

4 Linear Recurrence Relations & the Fibonacci Sequence

Recall the classic example of the Fibonacci sequence $(F_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} = (1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, \dots)$, defined by

$$\begin{cases} F_{n+2} = F_{n+1} + F_n \\ F_1 = F_2 = 1 \end{cases}$$

This sequence has well-known relations to population growth (famously breeding rabbits), spirals in the center of sunflowers, etc. From a number theory perspective, we have two main questions:

1. How do we find a formula for the n^{th} Fibonacci number? More generally, how do we solve linear recurrence relations?
2. Does the Fibonacci sequence satisfy any interesting patterns when we consider its remainders modulo an integer?

4.1 Linear Recurrence Relations

The general theory of linear recurrences is analogous to that of linear differential equations.

Definition 4.1. A sequence $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ satisfies a *linear recurrence relation of order* $r \in \mathbb{N}$ if there exist a_0, \dots, a_r, f with $a_0, a_r \neq 0$ such that

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \quad a_r x_{n+r} + a_{r-1} x_{n+r-1} + \dots + a_0 x_n = f$$

The definition is malleable: in particular

- The sequence could start with x_0 , or anywhere else;
- The coefficients a_k are generally functions, though for us they will usually be *constant*;
- If $f \equiv 0$, the recurrence is *homogeneous*; this is usually be the case for us.

Example 4.2. Consider the linear recurrence $x_{n+1} = 2x_n - 1$ with initial condition $x_1 = 2$. A simple approach might be to list the values of x_n and try to spot a pattern:

$$(x_n) = (2, 3, 5, 9, 17, 33, 65, 129, \dots)$$

Since the ratio $\frac{x_{n+1}}{x_n}$ appears to be approaching 2, we might guess that $x_n = \alpha \cdot 2^n + \beta$ for some constants α, β . Substituting this into the original recurrence, we see that

$$\alpha \cdot 2^{n+1} + \beta = \alpha \cdot 2^{n+1} + 2\beta - 1 \iff \beta = 2\beta - 1 \iff \beta = 1$$

But then $x_1 = 2\alpha + 1 = 2 \iff \alpha = \frac{1}{2}$. The solution is therefore

$$x_n = \frac{1}{2} \cdot 2^n + 1 = 2^{n-1} + 1$$

If this ad hoc approach makes you uncomfortable, prove by induction that this really is the solution.

We will give some of the discussion in the language of second-degree equations. The proofs are simple exercises, and it should be obvious how the theory extends to recurrences of other orders.

Theorem 4.3. Consider the second-order recurrence $ax_{n+2} + bx_{n+1} + cx_n = f$.

1. Given initial conditions x_1, x_2 , there exists a unique solution x_n .
2. If $x_n^{(p)}$ is a fixed solution to the recurrence, then all solutions have the form $x_n = x_n^{(c)} + x_n^{(p)}$ where $x_n^{(c)}$ satisfies the associated homogeneous equation^a

$$ax_{n+2} + bx_{n+1} + cx_n = 0 \tag{*}$$

3. The solutions to (*) form a two-dimensional vector space: given linearly independent solutions y_n and z_n , there exist unique constants α, β such that

$$x_n = \alpha y_n + \beta z_n$$

4. If a, b, c are constant, the characteristic equation of (*) is the quadratic $a\lambda^2 + b\lambda + c = 0$. There are two cases, dependent on the roots λ_1, λ_2 :

(a) If $\lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2$, then the general solution is $x_n = \alpha\lambda_1^n + \beta\lambda_2^n$

(b) If $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2$, then the general solution is $x_n = (\alpha + \beta n)\lambda_1^n$

^a $x^{(p)}$ and $x^{(c)}$ should recall the *particular solution* and *complementary function* from differential equations.

Example (4.2, mk. II). In the context of the Theorem:

- $x_n^{(c)} = \alpha \cdot 2^n$ is the general solution to the homogeneous relation $x_{n+1} - 2x_n = 0$ with characteristic equation $\lambda - 2 = 0$.
- $x_n^{(p)} = 1$ is a single solution to the full recurrence $x_{n+1} = 2x_n - 1$.
- The general solution is $x_n = \alpha \cdot 2^n + 1$; applying the initial condition $x_1 = 2$ yields $\alpha = 1$.

For us, the important case is the Fibonacci sequence: the characteristic equation is

$$\lambda^2 - \lambda - 1 = 0 \implies \lambda = \frac{1 \pm \sqrt{5}}{2} = \phi, \hat{\phi}$$

where $\phi = \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}$ is the golden ratio and $\hat{\phi} = \frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2} = -\frac{1}{\phi}$. Choosing the constants such that $F_1 = F_2 = 1$, we conclude,

Theorem 4.4 (Binet's Formula). The Fibonacci sequence has n^{th} term

$$F_n = \frac{\phi^n - \hat{\phi}^n}{\sqrt{5}} = \frac{\phi^n - (-\phi)^{-n}}{\sqrt{5}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \left[\left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2} \right)^n - \left(\frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2} \right)^n \right]$$

Exercises 1. Solve the homogeneous recurrence relation

$$\begin{cases} x_{n+2} - 4x_{n+1} + 4x_n = 0 \\ x_1 = 1, x_2 = -4 \end{cases}$$

2. Find a particular solution of the form $x_n^{(p)} = dn + e$ to the relation

$$\begin{cases} x_{n+2} - 4x_{n+1} + 4x_n = n \\ x_1 = 1, x_2 = -4 \end{cases}$$

Using your answer to the previous question, find the general solution to the full recurrence.

(This is precisely the method of undetermined coefficients as seen in differential equations)

3. Find the general solution to the recurrence relation

$$\begin{cases} x_{n+2} - 2x_{n+1} + 2x_n = 0 \\ x_1 = 1, x_2 = 0 \end{cases}$$

(The characteristic equation has complex roots: this is no matter! If you want a challenge, write your answer using binomial coefficients...)

4. Prove all parts of Theorem 4.3.

(Hint: for part 3, consider $w_n := x_n - \alpha y_n - \beta z_n$ where $\begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 & z_1 \\ y_2 & z_2 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}$)

4.2 The Fibonacci Sequence in \mathbb{Z}_m

If a solution to a recurrence relation is in integers, one can ask if there are any patterns with respect to a given modulus. It should be clear that any recurrence of the form

$$x_{n+2} = ax_{n+1} + bx_n$$

where $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ and with initial conditions $x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$ necessarily produces a sequence of integers. The Fibonacci sequence ($a = b = x_1 = x_2 = 1$) is one of the simplest such, so we begin by hunting for patterns.

| | | |
|---------------|---|-----------|
| $F_n \pmod 2$ | 1, 1, 0, 1, 1, 0, 1, 1, 0, 1, 1, 0, 1, 1, ... | Period 3 |
| $F_n \pmod 3$ | 1, 1, 2, 0, 2, 2, 1, 0, 1, 1, 2, 0, 2, 2, 1, 0, 1, 1, ... | Period 8 |
| $F_n \pmod 4$ | 1, 1, 2, 3, 1, 0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 1, 0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 1, 0, 1, 1, ... | Period 6 |
| $F_n \pmod 5$ | 1, 1, 2, 3, 0, 3, 3, 1, 4, 0, 4, 4, 3, 2, 0, 2, 2, 4, 1, 0, 1, 1, ... | Period 20 |
| $F_n \pmod 6$ | 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 2, 1, 3, 4, 1, 5, 0, 5, 5, 4, 3, 1, 4, 5, 3, 2, 5, 1, 0, 1, 1, ... | Period 24 |
| $F_n \pmod 7$ | 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 1, 6, 0, 6, 6, 5, 4, 2, 6, 1, 0, 1, 1, ... | Period 16 |
| $F_n \pmod 8$ | 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 0, 5, 5, 2, 7, 1, 0, 1, 1, ... | Period 12 |
| $F_n \pmod 9$ | 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 4, 3, 7, 1, 8, 0, 8, 8, 7, 6, 4, 1, 5, 6, 2, 8, 1, 0, 1, 1, ... | Period 24 |

As soon as we see a pair of 1's we know that the sequence repeats. Does this always happen? Are there any patterns in the periods? Can you guess what the period is modulo 10?

Theorem 4.5. *The Fibonacci sequence in \mathbb{Z}_m is periodic.*

Proof. This is a simple box-principle argument. Let $\{(F_n, F_{n+1}) : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ be the set of pairs of consecutive Fibonacci numbers modulo m . This is a subset of $\mathbb{Z}_m \times \mathbb{Z}_m$ (cardinality m^2). Since the sequence is infinite, the box-principle tells us that at least one pair occurs infinitely many times:

$$\exists n, N \in \mathbb{N} \text{ such that } F_n \equiv F_{n+N} \text{ and } F_{n+1} \equiv F_{n+1+N} \pmod{m} \quad (\dagger)$$

Since the defining recurrence relation is second-order, the pairs (F_n, F_{n+1}) and (F_{n+N}, F_{n+1+N}) generate the *same sequence* modulo m . It follows that (F_n) is eventually periodic.

To see that the entire sequence is periodic, observe that we can write

$$F_{n-1} = F_{n+1} - F_n$$

This defines the sequence in reverse, starting from any pair. In particular, the reverse sequences starting from the pairs (F_n, F_{n+1}) and (F_{n+N}, F_{n+1+N}) in (\dagger) are identical, whence the periodicity continues back to the initial pair (F_1, F_2) . ■

Definition 4.6. Denote by $N(m)$ the period of the Fibonacci sequence modulo m ; that is, the value of the *smallest* N such that $F_{N+1} \equiv F_{N+2} \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$.

By looking for patterns in the above table, you might hypothesize some elementary properties.

Theorem 4.7. 1. $F_{k+S} \equiv F_k \pmod{m}, \forall k \in \mathbb{N} \iff N(m) \mid S$.

2. For any m, n we have $N(m) \mid N(mn)$.

3. If $\gcd(m, n) = 1$ then $N(mn) = \text{lcm}(N(m), N(n))$.

Proof. 1. The (\Leftarrow) direction is trivial. The (\Rightarrow) is just the division algorithm: there exist unique $q, r \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that

$$S = qN(m) + r, \quad 0 \leq r < N(m)$$

from which the minimality of $N(m)$ forces $r = 0$.

2. For any k, m, n , we have

$$F_{k+N(mn)} \equiv F_k \pmod{mn} \implies F_{k+N(mn)} \equiv F_k \pmod{m}$$

By part 1, we conclude that $N(m) \mid N(mn)$.

3. When $\gcd(m, n) = 1$, observe

$$F_{k+N} \equiv F_k \pmod{mn} \iff \begin{cases} F_{k+N} \equiv F_k \pmod{m} & \text{and,} \\ F_{k+N} \equiv F_k \pmod{n} \end{cases}$$

Suppose this holds for all k . By definition $N = N(mn)$ is the least positive integer satisfying the LHS. By part 2, $\text{lcm}(N(m), N(n))$ is the least positive integer satisfying the RHS. ■

Remarkably, even for such a simple sequence, the period $N(m)$ is not fully understood.

Conjecture 4.8. $N(p^n) = p^{n-1}N(p)$ when p is prime: no counter-example has been found among all primes $p < 2.8 \times 10^{16}$.

Using this, one could, for example, compute

$$N(2304) = N(2^8 \cdot 3^2) = \text{lcm}(2^7 N(2), 3N(3)) = \text{lcm}(128 \cdot 3, 3 \cdot 8) = 384$$

Binet's formula modulo p

For roughly half the primes, we can obtain a modular version of Binet's formula.

Theorem 4.9. If p is a prime congruent to either 1 or 4 modulo 5 (equivalently $p \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{10}$), then $\exists c \in \mathbb{Z}_p^\times$ such that

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, F_n \equiv c^{-1} \left[\left(\frac{1+c}{2} \right)^n - \left(\frac{1-c}{2} \right)^n \right] \pmod{p}$$

Proof. The idea is to look for a value c that plays the role of $\sqrt{5}$: otherwise said, we want $c^2 \equiv 5$ modulo p . Computing Legendre symbols and recalling quadratic reciprocity, we see that

$$\left(\frac{5}{p} \right) = (-1)^{\frac{5-1}{2} \cdot \frac{p-1}{2}} \left(\frac{p}{5} \right) = \left(\frac{p}{5} \right) = 1$$

The congruence $c^2 \equiv 5$ therefore has a solution, which we may assume is odd, for otherwise we could choose the other solution $p - c$. Now define the sequence

$$J_n \equiv c^{-1} \left[\left(\frac{1+c}{2} \right)^n - \left(\frac{1-c}{2} \right)^n \right] \pmod{p}$$

It is easily checked that $J_n \equiv J_{n-1} + J_{n-2}$ and $J_1 \equiv J_2 \equiv 1$, whence $J_n \equiv F_n$ modulo p . ■

It is easy to see that $\frac{1 \pm c}{2}$ are both non-zero modulo p , so we always get both terms in Binet's formula.

Example 4.10. If $p = 11$, then $c^2 \equiv 5 \iff c^2 \equiv 16 \iff c \equiv \pm 4$. We choose $c = 7$, which yields $c^{-1} \equiv 8$. Therefore

$$F_n \equiv 8(4^n - 8^n) \equiv 3(8^n - 4^n) \pmod{11}$$

Binet's formula gives us more: by Fermat's Little Theorem,

$$F_{n+10} \equiv 3(8^{n+10} - 4^{n+10}) \equiv 3(8^n - 4^n) \equiv F_n \pmod{11}$$

whence the period $N(11)$ divides 10. This is true in general...

Theorem 4.11. Let p be a prime congruent to either 1 or 4 modulo 5. Then $N(p) \mid p - 1$.

Proof. Write $\alpha := \frac{1+c}{2}$ and $\beta := \frac{1-c}{2}$ to obtain

$$F_{n+(p-1)k} \equiv c^{-1} \left[\alpha^n \alpha^{(p-1)k} - \beta^n \beta^{(p-1)k} \right] \equiv c^{-1} [\alpha^n - \beta^n] \equiv F_n \pmod{p}$$

since $\alpha, \beta \not\equiv 0$. By Theorem 4.7, we conclude $N(p) \mid p - 1$. ■

It is harder to prove, but the following can also be shown:

- If $p \equiv 2, 3$ modulo 5, then $N(p) \mid 2p + 2$. We shouldn't expect a discrete version of Binet's formula since there are no values c which satisfy $c^2 \equiv 5$.
- $N(m) \begin{cases} = 6m & \text{if } m = 2 \cdot 5^k \text{ for some } k \geq 1 \\ \leq 4m & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

Other Recurrence Relations: Lucas Sequences

It is reasonable to ask if the solution to *any* linear constant coefficient recurrence relation is periodic modulo m . Suppose that the recurrence has order r and that

$$x_{n+r} + a_{r-1}x_{n+r-1} + \cdots + a_1x_{n+1} + a_0x_n = 0$$

has *integer* coefficients a_k . By considering the r -tuples

$$(x_n, x_{n+1}, \dots, x_{n+r-1})$$

modulo m and applying the box-principle argument of Theorem 4.5, we see that any solution is therefore *eventually periodic* modulo m : with a trivial modification, the gcd result (Theorem 4.7) also holds. We don't necessarily get full periodicity however, for example

$$\begin{cases} x_{n+1} = 2x_n \\ x_1 = 1 \end{cases} \implies (x_n) \equiv (1, 2, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, \dots) \pmod{4}$$

To obtain full periodicity, it is enough that a_0 be a unit modulo m .

Several generalizations of the Fibonacci sequence are important in number theory. In particular:

Definition 4.12. A *Lucas sequence* (x_n) is a solution to the recurrence $x_{n+2} = Px_{n+1} - Qx_n$, where P and Q are given integers. It is typical to start these sequences from x_0 and to consider two independent solutions

- $U(P, Q)$ satisfies $(x_0, x_1) = (0, 1)$
- $V(P, Q)$ satisfies $(x_0, x_1) = (2, P)$

The Fibonacci sequence is therefore $U(1, -1)$. In line with the above discussion, these sequences are eventually periodic modulo m and the gcd theorem for periods also holds. Most examples seem to satisfy $N(p^k) = p^{k-1}N(p)$, although counter-examples are known (Exercise 4.2.6).

Example 4.13. The Lucas sequences $U(2, -1)$ and $V(2, -1)$ are known, respectively, as the *Pell numbers* and *Pell-Lucas numbers*. If we write the first few,

$$\begin{array}{l}
 U_{n+1} = 2U_n + U_{n-1}, \quad U_0 = 0, U_1 = 1 \\
 V_{n+1} = 2V_n + V_{n-1}, \quad V_0 = 2, V_1 = 2
 \end{array}
 \quad
 \begin{array}{c|cccccccc}
 n & 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 \\
 \hline
 U_n(2, -1) & 0 & 1 & 2 & 5 & 12 & 29 & 70 & 169 \\
 V_n(2, -1) & 2 & 2 & 6 & 14 & 34 & 82 & 198 & 478
 \end{array}$$

you should start to see the pattern: the ratio $\frac{\frac{1}{2}V_n}{U_n} = \frac{p_n}{q_n}$ is the sequence of convergents of the continued fraction $\sqrt{2} = [1, 2, 2, 2, 2, 2, \dots]$.

- Exercises**
- Consider the recurrence $x_{n+1} = 2x_n$.
 - Solve this modulo 4, given *any* initial condition $x_1 \equiv a$: what do you observe?
 - Solve the congruence modulo 5 with the initial condition $x_1 = 1$: what happens this time?
 - Solve the following linear recurrence relations using the characteristic equation method.
 - $a_n = 3a_{n-1} + 10a_{n-2}$, $a_1 = 1$, $a_2 = 3$
 - $b_n = 2b_{n-1} - 5b_{n-2}$, $b_1 = 1$, $b_2 = -3$
 - $c_n = 4c_{n-1} - c_{n-2} - 6c_{n-3}$, $c_1 = 0$, $c_2 = 0$, $c_3 = 1$
 - For each of the recurrences in the previous question, find the (eventual) periods modulo 2, modulo 3 and modulo 6. Check that $N(2 \cdot 3) = \text{lcm}(N(2), N(3))$ in each case.
 - Find a Binet-type formula for the Fibonacci sequence modulo 19.
 - Let (F_n) be the Fibonacci sequence.
 - Prove that for all $n \geq k + 2$ we have $F_n = F_{k+1}F_{n-k} + F_kF_{n-k-1}$
 - Prove that $F_k \mid F_{2k}$ for all k .
 - More generally, prove that $k \mid n \implies F_k \mid F_n$.
 - Make a hypothesis and prove it: If F_n is prime, then n is...
 - Write a program or use a computer algebra package to find the period of the Lucas sequence with $(P, Q) = (2, -1)$ modulo 13 and modulo $169 = 13^2$. Hence show that $N(p^k)$ need not equal $p^{k-1}N(p)$.
 - Suppose that λ and μ are distinct roots of the characteristic equation for the Lucas sequences (U_n) and (V_n) . Prove that

$$U_n = \frac{\lambda^n - \mu^n}{\lambda - \mu} \quad \text{and} \quad V_n = \lambda^n + \mu^n$$
 - What are the solutions if the roots are repeated; that is, if $P^2 = 4Q$?
 - Solve the recurrence relations for the Pell numbers and the Pell-Lucas numbers U_n, V_n .
 - Use part (a) to find an explicit expression for the n^{th} convergent of $\sqrt{2}$ and an alternative proof that the convergents really do converge to $\sqrt{2}$.
 - For which primes p will it be possible to find an explicit Binet-type formula for U_n and V_n modulo p ? Find an explicit formula modulo $p = 7$.
(Hint: think about quadratic residues)
 - Compute the periods of U_n and V_n modulo 2, 3, 5, and 7. What do you expect the period modulo 210 to be? If you have the time, check it!