Point-arrangements in the real projective spaces and the Fibonacci polynomials

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Abstract

We find a relation between the Fibonacci polynomials and arrangements of n+3 points in the real projective *n*-space admitting an action of the cyclic group of order n+3. We also describe explicitly the rational curve of degree *n* passing through these n+3 points, and determine the permutation of the n+3 points induced by this curve.

Introduction

Arrangements of n + 2 points in general position in the real projective *n*-space $\mathbb{P}^n = \mathbb{P}^n(\mathbb{R})$ are unique up to projective transformations. Those of m := n + 3 points are projectively not unique, but they are combinatorially unique. We are interested in arrangements of *m* points which admit an action of the cyclic group of order *m*.

Let p_1, \ldots, p_{n+2} be n+2 points in \mathbb{P}^n in general position. We add another point p_m , and require that the *m* points $p_1, \ldots, p_{n+2}, p_m$ admit a projective transformation σ inducing the cyclic permutation:

$$\sigma: p_1 \to p_2 \to \cdots \to p_{n+2} \to p_m \to p_1.$$

There always exit such p_m and σ , and in fact there are several choices in general. Our first theorem (Theorem 1 in §2) asserts that such choices exactly correspond to the roots of the *Fibonacci polynomial* $F_n(t)$ of degree [n/2] + 1. And moreover, the resulting *m* points $p_1, \ldots, p_{n+2}, p_m$ are in general position if and only if the corresponding root is "primitive", i.e., a root of the *core Fibonacci polynomial* $f_n(t)$, which is an irreducible factor of $F_n(t)$ of degree $\varphi(m)/2$. Here, $\varphi(m)$ denotes Euler's function counting the number of positive integers less than *m* and co-prime to *m*.

On the other hand, for m points in \mathbb{P}^n in general position, there is a unique rational curve C of degree n passing through these points. When we view the curve C as an image of $\mathbb{P}^1(\mathbb{R})$, the natural order in \mathbb{R} determines a cyclic permutation of these points. For the points corresponding to a root of the core Fibonacci polynomial as above, we can explicitly compute this permutation (Corollary 2 to Theorem 2 in §3). More precisely, let $-|1 + \zeta|^{-2}$ be a root of $f_n(t)$, where ζ is a *primitive* m-th root of unity (see §1 for the description of roots of $f_n(t)$), and p_m the m-th point associated to this root by Theorem 1. For each j $(1 \leq j \leq m)$, denote by q_j the point in \mathbb{P}^1 such that $C(q_j) = p_j$. Without loss of generality, we may assume $q_1 = \infty, q_2 = 0, q_1 = 1$. Then we show in Theorem 2 that, there exits a linear fractional transformation R from $\mathbb{P}^1(\mathbb{R})$ to the unit circle in the complex plane, preserving the natural orientation of $\mathbb{P}^1(\mathbb{R})$ and the unit circle (counter clock-wise), such that

$$R(q_1) = \zeta^{-1}, \ R(q_2) = 1, \ R(q_3) = \zeta, \ R(q_4) = \zeta^2, \ \dots, \ R(q_m) = \zeta^{m-2}.$$

Since ζ is a primitive *m*-th root of unity, the *m* points

1,
$$\zeta$$
, ζ^2 , ..., ζ^{m-2} , $\zeta^{m-1} = \zeta^{-1}$

form vertices of a regular *m*-gon on the unit circle. From this, if we write $\zeta = \zeta_m^i$ with $\zeta_m = e^{2\pi\sqrt{-1}/m}$ and (i,m) = 1, we see that the cyclic permutation determined by the curve *C* is the '*i*-skip mod *m*', i.e., the permutation of $\{1, 2, \ldots, m\}$ given by $\{\overline{0 \cdot i} + 1, \overline{1 \cdot i} + 1, \ldots, \overline{(m-1) \cdot i} + 1\}$, where \overline{l} denotes the residue of $l \mod m$ such that $0 \leq \overline{l} \leq m - 1$.

After introducing the necessary properties of Fibonacci polynomials in §1, we state and prove Theorem 1 in §2 and Theorem 2 in §3. In the final section §4, we discuss fixed points of the transformation σ .

1 Fibonacci polynomials

In this section, we summarize properties of the polynomials $F_k(t)$ and $f_k(t)$ that we need in this paper.

Definition 1. The Fibonacci polynomials $F_k(t)$ are defined as

$$F_{-2} = F_{-1} = 1, \quad F_k = F_{k-1} + tF_{k-2}, \quad k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

The degree of F_k is $\lfloor k/2 \rfloor + 1$.

Remark 1. In the literature (e.g., [Ko]), the Fibonacci polynomial $\widetilde{F}_k(t)$ is defined by $\widetilde{F}_0 = 0$, $\widetilde{F}_1 = 1$, $\widetilde{F}_k = t\widetilde{F}_{k-1}(t) + \widetilde{F}_{k-2}(t)$ $(k \ge 2)$. The relation to our $F_k(t)$ is $F_k(t) = \sqrt{t}^{k+2}\widetilde{F}_{k+3}(1/\sqrt{t})$. From this, all properties described in the sequel should in principle follow from known properties of $\widetilde{F}_k(t)$. We nevertheless supply proofs for the convenience of the reader.

For notational simplicity, put $G_k = F_{k-3}$ $(k \ge 1)$. Of course the G_k 's satisfy the same recursion with $G_1 = G_2 = 1$.

Proposition 1. $G_k(t)$ is a polynomial of degree [(k-1)/2] and is explicitly given as

$$G_k(t) = \sum_{i=0}^{\lfloor (k-1)/2 \rfloor} \binom{k-1-i}{i} t^i, \quad k \ge 1.$$

Also, $G_k(t)$ admits the following expression:

$$G_k(t) = \frac{\alpha^k - \beta^k}{\sqrt{1+4t}},\tag{1}$$

where

$$\alpha = \frac{1 + \sqrt{1 + 4t}}{2}, \quad \beta = \frac{1 - \sqrt{1 + 4t}}{2}.$$

Proof. The first formula is easily proved by induction. The second can be shown either by the generating function $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} G_k(t)X^k = 1/(1-X-tX^2) = 1/(1-\alpha X)(1-\beta X)$ or by checking the right-hand side satisfies the same recurrence relation as $G_k(t)$.

We introduce a new polynomial (a priori, a rational function) $g_k(t)$. The core Fibonacci polynomial $f_k(t)$ is defined as $f_k(t) = g_{k+3}(t)$.

Definition 2. Put

$$g_k(t) = \prod_{d|k} G_d(t)^{\mu(k/d)}, \quad k \ge 1,$$

where d runs over all positive divisors of k, and μ is the Möbius function¹. Note that $g_1 = g_2 = 1$.

Proposition 2. 1) For $k \geq 3$, $g_k(t)$ is a polynomial of degree $\varphi(k)/2$, and is irreducible over \mathbb{Q} .

2) The irreducible decomposition of $G_k(t)$ over \mathbb{Q} is given by

$$G_k(t) = \prod_{2 < d \mid k} g_d(t).$$

In terms of $F_k(t)$ and $f_k(t)$, this can be written as

$$F_k(t) = \prod_{2 < d \mid k+3} f_{d-3}(t).$$

3) The $g_k(t)$ is expressed as

$$g_k(t) = \beta^{\varphi(k)} \Phi_k(\alpha/\beta),$$

where

$$\Phi_k(t) = \prod_{d|k} (t^d - 1)^{\mu(k/d)}$$

is the k-th cyclotomic polynomial.

Proof. By (1), we have

$$g_{k} = \prod_{d|k} G_{d}(t)^{\mu(k/d)} = \prod_{d|k} \left\{ \frac{\alpha^{d} - \beta^{d}}{\sqrt{1+4t}} \right\}^{\mu(k/d)}$$
$$= \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{1+4t}} \right)^{\sum_{d|k} \mu(k/d)} \prod_{d|k} \left(\alpha^{d} - \beta^{d} \right)^{\mu(k/d)}$$
$$= \prod_{d|k} \left(\alpha^{d} - \beta^{d} \right)^{\mu(k/d)} = \beta^{\sum_{d|k} d\mu(k/d)} \prod_{d|k} \left\{ \left(\frac{\alpha}{\beta} \right)^{d} - 1 \right\}^{\mu(k/d)}$$
$$= \beta^{\varphi(k)} \Phi_{k}(\alpha/\beta).$$

 ${}^{1}\mu(n) = 0$ if n has a square factor and $\mu(n) = (-1)^{\nu}$ if n is a product of ν distinct primes. $\mu(1) = 1$. Here, we have used the well-known identities $\sum_{d|k} \mu(k/d) = 0$ and $\sum_{d|k} d\mu(k/d) = \varphi(k)$. This proves 3). Since the cyclotomic polynomial Φ_k is of degree $\varphi(k)$, $g_k(t)$ is a polynomial in α and β of total degree $\varphi(k)$, which is symmetric in α and β because of the expression $g_k = \prod_{d|k} (\alpha^d - \beta^d)^{\mu(k/d)}$ as above and $(-1)^{\sum_{d|k} \mu(k/d)} = 1$. Therefore, $g_k(t)$ is a polynomial in t, of degree at most $\varphi(k)/2$ because $\alpha + \beta = 1$ and $\alpha\beta = -t$. The formula in 2) follows from the definition of $g_k(t)$ and the Möbius inversion formula. To prove the irreducibility of $g_k(t)$ and find the exact degree, we look at the roots of $g_k(t)$. By the formula in 3), we have

$$g_k(t) = \beta^{\varphi(k)} \prod_{\zeta: \text{ primitive } k\text{-th root of unity}} (\alpha/\beta - \zeta)$$

Because $G_k(0) = 1$ for all k, we have $g_k(0) = 1$ and so β cannot be zero ($\beta = 0 \Leftrightarrow t = 0$). Hence,

$$g_k(t) = 0 \quad \Leftrightarrow \frac{1 + \sqrt{1 + 4t}}{1 - \sqrt{1 + 4t}} = \zeta : \quad \text{primitive } k\text{-th root of unity}$$
$$\Leftrightarrow t = \frac{1}{4} \left\{ \left(\frac{1 - \zeta}{1 + \zeta}\right)^2 - 1 \right\} = -\frac{1}{\zeta + \zeta^{-1} + 2} = -\frac{1}{|1 + \zeta|^2}.$$

Assume $k \geq 3$, and write $\zeta = e^{2\pi l \sqrt{-1}/k}$ with an integer l, so that $\zeta + \zeta^{-1} = 2\cos(2l\pi/k)$. Since ζ and ζ^{-1} give the same root, and ζ is primitive, we see that exactly $\varphi(k)/2$ values

$$t = -\frac{1}{2\cos\frac{2l\pi}{k} + 2} = -\frac{1}{4\cos^2\frac{l\pi}{k}}, \quad (l,k) = 1, \quad 1 \le l \le \left[\frac{k-1}{2}\right]$$

give distinct roots of $g_k(t)$. Hence $g_k(t)$ is of degree $\varphi(k)/2$ (remember we have shown the degree is at most $\varphi(k)/2$), and has distinct roots. Since its splitting field is $\mathbb{Q}(\cos(2\pi/k)) = \mathbb{Q}(\zeta + \zeta^{-1})$, which is the maximal real subfield of degree $\varphi(k)/2$ of the cyclotomic field $\mathbb{Q}(\zeta)$, we conclude that the polynomial g_k is irreducible over \mathbb{Q} .

Corollary 1. The roots of $g_k(t)$ are given by

$$-\frac{1}{|1+\zeta_k^i|^2} = -\frac{1}{4\cos^2\frac{i\pi}{k}}, \quad (i,k) = 1, \quad 1 \le i \le \left[\frac{k-1}{2}\right].$$

Here, $\zeta_k = e^{2\pi\sqrt{-1}/k}$. In particular, all roots are negative real numbers, and if $k \neq k'$, roots of $g_k(t)$ and $g_{k'}(t)$ never coincide.

The roots of $G_k(t)$ are given by

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Examples: Factorizations of the first several Fibonacci polynomials are as follows:

whereas the 'core Fibonacci polynomials' are given by

$$\begin{array}{ll} f_0 = t+1, & f_1 = 2t+1, \\ f_2 = t^2 + 3t+1, & f_3 = 3t+1, \\ f_4 = t^3 + 6t^2 + 5t+1, & f_5 = 2t^2 + 4t+1, \\ f_6 = t^3 + 9t^2 + 6t+1, & f_7 = 5t^2 + 5t+1, \\ f_8 = t^5 + 15t^4 + 35t^3 + 28t^2 + 9t+1, & f_9 = t^2 + 4t+1, \\ f_{10} = t^6 + 21t^5 + 70t^4 + 84t^3 + 45t^2 + 11t+1, & f_{11} = 7t^3 + 14t^2 + 7t+1, \ldots \end{array}$$

When n = 18, we have $3, 7 \mid 21 = 18 + 3$, and the twelve numbers $1, 2, \ldots, 19, 20$ are coprime to 21. So

$$F_{18} = f_0 f_4 \cdot f_{18}, \quad \deg f_{18} = 12/2 = 6.$$

When n = 21, we have 2, 3, 4, 6, 8, 12 | 24 = 21 + 3, and the eight numbers 1, 5, ..., 19, 23 are coprime to 24. So

$$F_{21} = f_0 f_1 f_3 f_5 f_9 \cdot f_{21}, \quad \deg f_{21} = 8/2 = 4.$$

Finally, we give the following lemma which will be used in the proof of Theorem 1. Lemma 1. For $-1 \le i < j$, we have

$$F_i F_{j-1} - F_j F_{i-1} = (-1)^i t^{i+2} F_{j-i-3}.$$

Proof. We proceed by induction on i. For i = -1, the identity becomes the recursion of F_j . Suppose the identity is true up to i (and for all j). Then, by the recursion and the induction hypothesis, we have

$$F_{i+1}F_{j-1} - F_jF_i = (F_i + tF_{i-1})F_{j-1} - (F_{j-1} + tF_{j-2})F_i$$

= $-t(F_iF_{j-2} - F_{j-1}F_{i-1}) = (-1)^{i+1}t^{i+3}F_{j-i-4}.$

2 n+3 points in \mathbb{P}^n admitting a cyclic group action

For n + 2 points p_1, \ldots, p_{n+2} in the real projective *n*-space in general position (no n + 1 points are collinear), we would like to add another point p_m , and require that the *m* points admit a projective transformation σ inducing the cyclic action:

$$\sigma: p_1 \to p_2 \to \dots \to p_{n+2} \to p_m \to p_1.$$
(2)

Without loss of generality, we put n + 3 points in the projective *n*-space \mathbb{P}^n coordinatized by $x_1 : \cdots : x_{n+1}$ as:

In the following, we sometimes use the abbreviation $x_1x_2\cdots x_{n+1}$ for a point $[x_1: x_2:\cdots:x_{n+1}]$ in \mathbb{P}^n .

Theorem 1. There exists a one-to-one correspondence between the m-th points p_m admitting the projective transformation σ as above and the roots of $F_n(t)$. Moreover, under this correspondence, the m points $\{p_1, \ldots, p_{n+2}, p_m\}$ in \mathbb{P}^n are in general position if and only if the associated root is a root of $f_n(t)$.

Proof. Since the inverse of σ induces the move $0 \cdots 01 \rightarrow 0 \cdots 010 \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow 10 \cdots 0 \rightarrow 1 \cdots 1$, we have

$$\sigma^{-1}: x_1' = x_1 + b_1 x_2, \dots, x_n' = x_1 + b_n x_{n+1}, \quad x_{n+1}' = x_1,$$
(3)

for some non-zero b_j 's. Because the last coordinate of the image of $1 \cdots 1$ is 1, we may and shall assume $\xi_{n+1} = 1$. Then from the move $1 \cdots 1 \rightarrow \xi_1 \cdots \xi_n 1$, we have

$$\xi_j = 1 + b_j, \quad (1 \le j \le n),$$
 (4)

and from the move $\xi_1 \cdots \xi_n 1 \to 0 \cdots 01$, we get a system of equations in b_j :

$$1 + b_1 + b_1(1 + b_2) = 0,$$

$$1 + b_1 + b_2(1 + b_3) = 0,$$

$$\vdots$$

$$1 + b_1 + b_{n-1}(1 + b_n) = 0,$$

$$1 + b_1 + b_n = 0.$$

Set $b := b_n$. Then by the last equation we have

$$1 + b_1 = -b \tag{5}$$

and by solving the other equations we obtain

$$b_1 = \frac{b}{1+b_2}, \ b_2 = \frac{b}{1+b_3}, \ \dots, \ b_{n-1} = \frac{b}{1+b_n} = \frac{b}{1+b}.$$
 (6)

In particular, every b_j is written in terms of b (as a rational function) and so is ξ_j ($1 \le j \le n$) by (4). Equations (5) and (6) in terms of ξ_j 's can be written as

$$\xi_1 = -b$$
 and $\xi_j = \frac{\xi_1}{1 - \xi_{j-1}}$ $(2 \le j \le n).$ (7)

Now define rational functions $h_k(t)$ in t recursively by

$$h_0 = t, \quad h_k = \frac{t}{1 + h_{k-1}} \quad (k = 1, 2, \dots).$$

We easily see from (6) that $b_j = h_{n-j}(b)$ $(1 \le j \le n)$. The h_k 's and Fibonacci polynomials are related as

Lemma 2.

$$1 + h_k = \frac{F_k}{F_{k-1}}, \quad h_k = t \frac{F_{k-2}}{F_{k-1}}, \quad k = 0, 1, \dots$$

Proof. The first identity is easily proved by induction on k. When k = 0, the both sides are equal to 1 + t. Assuming the validity for k, we have

$$1 + h_{k+1} = 1 + \frac{t}{1 + h_k} = \frac{F_k/F_{k-1} + t}{F_k/F_{k-1}} = \frac{F_k + tF_{k-1}}{F_k} = \frac{F_{k+1}}{F_k}$$

The second follows from the first by the recurrence for F_k .

By the relations $1 + b_1 + b = 0$, $b_1 = h_{n-1}(b)$ and by Lemma 2, we obtain

$$0 = 1 + h_{n-1}(b) + b = \frac{F_{n-1}(b)}{F_{n-2}(b)} + b = \frac{F_n(b)}{F_{n-2}(b)}.$$

Therefore $b = -\xi_1$ is a root of the Fibonacci polynomial $F_n(t)$.

Conversely, let b be any root of $F_n(t)$ and b_j $(1 \le j \le n)$ be determined by $b_n = b$ and (6). Then the point $p_m = \xi_1 \cdots \xi_n 1$ and the projective transformation σ determined by (4) and (3) satisfy the desired condition. That the different b's give different p_m 's is clear. We note that the σ is uniquely determined by the p_m . This concludes the proof of the first half of the theorem.

For the second half, suppose first a root b of $F_n(t)$ is not a root of $f_n(t)$. Then by 2) of Proposition 2, b must be a root of some $f_{d-3}(t)$ with d < m. This means that b is a root of some $F_j(t)$ with j < n. By the identity

$$\xi_{n-j} = 1 + b_{n-j} = 1 + h_j(b) = \frac{F_j(b)}{F_{j-1}(b)},$$
(8)

we conclude that $\xi_{n-j} = 0$, and so the points $p_m = \xi_1 \cdots \xi_n 1$ and p_1, \ldots, p_{n+2} are not in general position (points other than p_1 and p_{n-j+1} are on the hyperplane $x_{n-j} = 0$). Next suppose b is a root of $f_n(t)$. Then b is never a root of any $F_j(t)$ with j < n by 2) of Proposition 2, and so by (8), no ξ_j $(1 \le j \le n)$ can be zero. Also, by the same identity (8), if $\xi_{n-i} = \xi_{n-j}$ for some i < j, we have $F_i(b)F_{j-1}(b) - F_j(b)F_{i-1}(b) = 0$ and hence by Lemma 1 $F_{j-i-3}(b) = 0$ (note that b is never zero). This contradicts to the fact that b is a root of $f_n(t)$. Therefore we have $\xi_i \ne \xi_j$ whenever $i \ne j$ and hence we conclude $\{p_1, \ldots, p_{n+1}, p_m\}$ is in general position. This completes the proof of Theorem 1.

3 The rational curve of degree n passing through n+3 points

Let $p_1, \ldots, p_{n+2}, p_m$ be m = n+3 points in general position admitting a projective cyclic permutation. Without loss of generality, we assume n+2 points p_1, \ldots, p_{n+2} are as in §2, the *m*-th point p_m has coordinates $\xi_1 : \cdots : \xi_n : 1$ with $\xi_i \neq 0$ and $\xi_i \neq \xi_j$ $(i \neq j)$, and the cyclic permutation is as (2).

It is known that there exits a unique rational curve C of degree n passing through m points in \mathbb{P}^n in general position (see for example [CYY]). Thus let

$$C: t \longmapsto x_1(t): \dots: x_{n+1}(t) \in \mathbb{P}^n$$

be the curve such that each $x_j(t)$ is a polynomial in t of degree n, and

$$C(q_1) = p_1, \quad C(q_2) = p_2, \ \dots, \ C(q_{n+2}) = p_{n+2}, \quad C(q_m) = p_m$$
(9)

for some $q_j \in \mathbb{P}^1$. We may normalize $\{q_j\}$ so that

$$q_1 = \infty, \quad q_2 = 0, \quad q_3 = 1.$$

Our second theorem describes q_i explicitly in terms of the root of $f_n(t) (= g_m(t))$.

Theorem 2. Let $-|1+\zeta|^{-2}$ be the root of $f_n(t)$ corresponding to the *m*-th point p_m as in Theorem 1, where ζ is a primitive *m*-th root of unity. Then, q_j is given by

$$q_j = (1+\zeta) \cdot \frac{1-\zeta^{j-2}}{1-\zeta^{j-1}} \quad (1 \le j \le m).$$

The linear fractional transformation

$$z = \frac{x - (1 + \zeta)}{\zeta x - (1 + \zeta)} \tag{10}$$

from the real x-line to the complex z-plane sends q_j to ζ^{j-2} , hence q_1, q_2, \ldots, q_m are inverse images of $\zeta^{-1}, 1, \zeta, \ldots, \zeta^{m-2}$, vertices of a regular m-gon on the unit circle.

Corollary 2. Take $\zeta = \zeta_m^l$, (l,m) = 1 in the theorem $(\zeta_m = e^{2\pi\sqrt{-1}/m})$, then q_j can also be written as

$$q_j = 1 + \frac{\sin\left(\frac{(j-3)l}{m}\pi\right)}{\sin\left(\frac{(j-1)l}{m}\pi\right)}.$$

If we arrange q_1, q_2, \ldots, q_m according to magnitude as

$$q_1 = r_1 = -\infty < r_2 < r_3 < \dots < r_m,$$

then the permutation of indices is given by

$$q_j = r_{(j-1)l+1} \quad (1 \le j \le m)_j$$

where the index of r should be taken modulo m with value in the interval [1, m]. In particular, if $\zeta = \zeta_m$ (l = 1), then $q_j = r_j$.

Proof. With our normalization, the condition (9) is equivalent to the system of equations

$$(x_{1}(r) =) \quad c(r - q_{3})(r - q_{4})(r - q_{5}) \cdots (r - q_{n+2}) = \xi_{1},$$

$$(x_{2}(r) =) \quad c(r - q_{2})(r - q_{4})(r - q_{5}) \cdots (r - q_{n+2}) = \xi_{2},$$

$$\vdots$$

$$(x_{j-1}(r) =) \quad c(r - q_{2}) \cdots (r - q_{j-1})(r - q_{j+1}) \cdots (r - q_{n+2}) = \xi_{j-1},$$

$$\vdots$$

$$(x_{n+1}(r) =) \quad c(r - q_{2})(r - q_{3})(r - q_{4}) \cdots (r - q_{n+1}) = \xi_{n+1} = 1,$$

with n + 1 unknowns $q_4, \ldots, q_{n+2}, r = q_m$ and c. The value of c is determined by the rest from the last equation. From the first and the (j - 1)-st equations, by taking the ratio, we have

$$\frac{r-q_j}{r} = \frac{\xi_1}{\xi_{j-1}} \quad (3 \le j \le n+2)$$

and thus

$$q_j = r \, \frac{\xi_{j-1} - \xi_1}{\xi_{j-1}} = r\xi_{j-2} \quad (3 \le j \le n+2).$$

For the last equality, we have used (7) (with $j \to j - 1$) in the previous section. Since $q_3 = 1$, the case j = 3 gives $r (= q_m) = 1/\xi_1$ and so we obtain

$$q_j = \frac{\xi_{j-2}}{\xi_1} \quad (3 \le j \le m),$$
 (11)

where the case j = m is included because $\xi_{m-2} = \xi_{n+1} = 1$. From this, by writing the relation $\xi_{j-1} = \xi_1/(1 - \xi_{j-2})$ in (7) (j being replaced by j - 1) as

$$\frac{\xi_{j-1}}{\xi_1} = \frac{1}{1 - \xi_{j-2}} = \frac{\frac{1}{\xi_1}}{\frac{1}{\xi_1} - \frac{\xi_{j-2}}{\xi_1}}$$

we obtain the relation

$$q_{j+1} = \frac{|1+\zeta|^2}{|1+\zeta|^2 - q_j} \quad (1 \le j \le n+2).$$
(12)

Here, we have used $\xi_1 = |1 + \zeta|^{-2}$ from (7) (note *b* is the root of $f_n(t)$), and note that (12) is valid also for j = 1, 2 because of our normalization.

Now, let R = R(x) be the map given by (10):

$$z = R(x) = \frac{x - (1 + \zeta)}{\zeta x - (1 + \zeta)}.$$

This gives an orientation preserving homeomorphism from $\mathbb{P}^1(\mathbb{R})$ to the unit circle (counter clock-wise) in the complex z-plane, its inverse being given by

$$x = R^{-1}(z) = (1+\zeta) \cdot \frac{1-z}{1-\zeta z}.$$

Straightforward computation shows that the rotation $z \mapsto \zeta z$ in the z-plane corresponds under R the map

$$x \mapsto \frac{|1+\zeta|^2}{|1+\zeta|^2 - x} \quad (= R^{-1} \big(\zeta R(x) \big) \big). \tag{13}$$

By our normalization, $R(q_1) = R(\infty) = \zeta^{-1}$. We therefore conclude that, by (12) and (13), the point q_j is the image of R^{-1} of ζ^{j-2} , which is the image of ζ^{-1} under the (j-1)-st iteration of the rotation $z \to \zeta z$, and so

$$q_j = R^{-1}(\zeta^{j-2}) = (1+\zeta) \cdot \frac{1-\zeta^{j-2}}{1-\zeta^{j-1}}.$$

This concludes the proof of Theorem 2.

When $\zeta = \zeta_m^l$, we compute

$$q_{j} = \frac{1 + \zeta - \zeta^{j-2} - \zeta^{j-1}}{1 - \zeta^{j-1}} = 1 + \frac{\zeta - \zeta^{j-2}}{1 - \zeta^{j-1}}$$
$$= 1 + \frac{\zeta^{(j-3)/2} - \zeta^{-(j-3)/2}}{\zeta^{(j-1)/2} - \zeta^{-(j-1)/2}} = 1 + \frac{\sin\left(\frac{(j-3)l}{m}\pi\right)}{\sin\left(\frac{(j-1)l}{m}\pi\right)}.$$

The other assertion in the corollary is clear from the description above.

Examples: When m = 5 and 6, the vertices of the regural *m*-gon in $\mathbb{P}^1(\mathbb{R})$ are

$$m = 5: \quad x = 0, \quad 1, \quad \frac{1 + \sqrt{5}}{2}, \quad \frac{3 + \sqrt{5}}{2}, \quad \infty,$$

$$m = 6: \quad x = 0, \quad 1, \quad 3/2, \quad 2, \quad 3, \quad \infty.$$

Remark 2. We see that all q_j 's are in $\mathbb{Q}(\zeta + \zeta^{-1})$, and so are the ξ_j 's. This is a geometric explanation of the fact that this field is the splitting field of the core Fibonacci polynomial f_n .

4 Fixed points

Let τ be a root of f_n . We find fixed points of σ (notation as in §1):

$$\lambda x_1 = x_1 + b_1 x_2, \ \lambda x_2 = x_1 + b_2 x_3, \ \dots, \ \lambda x_n = x_1 + b_n x_{n+1}, \ \lambda x_{n+1} = x_1.$$

If we put $x_{n+1} = 1$, then λ must satisfy

$$\widetilde{H}_n(\lambda,\tau) := -\lambda^{n+1} + \lambda^n + b_1(\lambda^{n-1} + b_2(\cdots(\lambda^2 + b_{n-1}(\lambda + b_n))\cdots)) = 0.$$

If there is a real λ solving this equation, then the coordinates $\lambda_1 : \cdots : \lambda_n : 1$ of the fixed point are

$$\lambda_1 = \lambda, \quad \lambda_2 = \lambda \frac{\lambda_1 - 1}{b_1}, \quad \lambda_3 = \lambda \frac{\lambda_2 - 1}{b_2}, \dots$$

,

or equivalently, $\lambda_n = 1 + b_n \lambda_{n+1} / \lambda$, $\lambda_{n-1} = 1 + b_{n-1} \lambda_n / \lambda$,

We can express the polynomial \tilde{H}_n in terms of the Fibonacci polynomials. Since $b_n = h_0(\tau) = \tau$ and

$$b_{1} = h_{n-1}(\tau) = \tau \frac{F_{n-3}(\tau)}{F_{n-2}(\tau)}, \quad b_{1}b_{2} = h_{n-1}(\tau)h_{n-2}(\tau) = \tau^{2} \frac{F_{n-4}(\tau)}{F_{n-2}(\tau)}, \dots,$$

$$b_{1} \cdots b_{n} = h_{n-1} \cdots h_{0} = \tau^{n} \frac{F_{-2}(\tau)}{F_{n-2}(\tau)},$$

and $0 = F_n(\tau) = F_{n-1}(\tau) + \tau F_{n-2}(\tau)$, we see that, if we put $x = \lambda/\tau$, $\tilde{H}_n(\lambda, \tau)$ is a constant multiple of $H_n(x, \tau)$, where

$$H_n(x,t) := F_{n-1}(t)x^{n+1} + F_{n-2}(t)x^n + \dots + F_{-1}x + F_{-2}, \quad F_{-1} = F_{-2} = 1.$$

Theorem 3. Let τ be a root of f_n . When n is odd, $H_n(x, \tau)$ has no real root. When n = 2k is even, $H_n(x, \tau)$ has a unique real root

$$-\frac{F_{k-2}(\tau)}{F_{k-1}(\tau)}.$$

Proof. Substituting

$$F_i = G_{i+3} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+4t}} (\alpha^{i+3} - \beta^{i+3})$$

into $H_n = \sum_{i=-2}^{n-1} F_i x^{i+2}$, we have

$$H_n = \sum_{i=-2}^{n-1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+4t}} (\alpha^{i+3} - \beta^{i+3}) x^{i+2} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+4t}} \sum_{i=0}^{n+1} (\alpha^{i+1} - \beta^{i+1}) x^{i+3}$$
$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+4t}} \left\{ \alpha \frac{\alpha^{n+2} x^{n+2} - 1}{\alpha x - 1} - \beta \frac{\beta^{n+2} x^{n+2} - 1}{\beta x - 1} \right\}$$
$$= \frac{\alpha \beta (\alpha^{n+2} - \beta^{n+2}) x^{n+3} - (\alpha^{n+3} - \beta^{n+3}) x^{n+2} + \alpha - \beta}{\sqrt{1+4t} (\alpha x - 1) (\beta x - 1)}.$$

Since $\alpha + \beta = 1, \alpha \beta = -t$ and $\alpha - \beta = \sqrt{1 + 4t}$, we have

$$H_n = \frac{-tF_{n-1}(t)x^{n+3} - F_n(t)x^{n+2} + 1}{1 - x - tx^2}$$

If τ is a root of $F_n(t)$ (which is always negative real), the equation $H_n = 0$ in x is equivalent to

$$x^{n+3} = \frac{1}{\tau F_{n-1}(\tau)}$$

If n is even, this has a unique real solution, and if n is odd, since $F_{n-1}(\tau)$ is positive (next Lemma), it has no real solution. The theorem follows from the two lemmas below.

Lemma 3. If n is odd and if τ is a root of $f_n(t)$, then $F_{n-1}(\tau)$ is positive.

Proof. Recall that $F_n = G_{n+3}$, and the roots of $G_{n+3}(t)$ are given as (Corollary 1)

$$\tau_i = -\frac{1}{4\cos^2\frac{i\pi}{n+3}}, \quad 1 \le i \le \left[\frac{n}{2}\right] + 1,$$

and the roots of $G_{n+2}(t)$ are

$$t_j = -\frac{1}{4\cos^2\frac{j\pi}{n+2}}, \quad 1 \le j \le \left[\frac{n+1}{2}\right].$$

Since $\tau_i - t_j < 0$ if and only if

$$\frac{j}{n+2} < \frac{i}{n+3}$$

the number of roots t_j such that $\tau_i - t_j < 0$ (for fixed *i*) is i - 1. So if *i* is odd, $F_{n-1}(\tau) > 0$. If *n* is odd and τ is a root of $f_n(t)$, we must have (i, n+3) = 1, which implies *i* is odd.

Lemma 4. Let n = 2k is even, and let τ be a root of $F_{2k}(t)$. Then we have

$$\left(-\frac{F_{k-2}(\tau)}{F_{k-1}(\tau)}\right)^{n+3} = \frac{1}{\tau F_{n-1}(\tau)}.$$

Proof. Recall that, if we set $a = (1 + \sqrt{1 + 4\tau})/2$ and $b = (1 - \sqrt{1 + 4\tau})/2$,

$$F_j(\tau) = \frac{a^{j+3} - b^{j+3}}{\sqrt{1+4\tau}}.$$

By assumption, we have $a^{2k+3} = b^{2k+3}$. We first note

$$-\frac{F_{k-2}(\tau)}{F_{k-1}(\tau)} = -\frac{a^{k+1} - b^{k+1}}{a^{k+2} - b^{k+2}} = \frac{a^{k+1}}{b^{k+2}},$$

because

$$(a^{k+2} - b^{k+2})a^{k+1} + (a^{k+1} - b^{k+1})b^{k+2} = a^{2k+3} - b^{2k+3} = 0.$$

Hence, we have

$$\left(-\frac{F_{k-2}(\tau)}{F_{k-1}(\tau)}\right)^{n+3} = \left(\frac{a^{k+1}}{b^{k+2}}\right)^{2k+3} = \left(\frac{a^{2k+3}}{b^{2k+3}}\right)^k \frac{a^{2k+3}}{b^{2(2k+3)}} = \frac{1}{b^{2k+3}}.$$

On the other hand, by using $\tau = -ab$, $\sqrt{1+4\tau} = a-b$, and $a^{2k+3} = b^{2k+3}$, we obtain

$$\frac{1}{\tau F_{n-1}(\tau)} = \frac{-(a-b)}{ab(a^{2k+2}-b^{2k+2})} = \frac{-(a-b)}{b(b^{2k+3}-ab^{2k+2})} = \frac{-(a-b)}{b^{2k+3}(b-a)} = \frac{1}{b^{2k+3}}.$$

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