QUADRATIC RESIDUES IN FIBONACCI SEQUENCES

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ABSTRACT. In this paper we find all the prime numbers p for which there exists a Fibonacci sequence modulo p, $(a_n)_{n>0}$, such that this sequence modulo p is the set of the quadratic residues modulo p.

1. INTRODUCTION

Let us first consider the sequence 1, 4, 5, 9, 3. These are the quadratic residues modulo 11 and we observe that each number of this sequence is the sum, modulo 11, of the previous two (and $9 + 3 \equiv 1 \pmod{11}$, $3 + 1 \equiv 4 \pmod{11}$). Similarly, if we consider the sequence 1, 5, 6, 11, 17, 9, 7, 16, 4, these are the quadratic residues modulo 19 and each number of this sequence is the sum, modulo 19, of the previous two (and $16 + 4 \equiv 1 \pmod{19}$), $4 + 1 \equiv 5 \pmod{19}$). We are asking which are the numbers which have the same property as 11 and 19. Therefore we consider the following.

Problem. Which are the prime numbers p > 2 such that there exists a sequence $(a_n)_{n>0}$ such that $a_{n+2} \equiv a_{n+1} + a_n \pmod{p}$ for any positive integer n, a_n is periodic modulo p with period $\frac{p-1}{2}$ and

$$\{\overline{a_n}|n\in\mathbb{N}^*\}=\{b^2|b\in\mathbb{F}_n^*\}?$$

In the above formula, \mathbb{F}_p^* is the multiplicative group of the field of the residues modulo p and $\overline{a_n}$ means the class of a_n modulo p. If p is a prime number, $p \equiv 1, 4 \pmod{5}$, then the Legendre symbol $\left(\frac{5}{p}\right)$ is 1 and so there exists a positive integer $m \leq \frac{p-1}{2}$ such that $5 \equiv m^2 \pmod{p}$. We will denote this number m by $\sqrt{5}$.

We will prove the following result.

Theorem 1.1. If p > 2 is a prime number, there exists a sequence $(a_n)_{n>0}$ such that $a_{n+2} \equiv a_{n+1} + a_n \pmod{p}$ for any positive integer n, a_n is periodic modulo p with period $\frac{p-1}{2}$ and $\{\overline{a_n}|1 \leq n \leq \frac{p-1}{2}\} = \{b^2|b \in \mathbb{F}_p^*\}$ if and only if

i)
$$p \equiv 1, 4 \pmod{5}$$
 and

ii) ord $\alpha = \frac{p-1}{2}$ or ord $\beta = \frac{p-1}{2}$, where $\alpha = \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}$ and $\beta = \frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2}$.

As above, $\sqrt{5}$ means the unique positive integer $m \leq \frac{p-1}{2}$ such that $5 \equiv m^2 \pmod{p}$. The orders ord α and ord β are considered in the multiplicative group \mathbb{F}_p^* .

If $p \equiv 1, 4 \pmod{5}$ and $\operatorname{ord} \alpha = \frac{p-1}{2}$ or $\operatorname{ord} \beta = \frac{p-1}{2}$, then it is easy to check the statement of the theorem since $\alpha^2 \equiv \alpha + 1 \pmod{p}$, $\beta^2 \equiv \beta + 1 \pmod{p}$. If $\operatorname{ord} \alpha = \frac{p-1}{2}$, then the sequence $(a_n)_{n>0}$ is $a_n = \alpha^n$. Since $\alpha^2 \equiv \alpha + 1 \pmod{p}$, we have $a_{n+2} \equiv a_{n+1} + a_n \pmod{p}$.

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Since $\operatorname{ord} \alpha = \frac{p-1}{2}$, then we have from Euler's Criterion that $1 \equiv \alpha^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \equiv \left(\frac{\alpha}{p}\right) \pmod{p}$ and $\left(\frac{\alpha}{p}\right) = 1$; this means that all the powers of α are quadratic residues modulo p.

This ends the proof. If $\operatorname{ord} \beta = \frac{p-1}{2}$, then the sequence $(a_n)_{n>0}$ is $a_n = \beta^n$ and we check in the same way as above the statement of the theorem. Therefore we have to prove only one implication. In the sequel we suppose that p > 2 is a prime such that there exists a sequence $(a_n)_{n>0}$ such that $a_{n+2} \equiv a_{n+1} + a_n \pmod{p}$ for any positive integer n, a_n is periodic modulo p with period $\frac{p-1}{2}$ and $\{\overline{a_n} | n \in \mathbb{N}^*\} = \{b^2 | b \in \mathbb{F}_p^*\}$. From the last condition we deduce that p does not divide a_n for any positive integer n. Replacing the sequence $(a_n)_{n>0}$ with the sequence $(b_n = \frac{a_n}{a_1})_{n>0}$ which has the same properties as the initial one, we can suppose that $a_1 = 1$ and $a_2 = x \neq 1 \pmod{p}$.

2. FIRST STEP: PROVING THAT $p \equiv 1, 4 \pmod{5}$.

We will now show the first statement of the theorem.

Proof. Obviously, the prime p = 5 does not have the properties stated in the theorem. Let us suppose now that $\left(\frac{5}{p}\right) = -1$. We have

$$a_{n+2} = F_n + xF_{n+1}, (2.1)$$

for all positive integers n, where F_n is the Fibonacci sequence. We know that $(a_n)_{n>0}$ modulo p is periodic with period $\frac{p-1}{2}$. Hence,

$$x = a_2 \equiv a_{p+1} = F_{p-1} + xF_p \pmod{p}, \quad 1 + x = a_3 \equiv a_{p+2} = F_p + xF_{p+1} \pmod{p}. \quad (2.2)$$

We have the well-known Catalan's formula (see [1], p. 157)

$$2^{n-1}F_n = C_n^1 + C_n^3 5 + C_n^5 5^2 + \cdots$$
(2.3)

where the C_n^k are the binomial coefficients $\binom{n}{k}$. If we put in the last equality n = p, then we have

$$2^{p-1}F_p = C_p^1 + C_p^3 5 + C_p^5 5^2 + \dots + C_p^p 5^{\frac{p-1}{2}}.$$
(2.4)

Since $2^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ and the binomial coefficients C_p^j are multiples of p for any $j = \overline{1, p-1}$, from the equation (2.4) it follows that $F_p \equiv 5^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \equiv \left(\frac{5}{p}\right) = -1 \pmod{p}$. If we put in equation (2.3) n = p + 1, we obtain

$$2^{p}F_{p+1} = C_{p+1}^{1} + C_{p+1}^{3}5 + C_{p+1}^{5}5^{2} + \dots + C_{p+1}^{p}5^{\frac{p-1}{2}}.$$
(2.5)

Since p divides C_{p+1}^j for any $2 \le j \le p-1$ and $2^p \equiv 2 \pmod{p}$ then $2F_{p+1} \equiv 1+5^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \equiv 1+\left(\frac{5}{p}\right)=0 \pmod{p}$. We obtain

$$F_p \equiv -1 \pmod{p}, \ F_{p+1} \equiv 0 \pmod{p}, \ F_{p-1} = F_{p+1} - F_p \equiv 1 \pmod{p}.$$

Replacing these values in formula (2.2), it follows that $1 + x = a_3 \equiv a_{p+2} = F_p + xF_{p+1} \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$, so that

 $x \equiv -2 \pmod{p}$

and $x = a_2 = a_{p+1} = F_{p-1} + xF_p \equiv 1 - x \pmod{p}$, $2x \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$. Combining this last congruence with $x \equiv -2 \pmod{p}$, it follows that $2(-2) \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$, p = 5, which is a contradiction. We proved that $p \equiv 1, 4 \pmod{5}$.

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3. The case $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$.

We will prove the second statement of the theorem in the case when $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$.

Proof. We have the classical Binet's formula (see [1], p. 155)

$$F_n \equiv \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \left(\alpha^n - \left(-\frac{1}{\alpha} \right)^n \right) \pmod{p}.$$
(3.1)

Putting in the above formula $n = \frac{p+1}{2}$ and taking into account the fact that $\frac{p+1}{2}$ is an even number and that $\alpha^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ we obtain

$$F_{\frac{p+1}{2}} \equiv \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \left(\alpha^{\frac{p+1}{2}} - \frac{1}{\alpha^{\frac{p+1}{2}}} \right) \equiv \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \frac{\alpha^2 - 1}{\alpha^{\frac{p+1}{2}}} \equiv \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \frac{\alpha}{\alpha^{\frac{p+1}{2}}} \equiv \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \frac{1}{\alpha^{\frac{p-1}{2}}} \pmod{p}.$$
(3.2)

Putting in formula (3.1) $n = \frac{p-1}{2}$ and taking into account the fact that $\frac{p-1}{2}$ is an odd number and that $\alpha^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ we obtain

$$F_{\frac{p-1}{2}} \equiv \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \left(\alpha^{\frac{p-1}{2}} + \frac{1}{\alpha^{\frac{p-1}{2}}} \right) \equiv \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \frac{2}{\alpha^{\frac{p-1}{2}}} \pmod{p}.$$
(3.3)

Since the sequence $(a_n)_{n>0}$ modulo p has period $\frac{p-1}{2}$ we have

$$x = a_2 \equiv a_{\frac{p+3}{2}} = F_{\frac{p-1}{2}} + xF_{\frac{p+1}{2}} \pmod{p}, \ x(1 - F_{\frac{p+1}{2}}) \equiv F_{\frac{p-1}{2}} \pmod{p}.$$
(3.4)

Case 1. $\alpha^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$. In this case, from formulas (3.2) and (3.3) it follows that $F_{\frac{p+1}{2}} \equiv \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \pmod{p}$ and $F_{\frac{p-1}{2}} \equiv \frac{2}{\sqrt{5}} \pmod{p}$. Putting these values in formula (3.4) we obtain $x(1-\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}) \equiv \frac{2}{\sqrt{5}} \pmod{p}$ and

$$x \equiv \frac{2}{\sqrt{5}-1} \equiv \frac{\sqrt{5}+1}{2} = \alpha \pmod{p}.$$

Therefore, $a_2 = x, a_3 = 1 + x \equiv 1 + \alpha \equiv \alpha^2 \pmod{p}$ and by induction we infer that $a_n \equiv \alpha^n \pmod{p}$ for any positive integer n. From the condition of the hypothesis it follows now immediately that $ord \alpha = \frac{p-1}{2}$.

Case 2. $\alpha^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$. In this case, from formulas (3.2) and (3.3) it follows that $F_{\frac{p+1}{2}} \equiv -\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \pmod{p}$ and $F_{\frac{p-1}{2}} \equiv -\frac{2}{\sqrt{5}} \pmod{p}$. Putting these values in formula (3.4) we obtain $x(1 + \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}) \equiv -\frac{2}{\sqrt{5}} \pmod{p}$ and

$$x \equiv -\frac{2}{\sqrt{5}+1} \equiv \frac{-\sqrt{5}+1}{2} = \beta \pmod{p}.$$

Therefore, $a_2 = x, a_3 = 1 + x \equiv 1 + \beta \equiv \beta^2 \pmod{p}$ and by induction we infer that $a_n \equiv \beta^n \pmod{p}$ for any positive integer n. From the condition of the hypothesis it follows immediately that $\operatorname{ord} \beta = \frac{p-1}{2}$.

4. The case $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$.

We will show first that $\left(\frac{\alpha}{p}\right) = 1$ in this case.

Proof. From formula (3.1) it follows that

$$F_{\frac{p-1}{2}} \equiv \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \left(\alpha^{\frac{p-1}{2}} - \frac{1}{\alpha^{\frac{p-1}{2}}} \right) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$$
(4.1)

and from formula (3.4) we infer that $F_{\frac{p+1}{2}} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$. Let us suppose that $\left(\frac{\alpha}{p}\right) = -1$. From formula (3.1) it follows that

$$F_{\frac{p+1}{2}} \equiv \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \left(\alpha^{\frac{p+1}{2}} + \frac{1}{\alpha^{\frac{p+1}{2}}} \right) \equiv -\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \frac{\alpha^2 + 1}{\alpha} \equiv -\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \frac{\alpha\sqrt{5}}{\alpha} \equiv -1 \pmod{p}.$$
(4.2)

In the above proof we used $\alpha^2 + 1 \equiv \alpha \sqrt{5} \pmod{p}$. Formula (4.2) does not fit with what we obtained above: $F_{\frac{p+1}{2}} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$. Therefore we have proved that $\left(\frac{\alpha}{p}\right) = 1$ in this case.

We will show that $\operatorname{ord} \alpha = \frac{p-1}{2}$ or $\operatorname{ord} \beta = \frac{p-1}{2}$. Let us denote $d = \operatorname{ord} \alpha$ in \mathbb{F}_p^* . Since $\left(\frac{\alpha}{p}\right) = 1$, we infer from Euler's Criterion that $\alpha^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ and therefore d divides $\frac{p-1}{2}$. We have $\frac{p-1}{2} = kd$, where $k \in \mathbb{N}^*$. If k = 1, we have proved the theorem. Let us suppose now that $k \geq 2$. From formula (3.1) it follows that $F_{n+2d} \equiv F_n \pmod{p}$ for any positive integer n and that $a_{n+2d} \equiv a_n \pmod{p}$ for any positive integer n. Since the period of $(a_n)_{n>0}$ modulo p is $\frac{p-1}{2}$, it follows that $2d \geq \frac{p-1}{2} = kd, 2 \geq k \geq 2, k = 2, d = \frac{p-1}{4}$. Let us show now that in this case $d = \frac{p-1}{4}$ is odd. Indeed, if d would be even, then from formula (3.1) it would follow that $F_{n+d} \equiv F_n \pmod{p}$ for any positive integer n and that $a_{n+d} \equiv a_n \pmod{p}$ for any positive integer n and that $a_{n+d} \equiv a_n \pmod{p}$ for any positive integer n and that $a_{n+d} \equiv n \pmod{p}$ for any positive integer n and that $a_{n+d} \equiv a_n \pmod{p}$ for any positive integer n. It would result that the period of $(a_n)_{n>0}$ modulo p would be smaller than $d = \frac{p-1}{4}$ which is false since the period of $(a_n)_{n>0}$ modulo p is $\frac{p-1}{2}$. Then d is odd. We will show now that $\operatorname{ord} \beta = \frac{p-1}{2}$. Let us denote $d_1 = \operatorname{ord} \beta$ in \mathbb{F}_p^* . We have

$$\beta^{\frac{p-1}{2}} = \left(-\frac{1}{\alpha}\right)^{\frac{p-1}{2}} = \frac{1}{\alpha^{\frac{p-1}{2}}} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$$
(4.3)

and therefore d_1 divides $\frac{p-1}{2}$. We have

$$1 \equiv \beta^{2d_1} = \left(-\frac{1}{\alpha}\right)^{2d_1} = \frac{1}{\alpha^{2d_1}} \pmod{p}$$

and therefore, $\alpha^{2d_1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ and $\frac{p-1}{4} = d = ord \alpha$ divides $2d_1$. Since d is odd, it follows that d divides d_1 and from (4.3) it follows that d_1 divides $\frac{p-1}{2}$. We infer that $d_1 = \frac{p-1}{4}$ or $d_1 = \frac{p-1}{2}$. If $d_1 = \frac{p-1}{4}$, then (since $d = d_1$ is odd)

$$1 \equiv \beta^{d_1} = \left(-\frac{1}{\alpha}\right)^{d_1} = -\frac{1}{\alpha^d} \equiv -1 \pmod{p},$$

which is a contradiction. Therefore, $d_1 = \frac{p-1}{2} = ord \beta$ and we finished the proof of the theorem.

Remark. The first prime number $p \equiv 1, 4 \pmod{5}$ which does not have the property stated in Theorem 1.1 is p = 41. In this case $\sqrt{5}$ is 13 since $13^2 \equiv 5 \pmod{41}$. Hence, $\alpha = \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2} =$ 7 and $\beta = \frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2} = -6$. We have $\alpha^{20} \equiv \left(\frac{7}{41}\right) = -1 \pmod{41}$, $\beta^{20} \equiv \left(\frac{-6}{41}\right) = -1 \pmod{41}$ and α and β do not have order 20.

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5. Another result and a Conjecture.

Following the same path as above we can prove the following result.

Theorem 5.1. If p > 2 is a prime number, there exists a sequence $(a_n)_{n>0}$ such that $a_{n+2} \equiv$ $a_{n+1} + a_n \pmod{p}$ for any positive integer n, a_n is periodic modulo p with period p-1 and $\{\overline{a_n}|1 \le n \le p-1\} = \mathbb{F}_p^*$ if and only if i) $p \equiv 1, 4 \pmod{5}$ and ii) ord $\alpha = p-1$ or ord $\beta = p-1$, where $\alpha = \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}$ and $\beta = \frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2}$. As above, $\sqrt{5}$ means the unique positive integer $m \leq \frac{p-1}{2}$ such that $5 \equiv m^2 \pmod{p}$.

The above two results suggest to study the following.

Conjecture. If p > 2 is a prime number and k is a divisor of p-1, there exists a sequence $(a_n)_{n>0}$ such that $a_{n+2} \equiv a_{n+1} + a_n \pmod{p}$ for any positive integer n, a_n is periodic modulo p with period $\frac{p-1}{k}$ and $\{\overline{a_n}|1 \leq n \leq \frac{p-1}{k}\} = \{b^k|b \in \mathbb{F}_p^*\}$ if and only if i) $p \equiv 1, 4 \pmod{5}$ and

ii) ord $\alpha = \frac{p-1}{k}$ or ord $\beta = \frac{p-1}{k}$, where $\alpha = \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}$ and $\beta = \frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2}$. As above, $\sqrt{5}$ means the unique positive integer $m \leq \frac{p-1}{2}$ such that $5 \equiv m^2 \pmod{p}$.

References

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MSC2000: 11A15, 11B39

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