EXTENDING THE BERNOULLI-EULER METHOD FOR FINDING ZEROS OF HOLOMORPHIC FUNCTIONS

Benaissa Bernoussi

Université Abdelmalek Essaadi, ENSAT de Tanger, B.P. 416, Tanger, Morocco e-mail: Benaissa@fstt.ac.ma

Mustapha Rachidi

Département de Mathématiques et Informatique, Faculté des Sciences, Université Mohammed V, B.P. 1014, Rabat, Morocco e-mail: rachidi@fsr.ac.ma

Osamu Saeki

Faculty of Mathematics, Kyushu University, Hakozaki, Fukuoka 812-8581, Japan e-mail: saeki@math.kyushu-u.ac.jp (Submitted July 2001-Final Revision May 2002)

1. INTRODUCTION

Let $a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_{r-1}(a_{r-1} \neq 0)$ and $\alpha_0, \alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_{r-1}(r \ge 1)$ be two sequences of real or complex numbers. The sequence $\{V_n^{(r)}\}_{n\ge -r+1}$ defined by $V_n^{(r)} = \alpha_{-n}$ for $-r+1 \le n \le 0$ and the linear recurrence of order r

$$V_{n+1}^{(r)} = a_0 V_n^{(r)} + a_1 V_{n-1}^{(r)} + \dots + a_{r-1} V_{n-r+1}^{(r)} \quad (n \ge 0)$$
(1.1)

is called a *weighted r-generalized Fibonacci sequence*. Such sequences have been extensively studied in the literature (see [6, 10, 11, 13] for example). In this paper we shall refer to such an object as a *sequence of type* (1.1). Such sequences have interested many authors because of their various applications. For example, in numerical analysis some discretization by finite divisions gives such a linear recurrence relation (for example, see [2, 4, 8, 9]).

Sequences of type (1.1) have been generalized in [14, 15] as follows. Let $\{a_j\}_{j\geq 0}$ and $\{\alpha_j\}_{j\geq 0}$ be two sequences of real or complex numbers. The sequence $\{V_j\}_{j\in \mathbb{Z}}$ defined by $V_n = \alpha_{-n} (n \leq 0)$ and the linear recurrence of order ∞

$$V_{n+1} = a_0 V_n + a_1 V_{n-1} + \dots + a_m V_{n-m} + \dots \quad (n \ge 0)$$
(1.2)

is called an ∞ -generalized Fibonacci sequence. Such sequences have been studied under some hypotheses on the two sequences $\{a_j\}_{j\geq 0}$ and $\{\alpha_j\}_{j\geq 0}$ which guarantee the existence of the terms V_n for every $n \geq 1$ (see [3, 14, 15, 17]). The origin of r- or ∞ -generalized Fibonacci sequences goes back to Euler. In [7, Chapter XVII] he discussed Daniel Bernoulli's method of using linear recurrences to approximate zeros of (mainly polynomial) functions.

In this paper, we first study the relationship between a given *polynomial* function and the associated sequence of type (1.1), and then we use it to approximate and find a zero of the polynomial through Bernoulli's method (§2). Our results will be a bit weaker than the usual ones; nevertheless, we have included them in the aim to generalize them to the case of general *holomorphic* functions. In §§3 and 4, this will be carried out through the use of ∞ -generalized Fibonacci sequences. These results are very important, since, as far as the authors know, there has been practically no method for approximating or finding a zero of an arbitrary holomorphic

function using the coefficients in their power series expansions. Furthermore, in §4, we will discuss the approximation process by using r-generalized Fibonacci sequences with r finite (see [3]), which will enable us to obtain more precise results.

2. BERNOULLI'S METHOD FOR POLYNOMIAL FUNCTIONS

In order to approximate a root of a polynomial $P_r(X)$ of degree r, Bernoulli considered a sequence $\{V_n^{(r)}\}_{n\geq -r+1}$ of type (1.1) such that $P_r(X)$ is its characteristic polynomial. More precisely, he used the initial values $V_0^{(r)} = 1$ and $V_{-1}^{(r)} = \cdots = V_{-r+1}^{(r)} = 0$. It is well known that under certain conditions, if

$$q = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{V_{n+1}^{(r)}}{V_n^{(r)}}$$

exists, then it is a root of $P_r(X)$ such that $|q'| \leq |q|$ for any other root q' of $P_r(X)$ (see [8, 9] or [6, Theorem 7], for example). The aim of this section is to establish similar results by using the theory of holomorphic functions.

Let $Q_r(z) = 1 - a_0 z - \cdots - a_{r-2} z^{r-1} - a_{r-1} z^r$ be a complex polynomial of degree $r(r \ge 1, a_{r-1} \ne 0)$, and consider the complex function $f_r(z) = 1/Q_r(z)$. Since $Q_r(0) = 1 \ne 0$, the Taylor expansion of $f_r(z)$ in a disk centred at 0 can be written as

$$f_r(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} V_n^{(r)} z^n$$
 (2.1)

for some complex numbers $V_0^{(r)}, V_1^{(r)}, \ldots$. The identity $Q_r(z)f(z) = 1$ implies that

$$V_{n+1}^{(r)} = \sum_{j=0}^{r-1} a_j V_{n-j}^{(r)}$$

for all $n \ge 0$, where $V_0^{(r)} = 1$ and $V_{-1}^{(r)} = \cdots = V_{-r+1}^{(r)} = 0$. Hence, $\{V_n^{(r)}\}_{n \ge -r+1}$ is a sequence of type (1.1) and its characteristic polynomial coincides with $P_r(X) = X^r - a_0 X^{r-1} - \cdots - a_{r-2} X - a_{r-1}$.

Remark 2.1: Conversely, suppose that $\{V_n^{(r)}\}_{n\geq -r+1}$ is a sequence of type (1.1) such that $V_0^{(r)} = 1$ and $V_{-1}^{(r)} = \cdots = V_{-r+1}^{(r)} = 0$. Then we have

$$f_r(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} V_n^{(r)} z^n = \frac{1}{Q_r(z)},$$

where $Q_r(z) = 1 - a_0 z - \dots - a_{r-2} z^{r-1} - a_{r-1} z^r$.

The polynomial function Q_r has a root and $Q_r(0) \neq 0$. Hence, the function $f_r = 1/Q_r$ has a Taylor expansion near 0 and it is defined in the open disk of radius

$$R = \min\{|\lambda|; \ \lambda \text{ is a root of } Q_r\}.$$

Note that we always have $0 < R < \infty$. Thus, by using the standard theory of power series (for example, see [1]), we can prove the following (for more details, see the proof of Theorem 3.2 in the next section).

Proposition 2.2: Let $Q_r(z) = 1 - a_0 z - \cdots - a_{r-2} z^{r-1} - a_{r-1} z^r (a_{r-1} \neq 0)$ be a complex polynomial of degree r. Consider the sequence $\{V_n^{(r)}\}_{n\geq -r+1}$ of type (1.1) whose coefficients and initial values are given by $a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_{r-1}$ and $V_0^{(r)} = 1, V_{-1}^{(r)} = \cdots = V_{-r+1}^{(r)} = 0$ respectively. We suppose that $V_n^{(r)} \neq 0$ for all sufficiently large n. Then the radius of convergence R of the series (2.1) satisifies

$$\liminf_{n \to \infty} \left| \frac{V_n^{(r)}}{V_{n+1}^{(r)}} \right| \le R \le \limsup_{n \to \infty} \left| \frac{V_n^{(r)}}{V_{n+1}^{(r)}} \right|$$

and $R = \min\{|\lambda|_i \lambda \text{ is a root of } Q_r\}$. In particular, we have $Q_r(Re^{i\theta}) = 0$ for some $\theta \in [0, 2\pi)$, and $R \leq |\mu|$ for all other roots μ of Q_r .

As an immediate corollary, we have the following. **Corollary 2.3**: In the above proposition, if

$$\Lambda^{(r)} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \left| \frac{V_n^{(r)}}{V_{n+1}^{(r)}} \right|$$

exists, then $\Lambda^{(r)}$ is the smallest among the moduli of the roots of Q_r . Remark 2.4: As we noted before, if

$$\lambda^{(r)} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{V_n^{(r)}}{V_{n+1}^{(r)}}$$

exists, then actually $\lambda^{(r)}$ itself is a root of Q_r with the smallest modulus (for example, see [6]). In fact, we can easily show that $Q_r(\lambda^{(r)}) = 0$ as follows:

$$Q_{r}(\lambda^{(r)}) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \left(1 - a_{0} \frac{V_{n}^{(r)}}{V_{n+1}^{(r)}} - a_{1} \left(\frac{V_{n}^{(r)}}{V_{n+1}^{(r)}} \right)^{2} - \dots - a_{r-1} \left(\frac{V_{n}^{(r)}}{V_{n+1}^{(r)}} \right)^{r} \right)$$

$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} \left(1 - a_{0} \frac{V_{n}^{(r)}}{V_{n+1}^{(r)}} - a_{1} \frac{V_{n}^{(r)}}{V_{n+1}^{(r)}} \frac{V_{n-1}^{(r)}}{V_{n}^{(r)}} - \dots - a_{r-1} \frac{V_{n}^{(r)}}{V_{n+1}^{(r)}} \dots \frac{V_{n-(r-1)}^{(r)}}{V_{n+1-(r-1)}^{(r)}} \right)$$

$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} \left(1 - a_{0} \frac{V_{n}^{(r)}}{V_{n+1}^{(r)}} - a_{1} \frac{V_{n-1}^{(r)}}{V_{n+1}^{(r)}} - \dots - a_{r-1} \frac{V_{n-(r-1)}^{(r)}}{V_{n+1}^{(r)}} \right)$$

$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{V_{n+1}^{(r)} - a_{0} V_{n}^{(r)} - a_{1} V_{n-1}^{(r)} - \dots - a_{r-1} V_{n-(r-1)}^{(r)}}{V_{n+1}^{(r)}} = 0.$$
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Example 2.5: Consider the usual Fibonacci sequence $\{F_{n+1}\}_{n\geq -1}$, which is a sequence of type (1.1) with r = 2. In this case, the corresponding polynomial is $Q_2(z) = 1 - z - z^2$. Furthermore, it is well known that

$$\lambda^{(2)} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{F_{n-1}}{F_n} = \frac{\sqrt{5} - 1}{2}.$$

It is easy to verify that λ is the root of Q_2 with the smallest modulus.

Remark 2.6: In the above results, the condition that $V_n^{(r)} \neq 0$ for all sufficiently large n is essential. For example, if r is even and $Q_r(z)$ is a polynomial of z^2 , then in the power series expansion of $f_r(z)$, the coefficients $V_n^{(r)}$ with n odd are all zero. Thus we cannot consider $V_n^{(r)}/V_{n+1}^{(r)}$ for even n.

We have a combinatorial expression for sequences of type (1.1) as follows.

Proposition 2.7: Let $\{V_n^{(r)}\}_{n\geq -r+1}$ be a sequence of type (1.1) whose coefficients and initial values are $a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_{r-1}$ and $V_0^{(r)} = 1, V_{-1}^{(r)} = \cdots = V_{-r+1}^{(r)} = 0$ respectively. Then we have

$$V_n^{(r)} = \sum_{k_0+2k_1+\dots+rk_{r-1}=n} \frac{(k_0+k_1+\dots+k_{r-1})!}{k_0!k_1!\dots k_{r-1}!} a_0^{k_0} a_1^{k_1}\dots a_{r-1}^{k_{r-1}}$$
(2.2)

for all $n \ge -r+1$, where $k_0, k_1, \ldots, k_{r-1}$ run over nonnegative integers.

Proof: Let us prove the assertion by induction on n. It is easy to see that it is true for $n \leq 0$. Suppose that $n \geq 0$ and that the assertion is true for all integers less than or equal to n. It is easy to see that

$$\sum_{j=0}^{r-1} \frac{(k_0 + k_1 + \dots + k_{r-1} - 1)!}{k_0! k_1! \dots k_{j-1}! (k_j - 1)! k_{j+1}! \dots k_{r-1}!} = \frac{(k_0 + \dots + k_{r-1})!}{k_0! \dots k_{r-1}!}$$

holds, where we ignore the terms corresponding to those j with $k_j = 0$. Then, using this, we

see that

$$\begin{split} V_{n+1}^{(r)} &= \sum_{j=0}^{r-1} a_j V_{n-j}^{(r)} \\ &= \sum_{j=0}^{r-1} a_j \sum_{k_0+2k_1+\dots+rk_{r-1}=n-j} \frac{(k_0+k_1+\dots+k_{r-1})!}{k_0!k_1!\dots k_{r-1}!} a_0^{k_0} a_1^{k_1}\dots a_{r-1}^{k_{r-1}} \\ &= \sum_{j=0}^{r-1} a_j \sum_{k_0+2k_1+\dots+rk_{r-1}=n+1, k_j \ge 1} \frac{(k_0+\dots+k_{r-1}-1)!}{k_0!\dots (k_j-1)!\dots k_{r-1}!} a_0^{k_0}\dots a_j^{k_j-1}\dots a_{r-1}^{k_{r-1}} \\ &= \sum_{k_0+2k_1+\dots+rk_{r-1}=n+1} \sum_{j=0}^{r-1} \frac{(k_0+\dots+k_{r-1}-1)!}{k_0!\dots (k_j-1)!\dots k_{r-1}!} a_0^{k_0}\dots a_j^{k_j}\dots a_{r-1}^{k_{r-1}} \\ &= \sum_{k_0+2k_1+\dots+rk_{r-1}=n+1} \frac{(k_0+k_1+\dots+k_{r-1})!}{k_0!k_1!\dots k_{r-1}!} a_0^{k_0} a_1^{k_1}\dots a_{r-1}^{k_{r-1}}. \end{split}$$

This completes the proof. \Box

Compare the above proposition with [5, 12, 16].

Let us denote the right hand side of the equation (2.2) by $\rho(n,r)$. Then by Corollary 2.3, if

$$\Lambda^{(r)} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \left| \frac{\rho(n, r)}{\rho(n+1, r)} \right|$$

exists, then $(\Lambda^{(r)})^{-1}$ is the largest among the moduli of the roots of the characteristic polynomial $P_r(X)$, and the radius of convergence R of the Taylor series (2.1) of $f_r(z) = 1/Q_r(z)$ coincides with $\Lambda^{(r)}$. Furthermore, if

$$\lambda^{(r)} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{\rho(n, r)}{\rho(n+1, r)}$$

exists, then $\lambda^{(r)}$ is a root of Q_r as we have seen in Remark 2.4. In other words, we can approximate a root of Q_r with the smallest modulus by using $a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_{r-1}$ together with the combinatorial formula (2.2).

Remark 2.8: The Taylor expansion of the complex function $f_r(z) = 1/Q_r(z)$ in the open disk D(0; R), with R being as above, is given by

$$f_r(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} f_r^{(n)}(0) z^n.$$

Thus, from the expression (2.1) we derive that $f_r^{(n)}(0) = n! V_n^{(r)}$ for all $n \ge 0$.

3. THE BERNOULLI-EULER METHOD FOR HOLOMORPHIC FUNCTIONS

In this section, we show that Bernoulli's method for approximating and finding a root of a polynomial function presented in §2 can be extended to the case of holomorphic functions.

Let Q(z) be a complex function which is holomorphic in a neighbourhood of 0. Let $R_1 > 0$ be the largest positive number such that Q is holomorphic in the open disk $D(0; R_1)$. In order to study the zeros of Q in $D(0; R_1) - \{0\}$, we may only consider the case where Q takes the form

$$Q(z) = 1 - \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} a_j z^{j+1}.$$
(3.1)

Since $Q(0) = 1 \neq 0$, f(z) = 1/Q(z) has a Taylor expansion in a certain disk centred at 0, which is of the form

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} V_n z^n.$$
(3.2)

The identity Q(z)f(z) = 1 implies that we have

$$V_{n+1} = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} a_j V_{n-j}$$

for all $n \ge 0$, where $V_0 = 1$ and $V_{-j} = 0$ and for all $j \ge 1$. Hence, $\{V_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$ is an ∞ -generalized Fibonacci sequence as in (1.2) whose initial values are given by $V_0 = 1$ and $V_{-j} = 0$ for all $j \ge 1$.

Remark 3.1: Conversely, suppose that $\{V_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$ is a sequence as in (1.2) such that $V_0 = 1$ and $V_{-j} = 0$ for all $j \ge 1$. Then, we have

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} V_n z^n = \frac{1}{Q(z)}$$

formally, where Q(z) is given by (3.1).

As a direct generalization of Proposition 2.2, we have the following. **Theorem 3.2**: *Let*

$$Q(z) = 1 - \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} a_j z^{j+1}$$

be a holomorphic function defined in a neighbourhood of the origin with radius of convergence $R_1 > 0$. Consider the sequence $\{V_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$ as in (1.2) whose coefficients and initial values are given by $\{a_j\}_{j\geq 0}$ and $V_0 = 1, V_{-j} = 0$ for all $j \geq 1$, respectively. We suppose that $V_n \neq 0$ for all sufficiently large n and that the radius of convergence R of the series (3.2) satisfies $R < R_1$. Then, we have

$$\liminf_{n \to \infty} \left| \frac{V_n}{V_{n+1}} \right| \le R \le \limsup_{n \to \infty} \left| \frac{V_n}{V_{n+1}} \right|$$

and $R = \min\{|\lambda|; \lambda \text{ is a zero of } Q\}$. In particular, we have $Q(Re^{i\theta}) = 0$ for some $\theta \in [0, 2\pi)$, and $R \leq |\mu|$ for all other zeros μ of Q.

Proof: It is well known that
$$R = \left(\limsup_{n \to \infty} \sqrt[n]{|V_n|}\right)^{-1}$$
 (for example, see [1]). Let L

be an arbitrary real number such that $0 < L < \liminf_{n \to \infty} |V_n/V_{n+1}|$. Then there exists an N

such that $|V_n/V_{n+1}| > L$ for all $n \ge N$. Therefore, $|V_{N+k}| < |V_N|L^{-k}$ for k = 1, 2, 3, ...,and hence $\sqrt[N+k]{|V_{N+k}|} < \sqrt[N+k]{|V_N|L^{-k}} = L^{-1} \sqrt[N+k]{|V_N|L^N}$. This implies that $R^{-1} = L^{-1} \sqrt[N+k]{|V_N|L^N}$.

 $\limsup_{k \to \infty} \sqrt[N+k]{|V_{N+k}|} \le L^{-1}.$ Since L is arbitrary, we conclude that $\liminf_{n \to \infty} |V_n/V_{n+1}| \le R.$

By a similar argument, we can show that $R \leq \lim_{n \to \infty} \sup_{n \to \infty} |V_n/V_{n+1}|$.

For the second part, first note that Q(z) has no zero in the open disk |z| < R, since otherwise the radius of convergence R of f(z) = 1/Q(z) would be strictly smaller than R. Suppose that Q(z) has no zero on the circle |z| = R. Then it has no zero in the open disk $D(0, R + \varepsilon)$ for some $\varepsilon > 0$ (recall that $R < R_1$). It follows that the radius of convergence Rof f(z) = 1/Q(z) is strictly greater than R, which is a contradiction. Therefore, we have $R = \min\{|\lambda|; Q(\lambda) = 0\}$ and we have $Q(Re^{i\theta}) = 0$ for some $\theta \in [0, 2\pi)$. \Box

As an immediate corollary, we have the following.

Corollary 3.3: In the above theorem, if

$$\Lambda = \lim_{n \to \infty} \left| \frac{V_n}{V_{n+1}} \right|$$

exists and $\Lambda < R_1$, then Λ is the smallest among the moduli of the zeros of Q. **Remark 3.4**: Even if we assume that $V_n \neq 0$ for all n, we do not have

$$R = \liminf_{n \to \infty} \left| \frac{V_n}{V_{n+1}} \right| \text{ or } R = \limsup_{n \to \infty} \left| \frac{V_n}{V_{n+1}} \right|$$

in general. For example, set

$$g(z) = 1 + z^{2} + z^{4} + z^{6} + \cdots,$$

$$h(z) = z + z(2z)^{2} + z(2z)^{4} + \cdots = zg(2z),$$

and

$$f(z) = g(z) + h(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} V_n z^n.$$

The radius of convergence of g is equal to 1, while that of h is equal to 1/2. Hence the radius of convergence of f is equal to R = 1/2. However, we have

$$\frac{V_n}{V_{n+1}} = \begin{cases} 2^{-n}, & \text{if } n \text{ is even,} \\ 2^{n-1}, & \text{if } n \text{ is odd.} \end{cases}$$

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Thus we have

$$\limsup_{n \to \infty} \left| \frac{V_n}{V_{n+1}} \right| = +\infty, \quad \liminf_{n \to \infty} \left| \frac{V_n}{V_{n+1}} \right| = 0.$$

So, neither of them gives R in this example.

Remark 3.5: Suppose that

$$\lambda = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{V_n}{V_{n+1}}$$

exists. Then we do not know if λ itself is a zero of Q with the smallest modulus. Compare this with Remark 2.4. In §4 we will give a partial answer to this question.

Remark 3.6: In Corollary 3.3, if $\Lambda \geq R_1$, then Q does not have a zero in the open disk $D(0; R_1)$.

By using Proposition 2.7, we can prove the following combinatorial expression for $\{V_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$.

Proposition 3.7: Let $\{V_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$ be a sequence as in (1.2) whose coefficients and initial values are $\{a_j\}_{j\geq 0}$ and $V_0 = 1$, $V_{-j} = 0$ for all $j \geq 1$, respectively. Then we have

$$V_n = \rho(n, n) = \sum_{k_0 + 2k_1 + \dots + nk_{n-1} = n} \frac{(k_0 + k_1 + \dots + k_{n-1})!}{k_0! k_1! \dots k_{n-1}!} a_0^{k_0} a_1^{k_1} \dots a_{n-1}^{k_{n-1}}$$
(3.3)

for all $n \in \mathbf{Z}$.

By Corollary 3.3, if

$$\Lambda = \lim_{n \to \infty} \left| \frac{\rho(n, n)}{\rho(n + 1, n + 1)} \right|$$

exists and is strictly smaller than R_1 , then Λ is the smallest among the moduli of the zeros of Q. Furthermore, the radius of convergence R of the Taylor series (3.2) of f(z) = 1/Q(z) coincides with Λ . We also have $f^{(n)}(0) = n! V_n^{(r)}$ for all $n \ge 0$ as in Remark 2.8.

4. THE BERNOULLI-EULER METHOD BY APPROXIMATION PROCESS

In this section, we will use the results of $\S2$ in order to approximate a zero of a *holomorphic* function by using r-generalized Fibonacci sequences with r finite. The idea is very similar to that of [3].

Let Q(z) be a complex function which is holomorphic in a neighbourhood of the origin. Let $R_1 > 0$ be the largest positive real number such that Q is holomorphic in the open disk $D(0; R_1)$. As in the previous section, we suppose that its Taylor series expansion takes the form (3.1).

Let $\{V_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$ be an ∞ -generalized Fibonacci sequence as in (1.2) whose coefficients and initial values are $\{a_j\}_{j\geq 0}$ and $V_0 = 1$, $V_{-j} = 0$ for all $j \geq 1$, respectively. Note that V_n exists for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. The following approximation has been established in [3]:

$$V_n = \lim_{r \to \infty} V_n^{(r)} \tag{4.1}$$

for all $n \ge 1$, where for each $r \ge 1$, the sequence $\{V_n^{(r)}\}_{n\ge -r+1}$ is a type (1.1) defined by $V_0^{(r)} = 1$, $V_n^{(r)} = 0$ for $-r+1 \le n \le -1$, and $V_{n+1}^{(r)} = a_0 V_n^{(r)} + \dots + a_{r-1} V_{n-r+1}^{(r)}$ for $n \ge 0$. However, in our case, (4.1) is trivial, since we have $V_n^{(r)} = V_n$ for $r \ge n$.

Our first result of this section is the following.

Theorem 4.1: Let

$$Q(z) = 1 - \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} a_j z^{j+1}$$

be a holomorphic function defined in a neighbourhood of the origin with radius of convergence $R_1 > 0$. Consider the doubly indexed sequence $\{V_n^{(r)}\}_{n \ge -r+1, r \ge 1}$ as above. We suppose the following.

- (1) $V_n^{(r)} \neq 0$ for all sufficiently large n and r.
- (2) For all sufficiently large r,

$$\lambda^{(r)} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{V_n^{(r)}}{V_{n+1}^{(r)}}$$

exists.

(3) $\lambda = \lim_{r \to \infty} \lambda^{(r)}$ exists and we have $|\lambda| < R_1$. Then λ is a zero of Q.

Proof: Set $Q_r(z) = 1 - a_0 z - \dots - a_{r-2} z^{r-1} - a_{r-1} z^r$. By Remark 2.4, we have

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} Q_r \left(\frac{V_n^{(r)}}{V_{n+1}^{(r)}} \right) = Q_r \left(\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{V_n^{(r)}}{V_{n+1}^{(r)}} \right) = Q_r(\lambda^{(r)}) = 0$$

for all sufficiently large r. Set $T_r(z) = Q(z) - Q_r(z)$. Note that for every R'_1 with $0 < R'_1 < R_1$, we have

$$\lim_{r \to \infty} T_r(z) = 0$$

uniformly for $|z| \leq R'_1$. We have

$$Q(\lambda^{(r)}) = \lim_{n \to \infty} Q\left(\frac{V_n^{(r)}}{V_{n+1}^{(r)}}\right) = \lim_{n \to \infty} T_r\left(\frac{V_n^{(r)}}{V_{n+1}^{(r)}}\right) = T_r(\lambda^{(r)})$$

for all sufficiently large r. Hence we have

$$Q(\lambda) = \lim_{r \to \infty} Q(\lambda^{(r)}) = \lim_{r \to \infty} T_r(\lambda^{(r)}) = 0.$$

This completes the proof. \Box

As a corollary, we have the following.

Corollary 4.2: Let

$$Q(z) = 1 - \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} a_j z^{j+1}$$

be a holomorphic function defined in a neighbourhood of the origin with radius of convergence $R_1 > 0$. Consider the doubly indexed sequence $\{V_n^{(r)}\}_{n \ge -r+1, r \ge 1}$ and the sequence $\{V_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$ as above. We suppose the following.

- (1) $V_n^{(r)}, V_n \neq 0$ for all sufficiently large n and r.
- (2) For all sufficiently large r,

$$\lambda^{(r)} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{V_n^{(r)}}{V_{n+1}^{(r)}}$$

exists and converges uniformly with respect to r. (3) $\lambda = \lim_{r \to \infty} \lambda^{(r)}$ exists and we have $|\lambda| < R_1$. Then we have

$$\lambda = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{V_n}{V_{n+1}}$$

and it is a zero of Q.

Proof: By our assumptions, we see that

$$\lim_{n,r\to\infty}\frac{V_n^{(r)}}{V_{n+1}^{(r)}} = \lambda.$$

Then the result follows from (4.1) together with Theorem 4.1.

Example 4.3: Let us consider the example in [3, §7]. We shall use the same notation. In this example, since the coefficients a_i are all strictly positive real numbers, we have $V_n^{(r)} \neq 0$ for all $n \geq 0$ and $r \geq 1$. It has been shown that the sequences $\{V_n^{(r)}/q_r^n\}_{n\geq 1}$ are uniformly convergent for $r \geq 1$ and that

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{V_n^{(r)}}{q_r^n} = 1.$$

Since the sequence $\{q_r\}_{r\geq 1}$ converges to q > 0, the sequences $\{V_n^{(r)}/V_{n+1}^{(r)}\}_{n\geq 1}$ are also uniformly convergent and converge to $q_r^{-1} = p_r$ for $r \geq 1$. Furthermore, we have

$$\lim_{r \to \infty} p_r = p$$

and $0 , where <math>R_1$ is the radius of convergence of Q (in [3, §7], R_1 is written as R). Thus all the assumptions of Corollary 4.2 are satisfied and p is a root of Q.

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