

THE JOINT DISTRIBUTION OF GREEDY AND LAZY FIBONACCI EXPANSIONS

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1. INTRODUCTION

Every non-negative integer n has at least one digital expansion

$$n = \sum_{k \geq 2} \epsilon_k F_k,$$

with digits $\epsilon_k \in \{0, 1\}$. The maximal expansion with respect to the lexicographic order on $(\dots, \epsilon_4, \epsilon_3, \epsilon_2)$ is the *Zeckendorf expansion* or, more generally, the *greedy expansion*, which has been studied by Zeckendorf [7] and many others. (Lexicographic order means $(\dots, \epsilon_3, \epsilon_2) < (\dots, \epsilon'_3, \epsilon'_2)$ if $\epsilon_k < \epsilon'_k$ for some $k \geq 2$ and $\epsilon_j \leq \epsilon'_j$ for all $j \geq k$.) The minimal expansion with respect to this order is the less known *lazy expansion*, which was introduced by Erdős and Joó [4] (for q -ary expansions of 1, $1 < q < 2$). For example, 100 has greedy expansion $100 = 89 + 8 + 3 = F_{11} + F_6 + F_4$ and lazy expansion $100 = 55 + 21 + 13 + 5 + 3 + 2 + 1 = F_{10} + F_8 + F_7 + F_5 + F_4 + F_3 + F_2$. Denote the digits of the greedy expansion by $\epsilon_k^g(n)$ and those of the lazy expansion by $\epsilon_k^\ell(n)$.

The aim of this work is to study the structure of the possible digit sequences in order to obtain distributional results for the *sum-of-digits functions*

$$s_g(n) = \sum_{k \geq 2} \epsilon_k^g(n) \quad \text{and} \quad s_\ell(n) = \sum_{k \geq 2} \epsilon_k^\ell(n).$$

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2. RESULTS

It is well known that Zeckendorf expansions have no two subsequent ones (because the pattern $(0, 1, 1)$ could be replaced by $(1, 0, 0)$) and that every finite sequence with no two subsequent ones is a Zeckendorf expansion of some integer (see Zeckendorf [7]). Symmetrically, lazy expansions have no two subsequent zeros preceded by a one, because $(1, 0, 0)$ could be replaced by $(0, 1, 1)$, and it is not difficult to see that every such sequence is the lazy expansion of some integer (see Lemma 1).

For $s_g(n)$, Grabner and Tichy [5] proved (in the context of digital expansion related to linear recurrences) that its mean value is given by

$$\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n < N} s_g(n) = \frac{1}{\alpha^2 + 1} \log_\alpha N + f_1(\log_\alpha N) + \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{\log N}{N}\right),$$

where f_1 is periodic with period 1, continuous and nowhere differentiable and α denotes the golden number $\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}$. For the variance, Dumont and Thomas [2] obtained (in the more general context of numeration systems associated with primitive substitutions on finite alphabets)

$$\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n < N} \left(s_g(n) - \frac{1}{\alpha^2 + 1} \log_\alpha N \right)^2 = \frac{1}{5\sqrt{5}} \log_\alpha N + f_2(\log_\alpha N) \log_\alpha N + o(1),$$

where f_2 is again periodic with period 1, continuous and nowhere differentiable. In [3], they showed that the distribution is asymptotically normal, i.e.

$$\frac{1}{N} \# \left\{ n < N \left| \frac{s_g(n) - \frac{1}{\alpha^2 + 1} \log_\alpha N}{5^{-3/4} \sqrt{\log_\alpha N}} < x \right. \right\} \rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^x e^{-t^2/2} dt.$$

This is also a special case of a result of Drmota and Steiner [1], where generalizations of the sum-of-digits functions are studied.

The distribution of $s_\ell(n)$ has not been studied yet, but it is easy to replace the greedy expansions in [1] by lazy expansions and to obtain similar asymptotics (with expected value $\frac{\alpha^2}{\alpha^2+1} \log_\alpha N$). Instead of doing this, we will directly prove the following central limit theorem for the joint distribution of $s_g(n)$ and $s_\ell(n)$.

Theorem 1. *We have, as $N \rightarrow \infty$,*

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{N} \# \left\{ n < N \left| \frac{s_g(n) - \mu_g \log_\alpha N}{\sigma \sqrt{\log_\alpha N}} < x_g, \frac{s_\ell(n) - \mu_\ell \log_\alpha N}{\sigma \sqrt{\log_\alpha N}} < x_\ell \right. \right\} \\ \rightarrow \frac{1}{2\pi \sqrt{1 - C^2}} \int_{-\infty}^{x_\ell} \int_{-\infty}^{x_g} e^{-\frac{1}{2(1-C^2)}(t_g^2 + t_\ell^2 - 2Ct_g t_\ell)} dt_g dt_\ell \end{aligned}$$

with $\alpha = \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}$, $\mu_g = \frac{1}{\alpha^2+1}$, $\mu_\ell = \frac{\alpha^2}{\alpha^2+1}$, $\sigma = 5^{-3/4}$ and $C = 9 - 5\alpha \approx 0.90983$.

This means that the two sum-of-digits functions are strongly correlated. If one of them is large for some n , the probability of the other one to be large is very high. (The distribution is the Gaussian distribution with covariance matrix $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & C \\ C & 1 \end{pmatrix}$.)

Similarly to [1], corresponding results can be proved for F -additive functions, for sequences of primes and for polynomial sequences $P(n)$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$, or $P(p)$, $p \in \mathbb{P}$.

3. PROOFS

First we prove the characterization of lazy expansions given in Section 2.

Lemma 1. *The lazy expansions are exactly those sequences $(\epsilon_k)_{k \geq 2} \in \{0, 1\}^{\mathbb{N}}$ with $(\epsilon_k, \epsilon_{k-1}, \epsilon_{k-2}) \neq (1, 0, 0)$ for all $k \geq 4$ and only a finite number of $\epsilon_k = 1$.*

Proof. As already noted, the pattern $(1, 0, 0)$ does not occur because it could be replaced by $(0, 1, 1)$ and it suffices therefore to show that no two such sequences represent the same number. For an integer $n \in \{F_k - 1, F_k, \dots, F_{k+1} - 2\}$, we must have $\epsilon_j^\ell(n) = 0$ for all $j \geq k$ since $\epsilon_j^\ell(n) = 1$ implies

$$\sum_{i=2}^j \epsilon_i^\ell(n) F_i \geq F_j + F_{j-2} + F_{j-4} + \dots = F_{j+1} - 1.$$

On the other hand, we have $\epsilon_{k-1}^\ell(n) = 1$ since the sum over all F_j , $2 \leq j \leq k-2$, is

$$\sum_{j=2}^{k-2} F_j = (F_{k-2} + F_{k-4} + \dots) + (F_{k-3} + F_{k-5} + \dots) = F_{k-1} - 1 + F_{k-2} - 1 = F_k - 2$$

and hence too small. The number of possible expansions with these properties is easily seen to be F_{k-1} (by induction on k), thus equal to $\#\{F_k - 1, F_k, \dots, F_{k+1} - 2\}$, and the lemma is proved.

In order to study the joint structure of the greedy and lazy digits, we show that

$$D_k(n) = \sum_{j=2}^{k-1} (\epsilon_j^\ell(n) - \epsilon_j^g(n)) F_j = \sum_{j=k}^{\infty} (\epsilon_j^g(n) - \epsilon_j^\ell(n)) F_j$$

can only take three values.

Lemma 2. *$D_k(n)$, $k \geq 3$, can only take the values 0, F_k and F_{k-1} .*

Proof. We show that

$$\sum_{j \geq 3} (\epsilon'_j - \epsilon''_j) F_k = \sum_{j \geq 2} \epsilon_j F_j \tag{1}$$

with $\epsilon_j, \epsilon'_j, \epsilon''_j \in \{0, 1\}$ implies

$$\sum_{j \geq 3} (\epsilon'_j - \epsilon''_j) F_{j+i} = \sum_{j \geq 2} \epsilon_j F_{j+i} - \delta F_i \quad (2)$$

for all $i > 0$ with $\delta \in \{0, 1\}$. It suffices to prove (2) for $i = 1$. Then the general equation follows then by induction on i with $F_{j+i} = F_{j+i-1} + F_{j+i-2}$.

Since F_j is given by $F_j = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \alpha^j - \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \left(-\frac{1}{\alpha}\right)^j$, we obtain

$$F_{j+1} - \alpha F_j = \frac{1}{\alpha \sqrt{5}} \left(-\frac{1}{\alpha}\right)^j + \frac{\alpha}{\sqrt{5}} \left(-\frac{1}{\alpha}\right)^j = \left(-\frac{1}{\alpha}\right)^j.$$

Hence “(2) $- \alpha \times$ (1)” with $i = 1$ yields

$$-\delta = \sum_{j \geq 3} (\epsilon'_j - \epsilon''_j - \epsilon_j) \left(-\frac{1}{\alpha}\right)^j - \epsilon_2 \frac{1}{\alpha^2}$$

and δ is bounded by

$$-\delta < \frac{2}{\alpha^3} + \frac{1}{\alpha^4} + \frac{2}{\alpha^5} + \frac{1}{\alpha^6} + \dots = \left(\frac{2}{\alpha^3} + \frac{1}{\alpha^4}\right) \frac{1}{1 - \alpha^{-2}} = \frac{1}{\alpha} \alpha = 1.$$

Since δ is an integer, we have thus $\delta \geq 0$. For the lower bound, we get

$$-\delta > -\frac{1}{\alpha^2} - \frac{1}{\alpha^3} - \frac{2}{\alpha^4} - \frac{1}{\alpha^5} - \frac{2}{\alpha^6} - \dots = -\left(\frac{2}{\alpha^2} + \frac{1}{\alpha^3}\right) \alpha + \frac{1}{\alpha^2} = -\alpha + \frac{1}{\alpha^2} = -1 - \frac{1}{\alpha^3}.$$

Hence $\delta \in \{0, 1\}$ and (2) is proved. If either $\epsilon_2 = 0$ or $\epsilon_j = 0$ for all $j \geq 4$, then we obtain $-\delta > -1$ and thus $\delta = 0$.

Clearly we have

$$\left| \sum_{j \geq k} (\epsilon_j^g(n) - \epsilon_j^\ell(n)) F_{j-k+3} \right| = \sum_{j \geq 2} \epsilon_j F_j$$

for some $\epsilon_j \in \{0, 1\}$, since the term on the left side is a non-negative integer. By (2), we get

$$|D_k(n)| = \left| \sum_{j \geq k} (\epsilon_j^g(n) - \epsilon_j^\ell(n)) F_j \right| = \sum_{j \geq 2} \epsilon_j F_{j+k-3} - \delta F_{k-3}$$

for all $k \geq 4$. Since $D_k(n)$ is bounded by

$$|D_k(n)| \leq \sum_{j=2}^{k-1} F_j = F_{k+1} - 2,$$

ϵ_j must be zero for all $j \geq 5$ and, if $\epsilon_2 = 1$, for $j \geq 4$. Hence we have $\delta = 0$, ϵ_j must be zero for all $j \geq 4$ and the only possible values for $|D_k(n)|$ are 0, F_k and F_{k-1} .

Since greedy expansions have no two subsequent ones and lazy expansions have no two subsequent zeros (in the range of its ones), we have, for $k \geq 4$,

$$D_k(n) \geq (F_{k-2} + F_{k-4} + \dots) - (F_{k-1} + F_{k-3} + \dots) = (F_{k-1} - 1) - (F_k - 1) = -F_{k-2}$$

and thus $D_k(n) \geq 0$ if $\epsilon_j^\ell(n) = 1$ for some $j \geq k$. Otherwise we have $\sum_{j=2}^{k-1} \epsilon_j^\ell(n) F_j = n$. Hence $D_k(n)$ is non-negative for $k \geq 4$. Clearly $|D_3(n)| \in \{0, 1\}$ and $D_3(n) = D_4(n) - 2(\epsilon_3^\ell(n) - \epsilon_3^g(n))$. Because of $D_4(n) \in \{0, 2, 3\}$, $D_3(n)$ is non-negative and the lemma is proved.

Remark. δ in (2) can be 1, e.g. $F_3 + F_5 - F_4 = F_4 + F_2$ and $F_4 + F_6 - F_5 = F_5 + F_3 - 1$. This is due to $2F_k = F_{k+1} + F_{k-2}$, but for $k = 3$ we also have $2F_3 = F_4 + F_2$.

Lemma 3. *For $F_K \leq n \leq F_{K+1} - 2$, the digits $\epsilon_k^g(n), \epsilon_k^\ell(n)$ have the following properties:*

1. $\epsilon_k^g = 0$ for all $k > K$, $\epsilon_K^g = 1$, $\epsilon_{K-1}^g = 0$
2. $\epsilon_k^\ell = 0$ for all $k \geq K$, $\epsilon_{K-1}^\ell = 1$
3. $(\epsilon_k^g, \epsilon_k^\ell) = (1, 0)$ implies $(\epsilon_{k-1}^g, \epsilon_{k-1}^\ell) = (0, 1)$.
4. If $(\epsilon_{k+1}^g, \epsilon_{k+1}^\ell) \neq (0, 1)$, then $(\epsilon_k^g, \epsilon_k^\ell) = (0, 1)$ implies $(\epsilon_{k-1}^g, \epsilon_{k-1}^\ell) = (0, 1)$ with probability $\frac{F_{k-3}+1}{F_k-1}$ and $(\epsilon_{k-1}^g, \epsilon_{k-1}^\ell) = (0, 0)$, $(\epsilon_{k-1}^g, \epsilon_{k-1}^\ell) = (1, 1)$ with probabilities $\frac{F_{k-2}-1}{F_k-1}$.
5. If $(\epsilon_{k+1}^g, \epsilon_{k+1}^\ell) = (0, 1)$, then $(\epsilon_k^g, \epsilon_k^\ell) = (0, 1)$ implies $(\epsilon_{k-1}^g, \epsilon_{k-1}^\ell) = (1, 0)$ with probability $\frac{F_{k-2}-1}{F_{k-2}+1}$ and $(\epsilon_{k-1}^g, \epsilon_{k-1}^\ell) = (0, 0)$, $(\epsilon_{k-1}^g, \epsilon_{k-1}^\ell) = (1, 1)$ with probabilities $\frac{1}{F_{k-2}+1}$. In the latter cases, the $(\epsilon_j^g, \epsilon_j^\ell)$ are alternately $(0, 0)$ and $(1, 1)$ for $j < k$.
6. $(\epsilon_k^g, \epsilon_k^\ell) = (1, 1)$ resp. $(\epsilon_k^g, \epsilon_k^\ell) = (0, 0)$ imply $(\epsilon_{k-1}^g, \epsilon_{k-1}^\ell) = (0, 1)$, if the digits are not determined by 4. and $k < K$.

Proof. 1. is obvious and 2. follows from the proof of Lemma 1. Furthermore, these n are the only integers with these properties (and their number is $F_{K-1} - 1$).

3. follows directly from the properties of greedy and lazy expansions. For the other properties, we use Lemma 2 and $D_{k-1} = D_k + (\epsilon_k^g - \epsilon_k^\ell)F_k$.

In 5., we must have $D_{k+2} = F_{k+2}$, $D_{k+1} = F_k$ and $D_k = 0$. Hence $(\epsilon_{k-1}^g, \epsilon_{k-1}^\ell)$ cannot be $(0, 1)$. Furthermore, $(\epsilon_{k-1}^g, \epsilon_{k-1}^\ell) = (0, 0)$ implies $D_{k-1} = 0$ and $\epsilon_{k-2}^\ell = 1$.

Thus $\epsilon_{k-2}^g = 1$. Similarly $(\epsilon_{k-1}^g, \epsilon_{k-1}^\ell) = (1, 1)$ implies $(\epsilon_{k-2}^g, \epsilon_{k-2}^\ell) = (0, 0)$. Inductively, we get the alternating sequence, i.e. only one possibility for the last digits. For $(\epsilon_{k-1}^g, \epsilon_{k-1}^\ell) = (1, 0)$, the situation is similar to that of $k-1 = K$ and we have therefore $F_{k-2} - 1$ possibilities. This gives the stated probabilities.

In 4., we must have $D_{k+1} = F_{k+1}$ and $D_k = F_{k-1}$. Then we have $F_{k-3} + 1$ possibilities for $(\epsilon_{k-1}^g, \epsilon_{k-1}^\ell) = (0, 1)$ (see 5.). $(\epsilon_{k-1}^g, \epsilon_{k-1}^\ell) = (1, 1)$ and $(\epsilon_{k-1}^g, \epsilon_{k-1}^\ell) = (0, 0)$ imply, with $D_{k-1} = F_{k-1}$, $(\epsilon_{k-2}^g, \epsilon_{k-2}^\ell) = (0, 1)$ and hence $F_{k-2} - 1$ possibilities. This also proves 6.

Remark. For $n = F_{K+1} - 1$, the unique digital expansion is given by $\epsilon_{K-2j} = 1$ for all $j \leq K/2 - 1$ and $\epsilon_{K-1-2j} = 0$ for all $j < K/2 - 1$. Note that for these n , $s_g(n)$ is as large as possible whereas $s_\ell(n)$ is as small as possible (in the “neighbourhood” of n) while, for “typical” n , large $s_g(n)$ entails large $s_\ell(n)$.

Lemma 3 shows that we get simple transition probabilities from ϵ_k to ϵ_{k-1} if we exclude those n whose digital expansions terminate by alternating $(1, 1)$'s and $(0, 0)$'s. Thus define the sets

$$\mathcal{S}_{J,K} = \{n \in \{F_K, \dots, F_{K+1} - 1\} \mid (\epsilon_k^g(n), \epsilon_k^\ell(n)) \notin \{(0, 0), (1, 1)\} \text{ for some } k \leq J\}$$

for $K \geq J + 3$. The number of excluded n is

$$\#\left(\{F_K, F_K + 1, \dots, F_{K+1} - 2\} \setminus \mathcal{S}_{J,K}\right) = F_{K-J+1}.$$

(In case $(\epsilon_J^g, \epsilon_J^\ell) = (0, 0)$, we have F_{K-J} possibilities for $\epsilon_{J+1}^g, \dots, \epsilon_{K-2}^g$, and in case $(\epsilon_J^g, \epsilon_J^\ell) = (1, 1)$, we have F_{K-J-1} possibilities for $\epsilon_{J+2}^g, \dots, \epsilon_{K-2}^g$.)

Define a sequence of random vectors $(X_{k,J,K})_{k \geq 2}$ by

$$\Pr[X_{k,J,K} = (b^g, b^\ell)] = \frac{1}{\#\mathcal{S}_{J,K}} \#\{n \in \mathcal{S}_{J,K} \mid \epsilon_k^g(n) = b^g, \epsilon_k^\ell(n) = b^\ell\}.$$

Lemma 3 shows that this is a Markov chain, i.e.

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[X_{k-1,J,K} = (b_{k-1}^g, b_{k-1}^\ell) \mid X_{k,J,K} = (b_k^g, b_k^\ell), X_{k+1,J,K} = (b_{k+1}^g, b_{k+1}^\ell), \dots] \\ = \Pr[X_{k-1,J,K} = (b_{k-1}^g, b_{k-1}^\ell) \mid X_{k,J,K} = (b_k^g, b_k^\ell)], \end{aligned}$$

if we make a distinction between $X_{k+1,J,K} = (0, 1)$ and $X_{k+1,J,K} \neq (0, 1)$ in case $X_{k,J,K} = (0, 1)$ (otherwise we had a Markov chain of order 2), say $X_{k,J,K} = (0, 1)^1$ if $X_{k,J,K} = (0, 1) \neq X_{k+1,J,K}$ and $X_{k,J,K} = (0, 1)^2$ if $X_{k,J,K} = (0, 1) = X_{k+1,J,K}$.

The transition matrix $P_{k,J}$ defined by

$$\begin{pmatrix} \Pr[X_{k-1,J,K} = (0,0)] \\ \Pr[X_{k-1,J,K} = (0,1)^1] \\ \Pr[X_{k-1,J,K} = (0,1)^2] \\ \Pr[X_{k-1,J,K} = (1,0)] \\ \Pr[X_{k-1,J,K} = (1,1)] \end{pmatrix} = P_{k,J} \begin{pmatrix} \Pr[X_{k,J,K} = (0,0)] \\ \Pr[X_{k,J,K} = (0,1)^1] \\ \Pr[X_{k,J,K} = (0,1)^2] \\ \Pr[X_{k,J,K} = (1,0)] \\ \Pr[X_{k,J,K} = (1,1)] \end{pmatrix}$$

is, for $k \geq J + 3$,

$$P_{k,J} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \frac{F_{k-2}-F_{k-J}}{F_k-F_{k-J+2}} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & \frac{F_{k-3}-F_{k-J-1}}{F_k-F_{k-J+2}} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{F_{k-2}-F_{k-J}}{F_k-F_{k-J+2}} & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \frac{1}{\alpha^2} + \mathcal{O}(\alpha^{-k}) & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{\alpha^3} + \mathcal{O}(\alpha^{-k}) & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{\alpha^2} + \mathcal{O}(\alpha^{-k}) & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix},$$

i.e. the Markov chain is almost homogeneous. Denote the limit of this matrix for $k \rightarrow \infty$ by P . Its eigenvalues are $1, -\frac{1}{\alpha}, -\frac{1}{\alpha^2}$ and 0 . Thus the probability distribution is almost stationary with

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[X_{k,J,K} = (0,0)] &= \frac{1}{\alpha(\alpha^2 + 1)} + \mathcal{O}(\alpha^{-\min(k,K-k)}) \\ \Pr[X_{k,J,K} = (0,1)^1] &= \frac{\alpha}{\alpha^2 + 1} + \mathcal{O}(\alpha^{-\min(k,K-k)}) \\ \Pr[X_{k,J,K} = (0,1)^2] &= \frac{1}{\alpha^2(\alpha^2 + 1)} + \mathcal{O}(\alpha^{-\min(k,K-k)}) \\ \Pr[X_{k,J,K} = (1,0)] &= \frac{1}{\alpha^2(\alpha^2 + 1)} + \mathcal{O}(\alpha^{-\min(k,K-k)}) \\ \Pr[X_{k,J,K} = (1,1)] &= \frac{1}{\alpha(\alpha^2 + 1)} + \mathcal{O}(\alpha^{-\min(k,K-k)}) \end{aligned}$$

for $J < k < K$.

For a given $N = \sum_{k=2}^L \epsilon_k^g(N) F_k$ with $\epsilon_L^g(N) = 1$ (i.e. $L \approx \log_\alpha N$), define

$$\mathcal{S}_N = \bigcup_{k=L-[L^\eta]}^L \bigcup_{K=L-[L^\eta]}^{k-1} \left(\mathcal{S}_{[L^\eta],K} + \sum_{j=k+1}^L \epsilon_j^g(N) F_j \right)$$

and a sequence of random vectors $(Y_{k,N})_{k \geq 2}$ by

$$\Pr[Y_{k,N} = (b^g, b^\ell)] = \frac{1}{\#\mathcal{S}_N} \#\{n \in \mathcal{S}_N \mid \epsilon_k^g(n) = b^g, \epsilon_k^\ell(n) = b^\ell\}.$$

This sequence is close to what we need because of

$$\#(\{0, \dots, N-1\} \setminus \mathcal{S}_N) = \mathcal{O}(L^\eta F_{L-[L^\eta]} + L^{2\eta} F_{L-2[L^\eta]}) = \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{(\log N)^\eta N}{\alpha^{(\log_\alpha N)^\eta}}\right) \quad (3)$$

and, for $[L^\eta] \leq k \leq [L - L^\eta]$, the $Y_{k,N}$ are a Markov chain with transition matrices $P_{k,[L^\eta]}$. For $[L^\eta] \leq k \leq L - 2[L^\eta]$, the distribution of $Y_{k,N}$ is thus almost stationary with the probabilities of $X_{k,J,K}$ and error terms $\mathcal{O}(\alpha^{-L^\eta})$.

Lemma 4. *The $Y_{k,N} = (Y_{k,N}^g, Y_{k,N}^\ell)$ satisfy a central limit theorem for $L^\eta \leq k \leq L - 2L^\eta$.*

More precisely, we have, for all $a_g, a_\ell \in \mathbb{R}$, as $N \rightarrow \infty$,

$$\sum_{k=[L^\eta]}^{L-2[L^\eta]} \frac{a_g(Y_{k,N}^g - \mu_g) + a_\ell(Y_{k,N}^\ell - \mu_\ell)}{\sigma\sqrt{L}} \Rightarrow \mathcal{N}(0, a_g^2 + a_\ell^2 + 2a_g a_\ell C),$$

where $\mathcal{N}(M, V)$ denotes the normal law with mean value M and variance V .

Proof. For the mean value, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{E} Y_{k,N}^g &= \mathbf{Pr}[Y_{k,N}^g = (1, 0)] + \mathbf{Pr}[Y_{k,N}^g = (1, 1)] \\ &= \frac{1}{\alpha^2(\alpha^2 + 1)} + \frac{1}{\alpha(\alpha^2 + 1)} + \mathcal{O}(\alpha^{-L^\eta}) = \mu_g + \mathcal{O}(\alpha^{-L^\eta}) \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\mathbf{E} Y_{k,N}^\ell = \mu_\ell + \mathcal{O}(\alpha^{-L^\eta}).$$

Hence the mean value of the sum converges to zero. The variance is given by

$$\begin{aligned} &\mathbf{Var} \left(\sum_{k=[L^\eta]}^{L-2[L^\eta]} a_g(Y_{k,N}^g - \mu_g) + a_\ell(Y_{k,N}^\ell - \mu_\ell) \right) \\ &= \mathbf{Var} \sum_{k=[L^\eta]}^{L-2[L^\eta]} a_g Y_{k,N}^g + \mathbf{Var} \sum_{k=[L^\eta]}^{L-2[L^\eta]} a_\ell Y_{k,N}^\ell + 2 \mathbf{Cov} \left(\sum_{k=[L^\eta]}^{L-2[L^\eta]} a_g Y_{k,N}^g, \sum_{k=[L^\eta]}^{L-2[L^\eta]} a_\ell Y_{k,N}^\ell \right) \\ &= L\sigma^2(a_g^2 + a_\ell^2) + \mathcal{O}(L^\eta) + 2a_g a_\ell \sum_{k=[L^\eta]}^{L-2[L^\eta]} \sum_{j=[L^\eta]-k}^{L-2[L^\eta]-k} \mathbf{Cov}(Y_{k,N}^g, Y_{k+j,N}^\ell). \end{aligned}$$

(The calculation of the variance of $\sum Y_{k,N}^g$ and $\sum Y_{k,N}^\ell$ is similar to that in [1] and to that of the covariance hereafter.) The covariance is given by

$$\mathbf{Cov}(Y_{k,N}^g, Y_{k+j,N}^\ell) = \mathbf{Pr}[Y_{k,N}^g = 1, Y_{k+j,N}^\ell = 1] - \mathbf{Pr}[Y_{k,N}^g = 1] \mathbf{Pr}[Y_{k+j,N}^\ell = 1].$$

For $j = 0$, we obtain, with $(\alpha^2 + 1)^2 = 5\alpha^2$,

$$\mathbf{Cov}(Y_{k,N}^g, Y_{k,N}^\ell) = \frac{1}{\alpha(\alpha^2 + 1)} - \frac{\alpha^2}{(\alpha^2 + 1)^2} + \mathcal{O}(\alpha^{-L^\eta}) = -\frac{1}{5\alpha^4} + \mathcal{O}(\alpha^{-L^\eta}).$$

The approximated transition matrix has the form $P = QDQ^{-1}$

$$\begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\alpha(\alpha^2+1)} & 1 & -\frac{\alpha^3}{\alpha^2+1} & 1 & 1 \\ \frac{\alpha}{\alpha^2+1} & -\alpha & \frac{\alpha^3}{\alpha^2+1} & 0 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{\alpha^2(\alpha^2+1)} & \frac{1}{\alpha} & -\frac{\alpha^2}{\alpha^2+1} & 0 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{\alpha^2(\alpha^2+1)} & -1 & \frac{\alpha^4}{\alpha^2+1} & -1 & -2 \\ \frac{1}{\alpha(\alpha^2+1)} & 1 & -\frac{\alpha^3}{\alpha^2+1} & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -\frac{1}{\alpha} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -\frac{1}{\alpha^2} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -\frac{1}{\alpha} & -\alpha & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -\frac{1}{\alpha^2} & -\alpha^2 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & -\alpha & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

and the transition matrix of order j ($P^j = QD^jQ^{-1}$) is given by

$$P^j = \frac{1}{\alpha^2 + 1} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\alpha} & \frac{1}{\alpha} & \frac{1}{\alpha} & \frac{1}{\alpha} & \frac{1}{\alpha} \\ \alpha & \alpha & \alpha & \alpha & \alpha \\ \frac{1}{\alpha^2} & \frac{1}{\alpha^2} & \frac{1}{\alpha^2} & \frac{1}{\alpha^2} & \frac{1}{\alpha^2} \\ \frac{1}{\alpha^2} & \frac{1}{\alpha^2} & \frac{1}{\alpha^2} & \frac{1}{\alpha^2} & \frac{1}{\alpha^2} \\ \frac{1}{\alpha} & \frac{1}{\alpha} & \frac{1}{\alpha} & \frac{1}{\alpha} & \frac{1}{\alpha} \end{pmatrix} + \left(-\frac{1}{\alpha}\right)^j \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -\frac{1}{\alpha} & 1 & -\alpha & 1 \\ -\alpha & 1 & -\alpha & \alpha^2 & -\alpha \\ \frac{1}{\alpha} & -\frac{1}{\alpha^2} & \frac{1}{\alpha} & -1 & \frac{1}{\alpha} \\ -1 & \frac{1}{\alpha} & -1 & \alpha & -1 \\ 1 & -\frac{1}{\alpha} & 1 & -\alpha & 1 \end{pmatrix} \\ + \frac{1}{\alpha^2 + 1} \left(-\frac{1}{\alpha^2}\right)^j \begin{pmatrix} -\alpha^3 & \alpha & -\alpha^3 & \alpha^5 & -\alpha^3 \\ \alpha^4 & -\alpha^2 & \alpha^4 & -\alpha^6 & \alpha^4 \\ \alpha^3 & -\alpha & \alpha^3 & -\alpha^5 & \alpha^3 \\ -\alpha^2 & 1 & -\alpha^2 & \alpha^4 & -\alpha^2 \\ -\alpha^3 & \alpha & -\alpha^3 & \alpha^5 & -\alpha^3 \end{pmatrix}$$

Clearly

$$\begin{aligned} & \Pr[Y_{k,N}^g = 1, Y_{k+j,N}^\ell = 1] \\ &= \Pr[Y_{k+j,N} = (0, 1)^1] \left(\Pr[Y_{k,N} = (1, 0) | Y_{k+j,N} = (0, 1)^1] + \Pr[Y_{k,N} = (1, 1) | Y_{k+j,N} = (0, 1)^1] \right) \\ & \quad + \Pr[Y_{k+j,N} = (0, 1)^2] \left(\Pr[Y_{k,N} = (1, 0) | Y_{k+j,N} = (0, 1)^2] + \Pr[Y_{k,N} = (1, 1) | Y_{k+j,N} = (0, 1)^2] \right) \\ & \quad + \Pr[Y_{k+j,N} = (1, 1)] \left(\Pr[Y_{k,N} = (1, 0) | Y_{k+j,N} = (1, 1)] + \Pr[Y_{k,N} = (1, 1) | Y_{k+j,N} = (1, 1)] \right). \end{aligned}$$

Note that the contribution of the first matrix of P^j to this probability is just $\mu_g \mu_\ell$ and that of the second matrix is zero. Hence we have, for $j > 0$,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Cov}(Y_{k,N}^g, Y_{k+j,N}^\ell) &= \frac{1}{\alpha^2 + 1} \left(-\frac{1}{\alpha^2}\right)^j \left(\frac{\alpha(1+\alpha)}{\alpha^2 + 1} + \frac{-\alpha^2 - \alpha^3}{\alpha^2(\alpha^2 + 1)} + \frac{-\alpha^2 - \alpha^3}{\alpha(\alpha^2 + 1)} \right) + \mathcal{O}(\alpha^{-L^\eta}) \\ &= -\frac{1}{5} \left(-\frac{1}{\alpha^2}\right)^j + \mathcal{O}(\alpha^{-L^\eta}). \end{aligned}$$

For $j < 0$, we get similarly

$$\text{Cov}(Y_{k,N}^g, Y_{k-|j|,N}^\ell) = -\frac{1}{5} \left(-\frac{1}{\alpha^2}\right)^{|j|} + \mathcal{O}(\alpha^{-L^\eta}).$$

Therefore we have

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_{j=[L^\eta]-k}^{L-2[L^\eta]-k} \text{Cov}(Y_{k,N}^g, Y_{k+j,N}^\ell) \\ &= -\frac{1}{5} \left(\frac{1}{\alpha^4} + 2 \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \left(-\frac{1}{\alpha^2}\right)^j \right) + \mathcal{O}(L\alpha^{-L^\eta}) + \mathcal{O}(\alpha^{-2 \min(k-[L^\eta], L-2[L^\eta]-k)}) \end{aligned}$$

With

$$C = -\frac{1}{5\sigma^2} \left(\frac{1}{\alpha^4} + 2 \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \left(-\frac{1}{\alpha^2} \right)^j \right) = -\frac{\alpha^2 + 1}{\alpha} \left(\frac{1}{\alpha^4} - \frac{2}{\alpha^2 + 1} \right) = 9 - 5\alpha,$$

we obtain

$$\mathbf{Var} \left(\sum_{k=[L^\eta]}^{L-2[L^\eta]} a_g(Y_{k,N}^g - \mu_g) + a_\ell(Y_{k,N}^\ell - \mu_\ell) \right) = L\sigma^2(a_g^2 + a_\ell^2 + 2a_g a_\ell C) + \mathcal{O}(L^\eta).$$

We apply the central limit theorem for Markov chains or mixing sequences (e.g. Theorem 2.1 of Peligrad [6]) and the lemma is proved.

Because of (3), we have

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{1}{N} \# \left\{ n < N \left| \frac{s_g(n) - \mu_g \log_\alpha N}{\sigma \sqrt{\log_\alpha N}} < x_g, \frac{s_\ell(n) - \mu_\ell \log_\alpha N}{\sigma \sqrt{\log_\alpha N}} < x_\ell \right. \right\} \\ & \rightarrow \frac{1}{\#\mathcal{S}_N} \# \left\{ n \in \mathcal{S}_N \left| \frac{s_g(n) - \mu_g \log_\alpha N}{\sigma \sqrt{\log_\alpha N}} < x_g, \frac{s_\ell(n) - \mu_\ell \log_\alpha N}{\sigma \sqrt{\log_\alpha N}} < x_\ell \right. \right\} \\ & \rightarrow \frac{1}{\#\mathcal{S}_N} \# \left\{ n \in \mathcal{S}_N \left| \sum_{k=[L^\eta]}^{L-2[L^\eta]} \frac{\epsilon_k^g(n) - \mu_g}{\sigma \sqrt{L}} < x_g, \sum_{k=[L^\eta]}^{L-2[L^\eta]} \frac{\epsilon_k^\ell(n) - \mu_\ell}{\sigma \sqrt{L}} < x_\ell \right. \right\}. \end{aligned}$$

With Lemma 4, the theorem is proved.

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