

# ZEROS OF $p$ -ADIC EXPONENTIAL POLYNOMIALS II

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## ABSTRACT

We give a bound for the total number of zeros of a  $p$ -adic exponential polynomial in its disc of convergence. For an exponential polynomial of order  $n$  defined over  $\mathbb{Q}_p$ , with  $p > n \geq 3$ , the bound is  $(n-2)p$ . Similar bounds are obtained in general.

## 1. Introduction

Let  $p$  be a fixed rational prime. Write  $\mathbb{Q}_p$  for the field of  $p$ -adic numbers,  $\mathbb{C}_p$  for the completion of the algebraic closure of  $\mathbb{Q}_p$ ,  $\hat{\mathcal{O}}_p$  for the ring of integers in  $\mathbb{C}_p$ , and  $m_p$  for its maximal ideal. Let  $|x|$  be the absolute value on  $\mathbb{C}_p$ , and  $\text{ord}(x)$  the associated valuation, normalized so that  $|p| = 1/p$  and  $\text{ord}(p) = 1$ .

A  $p$ -adic exponential polynomial is a sum

$$b(z) = \sum_{i=1}^d B_i(z) \exp(\eta_i z),$$

where the  $\eta_i$  are distinct elements of  $\mathbb{C}_p$  and the  $B_i(z)$  are polynomials in  $\mathbb{C}_p[z]$ . If the degrees of the  $B_i(z)$  are  $n(i) - 1$  for  $1 \leq i \leq d$ , then

$$n = \sum_{i=1}^d n(i)$$

is called the order of  $b(z)$ . We say  $b(z)$  is defined over a field  $L$  if the  $\eta_i$  and the coefficients of the  $B_i(z)$  belong to  $L$ .

If  $n \leq 2$ , then  $b(z)$  has at most one zero. The purpose of this paper is to bound the total numbers of zeros in the general case. When  $L = \mathbb{Q}_p$  and  $p > n \geq 3$ , our bound is  $(n-2)p$ . In the course of the proof we shall recover an estimate of Robba [2] for the number of zeros of  $b(z)$  in a subdisc of its disc of convergence.

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## 2. Preliminaries

The theory of exponential polynomials is governed by the interaction between three objects: generalized power sums, recurrence sequences, and rational functions.

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Let  $\omega_i$  be distinct non-zero elements of  $\mathbb{C}_p$ , and let polynomials  $A_i(z) \in \mathbb{C}_p[z]$  have degrees  $n(i) - 1$ , for  $1 \leq i \leq d$ . Then

$$A(h) = \sum_{i=1}^d A_i(h) \omega_i^h, \quad h = 0, 1, 2, \dots,$$

is called a generalized power sum with roots  $\omega_i$  and coefficients  $A_i(z)$ ;  $n = \sum n(i)$  is called its order. Write

$$\begin{aligned} D(x) &= \prod_{i=1}^d (1 - \omega_i x)^{n(i)} \\ &= 1 - d_1 x - d_2 x^2 - \dots - d_n x^n. \end{aligned}$$

The sequence  $(a_h)$  with  $a_h = A(h)$  satisfies the homogeneous linear recurrence relation

$$a_h = d_1 a_{h-1} + d_2 a_{h-2} + \dots + d_n a_{h-n}$$

for  $h \geq n$ . To see this, let  $E: f(h) \rightarrow f(h+1)$  be the translation operator and let  $\Delta = E - 1$  be the difference operator. Then

$$(E - \omega_i) A_i(h) \omega_i^h = (\Delta A_i(h)) \omega_i^{h+1},$$

and so since  $\Delta A_i$  has lower degree than  $A_i$ , by linearity and induction it is plain that  $\prod_{i=1}^d (E - \omega_i)^{n(i)}$  annihilates the sequence  $(a_h)$ . Moreover,  $(a_h)$  is determined by its initial values  $a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{n-1}$  and the recurrence relation.

As a consequence, the power series with coefficients  $a(h)$ ,

$$g(x) = \sum_{h=0}^{\infty} a(h) x^h = \frac{N(x)}{D(x)},$$

is a rational function. Here  $D(x)$  is as before, and  $N(x)$  is a polynomial of degree less than  $n$ . This follows easily by multiplying both sides by  $D(x)$  and using the recurrence relation.

Conversely, if a rational function  $g(x)$  as above is given, then its Taylor coefficients  $a(h)$  can be expressed as a power sum by using the partial fraction decomposition of  $g(x)$ :

$$\begin{aligned} g(x) &= \frac{N(x)}{D(x)} = \sum_{i=1}^d \sum_{j=1}^{n(i)} \frac{a_{ij}}{(1 - \omega_i x)^j} \\ &= \sum_{h=0}^{\infty} \left[ \sum_{i=1}^d \sum_{j=1}^{n(i)} a_{ij} \binom{h+j-1}{j-1} \omega_i^h \right] x^h. \end{aligned}$$

The connections between exponential polynomials and generalized power sums go two ways. If an exponential polynomial  $b(z)$  is expanded as a power series,

$$\begin{aligned} b(z) &= \sum_{i=1}^d \mathbf{B}_i(z) \exp(\eta_i z) \\ &= \sum_{h=0}^{\infty} B(h) \frac{z^h}{h!}, \end{aligned}$$

then  $B(h)$  is a generalized power sum of order  $n$ :

$$B(h) = \sum_{i=1}^d B_i(h) \eta_i^h,$$

where

$$B_i(h) = \sum_{j=0}^{n(i)} \mathbf{B}_{ij} \eta_i^{-j} h(h-1) \dots (h-j+1).$$

On the other hand if the roots  $\omega_i$  of the power sum  $a(h)$  satisfy

$$\text{ord}(\omega_i - 1) > \frac{1}{p-1},$$

then  $a(h)$  can be interpolated by an exponential polynomial converging for  $t \in \mathcal{O}_p$ :

$$a(t) = \sum_{i=1}^d A_i(t) \exp(t \log \omega_i).$$

In particular  $a(t)$  is a continuous  $p$ -adic function.

### 3. Finiteness of the number of zeros

The zeros of a power series  $a(z) = \sum a_h z^h$  are governed by its Newton polygon. Recall that this is the lower convex hull of the set of points

$$(h, \text{ord}(a_h)), \quad h = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

A finite segment of the Newton polygon with slope  $-m$  and projection length  $L$  on the horizontal axis corresponds to the existence of  $L$  roots of  $f(z)$  satisfying  $\text{ord}(\lambda_i) = m$ . The Newton polygon either has infinitely many segments, or terminates in a ray. If it terminates in a ray, then  $a(z)$  has only finitely many zeros. If in addition there are infinitely many points  $(h, \text{ord}(a_h))$  with bounded vertical distance to the ray, then the total number of zeros is the index  $l$  of the final corner of the Newton polygon. Furthermore, the domain of convergence of  $f(z)$  is the open disc

$$\text{ord}(z) > w,$$

where  $-w$  is the slope of the ray. See [1, pp. 91–99] for further discussion.

We now apply this to the exponential polynomial

$$b(z) = \sum_{i=1}^d \mathbf{B}_i(z) \exp(\eta_i z).$$

Put

$$V = \min_{1 \leq i \leq d} (\text{ord}(\eta_i)).$$

**THEOREM 1.** *The exact disc of convergence of  $b(z)$  is*

$$\left\{ z : \text{ord}(z) > -\left(V - \frac{1}{p-1}\right) \right\}$$

and the total number of zeros of  $b(z)$  is finite.

*Proof.* It is convenient to change variables. Put

$$\pi = p^{1/(p-1)}, \quad \lambda = p^{V-(1/(p-1))}, \quad \omega_i = \eta_i/p^V,$$

and set  $a(z) = b(z/\lambda)$ ,  $A_i(z) = \mathbf{B}_i(z/\lambda)$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} a(z) &= \sum_{i=1}^d A_i(z) \exp(\omega_i \pi z) \\ &= \sum_{h=0}^{\infty} \left( \sum_{i=1}^d A_i(h) \omega_i^h \right) \frac{\pi^h}{h!} z^h \\ &= \sum_{h=0}^{\infty} A(h) \frac{\pi^h}{h!} z^h, \end{aligned}$$

where  $A(h)$  is a generalized power sum with roots  $\omega_i$ . Assertions about  $b(z)$  on

$$\text{ord}(z) > -\left(V - \frac{1}{p-1}\right)$$

are equivalent to ones for  $a(z)$  on  $\text{ord}(z) > 0$ .

By construction all the roots  $\omega_i$  belong to  $\hat{\mathcal{O}}_p$ , and at least one is a unit. Suppose first that all the  $\omega_i$  are units. Then there is a number  $Q = p^E(p^f - 1)$  such that, for all  $i$ ,

$$\text{ord}(\omega_i^Q - 1) > \frac{1}{p-1}.$$

The coefficients of  $a(z)$  are given by  $a_n = A(h)\pi^h/h!$ . It is well known that

$$\text{ord}(h!) = \frac{h-s(h)}{p-1},$$

where if  $h$  is written in base  $p$  as  $h = h_0 + h_1p + \dots + h_m p^m$  then  $s(h) = h_0 + h_1 + \dots + h_m$ . Consequently

$$\text{ord}(a_n) = \text{ord}(A(h)) + \frac{s(h)}{p-1}.$$

Clearly  $\text{ord}(a_n)$  is bounded from below; this means that  $a(z)$  converges in at least the open disc  $\text{ord}(z) > 0$ . To prove that it converges in no larger disc, and that  $a(z)$  has a finite number of zeros, we shall show that

- (1)  $\text{ord}(a_n)$  achieves a minimum value;
- (2)  $\text{ord}(a_n)$  is bounded above for infinitely many  $h$ .

To do so, consider  $a_n$  on arithmetic progressions mod  $Q$ . For each  $r$ ,  $0 \leq r < Q$ , write  $h = r + tQ$  and put  $a_r(t) = A(r + tQ)$ . Then  $a_r(t)$  can be interpolated by an exponential polynomial:

$$a_r(t) = \sum_{i=1}^d A_i(r + tQ) \omega_i^r \exp(t \log \omega_i^Q).$$

Here  $\log(w)$  is the  $p$ -adic logarithm, which converges on  $\text{ord}(w) > 0$  and is inverse to  $\exp(w)$  on  $\text{ord}(w) > 1/(p-1)$ .

We claim that for any bound  $M$ ,  $\text{ord}(a_r(t))$  takes on only a finite number of values less than  $M$  as  $t$  runs over  $\mathbb{Z}$ . In fact, this is true for  $t \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ . Since  $a_r(t)$  is continuous, for any  $x$  such that  $a_r(x) \neq 0$  there is a neighbourhood  $\mathbf{D}_x$  on which  $\text{ord}(a_r(t))$  is constant. For any  $x$  such that  $a_r(x) = 0$  there is a neighbourhood  $\mathbf{D}_x$  on which  $\text{ord}(a_r(t)) > M$ . Since  $\mathbb{Z}_p$  is compact, the claim is established.

Clearly  $s(h)/(p-1)$  is greater than or equal to 0 and takes values that are integer multiples of  $1/(p-1)$ . Combining these facts for all  $r \bmod Q$ , we see that  $\text{ord}(a_n)$  takes on only a finite number of values less than any bound  $M$ . Consequently there is  $h_0$  for which  $\text{ord}(a_{h_0})$  is minimal; this establishes (1).

To prove (2) we consider  $h$  of the form

$$h = h_0 + p^m Q.$$

By the discussion above,

$$\text{ord}(A(h_0 + p^m Q)) = \text{ord}(A(h_0))$$

for all sufficiently large  $m$ . On the other hand, as soon as  $p^m > h_0$ , we have

$$s(h_0 + p^m Q) = s(h_0) + s(Q).$$

Thus there are infinitely many  $h$  for which

$$\text{ord}(a_h) = \text{ord}(A(h_0)) + \frac{s(h_0) + s(Q)}{p-1}.$$

This proves (2) and yields the theorem when all the  $\omega_i$  are units.

In the general case, break  $A(h)$  into two sums  $A^0(h) + A^+(h)$ , where

$$A^0(h) = \sum_{\text{ord}(\omega_i)=0} A_i(h) \omega_i^h,$$

$$A^+(h) = \sum_{\text{ord}(\omega_i)>0} A_i(h) \omega_i^h.$$

Then the argument above applies to  $A^0(h)$ , while  $\lim_{h \rightarrow \infty} \text{ord}(A^+(h)) = \infty$ . By the ultrametric inequality, assertions (1) and (2) remain valid.

We now know the Newton polygon of  $a(z)$  terminates in a ray of slope 0, and that the total number of zeros of  $a(z)$  is the index of the final corner of the Newton polygon. This fact will be the basis for our future results.

#### 4. Some lemmas

In this section we collect several lemmas about recurrence sequences, binomial coefficients, and  $p$ -adic digit sums that will be needed later.

LEMMA 1. *Let  $(b_h)$  be a recurrence sequence of order  $n$ , satisfying the relation*

$$b_h = d_1 b_{h-1} + d_2 b_{h-2} + \dots + d_n b_{h-n}$$

*for  $h \geq n$ . Suppose that the  $d_i$  all belong to  $\hat{O}_p$ , and put  $M = \inf_{h \geq 0} (\text{ord}(b_h))$ . Then there is  $H < n$  such that  $\text{ord}(b_H) = M$ .*

*Proof.* By the ultrametric inequality and induction

$$\text{ord}(b_h) \geq \min_{1 \leq i \leq n} (\text{ord}(b_{h-i})) \geq \min_{0 \leq H < n} (\text{ord}(b_H)).$$

LEMMA 2. *Let  $(b_h)$  be a recurrence sequence of order  $n$ , whose associated generalized power sum is  $B(h)$ . Suppose that the roots  $\omega_i$  of  $B(h)$  satisfy  $\text{ord}(\omega_i) \geq \varepsilon$  for some  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Put  $M = \min_{h \geq 0} \text{ord}(b_h)$ . Then for all  $h \geq n$ ,*

$$\text{ord}(b_h) \geq M + (h - n + 1) \varepsilon.$$

*Proof.* From

$$D(x) = \prod_{i=1}^d (1 - \omega_i x)^{n(i)} = 1 - d_1 x^1 - \dots - d_n x^n$$

we see that  $\text{ord}(d_j) \geq j\varepsilon$ . Hence for  $h \geq n$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{ord}(b_h) &\geq \min_{1 \leq j \leq n} (\text{ord}(b_{h-j}) + j\varepsilon) \\ &\geq \text{ord}(b_{h-j_0}) + j_0\varepsilon, \end{aligned}$$

where  $j_0$  is chosen to achieve the minimum. By descending induction, there is  $j$  for which  $0 \leq h-j \leq n-1$  and such that

$$\begin{aligned} \text{ord}(b_h) &\geq \text{ord}_p(b_{h-j}) + j\varepsilon \\ &\geq M + (h-n+1)\varepsilon. \end{aligned}$$

LEMMA 3. Consider the binomial coefficient  $\binom{t}{l}$  as a function of  $t$ . Set  $L = \lfloor \log_p l \rfloor$ . Then, for any natural numbers  $t$  and  $F$ ,

$$\binom{t+p^F}{l} \equiv \binom{t}{l} \pmod{p^{F-L}}.$$

*Proof.* Here  $\log_p l$  means the base  $p$  logarithm, and  $\lfloor x \rfloor$  is the greatest integer  $k$  with  $k \leq x$ ; similarly  $\lceil x \rceil$  is the least integer  $k$  with  $k \geq x$ .

If  $F \leq L$  the result is trivial, so we can assume that  $F > L$ . This implies that  $p^F > l$ . Equating coefficients of  $x^l$  in

$$(1+x)^{t+p^F} = (1+x)^t(1+x)^{p^F}$$

gives

$$\binom{t+p^F}{l} = \binom{t}{l} + \sum_{k=1}^l \binom{t}{l-k} \binom{p^F}{k}.$$

For each  $j$ ,  $1 \leq j < p^F$ , the power of  $p$  dividing  $j$  is the same as that dividing  $p^F - j$ . Hence, by the product expansion of binomial coefficients,

$$\text{ord} \binom{p^F}{k} = F - \text{ord}(k) \geq F - L,$$

and this proves the lemma.

LEMMA 4. For any  $h \in \mathbb{N}$ , the  $p$ -adic digit sum  $s(h)$  satisfies

$$s(h) \equiv h \pmod{p-1}.$$

Furthermore, if  $h = h_0 + h_1p + \dots + h_m p^m$  in base  $p$ , where  $h_m > 0$ , and if  $\hat{h} = h - (p^m - p^k)$  with  $0 \leq k \leq m$ , then  $s(\hat{h}) \leq s(h)$ .

*Proof.* The first assertion holds since

$$h - s(h) = \sum_{t=1}^m h_t(p^t - 1)$$

is obviously divisible by  $p-1$ . For the second assertion, if  $m = k$  the result is trivial. If  $m > k$  and  $h_k \neq p-1$ , then  $s(\hat{h}) = s(h)$ . However, if  $h_k = p-1$ , then writing  $h = a + (p-1)p^k + p^{k+1}b$  we have

$$s(h) = s(a) + (p-1) + s(b), \quad s(\hat{h}) = s(a) + s(b),$$

where  $\hat{b} = b - (p^{m-k-1} - 1)$ , and by induction  $s(\hat{b}) \leq s(b)$ .

## 5. Bounds on the number of zeros

We begin by giving a new proof for Robba's bound for the number of zeros of an exponential polynomial in a subdisc of its full disc of convergence. See also [3]. Although the result itself is not needed in what follows, it provides a context for our bound on the total number of zeros, and the proof introduces useful ideas. Notation will be the same as that established earlier.

Given  $b(z) = \sum B_i(z) \exp(\eta_i z)$  of order  $n$ , let  $R = -(V - 1/(p - 1))$  be the (logarithmic) radius of its disc of convergence. Put

$$s_0 = \max_{0 \leq l < n} s(l).$$

If  $n = n_0 + n_1 p + \dots + n_m p^m$  in base  $p$ , then  $s_0 = m(p - 1) + n_m - 1$ . Thus,

$$(p - 1)[\log_p n] \leq s_0 \leq (p - 1)[\log_p n],$$

and if  $p \geq n$  then  $s_0 = n - 1$ .

**THEOREM 2 (Robba [2]).** For any  $\delta > 0$ , the number of zeros of  $b(z)$  in the disc  $\text{ord}(z) \geq R + \delta$  is at most

$$n - 1 + \frac{1}{\delta} \frac{s_0 - 1}{p - 1}.$$

*Proof.* By taking a limit, it suffices to consider the case where  $\delta \in \mathbb{Q}$ . Then, after a change of variables, if necessary, we can assume that  $R = -\delta$  (note that  $R$  is in any case rational, since  $V = \min_i(\text{ord}(\eta_i)) \in \mathbb{Q}$ ). Thus

$$b(z) = \sum_{h=0}^{\infty} b_h z^h = \sum_{h=0}^{\infty} B(h) (p^\delta)^h \frac{\pi^h}{h!} z^h,$$

where the roots  $\omega_i$  of  $B(h)$  satisfy  $\text{ord}(\omega_i) \geq 0$ .

By the theory of Newton polygons, the number of zeros of  $b(z)$  in the disc  $\text{ord}(z) \geq 0$  is the largest index  $h$  for which  $\text{ord}(b_h)$  is minimal. Here

$$\text{ord}(b_h) = \text{ord}(B(h)) + \frac{s(h)}{p - 1} + h\delta$$

and  $B(h)$  is a recurrence sequence of order  $n$ . By Lemma 1, the first  $H$  for which  $\text{ord}(B(h))$  is minimal satisfies  $H < n$ . Now  $\text{ord}(b_H)$  is a strong candidate to be the minimum value of  $\text{ord}(b_h)$ ; note also that  $s(H) \leq s_0$ . Certainly  $\text{ord}(b_h)$  is not minimal for any  $h$  satisfying

$$h > n - 1 + \frac{1}{\delta} \frac{s_0 - s(h)}{p - 1},$$

for then

$$\begin{aligned} \text{ord}(B(h)) + \frac{s(h)}{p - 1} + h\delta &> \text{ord}(B(H)) + \frac{s_0}{p - 1} + (n - 1)\delta \\ &\geq \text{ord}(B(H)) + \frac{s(H)}{p - 1} + H\delta. \end{aligned}$$

Now  $s(h) \geq 1$  for all  $h \geq 1$ . Hence if

$$h > n - 1 + \frac{1}{\delta} \frac{s_0 - 1}{p - 1},$$

then both inequalities above are valid; this yields the bound.

Next we turn to bounds for the total number of zeros of  $b(z)$ . If  $n = 1$ , then  $b(z) = b_1 \exp(\eta_1 z)$  has no zeros. If  $n = 2$ , then  $b(z) = (b_1 + b_2 z) \exp(\eta_1 z)$  or  $b(z) = b_1 \exp(\eta_1 z) + b_2 \exp(\eta_2 z)$ . In the first case the only possible zero of  $b(z)$  is at  $-b_1/b_2$ ; in the second case it is at  $(\eta_2 - \eta_1)^{-1} \log(-b_1/b_2)$ . Thus  $b(z)$  has at most one zero, and we can assume that  $n \geq 3$  in what follows.

By making a change of variables  $a(z) = b(z/\lambda)$  as in Theorem 1, it is enough to consider exponential polynomials of the form

$$a(z) = \sum_{i=1}^d A_i(z) \exp(\pi \omega_i z) = \sum_{h=0}^{\infty} A(h) \frac{\pi^h}{h!} z^h,$$

where  $A(h) = \sum_{i=1}^d A_i(h) \omega_i^h$  has roots  $\omega \in \mathcal{O}_p$ , and at least one  $\omega_i$  is a unit. The disc of convergence of  $a(z)$  is  $\text{ord}(z) > 0$ .

For each unit  $\omega \in \mathcal{O}_p^\times$  there is a unique root of unity  $\zeta$  of order prime to  $p$  such that  $\text{ord}(\omega - \zeta) > 0$ . This is called the Teichmüller representative of  $\omega$ , and written  $\zeta = \text{Teich}(\omega)$ . For  $\omega \in \mathfrak{m}_p$ , put  $\text{Teich}(\omega) = 0$ .

Our bound for the number of zeros depends on the following data intrinsic to  $a(z)$ : its order  $n$ , the proximity of the  $\omega_i$  to their Teichmüller representatives, and the size of the residue field they generate. Let

$$\varepsilon = \min(1, \min_{1 \leq i \leq d} \text{ord}(\omega_i - \text{Teich}(\omega_i))).$$

Then  $0 < \varepsilon \leq 1$ . Also, let  $R = \mathbb{Z}_p[\omega_1, \dots, \omega_d]$  and put  $m = R \cap \mathfrak{m}_p$ . The residue class field  $R/m$  has order a power of  $p$ ; write this as  $q = p^f$ . Finally recall that

$$s_0 = \min_{0 \leq l < n} s(l),$$

where  $n \geq 3$  and  $s(l)$  is the sum of the base  $p$  digits of  $l$ .

**THEOREM 3.** *The total number of zeros of  $a(z)$  in its disc of convergence is at most  $p^f(p^f - 1)$ , where*

$$F = \left\lceil \frac{s_0 - 1}{p - 1} \right\rceil + \left\lfloor \log_p \left( n - 1 + \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \frac{s_0 - 1}{p - 1} \right) \right\rfloor.$$

When  $s_0 < p$  (that is, when  $n < 2p$ ) this can be improved to  $(s_0 - 1)p^{f+F-1}$ .

*Proof.* Our goal is to bound the location of the final corner of the Newton polygon of  $a(z)$ , or equivalently, to bound the occurrence of the first  $h$  for which  $\text{ord}(a_h)$  is minimal. As before,

$$\text{ord}(a_h) = \text{ord}(A(h)) + \frac{s(h)}{p-1}.$$

By Lemma 1, the first  $H$  for which  $\text{ord}(A(H))$  is minimal satisfies  $H < n$ . If  $H$  is not the index of the final corner, then there is  $h > H$  for which

$$\text{ord}(A(h)) + \frac{s(h)}{p-1} < \text{ord}(A(H)) + \frac{s(H)}{p-1}.$$

Without loss of generality we can assume that  $a(z)$  has been normalized so that

$\min(\text{ord}(A(l))) = 0$ . Then  $\text{ord}(A(H)) = 0$ , and by  $s(H) \leq s_0$  and  $s(h) \geq 1$ , the above inequality yields

$$\text{ord}(A(h)) + \frac{s(h)}{p-1} < \frac{s_0}{p-1}.$$

For such  $h$ , it will turn out that unless  $h$  is less than the bound in the theorem, there is  $\hat{h} < h$  such that  $\text{ord}(A(\hat{h})) = \text{ord}(A(h))$  and  $s(\hat{h}) \leq s(h)$ .

Let us first prove the theorem under the assumption that all the  $\omega_i$  are units. In order to find  $h$  such that  $\text{ord}(A(h)) < (s_0 - 1)/(p - 1)$  it suffices to consider  $A(h) \bmod \pi^{s_0 - 1}$ . We shall study  $A(h)$  on progressions  $h = r + t(q - 1)$  because on such sequences,  $A(h) \bmod \pi^{s_0 - 1}$  is congruent to a polynomial. This is due to the connection between recurrence sequences and Taylor expansions of rational functions. Fortunately the digit sums  $s(h)$  also behave well on progressions  $\bmod (q - 1)$ .

For each  $r$ ,  $0 \leq r < q - 1$ , put

$$\begin{aligned} A_r(t) &= A(r + t(q - 1)) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^d \omega_i^t A_i(r + t(q - 1)) (\omega_i^{q-1})^t. \end{aligned}$$

Thus,  $A_r(t)$  is a generalized power sum of order  $n$  with roots  $\omega_i^{q-1}$ . Consequently

$$g_r(z) := \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} A_r(t) z^t = \frac{N_r(z)}{D(z)}$$

is a rational function with denominator  $D(z) = \prod_{i=1}^d (1 - \omega_i^{q-1} z)^{n(i)}$  and numerator  $N_r(z)$  of degree less than  $n$ , as was noted in Section 2.

For each  $i$ , write  $\omega_i^{q-1} = 1 + \delta_i$ . Since  $q - 1$  is prime to  $p$ ,

$$\text{ord}(\delta_i) = \text{ord}(\omega_i - \text{Teich}(\omega_i)) \geq \varepsilon.$$

Choose  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$  so that

$$ke < \frac{s_0 - 1}{p - 1} \leq (k + 1)\varepsilon.$$

Using the identity

$$1 - \omega_i^{q-1} z = (1 - z)(1 + \delta_i) \left( 1 - \frac{\delta_i}{1 + \delta_i} \frac{1}{1 - z} \right)$$

we can expand

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{D(z)} &= \frac{1}{(1 - z)^n} \cdot \frac{1}{\prod (1 + \delta_i)^{n(i)}} \cdot \frac{1}{\prod \left( 1 - \frac{\delta_i}{1 + \delta_i} \frac{1}{1 - z} \right)^{n(i)}} \\ &= \frac{1}{(1 - z)^n} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{d_j}{(1 - z)^j}, \end{aligned}$$

where  $\text{ord}(d_j) \geq j\varepsilon$ . Hence

$$\frac{1}{D(z)} \equiv \frac{1}{(1 - z)^n} \sum_{j=0}^k \frac{d_j}{(1 - z)^j} \pmod{\pi^{s_0 - 1} \hat{O}_p[[z]]}.$$

On the other hand, consider  $N_r(z)$ . Let  $\|g(z)\|$  be the Gauss norm of a power series, that is, the maximum of the absolute values of its coefficients, and recall that the Gauss norm is multiplicative. By our normalization,  $|A(h)| \leq 1$  for every

$h$  and hence certainly  $\|g_r(z)\| \leq 1$ . Clearly also  $\|D(z)\| \leq 1$ . Therefore  $\|N_r(z)\| = \|g_r(z)\| \|D(z)\| \leq 1$ , and we can write

$$N_r(z) = \sum_{i=1}^n c_i (1-z)^{n-i}$$

with  $c_i \in \mathcal{O}_p$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq n$ .

Combining these expressions yields

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} A_r(t) z^t = g_r(z) &\equiv \left( \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{c_i}{(1-z)^i} \right) \left( \sum_{j=0}^k \frac{d_j}{(1-z)^j} \right) \\ &\equiv \sum_{l=1}^{n+k} \frac{\gamma_l}{(1-z)^l} \pmod{\pi^{\varepsilon_0-1} \mathcal{O}_p[[z]]}, \end{aligned}$$

with  $\text{ord}(\gamma_l) \geq \max(0, l-n)\varepsilon$ . Using the binomial expansion for  $1/(1-z)^l$ , we obtain

$$A_r(t) \equiv \sum_{l=1}^{n+k} \gamma_l \binom{t+l-1}{l-1} \pmod{\pi^{\varepsilon_0-1}}.$$

We now wish to estimate how large  $M$  must be in order that

$$A_r(t) \equiv A_r(t-p^M) \pmod{\pi^{\varepsilon_0-1}}$$

for all  $t$ . This will certainly hold if it is true for each term in the sum; consequently, by Lemma 3, it is enough if

$$\max(0, l-n)\varepsilon + M - \lfloor \log_p(l-1) \rfloor \geq \frac{s_0-1}{p-1}$$

for  $l = 2, 3, \dots, n+k$ . Using

$$k < \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \frac{s_0-1}{p-1},$$

it suffices to have  $M \geq F$ , where

$$F = \left\lceil \frac{s_0-1}{p-1} \right\rceil + \left\lfloor \log_p \left( n-1 + \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \frac{s_0-1}{p-1} \right) \right\rfloor.$$

To apply this to bound the number of zeros of  $a(z)$ , suppose that  $h$  satisfies

$$\text{ord}(A(h)) + \frac{s(h)}{p-1} < \frac{s_0}{p-1}.$$

Write  $h = r + t(q-1)$ . If  $t \geq p^F$ , let  $M = \lfloor \log_p t \rfloor$  and put

$$\hat{t} = t - p^M,$$

$$\hat{h} = r + \hat{t}(q-1) = h - (p^{M+f} - p^M).$$

By the above discussion,

$$\text{ord}(A(\hat{h})) = \text{ord}(A(h)).$$

On the other hand, by Lemma 4,  $s(\hat{h}) \leq s(h)$ , and so

$$\text{ord}(A(\hat{h})) + \frac{s(\hat{h})}{p-1} \leq \text{ord}(A(h)) + \frac{s(h)}{p-1}.$$

Therefore, the first  $h$  for which  $\text{ord}(a_h)$  is minimal must be such that  $h \leq H \leq n-1$  or such that  $h = r + t(q-1)$  with  $r < q-1$ ,  $t \leq p^F - 1$ . In other words (since  $n \geq 3$ )

$$h \leq p^F(p^f - 1) < p^{F+f}.$$

In addition  $s(h) \leq s_0 - 1$ . To use this bit of information, note that if  $s_0 < p$  then the largest permissible  $h$  will have only one non-zero  $p$ -adic digit, namely

$$h \leq (s_0 - 1)p^{f+F-1}.$$

(Note that this is the final assertion in the theorem.) However, if  $s_0 \geq p$  then in any case since  $F \geq (s_0 - 1)/(p - 1)$  we have  $s(h) \leq (p - 1)F$ . Thus

$$h \leq (p - 1)p^f + \dots + (p - 1)p^{f+F-1},$$

or

$$h \leq p^f(p^F - 1).$$

This concludes the proof when all the  $\omega_i$  are units.

In the general case it is possible to proceed in several ways. If there is a coset of  $R/m$  which does not contain any  $\omega_i$ , then let  $\zeta$  be the corresponding Teichmüller representative. Multiplying  $a(z) = \sum A_i(z) \exp(\pi\omega_i z)$  by  $\exp(-\pi\zeta z)$  replaces each  $\omega_i$  by  $\omega_i - \zeta$ , and does not change the disc of convergence or the number of zeros. Furthermore, each  $\omega_i - \zeta$  is a unit, hence we are reduced to the previous case. (Note that if  $\zeta_1, \zeta_2$  and  $\zeta_3$  are Teichmüller elements such that  $\zeta_1 + \zeta_2 \equiv \zeta_3 \pmod{m_p}$ , then  $\text{ord}(\zeta_1 + \zeta_2 - \zeta_3) \geq 1$  because  $\mathbb{Q}_p(\zeta_1, \zeta_2, \zeta_3)/\mathbb{Q}_p$  is unramified. This shows that  $\varepsilon$  in the theorem remains unchanged.)

This completes the proof when  $n < p^f$ . If  $n \geq p^f$ , one can always extend the residue field and find an acceptable  $\zeta$ ; however this would degrade  $p^f$  to  $p^{2f}$  in the estimate for  $h$  so we proceed differently.

As in Theorem 1, break  $A(h)$  into a sum  $A^0(h) + A^+(h)$ , where

$$A^0(h) = \sum_{\text{ord}(\omega_i)=0} A_i(h) \omega_i^h, \quad A^+(h) = \sum_{\text{ord}(\omega_i)>0} A_i(h) \omega_i^h.$$

We shall show that  $\text{ord}(A^+(h))$  grows too rapidly to affect the conclusion of the theorem.

First we claim that  $\text{ord}(A^+(h)) \geq 0$  for all  $h$ . Because  $A^+(h) = A(h) - A^0(h)$  and  $\text{ord}(A(h)) \geq 0$ , it suffices to show that  $\text{ord}(A^0(h)) \geq 0$  for all  $h$ . The roots of  $A^0(h)$  are units, and so

$$\inf_h \text{ord}(A^0(h)) = \liminf_{h \rightarrow \infty} \text{ord}(A^0(h)).$$

(This is because on suitable arithmetic progressions  $A^0(h)$  can be interpolated by a continuous  $p$ -adic function; see the proof of Theorem 1.) On the other hand

$$\liminf_{h \rightarrow \infty} \text{ord}(A^0(h)) = \liminf_{h \rightarrow \infty} \text{ord}(A(h)) \geq 0$$

because  $\lim_{h \rightarrow \infty} \text{ord}(A^+(h)) = \infty$ .

It now follows from Lemma 2 that for  $h \geq n$ ,  $\text{ord}(A^+(h)) \geq (h - n + 1)\varepsilon$ . Consequently if

$$h \geq n + k$$

then  $\text{ord}(A^+(h)) \geq (k + 1)\varepsilon \geq (s_0 - 1)/(p - 1)$ , and so

$$A(h) \equiv A^0(h) \pmod{\pi^{s_0-1}}.$$

Note that  $n+k \leq p^F$ ; if to the contrary we had  $n+k-1 \geq p^F$  then from

$$F \geq \left\lceil \frac{s_0-1}{p-1} \right\rceil + \lceil \log_p(n+k-1) \rceil$$

we would derive  $s_0-1 \leq 0$ , which holds only if  $n \leq 2$ .

The first part of the proof shows that if  $h$  satisfies

$$\text{ord}(A^0(h)) + \frac{s(h)}{p-1} < \frac{s_0}{p-1},$$

then there is  $\hat{h} \equiv h \pmod{p^F(q-1)}$  with  $\hat{h} < p^F(q-1)$  such that

$$A^0(\hat{h}) \equiv A^0(h) \pmod{\pi^{s_0-1}}$$

and  $s(\hat{h}) \leq s(h)$ . Obviously  $\hat{h}$  is the least positive residue of  $h \pmod{p^F(q-1)}$ . Hence if

$$\text{ord}(A(h)) + \frac{s(h)}{p-1} < \frac{s_0}{p-1} \quad (*)$$

and  $\hat{h} \geq n+k$ , then

$$\text{ord}(A(\hat{h})) + \frac{s(\hat{h})}{p-1} \leq \text{ord}(A(h)) + \frac{s(h)}{p-1} \quad (**)$$

and the proof remains valid. However if  $\hat{h} < n+k$  then it is conceivable that  $A^0(\hat{h})$  and  $A^+(\hat{h})$  could cancel, leaving  $\text{ord}(A(h))$  quite large. There are now two cases.

If  $s_0 < p$ , we shall show that  $\hat{h} < n+k$  together with (\*) implies that  $\hat{h} = h$ , hence (\*\*) holds by assumption. Suppose to the contrary that  $\hat{h} < h$ . Then since  $\hat{h} \equiv h \pmod{p^F}$  and  $\hat{h} < n+k \leq p^F$ , the digits of  $\hat{h}$  are embedded in the low-order  $p$ -adic digits of  $h$  and consequently  $s(h) > s(\hat{h})$ . However, we also have  $h \equiv \hat{h} \pmod{p-1}$  and hence  $s(h) \equiv s(\hat{h}) \pmod{p-1}$  by Lemma 4. Thus  $s(h) \geq s(\hat{h}) + p - 1$  which contradicts  $s(h) < s_0 < p$ .

When  $s_0 \geq p$ , the argument is more complicated. First of all  $n < p^F$ : we have shown above that  $n+k \leq p^F$ ; if  $k = 0$  and  $n = p^F$ , then

$$F \geq \left\lceil \frac{s_0-1}{p-1} \right\rceil + \lceil \log_p(n+k-1) \rceil$$

forces  $n \leq p$ . However, this means that  $s_0 \leq p-1$ , a contradiction.

If  $f \geq F$  then the trick of multiplying  $a(z)$  by  $\exp(-\pi \zeta z)$  is applicable; thus we can assume that  $f < F$ .

It is no longer true that  $\hat{h} < n+k$  and (\*) imply that  $h = \hat{h}$ . However, when  $f < F$  and  $s(h) < s_0$  there is a second index  $\tilde{h} < p^f(p^F-1)$  such that  $\tilde{h} \equiv h \pmod{p^f(p^F-1)}$ . We shall show that either  $\hat{h}$  or  $\tilde{h}$  meets the needs of the theorem.

If  $h = \hat{h}$  there is nothing to prove. However, if  $h > \hat{h}$  then since  $\hat{h} < n+k \leq p^F$  and  $\hat{h} \equiv h \pmod{p^F(q-1)}$ , it follows as before that  $\hat{h}$  is embedded in  $h$ . The proof of the first part of the theorem actually produced a chain of values

$$h > \hat{h}_1 > \dots > \hat{h}_i = \hat{h}$$

in which  $\hat{h}_{i+1} = \hat{h}_i - p^{M_i}(p^f-1)$  with  $M_i \geq F$ , and with

$$s(h) \geq s(\hat{h}_1) \geq \dots \geq s(\hat{h}).$$

Examining the last step of the chain, it follows that

$$s(\hat{h} + p^M(p^f-1)) \leq s(h)$$

for some  $M \geq F$ . Now put  $\tilde{h} = h + p^F(p^f - 1)$ . Since  $h < p^F$ ,

$$s(\tilde{h}) = s(h + p^M(p^f - 1)) \leq s(h) \leq s_0 - 1.$$

Also  $\tilde{h} < p^{F+f}$ ; these two facts imply that  $\tilde{h} \leq p^f(p^F - 1)$  as in the proof of the first part.

Since obviously  $\tilde{h} \geq n + k$  and  $\tilde{h} \equiv h \pmod{p^F(q-1)}$ , we conclude that

$$\text{ord}(A(\tilde{h})) = \text{ord}(A(h)).$$

Thus, the index of the final corner of the Newton polygon is still no larger than  $p^f(p^F - 1)$ .

Let  $L$  be a finite extension of  $\mathbb{Q}_p$ . For exponential polynomials defined over  $L$ , there is an a priori bound on the number of zeros. Write  $e$  for the ramification index of  $L/\mathbb{Q}_p$ , and  $f$  for the residue degree.

**COROLLARY 1.** *Let  $b(z)$  be an exponential polynomial of order  $n \geq 3$  whose roots and coefficients belong to  $L$ . The total number  $N$  of zeros of  $b(z)$  in its disc of convergence satisfies  $N \leq p^f(p^F - 1)$ , where*

$$F = \left\lceil \frac{s_0 - 1}{p - 1} \right\rceil + \left\lfloor \log_p \left( n - 1 + e \frac{s_0 - 1}{p - 1} \right) \right\rfloor \leq \lfloor \log_p n \rfloor + \lfloor \log_p (n + e \lfloor \log_p n \rfloor) \rfloor.$$

If  $p \geq n$ , this can be improved as follows.

- (a) If  $L = \mathbb{Q}_p$ , then  $N \leq (n - 2)p$ .
- (b) If  $L/\mathbb{Q}_p$  is unramified, then  $N \leq (n - 2)p^f$ .
- (c) If  $L/\mathbb{Q}_p$  is ramified, then  $N \leq (n - 2)p^{f+E}$ , where

$$E = \left\lfloor \log_p \left( n - 1 + e \left( \frac{n - 2}{p - 1} \right) \right) \right\rfloor \leq \lfloor \log_p e \rfloor.$$

*Proof.* This is an immediate consequence of the theorem, using the trivial bounds  $\varepsilon \geq 1/e$  and  $\lfloor \log_p n \rfloor \geq (s_0 - 1)/(p - 1)$ , with  $s_0 - 1 = n - 2$  if  $p \geq n$ .

## 6. An example

Suppose that  $p > n$ . In this section we shall construct an exponential polynomial  $b(z)$  of order  $n$  defined over  $\mathbb{Q}_p$  which has  $(\lfloor \sqrt{n} \rfloor - 1)p$  zeros in its disc of convergence. This does not approach our bound  $(n - 2)p$ , but it at least shows the true bound has joint dependence on  $n$  and  $p$ .

To carry out the construction, we need some preliminary lemmas.

**LEMMA 5.** *Fix  $m < p$ , and put  $\lambda_j = 1 + jp$  for  $j = 0, 1, \dots, m$ . Then for any polynomial  $Q(t) \in \mathbb{Z}_p[t]$  of degree less than or equal to  $m$ , there are coefficients  $D_j \in \mathbb{Q}_p$  such that the power sum  $d(t) = \sum_{j=0}^m D_j \lambda_j^t$  satisfies*

$$d(t) \equiv Q(t) \pmod{p}$$

for all  $t \in \mathbb{N}$ .

*Proof.* Note that

$$\lambda_j^t = (1 + jp)^t = \sum_{i=0}^t \binom{t}{i} j^i p^i.$$

For each  $k < p$  the Vandermonde determinant  $V(0, 1, \dots, k)$  is a unit in  $\mathbb{Z}_p$ , and so there exist constants  $D_{j,k} \in (1/p^k)\mathbb{Z}_p$ ,  $0 \leq j \leq k$ , such that for  $0 \leq l \leq k$

$$\sum_{j=0}^k D_{j,k} j^l = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } l \neq k, \\ \frac{k!}{p^k} & \text{if } l = k. \end{cases}$$

Thus  $\sum_{j=0}^k D_{j,k} \lambda_j^l \equiv t(t-1)\dots(t-k+1) \pmod{p}$ . Taking linear combinations gives the lemma.

LEMMA 6. *Suppose that  $m < p-1$ , and let  $\alpha_i \in \mathbb{Z}_p^\times$ ,  $0 \leq i \leq m$ , be units such that  $\alpha_i \not\equiv \alpha_k \pmod{p}$  for  $i \neq k$ . Then, for any constants  $H_r \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ ,  $0 \leq r \leq m$ , there exist coefficients  $c_i \in \mathbb{Z}_p$  such that*

$$H_r = \sum_{i=0}^m c_i \alpha_i^r, \quad 0 \leq r \leq m.$$

*Proof.* This is because  $V(\alpha_0, \dots, \alpha_m) \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ .

We can now exhibit  $b(z)$ . Take  $m = \lfloor \sqrt{n} \rfloor - 1$ , put  $\alpha_i = 1+i$  for  $0 \leq i \leq m$ , and  $\lambda_j = 1+jp$  for  $0 \leq j \leq m$ . Then  $b(z)$  will have the form

$$b(z) = \sum_{i,j=0}^m B_{ij} \exp(\alpha_i \lambda_j z).$$

To construct the coefficients  $B_{ij}$ , first define polynomials  $Q_r(x) \in \mathbb{Z}_p[x]$  for  $0 \leq r \leq m$  by

$$Q_r(x) = \begin{cases} x(x-1)\dots(x-r) & \text{if } 0 \leq r \leq m-1, \\ (x-1)\dots(x-m) & \text{if } r = m, \end{cases}$$

and write  $Q_r(x) = \sum_{k=0}^m Q_{rk} x^k$ . Next find  $c_{ik} \in \mathbb{Z}_p$  such that for each  $k = 0, \dots, m$ ,

$$Q_{rk} = \sum_{i=0}^m c_{ik} \alpha_i^k, \quad 0 \leq r \leq m.$$

This can be done by Lemma 6. Finally, using Lemma 5, choose  $B_{ij} \in \mathbb{Q}_p$  such that for each  $i = 0, \dots, m$

$$\sum_{j=0}^m B_{ij} \lambda_j^t \equiv \sum_{k=0}^m c_{ik} t^k \pmod{p} \quad \text{for all } t \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

As defined,  $b(z)$  has order  $(m+1)^2 \leq n$ . If an exponential polynomial of exact order  $n$  is desired, add on additional terms of the form  $\exp(p\omega_k z)$ .

The disc of convergence of  $b(z)$  is  $\text{ord}(z) > 1/(p-1)$ . Expanding  $b(z)$  as a power series,

$$b(z) = \sum_{h=0}^{\infty} b_h \left(\frac{z}{\pi}\right)^h = \sum_{h=0}^{\infty} B(h) \frac{\pi^h}{h!} \left(\frac{z}{\pi}\right)^h,$$

where  $B(h) = \sum_{i,j} B_{ij} (\alpha_i \lambda_j)^h$ . As usual,

$$\text{ord}(b_h) = \text{ord}(B(h)) + \frac{s(h)}{p-1}.$$

To show that  $b(z)$  has  $mp$  zeros, we must show that  $mp$  is the first index for which  $\text{ord}(b_h)$  is minimal. First, note that  $\text{ord}(B(h)) \geq 0$  for all  $h$ . Indeed

$$B(h) = \sum_i \alpha_i^h \left( \sum_j B_{ij} \lambda_j^h \right) \equiv \sum_i \alpha_i^h \left( \sum_k c_{ik} h^k \right) \pmod{p},$$

and the  $c_{ik}$  belong to  $\mathbb{Z}_p$ .

Write  $h = r + t(p-1)$ , and for each  $r$ ,  $0 \leq r < p-1$ , put  $B_r(t) = B(r + t(p-1))$ .

Then

$$h \equiv \begin{cases} r & \text{mod } (p-1), \\ r-t & \text{mod } p. \end{cases}$$

Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} B_r(t) &\equiv \sum_i \alpha_i^r (\sum_k c_{ik} (r-t)^k) \\ &\equiv \sum_k (\sum_i c_{ik} \alpha_i^r) (r-t)^k \\ &\equiv \sum_k Q_{rk} (r-t)^k \\ &\equiv Q_r (r-t) \text{ mod } p. \end{aligned}$$

By our choice of  $Q_m(x)$ ,  $\text{ord}(B(mp)) = 0$ . Note that  $s(mp) = m$ . We now consider which values of  $h$  satisfy  $s(h) \leq m$ . Since  $s(h) \equiv h \text{ mod } (p-1)$ , it must be that  $h \equiv r \text{ mod } (p-1)$  for some  $r \leq m$ . In addition,  $t$  is constrained. Writing  $h = r + t(p-1) = h_0 + h_1 p + \dots + h_k p^k$ , we find that

$$\begin{aligned} t &= \frac{h-r}{p-1} = \sum_{i=1}^k h_i \left( \frac{p^i - 1}{p-1} \right) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^k h_i (1 + p + \dots + p^{i-1}) \\ &\equiv \sum_{i=1}^k h_i \equiv r - h_0 \text{ mod } p. \end{aligned}$$

Now if  $s(h) = r$  then obviously  $0 \leq h_0 \leq r$ . Thus, the only possible values of  $h$  with  $s(h) < m$  are such that  $h = r + t(p-1)$  with  $0 \leq r < m$  and  $t \equiv 0, 1, \dots, r \text{ mod } p$ . By our choice of the  $Q_r(x)$  and the congruence above,  $\text{ord}(B(h)) \geq 1$  for all these  $h$ . Furthermore, the only values of  $h < mp$  such that  $s(h) = m$  are  $h = m + t(p-1)$  for  $t = 0, 1, \dots, m-1$ . By the choice of  $Q_m(x)$ ,  $\text{ord}(B(h)) \geq 1$  for these  $h$  as well.

This proves the result.

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