

REPRESENTATIONS OF RECIPROCALS OF LUCAS SEQUENCES

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Abstract. In 1953 Stancliff noted an interesting property of the Fibonacci number $F_{11} = 89$. One has that

The Hast that $\frac{1}{89} = \frac{F_0}{10} + \frac{F_1}{10^2} + \frac{F_2}{10^3} + \frac{F_3}{10^4} + \frac{F_4}{10^5} + \frac{F_5}{10^6} + \cdots$ De Weger determined a complete list of similar identities in case of the Fibonacci sequence, the solutions are as follows

$$\frac{1}{F_1} = \frac{1}{F_2} = \frac{1}{1} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{F_{k-1}}{2^k}, \qquad \frac{1}{F_5} = \frac{1}{5} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{F_{k-1}}{3^k},$$
$$\frac{1}{F_{10}} = \frac{1}{55} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{F_{k-1}}{8^k}, \qquad \frac{1}{F_{11}} = \frac{1}{89} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{F_{k-1}}{10^k}.$$

In this article we study similar problems in case of general Lucas sequences $U_n(P,Q)$. We deal with equations of the form

$$\frac{1}{U_n(P_2,Q_2)} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{U_{k-1}(P_1,Q_1)}{x^k},$$

for certain pairs $(P_1, Q_1) \neq (P_2, Q_2)$. We also consider equations of the form

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{U_{k-1}(P,Q)}{x^k} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{R_{k-1}}{y^k},$$

where R_n is a ternary linear recurrence sequence. The proofs are based on results related to Thue equations and elliptic curves.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Let P and Q be non-zero relatively prime integers. The Lucas sequence $\{U_n(P,Q)\}$ is defined by

$$U_0 = 0, U_1 = 1$$
 and $U_n = PU_{n-1} - QU_{n-2}$, if $n \ge 2$.

The associated Lucas sequence $\{V_n(P,Q)\}$ is defined by

$$V_0 = 2, V_1 = P$$
 and $V_n = PU_{n-1} - QU_{n-2}$, if $n \ge 2$.

Terms of Lucas sequences and associated Lucas sequences satisfy the identity

$$V_n^2 - DU_n^2 = 4Q^n, (1.1)$$

where $D = P^2 - 4Q$. In 1953, Stancliff [12] noted an interesting property of the Fibonacci sequence $U_n(1,-1) = F_n$. One has that

$$\frac{1}{F_{11}} = \frac{1}{89} = 0.0112358... = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{F_k}{10^{k+1}}.$$

In 1980, Winans [17] studied the related sums

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{F_{\alpha k}}{10^{k+1}}$$

for certain values of α . In 1981 Hudson and Winans [7] characterized all decimal fractions that can be approximated by sums of the type

$$\frac{1}{F_{\alpha}} \sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{F_{\alpha k}}{10^{l(k+1)}}, \quad \alpha, l \ge 1.$$

Long [10] obtained a general identity for binary recurrence sequences from which one obtains e.g.

$$\frac{1}{109} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{F_k}{(-10)^{k+1}}, \qquad \frac{1}{10099} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{F_k}{(-100)^{k+1}}.$$

In case of the equation

$$\frac{1}{U_n(P,Q)} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{U_{k-1}(P,Q)}{x^k},$$
(1.2)

De Weger [4] determined all $x \ge 2$ in case of (P, Q) = (1, -1). The solutions are as follows

$$\frac{1}{F_1} = \frac{1}{F_2} = \frac{1}{1} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{F_{k-1}}{2^k}, \qquad \frac{1}{F_5} = \frac{1}{5} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{F_{k-1}}{3^k},$$

$$\frac{1}{F_{10}} = \frac{1}{55} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{F_{k-1}}{8^k}, \qquad \frac{1}{F_{11}} = \frac{1}{89} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{F_{k-1}}{10^k}.$$

In 2014 Tengely [15] extended the above result and obtained e.g.

$$\frac{1}{U_{10}} = \frac{1}{416020} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{U_k}{647^{k+1}},$$

where $U_0 = 0$, $U_1 = 1$ and $U_n = 4U_{n-1} + U_{n-2}$, $n \ge 2$. Recently Ohtsuka and Nakamura [11] proved that

$$\left| \left(\sum_{k=n}^{\infty} \frac{1}{F_k} \right)^{-1} \right| = \begin{cases} F_{n-2} & \text{if } n \ge 2 \text{ is even,} \\ F_{n-2} - 1 & \text{if } n \ge 1 \text{ is odd,} \end{cases}$$

where $\lfloor \cdot \rfloor$ denotes the floor function. This result has been investigated by several other mathematicians see e.g. [6,9].

2. AUXILIARY RESULTS

In the proofs we will use the following two results of Köhler [8].

Lemma 1. Let A, B, a_0, a_1 be arbitrary complex numbers. Define the sequence $\{a_n\}$ by the recursion $a_{n+1} = Aa_n + Ba_{n-1}$. Then the formula

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{a_k}{x^{k+1}} = \frac{a_0 x - Aa_0 + a_1}{x^2 - Ax - B}$$

holds for all complex x such that |x| is larger than the absolute values of the zeros of $x^2 - Ax - B$.

Lemma 2. Let arbitrary complex numbers $A_0, A_1, \ldots, A_m, a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_m$ be given. Define the sequence $(a_n)_n$ by the recursion

$$a_{n+1} = A_0 a_n + A_1 a_{n-1} + \dots + A_m a_{n-m}$$

Then for all complex z such that |z| is larger than the absolute values of all zeros of $q(z) = z^{m+1} - A_0 z^m - A_1 z^{m-1} - \cdots - A_m$, the formula

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{a_{k-1}}{z^k} = \frac{p(z)}{q(z)}$$

holds with $p(z) = a_0 z^m + b_1 z^{m-1} + \dots + b_m$, where $b_k = a_k - \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} A_i a_{k-1-i}$ for $1 \le k \le m$.

3. MAIN RESULTS

In this paper we extend the results of [15], we consider the equation

$$\frac{1}{U_n(P_2, Q_2)} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{U_{k-1}(P_1, Q_1)}{x^k},$$
(3.1)

for certain pairs $(P_1, Q_1) \neq (P_2, Q_2)$. We consider non-degenerate sequences with 1 < P < 3 and $Q = \pm 1$. Define the set S as follows

$$S = \{u_1(n) = U_n(1,-1), u_2(n) = U_n(1,1), u_3(n) = U_n(2,-1), u_4(n) = U_n(3,-1), u_5(n) = U_n(3,1)\}.$$

Theorem 1. The equation

$$\frac{1}{u_j(n)} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{u_i(k-1)}{x^k},$$
(3.2)

has the following solutions with $1 \le i, j \le 5, i \ne j$

$$(i, j, n, x) \in \{(1, 2, \{1, 2\}, 2), (1, 3, 1, 2), (1, 3, 3, 3), (1, 3, 5, 6), (1, 4, 1, 2), (1, 4, 5, 11), (1, 4, 7, 35), (1, 5, 1, 2), (1, 5, 5, 8), (2, 1, 4, 2), (2, 1, 7, 4), (2, 1, 8, 5), (2, 5, 2, 2), (2, 5, 4, 5), (3, 1, 3, 3), (3, 1, 9, 7), (4, 1, 4, 4), (4, 1, 14, 21), (4, 5, 2, 4), (4, 5, 7, 21), (5, 1, \{1, 2\}, 3), (5, 1, 5, 4), (5, 1, 10, 9), (5, 1, 11, 11), (5, 2, \{1, 2\}, 3), (5, 3, 1, 3), (5, 3, 3, 4), (5, 3, 5, 7), (5, 4, 1, 3), (5, 4, 5, 12), (5, 4, 7, 36)\}.$$

We also deal with equations of the form

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{u_j(k-1)}{x^k} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{R_{k-1}}{y^k},$$
(3.3)

where R_n is a ternary linear recurrence sequence. We provide results in case of the Tribonacci sequence defined by $T_0 = T_1 = 0$, $T_2 = 1$ and $T_{n+3} = T_{n+2} + T_{n+1} + T_n$, $n \ge 0$ and Berstel's sequence, that is given by $B_0 = B_1 = 0$, $B_2 = 1$ and $B_{n+3} = 2B_{n+2} - 4B_{n+1} + 4B_n$, $n \ge 0$.

Theorem 2. The complete list of solutions of equation (3.3) with $u_n \in S$, $R_n \in \{B_n, T_n\}$ and positive integers x, y satisfying conditions of Lemma 1 and 2 is as follows

u_n	R_n	(x,y)	u_n	R_n	(x,y)
u_1	B_n	{(25,9)}	u_1	T_n	{(2,2)}
u_2	B_n	{(10,5)}	u_2	T_n	{(7,4), (309,46)}
из	B_n	{}	из	T_n	$\{(t(t^2-2)+1,t^2-1): t \ge 2, t \in \mathbb{N}\}$
u_4	B_n	{(6,3),(18,7)}	u_4	T_n	{}
<i>u</i> ₅	B_n	{(26,9)}	<i>u</i> ₅	T_n	{}

4. PROOFS OF THE THEOREMS

Proof of Theorem 1. Consider equation (3.1), by Lemma 1 we obtain that

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{U_{k-1}(P_1, Q_1)}{x^k} = \frac{1}{x^2 - P_1 x + Q_1}.$$

Hence we have that $U_n(P_2,Q_2)=x^2-P_1x+Q_1$. Combining the latter equation with (1.1) we get $V_n(P_2,Q_2)^2=(P_2^2-4Q_2)(x^2-P_1x+Q_1)^2+4Q_2^n$. The so-called two-cover descent by Bruin and Stoll [3] can be used to prove that a given hyperelliptic curve has no rational points. It is implemented in Magma [2], the procedure is called TwoCoverDescent. If it fails and we do not find any rational points on the curve, then we apply the argument by Alekseyev and Tengely [1], that reduces the problem to Thue equations. If we have a rational point on the curve, then using a method by Tzanakis [16] the integral points can be determined. This algorithm is implemented in Magma as IntegralQuarticPoints. In this way we collect the possible values of x.

P_1, Q_1, P_2, Q_2	X	(P_1, Q_1, P_2, Q_2)	X	(P_1, Q_1, P_2, Q_2)	X
(1,-1,1,1)	2	(1,1,1,-1)	2,4,5	(2,-1,1,-1)	3,7
(1,-1,2,-1)	2,3,6	(1,1,2,-1)	_	(2,-1,1,1)	_
(1,-1,3,-1)	2,11,35	(1,1,3,-1)	2	(2,-1,3,-1)	_
(1,-1,3,1)	2,8	(1,1,3,1)	2,5	(2,-1,3,1)	_

(P_1, Q_1, P_2, Q_2)	X	(P_1, Q_1, P_2, Q_2)	х
(3,-1,1,-1)	4,21	(3,1,1,-1)	3, 4, 9, 11
(3,-1,1,1)	_	(3,1,1,1)	3
(3,-1,2,-1)	_	(3,1,2,-1)	3,4,7
(3,-1,3,1)	4,21	(3,1,3,-1)	3, 12, 36

It remains to compute the set of possible values of n. We provide details of the computation in case of $(P_1, Q_1, P_2, Q_2) = (3, -1, 1, -1)$, following these steps all other equations can be handled. In case of $(P_1, Q_1, P_2, Q_2) = (3, -1, 1, -1)$ we have that $x \in \{4, 21\}$. If x = 4, then we define a matrix T as follows

$$T = \begin{pmatrix} 3/4 & 1/4 \\ 1/4 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

We have that

$$\frac{1}{4} \left(T^0 + T^1 + T^2 + \dots + T^{N-1} \right) \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} * \\ \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{U_{k-1}(3,-1)}{4^k} \end{pmatrix}.$$

It follows that

$$\sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{U_{k-1}(3,-1)}{4^k} = -\frac{2^{-3N-1}}{39} \left(\left(\sqrt{13} + 3 \right)^N \left(5\sqrt{13} + 13 \right) + \left(13 - 5\sqrt{13} \right) \left(-\sqrt{13} + 3 \right)^N - 13 \cdot 2^{3N+1} \right),$$

hence we have that

$$\lim_{N \to \infty} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{U_{k-1}(3,-1)}{4^k} = \frac{1}{3} = \frac{1}{U_4(1,-1)}.$$

In this case we obtain that n = 4. If x = 21, then

$$T = \begin{pmatrix} 3/21 & 1/21 \\ 1/21 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

In a similar way than in case of x = 4 we get that

$$\sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{U_{k-1}(3,-1)}{21^{k}} = \frac{\left(7^{N} 3^{N} 2^{N+1} - \left(\sqrt{13} + 3\right)^{N} \left(3\sqrt{13} + 1\right) + \left(3\sqrt{13} - 1\right)\left(-\sqrt{13} + 3\right)^{N}\right) 2^{-N-1}}{377 \cdot 7^{N} 3^{N}},$$

therefore

$$\lim_{N \to \infty} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{U_{k-1}(3,-1)}{21^k} = \frac{1}{377} = \frac{1}{U_{14}(1,-1)}.$$

The only solution in this case is given by n = 14.

Proof of Theorem 2. We provide a general argument that works for other sequences as well. Let $a_0 = 0$, $a_1 = 1$ and $a_{n+1} = Aa_n + Ba_{n-1}$. Let $b_0 = b_1 = 0$, $b_2 = 1$ and $b_{n+1} = Cb_n + Db_{n-1} + Eb_{n-2}$. Equation (3.3) yields that

$$Y^2 = X^3 - 4CX^2 - 16DX + 16A^2 + 64B - 64E$$

where Y = 8x - 4A and X = 4y. If the cubic polynomial in X is square-free, then we have an elliptic equation and integral points can be determined using the so-called elliptic logarithm method developed by Stroeker and Tzanakis [14] and independently by Gebel, Pethő and Zimmer [5]. There exists a number of software implementations for determining integral points on elliptic curves based on this technique, here we used SageMath [13]. Let us consider the case with $u_2(n)$, T_n . We

obtain the elliptic curve $Y^2 = X^3 - 4X^2 - 16X - 112$. Using the SageMath function integral_points() we get

$$[(8:4:1), (16:52:1), (29:143:1), (184:2468:1)].$$

From these points we have that $(x, y) \in \{(7, 4), (309, 46)\}$. As a second example consider the case with u_4 , B_n . The elliptic curve is given by $Y^2 = X^3 - 8X^2 + 64X - 48$. The list of integral points is

$$[(1:3:1), (4:12:1), (12:36:1), (28:132:1)].$$

Thus we get that $(x, y) \in \{(6, 3), (18, 7)\}$. Finally let us deal with the special case with u_3, T_n . The cubic polynomial is not square-free, it is $(X + 4)(X - 4)^2$. Therefore we have that $X + 4 = 4y + 4 = u^2$. Hence $y = t^2 - 1$ for some integer $t \ge 2$. It follows that $x = t(t^2 - 2) + 1$. So we obtain infinitely many identities of the form

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{u_4(k-1)}{(t(t^2-2)+1)^k} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{T_{k-1}}{(t^2-1)^k}.$$

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