DETERMINANTAL HYPERSURFACES FOR LUCAS SEQUENCES OF ORDER $r$, AND A GENERALIZATION

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1. INTRODUCTION

In Hoggatt and Bicknell [1], the Fibonacci sequence $\{R_n\}$ of order $r (\geq 2)$ was defined by

$$R_{n+r} = R_{n+r-1} + R_{n+r-2} + \cdots + R_n, \; R_1 = 1, \; R_2 = 1,$$

with

$$R_{-(r-2)} = R_{-(r-3)} = \cdots = -R_1 = R_0 = 0.$$  

(1.1)

(1.2)

Using the method of a generating matrix for $\{R_n\}$, they obtained the determinantal identity

$$\begin{vmatrix}
R_{n+r-1} & R_{n+r-2} & \cdots & R_{n+1} & R_n \\
R_{n+r-2} & R_{n+r-3} & \cdots & R_n & R_{n-1} \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\
R_{n+1} & R_n & R_{n-r+3} & R_{n-r+2} \\
R_n & R_{n-1} & R_{n-r+2} & R_{n-r+1}
\end{vmatrix} = (-1)^{n+(n-1)/2}$$

(1.3)

which is an extension of the Simson formula (identity) for the simplest case $r = 2$ for Fibonacci numbers.

Carrying these numbers $R_n$ through to coordinate notation (writing $x_1 = R_n, ~ x_2 = R_{n+1}, ~ x_3 = R_{n+2}, \ldots, ~ x_r = R_{n+r-1}$), the author [4] showed that (1.3) could be interpreted as one or more hypersurfaces in Euclidean space of $r$ dimensions (the number of hypersurface loci depending on $r$). The cases $r = 2, 3, 4$ were delineated in a little detail ([3], [4]).

It is now proposed to extend the results in [3] and [4] to the case of a Lucas sequence $\{S_n\}$ or order $r$, i.e., to construct a determinant analogous to (1.3) and to interpret it geometrically as a locus in $r$-space.

From experience, we should expect the algebraic aspects of $\{S_n\}$ to resemble those of $\{R_n\}$. Nevertheless, there are sufficient variations from the Fibonacci case to make the algebraic maneuvers, which constitute the main part of this article, a challenging and absorbing exercise.

Because of complications associated with the fact that $S_0$ [to be defined in (2.1)] is nonzero, whereas $R_0 = 0$, the method used by Hoggatt and Bicknell [1] for $\{R_n\}$ is not applied here for $\{S_n\}$. However, our method is applicable to $\{R_n\}$, as we shall see, provided we add to the definitions in [1] the injunction $R_{-(r-1)} = 1$.

Schematically, this paper consists of two parts. Part I is organized to secure results for the Lucas sequence which correspond to those for the Fibonacci sequence. On the basis of this knowledge, in Part II we briefly generalize the results for a sequence which contains the Fibonacci and Lucas (and other) sequences as special cases.

1986] 227
DETERMINANTAL HYPERSURFACES FOR LUCAS SEQUENCES OF ORDER \( r \)

PART I

2. LUCAS SEQUENCE OF ORDER \( r \)

Define \( \{S_n\} \), the Lucas sequence of order \( r \) \((\geq 2)\) by

\[
S_{n+r} = S_{n+r-1} + S_{n+r-2} + \cdots + S_n, \quad S_0 = 2, \ S_1 = 1,
\]

(2.1)

with other initial conditions

\[
\begin{align*}
S_{-1} &= S_{-2} = \cdots = S_{-(r-2)} = 0 \\
S_{-(r-1)} &= -1.
\end{align*}
\]

(2.2)

Simplest special cases of \( \{S_n\} \) occur as follows:

\[
\begin{align*}
L_{n+2} &= L_{n+1} + L_n, \quad L_0 = 2, \ L_1 = 1, \ L_{-1} = -1; \\
M_{n+3} &= M_{n+2} + M_{n+1} + M_n, \quad M_0 = 2, \ M_1 = 1, \ M_{-1} = 0, \ M_{-2} = -1; \\
N_{n+4} &= N_{n+3} + N_{n+2} + N_{n+1} + N_n, \quad N_0 = 2, \ N_1 = 1, \\
        & \quad N_{-2} = N_{-1} = 0, \ N_{-3} = -1.
\end{align*}
\]

(2.3)

(2.4)

(2.5)

The first few numbers of these sequences are:

\[
\begin{align*}
&\{L_0 \ L_1 \ L_2 \ L_3 \ L_4 \ L_5 \ L_6 \ L_7 \ L_8 \ L_9 \ L_{10} \ \cdots\} \\
&\{2 \ 1 \ 3 \ 4 \ 7 \ 11 \ 18 \ 29 \ 47 \ 76 \ 123 \ \cdots\} \\
&\{M_0 \ M_1 \ M_2 \ M_3 \ M_4 \ M_5 \ M_6 \ M_7 \ M_8 \ M_9 \ M_{10} \ \cdots\} \\
&\{2 \ 1 \ 3 \ 6 \ 10 \ 19 \ 35 \ 64 \ 118 \ 217 \ 399 \ \cdots\} \\
&\{N_0 \ N_1 \ N_2 \ N_3 \ N_4 \ N_5 \ N_6 \ N_7 \ N_8 \ N_9 \ N_{10} \ \cdots\} \\
&\{2 \ 1 \ 3 \ 6 \ 12 \ 22 \ 43 \ 83 \ 160 \ 308 \ 594 \ \cdots\}
\end{align*}
\]

(2.3)',

(2.4)',

(2.5)'

The determinant of order \( r \) (which we may here call the Lucas determinant of order \( r \), corresponding to that in (1.3) for the Fibonacci sequence of order \( r \)) is

\[
\Delta_r = \begin{vmatrix}
S_{n+r-1} & S_{n+r-2} & \cdots & S_{n+1} & S_n \\
S_{n+r-2} & S_{n+r-3} & \cdots & S_n & S_{n-1} \\
\cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots \\
S_{n+1} & S_n & \cdots & S_{n-r+3} & S_{n-r+2} \\
S_n & S_{n-1} & \cdots & S_{n-r+2} & S_{n-r+1}
\end{vmatrix}
\]

(2.6)

Notice the cyclical nature of the elements in the columns of \( \Delta_r \). Consequently, there is isymmetry about the leading diagonal of \( \Delta_r \). Both of these properties for \( \{S_n\} \) are also features of the Fibonacci sequence \( \{F_n\} \).

Special notation: We use the symbol \( r' \) to mean the operation of subtracting from row \( i \) the sum of all the other rows, in a determinant of arbitrary order. An operation such as \( r' \) may be called a basic operation. Clearly, \( r' \) utilizes the defining recurrence (2.1) with (2.2).
DETERMINANTAL HYPERSURFACES FOR LUCAS SEQUENCES OF ORDER \( r \)

It is now necessary to introduce the concept of a basic Lucas determinant.

3. BASIC LUCAS DETERMINANTS

Let us define the basic Lucas determinant of order \( r \), \( \delta_r \), as

\[
\delta_r = \begin{vmatrix}
S_{r-1} & S_{r-2} & S_{r-3} & \cdots & S_2 & S_1 & S_0 \\
S_{r-2} & S_{r-3} & S_{r-4} & \cdots & S_3 & S_2 & 0 \\
S_{r-3} & S_{r-4} & \cdots & S_4 & S_3 & 0 & 0 \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \ddots \\
S_1 & S_0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\
S_0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & \cdots & -1 \\
\end{vmatrix}
\] (3.1)

All elements in a given upward slanting line are the same, e.g., all the elements in the reverse (upward) diagonal are \( S_0 (= 2) \). Except for the element \((= -1)\) in the bottom right-hand corner, all the elements below the reverse diagonal are zero.

Observe the cyclical nature of elements in the columns, remembering initial conditions (2.2) applying to symbols with negative suffixes.

Of course, (3.1) is only the special case of (2.6) when \( n = 0 \).

Concerning basic Lucas determinants, we now prove the following theorem (a determinantal recurrence relation).

Theorem: \( \delta_r = (-1)^{\lfloor r/2 \rfloor} 2^r + (-1)^{r-1} \delta_{r-1} \). \( (3.2) \)

Proof: Expand \( \delta_r \) in (3.1) along the bottom row to obtain

\[
\delta_r = (-1)^{\lfloor r/2 \rfloor} 2^r - \begin{vmatrix}
2 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & -1 \\
S_{r-2} & S_{r-3} & S_{r-4} & \cdots & S_4 & S_3 \end{vmatrix} \quad (S_1 = 1, S_0 = 2) \]

by \( r' \)

\[
= (-1)^{\lfloor r/2 \rfloor} 2^r - (-1)^{r-2} \delta_{r-1} \quad \text{after } r - 2 \text{ cyclical row interchanges} \]

\[
= (-1)^{\lfloor r/2 \rfloor} 2^r + (-1)^{r-1} \delta_{r-1}. \]

1986] 229
DETERMINANTAL HYFERSURFACES FOR LUCAS SEQUENCES OF ORDER \( r \)

Thus, we have, for \( r \geq 2 \),

\[
[r = 2] \quad \delta_2 = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & -1 \end{vmatrix} = -2^2 - 1 = -5 = -(2^3 - 3) \quad (3.3)
\]

\[
[r = 3] \quad \delta_3 = \begin{vmatrix} 3 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & -1 \end{vmatrix} = -2^3 + \delta_2 = -2^3 - 2^2 - 1 = -13 = -(2^5 - 3) \quad (3.4)
\]

\[
[r = 4] \quad \delta_4 = \begin{vmatrix} 6 & 3 & 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 0 & -1 \end{vmatrix} = 2^4 - \delta_3 = 2^4 + 2^3 + 2^2 + 1 = 29 = \frac{2^6 - 3}{3} \quad (3.5)
\]

\[
[r = 5] \quad \delta_5 = \begin{vmatrix} 12 & 6 & 3 & 1 & 2 \\ 6 & 3 & 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 3 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \end{vmatrix} = 2^5 + \delta_4 = 2^5 + 2^4 + 2^3 + 2^2 + 1 = 61 = \frac{2^7 - 3}{3} \quad (3.6)
\]

\[
[r = 6] \quad \delta_6 = \begin{vmatrix} 24 & 12 & 6 & 3 & 1 & 2 \\ 12 & 6 & 3 & 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 6 & 3 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 3 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \end{vmatrix} = 2^6 - \delta_5 = 2^6 - 2^5 - 2^4 - 2^3 - 2^2 - 1 = -125 = \frac{2^7 - 3}{3} \quad (3.7)
\]

and so on.

The emerging summation pattern by which the \( \delta_r \) may be evaluated is clearly discernible. Notice that the term \( 2^1 \) (i.e., 2) does not occur in any \( \delta_r \) summation.

However, before establishing the value of \( \delta_r \), we display the following tabulated information, for all possible values of \( r \):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>( r/2 )</th>
<th>( r = 4k )</th>
<th>( r = 4k + 1 )</th>
<th>( r = 4k + 2 )</th>
<th>( r = 4k + 3 )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( (r-1) + \left\lfloor \frac{r-1}{2} \right\rfloor )</td>
<td>( 2k ) even</td>
<td>( 2k ) even</td>
<td>( 2k + 1 ) odd</td>
<td>( 2k + 1 ) odd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( 6k - 2 )</td>
<td>( 6k )</td>
<td>( 6k + 1 )</td>
<td>( 6k + 3 )</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From (3.8), we deduce

\[
(-1)^{[r/2]} = (-1)^{r-1 + \left\lfloor (r-1)/2 \right\rfloor} \quad (3.9)
\]

Invoking this result and applying (3.2) repeatedly, we may now calculate the value of \( \delta_r \).

Theorem: \( \delta_r = (-1)^{[r/2]} (2^r + 1 - 3) \).  \quad (3.10)

230
DETERMINANTAL HYPERSURFACES FOR LUCAS SEQUENCES OF ORDER \( r \)

Proof: \( \delta_r = (-1)^{(r/2)}2^r + (-1)^{r-1}\{(r-1)^{(r-1)/2}}2^{r-1} + (-1)^{r-2}\delta_{r-2} \) by (3.2)

\[ = (-1)^{(r/2)}\{2^r + 2^{r-1}\} - \delta_{r-2} \] \hspace{1cm} \text{(a)}

\[ = (-1)^{(r/2)}\{2^r + 2^{r-1}\} - (-1)^{(r-2)/2}\{2^{r-2} + 2^{r-3}\} + \delta_{r-4} \] \hspace{1cm} \text{(a)}

\[ = (-1)^{(r/2)}\{2^r + 2^{r-1} + 2^{r-2} + \ldots + 2^3 + 2^2 + 1\} \] ultimately, by (3.3) or by (3.4)

\[ = (-1)^{(r/2)}\{2^r + 2^{r-1} + 2^{r-2} + \ldots + 2^3 + 2^2 + 2 + 1 - 2\} \]

\[ = (-1)^{(r/2)}\{ \frac{2(1 - 2^n)}{1 - 2} - 1\} \] summing the finite geometric progression

\[ = (-1)^{(r/2)}(2^n - 1 - 3). \]

Checking back shows that the special cases of \( \delta_r \) listed in (3.3)-(3.7) have values in accord with (3.10), as expected.

4. EVALUATION OF LUCAS DETERMINANTS

Next, we show that \([\text{cf. (2.6), (3.1)}]\)

\[ \Delta_r = \pm \delta_r. \]

To illustrate the ideas involved in the proof we shall give for this connection between \( \Delta_r \) and \( \delta_r \), suppose we take \( r = 5, \ n = 3 \), i.e., \( r \) is odd. This implies that we are dealing with the integer sequence

\[ \{S_{-4}, S_{-3}, S_{-2}, S_{-1}, S_1, S_2, S_3, S_4, S_5, S_6, S_7, S_8, \ldots \} = \{1, 0, 0, 2, 1, 3, 6, 12, 24, 46, 91, 179, \ldots \} \]

Perform the basic operations \( r'_1, r'_2, r'_3 \) successively on the determinant \( \Delta_5 \) when \( n = 3 \) to derive:

\[ \begin{bmatrix} 91 & 46 & 24 & 12 & 6 \\ 46 & 24 & 12 & 6 & 3 \\ 24 & 12 & 6 & 3 & 1 \\ 12 & 6 & 3 & 1 & 2 \\ 6 & 3 & 1 & 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 12 & 6 & 3 & 1 & 2 \\ 6 & 3 & 1 & 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \]

\[ \begin{bmatrix} \Delta_5 \\ \delta_5^0 \\ \delta_5^1 \end{bmatrix} \]

\[ \begin{bmatrix} 12 & 6 & 3 & 1 & 2 \\ 6 & 3 & 1 & 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \]

In \( \Delta_5 \), the leading term 91 (\( = S_7 \)) is reduced to the leading term 12 (\( = S_4 \)) by the \( 7 - 4 = 3 \) (\( = n \)) basic operations specified. Because of the cyclical nature of \( \Delta_5 \), these basic operations act to produce a determinant \( \delta_5^* = \Delta_5 \) whose rows are the permutation

\[ \begin{bmatrix} 12 & 6 & 3 & 1 & 2 \\ 6 & 3 & 1 & 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \]

of the rows of \( \delta_5 \). Due to the fact that \( r \) is odd, this cyclic permutation is even. Expressed otherwise, \( \delta_5^* \) is transformed to \( \delta_5 \) by an even number of row interchanges, so the sign associated with \( \delta_5 \) is +, i.e., \( \delta_5^* = \delta_5 \). Hence, \( \Delta_5 = \delta_5 \).
DETERMINANTAL HYPER_SURFACES FOR LUCAS SEQUENCES OF ORDER r

If \( n > 5 \), the cyclic process of basic operations is continued until the basic determinant \( \delta_{r} \) is reached. Obviously, the actual value of \( n \) is irrelevant.

The reasoning inherent in the case \( r = 5 \) applies equally well to the case when \( r \) is arbitrarily odd. Consequently, for \( r \) odd, \( \Delta_{r} = \delta_{r} \) always.

If \( r \) is even, the situation is a little more complicated.

For illustrative purposes, let us examine the case \( r = 4 \). Substituting the numbers in (2.5)' into (2.6) when \( n = 3, 4, 5, 6 \) in turn, we readily calculate that \( \Delta_{4} \) is reduced to the four \( \delta_{4}^{*} \) whose rows are respectively the permutations

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
6 & 3 & 1 & 2 \\
3 & 1 & 2 & 6 \\
6 & 3 & 1 & 2 \\
2 & 6 & 3 & 1 \\
1 & 2 & 6 & 3 \\
\end{bmatrix}
\]

of the rows of \( \delta_{4} \) (and this is true here for \( n = 4k - 1, 4k, 4k + 1, 4k + 2 \), respectively \( k = 1, 2, \ldots \)).

As these permutations are successively odd, even, odd, even, it follows that \( \delta_{4}^{*} = -\delta_{4}^{*} \), \( \delta_{4}^{*} = -\delta_{4}^{*} \), \( \delta_{4}^{*} = \delta_{4}^{*} \) in turn. Thus, \( \Delta_{4} = \pm \delta_{4}^{*} \), depending on \( n \), namely, \( \Delta_{4} = \delta_{4}^{*} \) when \( n \) is even, while \( \Delta_{4} = -\delta_{4}^{*} \) when \( n \) is odd.

Armed with this knowledge, we can now attack the general problem, i.e.,

when \( r \) and \( n \) are arbitrary integers.

First, we establish the following result:

**Theorem:** \( \Delta_{r} = (-1)^{m} \delta_{r} \), where \( m = n'(r - n') \), \( n' \equiv n \) mod \( r \). \hspace{1cm} (4.3)

**Proof:** In (2.6), the leading term \( S_{n+r-1} \) in \( \delta_{r} \) is diminished to the leading term \( S_{r} \) in \( \delta_{r} \) by \( n + r - 1 - (r - 1) = n \) basic operations \( r', r'_1, \ldots, r'_n \) which produce the determinant \( \delta_{r}^{*} \).

Simultaneously, \( S_{r-1} \) drops \( n \) places in the first column of \( \delta_{r}^{*} \).

To restore the cyclical order in the first column of \( \delta_{r}^{*} \) to the basic cyclical order of the first column in \( \delta_{r} \), beginning with \( S_{r-1} \), it is necessary to effect \( n(r - n) \) interchanges of sign to account for the \( r - n \) terms below and including \( S_{r-1} \), and the \( n \) terms above \( S_{r-1} \).

When \( n > r \), we reduce \( n \) mod \( r \).

Each interchange accounts for a change of sign in the value of the determinant.

When \( r \) is odd, the product \( n(r - n) \) is always even, no matter what the value of \( n \) is.

But when \( r \) is even, the product \( n(r - n) \) is odd if \( n \) is odd, and even when \( n \) is even. \hspace{1cm} [That is, when \( r \) is a given odd number there is only one value of \( \Delta_{r} \), whereas for a given even \( r \) there are two values of \( \Delta_{r} \) depending on the value of \( n \).]

Thus,

\( \Delta_{r} = (-1)^{m} \delta_{r} \), where \( m = n'(r - n') \), \( n' \equiv n \) mod \( r \).

Combining (3.10) and (4.3), we have the following theorem as an immediate deduction.

**Theorem:** \( \Delta_{r} = (-1)^{m+[r/2]}(2^{r+1} - 3) \), where \( m = n'(r - n') \), \( n' \equiv n \) mod \( r \). \hspace{1cm} (4.4)

For example,

when \( r = 5 \), \( n = 3 \): \( \Delta_{4} = (-1)^{3+2}(2^{5} - 3) \) from (4.4)

\( = +61 \)
DETERMINANTAL HYPERSURFACES FOR LUCAS SEQUENCES OF ORDER \( r \)

in conformity with (4.2) and (3.6).

On the other hand,

\[
\text{when } r = 5, n = 4: \quad \Delta_4 = (-1)^{1\times 3 + 2}(2^5 - 3) \quad \text{from (4.4)}
\]

\[
= -29
\]

as we have seen in the discussion preceding (4.3).

Applying (4.4) to a random choice \( r = 6, n = 8 \) (but not so random that the computations are unmanageable!), we discover on substitution that

\[
\Delta_6 = (-1)^{2\times 4 + 3}(2^7 - 3) = -125,
\]

as may be verified by direct calculation.

Our result (4.4) for a Lucas sequence of order \( r \) should be compared with the Hoggatt-Bicknell result (1.3) for the corresponding Fibonacci case.

5. HYPERFACES FOR THE LUCAS SEQUENCES

Geometrical interpretations can now be given to the identity (4.4) and its specializations for small values of \( r \). The reader is referred to [3] and [4] for details of the geometry relating to Simson-type identities for Fibonacci sequences of order \( r \).

As this corresponding work for Simson-type identities for Lucas sequences of order \( r \) parallels the results in [3] and [4], we will content ourselves here with a fairly brief statement of the main ideas.

Write \( x_1 = S_n, x_2 = S_{n+1}, \ldots, x_r = S_{n+r-1} \). Represent a point in \( r \)-dimensional Euclidean space by Cartesian coordinates \((x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_r)\).

Then, we interpret (4.4) as the equation of a locus of points in \( r \)-space which has maximum dimension \( r - 1 \) in the containing space. Such a locus is called a hypersurface.

Each of the loci given by the simple linear equations \( x_1 = 0, x_2 = 0, \ldots, x_r = 0 \) is a "flat" (linear) space of dimension \( r - 1 \), and is called a (coordinate) hyperplane.

Hypersurfaces of the simplest kind occur for small values of \( r \). In accord with our theory, there will be one hypersurface when \( r \) is odd, and two when \( r \) is even.

Examples of hypersurfaces for \( \{S_n\} \) are:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{r = 2 (conic):} & \quad x_1^2 + x_1x_2 - x_2^2 = 5(-1)^n & \quad (5.1) \\
\text{r = 3 (cubic surface):} & \quad x_1^3 + 2x_1^2x_3 + x_3^2 + 2x_1^2x_2 + 2x_1x_3^2 + x_1x_3^2 - 2x_2x_3^2 \\
& \quad \text{from Subsection 4.3 of [3].} & \quad (5.2)
\end{align*}
\]

In passing, we note that (5.1) expresses the well-known Simson-type identity for Lucas sequences of order 2, namely,

\[
L_{n+1}L_{n-1} - L_n^2 = 5(-1)^{n+1}. \quad (5.1')
\]

Moreover, the matrix

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
1 & 2 \\
2 & -1
\end{bmatrix}
\]

whose determinant \( \delta_2 \) is associated with identity (5.1)', has several interesting
DETERTNANTAL HYPERSURFACES FOR LUCAS SEQUENCES OF ORDER \( r \)

gEometrical interpretations (relating to: angle-bisection, reflection, vector mapping). (See Hoggatt and Ruggles [2].)

Observe that if we replace \( x_1, x_2, x_3 \) by \( x, y, z \), respectively, in (5.1) and (5.2), we obtain equations whose forms, except for the numbers on the right-hand sides, are identical to those given in [3] and [4]. However, this formal structure camouflages the fact that the corresponding equations of the conics and cubic surfaces, for Fibonacci and Lucas sequences, are satisfied by different sets of numbers.

Carrying further our comparison with the results for Lucas and Fibonacci sequences, we obtain, in the case \( r = 4 \), a nasty equation (refer to [4]) for a quartic hypersurface in four-dimensional Euclidean space. And so on for hypersurfaces in higher dimensions.

Sections of these loci by coordinate hyperplanes yield plane curves of various orders (cubics, quartics, quintics, sexics, and, generally, curves of order \( r \)). Refer here also to [4].

This completes our summarized outline of the geometrical consequences of the determinantal identity (4.4) for Lucas sequences paralleling those for the Fibonacci sequences.

With the notions of Part I in mind, we are in a position to examine closely a more general sequence of order \( r \) which has the Fibonacci and Lucas sequences of order \( r \) as special cases.

**PART II**

Only a brief outline of the ensuing generalization, which parallels the information in Part I, will be given.

**6. A GENERALIZED SEQUENCE OF ORDER \( r \)**

Let us now introduce the generalized sequence \( \{H_n\} \) defined by the recurrence relation

\[
H_{n+r} = H_{n+r-1} + H_{n+r-2} + \cdots + H_n, \quad H_0 = a, \quad H_1 = b,
\]

(6.1)

with further initial conditions

\[
\begin{cases}
H_{-1} = H_{-2} = \cdots = H_{-(r-2)} = 0 \\
H_{-(r-1)} = b - a.
\end{cases}
\]

(6.2)

Interested readers might wish to write out the first few terms of these sequences for different values of \( r \). For example, \( H \) takes on, in turn, the values 5a + 8b, 11a + 13b, 14a + 15b, 15a + 16b, and 16a + 16b for successive values \( r = 2, 3, 4, 5, \) and 6.

As in (2.6), the generalized determinant of order \( r \) is defined to be

\[
D_r = \begin{vmatrix}
H_{n+r-1} & H_{n+r-2} & \cdots & H_{n+1} & H_n \\
H_{n+r-2} & H_{n+r-3} & \cdots & H_n & H_{n-1} \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\
H_{n+1} & H_n & \cdots & H_{n-r+3} & H_{n-r+2} \\
H_n & H_{n-1} & \cdots & H_{n-r+2} & H_{n-r+1}
\end{vmatrix}
\]

(6.3)
DETERMINANTAL HYPERSURFACES FOR LUCAS SEQUENCES OF ORDER $r$

Evaluation of $D_r$ is the object of Part II.

Define, as in (3.1), the basic generalized determinant of order $r$, $d_r$, to be obtained from (6.3) when $n = 0$. That is,

$$d_r = (D_r)_{n=0}.$$  \hspace{1cm} (6.4)

Then, the following simplest basic generalized determinants may be readily calculated by expanding along the bottom row:

$$[r = 2] \quad d_2 = -a^2 + (b - a)b$$ \hspace{1cm} (6.5)

$$[r = 3] \quad d_3 = -a^3 - (b - a)d_2 = -a^3 + (b - a)a^2 - (b - a)^2b$$ \hspace{1cm} (6.6)

$$[r = 4] \quad d_4 = a^4 + (b - a)d_3 = a^4 - (b - a)a^3 + (b - a)^2b^2 - (b - a)^3b$$ \hspace{1cm} (6.7)

$$[r = 5] \quad d_5 = a^5 - (b - a)d_4 = a^5 - (b - a)a^4 + (b - a)^2b^3 - (b - a)^3a^2 + (b - a)^4b$$ \hspace{1cm} (6.8)

$$[r = 6] \quad d_6 = -a^6 + (b - a)d_5 = -a^6 + (b - a)a^5 - (b - a)^2a^4 + (b - a)^3a^3$$

and so on.

A developing pattern is clearly discernible.

Calculation of $d_r$ follows the method employed in (3.2).

Although only an outline of the theory in Part II is being offered, it is generally desirable for clarity of exposition to exhibit the main points of the calculation of $d_r$ in a little detail, even at the risk of some possibly superfluous documentation.

**Theorem:**

$$d_r = (-1)^\lfloor r/2 \rfloor (a^r+1 + (-1)^{r-1}(a + b)(b - a)^r)/b.$$ \hspace{1cm} (6.10)

**Proof:** Expand $d_r$ in (6.3) and (6.4) along the last row to obtain

\[ d_r = (-1)^\lfloor r/2 \rfloor a^r - (b - a)(-1)^{r-1}d_{r-1} \dots \quad \text{(i)} \]

\[ = (-1)^\lfloor r/2 \rfloor [a^r - (b - a)a^{r-1} - (b - a)^2d_{r-2} \quad \text{by (i), (3.9)} \]

\[ = (-1)^\lfloor r/2 \rfloor [a^r - (b - a)a^{r-1} + (b - a)^2a^{r-2} - (b - a)^3a^{r-3} + \ldots]

\[ + (-1)^{r-2}(b - a)a^{r-2} + (-1)^{r-1}(b - a)^r] \]

\[ + (b - a)^r] \]

\[ = (-1)^\lfloor r/2 \rfloor [a^r(1 - (b - a)a^{r-1} + (b - a)^2a^{r-2} - (b - a)^3a^{r-3} + \ldots]

\[ + (-1)^{r-2}(b - a)a^{r-2} + (-1)^{r-1}(b - a)^r] \]

\[ + (b - a)^r] \]

\[ = (-1)^\lfloor r/2 \rfloor \left\{ a^r \left[ 1 - \frac{-(b - a)a^{r-1}}{1 - (b - a)a^{r}} \right] + (-1)^{r-1}(b - a)^r \right\} \]

\[ - (-1)^\lfloor r/2 \rfloor (a^{r+1} + (-1)^{r-1}(a + b)(b - a)^r)/b. \]

Repeated use of (i) has been made in the proof. Also, the summation formula for a finite geometric progression has been invoked.

1986] 235
DETERMINANTAL HYPERSURFACES FOR LUCAS SEQUENCES OF ORDER \( r \)

Applying next the arguments used in the evaluation of the Lucas determinant or order \( r \), \( \Delta_r \), we easily have

**Theorem:** \( D_r = (-1)^m d_r = (-1)^{m + [r/2]} \frac{(a^r + 1)(-1)^{r-1}(a + b)(b - a)}{b} \), \( (6.11) \)

where \( m = n'(r - n') \)

\[ \{n' \equiv n \mod r \} \]

\( (6.14) \)

**Proof:** As for (4.3).

For the Lucas sequence of order \( r \), \( \{S_n\} \),

\[ a = 2, b = 1 \quad (\text{so } a + b = 3, b - a = -1). \]

It is easy to verify that, in this case,

\[ d_r = \delta_r, \quad D_r = \Delta_r. \]

[Cf. (3.10), (4.4).]

Coming now to the case of the Fibonacci sequence of order \( r \), \( \{R_n\} \), we have

\[ a = 0, b = 1 \quad (\text{so } a + b = 1, b - a = 1). \]

It is important to note that, for our theory to be used for \( \{R_n\} \), the terms of \( \{R_n\} \) with negative suffixes have to be extended by one term in the definition (1.1), (1.2) given by Hoggatt and Bicknell [1], namely,

\[ R_{-(r-1)} = 1. \]

(6.12)

Augmenting \( \{R_n\} \) by this single element enables us to construct basic Fibonacci determinants of order \( r \), \( V_r \), for \( \{R_n\} \) derived from (1.3) analogously to those for \( \{S_n\} \) from (2.6). Computation yields

\[ V_2 = 1, \quad V_3 = -1, \quad V_4 = -1, \quad V_5 = 1, \quad V_6 = 1. \]

To give some appreciation of the appearance of the \( V_r \), choose \( r = 6 \), so

\[ V_6 = \begin{bmatrix}
8 & 4 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
4 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
2 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\
\end{bmatrix} \quad (= 1) \]

(6.13)

which is rather simpler than the corresponding form (3.7) for \( \delta_5 \).

Putting \( a = 0, b = 1 \) in (6.10), we have, with the aid of (3.9)

\[ d_r = (-1)^{[r/2]} + r - 1 = (-1)^{[r-1/2]} = V_r. \]

Now it may be shown that \( m + [(r - 1)/2] \), the power of \(-1\) in (6.11), and \( (r - 1)n + [(r - 1)/2] \), the corrected power of \(-1\) in the Hoggatt-Bicknell [1] evaluation in (1.3), are both even or both odd. That is

\[ (-1)^m + [r/2] = (-1)^{(r-1)n + (r-1)/2}. \]

(6.14)
DETERMINANTAL HYPERSURFACES FOR LUCAS SEQUENCES OF ORDER \( a \)

Thus, \( a = 0, b = 1 \) in (6.11) with (3.9) give
\[
D_r = (-1)^n + [(r-1)/2] = (-1)^{(r-1)n + [(r-1)/2]} = \nabla_r,
\]
where \( \nabla_r \) is the symbol to represent the Hoggatt-Bicknell determinant (1.3).

Suppose we check for \( \{R_n\} \) when \( r = 6, n = 3 \), i.e., we are dealing with the sequence
\[
\begin{pmatrix}
R_5 & R_4 & R_3 & R_2 & R_1 & R_0 \\
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0
\end{pmatrix}
\]

Then
\[
(n = 3): \quad D_6 = (-1)^{3\times 3} + 2 = -1 \quad \text{by (6.11), (3.9)}
\]
\[
= (-1)^{5\times 3} + 2 = -1 \quad \text{by (1.3)}
\]
\[
= -\nabla_6 = -1 \quad \text{on direct calculation.}
\]

Geometrical considerations similar to those in [4] and in Part I of this article are now applicable to the general case of \( \{R_n\} \) when \( a \) and \( b \) are unspecified, and also to the multifarious special cases of \( \{R_n\} \) occurring when \( a \) and \( b \) are given particular values.

But we do not proceed \( \textit{ad infinitum, ad nauseam} \) by discussing other classes of sequences. Unsatisfied readers, if such there be, may indulge to surfet in such an algebraic geometry orgy.

One further generalization might be contemplated if, in (6.1), we were to associate with each \( R_{n+r-1} \) (\( j = 1, 2, \ldots, r \)) a nonzero, nonunity factor \( p_j \). However, the algebra involved makes this a daunting prospect.

REFERENCES*


*To the list of references, we take the liberty of adding the monumental text [5] by Room, though its subject is determinantal loci in projective, not Euclidean, spaces.

1986] 237