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Original



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# On the k-regularity of the k-adic valuation of Lucas sequences

#### par Nadir MURRU et Carlo SANNA

RÉSUMÉ. Pour tous entiers  $k \geq 2$  et  $n \neq 0$ , soit  $\nu_k(n)$  le plus grand entier positif e tel que  $k^e$  divise n. De plus, soit  $(u_n)_{n\geq 0}$  une suite de Lucas non dégénérée telle que  $u_0=0$ ,  $u_1=1$  et  $u_{n+2}=au_{n+1}+bu_n$ , pour certains entiers a et b. Shu et Yao ont montré que, pour tout nombre premier p, la suite  $\nu_p(u_{n+1})_{n\geq 0}$  est p-régulière. Medina et Rowland ont déterminé le rang de  $\nu_p(F_{n+1})_{n\geq 0}$ , où  $F_n$  est le n-ième nombre de Fibonacci.

Nous montrons que si k et b sont premiers entre eux, alors  $\nu_k(u_{n+1})_{n\geq 0}$  est une suite k-régulière. Si de plus k est un nombre premier, nous déterminons aussi le rang de cette suite. En outre, nous donnons des formules explicites pour  $\nu_k(u_n)$ , généralisant un théorème précédent de Sanna concernant les valuations p-adiques des suites de Lucas.

ABSTRACT. For integers  $k \geq 2$  and  $n \neq 0$ , let  $\nu_k(n)$  denote the greatest nonnegative integer e such that  $k^e$  divides n. Moreover, let  $(u_n)_{n\geq 0}$  be a nondegenerate Lucas sequence satisfying  $u_0=0$ ,  $u_1=1$ , and  $u_{n+2}=au_{n+1}+bu_n$ , for some integers a and b. Shu and Yao showed that for any prime number p the sequence  $\nu_p(u_{n+1})_{n\geq 0}$  is p-regular, while Medina and Rowland found the rank of  $\nu_p(F_{n+1})_{n>0}$ , where  $F_n$  is the n-th Fibonacci number.

We prove that if k and b are relatively prime then  $\nu_k(u_{n+1})_{n\geq 0}$  is a k-regular sequence, and for k a prime number we also determine its rank. Furthermore, as an intermediate result, we give explicit formulas for  $\nu_k(u_n)$ , generalizing a previous theorem of Sanna concerning p-adic valuations of Lucas sequences.

#### 1. Introduction

For integers  $k \geq 2$  and  $n \neq 0$ , let  $\nu_k(n)$  denote the greatest nonnegative integer e such that  $k^e$  divides n. In particular, if k = p is a prime number then  $\nu_p(\cdot)$  is the usual p-adic valuation. We shall refer to  $\nu_k(\cdot)$  as the k-adic valuation, although, strictly speaking, for composite k this is not

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a "valuation" in the algebraic sense of the term, since it is not true that  $\nu_k(mn) = \nu_k(m) + \nu_k(n)$  for all integers  $m, n \neq 0$ .

Valuations of sequences with combinatorial meanings have been studied by several authors (see, e.g., [4, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 12, 14, 15, 18]). To this end, an important role is played by the family of k-regular sequences, which were first introduced and studied by Allouche and Shallit [1, 2, 3] with the aim of generalizing the concept of automatic sequences.

Given a sequence of integers  $s(n)_{n\geq 0}$ , its k-kernel is defined as the set of subsequences

$$\ker_k(s(n)_{n \ge 0}) := \{ s(k^e n + i)_{n \ge 0} : e \ge 0, \ 0 \le i < k^e \}.$$

Then  $s(n)_{n\geq 0}$  is said to be k-regular if the  $\mathbb{Z}$ -module  $\langle \ker_k(s(n)_{n\geq 0}) \rangle$  generated by its k-kernel is finitely generated. In such a case, the rank of  $s(n)_{n\geq 0}$  is the rank of this  $\mathbb{Z}$ -module.

Allouche and Shallit provided many examples of regular sequences. In particular, they showed that the sequence of p-adic valuations of factorials  $\nu_p(n!)_{n\geq 0}$  is p-regular [1, Example 9], and that the sequence of 3-adic valuations of sums of central binomial coefficients

$$\nu_3 \left( \sum_{i=0}^n \binom{2i}{i} \right)_{n>0}$$

is 3-regular [1, Example 23]. Furthermore, for any polynomial  $f(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$  with no roots in the natural numbers, Bell [5] proved that the sequence  $\nu_p(f(n))_{n\geq 0}$  is p-regular if and only if f(x) factors as a product of linear polynomials in  $\mathbb{Q}[x]$  times a polynomial with no root in the p-adic integers.

Fix two integers a and b, and let  $(u_n)_{n\geq 0}$  be the Lucas sequence of characteristic polynomial  $f(x) = x^2 - ax - b$ , i.e.,  $(u_n)_{n\geq 0}$  is the integral sequence satisfying  $u_0 = 0$ ,  $u_1 = 1$ , and  $u_{n+2} = au_{n+1} + bu_n$ , for each integer  $n \geq 0$ . Assume also that  $(u_n)_{n\geq 0}$  is nondegenerate, i.e.,  $b \neq 0$  and the ratio  $\alpha/\beta$  of the two roots  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}$  of f(x) is not a root of unity.

Using p-adic analysis, Shu and Yao [16, Corollary 1] proved the following result.

**Theorem 1.1.** For each prime number p, the sequence  $\nu_p(u_{n+1})_{n\geq 0}$  is p-regular.

In the special case a=b=1, i.e., when  $(u_n)_{n\geq 0}$  is the sequence of Fibonacci numbers  $(F_n)_{n\geq 0}$ , Medina and Rowland [11] gave an algebraic proof of Theorem 1.1 and also determined the rank of  $\nu_p(F_{n+1})_{n\geq 0}$ . Their result is the following.

**Theorem 1.2.** For each prime number p the sequence  $\nu_p(F_{n+1})_{n\geq 0}$  is p-regular. Precisely, for  $p \neq 2, 5$  the rank of  $\nu_p(F_{n+1})_{n\geq 0}$  is  $\alpha(p)+1$ , where  $\alpha(p)$  is the least positive integer such that  $p \mid F_{\alpha(p)}$ , while for p=2 the rank is 5, and for p=5 the rank is 2.

In this paper, we extend Theorem 1.1 to k-adic valuations with k relatively prime to b; and we generalize Theorem 1.2 to nondegenerate Lucas sequences. Let  $\Delta := a^2 + 4b$  be the discriminant of f(x). Also, for each positive integer m relatively prime to b let  $\tau(m)$  denote the rank of apparition of m in  $(u_n)_{n\geq 0}$ , i.e., the least positive integer n such that  $m\mid u_n$  (which is well-defined, see, e.g., [13]).

Our first two results are the following.

**Theorem 1.3.** If  $k \geq 2$  is an integer relatively prime to b, then the sequence  $\nu_k(u_{n+1})_{n>0}$  is k-regular.

**Theorem 1.4.** Let p be a prime number not dividing b, and let r be the rank of  $\nu_p(u_{n+1})_{n>0}$ .

- If  $p \mid \Delta$  then:
  - r = 2 if  $p \in \{2, 3\}$  and  $\nu_p(u_p) = 1$ , or if  $p \ge 5$ ; r = 3 if  $p \in \{2, 3\}$  and  $\nu_p(u_p) \ne 1$ .
- - r = 5 if p = 2 and  $\nu_2(u_6) \neq \nu_2(u_3) + 1$ ;
  - $r = \tau(p) + 1$  if p > 2, or if p = 2 and  $\nu_2(u_6) = \nu_2(u_3) + 1$ .

Note that Theorem 1.2 follows easily from our Theorem 1.4, since in the case of Fibonacci numbers  $b=1, \Delta=5, \nu_2(F_3)=1, \nu_2(F_6)=3$ , and  $\tau(p) = \alpha(p)$ .

As a preliminary step in the proof of Theorem 1.3, we obtain some formulas for the k-adic valuation  $\nu_k(u_n)$ , which generalize a previous result of the second author. Precisely, Sanna [15] proved the following formulas for the p-adic valuation of  $u_n$ .

**Theorem 1.5.** If p is a prime number such that  $p \nmid b$ , then

$$\nu_p(u_n) = \begin{cases} \nu_p(n) + \varrho_p(n) & \text{if } \tau(p) \mid n, \\ 0 & \text{if } \tau(p) \nmid n, \end{cases}$$

for each positive integer n, where

$$\varrho_{2}(n) := \begin{cases} \nu_{2}(u_{3}) & \text{if } 2 \nmid \Delta, \ 2 \nmid n, \\ \nu_{2}(u_{6}) - 1 & \text{if } 2 \nmid \Delta, \ 2 \mid n, \\ \nu_{2}(u_{2}) - 1 & \text{if } 2 \mid \Delta, \end{cases}$$

and

$$\varrho_p(n) = \varrho_p := \begin{cases} \nu_p(u_{\tau(p)}) & \text{if } p \nmid \Delta, \\ \nu_3(u_3) - 1 & \text{if } p \mid \Delta, \ p = 3, \\ 0 & \text{if } p \mid \Delta, \ p \ge 5, \end{cases}$$

for  $p \geq 3$ .

Actually, Sanna's result [15, Theorem 1.5] is slightly different but it quickly turns out to be equivalent to Theorem 1.5 using [15, Lemma 2.1(v), Lemma 3.1, and Lemma 3.2]. Furthermore, in Sanna's paper it is assumed gcd(a,b)=1, but the proof of [15, Theorem 1.5] works exactly in the same way also for  $gcd(a,b)\neq 1$ .

From now on, let  $k = p_1^{a_1} \cdots p_h^{a_h}$  be the prime factorization of k, where  $p_1 < \cdots < p_h$  are prime numbers and  $a_1, \ldots, a_h$  are positive integers.

We prove the following generalization of Theorem 1.5.

**Theorem 1.6.** If  $k \geq 2$  is an integer relatively prime to b, then

$$\nu_k(u_n) = \begin{cases} \nu_k(c_k(n)n) & \text{if } \tau(p_1 \cdots p_h) \mid n, \\ 0 & \text{if } \tau(p_1 \cdots p_h) \nmid n, \end{cases}$$

for any positive integer n, where

$$c_k(n) := \prod_{i=1}^h p_i^{\varrho_{p_i}(n)}.$$

Note that Theorem 1.6 is indeed a generalization of Theorem 1.5. In fact, if k = p is a prime number then obviously

$$\nu_p(c_p(n)n) = \nu_p(p^{\varrho_p(n)}n) = \nu_p(n) + \varrho_p(n),$$

for each positive integer n.

#### 2. Preliminaries

In this section we collect some preliminary facts needed to prove the results of this paper. We begin with some lemmas on k-regular sequences.

**Lemma 2.1.** If  $s(n)_{n\geq 0}$  and  $t(n)_{n\geq 0}$  are two k-regular sequences, then  $(s(n)+t(n))_{n\geq 0}$  and  $s(n)t(n)_{n\geq 0}$  are k-regular too. Precisely, if A is a finite set of generators of  $\langle \ker_k(s(n)_{n\geq 0}) \rangle$  and B is a finite set of generators of  $\langle \ker_k(t(n)_{n\geq 0}) \rangle$ , then  $A \cup B$  is a set of generators of  $\langle \ker_k(s(n)+t(n))_{n\geq 0} \rangle$ .

Proof. See 
$$[1, Theorem 2.5]$$
.

**Lemma 2.2.** If  $s(n)_{n\geq 0}$  is a k-regular sequence, then for any integers  $c\geq 1$  and  $d\geq 0$  the subsequence  $s(cn+d)_{n\geq 0}$  is k-regular.

Proof. See 
$$[1, Theorem 2.6]$$
.

**Lemma 2.3.** Any periodic sequence is k-regular.

*Proof.* An ultimately periodic sequence is k-automatic for all  $k \geq 2$ , see [2, Theorem 5.4.2]. A k-automatic sequence is k-regular, see [1, Theorem 1.2].

The following lemma is essentially [1, Theorem 2.2(d) and remark (i) just below].

**Lemma 2.4.** Let  $s(n)_{n\geq 0}$  be a sequence of integers. If there exist some

$$(2.1) s_1 = s, s_2, \dots, s_r \in \langle \ker_k(s(n)_{n \ge 0}) \rangle$$

such that the sequences  $s_j(kn+i)_{n\geq 0}$ , with  $0 \leq i < k$  and  $1 \leq j \leq r$ , are  $\mathbb{Z}$ -linear combinations of  $s_1, \ldots, s_r$ , then  $s(n)_{n\geq 0}$  is k-regular and  $\langle \ker_k(s(n)_{n\geq 0}) \rangle$  is generated by  $s_1, \ldots, s_r$ .

Proof. It is sufficient to prove that  $s(k^e n + i)_{n \geq 0} \in \langle s_1, \ldots, s_r \rangle$  for all integers  $e \geq 0$  and  $0 \leq i < k^e$ . In fact, this claim implies that  $\langle \ker_k(s(n)_{n \geq 0}) \rangle \subseteq \langle s_1, \ldots, s_r \rangle$ , while by (2.1) we have  $\langle s_1, \ldots, s_r \rangle \subseteq \langle \ker_k(s(n)_{n \geq 0}) \rangle$ , hence  $\langle \ker_k(s(n)_{n \geq 0}) \rangle = \langle s_1, \ldots, s_r \rangle$  and so  $s(n)_{n \geq 0}$  is k-regular. We proceed by induction on e. For e = 0 the claim is obvious since  $s = s_1$ . Suppose  $e \geq 1$  and that the claim holds for e - 1. We have  $i = k^{e-1}j + i'$ , for some integers  $0 \leq j < k$  and  $0 \leq i' < k^{e-1}$ . Therefore, by the induction hypothesis,

$$s(k^{e}n+i)_{n\geq 0} = s(k^{e-1}(kn+j)+i')_{n\geq 0}$$

$$\in \langle s_1(kn+j)_{n\geq 0}, \dots, s_r(kn+j)_{n\geq 0} \rangle$$

$$\subseteq \langle s_1, \dots, s_r \rangle,$$

and the claim follows.

The next lemma is well-known; we give the proof just for completeness.

**Lemma 2.5.** The sequence  $\nu_k(n+1)_{n\geq 0}$  is k-regular of rank 2. Indeed,  $\langle \ker_k(\nu_k(n+1)_{n\geq 0}) \rangle$  is generated by  $\nu_k(n+1)_{n\geq 0}$  and the constant sequence  $(1)_{n\geq 0}$ .

*Proof.* For all nonnegative integers n and i < k we have

$$\nu_k(kn+i+1) = \begin{cases} 1 + \nu_k(n+1) & \text{if } i = k-1, \\ 0 & \text{if } i < k-1. \end{cases}$$

Therefore, putting  $s_1 = \nu_k(n+1)_{n\geq 0}$  and  $s_2 = (1+\nu_k(n+1))_{n\geq 0}$  in Lemma 2.4, we obtain that  $\langle \ker_k(\nu_k(n+1)_{n\geq 0}) \rangle$  is generated by  $\nu_k(n+1)_{n\geq 0}$  and  $(1+\nu_k(n+1))_{n\geq 0}$ , hence it is also generated by  $\nu_k(n+1)_{n\geq 0}$  and  $(1)_{n\geq 0}$ , which are obviously linearly independent. Thus  $\nu_k(n+1)_{n\geq 0}$  is k-regular of rank 2.

Now we state a lemma that relates the k-adic valuation of an integer with its  $p_i$ -adic valuations. The proof is quite straightforward and we leave it to the reader.

Lemma 2.6. We have

$$\nu_k(m) = \min_{i=1,\dots,h} \left| \frac{\nu_{p_i}(m)}{a_i} \right|,$$

for any integer  $m \geq 2$ .

We conclude this section with two lemmas on the rank of apparition  $\tau(n)$ .

**Lemma 2.7.** For each prime number p not dividing b,

$$\tau(p) \mid p - (-1)^{p-1} \left(\frac{\Delta}{p}\right),$$

where  $\left(\frac{\cdot}{p}\right)$  denotes the Legendre symbol. In particular, if  $p \mid \Delta$  then  $\tau(p) = p$ .

*Proof.* The case p=2 is easy. For p>2 see [17, Lemma 1].

**Lemma 2.8.** If m and n are two positive integers relatively prime to b, then

$$\tau(\operatorname{lcm}(m,n)) = \operatorname{lcm}(\tau(m),\tau(n)).$$

*Proof.* See [13, Theorem 1(a)].

#### 3. Proof of Theorem 1.6

Thanks to Lemma 2.6, we know that

(3.1) 
$$\nu_k(u_n) = \min_{i=1,\dots,h} \left| \frac{\nu_{p_i}(u_n)}{a_i} \right|.$$

Moreover, from Lemma 2.8 it follows that

$$\tau(p_1\cdots p_h)=\operatorname{lcm}\{\tau(p_1),\ldots,\tau(p_h)\}.$$

Therefore, on the one hand, if  $\tau(p_1 \cdots p_h) \nmid n$  then  $\tau(p_i) \nmid n$  for some  $i \in \{1, \ldots, h\}$ , so that by Theorem 1.5 we have  $\nu_{p_i}(u_n) = 0$ , which together with (3.1) implies  $\nu_k(u_n) = 0$ , as claimed.

On the other hand, if  $\tau(p_1 \cdots p_h) \mid n$  then  $\tau(p_i) \mid n$  for  $i = 1, \dots, h$ . Hence, from (3.1), Theorem 1.5, and Lemma 2.6, we obtain

$$\nu_k(u_n) = \min_{i=1,\dots,h} \left\lfloor \frac{\nu_{p_i}(n) + \varrho_{p_i}(n)}{a_i} \right\rfloor = \min_{i=1,\dots,h} \left\lfloor \frac{\nu_{p_i}(c_k(n)n)}{a_i} \right\rfloor = \nu_k(c_k(n)n),$$

so that the proof is complete.

#### 4. Proof of Theorem 1.3

Clearly, if  $\Delta$  and k are fixed, then  $c_k(n)$  depends only on the parity of n. Thus it follows easily from Theorem 1.6 that

(4.1) 
$$\nu_k(u_{n+1}) = \nu_k(c_k(1)(n+1)) s(n) + \nu_k(c_k(2)(n+1)) t(n),$$

for each integer  $n \geq 0$ , where the sequences  $s(n)_{n\geq 0}$  and  $t(n)_{n\geq 0}$  are defined by

$$s(n) := \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \tau(p_1 \cdots p_2) \mid n+1, \ 2 \nmid n+1, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

and

$$t(n) := \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \tau(p_1 \cdots p_2) \mid n+1, \ 2 \mid n+1, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

On the one hand, by Lemma 2.5 and Lemma 2.2, we know that both  $\nu_k(c_k(1)(n+1))_{n\geq 0}$  and  $\nu_k(c_k(2)(n+1))_{n\geq 0}$  are k-regular sequences. On the other hand, by Lemma 2.3, also the sequences  $s(n)_{n\geq 0}$  and  $t(n)_{n\geq 0}$  are k-regular, since obviously they are periodic.

In conclusion, using (4.1) and Lemma 2.1, we obtain that  $\nu_k(u_{n+1})_{n\geq 0}$  is a k-regular sequence.

#### 5. Proof of Theorem 1.4

We generalize Medina and Rowland's proof of Theorem 1.2. First, suppose that  $p \mid \Delta$ . By Lemma 2.7 we have  $\tau(p) = p$ . Moreover, it is clear that  $\varrho_p(n) = \varrho_p$  does not depend on n. As a consequence, from Theorem 1.5 it follows easily that

(5.1) 
$$\nu_p(u_{n+1}) = \nu_p(n+1) + s(n),$$

for any integer  $n \geq 0$ , where the sequence  $s(n)_{n \geq 0}$  is defined by

$$s(n) := \begin{cases} \varrho_p & \text{if } n+1 \equiv 0 \bmod p, \\ 0 & \text{if } n+1 \not\equiv 0 \bmod p. \end{cases}$$

On the one hand, if  $p \in \{2,3\}$  and  $\nu_p(u_p) = 1$ , or if  $p \geq 5$ , then  $\varrho_p = 0$ . Thus  $s(n)_{n\geq 0}$  is identically zero and it follows by (5.1) and Lemma 2.5 that r=2. On the other hand, if  $p\in \{2,3\}$  and  $\nu_p(u_p)\neq 1$ , then  $\varrho_p\neq 0$ . Moreover, for  $i=0,\ldots,p-1$  we have

$$s(pn+i) = \begin{cases} \varrho_p & \text{if } i = p-1, \\ 0 & \text{if } i \neq p-1, \end{cases}$$

hence from Lemma 2.4 it follows that  $s(n)_{n\geq 0}$  is p-regular and that the module  $\langle \ker_p(s(n)_{n\geq 0}) \rangle$  is generated by  $s(n)_{n\geq 0}$  and  $(\varrho_p)_{n\geq 0}$ . Therefore, by (5.1), Lemma 2.5, and Lemma 2.1, we obtain that  $\nu_p(u_{n+1})_{n\geq 0}$  is a p-regular sequence and that  $\langle \ker_p(\nu_p(u_{n+1})_{n\geq 0}) \rangle$  is generated by  $\nu_p(n+1)_{n\geq 0}$ ,  $s(n)_{n\geq 0}$ , and  $(1)_{n\geq 0}$ , which are clearly linearly independent, hence r=3.

Now suppose  $p \nmid \Delta$ . By Lemma 2.7, we know that  $p \equiv \varepsilon \mod \tau(p)$ , for some  $\varepsilon \in \{-1, +1\}$ . Furthermore, if p = 2 then it follows easily that  $\tau(2) = 3$ . As a consequence, from Theorem 1.5 we obtain that

(5.2) 
$$\nu_p(u_{n+1}) = s(n) + t(n),$$

for any integer  $n \geq 0$ , where the sequences  $s(n)_{n\geq 0}$  and  $t(n)_{n\geq 0}$  are defined by

$$s(n) := \begin{cases} \nu_p(n+1) + v & \text{if } n+1 \equiv 0 \bmod \tau(p) \\ 0 & \text{if } n+1 \not\equiv 0 \bmod \tau(p), \end{cases}$$

with  $v := \nu_p(u_{\tau(p)})$ , and

$$t(n) := \begin{cases} \nu_2(u_6) - \nu_2(u_3) - 1 & \text{if } p = 2, \ n+1 \equiv 0 \bmod 6, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

We shall show that  $s(n)_{n\geq 0}$  is a p-regular sequence of rank  $\tau(p)+1$ . Let us define the sequences  $s_j(n)_{n\geq 0}$ , for  $j=0,\ldots,\tau(p)-1$ , by

$$s_j(n) := \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n+j+1 \equiv 0 \bmod \tau(p), \\ 0 & \text{if } n+j+1 \not\equiv 0 \bmod \tau(p). \end{cases}$$

On the one hand, for i = 0, ..., p - 2 we have

$$\begin{split} s(pn+i) &= \begin{cases} \nu_p(pn+i+1) + v & \text{if } pn+i+1 \equiv 0 \bmod \tau(p), \\ 0 & \text{if } pn+i+1 \not\equiv 0 \bmod \tau(p), \end{cases} \\ &= \begin{cases} v & \text{if } \varepsilon n+i+1 \equiv 0 \bmod \tau(p), \\ 0 & \text{if } \varepsilon n+i+1 \not\equiv 0 \bmod \tau(p), \end{cases} \\ &= \begin{cases} v & \text{if } n+(\varepsilon(i+1)-1)+1 \equiv 0 \bmod \tau(p), \\ 0 & \text{if } n+(\varepsilon(i+1)-1)+1 \not\equiv 0 \bmod \tau(p), \end{cases} \\ &= v \cdot s_{(\varepsilon(i+1)-1) \bmod \tau(p)}(n), \end{split}$$

since  $p \nmid i + 1$  and consequently  $\nu_p(pn + i + 1) = 0$ . On the other hand,

(5.3) 
$$s(pn+p-1) = \begin{cases} \nu_p(pn+p) + v & \text{if } p(n+1) \equiv 0 \bmod \tau(p), \\ 0 & \text{if } p(n+1) \not\equiv 0 \bmod \tau(p), \end{cases}$$
$$= \begin{cases} \nu_p(n+1) + v + 1 & \text{if } n+1 \equiv 0 \bmod \tau(p), \\ 0 & \text{if } n+1 \not\equiv 0 \bmod \tau(p), \end{cases}$$
$$= s(n) + s_0(n),$$

since  $\nu_p(pn+p) = \nu_p(n+1) + 1$  and  $gcd(p,\tau(p)) = 1$ . Furthermore, for  $i = 0, \dots, p-1$  and  $j = 0, \dots, \tau(p) - 1$ ,

$$s_{j}(pn+i) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } pn+i+j+1 \equiv 0 \bmod \tau(p), \\ 0 & \text{if } pn+i+j+1 \not\equiv 0 \bmod \tau(p), \end{cases}$$
$$= \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n+(\varepsilon(i+j+1)-1)+1 \equiv 0 \bmod \tau(p), \\ 0 & \text{if } n+(\varepsilon(i+j+1)-1)+1 \not\equiv 0 \bmod \tau(p), \end{cases}$$
$$= s_{(\varepsilon(i+j+1)-1) \bmod \tau(p)}(n).$$

Summarizing, the sequences  $s(pn+i)_{n\geq 0}$  and  $s_j(pn+i)_{n\geq 0}$ , for  $0\leq i< p$  and  $0\leq j<\tau(p)$ , are  $\mathbb{Z}$ -linear combinations of  $s(n)_{n\geq 0}$  and  $s_j(n)_{n\geq 0}$ .

Moreover, for  $i = 0, ..., p^2 - 1$  we have

(5.4) 
$$s_0(p^2n+i) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } p^2n+i+1 \equiv 0 \bmod \tau(p), \\ 0 & \text{if } p^2n+i+1 \not\equiv 0 \bmod \tau(p), \end{cases}$$
$$= \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n+i+1 \equiv 0 \bmod \tau(p), \\ 0 & \text{if } n+i+1 \not\equiv 0 \bmod \tau(p), \end{cases}$$
$$= s_{i \bmod \tau(p)}(n),$$

hence, by (5.4) and (5.3), it follows that

(5.5) 
$$s_{i \bmod \tau(p)}(n)_{n \ge 0} = s_0(p^2n + i)_{n \ge 0}$$
$$= s(p^3n + pi + p - 1)_{n \ge 0} - s(p^2n + i)_{n \ge 0}$$
$$\in \langle \ker_p(s(n)_{n > 0}) \rangle.$$

Since  $\tau(p) \mid p - \varepsilon$ , we have

$$\tau(p) \le p - \varepsilon \le p + 1 < p^2,$$

hence by (5.5) we get that  $s_j(n)_{n\geq 0} \in \langle \ker_p(s(n)_{n\geq 0}) \rangle$ , for  $0 \leq j < \tau(p)$ .

Therefore, in light of Lemma 2.4, we obtain that  $s(n)_{n\geq 0}$  is a p-regular sequence and that  $\langle \ker_p(s(n)_{n\geq 0}) \rangle$  is generated by  $s(n)_{n\geq 0}$  and  $s_j(n)_{n\geq 0}$ , with  $j=0,\ldots,\tau(p)-1$ . It is straightforward to see that these last sequences are linearly independent, hence  $s(n)_{n\geq 0}$  has rank  $\tau(p)+1$ .

If p > 2, or if p = 2 and  $\nu_2(u_6) = \overline{\nu_2(u_3)} + 1$ , then  $t(n)_{n \ge 0}$  is identically zero, thus from (5.2) and the previous result on s(n) we find that  $r = \tau(p) + 1$ .

So it remains only to consider the case p=2 and  $\nu_2(u_6) \neq \nu_2(u_3)+1$ . Recall that in such a case  $\tau(2)=3$ , and put  $d:=\nu_2(u_6)-\nu_2(u_3)-1$ . Obviously, the sequence  $t(2n)_{n>0}$  is identically zero, while

$$t(2n+1) = \begin{cases} d & \text{if } 2n+2 \equiv 0 \bmod 6, \\ 0 & \text{if } 2n+2 \not\equiv 0 \bmod 6, \end{cases}$$
$$= \begin{cases} d & \text{if } n+1 \equiv 0 \bmod 3, \\ 0 & \text{if } n+1 \not\equiv 0 \bmod 3, \end{cases}$$
$$= d \cdot s_0(n).$$

Thus, again from Lemma 2.4, we have that t(n) is a 2-regular sequence and that  $\langle \ker_p(t(n)_{n\geq 0}) \rangle$  is generated by  $t(n)_{n\geq 0}$  and  $d \cdot s_j(n)_{n\geq 0}$ , for j=0,1,2.

In conclusion, by (5.2) and Lemma 2.1, we obtain that  $\nu_p(u_{n+1})_{n\geq 0}$  is a 2-regular sequence and that  $\langle \ker_p(\nu_p(u_{n+1})_{n\geq 0}) \rangle$  is generated by s(n), t(n), and  $s_j(n)$ , for j=0,1,2, which are linearly independent, hence r=5. The proof is complete.

#### 6. Concluding remarks

It might be interesting to understand if, actually,  $\nu_k(u_{n+1})_{n\geq 0}$  is k-regular for every integer  $k\geq 2$ , so that Theorem 1.3 holds even by dropping the assumption that k and b are relatively prime. A trivial observation is that if k and b have a common prime factor p such that  $p\nmid a$ , then  $p\nmid u_n$  for all integers  $n\geq 1$ , and consequently  $\nu_k(u_{n+1})_{n\geq 0}$  is k-regular simple because it is identically zero. Thus the nontrivial case occurs when each of the prime factors of  $\gcd(b,k)$  divides a.

Another natural question is if it is possible to generalize Theorem 1.4 in order to say something about the rank of  $\nu_k(u_{n+1})_{n\geq 0}$  when k is composite. Probably, the easier cases are those when k is squarefree, or when k is a power of a prime number.

We leave these as open questions to the reader.

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