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# THE QUOTIENT SET OF $\boldsymbol{k}$-GENERALIZED FIBONACCI NUMBERS IS DENSE IN $\mathbb{Q}_{p}$ 

CARLO SANNA


#### Abstract

The quotient set of $A \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ is defined as $R(A):=\{a / b: a, b \in A, b \neq 0\}$. Using algebraic number theory in $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{5})$, Garcia and Luca proved that the quotient set of Fibonacci numbers is dense in the $p$-adic numbers $\mathbb{Q}_{p}$, for all prime numbers $p$. For any integer $k \geq 2$, let $\left(F_{n}^{(k)}\right)_{n \geq-(k-2)}$ be the sequence of $k$-generalized Fibonacci numbers, defined by the initial values $0,0, \ldots, 0,1$ ( $k$ terms) and such that each term afterwards is the sum of the $k$ preceding terms. We use $p$-adic analysis to generalize Garcia and Luca's result, by proving that the quotient set of $k$-generalized Fibonacci numbers is dense in $\mathbb{Q}_{p}$, for any integer $k \geq 2$ and any prime number $p$.


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## 1. Introduction

Given a set of nonnegative integers $A$, the quotient set of $A$ is defined as

$$
R(A):=\{a / b: a, b \in A, b \neq 0\} .
$$

The question of when $R(A)$ is dense in $\mathbb{R}^{+}$is a classical topic and has been studied by many researchers. Strauch and Tóth [15] proved that if $A$ has lower asymptotic density at least equal to $1 / 2$ then $R(A)$ is dense in $\mathbb{R}^{+}$(see also [1]). Bukor, Šalát, and Tóth [3] showed that if $A \cup B$ is a partition of $\mathbb{N}$ then at least one of $R(A)$ or $R(B)$ is dense in $\mathbb{R}^{+}$. Moreover, the density of $R(\mathbb{P})$ in $\mathbb{R}^{+}$, where $\mathbb{P}$ is the set of prime numbers, is a well-known consequence of the Prime Number Theorem [10].

On the other hand, the analog question of when $R(A)$ is dense in the $p$-adic numbers $\mathbb{Q}_{p}$, for some prime number $p$, has been studied only recently [7, 8]. Let $\left(F_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ be the sequence of Fibonacci numbers, defined by $F_{0}=0, F_{1}=1$, and $F_{n}=F_{n-1}+F_{n-2}$, for all integers $n>1$. Using algebraic number theory in the field $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{5})$, Garcia and Luca [8] proved the following result.

Theorem 1.1. For any prime p, the quotient set of Fibonacci numbers is dense in $\mathbb{Q}_{p}$.
One of the many generalizations of the Fibonacci numbers is the sequence of $k$ generalized Fibonacci numbers $\left(F_{n}^{(k)}\right)_{n \geq-(k-2)}$, also called Fibonacci $k$-step sequence,

Fibonacci $k$-sequence, or $k$-bonacci sequence. For any integer $k \geq 2$, the sequence $\left(F_{n}^{(k)}\right)_{n \geq-(k-2)}$ is defined by

$$
F_{-(k-2)}^{(k)}=\cdots=F_{0}^{(k)}=0, F_{1}^{(k)}=1,
$$

and

$$
F_{n}^{(k)}=F_{n-1}^{(k)}+F_{n-2}^{(k)}+\cdots+F_{n-k}^{(k)},
$$

for all integers $n>1$.
Usually, the study of the arithmetic properties of the $k$-generalized Fibonacci numbers is more difficult than that of Fibonacci numbers. Indeed, for $k \geq 3$ the sequence of $k$-generalized Fibonacci numbers lacks several nice properties of the sequence of Fibonacci numbers, like: being a strong divisibility sequence [13, p. 9], having a Primitive Divisor Theorem [17], and having a simple formula for its $p$-adic valuation [11, 14].

We give the following generalization of Theorem 1.1.
Theorem 1.2. For any integer $k \geq 2$ and any prime number $p$, the quotient set of the $k$-generalized Fibonacci numbers is dense in $\mathbb{Q}_{p}$.

It seems likely that Theorem 1.2 could be extended to other linear recurrences over the integers. However, in our proof we use some specific features of the $k$-generalized Fibonacci numbers sequence. Therefore, we leave the following open question to the interested readers:

Question 1.3. Let $\left(S_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ be a linear recurrence of order $k \geq 2$ satisfying

$$
S_{n}=a_{1} S_{n-1}+a_{2} S_{n-2}+\cdots+a_{k} S_{n-k},
$$

for all integers $n \geq k$, where $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{k}, S_{0}, \ldots, S_{k-1} \in \mathbb{Z}$, with $a_{k} \neq 0$.
For which prime numbers $p$ is the quotient set of $\left(S_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ dense in $\mathbb{Q}_{p}$ ?
Clearly, without loss of generality, one can suppose that $\operatorname{gcd}\left(S_{0}, \ldots, S_{k-1}\right)=1$. Also, it seems reasonable assuming that $\left(S_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ is nondegenerate, which in turn implies that $\left(S_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ is definitely nonzero [5,§2.1]. Finally, a necessary condition for $\left(S_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ to be dense in $\mathbb{Q}_{p}$ is that $\left(v_{p}\left(S_{n}\right)\right)_{n \geq 0, S_{n} \neq 0}$ is unbounded. This is certainly the case if $S_{0}=0$ and $p \nmid a_{k}$ (since $p \nmid a_{k}$ implies that $\left(S_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ is periodic modulo $p^{h}$, for any positive integer $h[5, \S 3.1]$ ), so this could be an useful additional hypothesis.

## 2. Proof of Theorem 1.2

From now on, fix an integer $k \geq 2$ and a prime number $p$. In light of Theorem 1.1, we can suppose $k \geq 3$. Let

$$
f_{k}(X)=X^{k}-X^{k-1}-\cdots-X-1
$$

be the characteristic polynomial of the $k$-generalized Fibonacci numbers sequence.

It is known [16, Corollary 3.4] that $f_{k}$ is separable. Let $K$ be the splitting field of $f_{k}$ over $\mathbb{Q}_{p}$ and let $\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{k} \in K$ be the $k$ distinct roots of $f_{k}$. We have [4, Theorem 1]

$$
\begin{equation*}
F_{n}^{(k)}=\sum_{i=1}^{k} c_{i} \alpha_{i}^{n} \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all integers $n \geq 0$, where

$$
\begin{equation*}
c_{i}:=\frac{\alpha_{i}-1}{(k+1) \alpha_{i}^{2}-2 k \alpha_{i}}, \tag{2.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

for $i=1, \ldots, k$.
Now we shall interpolate a subsequence of $\left(F_{n}^{(k)}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ by an analytic function over $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$. This is a classical method in the study of linear recurrences, which goes back at least to the proof of the Skolem-Mahler-Lech theorem [5, Theorem 2.1].

We refer the reader to [9, Ch. 4-6] for the $p$-adic analysis used hereafter. Let $O_{K}$ be the valuation ring of $K ; e$ and $f$ be the ramification index and the inertial degree of $K$ over $\mathbb{Q}_{p}$, respectively; and $\pi$ be an uniformizer of $K$.

Since $f_{k}(0)=-1$, we have that each $\alpha_{i}(i=1, \ldots, k)$ is an unit of $O_{K}$, so that $\left|\alpha_{i}\right|_{p}=1$. Hence, in particular, $\alpha_{i} \equiv \equiv \bmod \pi$. Thus, since $O_{K} / \pi O_{K}$ is a finite field of $p^{f}$ elements, we obtain that $\alpha_{i}^{p^{f}-1} \equiv 1 \bmod \pi$. Now pick any positive integer $s$ such that $p^{s} \geq e+1$. Since $|\pi|_{p}=p^{-1 / e}$, we have $\pi^{p^{s}} \equiv 0 \bmod p \pi$, and, in turn, it follows that $\alpha_{i}^{t} \equiv 1 \bmod p \pi$, where $t:=p^{s}\left(p^{f}-1\right)$. At this point,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|\alpha_{i}^{t}-1\right|_{p} \leq|p \pi|_{p}=p^{-1-1 / e}<p^{-1 /(p-1)} \tag{2.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

for $i=1, \ldots, k$.
Now let $\log _{p}$ and $\exp _{p}$ denote the $p$-adic logarithm and the $p$-adic exponential functions, respectively. Thanks to (2.3) we have that

$$
\alpha_{i}^{t}=\exp _{p}\left(\log _{p}\left(\alpha_{i}^{t}\right)\right),
$$

for $i=1, \ldots, k$, which together with (2.1) implies that $F_{n t}^{(k)}=G(n)$ for all integer $n \geq 0$, where

$$
G(z):=\sum_{i=1}^{k} c_{i} \exp _{p}\left(z \log _{p}\left(\alpha_{i}^{t}\right)\right)
$$

is an analytic function over $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$.
Let $r>0$ be the radius of convergence of the Taylor series of $G(z)$ at $z=0$, and let $\ell \geq 0$ be an integer. On the one hand, the radius of convergence of the Taylor series of $G\left(p^{\ell} z\right)$ at $z=0$ is $p^{\ell} r$. On the other hand,

$$
G\left(p^{\ell} z\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{k} c_{i} \exp _{p}\left(p^{\ell} z \log _{p}\left(\alpha_{i}^{t}\right)\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{k} c_{i} \exp _{p}\left(z \log _{p}\left(\alpha_{i}^{p^{t} t}\right)\right)
$$

Therefore, taking $s$ sufficiently large, we can assume $r>1$.

In particular, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
G(z)=\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{G^{(j)}(0)}{j!} z^{j}, \tag{2.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $z \in \mathbb{Z}_{p}$.
Now we shall prove that $G^{\prime}(0) \neq 0$. For the sake of contradiction, assume that

$$
G^{\prime}(0)=\sum_{i=1}^{k} c_{i} \log _{p}\left(\alpha_{i}^{t}\right)=0 .
$$

Since $f_{k}(0)=-1$ and $t$ is even, we have $\alpha_{1}^{t} \cdots \alpha_{k}^{t}=1$, so that

$$
\log _{p}\left(\alpha_{k}^{t}\right)=-\log _{p}\left(\alpha_{1}^{t}\right)-\cdots-\log _{p}\left(\alpha_{k-1}^{t}\right),
$$

and consequently

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{i=1}^{k-1}\left(c_{i}-c_{k}\right) \log _{p}\left(\alpha_{i}^{t}\right)=0 \tag{2.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

We need the following lemma [6, Lemma 1], which is a special case of a general result of Mignotte [12] on Pisot numbers.

Lemma 2.1. The roots $\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{k-1}$ are multiplicatively independent, that is, $\alpha_{1}^{e_{1}} \cdots \alpha_{k-1}^{e_{k-1}}=$ 1 for some integers $e_{1}, \ldots, e_{k-1}$ if and only if $e_{1}=\cdots=e_{k-1}=0$.

Thanks to Lemma 2.1, we know that $\alpha_{1}^{t}, \ldots, \alpha_{k-1}^{t}$ are multiplicatively independent. Hence, $\log _{p}\left(\alpha_{1}^{t}\right), \ldots, \log _{p}\left(\alpha_{k-1}^{t}\right)$ are linearly independent over $\mathbb{Z}$. Then by [2, Theorem 1] we get that $\log _{p}\left(\alpha_{1}^{t}\right), \ldots, \log _{p}\left(\alpha_{k-1}^{t}\right)$ are linearly independent over the algebraic numbers, hence (2.5) implies

$$
\begin{equation*}
c_{1}=c_{2}=\cdots=c_{k} . \tag{2.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

At this point, from (2.2) and (2.6), it follows that $\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{k}$ are all roots of the polynomial

$$
c_{1}(k+1) X^{2}-\left(2 c_{1} k+1\right) X+1
$$

but that is clearly impossible, since $k \geq 3$. Hence, we have proved that $G^{\prime}(0) \neq 0$.
Taking $z=1$ in (2.4), we find that $v_{p}\left(G^{(j)}(0) / j!\right) \rightarrow+\infty$, as $j \rightarrow+\infty$. In particular, there exists an integer $\ell \geq 0$ such that $v_{p}\left(G^{(j)}(0) / j!\right) \geq-\ell$, for all integers $j \geq 0$. As a consequence of this, and since $G(0)=F_{0}^{(k)}=0$, taking $z=m p^{h}$ in (2.4) we get that

$$
G\left(m p^{h}\right)=G^{\prime}(0) m p^{h}+O\left(p^{2 h-\ell}\right)
$$

for all integers $m, h \geq 0$. Therefore, for $h>h_{0}:=\ell+v_{p}\left(G^{\prime}(0)\right)$, we have

$$
\frac{G\left(m p^{h}\right)}{G\left(p^{h}\right)}-m=\frac{G^{\prime}(0) m p^{h}+O\left(p^{2 h-\ell}\right)}{G^{\prime}(0) p^{h}+O\left(p^{2 h-\ell}\right)}-m=\frac{O\left(p^{h-\ell}\right)}{G^{\prime}(0)+O\left(p^{h-\ell}\right)}=O\left(p^{h-h_{0}}\right)
$$

that is,

$$
\lim _{h \rightarrow+\infty}\left|\frac{G\left(m p^{h}\right)}{G\left(p^{h}\right)}-m\right|_{p}=0
$$

In conclusion, we have proved that

$$
\lim _{v \rightarrow+\infty}\left|\frac{F_{m p^{v}\left(p^{f}-1\right)}^{(k)}}{F_{p^{v}\left(p^{f}-1\right)}^{(k)}}-m\right|_{p}=0,
$$

for all integers $m \geq 0$. In other words, the closure (with respect to the $p$-adic topology) of the quotient set of $k$-generalized Fibonacci numbers contains the nonnegative integers $\mathbb{N}$.

The next easy lemma is enough to conclude.
Lemma 2.2. Let $A \subseteq \mathbb{N}$. If the closure of $R(A)$ contains $\mathbb{N}$, then $R(A)$ is dense in $\mathbb{Q}_{p}$.
Proof. Let $C$ be the closure of $R(A)$ as a subspace of $\mathbb{Q}_{p}$. Since $\mathbb{N}$ is dense in $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$, we have $\mathbb{Z}_{p} \subseteq C$. Moreover, the inversion $\iota: \mathbb{Z}_{p}^{\times} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}_{p}: x \rightarrow x^{-1}$ is continuous and, obviously, sends nonzero elements of $R(A)$ to $R(A)$, hence $\iota\left(\mathbb{Z}_{p}\right) \subseteq C$. Finally, $\mathbb{Q}_{p}=\mathbb{Z}_{p} \cup \iota\left(\mathbb{Z}_{p}\right)$, thus $C=\mathbb{Q}_{p}$ and $R(A)$ is dense in $\mathbb{Q}_{p}$.

The proof of Theorem 1.2 is complete.

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CARLO SANNA, Department of Mathematics, Università degli Studi di Torino, Turin, Italy
e-mail: carlo.sanna.dev@gmail.com

