# ON THE TRANSCENDENCE OF GROWTH CONSTANTS ASSOCIATED WITH POLYNOMIAL RECURSIONS

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ABSTRACT. Let  $P(x) := a_d x^d + \cdots + a_0 \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ ,  $a_d > 0$ , be a polynomial of degree  $d \ge 2$ . Let  $(x_n)$  be a sequence of integers satisfying

 $x_{n+1} = P(x_n)$  for all  $n = 0, 1, 2..., \text{ and } x_n \to \infty$  as  $n \to \infty$ .

Set  $\alpha := \lim_{n \to \infty} x_n^{d^{-n}}$ . Then, under the assumption  $a_d^{1/(d-1)} \in \mathbb{Q}$ , in a recent result by Dubickas [3], either  $\alpha$  is transcendental, or  $\alpha$  can be an integer, or a quadratic Pisot unit with  $\alpha^{-1}$  being its conjugate over  $\mathbb{Q}$ . In this paper, we study the nature of such  $\alpha$  without the assumption that  $a_d^{1/(d-1)}$  is in  $\mathbb{Q}$ , and we prove that either the number  $\alpha$  is transcendental, or  $\alpha^h$  is a Pisot number with h being the order of the torsion subgroup of the Galois closure of the number field  $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha, a_d^{-\frac{1}{d-1}})$ . Other results presented in this paper investigate the solutions of the inequality  $||q_1\alpha_1^n + \cdots + q_k\alpha_k^n + \beta|| < \theta^n$  in  $(n, q_1, \ldots, q_k) \in \mathbb{N} \times (K^{\times})^k$ , considering whether  $\beta$  is rational or irrational. Here, K represents a number field, and  $\theta \in (0, 1)$ . The notation ||x|| denotes the distance between x and its nearest integer in  $\mathbb{Z}$ .

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Let  $P(x) := a_d x^d + \cdots + a_0 \in \mathbb{Q}[x], a_d > 0$ , be a polynomial of degree  $d \ge 2$ . Let  $(x_n)$  be a sequence of integers satisfying

$$x_{n+1} = P(x_n)$$
 for all  $n = 0, 1, 2..., \text{ and } x_n \to \infty \text{ as } n \to \infty.$  (1.1)

Recently Wagner and Ziegler [8] showed that for the above sequence  $(x_n)$ ,  $\lim_{n\to\infty} x_n^{d^{-n}} = \alpha$  exists. Moreover, they showed that  $\alpha > 1$  and it is either irrational or an integer. Also, it was shown that such sequence  $(x_n)_n$  takes the form

$$x_n = a_d^{-1/(d-1)} \alpha^{d^n} - \frac{a_{d-1}}{da_d} + O(\alpha^{-d^n}).$$
(1.2)

The proof of the asymptotic formula (1.2) has already been discussed in [8] and [3]. Here, we provide a sketch of the proof for completeness. By the substitution  $y_n := a_d^{1/d-1}(x_n + \frac{a_{d-1}}{da_d})$ , the recursion becomes

$$y_{n+1} = a_d^{1/d-1} \left( P(x_n) + \frac{a_{d-1}}{da_d} \right)$$
$$= a_d^{d/d-1} \left( x_n + \frac{a_{d-1}}{da_d} \right) + O(x_n^{d-2})$$
$$= y_n^d + O(y_n^{d-2}) \quad \text{as } n \to \infty.$$

Since  $x_n \to \infty$  as  $n \to \infty$ , so  $y_n \to \infty$ . By increasing *n*, if necessary we can assume that the sequence  $(y_n)_{n\geq 0}$  is increasing and none of the  $y_n$  is zero. Taking the logarithm, we get

$$\log\left(\frac{y_{n+1}}{y_n^d}\right) = O(y_n^{-2}) \quad \text{as } n \to \infty.$$
(1.3)

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Express  $\log y_n$  as follows:

$$\log y_n = d \log y_{n-1} + \log \left(\frac{y_n}{y_{n-1}^d}\right) = d^n \log y_0 + \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} d^{n-k-1} \log \left(\frac{y_{k+1}}{y_k^d}\right)$$

Since the series  $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} d^{-k-1} \log \left( \frac{y_{k+1}}{y_k^d} \right)$  is convergent, we can re-write  $\log y_n$  as follows:

$$\log y_n = d^n \left( \log y_0 + \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} d^{-k-1} \log \left( \frac{y_{k+1}}{y_k^d} \right) \right) - \sum_{k=n}^{\infty} d^{n-k-1} \log \left( \frac{y_{k+1}}{y_k^d} \right)$$

Set

$$\log \alpha = \log y_0 + \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} d^{-k-1} \log \left(\frac{y_{k+1}}{y_k^d}\right).$$

Then, we get

$$\log y_n = d^n \log \alpha - \sum_{k=n}^{\infty} d^{n-k-1} \log \left(\frac{y_{k+1}}{y_k^d}\right).$$

Since the sequence  $(y_n)n$  is increasing from some point onwards, we have  $y_n \leq y_n + 1 \leq \cdots$  for sufficiently large n. Together with equation (1.3), we deduce that

$$\log y_n = d^n \log \alpha + O\left(\frac{1}{y_n^2}\right),$$

which in turns gives  $y_n = \alpha^{d^n} + O(\alpha^{-d^n})$  as  $n \to \infty$ , and hence

$$x_n = a_d^{-1/d-1} \alpha^{d^n} - \frac{a_{d-1}}{da_d} + O\left(\frac{1}{\alpha^{d^n}}\right) \quad \text{as } n \to \infty$$

This completes the proof of (1.2).

Very recently, Dubickas [3] studied the transcendence of numbers  $\alpha$  under the assumption  $a_d^{1/d-1} \in \mathbb{Q}$ . More precisely, he showed the possibility of such  $\alpha$  can be an integer, a quadratic Pisot unit with  $\alpha^{-1}$  being its conjugate over  $\mathbb{Q}$ , or a transcendental number. As a consequence, he established the transcendence of several constants given by the polynomial recursion. For example, he considered the sequence  $1, 2, 5, 26, 277, 458330, \ldots$ , given by  $x_0 = 1$  and

$$x_{n+1} = x_n^2 + 1$$
 for  $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ 

It can also defined as  $x_n = [\kappa^{2^n}], n = 0, 1, \dots$ , where

$$\kappa := \lim_{n \to \infty} x_n^{2^{-n}} = \prod_{n=1}^{\infty} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{x_n^2} \right)^{\frac{1}{2^{n+1}}}.$$

The sequence  $2, 3, 8, 63, 3968, 15745023, \dots$  given by  $x_0 = 2$  and

$$x_{n+1} = x_n^2 - 1$$
 for  $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ 

Then  $x_n = [\zeta^{2^n}], n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ , where

$$\zeta := \lim_{n \to \infty} x_n^{2^{-n}}.$$

Another example is Sylvester's sequence  $2, 3, 7, 43, 1807, 3263443, \ldots$ , where  $x_0 = 2$  and

$$x_{n+1} = x_n^2 - x_n + 1$$
 for  $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ 

In this case  $x_n$  can also given by  $x_n = [\gamma^{2^n}]$ , where  $\gamma := \lim_{n \to \infty} x_n^{2^{-n}}$ . These above sequences can be found in the On-Line Encyclopedia of Integer Sequences [7](see also [1]). By the above mentioned result of Dubickas, the constants  $\kappa, \zeta$  and  $\gamma$  are transcendental.

Notice that in both of the above sequences, the respective polynomials have a leading coefficient of 1, so the condition  $a_d^{1/(d-1)} \in \mathbb{Q}$  is satisfied. In this paper, our main result provides a variant of Dubickas'

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result without assuming  $a_d^{1/(d-1)} \in \mathbb{Q}$ . Many fascinating examples of sequences satisfying (1.1) can be found in Finch's book on mathematical constants [4].

Here is our main result:

**Theorem 1.1.** Suppose that an integer sequence  $(x_n)_n$  satisfies a recursion of the form  $x_{n+1} = P(x_n)$ for some polynomial  $P = a_d X^d + a_{d-1} x^{d-1} + \cdots + a_0 \in \mathbb{Q}[X]$  degree  $d \ge 2$  and  $a_d > 0$ . Assume further that  $x_n \to \infty$  as  $n \to \infty$ . Then either the number

$$\alpha = \lim_{n \to \infty} (x_n)^{\frac{1}{d^n}}$$

is transcendental, or  $\alpha^h$  is a Pisot number, with h being the order of the torsion subgroup of the Galois closure of the number field  $K = \mathbb{Q}(\alpha, a_d^{-\frac{1}{d-1}})$ . Moreover, if  $a_d$  is an integer, then either  $\alpha$  is transcendental, or  $(a_d)^{\frac{d-2}{d-1}} \alpha^{d^m}$  is a Pisot number for some non-negative integer m.

**Remark 1.** In the proof of the above theorem, we are using the fact that  $d \cdot a_d \cdot a_d^{-1/(d-1)} \alpha^{d^n}$  is pseudo-Pisot number for infinitely many positive integers n, which in turn implies that  $\alpha$  is an algebraic integer, as proven by either the result of Corvaja and Zannier [2] or Theorem 1.2 below. So, if we additionally assume that  $a_d^{-1/d-1} \in \mathbb{Q}$  (which is an essential assumption in Dubickas's result), then we can conclude that  $\alpha^{d^m}$  is a Pisot number for some integer  $m \ge 0$ . Without this assumption, the conclusion is no longer true; we can only assert that  $\alpha^D$  is a Pisot number for some positive integer D, but this D may not be of the form  $d^m$ . In our Theorem 1.1, we obtain a similar conclusion as Dubickas's result, except for the extra factor  $a_d^{d-2/d-1}$ .

We illustrate Theorem 1.1 with some examples.

**Example 1.** Consider the sequence given by  $x_1 = 3$  and  $x_{n+1} = x_n^2 - 2$ . It has been shown in [8, Page 2] that

$$x_n = L_{2^n} = \left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^{2^n} + \left(\frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^{2^n}$$

for all  $n \ge 1$ , where  $L_n$  is the *n*th Lucas number. Thus, the limit of the sequence  $x_n^{2^{-n}}$  would be the golden ratio in this case. Since  $a_d = 1$ , by taking m = 0, we see that  $a_d^{(d-2)/(d-1)} \alpha^{d^m}$  is nothing but the golden ratio. Therefore, it is a Pisot number.

**Example 2.** Consider the polynomial  $P(x) = 2x^d$ . Then, the *n*th term of the sequence defined by  $x_0 = 1$  and  $x_{n+1} = 2x_n^d$  for n = 0, 1, 2, ..., and it is equal to

$$x_n = 2^{(d^n - 1)/(d - 1)}.$$

Hence,  $\alpha = \lim_{n \to \infty} x_n^{d^{-n}} = 2^{1/(d-1)}$ , which is an algebraic integer. Since the order of the torsion subgroup of the Galois closure of the number field  $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$  is d-1, we have  $\alpha^{d-1} = 2$ , making it a Pisot number. This also explains why the exponent h in Theorem 1.1 is the best possible. Furthermore, since  $a_d$  is a positive integer, by taking m = 1, we see that

$$a_d^{(d-2)/(d-1)} \alpha^{d^m} = 2^{(d-2)/(d-1)} 2^{d/(d-1)} = 2^2 = 4,$$

which is again a Pisot number.

For a complex number x, ||x|| denotes the distance of x from its nearest integer in  $\mathbb{Z}$ . In other words,  $||x|| := \min\{|x - m| : m \in \mathbb{Z}\}.$ 

We recall the following definition.

**Definition 1.** A tuple  $(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_k)$  of non-zero algebraic numbers is called non-degenerate if  $\alpha_i/\alpha_j$  is not a root of unity for all integers  $1 \le i < j \le k$ .

When working with sums of the form  $q_1\alpha_1^n + \cdots + q_k\alpha_k^n$ , we can assume that  $(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_k)$  is nondegenerate without loss of generality. To see this, suppose  $\frac{\alpha_k}{\alpha_{k-1}} = \zeta$  is an *h*-th root of unity. For  $0 \le a \le h-1$ , we restrict to  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  congruent to *a* modulo *h*, and write n = a + hm. Then the sum  $q_1\alpha_1^n + \cdots + q_k\alpha_k^n$  is equal to the sum  $q_1\alpha_1^a(\alpha_1^h)^m + \cdots + (q_{k-1+\zeta^a}q_k)\alpha_{k-1}^a(\alpha_{k-1}^h)^m$ , which has fewer terms than the original sum.

We also recall the following definition introduced in [5].

**Definition 2.** Let  $(\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_k)$  be a tuple of distinct non-zero algebraic numbers. Set

$$B := \{\beta \in \mathbb{Q}^{\times} \setminus \{\beta_1, \dots, \beta_k\} : \beta = \sigma(\beta_i) \text{ for some } \sigma : \mathbb{Q}(\beta_1, \dots, \beta_k) \to \mathbb{C} \text{ and } 1 \le i \le k\}.$$

Then the tuple  $(\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_k)$  is called pseudo-Pisot if  $\sum_{i=1}^k \beta_i + \sum_{\beta \in B} \beta \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $|\beta| < 1$  for every  $\beta \in B$ . Moreover, if  $\beta_i$  is an algebraic integer for  $1 \le i \le k$  then the tuple  $(\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_k)$  is called Pisot.

Let h(x) denote the absolute logarithmic Weil height. By sublinear function, we mean a function  $f: \mathbb{N} \to (0, \infty)$  satisfying  $\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{f(n)}{n} = 0$ . Let  $G_{\mathbb{Q}}$  be the absolute Galois group of  $\mathbb{Q}$ .

We require the following diophantine approximation result of Kulkarni, Mavraki, and Nguyen [5], which extends a seminal work by Corvaja and Zannier [2].

**Theorem 1.2.** (Kulkarni, Mavraki and Nguyen) Let  $r \in \mathbb{N}$ , let  $(\delta_1, \ldots, \delta_r)$  be a non-degenerate tuple of algebraic numbers with  $|\delta_i| \geq 1$  for  $1 \leq i \leq r$ . Let K be a number field and f be a sublinear function. Suppose for some  $\theta \in (0,1)$ , the set  $\mathcal{M}$  of tuple  $(n, q_1, \ldots, q_r) \in \mathbb{N} \times (K^{\times})^r$  satisfying the inequality

$$||q_1\delta_1^n + \ldots + q_r\delta_r^n|| < \theta^n \quad and \ \max_{1 \le i \le k} h(q_i) < f(n)$$

is infinite. Then the following holds:

- (i)  $\delta_i$  is an algebraic integer for  $i = 1, \ldots, r$ .
- (ii) For each  $\sigma \in G_{\mathbb{Q}}$  and  $1 \leq i \leq r$  such that  $\frac{\sigma(\delta_i)}{\delta_j}$  is not a root of unity for  $1 \leq j \leq r$ , we have  $|\sigma(\delta_i)| < 1$ .

Moreover for all but finitely many tuples  $(n, q_1, \ldots, q_r) \in \mathcal{A}$ 

- (iii)  $(q_1\delta_1^n, \ldots, q_r\delta_r^n)$  is pseudo-Pisot.
- (iv)  $\sigma(q\delta_i^n) = q_j\delta_j^n$  precisely for those triples  $(\sigma, i, j) \in G_{\mathbb{Q}} \times \{1, \ldots, r\}^2$  such that  $\frac{\sigma(\delta_i)}{\delta_j}$  is a root of unity.

Theorem 1.2 plays a crucial role in proving all the results presented in this paper.

### 2. Some other results

Here is our second theorem, which is an immediate consequence of Theorem 1.2.

**Theorem 2.1.** Let  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ , and let  $(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_k)$  be a non-degenerate tuple of algebraic numbers with  $|\alpha_i| \geq 1$  for  $1 \leq i \leq k$  and none of  $\alpha_i$  is root of unity. Let  $\beta \in (0, 1)$  be an algebraic irrational number. Let K be a number field and f be a sublinear function. Then for any  $\theta \in (0, 1)$ , there are only finitely many tuples  $(n, q_1, \ldots, q_k) \in \mathbb{N} \times (K^{\times})^k$  satisfying

$$||q_1\alpha_1^n + \ldots + q_k\alpha_k^n + \beta|| < \theta^n \quad and \max_{1 \le i \le k} h(q_i) < f(n).$$

$$(2.1)$$

Very recently, the case k = 1 with  $q_1$  is a fixed algebraic number, independently also proved by the author [6]. We have the following corollary of Theorem 2.1.

**Corollary 2.1.** Let  $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_k$  be multiplicatively independent algebraic numbers with  $|\alpha_i| \ge 1$  for  $1 \le i \le k$  and none of  $\alpha_i$  is a root of unity. Let  $P(x_1, \ldots, x_k)$  be a non-zero polynomial with algebraic coefficients and constant term is irrational. Suppose that for some  $\theta \in (0, 1)$ , there are infinitely many  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $||P(\alpha_1^n, \ldots, \alpha_k^n)|| < \theta^n$ . Then, at least one of  $\alpha_i$  is transcendental.

It is natural to ask what can we say in the case when  $\beta$  is a rational number in Theorem 2.1. First, let us see some remarks, then we will come back to this case.

**Remark 2.1.** We observe that in the case when  $\alpha_i$  is pseudo-Pisot number,  $q_i = 1$  for all  $1 \leq i \leq k$ , and  $\beta$  is a real number in the interval (0,1), the inequality (2.1) can have only finitely many solutions in n for any given  $\theta \in (0,1)$ . This can be seen as follows: suppose there are infinitely many integers  $n \geq 1$ and some  $\theta' \in (0,1)$  such that the inequality

$$||\alpha_1^n + \dots + \alpha_k^n + \beta|| < \theta'^n \tag{2.2}$$

holds. Let  $p_n$  be the nearest integer to  $\alpha_1^n + \cdots + \alpha_k^n + \beta$ . Then  $p_n$  is of the form

$$p_n = \operatorname{Tr}_{\mathbb{Q}(\alpha_1)/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha_1^n) + \dots + \operatorname{Tr}_{\mathbb{Q}(\alpha_k)/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha_k^n) + [\beta] + a,$$

for all sufficiently large values of n, where a is either 0 or 1. Here we used the fact that when  $\alpha$  is pseudo-Pisot number then the  $Tr_{\mathbb{Q}(\alpha)/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha^n)$  is the nearest integer of  $\alpha^n$  for all sufficiently large positive integers n. Thus we have

$$||\alpha_1^n + \dots + \alpha_k^n + \beta|| = \left|\sum_{i=2}^{d_1} \alpha_{1,i}^n + \dots + \sum_{i=2}^{d_k} \alpha_{k,i}^n + \{\beta\} - a\right|.$$

Since  $\{\beta\} \in (0,1)$ , we have  $\{\beta\}-a$  is non-zero. On the other hand, by the hypothesis  $\alpha_i$ 's are pseudo-Pisot numbers, we get that  $\alpha_{i,i}^n \to 0$  for every pair (i, j). Thus by these observations, we have

$$||\alpha_1^n + \dots + \alpha_k^n + \beta|| > c(\beta) > 0 \tag{2.3}$$

holds for all large positive integers n. From (2.2) and (2.3), we get a contradiction and hence the assertion.

**Remark 2.2.** If we take  $q_1 = \frac{1}{2}$ ,  $\alpha_1 = \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}$ ,  $\beta = \frac{1}{2}$  and  $\theta = |1-\sqrt{5}/2|$ . It can be easily seen that  $\operatorname{Tr}(\alpha_1^{2^n})$  is an odd integer for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , where  $\operatorname{Tr} := \operatorname{Tr}_{\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{5})/\mathbb{Q}}$ . Hence, we get that

$$\|q_1\alpha_1^{2^n} + \beta\| \le \left|\frac{\alpha_1^{2^n}}{2} - \left(\frac{\operatorname{Tr}(\alpha_1^{2^n})}{2} + \frac{1}{2}\right) + \frac{1}{2}\right| = \frac{1}{2}\theta^{2^n}$$

for all sufficiently large values of n. This explains that in general, the assumption  $\beta$  is an irrational number cannot be removed in Theorem 2.1.

**Remark 2.3.** The assumption that none of  $\alpha_i$  is the root of unity is a necessary condition in Theorem 2.1. Take  $\alpha_1$  to be any root of unity of order h,  $\alpha_2 = \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}$  and  $q_2 = \frac{1}{2}$ , then take any  $q_1$  and  $\beta$  such that the  $q_1\alpha_1 + \beta = 1/2$ . Then for any n such that  $n \equiv 1 \mod h$  and  $\operatorname{Tr}_{\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{5})/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha_2^n)$  is odd, we get back to the situation as in Remark 2.2.

In the case when  $\beta$  is rational number, we have the following result.

**Theorem 2.2.** Let  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ , and let  $(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_k)$  be a non-degenerate tuple of algebraic numbers with  $|\alpha_i| \geq 1$  for  $1 \leq i \leq k$  and none of  $\alpha_i$  is root of unity. Let  $\beta$  be a non-integral rational number. Let K be a number field,  $\mathcal{O}_K$  be its ring of integers and f be a sublinear function. Then for any  $\theta \in (0,1)$ , there are only finitely many tuples  $(n, q_1, \ldots, q_k) \in \mathbb{N} \times (\mathcal{O}_K^{\times})^k$  satisfying the inequality

$$||q_1\alpha_1^n + \ldots + q_k\alpha_k^n + \beta|| < \theta^n \quad and \ \max_{1 \le i \le k} h(q_i) < f(n)$$

Remark 2.2 explains our restriction  $(n, q_1, \ldots, q_k) \in \mathbb{N} \times (\mathcal{O}_K^{\times})^k$  in Theorem 2.2.

As we have discussed in the beginning, the sequence  $x_n$  as stated in the theorem can be given by the following asymptotic formula

$$x_n = a_d^{-1/(d-1)} \alpha^{d^n} - \frac{a_{d-1}}{da_d} + O(\alpha^{-d^n}),$$

where  $\alpha = \lim_{n \to \infty} x_n^{\frac{1}{dn}}$  and it is strictly greater than 1.

Suppose that  $\alpha$  is an algebraic number. Let  $L = \mathbb{Q}(a_d^{-1/(d-1)}, \alpha)$ , and K be its Galois closure. Let h be the order of the torsion subgroup of  $K^{\times}$ . Since  $\alpha > 1$ , we have  $da_d a_d^{-1/(d-1)} \alpha^{d^n} > 1$  for all large enough integers n. Then by the hypothesis, the inequality,

$$|da_d \cdot a_d^{-1/(d-1)} \alpha^{d^n} - (da_d x_n - a_{d-1})| < C(\alpha) \left(\frac{1}{\alpha}\right)^{d^n}$$

has infinitely many solutions in n for some constant  $C(\alpha) > 0$ . Since  $a_d$  and  $a_{d-1}$  are fixed rational numbers, we can multiply by a suitable fixed positive integer to reduce the case when the term  $(da_d x_n - a_{d-1})$  becomes an integer. Therefore, the above inequality can be rewritten as:

$$\|da_d \cdot a_d^{-1/(d-1)} \alpha^{d^n}\| < C(\alpha) \left(\frac{1}{\alpha}\right)^{d^n},\tag{3.1}$$

which has infinitely many solutions in n for some constant  $C(\alpha) > 0$ . We denote  $\mathcal{A}$  be a set of positive integers n for which the inequality (3.1) holds. Since  $\mathcal{A}$  is infinite, there exists an integer  $a \in \{0, 1, \ldots, h-1\}$  such that  $d^n = a + hm$  for infinitely many natural numbers m.

By taking k = 1 with  $q_1 = d \cdot a_d \cdot (a_d^{-1/(d-1)})\alpha^a$  and  $\delta_1 = \alpha^h$ , we can observe that the hypothesis of Theorem 1.2 is satisfied. Therefore, according to part (i) of Theorem 1.2,  $\alpha^h$  is an algebraic integer. Additionally, based on part (iii), for all sufficiently large values of n satisfying (3.1) and  $d^n = a + hm$ , we have  $d \cdot a_d \cdot (a_d^{-1/(d-1)}) \cdot \alpha^{d^n}$  is a pseudo-Pisot number. In order to complete the proof of this theorem, it suffices to show that  $|\sigma(\alpha^h)| < 1$  for each embedding  $\sigma \neq \text{Id} : \mathbb{Q}(\alpha^h) \to \mathbb{C}$ .

We first observe that any conjugate  $\sigma(\alpha^h) \neq \alpha^h$  has an absolute value less than or equal to 1. Assume that  $|\sigma(\alpha^h)| > 1$ . Since  $d \cdot a_d \cdot (a_d^{-1/(d-1)}) \cdot \alpha^{d^n}$  is a pseudo-Pisot number, we must have  $\rho(q_1 \alpha^{hm}) = \rho(q_1)\sigma(\alpha^h)^m = q_1\alpha^{hm}$  for all but finitely many values of m such that  $d^n = a + hm \in \mathcal{A}$  and some  $\rho \in \operatorname{Gal}(L/\mathbb{Q})$ , where  $\sigma$  is the restriction of the automorphism  $\rho$  to  $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha^h)$ . Then by property (iv) of Theorem 1.2, we have  $\sigma(\alpha^h)/\alpha^h$  is a root of unity, and hence  $\sigma(\alpha^h) = \alpha^h$ , which is a contradiction. Thus, we conclude that  $|\sigma(\alpha^r)| \leq 1$ .

Now, we show that the possibility  $|\sigma(\alpha^h)| = 1$  cannot occur. If we have  $|\sigma(\alpha^h)| = 1$ , then the quotient  $\frac{\sigma(\alpha^h)}{\alpha^h}$  is not a root of unity. By property (ii) of Theorem 1.2, we have  $|\sigma(\alpha^h)| < 1$ , which contradicts the assumption that  $|\sigma(\alpha^h)| > 1$ . This proves that  $|\sigma(\alpha^h)| < 1$  for each embedding  $\sigma \neq \text{Id} : \mathbb{Q}(\alpha^h) \to \mathbb{C}$ , and hence finishes the proof of the first part.

For the moreover part of the theorem, we apply Theorem 1.2 with the inputs k = 1,  $q_1 = d \cdot a_d \cdot (a_d^{-1})^{1/(d-1)}$ , and  $\delta_1 = \alpha$ . Consequently, we can conclude that  $\alpha$  is an algebraic integer, and  $da_d^{(d-2)/(d-1)}\alpha^{d^n}$  is a pseudo-Pisot number for all but finitely many values of  $n \in \mathcal{A}$ . Since  $a_d \in \mathbb{N}$ , we can deduce that  $a_d^{(d-2)/(d-1)}$  is an algebraic integer. This implies that  $a_d^{(d-2)/(d-1)}\alpha^{d^n}$  is also an algebraic integer.

Therefore, given the fact that  $da_d^{(d-2)/(d-1)}\alpha^{d^n}$  is a pseudo-Pisot number for all but finitely many values of  $n \in \mathcal{A}$ , we can further conclude that  $a_d^{(d-2)/(d-1)}\alpha^{d^m}$  is a Pisot number for some non-negative integer m.

### 4. PROOFS OF THEOREMS 2.1, 2.2 AND COROLLARY 2.1

**Proof of Theorem 2.1.** The proof of this theorem follows from Theorem 1.2. Suppose there exists an infinite set  $\mathcal{A}$  of tuples  $(n, q_1, \ldots, q_k) \in \mathbb{N} \times (K^{\times})^k$ , where K is some number field and some  $\theta \in (0, 1)$  such that the inequality

$$0 < ||q_1\alpha_1^n + \ldots + q_k\alpha_k^n + \beta|| < \theta^n \text{ and } \max_{1 \le i \le k} h(q_i) < f(n)$$

holds. Since none of  $\alpha_i$  is root of unity, we have the tuple  $(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_k, 1)$  is non-degenerate. Then we apply Theorem 1.2 with the inputs  $\mathcal{M} = \mathcal{A}$ , r = k + 1,  $\delta_i = \alpha_i$  for  $1 \leq i \leq k$  and  $q_{k+1} = \beta$ ,  $\delta_{k+1} = 1$ , and conclude by part (iv) of Theorem 1.2 that  $\beta$  is fixed by all  $\sigma \in G_{\mathbb{Q}}$ , and hence  $\beta$  is rational. This is a contradiction to the assumption that  $\beta$  is an irrational number and hence the theorem.

**Proof of Theorem 2.2.** For the proof of this theorem, we argue by contradiction. Suppose there exists an infinite set  $\mathcal{A}$  of tuples  $(n, q_1, \ldots, q_k) \in \mathbb{N} \times (K^{\times})^k$ , where K is some number field and some  $\theta \in (0, 1)$  such that the inequality

$$0 < ||q_1\alpha_1^n + \ldots + q_k\alpha_k^n + \beta|| < \theta^n \text{ and } \max_{1 \le i \le k} h(q_i) < f(n)$$

holds. Since none of  $\alpha_i$  is root of unity, we have the tuple  $(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_k, 1)$  is non-degenerate. Then we apply Theorem 1.2 with the inputs  $\mathcal{M} = \mathcal{A}$ , r = k + 1,  $\delta_i = \alpha_i$  for  $1 \leq i \leq k$  and  $q_{k+1} = \beta$ ,  $\delta_{k+1} = 1$ , and conclude by part (i) of Theorem 1.2 that each  $\alpha_i$  is an algebraic integer. By part (iii) of Theorem 1.2, together with Definition 2, we also have

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k} \operatorname{Tr}_{\mathbb{Q}(q_{i}\alpha_{i}^{n})/\mathbb{Q}}(q_{i}\alpha_{i}^{n}) + \beta \in \mathbb{Z}$$

for infinitely many values of  $n \in \mathcal{A}$ . Since each  $\alpha_i$  is an algebraic integer and by the hypothesis each  $q_i$  is also an algebraic integer, we get that  $q_i\alpha_i$  is an algebraic integer for  $i = 1, \ldots, k$ . Thus the sum  $\sum_{i=1}^{k} \operatorname{Tr}_{\mathbb{Q}(q_i\alpha_i^n)/\mathbb{Q}}(q_i\alpha_i^n) \in \mathbb{Z}$ , which in turns implies that  $\beta$  is an integer. This contradicts the assumption that  $\beta$  is not an integer and hence the theorem.

**Proof of Corollary 2.1.** Let  $P(x_1, \ldots, x_k) = \sum_{\overline{i}=(i_1, \ldots, i_k)} a_{\overline{i}} x_1^{i_1} \cdots x_k^{i_k} + a_{\overline{0}}$  be a polynomial with real

algebraic coefficients and degree in each variable  $x_i$  is  $d_i$ , and the constant term  $a_{\bar{0}}$  is irrational. By the hypothesis

$$||P(\alpha_1^n, \dots, \alpha_k^n)|| = ||\sum_{\overline{i}} a_{\overline{i}} \left(\alpha_1^{i_1} \cdots \alpha_k^{i_k}\right)^n + a_{\overline{0}}|| < \theta^n$$

holds for infinitely many values of n. Since  $|\alpha_i| \geq 1$  for all  $1 \leq i \leq k$  and  $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_k$  are multiplicatively independent, we have the tuple  $(\alpha_1^{i_1} \cdots \alpha_k^{i_k} : 1 \leq i_j \leq d_j, 1 \leq j \leq k)$  is non-degenerate. Then by applying Theorem 2.1 with inputs  $k = d_1 d_2 \cdots d_k$ ,  $\delta_{i_1,\ldots,i_k} = \alpha_1^{i_1} \cdots \alpha_k^{i_k}, \beta = a_{\bar{0}}$  and  $q_{i_1,\ldots,i_k} = a_{\bar{i}}$  for  $1 \leq i_j \leq d_j, 1 \leq j \leq k$ , we conclude that at least one of  $\alpha_i$  is transcendental.

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