# DIVISIBILITY PROPERTIES OF THE FIBONACCI NUMBERS MINUS ONE, GENERALIZED TO $C_{n}-C_{n-1}+C_{n-2}+k$ 

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## 1. Introduction

The numbers $\left\{C_{n}(a, b, k)\right\}$, defined by

$$
C_{n}(a, b, k)=C_{n-1}(a, b, k)+C_{n-2}(a, b, k)+k,
$$

with $C_{1}(a, b, k)=a, C_{2}(a, b, k)=b$, where $k$ is a constant, have been studied in [1]. The Fibonacci sequence arises as the special case $F_{n}=C_{n}(1,1,0)$, while the Lucas sequence is $I_{n}=C_{n}(1,3,0)$. The sequence

$$
\left\{C_{n}\right\}=\{\ldots, 0,0,1,2,4,7,12,20, \ldots\}
$$

where $C_{n}=C_{n}(0,0,1)$, has the property that $C_{n}=F_{n}-1$, the sequence of Fibonacci numbers minus one.

The sequence $\left\{C_{n}\right\}$ has remarkable divisibility properties since almost every term is a composite number and at least one factor can always be named by examining the subscript of $C_{n}$. Further, $\left\{\int_{r_{n}}\right\}$ contains exactly two prime terms, and two-thirds of its terms are even numbers. Analogous properties extend to the generalized sequence $\left\{C_{n}(a, b, k)\right\}$.

## 2. Prime Factors of $C_{n}$

First, since $F_{3 m}$ gives all the even Fibonacci numbers, $C_{3 m}$ is always odd, and $C_{3 m \pm 1}$ is always even, so the probability of choosing an even term from $\left\{C_{n}\right\}$ at random is $2 / 3$. Since $C_{n}=F_{n}-1$, we can use [2] to prove some theorems in one step.

Theorem 1: For primes of the form $p=5 k \pm 2, p$ divides both $C_{p-1}$ and $C_{2 p+1}$.
Proof: We have $F_{p} \equiv-1(\bmod p)$ and $F_{p+1} \equiv 0(\bmod p)$ from [2]. Then

$$
C_{p-1}=F_{p-1}-1=F_{p+1}-\left(F_{p}+1\right)
$$

while

$$
C_{2 p+1}=F_{2 p+1}-1=\left(F_{p+1}\right)^{2}+\left(F_{p}+1\right) F_{p}-\left(F_{p}+1\right),
$$

where all terms on the right-hand side are divisible by $p$ in both cases.
Theorem 2: For primes of the form $p=5 k \pm 1, p$ divides $C_{p}, C_{p+1}, C_{p-2}, C_{2 p-1}$, $C_{2 p}$, and $C_{2 p-3}$.

Proof: We have $F_{p} \equiv 1(\bmod p)$ and $F_{p-1} \equiv 0(\bmod p)$ from [2]. We write $C_{p}$, $C_{p+1}$, and $C_{p-2}$ in forms in which $p$ divides the terms on the right-hand side:
$C_{p}=\left(F_{p}-1\right)$,
$C_{p+1}=F_{p+1}-1=F_{p-1}+\left(F_{p}-1\right)$,
$C_{p-2}=F_{p-2}-1=\left(F_{p}-1\right)-F_{p-1}$.
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Since

$$
C_{p+n-1}=F_{p+n-1}-1=F_{p}\left(F_{n}-1\right)+F_{p-1} F_{n-1}+\left(F_{p}-1\right)
$$

where $p \mid F_{p-1} F_{n-1}$ and $p \mid\left(F_{p}-1\right)$ but $p$ does not divide $F_{p}$, observe that whenever $p \mid\left(F_{n}-1\right)$, then $p \mid C_{p+n-1}$. Let $n=p, p+1$, and $p-2$ to write that $p\left|C_{2 p-1}, p\right| C_{2 p}$, and $p \mid C_{2 p-3}$.
Further, a little rewriting lets us prove the following corollary.
Corollary: If $p \mid C_{n}$, then $p \mid C_{n+m(p-1)}, m=0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \ldots$, where $p$ is a prime of the form $5 k \pm 1$.

Proof: From the proof of Theorem 2, if $p \mid C_{n}$, then $p \mid C_{n+(p-1)}$. The corollary holds by the Axiom of Mathematical Induction, since whenever $p \mid C_{n+m(p-1)}$, then

$$
p \mid C_{[n+m(p-1)]+(p-1)}=C_{n+(m+1)(p-1)} .
$$

Theorem 3: If $\Pi(p)$ is the period of a prime $p$ in the Fibonacci sequence modulo $p$, then

$$
p\left|C_{k \pi(p)-1}, \quad p\right| C_{k \pi(p)+1}, \quad \text { and } p \mid C_{k \pi(p)+2}
$$

Proof: Since

$$
C_{k \pi(p)+n}-C_{n}=F_{k \pi(p)+n}-F_{n}
$$

and since $p$ divides the right-hand side by definition of $\Pi(p)$, if $p \mid C_{n}$, then $p \mid C_{k \pi(p)+n}$. Theorem 3 follows because $C_{-1}=C_{1}=C_{2}=0$.

Corollary: The prime 5 divides $C_{20 k-1}, C_{20 k+1}, C_{20 k+2}$, and $C_{20 k+8}$.
Proof: $\Pi(5)=20$, and 5 divides $C_{-1}, C_{1}, C_{2}$, and $C_{8}$.
Theorem 4: If $p$ is a prime of the form $5 k \pm 2$, then $p \mid C_{q(p+1)-2}$ if $q$ is odd. If $q$ is even, $p\left|C_{q(p+1)-1}, p\right| C_{q(p+1)+1}$, and $p \mid C_{q(p+1)+2}$.

Proof: If $p \mid C_{n}$, then $p \mid C_{n+m \Pi(p)}$ as in the proof of Theorem 3. From [3], if $p$ is a prime of the form $5 k \pm 2$, then $\Pi(p) \mid 2(p+1)$. Then, $p \mid C_{n+2 m(p+1)}$, $m$ any integer. Since

$$
p\left|C_{p-1}, p\right| C_{p-1+2 m(p+1)}=C_{(2 m+1) p+(2 m-1)}
$$

or, for $q$ odd,

$$
p \mid C_{q p}+(q-2)=C_{q(p+1)-2}
$$

If $q$ is even, let $q(p+1)=k \Pi(p)$ for some $k$, since $\Pi(p) \mid 2(p+1)$, and use Theorem 3.

Corollary: If $p=5 k \pm 2$, then

> (i) $p$ divides $C_{(p+2)(p-1)}, C_{p(p+3)}$, and $C_{p^{s}(p+1)-2}$;
> (ii) $p$ divides $C_{p(p+2)}, C_{p^{2}-2}, C_{p^{2}}$, and $C_{p^{2}+1}$

Proof: (i) Take $q$ odd, $q=p, q=p+2$, and $q=p^{s}$, in Theorem 4. To show (ii), take $q$ even, $q=p+1, q=p-1$.

Theorem 5: If $p$ is a prime of the form $5 k \pm 1$, then

$$
p\left|C_{(m+1) p-(m+2)}, \quad p\right| C_{(m+1) p-(m-1)}, \quad \text { and } p \mid C_{(m+1) p-m} \text { for any integer } m
$$

Proof: From the Corollary to Theorem 2, if $p \mid C_{n}$, then $p \mid C_{n+m(p-1)}$. From Theorem 2 , take $n=p-2, p+1$, and $n=p$, and simplify.

Corollary: For any prime $p, p \neq 5, p\left|C_{p^{2}}, p\right| C_{p^{2}+1}$, and $p \mid C_{p^{2}-2}$.
Proof: If $p=5 k \pm 1$, let $m=p$ in Theorem 5. If $p=5 k \pm 2$, use the Corollary to Theorem 4.

Theorem 6: If $\Pi(j)$ is the period of any integer $j, j \neq 0$, in the Fibonacci sequence modulo $j$, then, for all integers $k$,

$$
j\left|C_{k \Pi(j)-1}, \quad j\right| C_{k \Pi(j)+1}, \quad \text { and } j \mid C_{k \Pi(j)+2}
$$

Proof: See the proof of Theorem 3. Notice that any integer will eventually divide $C_{n}$ for some $n$.

## 3. Fibonacci and Lucas Factors of $C_{n}$

Since $C_{m+n}-C_{m-n}=F_{m+n}-F_{m-n}$, we can write
(3.1) $C_{m+n}-C_{m-n}=F_{m} I_{n}$, if $n$ is odd,

$$
C_{m+n}-C_{m-n}=I_{m} F_{n}, \text { if } n \text { is even. }
$$

Observe that, if $L_{n} \mid C_{m-n}$, then $L_{n} \mid C_{m+n}$, and $L_{n}$ has period $2 n$ if $n$ is odd. Similarly, $F_{n}$ has period $2 n$ if $n$ is even. Putting these together with Theorem 6 , we write

Theorem 7: If $n$ is odd, $L_{n}$ divides $C_{2 r n-1}, C_{2 r n+1}$, and $C_{2 r n+2}$, while if $n$ is even, $F_{n}$ divides $C_{2 r n-1}, C_{2 r n+1}$, and $C_{2 r n+2}$ for any integer $r$ 。

Now things are getting exciting. Since we can take $n=2 k+1$ to find that $L_{2 k+1}$ divides $C_{4 k+1}, C_{4 k+3}$, and $C_{4 k+4}$, and $n=2 k$ to see that $F_{2 k}$ divides $C_{4 k-1}, C_{4 k+1}$, and $C_{4 k+2}$, notice that $C_{n}$ is always divisible either by $L_{2 k+1}$ or by $F_{2 k}$. Now, if $k=1, F_{2}=1$ divides any integer, so take $|k| \geq 2$. Thus, if $n \geq 7$, or if $n \leq-5$, then $C_{n}$ always has at least one factor smaller than $C_{n}$ and greater than 1 which we can write exactly, so $C_{n}$ is not prime. We examine the sequence from $C_{-4}$ through $C_{6}:-4,1,-2,0,-1,0,0,1,2,4,7$, and find that the only primes are 2 and 7 .

Theorem 8: The sequence of Fibonacci numbers minus one, $C_{n}=F_{n}-1$, contains only composite numbers for $a 11 n \geq 7$ and all $n \leq-5$. The only primes which appear in $\left\{C_{n}\right\}$ are $C_{4}=2, C_{6}=7$, and $\left|C_{-2}\right|=2$.

$$
\text { 4. Divisibility of the Generalized Sequence }\left\{C_{n}(a, b, k)\right\}
$$

From [1], the sequence $\left\{C_{n}(a, b, k)\right\}$ with initial values $C_{1}=a$ and $C_{2}=b$ is given by

$$
\text { (4.1) } \begin{aligned}
C_{n}(a, b, k) & =C_{n-1}(\alpha, b, k)+C_{n-2}(a, b, k)+k \\
& =a F_{n-2}+b F_{n-1}+k C_{n}(0,0,1) \\
& =H_{n}+k C_{n}
\end{aligned}
$$

for the generalized Fibonacci numbers $H_{n}, H_{n}=C_{n}(a, b, 0)$, and $C_{n}(0,0,1)=C_{n}$ of the earlier section.

As in Section 3,

$$
C_{m+n}(a, b, k)-C_{m-n}(a, b, k)=\left(H_{m+n}-H_{m-n}\right)+k\left(C_{m+n}-C_{m-n}\right)
$$

so that we can write

$$
\begin{align*}
& C_{m+n}(\alpha, b, k)-C_{m-n}(\alpha, b, k)=L_{n} H_{m}+k F_{m} L_{n}, \quad \text { if } n \text { is odd; }  \tag{4.2}\\
& C_{m+n}(\alpha, b, k)-C_{m-n}(\alpha, b, k)=F_{n}\left(H_{m+1}+H_{m-1}\right)+k L_{m} F_{n}, \text { if } n \text { is even. }
\end{align*}
$$

Thus, the periods of $F_{n}$ and $L_{n}$ are still $2 n$, where we again distinguish $n$ even and $n$ odd. Also, since every nonzero integer eventually divides $F_{k}$ for some $k$, every nonzero integer will divide $C_{n}(\alpha, b, k)$ for some $n$ if $\left\{C_{n}(\alpha, b, k)\right\}$ contains a zero term. If $\left\{C_{n}(\alpha, b, k)\right\}$ contains two zero terms, in some cases we will again have a finite number of primes occurring.

Theorem 9: If $C_{q}(\alpha, b, k)=0$, and if a nonzero integer $j$ has period $\Pi(j)$ in the Fibonacci sequence, then $j \mid C_{q+m \pi(j)}(\alpha, b, k)$ for all integers $m$.

Theorem 10: If $F_{2 m} \mid C_{q}(a, b, k)$, then

$$
F_{2 m} \mid C_{q+4 m}(\alpha, b, k)
$$

and if $I_{2 m+1} \mid C_{q}(\alpha, b, k)$, then

$$
L_{2 m+1} \mid C_{q+4 m+2}(\alpha, b, k)
$$

for any integer $m$.
Now, Theorem 10 gives us some interesting special cases. Notice that if $C_{q}(a, b, k)=0$, and if $C_{q+r}(a, b, k)=0$, where $r$ is an odd number, then $\left\{C_{n}(a, b, k)\right\}$ will contain a finite number of primes, because for $n$ larger than certain beginning values, $C_{n}(\alpha, b, k)$ will always be divisible either by $F_{2 m}$ or $L_{2 m+1}$, where $F_{2 m} \neq 0, \pm 1$, and $L_{2 m+1} \neq \pm 1$.

Without loss of generality, if $\left\{C_{n}(a, b, k)\right\}$ has a zero term, renumber the terms, taking new starting values, so that

$$
a=0=C_{1}(0, b, k)
$$

Then, if $C_{r+1}(0, b, k)=0$ for some $r>0$, from (4.1),

$$
C_{r+1}(0, b, k)=0 \cdot F_{r-1}+b F_{r}+k C_{r+1}=0
$$

where we list some possibilities and special cases. Notice that $k=F_{r}$ and $b=$ $-C_{r+1}=-F_{r+1}+1$ always is a solution, and write the resulting

$$
C_{n}(a, b, k)=C_{n}\left(0,-C_{r+1}, F_{r}\right)
$$

For $r=1$, we have $C_{n}(0,0,1)=C_{n}$; for $r=2, C_{n}(0,-1,1)=C_{n-2}$; and $r=3$ gives $C_{n}(0,-2,2)=2 C_{n-2}$, all the sequence of Fibonacci numbers minus one.

Consider $r=4$ and $\left\{C_{n}(0,-4,3)\right\}=\{\ldots, 0,-4,1,-2,0,1,4,8,15,26$, 44, 73, 120, ...\}. We can show that

$$
C_{n}(0,-4,3)=-4 E_{n-1}+3 C_{n}=L_{n-3}-3
$$

From [2], we have $L_{2 p} \equiv 3(\bmod p)$ where $p$ is any prime, so $p \mid L_{2 p}-3$, and we have

$$
p \mid C_{2 p+3}(0,-4,3)
$$

A11 odd-subscripted $C_{n}(0,-4,3)$ have $F_{m}$ or $L_{m}$ for a divisor for some $m$, but we cannot easily say whether or not $\left\{C_{n}(0,-4,3)\right\}$ contains a finite number of primes. However, any prime terms will have a subscript of the form $6 m$. If $r$ is even, we cannot determine whether or $\operatorname{not}\left\{C_{n}(0, b, k)\right\}$ will contain a finite number of prime terms.

However, for $r=5,\left\{C_{n}(0,-7,5)\right\}$ contains only two primes, 2 and 7. We write $C_{n}(0,-7,5)$ for $-3 \leq n \leq 10:-24,7,-12,0,-7,-2,-4,-1,0,4,9$, 18, 32. We observe $\left|C_{1}\right|=2$ and $\left|C_{3}\right|=7=C_{-2}$. From Theorem 10,

$$
L_{2 k+1}\left|C_{1+4 k+2}, L_{2 k+1}\right| C_{6+4 k+2}, F_{2 k} \mid C_{1+4 k}, \text { and } F_{2 k} \mid C_{6+4 k},
$$

covering every possible subscript, so that $C_{n}(0,-7,5)$ always has $F_{2 k}$ or $L_{2 k+1}$ for a divisor. But $F_{2 k}= \pm 1$ for $k= \pm 1$, and $L_{2 k+1}= \pm 1$ for $k=0$ and $k=-1$. So terms $C_{n}(0,-7,5)$ for $n>10$ or $n<-3$ have a divisor greater than 1 and less than $C_{n}(0,-7,5)$ and thus are not prime. For $r=7$, in a similar fashion, we find only the three primes 7,73 , and 79 in $\left\{C_{n}(0,-20,13)\right\}$. If $r=9$, all the terms of $\left\{C_{n}(0,-54,34)\right\}$ are even, but, if we instead consider $\left\{C_{n}(0,-27,17)\right\}$, we find

$$
\left|C_{5}\right|=13=C_{11},\left|C_{8}\right|=11, \text { and } C_{14}=107
$$

as the only primes. Finally, $r=11$ has only two primes

$$
\left|C_{5}\right|=73 \text { and }\left|C_{8}\right|=79
$$

but $r=13$ is the best of all, containing no primes at all!
From the preceding discussion, we can write the following theorem.
Theorem 11: If $\left\{C_{n}(a, b, k)\right\}$ has $C_{1}(a, b, k)=0$ and $C_{1+r}(a, b, k)=0$ for $r$ an odd integer, then $\left|C_{n}(a, b, k)\right|$ is prime for only a finite number of values for $n$.

Now, recall from above that the probability of choosing an even term from $\left\{C_{n}\right\}=\left\{C_{n}(0,0,1)\right\}$ is $2 / 3 .\left\{C_{n}(a, b, k)\right\}$ has the same property only when $k$ is odd, and when at least one of $a$ or $b$ is even. These results can be verified by examining $C_{n}(a, b, k)$ from (4.1) for $n=3 m, 3 m+1$, and $3 m+2$, where we always take $k$ odd.

$$
\begin{equation*}
C_{3 m}(a, b, k)=\alpha F_{3 m-2}+b F_{3 m-1}+k C_{3 m} \tag{i}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note that $k C_{3 m}, F_{3 m-1}$, and $F_{3 m-2}$ are all odd. Then, if $a$ and $b$ have the same parity, $C_{3 m}(a, b, k)$ is odd, while if $a$ and $b$ have opposite parity, $C_{3 m}(a, b, k)$ is even.
(ii) $\quad C_{3 m+1}(a, b, k)=\alpha F_{3 m-1}+b F_{3 m}+k C_{3 m+1}$.

Here both $b F_{3 m}$ and $k C_{3 m+1}$ are always even, while $F_{m-1}$ is odd, so $C_{3 m+1}(a, b, k)$ is even or odd as $a$ is even or odd.
(iii)

$$
C_{3 m+2}(a, b, k)=\alpha F_{3 m}+b F_{3 m+1}+k C_{3 m+2}
$$

Now, $\alpha F_{3 m}$ and $k C_{3 m+2}$ are always even, while $F_{3 m+1}$ is odd, so $C_{3 m+2}(\alpha, b, k)$ is even or odd as $b$ is even or odd.

Putting the three cases together, first notice that, if all of $a, b$, and $k$ are odd, $C_{n}(a, b, k)$ is always odd. If $a$ and $b$ are both even, $C_{3 m}(a, b, k)$ is odd but $C_{3 m+1}(a, b, k)$ and $C_{3 m+2}(\alpha, b, k)$ are both even. If $a$ and $b$ have opposite parity, $C_{3 m}(a, b, k)$ is even, and either $C_{3 m+1}(a, b, k)$ or $C_{3 m+2}(a, b$, $k$ ) is even, but not both. Then, if $k$ is odd, and at least one of $a$ or $b$ is even, the probability that a term chosen at random from $\left\{C_{n}(\alpha, b, k)\right\}$ will be even is $2 / 3$.

Next, re-examine the three cases for $k$ even. If $a, b$, and $k$ are all even, $C_{n}(a, b, k)$ is always even, a trivial result. In (i), $k C_{3 m}$ is even, while $F_{3 m-2}$ and $F_{3 m-1}$ are odd, so that $C_{3 m}(a, b, k)$ is odd if $a$ and $b$ have opposite parity, but even if $\alpha$ and $b$ have the same parity. From (ii), both $b F_{3 m}$ and $k C_{3 m+1}$ are even, while $F_{3 m-1}$ is odd, so $C_{3 m+1}(\alpha, b, k)$ is even or odd as $a$ is
even or odd. From (iii), both $\alpha F_{3 m}$ and $k C_{3 m+2}$ are even, while $F_{3 m+1}$ is odd, so $C_{3 m+2}(a, b, k)$ is even or odd as $b$ is even or odd. Putting these results together, if $k$ is even, and $a$ and $b$ have opposite parity, then $C_{3 m}(a, b, k)$ is odd while exactly one of $C_{3 m+1}(a, b, k)$ or $C_{3 m+2}(a, b, k)$ is odd. If $k$ is even and both $a$ and $b$ are odd, $C_{3 m}(a, b, k)$ is even but both $C_{3 m+1}(a, b, k)$ and $C_{3 m+2}(a, b, k)$ are odd. Thus, if $k$ is even and at least one of $a$ or $b$ is odd, the probability of randomly choosing an even term from $\left\{C_{n}(\alpha, b, k)\right\}$ is $1 / 3$. We summarize in Theorem 12.

Theorem 12: If $k$ is odd, and at least one of $a$ or $b$ is even, the probability that a term chosen at random from $\left\{C_{n}(\alpha, b, k)\right\}$ will be even is $2 / 3$. If $k$ is even, and at least one of $a$ or $b$ is odd, the probability that a term chosen at random from $\left\{C_{n}(\alpha, b, k)\right\}$ will be even is $1 / 3$. If $\alpha, b$, and $k$ are all odd, $C_{n}(a, b, k)$ is always odd.

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# Applications of Fibonacci Numbers 

## Volume 3

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