defined by the initial values (1, $2m + 1$) [resp. (1, 3)]. The integer solution of (18) is simply $u_n = P_n(-m)$, where

$$P_n(x) = \frac{1}{n!} \frac{d^n}{dx^n} [x^n(1 - x)^n] = \prod_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} \binom{n+k}{k} (-1)^k x^k$$

is the n^{th} Legendre polynomial over $[0, 1]$ (see [3] for another proof). Equations (1) and (19) appear in Apéry's proof of the irrationality of $\zeta(3)$ and $\zeta(2)$.

Now, let us consider recurrence (2), in which we have

$$b_n = \frac{F_{n-1}L_n}{L_{n-1}F_n}.$$

Then

$$\prod_{k=2}^n b_k = \frac{L_n}{F_n} \quad \text{and} \quad P = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{L_n}{F_n} = \sqrt{5}.$$

By Theorem 1, the sequence (2) cannot have two linearly independent integer solutions. It will be shown below (and in [4]) that the solution $\{q_n\}$ defined by the initial values (1, 0) is an integer sequence. On the other hand, the solution $\{p_n\}$ defined by the initial values (0, 1) cannot be an integer sequence. Let us write the first few values of these two sequences in order to see this. They are:

n	0	1	2	3	4	5	...
p_n	0	1	10	84	$\frac{8225}{3}$	$\frac{999146}{5}$...
q_n	1	0	3	25	816	59475	...

It can also be shown that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{p_n}{q_n} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{F_k} = 3.35988566624\dots$$

Notice how quickly p_n/q_n converges. We have

$$\frac{p_4}{q_4} = 3.3598856\dots \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{p_5}{q_5} = 3.35988566624\dots$$

One can deduce from this that $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (1/F_k)$ is irrational (see [4]).

5. Generalization

Consider the recurring sequence defined by u_0, \dots, u_{r-1} and

$$(20) \quad u_n = a_n^1 u_{n-1} + a_n^2 u_{n-2} + \dots + a_n^r u_{n-r}, \quad n \geq r,$$

where r is a strictly positive integer, and where $\{a_n^1\}, \dots, \{a_n^r\}$ are sequences of rational numbers. By analogy with Theorem 1, we have the following result.

Theorem 1': Suppose that

- (a) For all $n \geq r$, $a_n^r \neq 0$.
- (b) There exists a number P such that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \prod_{k=r}^n |a_k^r| = P$.

Then (20) has r linearly independent integer solutions only if $|a_n^r| = 1$ for all large n .

Proof: Suppose that $\{p_n^1\}, \dots, \{p_n^r\}$ are r linearly independent integer sequence solutions of (20) and define the sequence Δ_n of integers by $r \times r$ determinant

$$\Delta_n = \begin{vmatrix} p_{n-r+j}^1 & \dots & p_{n-r+j}^r \\ 1 \leq i \leq r \\ 1 \leq j \leq r \end{vmatrix}, \quad n \geq r-1.$$

It is easily proved that $\Delta_n = (-1)^{r-1} a_n^r \Delta_{n-1}$. Hence,

$$|\Delta_n| = |\Delta_{r-1}| \prod_{k=r}^n |a_k^r|, \quad n \geq r.$$

We have $\Delta_{r-1} \neq 0$, since the $\{p_n^i\}$'s are independent, and the end of the proof is as in Theorem 1.

The reader can also find a theorem analogous to Theorem 2.

References

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