

Periodic sequences of a certain kind of progressions

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Abstract. A few progressions and their periodic sequences.

Keywords. periodic sequence, progression, prime number, Fermat's little theorem

0. Introduction.

We define some progressions, and study their periodic sequences to find the rule related to them.

1. Periodicity of a progression(1).

Now we define a progression as follows.

Let k and n be also a positive integer more than 1, then

$$\begin{aligned} a_{n,k} &= 1 && \text{(when } n = 1) \\ &= (a_{n-1,k} + n)^{k-1} \pmod{k} && \text{(when } n > 1) \end{aligned}$$

One by one we survey the shortest periods of the progressions of this kind, for some cases of k .

(e.g.) When $k=2$, then $\{a_{n,2}\} = \{1, 1, 0, 0, 1, 1, 0, 0, 1, 1, \dots\}$.

This progression seems periodic and its shortest period is assumed 4.

When $k=3$, then $\{a_{n,3}\} = \{1, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 1, \dots\}$.

This progression seems periodic and its shortest period is assumed 3.

When $k=4$, then $\{a_{n,4}\} = \{1, 3, 0, 0, 1, 3, 0, 0, 1, 3, 0, \dots\}$.

This progression seems periodic and its shortest period is assumed 4.

Periodicity of progressions is easily found for now (See Table 1).

Table 1: (A.S.P. means the assumed shortest period.)

k / n	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	A.S.P.
2	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	4
3	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	3
4	1	3	0	0	1	3	0	0	1	3	0	0	1	3	4
5	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	5
6	1	3	0	4	3	3	4	0	3	1	0	0	6	1	12
7	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	7
8	1	3	0	0	5	3	0	0	1	3	0	0	5	3	8
9	1	0	0	7	0	0	4	0	0	1	0	0	7	0	9

Theorem 1

Let l be a positive integer. If $a_{n,k}=a_{n+l,k}$ and $k|l$ (i.e. l is divisible by k .) for the above-mentioned progression $\{a_{n,k}\}$, then $\{a_{n,k}\}$ has a period equal to l .

Proof.

We will prove deductively, that if $a_{n+m,k}=a_{n+m+l,k}$ then $a_{n+m+1,k}=a_{n+m+l+1,k}$ where m is a non-negative integer.

When $m=0$ evidently $a_{n,k}=a_{n+l,k}$.

Furthermore if $a_{n+m,k}=a_{n+m+l,k}$ then $a_{n+m+1,k} \equiv (a_{n+m,k} + n + m + 1)^{k-1} \pmod{k} \equiv (a_{n+m+l,k} + n + m + 1 + l)^{k-1} \pmod{k} = a_{n+m+l+1,k}$, for $l \equiv 0 \pmod{k}$.

This completes Theorem 1. □

Theorem 2

Suppose k is a prime number larger than 2.

If $n \equiv 0$ or $n \equiv k-1 \pmod{k}$ then $a_{n,k}=0$, otherwise $a_{n,k}=1$.

Proof.

When $k=3$ then $a_{1,3}=1$, $a_{2,3}=(a_{1,3}+2)^2 \pmod{3}=0$, $a_{3,3}=(a_{2,3}+3)^2 \pmod{3}=9 \pmod{3}=0$, $a_{4,3}=(a_{3,3}+4)^2 \pmod{3}=1 \pmod{3}=1$.

Therefore $a_{1,3}=1=a_{4,3}$, so 3 is a period of this progression.

This completes Theorem 2 for $k=3$.

When k is larger than 3 then, applying Fermat's little theorem[1], $a_{1,k}=1$, $a_{2,k}=(a_{1,k}+2)^{k-1} \pmod{k}=3^{k-1} \pmod{k}=1$, $a_{3,k}=(a_{2,k}+3)^{k-1} \pmod{k}=4^{k-1} \pmod{k}=1, \dots, a_{k-1,k}=(a_{k-2,k}+k-1)^2 \pmod{k}=0 \pmod{k}=0, \dots, a_{k,k}=(a_{k-1,k}+k)^2 \pmod{k}=0 \pmod{k}=0$.

Also $a_{k+1,k}=(a_{k,k}+k+1)^2(\text{mod } k)=1(\text{mod } k)=1$, so k is a period of this progression.

This completes Theorem 2 for k is larger than 3. □

2. Periodicity of a progression(2).

Now we define another progression as follows.

Let k and n be also a positive integer more than 1, then

$$\begin{aligned} b_{n,k} &= 1 && \text{(when } n = 1) \\ &= (b_{n-1,k}-n)^{k-1} \pmod{k} && \text{(when } n > 1) \end{aligned}$$

Periodicity of progressions is easily found for now (See Table 2).

Table 2: (A.S.P. means the assumed shortest period.)

k / n	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	A.S.P.
2	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	4
3	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	3 ^(*)
4	1	3	0	0	3	1	0	0	3	1	0	0	3	1	0	4 ^(*)
5	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	5 ^(*)
6	1	5	2	4	5	5	4	2	5	1	2	2	1	5	2	12
7	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	7 ^(*)

Theorem 3

Let l be a positive integer. If $b_{n,k}=b_{n+l,k}$ and $k|l$ (i.e. l is divisible by k) for the above-mentioned progression $\{b_{n,k}\}$, then $\{b_{n,k}\}$ has a period equal to l .

Proof.

We will prove deductively, that if $b_{n+m,k}=b_{n+m+l,k}$ then $b_{n+m+1,k}=b_{n+m+1+l,k}$ where m is a non-negative integer.

When $m=0$ evidently $b_{n,k}=b_{n+l,k}$.

Furthermore if $b_{n+m,k}=b_{n+m+l,k}$ then $b_{n+m+1,k} \equiv (b_{n+m,k}-n-m-1)^{k-1} \pmod{k} \equiv (b_{n+m+1,k}-n-m-1)^{k-1} \pmod{k} = b_{n+m+1+l,k}$, for $l \equiv 0 \pmod{k}$.

This completes Theorem 3 similarly as Theorem 1. □

references

- [1] Patrick St-Amant, International Journal of Algebra, Vol. 4, 2010, no. 17-20, 959-994