

## TRIANGULAR NUMBERS IN THE GENERALIZED PELL SEQUENCE AND GENERALIZED ASSOCIATED PELL SEQUENCE

*B. Krishna Gandhi & G. Upendar Reddy*

### Abstract

A positive integer  $N$  is called a “Triangular Number” if it is of the form  $N = \frac{m(m+1)}{2}$ , where  $m$  is an integer greater than zero. A positive integer  $N$  is called Generalized Triangular Number for any integer  $m$ . For a fixed integer  $\alpha > 0$ , a new sequence is called Generalized Pell Sequence  $\{P_n^{(\alpha)}\}$  is defined by

$$P_0^{(\alpha)} = 0, P_1^{(\alpha)} = 1 \text{ and } P_{n+2}^{(\alpha)} = (\alpha + 1)P_{n+1}^{(\alpha)} + \frac{\alpha(3\alpha - 1)}{2}P_n^{(\alpha)} \text{ for } n \geq 0$$

and Generalized Associated Pell Sequence  $\{Q_n^{(\alpha)}\}$  is defined by

$$Q_0^{(\alpha)} = 1, Q_1^{(\alpha)} = 1 \text{ and } Q_{n+2}^{(\alpha)} = (\alpha + 1)Q_{n+1}^{(\alpha)} + \frac{\alpha(3\alpha - 1)}{2}Q_n^{(\alpha)} \text{ for } n \geq 0$$

We proved that there exists Generalized Triangular Numbers in the sequence  $\{P_n^{(\alpha)}\}$  for  $n = 0, 1$  and there exists Triangular Numbers in the sequence  $\{Q_n^{(\alpha)}\}$  for  $n = 0, 1$  and some other results relative to triangular numbers

### INTRODUCTION

It is well known that a positive integer  $N$  is called a “Triangular Number” if it is of the form  $N = \frac{m(m+1)}{2}$ , where  $m$  is an integer greater than zero.

**2000 Mathematics Subject Classification:** 11B37, 11B50.

**Key words and Phrases:** Triangular Numbers, Generalized Triangular Numbers, Generalized Pell Sequence, Generalized Associated Pell Sequence, Perfect Square.

A positive integer  $N$  is called a Generalized Triangular Number for any integer  $m$ .

Mc Daniel has shown that 1 is the only triangular number in the Pell sequence  $\{P_n\}$  is defined by

$$P_0 = 0, P_1 = 1 \text{ and } P_{n+2} = 2P_{n+1} + P_n \text{ for } n \geq 0. \quad (1)$$

B. Srinivasa Rao proved that 1 and 3 are the only triangular numbers in the Associated Pell Sequence  $\{Q_n\}$  is defined by

$$Q_0 = 1, Q_1 = 1 \text{ and } Q_{n+2} = 2Q_{n+1} + Q_n \text{ for } n \geq 0. \quad (2)$$

Now we define for a fixed integer  $\alpha > 0$ , a new sequence called the Generalized Pell sequence  $\{P_n^{(\alpha)}\}$  by

$$P_0^{(\alpha)} = 0, P_1^{(\alpha)} = 1 \text{ and } P_{n+2}^{(\alpha)} = (\alpha + 1)P_{n+1}^{(\alpha)} + \frac{\alpha(3\alpha - 1)}{2}P_n^{(\alpha)} \text{ for } n \geq 0 \quad (3)$$

and a Generalized Associated pell sequence  $\{Q_n^{(\alpha)}\}$  is defined by the recursive relation

$$Q_0^{(\alpha)} = 1, Q_1^{(\alpha)} = 1 \text{ and } Q_{n+2}^{(\alpha)} = (\alpha + 1)Q_{n+1}^{(\alpha)} + \frac{\alpha(3\alpha - 1)}{2}Q_n^{(\alpha)} \text{ for } n \geq 0 \quad (4)$$

Note that  $P_n^{(1)} = P_n$  and  $Q_n^{(1)} = Q_n$  for  $n = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$

In this paper, we proved that there exist triangular numbers in the sequence  $\{P_n^{(\alpha)}\}$  and  $\{Q_n^{(\alpha)}\}$  for  $n = 0, 1$ .

An integer  $N$  is triangular number if and only if  $8N + 1$  is a perfect square. To find triangular numbers in the Generalized Pell Sequence and Generalized Associated Pell Sequence we have to identify those  $n$  for which  $8P_n^{(\alpha)} + 1$  and  $8Q_n^{(\alpha)} + 1$  are perfect squares.

For the first few values of  $n$ , the terms of Generalized Pell Sequence  $\{P_n^{(\alpha)}\}$  and Generalized Associated Pell Sequence  $\{Q_n^{(\alpha)}\}$  are given in

**Table 1 (a)**

$n$	$P_n^{(\alpha)}$	$Q_n^{(\alpha)}$
0	0	1
1	1	1
2	$(\alpha + 1)$	$\frac{1}{2} (3\alpha^2 + \alpha + 2)$
3	$\frac{1}{2} (5\alpha^2 + 3\alpha + 2)$	$\frac{1}{2} (3\alpha^3 + 7\alpha^2 + 2\alpha + 2)$
4	$\frac{1}{2} (8\alpha^3 + 10\alpha^2 + 4\alpha + 2)$	$\frac{1}{4} (15\alpha^4 + 20\alpha^3 + 23\alpha^2 + 6\alpha + 4)$
5	$\frac{1}{4} (31\alpha^4 + 40\alpha^3 + 31\alpha^2 + 10\alpha + 4)$	$\frac{1}{4} (24\alpha^5 + 53\alpha^4 + 42\alpha^3 + 33\alpha^2 + 8\alpha + 4)$

For certain values of  $\alpha$ , the values of  $P_n^{(\alpha)}$ ,  $8P_n^{(\alpha)} + 1$ ,  $Q_n^{(\alpha)}$  and  $8Q_n^{(\alpha)} + 1$  are given in the following tables.

**Table 1(b)**

$\alpha$	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
$P_0^{(\alpha)}$	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
$P_1^{(\alpha)}$	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
$P_2^{(\alpha)}$	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
$P_3^{(\alpha)}$	5	14	28	47	71	100	134	173	217	266
$P_4^{(\alpha)}$	12	57	160	345	636	1057	1632	2385	3340	4521
$P_5^{(\alpha)}$	29	241	976	2759	6301	12499	22436	37381	58789	88301
$8P_0^{(\alpha)} + 1$	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
$8P_1^{(\alpha)} + 1$	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9
$8P_2^{(\alpha)} + 1$	17	25	33	41	49	57	65	73	81	89
$8P_3^{(\alpha)} + 1$	41	113	225	377	569	801	1073	1385	1737	2129
$8P_4^{(\alpha)} + 1$	97	457	1281	2761	5089	8457	13057	19081	26721	36169
$8P_5^{(\alpha)} + 1$	233	1929	7809	22073	50409	99993	179489	299049	470313	706409

Table 1(c)

$\alpha$	11	12	13	14	15
$P_0^{(\alpha)}$	0	0	0	0	0
$P_1^{(\alpha)}$	1	1	1	1	1
$P_2^{(\alpha)}$	12	13	14	15	16
$P_3^{(\alpha)}$	320	379	443	512	586
$P_4^{(\alpha)}$	5952	7657	9660	11985	14656
$P_5^{(\alpha)}$	127744	179131	244661	326719	427876
$8P_0^{(\alpha)} + 1$	1	1	1	1	1
$8P_1^{(\alpha)} + 1$	9	9	9	9	9
$8P_2^{(\alpha)} + 1$	97	105	113	121	129
$8P_3^{(\alpha)} + 1$	2561	3033	3545	4097	4689
$8P_4^{(\alpha)} + 1$	47617	61257	77281	95881	117249
$8P_5^{(\alpha)} + 1$	102195	1433049	1957289	2613753	3423009

Table 1(d)

$\alpha$	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
$Q_0^{(\alpha)}$	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
$Q_1^{(\alpha)}$	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
$Q_2^{(\alpha)}$	3	8	16	27	41	58	78	101	127	156
$Q_3^{(\alpha)}$	7	29	76	157	281	457	694	1001	1387	1861
$Q_4^{(\alpha)}$	17	127	496	1379	3121	6157	11012	18301	28729	43091
$Q_5^{(\alpha)}$	41	526	2896	10349	28561	66406	136676	281801	449569	743846
$8Q_0^{(\alpha)} + 1$	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9
$8Q_1^{(\alpha)} + 1$	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9
$8Q_2^{(\alpha)} + 1$	25	65	129	217	329	465	625	809	1017	1249
$8Q_3^{(\alpha)} + 1$	57	233	609	1257	2249	3656	5553	8009	11097	14889
$8Q_4^{(\alpha)} + 1$	137	1017	3969	11033	24969	49257	88097	146409	229833	344729
$8Q_5^{(\alpha)} + 1$	329	4209	23169	82793	228489	531249	1093409	2254409	3596553	5950769

Table 1(e)

$\alpha$	11	12	13	14	15
$Q_0^{(\alpha)}$	1	1	1	1	1
$Q_1^{(\alpha)}$	1	1	1	1	1
$Q_2^{(\alpha)}$	188	223	261	302	346
$Q_3^{(\alpha)}$	2432	3109	3901	4817	5866
$Q_4^{(\alpha)}$	62272	87247	119081	158929	208036
$Q_5^{(\alpha)}$	1175296	1787101	2630681	3766414	5264356
$8Q_0^{(\alpha)} + 1$	9	9	9	9	9
$8Q_1^{(\alpha)} + 1$	9	9	9	9	9
$8Q_2^{(\alpha)} + 1$	1505	1785	2089	2417	2769
$8Q_3^{(\alpha)} + 1$	19457	24873	31209	38537	46929
$8Q_4^{(\alpha)} + 1$	498177	697977	952649	1271433	1664289
$8Q_5^{(\alpha)} + 1$	9402369	14296809	21045449	30131313	42114849

The following properties of the sequences  $\{ P_n \}$  and  $\{ Q_n \}$  given as

$$P_{-n} = (-1)^{n+1} P_n \text{ and } Q_{-n} = (-1)^n Q_n \tag{5}$$

$$P_{-n} = \frac{a^n - b^n}{2\sqrt{2}} \text{ and } Q_{-n} = \frac{a^n + b^n}{2} \tag{6}$$

where  $a = 1 + \sqrt{2}$  and  $b = 1 - \sqrt{2}$

$$P_{m+n} = 2P_m Q_n - (-1)^n P_{m-n} \tag{7}$$

$$P_{m+n} = P_m P_{n+1} + P_{m-n} P_n \tag{8}$$

$$Q_n^2 = 2P_n^2 + (-1)^n \tag{9}$$

$$Q_{2n} = 2Q_n^2 - (-1)^n \tag{10}$$

As a direct consequence of (6) we have

$$Q_{m+n} = 2Q_m Q_n - (-1)^n Q_{m-n} \text{ for all integers } m \text{ and } n. \tag{11}$$

**Lemma 1 :** *If  $n, k$  and  $t$  are integers then  $P_{n+2kt} \equiv (-1)^{t(k-1)} P_n \pmod{Q_k}$ .*

**Proof:** If  $t = 0$ , the lemma is trivial.

We prove this lemma for  $t > 0$  by using induction hypothesis on  $t$ . By using (7)

$$\begin{aligned} P_{2k+n} &= 2P_{n+k} Q_k - (-1)^k P_{(n+k)-k} = 2P_{n+k} Q_k - (-1)^k P_n \\ &\equiv - (-1)^k P_n \pmod{Q_k} \\ &\equiv (-1)^{k+1} P_n \pmod{Q_k}. \end{aligned}$$

Proving the lemma for  $t = 1$ .

Now, Assume that the lemma holds all integers  $\leq t$ . Then again by (7) and the induction hypothesis, we get

$$\begin{aligned} P_{2k(t+1)+n} &= P_{(2kt+n)+2k} \\ &\equiv (-1)^{k+1} P_{2kt+n} \pmod{Q_k} \\ &\equiv (-1)^{k+1} (-1)^{t(k+1)} P_n \pmod{Q_k} \\ &\equiv (-1)^{(t+1)(k+1)} P_n \pmod{Q_k}. \end{aligned}$$

If  $t < 0$ , say  $t = -m$ , where  $m > 0$  by (5) we have

$$\begin{aligned} P_{n+2kt} &= P_{n-2km} = P_{n+2(-k)t} \\ &\equiv (-1)^{t(-k+1)} P_n \pmod{Q_{(-k)}} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &\equiv (-1)^{t-(k+1)} P_n \pmod{Q_k} \\ &\equiv (-1)^{t(k-1)} P_n \pmod{Q_k} \end{aligned}$$

which completes the proof of the lemma.

**Lemma 2 :** *If  $m$  is even and  $n, k$  are any integers then  $Q_{n+2km} \equiv (-1)^k Q_n \pmod{Q_m}$*

**Proof:** For  $k = 0$ , the lemma is trivial.

We prove this lemma for  $k > 0$  by using induction on  $k$ , by (11)

$$Q_{n+2m} = 2Q_{n+m} Q_m - (-1)^m Q_n.$$

Because  $m$  is even, this gives the lemma for  $k = 1$ .

Assume that the lemma holds all integers  $\leq k$ . By (11) and the induction hypothesis, we get

$$\begin{aligned} Q_{n+2(k+1)m} &= 2Q_{n+2km} Q_{2m} - Q_{n+2(k-1)m} \\ &\equiv 2(-1)^k Q_n Q_{2m} - (-1)^{k-1} Q_n \pmod{Q_m} \\ &\equiv (-1)^k (2Q_{2m} - 1) Q_n \pmod{Q_m} \end{aligned} \quad (12)$$

But since  $m$  is even it follows from (10) that

$$2Q_{2m} + 1 \equiv -1 \pmod{Q_m} \quad (13)$$

By (12) and (13) together prove the lemma for  $k + 1$ .

Hence by induction the lemma holds for  $k > 0$ .

If  $k < 0$ , say  $k = -r$ , where  $r > 0$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} Q_{n+2km} &= Q_{n-2rm} = 2Q_n Q_{2rm} - (-1)^{2rm} Q_{n+2rm} \\ &= 2Q_n Q_{2rm} - Q_{n+2rm} \\ &\equiv 2Q_n (-1)^r - (-1)^r Q_n \pmod{Q_m} \\ &\equiv (-1)^r Q_n \pmod{Q_m} \\ &\equiv (-1)^k Q_n \pmod{Q_m} \end{aligned}$$

which completes the proof of the Lemma.

First we prove those  $n$  for which  $8P_n^{(1)} + 1$  and  $8Q_n^{(1)} + 1$  be perfect squares, i.e.,  $8P_n^{(1)} + 1$  is perfect square only when  $n = 0$  or  $1$  and  $8Q_n^{(1)} + 1$  is perfect square only when  $n = 0, 1$  or  $2$ . So,  $P_1^{(1)}, Q_0^{(1)}, Q_1^{(1)}$  and  $Q_2^{(1)}$  are the only triangular numbers.

To prove above results we present the period  $k$  of the sequence  $\left\{Q_t^{(1)}\right\}_{t=0}^{\infty}$  modulo certain integer  $M > 0$ . That is for all integers  $u \geq 0$ ,  $Q_{t+ku}^{(\alpha)} \equiv Q_t^{(\alpha)} \pmod{M}$ . Also if modulo  $M$ , the sequence  $\{Q_t^{(\alpha)}\}$  has period  $k$ , we have  $R_t$  and  $U_t$  for  $t = 0, 1, 2, \dots, k - 1$ , where  $Q_t^{(1)} \equiv R_t \pmod{M}$  and  $8Q_t^{(1)} + 1 \equiv U_t \pmod{M}$ , For certain values of  $M > 0$ , the period  $k$  of  $\{Q_t^{(1)}\}$ , the numbers  $R_t$  ( $t = 0, 1, 2, \dots, k - 1$ ) and the numbers  $U_t$  ( $t = 0, 1, 2, \dots, k - 1$ ) are given in

Table 2(a)

<i>I</i> <i>Mod</i> <i>M</i>	<i>II</i> <i>Period</i> <i>K</i>	<i>III</i> $R_t (t = 0, 1, 2, \dots, k - 1)$ $Q_t^{(1)} \equiv R_t \pmod{M}$	<i>IV</i> $U_t (t = 0, 1, 2, \dots, k - 1)$ $8Q_t^{(1)} + 1 \equiv U_t \pmod{M}$
7	6	1, 1, 3, 0, 3, 6.	2, 2, 4, 1, 4, 0.
9	24	1, 1, 3, 7, 8, 5, 0, 5, 1, 7, 6, 1, 8, 8, 6, 2, 1, 4, 0, 4, 8, 2, 3, 8.	0, 0, 7, 3, 2, 5, 1, 5, 0, 3, 4, 0, 2, 2, 4, 8, 0, 6, 1, 6, 2, 8, 7, 2.
10	12	1, 1, 3, 7, 7, 1, 9, 9, 7, 3, 3, 9	9, 9, 5, 7, 7, 9, 3, 3, 7, 5, 5, 3.
23	22	1, 1, 3, 7, 6, 8, 0, 8, 5, 7, 8, 1, 10, 10, 8, 4, 5, 3, 0, 3, 6, 4, 3, 10.	9, 9, 2, 11, 22, 7, 11, 4, 17, 13, 18, 1, 18, 12, 17, 21, 11, 18, 22, 14, 2, 16.

**Lemma 3 :** Suppose  $n \equiv 0$  or  $1 \pmod{4}$ . Then  $8Q_n^{(1)} + 1$  is a perfect square if and only if  $n = 0$  or  $1$ .

**Proof:** We know that  $Q_n^{(1)} = Q_n$ .

If  $n = 0$  or  $1$  then  $8Q_n + 1 = 3^2$ , by table 1(d).

Conversely, suppose  $n \equiv 0$  or  $1 \pmod{4}$  and  $n \notin \{0, 1\}$ . Then  $n$  can be written as  $n = 2km + \epsilon$ ,  $m = 2^r$ ,  $r \geq 1$ ,  $k$  is odd and  $\epsilon = 0$  or  $1$ .

Therefore by (11) and by table 1(d), we get

$$Q_n = Q_{2km+\epsilon} \equiv (-1)^k Q_\epsilon \pmod{Q_m} \equiv -1 \pmod{Q_m}$$

So that  $8Q_n + 1 \equiv -7 \pmod{Q_m}$

Hence the Jacobi Symbol

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\frac{8Q_n+1}{Q_m}\right) &= \left(\frac{-7}{Q_m}\right) = \left(\frac{-1}{Q_m}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{7}{Q_m}\right) \\ &= \left(\frac{-1}{Q_m}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{Q_m}{7}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{-1}{Q_m}\right) = \left(\frac{Q_m}{7}\right) \end{aligned} \quad (14)$$

Now note that for modulo 7, the sequence  $\{Q_n\}$  is periodic with period 6. In fact by (11) and Table 1(d), we have

$$\begin{aligned} Q_{n+6} &= 2Q_3 \cdot Q_{n+3} + Q_n = 2(7)Q_{n+3} + Q_n \\ &\equiv Q_n \pmod{7}. \end{aligned}$$

Also, since  $m = 2^r \equiv \pm 2 \pmod{6}$ , we have from (5) and Table 2(a) that

$$Q_m \equiv Q_{\pm 2} \pmod{7} \equiv Q_2 \pmod{7} \equiv 3 \pmod{7}$$

$$\therefore \left(\frac{Q_m}{7}\right) = \left(\frac{3}{7}\right) = \left(\frac{-4}{7}\right) = \left(-\frac{1}{7}\right) \left(\frac{4}{7}\right) = -1 \quad (15)$$

Now (14) and (15) gives  $\left(\frac{8Q_n+1}{Q_m}\right) = -1$ .

Proving that  $8Q_n + 1$  cannot be a square, which completes the proof of the lemma.

**Lemma 4:** Suppose  $n \equiv \pm 2 \pmod{36}$ . Then  $8Q_n^{(1)} + 1$  is a perfect square if and only if  $n = \pm 2$ .

**Proof:** We know that  $Q_n^{(1)} = Q_n$ .

If  $n = \pm 2$  then  $8Q_n^{(1)} + 1 = 5^2$  by (5) and Table 1(d).

Conversely, suppose  $n \equiv \pm 2 \pmod{36}$  and  $n \notin \{-2, 2\}$ .

Then  $n$  can be written as  $n = 2 \cdot 3^2 \cdot 2^r \cdot g \pm 2$ , where  $r \geq 1$  and  $g$  is odd.

$$m = \begin{cases} 3^2 \cdot 2^r & \text{if } r \equiv 3 \pmod{10} \\ 3 \cdot 2^r & \text{if } r \equiv 1 \text{ (or) } 6 \pmod{10} \\ 2^r & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \quad (16)$$

So that  $n = 2km \pm 2$ , where  $k$  is odd (in fact,  $k = g, 3g$  or  $3^2g$ ). Also, since



$2^{t+10} \equiv 2^t \pmod{22}$  for  $t \geq 1$ , it follows that  $m$ , defined in (16) is such that

$$m \equiv \pm 4, \pm 6, \pm 10 \pmod{22} \tag{17}$$

For instance, if  $r \equiv 6 \pmod{10}$ , then  $r = 10u+6$  for some integer  $u$  and in this case (16)

$$m = 3 \cdot 2^r = 3 \cdot 2^{10u+6} \equiv 3 \cdot 2^6 \pmod{22} \equiv 6 \pmod{22}.$$

Now by Lemma (2), (5) and Table 1(d),

$$\text{we have } Q_n = Q_{2km \pm 2} \equiv (-1)^k Q_2 \pmod{Q_m} \equiv -3 \pmod{Q_m}.$$

So that  $8Q_n + 1 \equiv -23 \pmod{Q_m}$ . Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} \left( \frac{8Q_n + 1}{Q_m} \right) &= \left( \frac{-23}{Q_m} \right) = \left( \frac{-1}{Q_m} \right) \cdot \left( \frac{23}{Q_m} \right) \\ &= \left( \frac{-1}{Q_m} \right) \cdot \left( \frac{Q_m}{23} \right) \cdot \left( \frac{-1}{Q_m} \right) = \left( \frac{Q_m}{23} \right) \end{aligned} \tag{18}$$

Note that for modulo 23, the sequence  $\{Q_j\}$  is periodic with period 22. That is

$$Q_{j+22i} \equiv Q_j \pmod{23} \text{ for all integers } i \geq 0 \tag{19}$$

Now (17), (18) and (5) imply that  $Q_m \equiv Q_4, Q_6$  or  $Q_{10} \pmod{23}$ .

i.e.,  $Q_m \equiv 17, 7$  or  $5 \pmod{23}$  by Table 2(a).

Therefore (18) gives

$$\left( \frac{8Q_n + 1}{Q_m} \right) = \left( \frac{17}{23} \right), \left( \frac{7}{23} \right) \text{ or } \left( \frac{5}{23} \right) \text{ showing } \left( \frac{8Q_n + 1}{Q_m} \right) = -1$$

Therefore  $8Q_{n+1}$  is not a perfect square.

**Lemma 5 :** Suppose  $n \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{2^2 \cdot 3}$ . Then  $8P_n^{(1)} + 1$  is a perfect square if and only if  $n = \pm 1$ .

**Proof:** Note that  $P_n^{(1)} = P_n$ .

If  $n = \pm 1$ , then by (5) and by Table 1(b)

$$\text{We have } 8P_n + 1 = 8P_{\pm 1} + 1 = 3^2.$$

Conversely, suppose  $n \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{2^2 \cdot 3}$  and  $n \notin \{-1, 1\}$ . Then  $n$  can be written as

$$n = 2km \pm 1 \text{ then } m = 2^r, r \geq 1, k \text{ is odd.}$$

Therefore, by (11) and Table 1(d),

we get  $Q_n = Q_{2km+\varepsilon} \equiv (-1)^k Q_\varepsilon \pmod{Q_m} \equiv -1 \pmod{Q_m}$ .

So, that

$$\begin{aligned} 8P_{n+1} &= 8P_{2km\pm 1} + 1 \\ &\equiv 8(-1)^{m(k+1)} P_{\pm 1} + 1 \pmod{Q_m} \\ &\equiv 8(-1) + 1 \pmod{Q_m} \\ &\equiv -7 \pmod{Q_m}. \\ \left(\frac{8P_n+1}{Q_m}\right) &= \left(\frac{-7}{Q_m}\right) = \left(\frac{-1}{Q_m}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{7}{Q_m}\right) \\ &= \left(\frac{-1}{Q_m}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{Q_m}{7}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{-1}{Q_m}\right) = \left(\frac{Q_m}{7}\right) \end{aligned}$$

By using Lemma 3, We can write  $\left(\frac{Q_m}{7}\right) = -1$ .

$$\therefore \left(\frac{8P_n+1}{Q_m}\right) = -1.$$

Proving that  $8P_n + 1$  cannot be a square,

which completes the proof of the lemma.

**Lemma 6 :** Suppose  $n \equiv 0, 1, \pm 2 \pmod{72}$ . Then  $8Q_n^{(1)} + 1$  is a perfect square if and only if  $n = 0, 1, \pm 2$ .

**Proof:** We know that  $Q_n^{(1)} = Q_n$ .

If  $n \equiv 0$  or  $1 \pmod{72}$ , then  $n \equiv 0$  or  $1 \pmod{4}$  and  $n \equiv \pm 2 \pmod{36}$ .

The proof follows from Lemma (3) and Lemma (4).

**Lemma 7:**  $8Q_{n+1}^{(1)}$  is not a perfect square if  $n = 0, 1, \pm 2 \pmod{72}$ .

**Proof :** We know that  $Q_n^{(1)} = Q_n$ .

We prove this in different steps eliminating at each stage certain integers  $n$  modulo 72 for which  $8Q_n + 1$  is not a square. In each step we choose an integer  $m$  such that the period  $k$  (of the sequence  $\{Q_n\} \pmod{m}$ ) is a divisor of 72 and there by eliminating certain residue class modulo  $k$ .

**Step I :** Note that modulo 10, the sequence  $\{Q_n\}$  is periodic with period 12. That is,  $Q_{n+12u} \equiv Q_n \pmod{10}$  for all integers  $u \geq 0$ . Therefore, if  $n \equiv 3, 4, 6, 7, 8$  or  $11 \pmod{12}$  then we respectively have  $8Q_n + 1 \equiv 8Q_3+1, 8Q_4+1, 8Q_6+1, 8Q_7+1, 8Q_8+1$  or  $8Q_{11}+1 \pmod{10}$  so that by periodic table,  $8Q_n + 1 \equiv 3$  or  $7 \pmod{10}$  for these values of  $n$ , showing  $8Q_n + 1$  is not a square, since  $m^2 \equiv 0, 1, 4, 5, 6$  or  $9 \pmod{10}$  for any integer  $m \geq 1$ . Therefore, for the sequence in the form  $8Q_n + 1$  we have to search those  $n$  for which  $n \equiv 0, 1, 2, 5, 9$  or  $10 \pmod{12}$  or equivalently among  $n \equiv 0, 1, 2, 5, 9, 10, 12, 13, 14, 17, 21$  or  $22 \pmod{24}$ .

**Step II :** Modulo 9, the sequence  $\{Q_n\}$  is periodic with period 24 that is  $Q_{n+12u} \equiv Q_n \pmod{9}$  for all integers  $u \geq 0$ . So that when  $n \equiv 5, 9, 12, 13, 17$  or  $21 \pmod{24}$  we respectively have  $Q_n \equiv Q_5, Q_9, Q_{12}, Q_{13}, Q_{17}$  or  $Q_{21} \pmod{9}$  and therefore, in view of periodic table,  $8Q_n + 1 \equiv 2, 3, 5, 6$  or  $8 \pmod{9}$ , showing  $8Q_n + 1$  is not a square, since  $m^2 \equiv 0, 1, 4$  or  $7 \pmod{9}$  for any integer  $m$  or  $\geq 1$ .

Thus, there remain  $n \equiv 0, 1, 2, 10, 14$  or  $22 \pmod{24}$ .

**Step III :** Modulo 11, also the sequence  $\{Q_n\}$  is periodic with period 24, so that for  $n \equiv 0$  or  $14 \pmod{24}$  we have  $Q_n \equiv Q_{10}$  or  $Q_{14} \pmod{11}$ , showing  $8Q_n+1 \equiv 2$  or  $10 \pmod{11}$ , by periodic table. Therefore  $8Q_n+1$  is not a square if  $n \equiv 10$  or  $14 \pmod{24}$ , since 2 and 10 are quadratic nonresidues modulo 11.

Thus there remain  $n \equiv 0, 1, 2$  or  $22 \pmod{24}$  or equivalently,  $n \equiv 0, 1, 2, 22, 24, 25, 26, 46, 48, 49, 50$  or  $70 \pmod{72}$ .

**Step IV :** Modulo 199, the sequence  $\{Q_n\}$  has period 18, so that if  $n \equiv 4, 11, 13, 14$  or  $17 \pmod{18}$  then by periodic table, we respectively have  $8Q_n + 1 \equiv 137, 78, 71, 37, 192 \pmod{199}$  giving  $8Q_n + 1$  is not a square, since 71, 78, 137 and 192 are quadratic nonresidues modulo 199.

Hence we eliminate  $n \equiv 22, 49$  and  $50 \pmod{72}$ .

**Step V :** Modulo 197, the sequence  $\{Q_n\}$  has period 36, if  $n \equiv \pm 10, \pm 12 \pmod{36}$  then by periodic table, we respectively have  $8Q_n + 1 \equiv 113$  or  $194 \pmod{197}$ , showing these  $n$  can be eliminated. Thus we can eliminate  $n \equiv 24, 26, 46$  and  $48 \pmod{72}$ .

**Step VI :** Modulo 73 the sequence  $\{Q_n\}$  is periodic with period 72. Therefore if  $n \equiv 25 \pmod{72}$ , then  $8Q_n + 1 \equiv 56 \pmod{73}$  by periodic table, showing  $8Q_n + 1$  is not a square,

$$\text{Since } \left(\frac{56}{73}\right) = -1$$

Finally, there remain  $n = 0, 1, 2 \pmod{72}$ .

**Theorem 1:**  $Q_n^{(1)}$  is triangular number if and only if  $n = 0, 1, \pm 2$ .

**Proof :** From Lemma 6 and 7 we have  $8Q_n^{(1)} + 1$  is a perfect square if  $n = 0, 1, \pm 2$ .

Therefore we have  $Q_n^{(1)}$  is triangular number.

**Observation :** (i) From table 1(d) observe that  $Q_n^{(2)}, Q_n^{(4)}, Q_n^{(5)}, Q_n^{(6)}, Q_n^{(8)}, Q_n^{(9)}$  and  $Q_n^{(10)}$  are triangular numbers if  $n = 0, 1$ .

(ii) For  $Q_n^{(3)}$  when  $n = 0, 1$  or  $4$  and  $Q_n^{(7)}$  when  $n = 0, 1$  or  $2$  be triangular numbers.

**Theorem 2:** (i)  $P_n^{(1)}$  is triangular number if and only if  $n = 1$ .

(ii)  $P_n^{(2)}$  is a generalized triangular number if  $n = 0, 1$  or  $2$ .

**Proof :** (i) From Lemma 5 the result is proved.

we have  $8P_n^{(1)} + 1$  is perfect square if  $n = 1$ .

(ii) If  $N$  is triangular number then  $8N + 1$  must be perfect square.

$$\text{i.e., } N = \frac{m(m+1)}{2}$$

We know that when  $8P_n^{(1)} + 1$  is perfect square then  $P_n^{(\alpha)}$  is a generalized triangular number for any integer  $m$ .

By table 1(b),  $P_2^{(2)} = 3$ .

We have  $8P_2^{(2)} + 1 = 25 = 5^2$ .

Note that zero is not a triangular number for any integer  $m > 0$ .

Therefore  $P_n^{(2)}$  becomes generalized triangular number if  $n = 0, 1$  or  $2$ .

Hence the theorem.

**Observation:** From table 1(b) & 1(c) observe that  $P_n^{(5)}, P_n^{(9)}$  and  $P_n^{(14)}$  are generalized triangular numbers when  $n = 0, 1$  or  $2$ .

**Theorem 3 :**  $Q_n^{(\alpha)}$  is triangular number if  $n = 0, 1$ .

**Proof :** We prove the theorem by proving  $8Q_n^{(\alpha)} + 1$  is a perfect square.

i.e., we have to prove  $8Q_n^{(\alpha)} + 1$  is a perfect square if  $n = 0, 1$  for all integers  $\alpha > 0$ .

To show this we use the Principle of Mathematical Induction on  $\alpha$ .

From Lemmas 6 and 7, We know that  $8Q_n^{(\alpha)} + 1$  is a perfect square if  $n = 0, 1$ .

For  $\alpha = 1$  the result is true.

Assume that it is true for  $\alpha = m$ .

Observing that  $8Q_0^{(m)} + 1$  and  $8Q_1^{(m)} + 1$  are perfect squares.

We prove that it is also true for  $\alpha = m + 1$ .

Consider  $8Q_1^{(m+1)} + 1 = 8 \cdot 1 + 1 = 9 = 3^2$ .

(From table 1(d)  $Q_1^{(\alpha)} = 1$ , for all  $\alpha$ ).

$\therefore$  By the Principle of Mathematical Induction  $8Q_n^{(\alpha)} + 1$  is a perfect square if  $n=0, 1$ . which completes the proof of the theorem.

**Theorem 4 :**  $P_n^{(\alpha)}$  is a generalized triangular number if  $n = 0, 1$ .

**Proof :** We prove the theorem by proving  $8P_n^{(\alpha)} + 1$  is a perfect square.

i.e., we prove  $8P_n^{(\alpha)} + 1$  is a perfect square if  $n = 0, 1$  for all integers  $\alpha > 0$ .

To show this we use the Principle of Mathematical Induction on  $\alpha$ .

From Lemma 5,  $8P_n^{(1)} + 1$  is a perfect square if  $n = 1$ .

When  $n = 0$ ,  $8P_n^{(1)} + 1 = 1$  which is a perfect square (from table 1(b)).

For  $\alpha = 1$  the result is true.

Assume that it is true for  $\alpha = m$ .

Observing that  $8P_0^{(m)} + 1$  and  $8P_1^{(m)} + 1$  are perfect squares

We prove that it is also true for  $\alpha = m + 1$ .

Consider  $8P_0^{(m+1)} + 1 = 1 = 1^2$ .

(From table 1(b),  $P_0^{(\alpha)} = 0$  for all  $\alpha$ ).

$\therefore$  By the Principle of Mathematical Induction  $8P_n^{(\alpha)} + 1$  is perfect square if  $n = 0, 1$ .

Hence  $P_n^{(\alpha)}$  is a generalized triangular number if  $n = 0, 1$ .

which completes the proof of the theorem.

## REFERENCES

- [1] Apostol Tom M, Introduction to Analytic Number Theory, Springer, International Student Edition (1980).

- [2] Charles R. Wall, "On Triangular Fibonacci Numbers". *The Fibonacci Quarterly* 23.1 (Feb. 1985): 77–79.
- [3] Luo Ming, "On Triangular Fibonacci Numbers" *The Fibonacci Quarterly* 27.2 (1989): 98–108.
- [4] Luo Ming, "On Triangular Lucas Numbers". *Applications of Fibonacci Numbers, Vol. 4*, Kluwer Academic Pub. (1991): 231–240.
- [5] Mc. Daniel. W. L, "Triangular Numbers in the Pell Sequence". *The Fibonacci Quarterly* 34.2 (1996): 105–107.
- [6] Srinivasa Rao B, Ph.D thesis titled "Special types of integers in certain second order recursive sequences".

**Dr. B. Krishna Gandhi**

Professor of Mathematics & Principal  
JNTU College of Fine Arts  
Masab Tank, Hyderabad- 28

**G. Upender Reddy**

Asst. Prof. of Mathematics  
Mahatma Gandhi Institute of Technology  
Chaitanya Bharathi P.O;Gandipet, Hyderabad-75