# A DIOPHANTINE EQUATION INVOLVING $C$-NOMIAL COEFFICIENTS 

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$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Abstract } \\
& \text { Let } C_{n} \text { be the } n \text {th Fibonacci number }\left(C_{n}=F_{n}\right) \text { or the } n \text {th Lucas } \\
& \text { number }\left(C_{n}=L_{n}\right) \text {. For } 1 \leq k \leq m \text {, let } \\
& \qquad\left[\begin{array}{c}
m \\
k
\end{array}\right]_{C}=\frac{C_{m} C_{m-1} \cdots C_{m-k+1}}{C_{1} \cdots C_{k}} \\
& \text { be the corresponding } C \text {-nomial coefficient. In this paper, we prove that } \\
& \text { the only solutions of the Diophantine equation } \\
& \qquad\left[\begin{array}{c}
m \\
k
\end{array}\right]_{C}=m^{a} k^{b} \\
& \text { in positive integers } m, k, a, b \text { with } a>1 \text {, are }(m, k, a, b)=(1,1, a, b),(5,1,1, b), \\
& (12,1,2, b) \text {, and }(5,3,1,1) \text {, for } C_{n}=F_{n} \text { and }(m, k, a, b)=(1,1, a, b) \text { in } \\
& \text { the case } C_{n}=L_{n} .
\end{aligned}
$$

## 1 Introduction

Let $\left(C_{n}\right)_{n \geq 1}$ be a Lucas sequence given by

$$
C_{n+2}=C_{n+1}+C_{n}, \quad \text { for } n \geq 1
$$

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where the values $C_{0}$ and $C_{1}$ are previously fixed. For instance, if $C_{0}=0$ and $C_{1}=1$, then $C_{n}=F_{n}$ is the well-known Fibonacci sequence:

$$
0,1,1,2,3,5,8,13,21,34,55,89,144, \ldots
$$

Also, if $C_{0}=2$ and $C_{1}=1$, the sequence $C_{n}=L_{n}$ gives the Lucas numbers

$$
2,1,3,4,7,11,18,29,47,76,123,199, \ldots
$$

According to the Binet's formula, for $n \geq 0$

$$
F_{n}=\frac{\alpha^{n}-\beta^{n}}{\alpha-\beta} \text { and } L_{n}=\alpha^{n}+\beta^{n}
$$

where $\alpha=(1+\sqrt{5}) / 2$ (the golden number) and $\beta=(1-\sqrt{5}) / 2=-1 / \alpha$.
It is well-known that the only solutions of $F_{m}=m$ are $m=1$ and 5 and for $L_{m}=m$ one has $m=1$. In fact, we have $C_{m}>m$, for all $m>5$ (this can be proved by mathematical induction).

The $C$-nomial coefficients are defined by

$$
\left[\begin{array}{c}
m \\
k
\end{array}\right]_{C}=\frac{C_{m} C_{m-1} \cdots C_{m-k+1}}{C_{1} \cdots C_{k}}
$$

for $1 \leq k \leq m$. For instance, if $C_{n}=F_{n}$, we have the well-known Fibonomial coefficients (sequence A001656 in OEIS ${ }^{1}$ [7]). Some results on the spacing of these numbers can be found in [5]. We also refer the reader to [6] for several interesting identities involving this sequence.

Since $C$-nomial coefficients generalize the concept of the Fibonacci and Lu cas numbers, as $\left[\begin{array}{c}m \\ 1\end{array}\right]_{C}=C_{m}$, it is worthwhile to find the solutions of the general equation

$$
\left[\begin{array}{c}
m  \tag{1.1}\\
k
\end{array}\right]_{C}=m^{a} k^{b} .
$$

The goal of this paper is to determine all the solutions of Diophantine equation (1.1) when $C_{m}=F_{m}, L_{m}$. Our main results are the following.

Theorem 1. The only solutions of the Diophantine equation

$$
\left[\begin{array}{c}
m \\
k
\end{array}\right]_{F}=m^{a} k^{b}
$$

are $(m, k, a, b)=(1,1, a, b),(5,1,1, b),(12,1,2, b)$, and $(5,3,1,1)$.
Theorem 2. The only solution of the Diophantine equation

$$
\left[\begin{array}{c}
m \\
k
\end{array}\right]_{L}=m^{a} k^{b}
$$

is $(m, k, a, b)=(1,1, a, b)$.
We will prove these results in the next section.

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## 2 Proofs of Theorems 1 and 2

Before the proofs of Theorems 1 and 2, we will recall some interesting and helpful properties of these sequences. Their proofs are well-known and can be found in any good text about sequences.

Lemma 1. Let $\left(F_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ be Fibonacci numbers and let $\left(L_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ be Lucas numbers, then
(i) $F_{2 n}=F_{n} L_{n}$;
(ii) $L_{n}^{2}-L_{n-1} L_{n+1}=5(-1)^{n}$;
(iii) For all $n \geq 3$,

$$
\alpha^{n-2} \leq F_{n} \leq \alpha^{n-1} \text { and } \alpha^{n-1} \leq L_{n} \leq 2 \alpha^{n}
$$

(iv) If $p$ is a prime number, then $L_{p} \equiv 1(\bmod p)($ see $[4$, Theorem 7]).

Let $C_{n}$ be Fibonacci or Lucas numbers. A primitive divisor $p$ of the $C_{n}$ is a prime factor of $C_{n}$ which does not divide $5 \prod_{1<j<n-1} C_{j}$. It is known that a primitive divisor $p$ of $C_{n}$ exists whenever $n \geq 1 \overline{3}$ (see, for example, [3]). The above statement is usually referred to as the Primitive Divisor Theorem (see [1] and [2] for the most general version). It is also known that such a primitive divisor $p$ satisfies $p \equiv \pm 1(\bmod n)$. Now, we have the tools to study equation (1.1).

### 2.1 Proof of Theorem 1: the Fibonacci case.

We consider equation (1.1) with $C_{n}=F_{n}$. Suppose that $m>\max \{24, k\}$. By the Primitive Divisor Theorem, there exists a primitive prime factor $p$ for $F_{m}$. Since

$$
\begin{equation*}
F_{m} F_{m-1} \cdots F_{m-k+1}=m^{a} k^{b} F_{1} \cdots F_{k}, \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

and $p$ does not divide $\prod_{j=1}^{k} F_{j}$, then $p$ divides $m^{a} k^{b}$. Therefore, $p$ divides $k$, because $p \equiv \pm 1(\bmod m)$. So it does not divide $m$. Moreover, the congruence $p \equiv \pm 1(\bmod m)$ implies that $p \geq m-1$. Thus, we conclude that $m-1 \leq$ $p \leq k<m$ and then $k=p=m-1$ which implies that $m$ is an even number. Now we can use item (i) of Lemma 1 to conclude that $F_{m}=F_{m / 2} L_{m / 2}$. Also equation (2.1) becomes

$$
\begin{equation*}
F_{m}=m^{a}(m-1)^{b} . \tag{2.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

As $m>24$, then $m / 2>12$ and there exists a primitive prime factor $q$ of $F_{m / 2}$. Note that $q$ divides $F_{m}$ but does not divides $m$ (because $q \equiv 1(\bmod m / 2)$ ). It follows that $q$ divides $m-1=p$ and hence $p=q$. This contradicts the fact that $p$ does not divides $F_{m / 2}$.

For the case $k=1$, one can see that the solutions are $(1,1, a, b),(5,1,1, b)$, and $(12,1,2, b)$. For the other cases, we need to determine an upper bound for the sum $a+b$. So we will use item (iii) in Lemma 1. Thus, we have

$$
\left(\frac{F_{m}}{F_{1}}\right)<\alpha^{m-1} \text { and }\left(\frac{F_{m-t}}{F_{t+1}}\right)<\alpha^{m-2 t}, \text { for } 1 \leq t \leq k-1
$$

Therefore, we obtain

$$
\left[\begin{array}{c}
m  \tag{2.3}\\
k
\end{array}\right]_{F} \leq \alpha^{m-1+m-2+\cdots+m-2(k-1)}=\alpha^{m-1+(m-k)(k-1)}
$$

On the other hand, one can see that $\left[\begin{array}{c}m \\ k\end{array}\right]_{F}=m^{a} k^{b} \geq k^{a+b}$. Combining this with inequality (2.3), we immediately get, for $2 \leq k<m \leq 24$,

$$
a+b \leq \frac{(m-1)+(m-k)(k-1)}{2 \log k}<32.542
$$

as $\log \alpha<1 / 2$ and the maximum occurs when $m=24$ and $k=9$. So for the remaining cases, it suffices to test the values in the obtained range. Therefore, we used a simple program in Mathematica [8]. It took a few minutes to show that the only zero of the difference $\left[\begin{array}{c}m \\ k\end{array}\right]_{F}-m^{a} k^{b}$ in the range $2 \leq k<m \leq$ $24,2 \leq a \leq 32$, and $1 \leq b \leq 32-a$ is $(m, k, a, b)=(5,3,1,1)$. This completes the proof of Theorem 1 .

### 2.2 Proof of Theorem 2: the Lucas case.

In that case, equation (1.1) becomes

$$
\begin{equation*}
L_{m} L_{m-1} \cdots L_{m-k+1}=m^{a} k^{b} L_{1} \cdots L_{k} \tag{2.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Suppose that $m>\max \{12, k\}$, by using the Primitive Divisor Theorem, we get $p=k=m-1>3$. Thus we will only consider the solutions of

$$
\begin{equation*}
L_{m}=m^{a}(m-1)^{b} . \tag{2.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Here the parity of $m$ is not useful, since there is no multiplicative identity for $L_{m}$. Actually, one has $L_{2 n}=\left(5 F_{n}^{2}+L_{n}^{2}\right) / 2$. Thus the method in the previous proof is not applicable. Instead, we explore the primality of $p$.

First, note that $b \geq 1$. Otherwise $L_{m}=m^{a}$ and thus any primitive divisor of $L_{m}$ must divide $m$ which contradicts the congruence $p \equiv \pm 1(\bmod m)$. Therefore, as $p=m-1$, from equation (2.5), we deduce

$$
L_{p+1}=(p+1)^{a} p^{b} \equiv 0 \quad(\bmod p) .
$$

By item (ii) of Lemma 1, one has $-5=L_{p}^{2}-L_{p-1} L_{p+1} \equiv L_{p}^{2}(\bmod p)$. Combining this with item (iv) of Lemma 1, we see that $p$ divides 6 , which is impossible. Therefore, one must have $m \leq 12$.

Item (iii) of Lemma 1 leads to

$$
k^{a+b} \leq\left(\frac{L_{m}}{L_{1}}\right) \cdots\left(\frac{L_{m-k+1}}{L_{k}}\right) \leq 2^{k} \alpha^{k(m-k+1)}
$$

This implies

$$
a+b \leq \frac{k(\log 2+(m-k+1) \log \alpha)}{\log k}<15.9
$$

and the maximum occurs for $m=11$ and $k=2$. Again here we used a short program written in Mathematica [8] to show in a few seconds that the difference $\left[\begin{array}{c}m \\ k\end{array}\right]_{L}-m^{a} k^{b}$ is not zero in the range $2 \leq k<m \leq 12,2 \leq a \leq 15$ and $1 \leq b \leq 15-a$. This completes the proof of Theorem 2 .

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[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ On-Line Encyclopedia of Integer Sequences.

