$$
\text { ON } P_{r, k} \text { SEQUENCES }
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## INTRODUCTION

Definition 1: Let $k$ be a given positive integer. Two integers $\alpha$ and $\beta$ are said to have the property $p_{k}$ (resp. $p_{-k}$ ) if $\alpha \beta+k$ (resp. $\alpha \beta-k$ ) is a perfect square. A set of integers is said to be a $P_{k}$ set if every pair of distinct elements in the set has the property $p_{k}$. A sequence of integers is said to be a $P_{r, k}$ sequence if every $r$ consecutive terms of the sequence constitute a $P_{k}$ set.

Given a positive integer $k$, we can always find two integers $\alpha$ and $\beta$ having the property $p_{k}$. Conversely, given two integers $\alpha$ and $\beta$, we can always find a positive integer $k$ such that $\alpha$ and $\beta$ have the property $p_{k}$. If $S$ is a given $P_{k}$ set and $j$ is a given integer, then by multiplying all the elements of $S$ by $j$, we obtain a $P_{k j^{2}}$ set. Suppose we are given two numbers $\alpha_{1}<\alpha_{2}$ with property $p_{k}$ and we want to extend the set $\left\{\alpha_{1}, a_{2}\right\}$ such that the resulting set is also a $P_{k}$ set. Toward this end, in this paper we construct a $P_{3, k}$ sequence $\left\{\alpha_{n}\right\}$.

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## Suppose

$$
\begin{equation*}
a_{1} a_{2}+k=b_{1}^{2} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

and let $a_{3} \in\left\{a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots\right\}$, a $P_{k}$ set. Then we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
a_{1} a_{3}+k=x^{2} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
a_{2} a_{3}+k=y^{2} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

for some integers $x$ and $y$. Eliminating $a_{3}$ from (2) and (3), we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
X^{2}-a_{1} a_{2} Y^{2}=k a_{2}\left(a_{2}-a_{1}\right), \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $X=a_{2} x, Y=y$. Using (1) in (4), we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
X^{2}-\left(b_{1}^{2}-k\right) Y^{2}=k\left(a_{2}^{2}-b_{1}^{2}+k\right) \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

One can check that $X=a_{2}\left(a_{1}+b_{1}\right), \quad Y=a_{2}+b_{1}$, is always a solution of (5). When $b_{1}^{2}-k$ is positive and square free, (5) has an infinite number of solutions. Henceforth, we concentrate on the solution $X=a_{2}\left(a_{1}+b_{1}\right), Y=a_{2}+b_{1}$ of (5). This gives
$a_{2} a_{3}+k=b_{2}^{2}$,
$a_{1} a_{3}+k=c_{1}^{2}$,
with

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## ON $P_{r, k}$ SEQUENCES

$$
b_{2}=a_{2}+b_{1}, \quad c_{1}=a_{1}+b_{1}, \quad a_{3}=b_{2}+c_{1}
$$

In what follows, we construct three sequences $\left\{a_{n}\right\},\left\{b_{n}\right\}$, and $\left\{c_{n}\right\}$, where $a_{1}$, $a_{2}, a_{3}, b_{1}, b_{2}$, and $c_{1}$ are as above. We say that $\left\{b_{n}\right\}$ and $\left\{c_{n}\right\}$ are the sequences associated with $\left\{a_{n}\right\}$. Taking

$$
b_{3}=a_{3}+b_{2}, \quad c_{2}=a_{2}+b_{2}, \quad a_{4}=b_{3}+c_{2}
$$

we can see that $2\left(\alpha_{3}+\alpha_{2}\right)-\alpha_{1}=\alpha_{4}$. Using this fact, we obtain

$$
a_{2} a_{4}+k=c_{2}^{2} \quad \text { and } \quad a_{3} a_{4}+k=b_{3}^{2}
$$

For the construction of the sequences $\left\{a_{n}\right\},\left\{b_{n}\right\}$, and $\left\{c_{n}\right\}$, the following diagram can be helpful.


Diagram 1
Explanation for the diagram: Write $b_{1}=\sqrt{a_{1} a_{2}+k}$ in the second row, in the space between $a_{1}$ and $a_{2}$; and write $c_{1}=\sqrt{\alpha_{1} \alpha_{3}+k}$ in the third row, in the space beneath $a_{2}$. Along the arrows shown by thick lines, sum the elements of of the first and second rows to obtain the elements of the third row. Along the curved arrows, sum the elements of the first and second rows to obtain the elements of the second row. Along the arrows shown by dotted lines, sum the elements of the second and third rows to obtain the elements of the first row. The preceding discussion shows that the scheme provided in the diagram is valid for $a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}, a_{4}, b_{1}, b_{2}, b_{3}, c_{1}$, and $c_{2}$. Let $n>2$. Assuming the validity of Diagram 1 for $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}, b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n-1}$, and $c_{1}, \ldots, c_{n-2}$, it can be proved without much difficulty that

$$
\begin{equation*}
2\left(a_{n}+a_{n-1}\right)-a_{n-2}=a_{n+1}, \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

and that the scheme is valid for $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n+1}, b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n}$, and $c_{1}, \ldots, c_{n-1}$.
Theorem 1. The three sequences $\left\{a_{n}\right\},\left\{b_{n}\right\}$, and $\left\{c_{n}\right\}$ have the same recurrence relation.

Proof: We have $a_{n+1}=2\left(a_{n}+a_{n-1}\right)-a_{n-2}$ [see (6)]. Now

$$
\begin{align*}
b_{n+1} & =a_{n+1}+b_{n}=c_{n-1}+2 b_{n}=a_{n-1}+b_{n-1}+2 b_{n} \\
& =2 b_{n}+b_{n-1}+\left(b_{n-1}-b_{n-2}\right)=2\left(b_{n}+b_{n-1}\right)-b_{n-2}, \tag{7}
\end{align*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{align*}
c_{n+1} & =a_{n+1}+b_{n+1}=2 a_{n+1}+b_{n}=2\left(c_{n-1}+b_{n}\right)+b_{n} \\
& =2 c_{n-1}+b_{n}+2\left(c_{n}-a_{n}\right)=2\left(c_{n}+c_{n-1}\right)+\left(a_{n}+b_{n-1}\right)-2 a_{n} \\
& =2\left(c_{n}+c_{n-1}\right)-c_{n-2} . \tag{8}
\end{align*}
$$

Hence, the theorem is proved.

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We shall now obtain additional relations. First, using

$$
a_{n+1}=c_{n+1}-b_{n+1} \quad \text { and } \quad a_{n+2}=c_{n}+b_{n+1}
$$

we have

$$
a_{n+1}+a_{n+2}=c_{n}+c_{n+1}
$$

that is,

$$
\begin{equation*}
a_{n+1}-c_{n}=-\left(a_{n+2}-c_{n+1}\right) \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Next, from

$$
b_{n}=c_{n}-a_{n} \quad \text { and } \quad b_{n}=b_{n+1}-a_{n+1}
$$

we obtain

$$
2 b_{n}=\left(c_{n}+b_{n+1}\right)-a_{n+1}-a_{n},
$$

which yields

$$
\begin{equation*}
2 b_{n}=a_{n+2}-a_{n+1}-a_{n} . \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

Next,

$$
\begin{align*}
a_{n+2}-a_{n+1}+a_{n} & =\left(b_{n+1}+c_{n}\right)-\left(b_{n+1}-b_{n}\right)+a_{n} \\
& =c_{n}+b_{n}+a_{n} \\
& =2 c_{n} . \tag{11}
\end{align*}
$$

From (10), we obtain

$$
a_{n+2}=a_{n+1}+a_{n}+2 \sqrt{a_{n} a_{n+1}+k}
$$

and from (6) we have

$$
a_{n+2}=2\left(a_{n+1}+a_{n}\right)-a_{n-1}
$$

Hence,

$$
a_{n+1}+a_{n}-a_{n-1}=2 \sqrt{a_{n} a_{n+1}+k}
$$

which gives the relation

$$
\begin{equation*}
a_{n+1}^{2}+a_{n}^{2}+a_{n-1}^{2}-2 a_{n-1} a_{n}-2 a_{n-1} a_{n+1}-2 a_{n} a_{n+1}=4 k \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

## FIBONACCI RELATIONSHIPS

Next we shall exhibit a relationship between either of the sequences $\left\{\alpha_{n}\right\}$, $\left\{b_{n}\right\}$, and $\left\{c_{n}\right\}$ and the Fibonacci sequence $\left\{F_{n}\right\}$. The Fibonacci sequence $\left\{F_{n}\right\}$ is defined by

$$
F_{1}=F_{2}=1, \quad F_{n+2}=F_{n+1}+F_{n} .
$$

V. E. Hoggatt, Jr., and G. E. Bergum [1] have shown that the even-subscripted Fibonacci numbers constitute a $P_{3,1}$ sequence. We can set

$$
a_{n-1}=F_{2 n}, \quad a_{n}=F_{2 n+2}, \quad \text { and } \quad a_{n+1}=F_{2 n+4}
$$

in (12) and obtain

$$
F_{2 n}^{2}+F_{2 n+2}^{2}+F_{2 n+4}^{2}-2 F_{2 n} F_{2 n+2}-2 F_{2 n+2} F_{2 n+4}-2 F_{2 n} F_{2 n+4}=4 .
$$

Theorem 2. Any sequence $\left\{\alpha_{n}\right\}$ satisfying (6) is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
a_{n}=-F_{n-3} F_{n-2} a_{1}+F_{n-3} F_{n-1} a_{2}+F_{n-2} F_{n-1} a_{3}, \quad n \geqslant 4 . \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

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Proof: From (6), we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
& a_{4}=2\left(a_{3}+a_{2}\right)-a_{1}=-F_{1} F_{2} a_{1}+F_{1} F_{3} \alpha_{2}+F_{2} F_{3} a_{3}, \\
& a_{5}=2\left(a_{4}+a_{3}\right)-a_{2}=-2 a_{1}+3 a_{2}+6 a_{3}=-F_{2} F_{3} a_{1}+F_{2} F_{4} a_{2}+F_{3} F_{4} a_{3}, \\
& a_{6}=2\left(a_{5}+a_{4}\right)-a_{3}=-6 a_{1}+10 a_{2}+15 a_{3}=-F_{3} F_{4} a_{1}+F_{3} F_{5} a_{2}+F_{4} F_{5} a_{3} .
\end{aligned}
$$

So the theorem is true for $n=4,5,6$. Let $n \geqslant 4$ and assume that the theorem is true for all integers $j$ up to $n$. Using (6) we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
a_{n+1}=2( & \left.-F_{n-3} F_{n-2} a_{1}+F_{n-3} F_{n-1} a_{2}+F_{n-2} F_{n-1} a_{3}\right) \\
& +2\left(-F_{n-4} F_{n-3} a_{1}+F_{n-4} F_{n-2} a_{2}+F_{n-3} F_{n-2} a_{3}\right) \\
& -\left(-F_{n-5} F_{n-4} a_{1}+F_{n-5} F_{n-3} a_{2}+F_{n-4} F_{n-3} a_{3}\right) ;
\end{aligned}
$$

that is,

$$
\begin{align*}
a_{n+1}= & \left(-2 F_{n-3} F_{n-2}-2 F_{n-4} F_{n-3}+F_{n-5} F_{n-4}\right) \alpha_{1} \\
& +\left(2 F_{n-3} F_{n-1}+2 F_{n-4} F_{n-2}-F_{n-5} F_{n-3}\right) \alpha_{2} \\
& +\left(2 F_{n-2} F_{n-1}+2 F_{n-3} F_{n-2}-F_{n-4} F_{n-3}\right) \alpha_{3} . \tag{14}
\end{align*}
$$

The coefficient of $\alpha_{1}$ in (14) is given by

$$
\begin{aligned}
-\left[2 F_{n-3}\left(F_{n-2}+F_{n-4}\right)-F_{n-4}\left(F_{n-3}-F_{n-4}\right)\right] & =-\left(2 F_{n-3} F_{n-2}+F_{n-3} F_{n-4}+F_{n-4}^{2}\right) \\
& =-\left(2 F_{n-3} F_{n-2}+F_{n-4} F_{n-2}\right) \\
& =-F_{n-2}\left(2 F_{n-3}+F_{n-4}\right) \\
& =-F_{n-2}\left(F_{n-3}+F_{n-2}\right) \\
& =-F_{n-2} F_{n-1} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Similarly, upon simplification, we have the coefficients of $\alpha_{2}$ and $\alpha_{3}$ in (14) equal to $F_{n-2} F_{n}$ and $F_{n-1} F_{n}$, respectively. This proves Theorem 2.

Remark 1. The relations (6), (7), and (8) imply that (13) remains true if the $a^{\prime} s$ are replaced by $b^{\prime} s$ or by $c^{\prime} s$.

Now we express $b^{\prime}$ 's in terms of $a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}$. We have
$2 b_{2}=-a_{1}+a_{2}+a_{3}$.
Using $a_{4}=2\left(a_{3}+a_{2}\right)-a_{1}$, we obtain
$2 b_{3}=-a_{2}+a_{3}+a_{4}=-a_{1}+a_{2}+3 a_{3}$,
$2 b_{4}=-\alpha_{2}+a_{3}+3 a_{4}=-3 a_{1}+5 a_{2}+7 a_{3}$.
Suppose $2 b_{n}=-r_{n} a_{1}+s_{n} \alpha_{2}+t_{n} \alpha_{3}$. Then
$2 b_{n+1}=-r_{n} a_{2}+s_{n} a_{3}+t_{n} a_{4}=-t_{n} a_{1}+2\left(t_{n}-r_{n}\right) a_{2}+\left(2 t_{n}+s_{n}\right) a_{3}$.
Hence, $2 b_{n+1}=-r_{n+1} \alpha_{1}+s_{n+1} \alpha_{2}+t_{n+1} a_{3}$, where

$$
\begin{align*}
& t_{2}=1, \quad t_{3}=3, \quad t_{4}=7, \\
& r_{n+1}=t_{n}, \\
& s_{n+1}=2 t_{n}-t_{n-1}, \\
& t_{n+1}=2\left(t_{n}+t_{n-1}\right)-t_{n-2} \quad(n \geqslant 4) . \tag{15}
\end{align*}
$$

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Similarly, we have $2 c_{n+1}=-u_{n+1} \alpha_{1}+v_{n+1} \alpha_{2}+w_{n+1} \alpha_{3}$, where

$$
\begin{align*}
& w_{1}=w_{2}=1, \quad w_{3}=5 \\
& u_{n+1}=w_{n} \\
& v_{n+1}=2 w_{n}-w_{n-1}, \\
& w_{n+1}=2\left(w_{n}+w_{n-1}\right)-w_{n-2} \quad(n \geqslant 3) \tag{16}
\end{align*}
$$

Thus, the sequences $\left\{a_{n}\right\},\left\{b_{n}\right\},\left\{c_{n}\right\},\left\{t_{n}\right\}$, and $\left\{w_{n}\right\}$ have the same recurrence relation.

Next we consider the possibility for the coincidence of the sequences $\left\{\alpha_{n}\right\}$ and $\left\{c_{n}\right\}$. In this regard, we have the following:

Theorem 3. Let $\left\{a_{n}\right\}$ be a $P_{3, k}$ sequence with the associated sequences $\left\{b_{n}\right\}$ and $\left\{c_{n}\right\}$. The following statements are equivalent:

$$
\begin{array}{rlrl}
\text { (i) } a_{n+1} & =c_{n} & \text { for some integer } n \geqslant 1 \\
\text { (ii) } a_{n+1} & =c_{n} & \text { for all integers } n \\
(\mathrm{i} i \mathrm{i}) a_{n+1} & =b_{n}+c_{n} & \text { for all integers } n \\
\text { (iv) } c_{n+1} & =b_{n+1}+c_{n} & \text { for all integers } n \\
\text { (v) } a_{n+1} & =a_{n}+b_{n} & \text { for all integers } n \\
(\mathrm{vi}) b_{n+2} & =3 b_{n+1}-b_{n} & \text { for all integers } n \\
(\mathrm{vi}) c_{n+2} & =3 c_{n+1}-c_{n} & \text { for all integers } n \\
(\mathrm{vi} \mathrm{i}) a_{n+2}=3 a_{n+1}-a_{n} & \text { for all integers } n \\
\text { (ix) } k=a_{n+1}^{2}-3 a_{n} a_{n+1}+a_{n}^{2} & \text { for all integers } n \\
\text { (x) }-k=b_{n+1}^{2}-3 b_{n} b_{n+1}+b_{n}^{2} & \text { for all integers } n \\
\text { (xi) } k=c_{n+1}^{2}-3 c_{n} c_{n+1}+c_{n}^{2} & \text { for all integers } n \\
(x i i) a_{n}=-F_{2 n-4} a_{1}+F_{2 n-2} a_{2} & \text { for all integers } n \\
& \text { and } & & \text { for all integers } n \geqslant 3
\end{array}
$$

(xiii) $b_{n}$ is a $P_{3,-k}$ sequence with the associated sequences $\left\{a_{n}\right\}$ and $\left\{b_{n}\right\}$ (where $b_{n} b_{n+1}-k=a_{n+1}^{2}$ ).

Proof: The following scheme may be adopted.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { (i) } \Rightarrow(\mathrm{ii}) \Rightarrow(\mathrm{iii}) \Rightarrow(\mathrm{iv}) \Rightarrow(\mathrm{v}) \Rightarrow(\mathrm{vi}) \Rightarrow(\mathrm{vii}) \Rightarrow(\mathrm{viii}) \Rightarrow(\mathrm{ii}) \Rightarrow(\mathrm{i}), \\
& (\mathrm{v}) \Rightarrow(\mathrm{ix}) \Rightarrow(\mathrm{viii}),(\mathrm{v}) \Rightarrow(\mathrm{x}) \Rightarrow(\mathrm{vi}) ; \\
& (\mathrm{ii}) \Rightarrow(\mathrm{xi}) \Rightarrow(\mathrm{vii}) ; \\
& (\mathrm{ii}) \Rightarrow(x i i) \Rightarrow(\mathrm{ii}) \quad \text { and } \quad \text { (x) } \Rightarrow(x i i i) \Rightarrow(x) .
\end{aligned}
$$

The proof itself is left to the reader.

## F-TYPE SEQUENCES

Definition 2: Let $\left\{\alpha_{n}\right\}$ be a $P_{3, k}$ sequence together with associated sequences $\left\{\overline{\left.b_{n}\right\}}\right.$ and $\left\{c_{n}\right\}$. We say that $\left\{a_{n}\right\}$ is an $F$-type sequence if the sequence

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$$
\left\{a_{1}, b_{1}, a_{2}, b_{2}, a_{3}, b_{3}, \ldots\right\}
$$

obtained by juxtaposing the two sequences $\left\{a_{n}\right\}$ and $\left\{b_{n}\right\}$, is of Fibonacci type, i.e., $f_{1}=a_{1}, f_{2}=b_{1}$, and $f_{n}=f_{n-1}+f_{n-2}, n \geqslant 3$.

Theorem 4. A $P_{3, k}$ sequence $\left\{\alpha_{n}\right\}$ with the associated sequences $\left\{b_{n}\right\}$ and $\left\{c_{n}\right\}$ for which any one of the equivalent statements in Theorem 3 holds is an $F$-type sequences. Conversely, given a Fibonacci-type sequence

$$
T=\{g, h, g+h, g+2 h, \ldots\}
$$

where $g$ and $h$ are two positive integers with $g<h$, if $\left\{\alpha_{n}\right\}$ and $\left\{b_{n}\right\}$ are the sequences formed by taking the terms in the odd and even places, respectively, of $T$, in the same order as they appear in $T$, there is an integer $k$ such that $\left\{a_{n}\right\}$ is an $F$-type $P_{3, k}$ sequence for which the equivalent statements in Theorem 3 hold.

Proof: $(\Rightarrow)$ Using $c_{n-1}=a_{n-1}+b_{n-1}$, we obtain $\alpha_{n}=a_{n-1}+b_{n-1}$ for $n \geqslant 2$. We have that $b_{n}=a_{n-1}+b_{n-1}$ for $n \geqslant 2$. Hence, the sequence $\left\{a_{1}, b_{1}, a_{2}, b_{2}\right.$, ...\} is of the Fibonacci type.
$\Leftrightarrow$ We have

$$
\begin{align*}
& a_{1}=g, \quad b_{1}=h, \\
& \alpha_{n}=F_{2 n-3} g+F_{2 n-2} h, \quad b_{n}=E_{2 n-2} g+F_{2 n-1} \hbar \quad(n \geqslant 2), \tag{17}
\end{align*}
$$

where $\left\{F_{n}\right\}$ is the Fibonacci sequence. One can check that

$$
\begin{equation*}
a_{n}+a_{n+2}=3 a_{n+1} \text { for all } n \geqslant 1 \tag{18}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left(a_{n+2}^{2}-3 a_{n+1} a_{n+2}+a_{n+1}^{2}\right)-\left(a_{n+1}^{2}-3 a_{n} a_{n+1}+a_{n}^{2}\right) \\
& =\left(a_{n+2}^{2}-a_{n}^{2}\right)-3 a_{n+1}\left(a_{n+2}-a_{n}\right) \\
& =\left(a_{n+2}-a_{n}\right)\left(a_{n+2}+a_{n}-3 a_{n+1}\right)=0 \text { for all } n \geqslant 1 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence, we have

$$
a_{n+1}^{2}-3 a_{n} a_{n+1}+a_{n}^{2}=a_{n+2}^{2}-3 a_{n+1} a_{n+2}+a_{n+1}^{2}=\text { constant, for all } n
$$

Let $a_{n+1}^{2}-3 a_{n} \alpha_{n+1}+a_{n}^{2}=k$. In particular, putting $n=1$, we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
k=h^{2}-g h-g^{2} . \tag{19}
\end{equation*}
$$

We have, using (19),

$$
\begin{aligned}
a_{n} a_{n+1}+k=\left(F_{2 n-3} F_{2 n-1}-1\right) g^{2} & +\left(F_{2 n-3} F_{2 n}+F_{2 n-2} F_{2 n-1}-1\right) g h \\
& +\left(F_{2 n-2} F_{2 n}+1\right) \hbar^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

It can be seen that $F_{2 n-3} F_{2 n}-1=F_{2 n-2} F_{2 n-1}$. Therefore,

$$
a_{n} a_{n+1}+k=F_{2 n-2}^{2} g^{2}+2 F_{2 n-2} F_{2 n-1} g h+F_{2 n-1}^{2} h^{2}=b_{n}^{2}
$$

Next,

$$
\begin{aligned}
a_{n-1} a_{n}+k=\left(F_{2 n-5} F_{2 n-1}-1\right) g^{2} & +\left(F_{2 n-5} F_{2 n}+F_{2 n-4} F_{2 n-1}-1\right) g h \\
& +\left(F_{2 n} F_{2 n-4}+1\right) h^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

After some calculation, we have

$$
a_{n-1} a_{n}+k=F_{2 n-3}^{2} g^{2}+2 F_{2 n-2} F_{2 n-3} g h+F_{2 n-2}^{2} h^{2}=a_{n}^{2}
$$

Consequently, the sequence $\left\{\alpha_{n}\right\}$ is an $F$-type $P_{3, k}$ sequence with the associated $c$-sequence given by $c_{n}=\alpha_{n+1}$ for all integers $n \geqslant 1$.

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## ASSOCIATED DIOPHANTINE EQUATIONS

Theorem 5. Given a positive integer $k$, an $F$-type $P_{3, k}$ sequence exists if and only if the Diophantine equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
x^{2}-5 y^{2}=4 k \tag{20}
\end{equation*}
$$

is solvable in integers.
Proof: $(\Rightarrow)$ Let $\left\{\alpha_{n}\right\}$ be an $F$-type $P_{3, k}$ sequence with the associated sequence $\left\{b_{n}\right\}$ so that $\left\{a_{1}, b_{1}, a_{2}, b_{2}, \ldots\right\}$ is a sequence of the Fibonacci type wherein the relations are given by (17). Then

$$
k=h^{2}-g h-g^{2} ;
$$

that is,

$$
h^{2}-g h-\left(g^{2}+k\right)=0
$$

Treating this as a quadratic equation in $h$, we obtain $h=\frac{g \pm \sqrt{5 g^{2}+4 k}}{2}$. This implies

$$
5 g^{2}+4 k=A^{2}
$$

for some integer $A$. Hence, equation (20) is solvable in integers.
$\Leftrightarrow$ Let $(x, y)$ be an integral solution of (20). Then $x \equiv y$ (mod 2). Form the Fibonacci-type sequence $\left\{\alpha_{1}, b_{1}, \alpha_{2}, b_{2}, \ldots\right\}$ by taking $a_{1}=y$, $b_{1}=(x+y) / 2$. Then by Theorem 4 there is an integer $k^{\prime}$ such that $\left\{a_{n}\right\}$ is an $F$-type $P_{3, k^{\prime}}$ sequence. We have $k^{\prime}=a_{2}^{2}-3 a_{1} a_{2}+a_{1}^{2}$. Since

$$
a_{2}=a_{1}+b_{2}=\frac{x+3 y}{2}
$$

we obtain

$$
k^{\prime}=\frac{x^{2}-5 y^{2}}{4}=k
$$

Theorem 6. Given a positive integer $k$, a necessary condition for the existence of an $F$-type $P_{3, k}$ sequence is that
$k \not \equiv 2,3,6,7,8,10,12,13,14,17,18(\bmod 20)$
and
$k \not \equiv 10,15,35,40,60,65,85,90(\bmod 100)$.
We omit the proof.
To prove our next result, we need the following:
Theorem 7. (Nagell [4]) If $u+v \sqrt{D}$ and $u^{\prime}+v^{\prime} \sqrt{D}$ are two given solutions of the equation
$u^{2}-D v^{2}=C$ ( $D$ : positive, square free),
a necessary and sufficient condition for these two solutions to belong to the same class is that the two numbers $\left(u u^{\prime}-v v^{\prime} D\right) / C$ and $\left(v u^{\prime}-u v^{\prime}\right) / C$ be integers.

In the following theorem, we prove a result for the Diophantine equation (20) by considering the terms of the corresponding $F$-type $P_{3, k}$ sequence.

Theorem 8. Given a positive integer $k$, the number of distinct classes of solutions of equation (20) is divisible by 3 .

Proof: If (20) is not solvable in integers, then the theorem holds trivially. Assume the solvability of (20). Let $\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right)$ be an integral solution of (20). Take $a_{1}=y_{1}, b_{1}=\left(x_{1}+y_{1}\right) / 2$ and $\alpha_{2}=\alpha_{1}+b_{1}$; i.e., $\alpha_{2}=\left(x_{1}+3 y_{1}\right) / 2$. Then by Theorem 5 we have

$$
k=a_{2}^{2}-3 \alpha_{1} \alpha_{2}+a_{1}^{2}
$$

and $\left\{a_{n}\right\}$ is an $F$-type $P_{3, k}$ sequence. We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& b_{2}=a_{2}+b_{1}=x_{1}+2 y_{1} \\
& a_{3}=a_{2}+b_{2}=\frac{3 x_{1}+7 y_{1}}{2}, \quad b_{3}=a_{3}+b_{2}=\frac{5 x_{1}+11 y_{1}}{2} \\
& a_{4}=a_{3}+b_{3}=4 x_{1}+9 y_{1}, \quad b_{4}=a_{4}+b_{3}=\frac{13 x_{1}+29 y_{1}}{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

Choose $x_{i}, y_{i}(i=2,3,4)$ such that $y_{i}=a_{i}$ and $\left(x_{i}+y_{i}\right) / 2=b_{i}$; i.e., $x_{i}=$ $2 b_{i}-y_{i}$. Then $x_{2}=\left(3 x_{1}+5 y_{1}\right) / 2, x_{3}=\left(7 x_{1}+15 y_{1}\right) / 2, x_{4}=\left(9 x_{1}+20 y_{1}\right) / 2$. One can easily check that $x_{i}+\sqrt{5} y_{i}(i=2,3,4)$ are solutions of (20). Since

$$
\frac{x_{1} y_{2}-y_{1} x_{2}}{4 k}=\frac{1}{2}, \quad \frac{x_{1} y_{3}-y_{1} x_{3}}{4 k}=\frac{3}{2}, \quad \text { and } \quad \frac{x_{2} y_{3}-y_{2} x_{3}}{4 k}=\frac{1}{2},
$$

by Theorem 7 it follows that each $x_{i}+\sqrt{5} y_{i}(i=1,2,3)$ belongs to a distinct class of solutions of (20). Now

$$
x_{4}+\sqrt{5} y_{4}=\left(9 x_{1}+20 y_{1}\right)+\sqrt{5}\left(4 x_{1}+9 y_{1}\right)=\left(x_{1}+\sqrt{5} y_{1}\right)(9+4 \sqrt{5})^{n}
$$

Since $9+4 \sqrt{5}$ is the fundamental solution of the equation

$$
u^{2}-5 v^{2}=1
$$

it follows that $x_{1}+\sqrt{5} y_{1}$ and $x_{4}+\sqrt{5} y_{4}$ belong to the same class of solutions of (20). Thus, given a solution $x_{1}+\sqrt{5} y_{1}$ of (20), we obtain three consecutive terms $a_{i}(i=1,2,3)$ of an $F$-type $P_{3, k}$ sequence which in turn yield two more solutions $x_{i}+\sqrt{5} y_{i}(i=2,3)$ of (20) such that $x_{i}+\sqrt{5} y_{i}$ ( $i=1,2,3$ ) belong to different classes of solutions of (20). Further, it follows by simple induction that, for any integers $i, i^{\prime}, j$, the terms $a_{3 i+j}$ and $\alpha_{3 i^{\prime}+j}(j=0,1,2)$ yield solutions of (20) which belong to the same class. Hence, every $F$-type $P_{3, k}$ sequence contributes exactly three distinct classes of solutions of (20). Consequently, the number of distinct classes of solutions of (20) is divisible by 3 .

Definition 3: Given a positive integer $k$, two $P_{3, k}$ sequences $\left\{a_{n}\right\}$ and $\left\{\alpha_{n}^{\prime}\right\}$ are said to be distinct if there do not exist integers $r$ and $s$ such that $\alpha_{r} \xlongequal{=} \alpha_{s}^{\prime}$.

Theorem 9. Given a positive integer $k$, the number of distinct $F$-type $P_{3, k}$ sequences is equal to $1 / 3$ of the number of distinct classes of solutions of (20).

Proof: Follows from Theorem 8.

## CONCLUDING COMMENTS

Our next investigation is on $P_{r, k}$ sequences with $r \geqslant 4$. Regarding this, we prove the following theorem.

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Theorem 10. If $k \equiv 2(\bmod 4)$, then there is no $P_{r, k}$ sequence with $r \geqslant 4$.
Proof: We follow the reasoning given by $S$. Mohanty [3]. Let $\mathcal{K} \equiv 2$ (mod 4) and let $\left\{\alpha_{n}\right\}$ be a $P_{4, k}$ sequence. Then, for any two integers $i$, $j$ satisfying $|j-i| \leqslant 3$, we have
$a_{i} a_{j}+k=B^{2}$
for some integer $B$. If $\alpha_{i} \equiv 0(\bmod 4)$ or if $\alpha_{j} \equiv 0(\bmod 4)$, then (21) implies $B^{2} \equiv 2(\bmod 4)$, which is impossible. Hence, neither $a_{i}$ nor $\alpha_{j}$ is 0 (mod 4). If $a_{i} \equiv \alpha_{j}(\bmod 4)$, we have a contradiction; thus the elements $\alpha_{i}, \alpha_{i+1}, \alpha_{i+2}$, and $a_{i+3}$ do not share the property $p_{k}$.

The foregoing complements the work of Horadam, Loh, and Shannon [2], whose Pellian sequence $\left\{Q_{n}(N)\right\}$ is a $P_{3, N-2}$ sequence which is there also related to the even-subscripted Fibonacci numbers, to perfect squares, and to Diophantine equations.

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