# THREE SERIES FOR THE GENERALIZED GOLDEN MEAN 

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#### Abstract

As is well-known, the ratio of adjacent Fibonacci numbers tends to $\phi=(1+$ $\sqrt{5}) / 2$, and the ratio of adjacent Tribonacci numbers (where each term is the sum of the three preceding numbers) tends to the real root $\eta$ of $X^{3}-X^{2}-X-1=0$. Letting $\alpha_{n}$ denote the corresponding ratio for the generalized Fibonacci numbers, where each term is the sum of the $n$ preceding, we obtain rapidly converging series for $\alpha_{n}, 1 / \alpha_{n}$, and $1 /\left(2-\alpha_{n}\right)$.


## 1. Introduction

The Fibonacci numbers are defined by the recurrence

$$
F_{i}=F_{i-1}+F_{i-2}
$$

with initial values $F_{0}=0$ and $F_{1}=1$. The well-known Binet formula (actually already known to de Moivre) expresses $F_{i}$ as a linear combination of the zeroes $\phi \doteq 1.61803>0>\hat{\phi}$ of the characteristic polynomial of the recurrence $X^{2}-X-1$ :

$$
F_{i}=\frac{\phi^{i}-\hat{\phi}^{i}}{\phi-\hat{\phi}} .
$$

Here the number $\phi=\frac{\sqrt{5}+1}{2}$ is popularly referred to as the golden mean or golden ratio.
Similarly, the "Tribonacci" numbers (the name is apparently due to Feinberg [3]; also see [9]) are defined by

$$
T_{i}=T_{i-1}+T_{i-2}+T_{i-3}
$$

with initial values $T_{0}=T_{1}=0$ and $T_{2}=1$. Here we also have that $T_{i}$ is a linear combination of $\eta_{1}^{i}, \eta_{2}^{i}, \eta_{3}^{i}$, where $\eta_{1}, \eta_{2}, \eta_{3}$ are the zeroes of the characteristic polynomial $X^{3}-X^{2}-X-1$; see, e.g., [10]. Here

$$
\eta_{1}=\frac{1}{3}(1+\sqrt[3]{19+3 \sqrt{33}}+\sqrt[3]{19-3 \sqrt{33}})
$$

is the only real zero and $\eta_{1} \doteq 1.839$.
The "Tetranacci" (aka "Tetrabonacci", "Quadranacci") numbers are defined analogously by

$$
A_{i}=A_{i-1}+A_{i-2}+A_{i-3}+A_{i-4}
$$

with initial values $A_{0}=A_{1}=A_{2}=0$ and $A_{3}=1$. Once again, the $A_{i}$ can be expressed as a linear combination of the zeroes of the characteristic polynomial $X^{4}-X^{3}-X^{2}-X-1$; see, for example [6].

More generally, we can define the generalized Fibonacci sequence of order $n$ by

$$
G_{i}^{(n)}=G_{i-1}^{(n)}+\cdots+G_{i-n}^{(n)}
$$

with appropriate initial terms. Here the associated characteristic polynomial is $X^{n}-X^{n-1}-$ $\cdots-X-1$. As is well-known $[7,8]$, this polynomial has a single positive zero $\alpha_{n}$, which is strictly between 1 and 2 . (The other zeroes are discussed in [12].) Table 1 gives decimal

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approximations of the first few dominant zeroes. Furthermore, as Dresden and Du have shown [1, Theorem 2], knowledge of $\alpha_{n}$ suffices to compute the $i$ th generalized Fibonacci number of order $n$.

Table 1. Generalized Golden Means

| $n$ | $\alpha_{n}$ |
| ---: | :---: |
| 2 | 1.61803398874989484820 |
| 3 | 1.83928675521416113255 |
| 4 | 1.92756197548292530426 |
| 5 | 1.96594823664548533719 |
| 6 | 1.98358284342432633039 |
| 7 | 1.99196419660503502110 |
| 8 | 1.99603117973541458982 |
| 9 | 1.99802947026228669866 |
| 10 | 1.99901863271010113866 |

It is natural to wonder how the generalized golden means $\alpha_{n}$ behave as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Dubeau [2] proved that $\left(\alpha_{n}\right)_{n \geq 2}$ is an increasing sequence that converges to 2 . In fact, it is not hard to show, using the binomial theorem, that

$$
2-\frac{1}{2^{n}-\frac{n}{2}-\frac{n^{2}}{2^{n}}}<\alpha_{n}<2-\frac{1}{2^{n}-\frac{n}{2}}
$$

for $n \geq 2$; see [5].
In this paper, we give three series that approximate $\alpha_{n}, 1 / \alpha_{n}$, and $1 /\left(2-\alpha_{n}\right)$ to any desired order. Remarkably, all three have similar forms.

Theorem 1.1. Let $n \geq 2$, and define $\alpha=\alpha_{n}$, the positive real zero of $X^{n}-X^{n-1}-\cdots-X-1$. Let $\beta=1 / \alpha$. Then
(a)

$$
\beta=\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{2} \sum_{k \geq 1} \frac{1}{k}\binom{k(n+1)}{k-1} \frac{1}{2^{k(n+1)}} .
$$

(b)

$$
\alpha=2-2 \sum_{k \geq 1} \frac{1}{k}\binom{k(n+1)-2}{k-1} \frac{1}{2^{k(n+1)}} .
$$

(c)

$$
\frac{1}{2-\alpha}=2^{n}-\frac{n}{2}-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{k \geq 1} \frac{1}{k}\binom{k(n+1)}{k+1} \frac{1}{2^{k(n+1)}} .
$$

The proof is given in the next three sections. Our main tool is the classical Lagrange inversion formula; see, for example, [4, Section A.6, p. 732].
Theorem 1.2. Let $\Phi(t)$ and $f(t)$ be formal power series, and suppose $t=z \Phi(t)$. If $\Phi(0) \neq 0$, we can write $t=t(z)$ as a formal power series in $z$. Then for integers $k \geq 1$ we have
(a) $\left[z^{k}\right] t=\frac{1}{k}\left[t^{k-1}\right](\Phi(t))^{k}$;
(b) $\left[z^{k}\right] f(t)=\frac{1}{k}\left[t^{k-1}\right] f^{\prime}(t)(\Phi(t))^{k}$;
where, as usual, $\left[z^{k}\right] t$ (resp., $\left[z^{k}\right] f(t)$ ) denotes the coefficient of $z^{k}$ in the series for $t$ (resp., $f(t)$.

## 2. A Series for $\beta$

In this section, we will prove Theorem 1.1 (a), namely:

$$
\beta=\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{2} \sum_{k \geq 1} \frac{1}{k}\binom{k(n+1)}{k-1} \frac{1}{2^{k(n+1)}} .
$$

Proof. From

$$
\alpha^{n}=\alpha^{n-1}+\cdots+\alpha+1
$$

we get

$$
(1-\alpha) \alpha^{n}=1-\alpha^{n}
$$

and hence,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha^{n+1}-2 \alpha^{n}+1=0 . \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Recalling that $\beta=1 / \alpha$ we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
\beta=\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{2} \beta^{n+1} . \tag{2.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $\Phi(t)=\left(t+\frac{1}{2}\right)^{n+1}$ and

$$
\begin{equation*}
t=z \Phi(t), \tag{2.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

as in the hypothesis of Theorem 1.2. We notice that $t=\beta-\frac{1}{2}$ and $z=\frac{1}{2}$ is a solution to equation (2.3) as shown in equation (2.2). From the Lagrange inversion formula and the binomial theorem, we get

$$
\left[z^{k}\right] t=\frac{1}{k}\left[t^{k-1}\right]\left(t+\frac{1}{2}\right)^{k(n+1)}=\frac{1}{k}\binom{k(n+1)}{k-1} \frac{1}{2^{k(n+1)+1-k}} .
$$

So

$$
t=\sum_{k \geq 1} \frac{1}{k}\binom{k(n+1)}{k-1} \frac{1}{2^{k(n+1)+1-k}} z^{k} .
$$

In particular, at $z=\frac{1}{2}$ and $t=\beta-\frac{1}{2}$, we get

$$
\beta=\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{2} \sum_{k \geq 1} \frac{1}{k}\binom{k(n+1)}{k-1} \frac{1}{2^{k(n+1)}},
$$

as required.

## 3. A Series for $\alpha$

In this section, we will prove Theorem 1.1 (b), namely:

$$
\alpha=2-2 \sum_{k \geq 1} \frac{1}{k}\binom{k(n+1)-2}{k-1} \frac{1}{2^{k(n+1)}} .
$$

This formula was previously discovered in 1998 by Wolfram [11, Theorem 3.9].

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Proof. From (2.1) we get

$$
\alpha^{n}(\alpha-2)+1=0
$$

and so

$$
\begin{equation*}
2-\alpha=\alpha^{-n} \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $\Phi(t)=\left(1-\frac{t}{2}\right)^{-n}$ and

$$
t=z \Phi(t)
$$

as in the hypothesis of Theorem 1.2. We observe that $t=2-\alpha$ and $z=2^{-n}$ is a solution, as shown in equation (3.1). Using the Lagrange inversion formula again, we find

$$
\left[z^{k}\right] t=\frac{1}{k}\left[t^{k-1}\right]\left(1-\frac{t}{2}\right)^{-k n}=\frac{1}{k}\binom{k(n+1)-2}{k-1} \frac{1}{2^{k-1}} .
$$

Therefore,

$$
t=\sum_{k \geq 1} \frac{1}{k}\binom{k(n+1)-2}{k-1} z^{k} \frac{1}{2^{k-1}} .
$$

In particular, evaluating this at $t=2-\alpha$ and $z=2^{-n}$ gives

$$
2-\alpha=\sum_{k \geq 1} \frac{1}{k}\binom{k(n+1)-2}{k-1} 2^{-n k} \frac{1}{2^{k-1}},
$$

or

$$
\alpha=2-2 \sum_{k \geq 1} \frac{1}{k}\binom{k(n+1)-2}{k-1} \frac{1}{2^{k(n+1)}},
$$

giving us a series for $\alpha$.

## 4. A Series for $1 /(2-\alpha)$

In this section we will prove Theorem 1.1 (c), namely:

$$
\frac{1}{2-\alpha}=2^{n}-\frac{n}{2}-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{k \geq 1} \frac{1}{k}\binom{k(n+1)}{k+1} \frac{1}{2^{k(n+1)}} .
$$

Proof. Define

$$
S(z)=-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{k \geq 1} \frac{1}{k} z^{k}\left[t^{k+1}\right](1+t)^{k(n+1)}
$$

At $z=2^{-(n+1)}$, this gives

$$
S\left(1 / 2^{n+1}\right)=-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{k \geq 1} \frac{1}{k}\binom{k(n+1)}{k+1} \frac{1}{2^{k(n+1)}} .
$$

Hence it suffices to show that

$$
S\left(1 / 2^{n+1}\right)=-2^{n}+\frac{n}{2}+\frac{1}{2-\alpha} .
$$

We see from equation (3.1) that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{2}{\alpha}-1=\alpha^{-n-1} \tag{4.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $t=z \Phi(t)$ as before. Further let

$$
\Phi(t)=(1+t)^{n+1}, \quad f^{\prime}(t)=-\Phi^{-2} .
$$

We see that $z=1 / 2^{n+1}$ and $t=\frac{2}{\alpha}-1$ is a solution to $t=z \Phi(t)$ by equation (4.1).
To get a series for $1 /(2-\alpha)$, we start from the Lagrange inversion formula, part (b), to get

$$
f(t)=f(0)+\sum_{k \geq 1} \frac{1}{k} z^{k}\left[t^{k-1}\right](\Phi(t))^{k} f^{\prime}(t) .
$$

Differentiating with respect to $z$ gives

$$
\frac{d}{d z} f(t)=\frac{d t}{d z} \cdot f^{\prime}(t)=\sum_{k \geq 1} z^{k-1}\left[t^{k-1}\right](\Phi(t))^{k} f^{\prime}(t)
$$

Using $z=t / \Phi(t)$ we get

$$
\frac{d z}{d t}=\frac{\Phi(t)-t \Phi^{\prime}(t)}{\Phi(t)^{2}}
$$

and so

$$
\frac{d t}{d z}=\frac{\Phi(t)^{2}}{\Phi(t)-t \Phi^{\prime}(t)} .
$$

This gives us

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{\Phi^{2}}{\Phi-t \Phi^{\prime}} \cdot f^{\prime}(t) & =\sum_{k \geq 1} z^{k-1}\left[t^{k-1}\right](\Phi(t))^{k} f^{\prime}(t) \\
& =\left[t^{0}\right] \Phi(t) f^{\prime}(t)+z^{1}\left[t^{1}\right](\Phi(t))^{2} f^{\prime}(t)+\sum_{k \geq 1} z^{k+1}\left[t^{k+1}\right]\left(\Phi(t)^{k}\right)(\Phi(t))^{2} f^{\prime}(t)
\end{aligned}
$$

Using the fact that $f^{\prime}(t)=-\frac{1}{\Phi^{2}}$ we get

$$
-\frac{1}{\Phi-t \Phi^{\prime}}=-1-\sum_{k \geq 1} z^{k+1}\left[t^{k+1}\right](\Phi(t))^{k}
$$

Observing that $S^{\prime}(z)=-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{k \geq 1} z^{k-1}\left[t^{k+1}\right](1+t)^{k(n+1)}$, this simplifies to

$$
2 z^{2} S^{\prime}(z)=1-\frac{1}{\Phi-t \Phi^{\prime}}
$$

Thus,

$$
S^{\prime}(z)=\frac{1}{2 z^{2}}-\frac{1}{\Phi-t \Phi^{\prime}} \frac{\Phi^{2}}{2 t^{2}},
$$

so

$$
S(z)=-\frac{1}{2 z^{1}}-\int \frac{1}{\Phi-t \Phi^{\prime}} \frac{\Phi^{2}}{2 t^{2}} d z=-\frac{1}{2 z}-\int \frac{\Phi-t \Phi^{\prime}}{\Phi^{2}} \frac{1}{\Phi-t \Phi^{\prime}} \frac{\Phi^{2}}{2 t^{2}} d t
$$

and

$$
S(z)=-\frac{1}{2 z}-\int d t \frac{1}{2 t^{2}}=-\frac{1}{2 z}+\frac{1}{2 t}+C .
$$

In order to compute the integration constant $C$, we note that $S(0)=0$. Then

$$
C=\frac{1}{2} \lim _{z \rightarrow 0}\left[\frac{1}{z}-\frac{1}{t}\right]=\frac{1}{2} \lim _{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Phi-1}{t}=\frac{1}{2} \lim _{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{(1+t)^{n+1}-1}{t}=\frac{n+1}{2}
$$

and

$$
S(z)=-\frac{1}{2 z}+\frac{1}{2 t}+\frac{n+1}{2} .
$$

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Evaluating at $z=1 / 2^{n+1}$ and $t=\frac{2}{\alpha}-1$ we have

$$
S\left(1 / 2^{n+1}\right)=-\frac{1}{2 z}+\frac{1}{2 t}+\frac{n+1}{2}=-2^{n}+\frac{\alpha}{2(2-\alpha)}+\frac{n+1}{2}=-2^{n}+\frac{1}{2-\alpha}+\frac{n}{2},
$$

as required.

## 5. Speed of Convergence

The speed of convergence of the series in Theorem 1.1 is determined by the individual terms in the sequence. For example, consider the series for $1 / \alpha$ :

$$
\beta=\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{2} \sum_{k \geq 1} \frac{1}{k}\binom{k(n+1)}{k-1} \frac{1}{2^{k(n+1)}} .
$$

The convergence depends upon the speed of convergence of

$$
f_{1}(k, n) / 2^{k(n+1)}:=\frac{1}{k}\binom{k(n+1)}{k-1} \frac{1}{2^{k(n+1)}} .
$$

Similarly, define

$$
\begin{aligned}
f_{2}(k, n) / 2^{k(n+1)} & :=\frac{1}{k}\binom{k(n+1)-2}{k-1} \frac{1}{2^{k(n+1)}} . \\
f_{3}(k, n) / 2^{k(n+1)} & :=\frac{1}{k}\binom{k(n+1)}{k+1} \frac{1}{2^{k(n+1)}}
\end{aligned}
$$

based on the expansion of $\alpha$ and $1 /(2-\alpha)$.
Notice that by Stirling's approximation we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\lim _{k \rightarrow \infty} \log _{2}\left(f_{1}(k, n)\right) / k & \approx \lim _{k \rightarrow \infty} \log _{2}\left(f_{2}(k, n)\right) / k \\
& \approx \lim _{k \rightarrow \infty} \log _{2}\left(f_{3}(k, n)\right) / k \\
& \approx(n+1) \log _{2}(n+1)-n \log _{2}(n),
\end{aligned}
$$

which, as $n \rightarrow \infty$, tends to $\log _{2}(n+1)+\frac{1}{\ln (2)}$.
Thus, for example, when $n=2$ (corresponding to the Fibonacci case), we have

$$
\log _{2} f_{i}(k, n) \sim\left(3 \log _{2}(3)-2 \log _{2}(2)\right) k \sim(2.75489 \cdots) k .
$$

Since each term of the summation is of the form $f_{i}(k, n) / 2^{k(n+1)}$, in the case $n=2$, the $k$ th term is approximately $2^{-.24511 k}$. Thus, for example, 1000 terms of the series are expected to give at least 73 correct digits; in fact, it gives 77 or 78 depending on the series. Here by digits of accuracy, we mean $\left\lfloor-\log _{10}\right.$ |actual - estimate $\left.\mid\right\rfloor$, which is the number of correct decimal digits after the decimal point. See Table 2 for a summation of various predictions versus actual accuracy.

We notice that convergence is much much faster for larger $n$.

## 6. Acknowledgment.

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Table 2. Predicted and Actual Accuracy of Truncated Series

| $n$ | $k$ | Predicted <br> accuracy | Actual <br> accuracy $(\alpha)$ | Actual <br> accuracy $(1 / \alpha)$ | Actual <br> accuracy $(1 /(2-\alpha))$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 2 | 100 | 7 | 10 | 10 | 9 |
| 2 | 1000 | 73 | 78 | 78 | 77 |
| 2 | 10000 | 737 | 744 | 743 | 743 |
| 10 | 10 | 18 | 23 | 23 | 21 |
| 10 | 100 | 185 | 192 | 191 | 190 |
| 10 | 1000 | 1856 | 1864 | 1863 | 1862 |
| 100 | 2 | 55 | 87 | 86 | 83 |
| 100 | 10 | 279 | 311 | 311 | 307 |
| 100 | 100 | 2796 | 2830 | 2829 | 2826 |

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