A PRIMER FOR THE FIBONACCI NUMBERS: PART IX

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TO PROVE: F Divides Fnk

For many years, it has been known that the n<sup>th</sup> Fibonacci number F<sub>n</sub>

divides F<sub>m</sub> if and only if n divides m, n > 2. Many different proofs have been given; it will be instructive and entertaining to examine some of them.

Some special cases are very easy. It is obvious that F<sub>k</sub> divides F<sub>2k</sub>,

for F<sub>m</sub> = F<sub>1</sub>. If we wish only to prove that F<sub>m</sub> divides F<sub>m</sub>, when k is a

for  $F_{2k} = F_k L_k$ . If we wish only to prove that  $F_n$  divides  $F_{nk}$  when k is a power of 2, the identity

$$\mathbf{F}_{2j_n} = \mathbf{F}_n \mathbf{L}_n \mathbf{L}_{2n} \mathbf{L}_{4n} \cdots \mathbf{L}_{2^{j-1}n}$$

suffices.

# 1. PROOFS USING THE BINET FORM

Perhaps the simplest proof to understand is one which depends upon simple algebra and the Binet form (see [1]),

$$F_{n} = \frac{\alpha^{n} - \beta^{n}}{\alpha - \beta} ,$$

where

$$\alpha = (1 + \sqrt{5})/2,$$
  $\beta = (1 - \sqrt{5})/2$ 

are the roots of  $x^2 - x - 1 = 0$ . Then

$$F_n = \frac{\alpha^{nk} - \beta^{nk}}{\alpha - \beta} = \frac{\alpha^k - \beta^k}{\alpha - \beta} \cdot (M) = F_k^M,$$

where

$$M = \alpha^{(n-1)k} + \alpha^{(n-2)k} \beta^{k} + \alpha^{(n-3)k} \beta^{2k} + \dots + \alpha^{k} \beta^{(n-2)k} + \beta^{(n-1)k}.$$

If M is an integer, then  $F_k$  divides  $F_{nk}$ ,  $k \neq 0$ .

Since  $\alpha\beta = -1$ , if (n-1)k is odd, pairing the first and last terms, second and next to last terms, and so on,

$$M = (\alpha^{(n-1)k} + \beta^{(n-1)k}) + (-1)^{k}(\alpha^{(n-3)k} + \beta^{(n-3)k}) + (-1)^{2k}(\alpha^{(n-5)k} + \beta^{(n-5)k}) + \dots$$

$$= L_{(n-1)k} + (-1)^{k}L_{(n-3)k} + (-1)^{2k}L_{(n-5)k} + \cdots$$

where the nth Lucas number is given by

$$L_{n} = \alpha^{n} + \beta^{n} .$$

Thus, M is the sum of integers, and hence an integer. If (n-1)k is even, the symmetric pairs can again be formed except for the middle term which is

$$(\alpha \beta)^{(n-1)k/2} = (-1)^{(n-1)k/2}$$

again making M an integer. Thus,  $F_k$  divides  $F_{nk}$ , or,  $F_n$  divides  $F_m$  if n divides m.

### 2. PROOFS BY MATHEMATICAL INDUCTION

Other proofs can be derived, starting with a known identity and using mathematical induction. For example, use the known identity (see [2])

$$\mathbf{F}_{m+n} = \mathbf{F}_{m}\mathbf{F}_{n+1} + \mathbf{F}_{m-1}\mathbf{F}_{n} \cdot$$

Let m = nk:

(4) 
$$F_{nk+n} = F_{n(k+1)} = F_{nk}F_{n+1} + F_{nk-1}F_n$$

Chylously,  $F_n$  divides  $F_n$  and  $F_n$  divides  $F_{2n}$ , for  $F_{2n} = F_n L_n$ , so that  $F_n$  divides  $F_{kn}$  for k = 1, 2. Assume that  $F_n$  divides  $F_{in}$  for i = 1, 2, ..., k. Then, since  $F_n$  divides  $F_n$  and  $F_n$  divides  $F_{kn}$ , identity (4) forces  $F_n$  also to divide  $F_{n(k+1)}$ , so that  $F_n$  divides  $F_{kn}$  for all positive integers K.

Another identity, easily proved using (2) and (3), which leads to an easy proof by mathematical induction is

$$L_{n}F_{m-n} + F_{n}L_{m-n} = 2F_{m}.$$

Let m = nk, yielding

(6) 
$$L_n F_{n(k-1)} + F_n L_{n(k-1)} = 2F_{nk}$$
.

If  $F_n$  divides  $F_n$  and  $F_n$  divides  $F_{n(k-1)}$ , then  $F_n$  must divide  $F_{nk}$ , for  $|F_n| > 2$ .

A less obvious identity given by Siler [3] also yields a proof by mathematical induction:

(7) 
$$((-1)^n + 1 - L_n) \left( \sum_{i=1}^k F_{in} \right) = (-1)^n F_{kn} - F_{n(k+1)} + F_n .$$

If  $F_n$  divides  $F_{in}$  for  $i=1, 2, 3, \ldots, k$ , then  $F_n$  is a factor of the left-hand member of (7). Since  $F_n$  divides  $F_n$  and  $F_n$  divides  $F_{kn}$ ,  $F_n$  must also divide  $F_{n(k+1)}$ , so that  $F_n$  divides  $F_{kn}$  for all positive integers k.

# 3. PROOFS FROM GENERATING FUNCTIONS AND POLYNOMIALS

Now let us look for elegance. Suppose that we have proved the generating function identity given in [4],

$$\frac{. F_{n}x}{1 - L_{n}x + (-1)^{n}x^{2}} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} F_{nk}x^{k} .$$

Then, since the leading coefficient of the divisor is one and the resulting operations of division are multiplying, adding, and subtracting integers, the quotient coefficients  $F_{nk}/F_n$  of powers of x are integers, and  $F_n$  divides  $F_{nk}$  for all integers  $k \geq 0$ .

Let us develop a generating function for a related proof that  $L_n$  divides  $L_k$  whenever k is odd. Applying (2) and the formula for summing an infinite geometric progression,

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} L_{(2i+1)n} x^{i} = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \alpha^{n(2i+1)} x^{i} + \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \beta^{n(2i+1)} x^{i}$$

$$= \frac{\alpha^{n}}{1 - \alpha^{2n} x} + \frac{\beta^{n}}{1 - \beta^{2n} x}$$

$$= \frac{(\alpha^{n} + \beta^{n})(1 - (-1)^{n} x)}{1 - (\alpha^{2n} + \beta^{2n})x + (\alpha \beta)^{2n} x^{2}}$$

$$= \frac{L_{n}(1 - (-1)^{n} x)}{1 - L_{2n} x + x^{2}} .$$

Then

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{L_{(2i+1)n}}{L_n} x^i = \frac{1 - (-1)^n x}{1 - L_{2n} x + x^2},$$

so that by the same reasoning given for the Fibonacci generating function above,  $L_{(2i+1)n}/L_n$  is an integer.

Next, we prove that  $L_{(2k+1)n}/L_n$  is an integer another way. Now it is true that

$$L_{(2k+1)n} = L_n L_{2kn} - (-1)^{n+1} L_{(2k-1)n}$$

so that

$$\frac{L_{(2k+1)n}}{L_n} = L_{2n} - (-1)^{n+1} \frac{L_{(2k-1)n}}{L_n}$$

Thus, we are set up to use mathematical induction since when k=1, it is clear that  $L_n$  divides  $L_n$ . Thus, if  $L_{(2k-1)n}/L_n$  is an integer, then  $L_{(2k+1)n}/L_n$  is also an integer. The proof is complete by mathematical induction.

We can carry this one step further, and prove that  $L_m$  is not divisible by  $L_n$  if  $m \neq (2k+1)n$ ,  $n \geq 2$ , for

$$L_{(2k+1)n+j} = L_n L_{2kn+j} + (-1)^n L_{(2k-1)n+j},$$
 j = 1, 2, 3, ..., 2n-1.

Thus, given that some  $j=1, 2, 3, \ldots$ , or 2n-1 exists so that  $L_{(2k+1)n+j}$  is divisible by  $L_n$ , then by the method of infinite descent,  $L_{(2k-1)n+j}$  is divisible by  $L_n$  for this same  $j=1, 2, 3, \ldots$ , or 2n-1. This will ultimately yield the inequality

$$-|L_n| < L_{-n+j} < L_n ,$$

which is clearly a contradiction since the  $L_s$  in that range are all smaller than  $L_n$ ,  $n \geq 2$ . The same technique can be used on  $F_{nk}$  and  $F_k$  to prove that  $F_n$  divides  $F_m$  only if n divides m, n > 2. (Since  $F_2 = 1$  divides all  $F_n$ , we must make the qualification n > 2.)

If the theory of Fibonacci polynomials is at our disposal, the theorem that  $\mathbf{F_n}$  divides  $\mathbf{F_m}$  if and only if n divides m, n > 2, becomes a special case. (See [5]).

If the following identity is accepted (proved in [5]),

$$F_m = F_n \left( \sum_{i=0}^{p-1} (-1)^{in} L_{m-(2i+1)n} \right) + (-1)^{pn} F_{m-2pn}, \quad p \ge 1,$$

when  $\{n\} < \{m\}$ ,  $n \neq 0$ , the identity can be interpreted in terms of quotients and remainders; the quotient being a sum of Lucas numbers and the remainder of least absolute value being a Fibonacci number or its negative. The remainder is zero if and only if either  $F_{m-2pn} = 0$  or  $F_{m-2pn} = \pm F_n$ , in which case the quotient is changed by  $\pm 1$ . In the first case, m-2pn=0, so that m is an even multiple of n; and in the second,  $m-2pn=\pm n$ , with m an odd multiple of n. So,  $F_n$  divides  $F_m$  if and only if n divides m, n>2.

That  $F_n$  divides  $F_m$  only if n divides m can also be proved through use of the Euclidean Algorithm [2] or as the solution to a Diophantine equation [6] to establish that

$$(F_m, F_n) = F_{(m, n)}$$
  $(m \ge n > 2),$ 

or, that the greatest common divisor of two Fibonacci numbers is a Fibonacci number whose subscript is the greatest common divisor of the subscripts of the other two Fibonacci numbers.

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# 4. THE GENERAL CASE

A second proof that  $L_n$  divides  $L_m$  if and only if m=(2k+1)n,  $n\geq 2$ , provides a springboard for studying the general case. The identity

$$L_{m+n} = F_{m+1}L_n + F_mL_{n-1}$$

indicates that  $L_n$  divides  $L_{m+n}$  if  $L_n$  divides  $F_m$ . Since  $F_{2p} = L_p F_p$ ,  $L_p$  divides  $F_{2p}$ . But since

$$F_{2(k+1)p} = F_{2kp+2p} = F_{2kp}F_{2p+1} + F_{2kp-1}F_{2p}$$

whenever  $L_p$  divides  $F_{2kp}$ , it must divide  $F_{2(k+1)p}$ , and we have proved by mathematical induction that  $L_p$  divides  $F_{2kp}$  for all positive integers k. Then, returning to (8), if m=2kn,  $L_n$  divides  $L_{m+n}$ , or,

$$L_{2kn+n} = L_{(2k+1)n} = F_{2kn+1}L_n + F_{2kn}L_{n-1}$$
,

so that L divides L(2k+1)n.

To prove that  $L_n$  divides  $L_m$  only if  $m=(2k+1)n, \ n\geq 2$ , we prove that  $L_n$  divides  $F_m$  only if  $m=2kn, \ n\geq 2$ . We use the identity

$$F_{2n-j} = L_n F_{n-j} + (-1)^{n+1} F_{-j}$$
,  $j = 1, 2, ..., n-1$ ,

to show that  $L_n$  cannot divide  $F_{2n-j}$ . If  $L_n$  divides  $F_{2n-j}$ , then  $L_n$  must divide  $F_{-j}$ , but  $L_n > F_n > |F_{-j}|$ , clearly a contradiction. Thus,  $L_n$  divides  $L_m$  if and only if m = (2k+1)n. A proof of this same theorem using algebraic numbers is given by Carlitz in [7].

Now we consider the general case. Given a Fibonacci sequence defined by

$$H_1 = p$$
,  $H_2 = q$ ,  $H_{n+2} = H_{n+1} + H_n$ ,

under what circumstances does  $H_n$  divide  $H_m$ ?

Studying a sequence such as

1, 4, 5, 9, 14, 23, 37, 60, 97, 157, 254, 411, 665, 1076, ...

quickly convinces one that each member divides other members of the sequence in a regular fashion. For example, 5 divides itself and every fifth member

thereafter, while 4 divides itself and every sixth member thereafter. The mystery is resolved by the identity

$$H_{m+n} = F_{m+1}H_n + F_mH_{n-1}$$
.

If  $H_n$  divides  $F_m$ , then  $H_n$  divides every m term of the sequence thereafter. Further, divisibility of terms of H, by an arbitrary integer p can be predicted using tables of Fibonacci entry points. If H is divisible by p, then  $H_{k+e}$  is the next member of the sequence divisible by p, where e is the entry point of p for the Fibonacci sequence. For example, if 41 divides  $H_n$ , then 41 divides  $H_{n+20}$  and 41 divides  $H_{n+20k}$  since 20 is the subscript of the first Fibonacci number divisible by 41, but 41 will divide no member of the sequence between  $H_n$  and  $H_{n+20}$ .

While any member of the Lucas sequence divides some Fibonacci number and hence many Fibonacci numbers (obvious by the identity  $F_{2k} = L_k F_k$ ), it can be proved that no Fibonacci number greater than or equal to 5 divides any Lucas number. Also, it can be proved that every integer divides some Fibonacci number, which is false for generalized Fibonacci numbers and for Lucas numbers.

- Verner E. Hoggatt, Jr., Fibonacci and Lucas Numbers (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1969), pp. 37-39.
- 2. N. N. Vorobyov, Fibonacci Numbers (Boston: D. C. Heath, 1963), pp. 22-24.
- 3. Ken Siler, "Fibonacci Summations," Fibonacci Quarterly, Vol. 1, No. 3,
- October, 1963, pp. 67-69.

  4. V. E. Hoggatt, Jr., and D. A. Lind, "A Primer for the Fibonacci Numbers, Part VI." Fibonacci Quarterly, Vol. 5, No. 5, Dec., 1967, pp. 445-460.

  5. Marjorie Bicknell, "A Primer for the Fibonacci Numbers: Fart VII,"

  Fibonacci Quarterly, Vol. 8, No. 4, Cctober, 1970, pp. 407-420.

  6. Glen Michael, "A New Proof for an Old Property," Fibonacci Quarterly, Vol. 2, No. 1, February, 1964, pp. 57-58.

- 7. Leonard Carlitz, "A Note on Fibonacci Numbers," Fibonacci Quarterly, Vol. 2, No. 1, February, 1964, pp. 15-28.

That F divides F also follows from the identity

$$F_{kn}/F_n = \sum_{t=1}^{\lfloor (k+1)/2 \rfloor} (-1)^{(n+1)(t+1)} {k-t \choose t-1} L_n^{k-2t+1}$$

where [x] denotes the greatest integer function. (Problem H-172, David Englund, and Problem H-135, James E. Desmond, FQ, Dec., 1969, pp. 518-519.)