

SOME PROPERTIES OF BALANCING NUMBERS

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ABSTRACT. In this paper we discuss some aspects and properties of Balancing Numbers and some other related numbers. We prove, among other things, that a balancing number cannot be a power of a prime integer. We give some identities concerning these numbers and its related numbers. We use linear algebra techniques to write a balancing number and its related numbers in the Binet form.

1. INTRODUCTION

In ([1]), Behera and Panda gave the definition of a *balancing number* as follows:

Definition 1.1. A natural number n is a balancing number if there is a natural number r such that the ordered pair $(n; r)$ is a solution for the Diophantine equation

$$(1.1) \quad 1 + 2 + \cdots + (n - 1) = (n + 1) + (n + 2) + \cdots + (n + r)$$

The natural number r is called the balancer for the balancing number n . Let

$$(1.2) \quad T_n = 1 + 2 + \cdots + (n - 1) + n = \frac{n(n + 1)}{2}$$

be the n -th triangular number and let $S_n = n^2$ be the n -th square number. Notice that

$$T_{n-1} + T_n = n^2 = S_n$$

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By adding $1 + 2 + \cdots + (n - 1) + n$ to both sides of (1.1) we have

$$(1.3) \quad S_n = n^2 = T_n + T_{n-1} = T_{n+r}$$

So (1.1) can be rephrased as to find two natural numbers n and r such that the sum of two consecutive triangular numbers is a triangular number which is at the same time a square number. So we can say that the positive integer n is a balancing number with balancer r if and only if the $(n + r)$ -th triangular number is the n -th square number. For example $T_6 + T_5 = T_8$ (here $n = 6, r = 2$) and $T_{35} + T_{34} = T_{49}$ (here $n = 35, r = 14$).

Now equation (1.1) is indeed of the form $T_{n-1} = nr + T_r$. So it can be written as a quadratic equation (in r):

$$(1.4) \quad r^2 + (2n + 1)r + (n - n^2) = 0$$

Solving this equation for r we have

$$(1.5) \quad r = \frac{(-2n - 1) + \sqrt{8n^2 + 1}}{2}$$

Clearly the numerator is an even integer, and hence in order that n becomes a balancing number and r a balancer for n , r must be a root of equation (1.4) and $8n^2 + 1$ is an odd perfect square.

On the other hand equation (1.1) can also be regarded as a quadratic equation (in n)

$$(1.6) \quad n^2 - (2r + 1)n - (r^2 + r) = 0$$

Hence

$$(1.7) \quad n = \frac{(2r + 1) + \sqrt{8r^2 + 8r + 1}}{2}$$

In this case we can say that in order n to be a balancing number with balancer r , n must be a root of equation (1.6) and $8r^2 + 8r + 1$ must be an odd perfect square.

Let us denote the n -th balancing number by B_n and its corresponding n -th balancer by r_n . Therefore Equations ((1.5) and (1.7)) above become

$$(1.8) \quad r_n = \frac{(-2B_n - 1) + \sqrt{8B_n^2 + 1}}{2}$$

and

$$(1.9) \quad B_n = \frac{(2r_n + 1) + \sqrt{8r_n^2 + 8r_n + 1}}{2}$$

respectively.

2. SOME FURTHER RESULTS ON BALANCING NUMBERS

There is a clear relation between the n -th balancing number B_n and its n -th balancer r_n as we can see in the following theorem.

Theorem 2.1. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{r_n}{B_n} = \sqrt{2} - 1$

Proof. Using formulae ((1.8) and (1.9)) we have

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{r_n}{B_n} &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{(-2B_n - 1) + \sqrt{8B_n^2 + 1}}{2}}{B_n} \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} -1 - \frac{1}{2B_n} + \frac{\sqrt{8 + \frac{1}{B_n^2}}}{2} \\ &= -1 + \frac{\sqrt{8}}{2} \quad (\text{since } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{B_n} = 0) \\ &= \sqrt{2} - 1 \approx 0.4142. \end{aligned}$$

Clearly $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{B_n}{r_n} = \sqrt{2} + 1$.

Table 1 below gives the first eight balancing numbers B_n 's with their corresponding balancers r_n 's and the ratios (upto the first four decimals) $\frac{r_n}{B_n}$. We see from Table 1 that we achieved the approximate ratio of the n -th balancer by the n -th balancing number ($\sqrt{2} - 1$) immediately at the seventh place.

Behera and Panda in ([1]) showed that the balancing numbers satisfy the second order linear recurrence relation by the identity

$$(2.1) \quad B_{n+1} = 6B_n - B_{n-1} \quad \text{for } n \in \mathbb{N}$$

Identity (2.1) shows that B_n and B_{n+1} have the same parity i.e., both are even or both are odd.

TABLE 1.

n th	B_n	r_n	$\frac{r_n}{B_n}$
1	1	0	0
2	6	2	0.3333
3	35	14	0.4000
4	204	84	0.4117
5	1189	492	0.4138
6	6930	2870	0.4141
7	40391	16730	0.4142
8	235416	97512	0.4142

Now if B_n is the n -th balancing number, then, as we mentioned above, $8B_n^2 + 1$ is an odd perfect square, say m^2 , for some odd integer m . So we have

$$(2.2) \quad 8B_n^2 + 1 = m^2.$$

Let us change notation for a while and write this equation as $8x^2 + 1 = y^2$, where x, y are integers. This is in fact a Pell's equation (See [12] Page 553) of the form

$$(2.3) \quad y^2 - 8x^2 = 1.$$

Clearly the ordered pair $(1, 3) = (x_1, y_1)$ is a fundamental solution of (2.3). The n -th solution (x_n, y_n) of (2.3) can be found by the following equations (See [12] Theorem 13.12):

$$(2.4) \quad y_n + x_n\sqrt{8} = (3 + \sqrt{8})^n \quad \text{and} \quad y_n - x_n\sqrt{8} = (3 - \sqrt{8})^n$$

In fact x_n is the n -th balancing number B_n . Let us denote $3 + \sqrt{8}$ by γ and $3 - \sqrt{8}$ by δ . Then $\gamma + \delta = 6, \gamma\delta = 1$. Let us denote y_n by C_n . Clearly from the two equations in (2.4), we have

$$(2.5) \quad B_n = \frac{\gamma^n - \delta^n}{2\sqrt{8}}$$

and

$$(2.6) \quad C_n = \frac{\gamma^n + \delta^n}{2}$$

C_n is called the n -th Lucas-balancing number (See [7]). Formulae ((2.5) and (2.6)) are the Binet form of B_n and C_n respectively (See [2]).

Now

$$(2.7) \quad \sqrt{8B_n^2 + 1} = \sqrt{8\left(\frac{\gamma^n - \delta^n}{4\sqrt{2}}\right)^2 + 1} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\gamma^n + \delta^n}{2}\right)^2} = \frac{\gamma^n + \delta^n}{2}.$$

This shows that $C_n = \sqrt{8B_n^2 + 1}$.

Theorem 2.2. *For each integer $n \geq 1$, we have*

(1) $C_{n+1} = 6C_n - C_{n-1}$. (See [13] proved for $n \geq 2$)

(2) $C_{n+1} = 3C_n + 8B_n$.

(3) $2C_n^2 - C_{2n} = 1$.

(4) $\frac{1}{8}(C_{n-1}C_{n+1} - C_n^2) = 1$.

Proof. (1) Since B_n is a balancing number, clearly $C_n = \sqrt{8B_n^2 + 1}$ is an integer.

$$\begin{aligned} 6C_n - C_{n-1} &= 6\left(\frac{\gamma^n + \delta^n}{2}\right) - \left(\frac{\gamma^{n-1} + \delta^{n-1}}{2}\right) \\ &= \frac{6\gamma^n + 6\delta^n - \gamma^{n-1} - \delta^{n-1}}{2} \\ &= \frac{\gamma^{n-1}(6\gamma - 1) + \delta^{n-1}(6\delta - 1)}{2} \\ &= \frac{\gamma^{n-1}(17 + 6\sqrt{8}) + \delta^{n-1}(17 - 6\sqrt{8})}{2} \\ &= \frac{\gamma^{n-1}(\gamma^2) + \delta^{n-1}(\delta^2)}{2} \\ &= \frac{\gamma^{n+1} + \delta^{n+1}}{2} = C_{n+1}. \end{aligned}$$

For (2), consider C_{n+1} .

$$\begin{aligned} C_{n+1} &= \frac{\gamma^{n+1} + \delta^{n+1}}{2} = \frac{\gamma\gamma^n + \delta\delta^n}{2} \\ &= \frac{(3 + \sqrt{8})\gamma^n + (3 - \sqrt{8})\delta^n}{2} \\ &= \frac{3(\gamma^n + \delta^n)}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{8}(\gamma^n - \delta^n)}{2} \\ &= \frac{3(\gamma^n + \delta^n)}{2} + \frac{8(\gamma^n - \delta^n)}{4\sqrt{2}} \\ &= 3C_n + 8B_n. \end{aligned}$$

For (3), we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 2C_n^2 - C_{2n} &= 2\left(\frac{\gamma^n + \delta^n}{2}\right)^2 - \frac{\gamma^{2n} + \delta^{2n}}{2} \\
 &= \frac{\gamma^{2n} + \delta^{2n} + 2\gamma^n\delta^n - \gamma^{2n} - \delta^{2n}}{2} \\
 &= \gamma^n\delta^n = 1 \text{ (since } \gamma\delta = 1\text{)}.
 \end{aligned}$$

For (4), we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 C_{n-1}C_{n+1} - C_n^2 &= \frac{(\gamma^{n-1} + \delta^{n-1})(\gamma^{n+1} + \delta^{n+1})}{4} - \frac{(\gamma^n + \delta^n)^2}{4} \\
 &= \frac{\gamma^{2n} + \gamma^{n-1}\delta^{n-1}\delta^2 + \delta^{n-1}\gamma^{n-1}\gamma^2 + \delta^{2n}}{4} \\
 &= \frac{\delta^2 + \gamma^2 - 2}{4} = 8.
 \end{aligned}$$

Theorem 2.3. *For each integer $n \geq 1$, we have*

- (1) $\gamma^n = C_n + \sqrt{8}B_n$ and
- (2) $\delta^n = C_n - \sqrt{8}B_n$.

Proof. Straightforward from the definition of B_n and C_n .

Let $\Gamma_n = \gamma^n$ and $\Delta_n = \delta^n$. Then Γ_n and Δ_n can be regarded as elements in the quadratic number ring $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{2}]$. Although these two elements are not integers, they do satisfy Identity (2.1) as the following theorem shows.

Theorem 2.4. *For each integer $n \geq 0$, we have*

- (1) $\Gamma_{n+2} = 6\Gamma_{n+1} - \Gamma_n$.
- (2) $\Delta_{n+2} = 6\Delta_{n+1} - \Delta_n$.

Proof. Direct calculations by mathematical induction on n .

Theorem 2.5. *For each integer $n \geq 1$, we have*

- (1) $\Gamma_n = \gamma B_n - B_{n-1}$.
- (2) $\Delta_n = \delta B_n - B_{n-1}$.

Proof. By mathematical induction on n .

For $n = 1$, it is clear that $\gamma = 3 + \sqrt{8} = 1.(3 + \sqrt{8}) - 0 = \gamma B_1 - B_0$, since $B_1 = 1$ and

$B_0 = 0$. Similar calculations show that for $n = 2$, we have $\gamma^2 = \gamma B_2 - B_1 = 6\gamma - 1$. Now suppose that the statement is true for $n = k$. Then $\Gamma_k = \gamma B_k - B_{k-1}$. For $n = k + 1$ we have

$$\begin{aligned}\Gamma_{k+1} &= \gamma \Gamma_k = \gamma(\gamma B_k - B_{k-1}) = \gamma^2 B_k - \gamma B_{k-1} \\ &= (6\gamma - 1)B_k - \gamma B_{k-1} \quad (\text{since } \gamma^2 = 6\gamma - 1) \\ &= 6\gamma B_k - B_k - \gamma B_{k-1} = \gamma(6B_k - B_{k-1}) - B_k \\ &= \gamma B_{k+1} - B_k \text{ by Identity (2.1).}\end{aligned}$$

Hence we have (1). Similarly we can prove (2).

Theorem 2.6. *For each integer $n \geq 1$, we have*

$$(1) \quad 2B_n C_n = B_{2n}$$

$$(2) \quad C_{2n} = 1 + 16B_n^2$$

Proof. Using the Binet (Formulae (2.5) and (2.6)) forms of B_n and C_n it is easy to establish (1) and (2).

Now using the Binomial Theorem we can prove the following theorem

Theorem 2.7. *For each integer $n \geq 1$, we have*

$$(1) \quad B_n = \sum_{k=0}^{\lfloor \frac{n-1}{2} \rfloor} \binom{n}{2k+1} 3^{n-2k-1} 2^{3k}, \text{ and}$$

$$(2) \quad C_n = \sum_{k=0}^{\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor} \binom{n}{2k} 3^{n-2k} 2^{3k}$$

where $[x]$ denotes the greatest integer function.

Proof. (1) By the Binet (Formula (2.5)) form we have $B_n = \frac{\gamma^n - \delta^n}{2\sqrt{8}} = \frac{(3+\sqrt{8})^n - (3-\sqrt{8})^n}{2\sqrt{8}}$.

Now by the Binomial Theorem we have

$$(3 + \sqrt{8})^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} 3^{n-k} 2^{3k/2}$$

and

$$(3 - \sqrt{8})^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} 3^{n-k} (-1)^k 2^{3k/2}$$

Now if $k = 2l$ an even integer then the k -th coefficient of $(3 + \sqrt{8})^n - (3 - \sqrt{8})^n$ equals zero. But if $k = 2l + 1$ an odd integer, then the k -th coefficient of $(3 + \sqrt{8})^n - (3 - \sqrt{8})^n$

equals $2\sqrt{8}\binom{n}{2l+1}3^{n-2l-1}2^{3k}$. This implies that $B_n = \sum_{k=0}^{\lfloor \frac{n-1}{2} \rfloor} \binom{n}{2k+1}3^{n-2k-1}2^{3k}$.

(2) Similar to (1).

Theorem 2.8. *A balancing number cannot be a power of a prime integer.*

Proof. Suppose that p is a prime integer and p^n is a balancing number for some positive integer n . Then, by equation (1.5), $8(p^n)^2 + 1$ must be an odd perfect square, say m^2 with $m = 2k + 1$ is an odd integer for some positive integer k . So we have $8p^{2n} + 1 = m^2$, and hence $8p^{2n} = m^2 - 1 = (2k + 1)^2 - 1 = 4k^2 + 4k$. Canceling 4 from both sides we get

$$(2.8) \quad 2p^{2n} = k(k + 1)$$

Clearly $k, k + 1$ are relatively prime. We consider two cases:

Case (1) The prime integer $p = 2$. In this case (2.8) becomes $2^{2n+1} = k(k + 1)$. This implies, being $k, k + 1$ are relatively prime, that either $k = 2p^{2n+1}$ or $k + 1 = 2p^{2n+1}$. If $k = 2p^{2n+1}$, then $k + 1 = 1$, which is a contradiction since k is a positive integer. If $k + 1 = 2p^{2n+1}$, then $k = 1$ and hence we have $2^{2n+1} = 2$ which means $n = 0$, another contradiction since n is assumed to be a positive integer.

Case (2) The prime integer p is odd. Equation (2.8) implies that $2|k(k + 1)$. Since $k, k + 1$ are relatively prime integers, we have $2|k$ or $2|k + 1$. If $2|k$, then $k = 2^a b$ for some positive integers a and b . But this implies $2p^{2n} = 2^a b(2^a b + 1)$. Cancelling 2 from both sides, we get $p^{2n} = 2^{a-1} b(2^a b + 1)$. Since the left hand side is not divisible by 2, a must equal to 1, and the equation becomes $p^{2n} = b(2b + 1)$. Again, since $b, b + 1$ are relatively prime, we have either $b = p^{2n}$ or $2b + 1 = p^{2n}$. If $b = p^{2n}$, then $2b + 1 = 1$ and hence $b = 0$, a contradiction. If $2b + 1 = p^{2n}$, then $b = 1$ and $p^{2n} = 3$. But this implies $p = 3$ and $2n = 1$, another contradiction since n is an integer.

So the only balancing number that is a power of a prime integer is $B_1 = 1 = p^0$.

Lemma 2.1. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{B_{n+1}}{B_n} = \gamma$.

Proof. Let $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{B_{n+1}}{B_n} = \mu$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \mu = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{B_{n+1}}{B_n} &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{6B_n - B_{n-1}}{B_n}, \text{ (by (2.1))} \\ &= 6 - \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{B_{n-1}}{B_n} \\ &= 6 - \frac{1}{\mu}. \end{aligned}$$

This implies $\mu^2 - 6\mu + 1 = 0$. Hence $\mu = \gamma$.

Lemma 2.2. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{B_n}$ is a convergent series.

Proof. Since the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{B_n}$ is a series of positive terms of real numbers, we apply the ratio test for convergence. Consider

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1/B_{n+1}}{1/B_n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{B_n}{B_{n+1}} = \frac{1}{\gamma} \text{ (by (2.1)).}$$

But $\frac{1}{\gamma} = 3 - \sqrt{8} < 1$, hence the series converges.

Theorem 2.9. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{B_n}{6^n} = 6$.

Proof. Let $S = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{B_n}{6^n}$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} S = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{B_n}{6^n} &= \frac{1}{6} + \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{B_n}{6^n} \\ &= \frac{1}{6} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{B_{n+1}}{6^{n+1}} \\ &= \frac{1}{6} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{6B_n - B_{n-1}}{6^{n+1}} \text{ (by (2.1))} \\ &= \frac{1}{6} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{B_n}{6^n} - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{B_{n-1}}{6^{n+1}} \\ &= \frac{1}{6} + S - \frac{1}{36} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{B_{n-1}}{6^{n-1}} \\ &= \frac{1}{6} + S - \frac{1}{36} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{B_n}{6^n} \\ &= \frac{1}{6} + S - \frac{1}{36} (0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{B_n}{6^n}) \\ &= \frac{1}{6} + S - \frac{1}{36} (0 + S). \end{aligned}$$

Hence $\frac{S}{36} = \frac{1}{6}$. Therefore $S = 6$.

Lemma 2.3. *Let n be positive integer. If $8n + 1$ is a perfect square, then n is a triangular number.*

Proof. Suppose $8n + 1 = m^2$, a perfect square integer. Then clearly m is an odd integer. Now since m is odd, we have

$$n = \frac{m^2 - 1}{8} = \frac{(m-1)(m+1)}{8} = \frac{\left(\frac{m-1}{2}\right)\left(\frac{m+1}{2}\right)}{2} = \frac{\left(\frac{m-1}{2}\right)\left(\frac{m-1}{2} + 1\right)}{2} = T_{\frac{m-1}{2}}.$$

Hence n is a triangular number.

Remark 1. (1) As a quick application of this lemma and since $C_n = \sqrt{8B_n^2 + 1}$ and since $8B_n^2 + 1$ is a perfect square, we have $B_n^2 = T_{\frac{C_n-1}{2}}$ a triangle integer.

(2) In ([6]), Luo proved that the only triangular numbers whose squares are also triangular numbers are 1 and 6. Hence by the above lemma the only balancing numbers which are also triangular numbers are 1 and 6.

Theorem 2.10. *For each integer $n \geq 1$, we have*

(1) $(B_{n+1} - 2B_n)^2 - 1$ is a triangular number.

(2) $(B_{n+1} - 4B_n)^2 - 1$ is a triangular number.

Proof. (1) Let $A = (B_{n+1} - 2B_n)^2 - 1$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} A &= (3B_n + \sqrt{8B_n^2 + 1} - 2B_n)^2 - 1 \text{ (by ([7])} \\ &= (B_n + \sqrt{8B_n^2 + 1})^2 - 1 \\ &= 9B_n^2 + 2B_n\sqrt{8B_n^2 + 1}. \end{aligned}$$

Now

$$\begin{aligned} 8A + 1 &= 72B_n^2 + 16B_n\sqrt{8B_n^2 + 1} + 1 \\ &= 64B_n^2 + 16B_n\sqrt{8B_n^2 + 1} + 8B_n^2 + 1 \\ &= (8B_n + \sqrt{8B_n^2 + 1})^2 \text{ is a perfect square.} \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, by Lemma (2.3), $A = (B_{n+1} - 2B_n)^2 - 1$ is a triangular number. By similar arguments we can prove (2).

3. BINET FORM OF THE BALANCING NUMBERS BY LINEAR ALGEBRA

Consider the matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 6 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Then clearly $\det(A) = 1$, and its inverse is

$$A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

As P. K. Ray ([10] and [11]) observed, Formula (2.1) can be written in matrix form as

$$\begin{bmatrix} B_n \\ B_{n+1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} B_{n-1} \\ B_n \end{bmatrix}$$

and for each positive integer n , the matrix A^n , (See [10]), equals

$$A^n = \begin{bmatrix} -B_{n-1} & B_n \\ -B_n & B_{n+1} \end{bmatrix}$$

which can be proved by induction on the natural number n and using Identity (2.1).

For instance since $\det(A^n) = (\det(A))^n = 1$, we have the Cassini formula (See [13])

$B_n^2 - B_{n-1}B_{n+1} = 1$ for each positive integer n .

Now let us consider the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of the matrix A . The characteristic equation of A is $\det(\lambda I - A) = \lambda^2 - 6\lambda + 1 = 0$. This equation has two real roots, $\lambda = 3 + \sqrt{8}$ and $\lambda = 3 - \sqrt{8}$. Let us write the two roots as $\gamma = 3 + \sqrt{8}$ and $\delta = 3 - \sqrt{8}$ and observe that $\gamma\delta = 1$. The eigenvectors corresponding to γ can be found by solving the matrix equation

$$\begin{bmatrix} \gamma & -1 \\ 1 & -\delta \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

which implies $\gamma x - y = 0$ and hence $y = \gamma x$. Now a basis for the eigenspace corresponding to the eigenvalue γ is

$$\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \gamma \end{bmatrix} \right\}$$

Similarly a basis for the eigenspace corresponding the eigenvalue δ is

$$\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \delta \end{bmatrix} \right\}$$

Now since the matrix A has two distinct eigenvalues, it is diagonalizable, and A is similar to the diagonal matrix

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} \gamma & 0 \\ 0 & \delta \end{bmatrix}$$

The matrix P that diagonalizes the matrix A is

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ \gamma & \delta \end{bmatrix}$$

Clearly $P^{-1}AP = D$ and of course $A = PDP^{-1}$ and clearly for each positive integer n we have $A^n = PD^nP^{-1}$. This last equation gives us another way to find a closed form for the value of the balancing number B_n which is called the Binet formula for B_n (See for example [9]).

Theorem 3.1. $B_n = \frac{\gamma^n - \delta^n}{4\sqrt{2}}$

Proof. We have $A^n = PD^nP^{-1}$. Hence

$$A^n = \begin{bmatrix} -B_{n-1} & B_n \\ -B_n & B_{n+1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ \gamma & \delta \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \gamma^n & 0 \\ 0 & \delta^n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{-\delta}{4\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{4\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{\gamma}{4\sqrt{2}} & \frac{-1}{4\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix}$$

Therefore

$$A^n = \begin{bmatrix} -B_{n-1} & B_n \\ -B_n & B_{n+1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\delta^{n-1} - \gamma^{n-1}}{4\sqrt{2}} & \frac{\gamma^n - \delta^n}{4\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{\delta^n - \gamma^n}{4\sqrt{2}} & \frac{\delta^{n+1} - \gamma^{n+1}}{4\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix}$$

This implies that $B_n = \frac{\gamma^n - \delta^n}{4\sqrt{2}}$.

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