# A VARIATION ON THE THEME OF NICOMACHUS 

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#### Abstract

In this paper, we prove some conjectures of K. Stolarsky concerning the first and third moments of the Beatty sequences with the golden section and its square.


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## 1. Introduction

Nicomachus' theorem asserts that the sum of the first $m$ cubes is the square of the $m$ th triangular number,

$$
\begin{equation*}
1^{3}+2^{3}+\cdots+m^{3}=(1+2+\cdots+m)^{2} . \tag{1.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

(See [2].) With the notation

$$
\begin{equation*}
Q(\alpha, m):=\frac{\sum_{n=1}^{m}\lfloor\alpha n\rfloor^{3}}{\left(\sum_{n=1}^{m}\lfloor\alpha n\rfloor\right)^{2}}, \tag{1.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\alpha \in \mathbb{R} \backslash\{0\}$, it implies that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lim _{m \rightarrow \infty} Q(\alpha, m)=\alpha . \tag{1.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Here, $\lfloor x\rfloor$ is the integer part of the real number $x$. The limit in (1.3) follows from $\lfloor\alpha n\rfloor=\alpha n+O(1)$ and Nicomachus' theorem (1.1).

Recall that the Fibonacci and Lucas sequences, $\left\{F_{n}\right\}_{n \geq 0}$ and $\left\{L_{n}\right\}_{n \geq 0}$, are given by $F_{0}=0, F_{1}=1$ and $L_{0}=2, L_{1}=1$ and the recurrence relations

$$
F_{n+2}=F_{n+1}+F_{n}, \quad L_{n+2}=L_{n+1}+L_{n}
$$

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for $n \geq 0$. In a personal communication to the second author, K. Stolarsky observed that the limit relation (1.3) can be 'quantified' for $\alpha=\phi$ and $\phi^{2}$, where $\phi:=\frac{1}{2}(1+\sqrt{5})$ is the golden mean, and a specific choice of $m$ along the Fibonacci sequence. The corresponding result is Theorem 2.1 below. We complement it by a general analysis of moments of the Beatty sequences and give a solution to a related arithmetic question in Theorem 2.5.

## 2. Principal results

Theorem 2.1. For $k \geq 1$ an integer, define $m_{k}:=F_{k}-1$. Then

$$
Q\left(\phi^{2}, m_{2 k}\right)-Q\left(\phi, m_{2 k}\right)= \begin{cases}1-\frac{1}{\left(F_{k+1}\right)^{2} L_{k+2} L_{k-1}} & \text { if } k \text { is even }, \\ 1-\frac{1}{\left(L_{k+1}\right)^{2} F_{k+2} F_{k-1}} & \text { if } k \text { is odd }\end{cases}
$$

and

$$
Q\left(\phi^{2}, m_{2 k-1}\right)-Q\left(\phi, m_{2 k-1}\right)= \begin{cases}1-\frac{F_{k-2}}{F_{k+1}\left(F_{k}\right)^{2}\left(L_{k-1}\right)^{2}} & \text { if } k \text { is even } \\ 1-\frac{L_{k-2}}{L_{k+1}\left(L_{k}\right)^{2}\left(F_{k-1}\right)^{2}} & \text { if } k \text { is odd }\end{cases}
$$

The theorem motivates our interest in the numerators and denominators of $Q\left(\phi, F_{k}-1\right)$ and $Q\left(\phi^{2}, F_{k}-1\right)$, which can be thought of as expressions of the form

$$
A(k, s):=\sum_{n=1}^{F_{k}-1}\lfloor\phi n\rfloor^{s} \quad \text { and } \quad A^{\prime}(k, s):=\sum_{n=1}^{F_{k}-1}\left\lfloor\phi^{2} n\right\rfloor^{s}
$$

for $k=1,2, \ldots$ and $s=1,3$. More generally, our analysis in Section 3 covers the sums

$$
\begin{equation*}
A(k, s, j):=\sum_{n=1}^{F_{k}-1} n^{j}\lfloor\phi n\rfloor^{s} \quad \text { where } k=1,2, \ldots \text { and } s, j=0,1,2, \ldots . \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Namely, we find a recurrence relation for $A(k, j, s)$ and deduce recursions from it for $A(k, s)=A(k, s, 0)$ and $A^{\prime}(k, s)$. The strategy leads to the following expressions for the numerators and denominators in Theorem 2.1, which are given in Lemmas 2.2-2.4.
Lemma 2.2. Let $k \geq 1$ be an integer. Then

$$
\begin{align*}
A(k, 1) & =\frac{1}{2}\left(F_{k+1}-1\right)\left(F_{k}-1\right),  \tag{2.2}\\
A^{\prime}(k, 1) & =\frac{1}{2}\left(F_{k+2}-1\right)\left(F_{k}-1\right) .
\end{align*}
$$

Lemma 2.3. Let $k \geq 1$ be an integer. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
A(2 k, 3) & =\frac{1}{4}\left(F_{2 k-1}-1\right)\left(F_{2 k+1}-1\right)^{2}\left(F_{2 k+2}-1\right), \\
A(2 k-1,3) & =\frac{1}{4}\left(F_{2 k-1}-1\right)\left(F_{2 k}-1\right) \times \frac{1}{5}\left(L_{4 k}-3 L_{2 k+1}-L_{2 k}+3\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Lemma 2.4. Let $k \geq 1$ be an integer. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
A^{\prime}(2 k, 3) & =\frac{1}{4}\left(F_{2 k}-1\right)\left(F_{2 k+2}-1\right) \times \frac{1}{5}\left(L_{4 k+4}-5 L_{2 k+3}+13\right), \\
A^{\prime}(2 k-1,3) & =\frac{1}{4}\left(F_{2 k-1}-1\right)\left(F_{2 k+1}-1\right) \times \frac{1}{5}\left(L_{4 k+2}-5 L_{2 k+2}+7\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Finally, we present an arithmetic formula inspired by Stolarsky's original question.

## Theorem 2.5. For $k \geq 1$,

$$
\operatorname{LCM}\left(A(2 k, 1), A^{\prime}(2 k, 1)\right)= \begin{cases}\frac{1}{2} F_{k+1} F_{k} L_{k+2} L_{k+1} L_{k-1} & \text { if } 2 \mid k, \\ \frac{1}{2} F_{k+2} F_{k+1} F_{k-1} L_{k+1} L_{k} & \text { if } 2 \nmid k\end{cases}
$$

Remark 2.6. Lemmas 2.2-2.4 indicate that the expression

$$
Q\left(\phi^{2}, F_{k}-1\right)-Q\left(\phi, F_{k}-1\right)
$$

is expressible as a fraction whose numerator and denominator are polynomials in Fibonacci and Lucas numbers with indices depending linearly on $k$ according to the parity of $k$, yet the statement of Theorem 2.1 presents formulas for these quantities according to the congruence class of $k$ modulo 4 rather than modulo 2 . The discrepancy is related to different factorisations of the factors $F_{n}-1$ that occur in the formulas for $A(k, j)$ and $A^{\prime}(k, j)$ for $j \in\{1,3\}$, since each of the factors $F_{n}-1$ happens to be a product of a Fibonacci and a Lucas number according to the congruence class of $n$ modulo 4 (see formulas (6.1)).

## 3. Recurrence relations for auxiliary sums

Here, we show how to compute the integer-part sums (2.1). This clearly covers the cases $A(k, s)=A(k, s, 0)$. On using

$$
\phi^{2}=1+\phi,
$$

which upon multiplication by the integer $n$ and taking integer parts becomes

$$
\left\lfloor\phi^{2} n\right\rfloor=n+\lfloor\phi n\rfloor,
$$

one also gets the explicit formulas

$$
A^{\prime}(k, s)=\sum_{i=0}^{s}\binom{s}{i} A(k, s-i, i)
$$

Using the Binet formula

$$
F_{k}=\frac{\phi^{k}-\left(-\phi^{-1}\right)^{k}}{\sqrt{5}} \quad \text { for all } k \geq 0
$$

one easily proves that

$$
\left\lfloor\phi F_{k}\right\rfloor=F_{k+1}-\epsilon_{k} \quad \text { where } \epsilon_{k}=\frac{1+(-1)^{k}}{2}
$$

and

$$
\left\lfloor\phi\left(F_{k}+n\right)\right\rfloor=F_{k+1}+\lfloor\phi n\rfloor \quad \text { for } 1 \leq n \leq F_{k-1}-1
$$

(see, for example, [1]). Thus,

$$
\begin{aligned}
A(k+1, s, j)= & \sum_{n=1}^{F_{k}-1} n^{j}\lfloor\phi n\rfloor^{s}+F_{k}^{j}\left\lfloor\phi F_{k}\right\rfloor^{s}+\sum_{n=F_{k}+1}^{F_{k+1}-1} n^{j}\lfloor\phi n\rfloor^{s} \\
= & A(k, s, j)+F_{k}^{j}\left(F_{k+1}-\epsilon_{k}\right)^{s}+\sum_{n=1}^{F_{k+1}-F_{k}-1}\left(F_{k}+n\right)^{j}\left\lfloor\phi\left(F_{k}+n\right)\right\rfloor^{s} \\
= & A(k, s, j)+F_{k}^{j}\left(F_{k+1}-\epsilon_{k}\right)^{s}+\sum_{n=1}^{F_{k-1}-1}\left(F_{k}+n\right)^{j}\left(F_{k+1}+\lfloor\phi n\rfloor\right)^{s} \\
= & A(k, s, j)+F_{k}^{j} \sum_{i=0}^{s}\binom{s}{i} F_{k+1}^{i}\left(-\epsilon_{k}\right)^{s-i} \\
& +\sum_{n=1}^{F_{k-1}-1} \sum_{\ell=0}^{j}\binom{j}{\ell} F_{k}^{\ell} n^{j-\ell} \sum_{i=0}^{s}\binom{s}{i} F_{k+1}^{i}\lfloor\phi n\rfloor^{s-i} \\
= & A(k, s, j)+\sum_{i=0}^{s}\binom{s}{i}\left(-\epsilon_{k}\right)^{s-i} F_{k}^{j} F_{k+1}^{i} \\
& +\sum_{\ell=0}^{j} \sum_{i=0}^{s}\left(\begin{array}{l}
j \\
\ell \\
\ell
\end{array}\right)\binom{s}{i} F_{k}^{\ell} F_{k+1}^{i} A(k-1, s-i, j-\ell) .
\end{aligned}
$$

The above reduction, the identity $A(k, 0,0)=F_{k}-1$ and induction on $k+j+s$ imply that

$$
A(k, s, j) \in \operatorname{span}\left\{\left(\phi^{i}\right)^{k},\left(-\phi^{i}\right)^{k}:|i| \leq j+s+1\right\} ;
$$

in particular, for a fixed choice of $s$ and $j$, the sequence $\{A(k, s, j)\}_{k \geq 1}$ is linearly recurrent of order at most $4(s+j)+6$. In the following section, we will use this observation about linear recurrency together with the following facts.

- If $\boldsymbol{u}=\left\{u_{n}\right\}_{n \geq 0}$ is a linearly recurrent sequence whose roots are all simple in some set $U$, then, for fixed integers $p$ and $q$, the sequence $\left\{u_{p n+q}\right\}_{n \geq 0}$ is linearly recurrent with simple roots in $\left\{\alpha^{p}: \alpha \in U\right\}$.
- If $\boldsymbol{u}=\left\{u_{n}\right\}_{n \geq 0}$ and $\boldsymbol{v}=\left\{v_{n}\right\}_{n \geq 0}$ are linearly recurrent and their roots are all simple in some sets $U$ and $V$, respectively, then $\boldsymbol{u v}=\left\{u_{n} v_{n}\right\}_{n \geq 0}$ is linearly recurrent and its roots are all simple in $U V=\{\alpha \beta: \alpha \in U, \beta \in V\}$.

In this context, the roots of a linearly recurrent sequence are defined as the zeros of its characteristic polynomial, counted with their multiplicities. It then follows that, for a fixed $s$, each of the sequences $\{A(k, s)\}_{k \geq 1}$ and $\left\{A^{\prime}(k, s)\right\}_{k \geq 1}$ is linearly recurrent of order at most $4 s+6$.

## 4. The proofs of the lemmas

We first establish Lemma 2.2. By the argument in Section 3, both $A(k, 1)$ and $A^{\prime}(k, 1)$ are linearly recurrent with simple roots in the set $\left\{ \pm \phi^{l}:|l| \leq 2\right\}$. The same is true for the right-hand sides in (2.2). Since the set of roots is contained in a set with 10 elements, it follows that the validity of (2.2) for $k=1, \ldots, 10$ implies that the relations hold for all $k \geq 1$.

Lemmas 2.3 and 2.4 are similar. The argument in Section 3 shows that the lefthand sides, $\{A(k, 3)\}_{k \geq 1}$ and $\left\{A^{\prime}(k, 3)\right\}_{k \geq 1}$, are linearly recurrent with simple roots in $\left\{ \pm \phi^{l}:|l| \leq 4\right\}$. Splitting according to the parity of $k$, we deduce that $\{A(2 k, 3)\}_{k \geq 1}$, $\{A(2 k-1,3)\}_{k \geq 1},\left\{A^{\prime}(2 k, 3)\right\}_{k \geq 1}$ and $\left\{A^{\prime}(2 k-1,3)\right\}_{k \geq 1}$ are linearly recurrent with simple roots in $\left\{\phi^{2 l}:|l| \leq 4\right\}$, a set with nine elements. The same is true about the right-hand sides in the lemmas. Thus, if the relations hold for $k=1, \ldots, 9$, then they hold for all $k \geq 1$.

A few words about the computation. For the identities presented in Lemmas 2.22.4, one can use brute force to compute $A(k, s)$ and $A^{\prime}(k, s)$ for $s=1,3$ and $k=2 \ell+i$, where $i \in\{0,1\}$ and $\ell$ is reasonably small (we dealt with $\ell \leq 9$ ), with any computer algebra system. To check them up to larger values of $k$ (around 100, say), the brute force strategy no longer works since the summation range up to $F_{k}-1$ becomes too large. Instead one can use the recursion from Section 3 together with $A(k, 0,0)=F_{k}-1$ to find $A(k, 1,0), A(k, 2,0)$ and $A(k, 3,0)$ for all desired $k$ and, similarly, $A(k, s, j)$ for small $j$, to evaluate $A^{\prime}(k, s)$.

## 5. The proof of Theorem 2.1

Let us now address Theorem 2.1. When $k=4 \ell$, this can be rewritten as

$$
\begin{align*}
& F_{2 \ell+1}^{2} L_{2 \ell+2} L_{2 \ell-1}\left(A^{\prime}(4 \ell, 3) A(4 \ell, 1)^{2}-A(4 \ell, 3) A^{\prime}(4 \ell, 1)^{2}\right) \\
& \quad=A(4 \ell, 1)^{2} A^{\prime}(4 \ell, 1)^{2}\left(F_{2 \ell+1}^{2} L_{2 \ell+2} L_{2 \ell-1}-1\right) \tag{5.1}
\end{align*}
$$

Since $A(4 \ell, s)$ and $A^{\prime}(4 \ell, s)$ are linearly recurrent (in $\ell$ ) with roots contained in $\left\{\phi^{4 l}:|l| \leq s+1\right\}$, and both the left-most factor in the left-hand side and the right-most factor in the right-hand side each have simple roots in $\left\{\phi^{4 l}:|l| \leq 2\right\}$, it follows that both the left-hand side and the right-hand side are linearly recurrent with simple roots contained in $\left\{\phi^{4 l}:|l| \leq 10\right\}$, a set with 21 elements. Thus, if the above formula holds for $\ell=1, \ldots, 21$, then it holds for all $\ell \geq 1$. A similar argument applies to the case when $k=4 \ell+i$ for $i \in\{1,2,3\}$. Hence, all claimed formulas hold provided they hold for all $k \leq 100$, say.

Now we use the lemmas. For $k=4 \ell$, Lemmas 2.2-2.4 tell us that (5.1), after eliminating the common factor $\left(F_{4 \ell}-1\right)^{2}\left(F_{4 \ell+1}-1\right)^{2}\left(F_{4 \ell+2}-1\right) / 16$, is equivalent to

$$
\begin{gathered}
F_{2 \ell+1}^{2} L_{2 \ell+2} L_{2 \ell-1} \times\left(\frac{1}{5}\left(F_{4 \ell}-1\right)\left(L_{8 \ell+4}-5 L_{4 \ell+3}+13\right)\right. \\
\left.\quad-\left(F_{4 \ell+2}-1\right)\left(F_{4 \ell-1}-1\right)\left(F_{4 \ell+2}-1\right)\right) \\
=\left(F_{4 \ell}-1\right)^{2}\left(F_{2 \ell+1}^{2} L_{2 \ell+2} L_{2 \ell-1}-1\right)
\end{gathered}
$$

(and one can perform further reduction using (6.1)). It is sufficient to verify the resulting equality for $\ell=1, \ldots, 15$ and we have checked it for all $\ell=1, \ldots, 100$. The remaining cases for $k$ modulo 4 are similar. We do not give further details here.

## 6. The proof of Theorem 2.5

This follows from Lemma 2.2, the classical formulas

$$
\begin{align*}
F_{4 \ell}-1 & =F_{2 \ell+1} L_{2 \ell-1}, & & F_{4 \ell+1}-1=F_{2 \ell} L_{2 \ell+1},  \tag{6.1}\\
F_{4 \ell+2}-1 & =F_{2 \ell} L_{2 \ell+2}, & & F_{4 \ell+3}-1=F_{2 \ell+2} L_{2 \ell+1}
\end{align*}
$$

as well as known facts about the greatest common divisor of Fibonacci and Lucas numbers with close arguments. For example, for $k=2 \ell$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{LCM}\left(2 A(4 \ell, 1), 2 A^{\prime}(4 \ell, 1)\right) & =\operatorname{LCM}\left(\left(F_{4 \ell+1}-1\right)\left(F_{4 \ell}-1\right),\left(F_{4 \ell+2}-1\right)\left(F_{4 \ell}-1\right)\right) \\
& =\operatorname{LCM}\left(F_{2 \ell} L_{2 \ell+1}, F_{2 \ell} L_{2 \ell+2}\right) F_{2 \ell+1} L_{2 \ell-1} \\
& =F_{2 \ell} L_{2 \ell+1} L_{2 \ell+2} F_{2 \ell+1} L_{2 \ell-1} \\
& =F_{k+1} F_{k} L_{k+2} L_{k+1} L_{k-1},
\end{aligned}
$$

where we used the fact that $\operatorname{gcd}\left(L_{2 \ell+1}, L_{2 \ell+2}\right)=1$. The case $k=2 \ell+1$ is similar.

## 7. Further variations

First, we give an informal account of a more general result lurking, perhaps, behind the formulas in Theorem 2.1. Consider a homogeneous (rational) function $r(\boldsymbol{x})=r\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{m}\right)$ of degree 1 , that is, satisfying

$$
r(t \boldsymbol{x})=\operatorname{tr}(\boldsymbol{x}) \quad \text { for } t \in \mathbb{Q}
$$

and an algebraic number $\alpha$ solving the equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{k=0}^{m} c_{k} \alpha^{k}=0 \tag{7.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the $c_{k}$ are integers. If $r(\boldsymbol{x})$ vanishes at a vector $\boldsymbol{x}^{*}=\left(x_{1}^{*}, \ldots, x_{m}^{*}\right)$, then automatically

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{k=0}^{m} c_{k} r\left(\alpha^{k} \boldsymbol{x}^{*}\right)=0 \tag{7.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

in view of the homogeneity of the function. We can then enquire whether equation (7.2) is 'approximately' true if $r\left(\boldsymbol{x}^{*}\right)=0$ is 'approximately' true. In this note, we merely examined the golden ratio case in which (7.1) is $\alpha^{2}-\alpha-1=0$, while the choice

$$
r\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{m}\right)=\frac{\sum_{n=1}^{m} x_{n}^{3}}{\left(\sum_{n=1}^{m} x_{n}\right)^{2}}
$$

for the rational function and $\boldsymbol{x}^{*}=(1,2, \ldots, m)$ for its exact solution originated from the Nicomachus identity.

Notice that Nicomachus' theorem (1.1) is the first entry in the chain of identities

$$
1^{2 r-1}+2^{2 r-1}+\cdots+m^{2 r-1}=P_{r}(1+2+\cdots+m) \quad \text { for } r=2,3, \ldots,
$$

where $P_{r}(x)$ are known as the Faulhaber polynomials. Our approach in this note gives a clear strategy to deal with the quantities that replace (1.2) in these settings.

Some further variations on the topic can be investigated in the $q$-direction, based on $q$-analogues of (1.1) (see [3]).

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