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AND PROGRESSION-FREE SEQUENCES OF INTEGERS

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in [11], [26] and [12]). But nothing is known for the case where k is not prime (see [12]).

Let us define for every integer $k \ge 3$, $(U_k(n))$ as the increasing sequence of the integers without the digit k-1 in their base-k expansion. It is not difficult to obtain:

(*)
$$\forall j \in [0, k-2], \quad U_k((k-1)n+j) = kU_k(n)+j.$$

If one considers the sequence of first differences of, say U_3 , one obtains the sequence:

This sequence resembles somewhat the paperfolding sequence, (except that it takes infinitely many values), which gives the idea of the following easy proposition:

PROPOSITION. Let k be an integer greater than or equal to 3, define the sequence $(U_k(n))$ by (*). Let $D_k(n) = U_k(n+1) - U_k(n)$. Finally let g_k be defined on $\mathbb{N} \cup \{\omega\}$ by $g_k(x) = kx - k + 2$ if x is in \mathbb{N} and $g_k(\omega) = \omega$.

Then

$$D_k = Tt((1^{k-2}\omega)^{\infty}, g_k),$$

(see notations in paragraph 1).

Proof. From the definition of U_k , one has

$$D_k((k-1)n+j)=1$$
 for every j in $[0, k-3]$ and every integer n ,
$$D_k((k-1)n+k-2)=kD_k(n)-(k-2)=g_k(D_k(n))$$
 for every integer n .

Remark. For a very curious occurrence of the sequence U_k see [19].

6. MISCELLANEOUS QUESTIONS

In this paragraph we first give some other examples of naturally occurring Toeplitz sequences. Second we shall study the connections with automatic sequences.

- 1) Among other examples of Toeplitz transforms let us give three natural sequences:
- Let p be a prime number, and $v_p(n)$ be the highest power of p dividing n. Let $U(n) = v_p(n+1)$, and let f be the function defined

over $\mathbb{N} \cup \{\omega\}$ by f(x) = x + 1 for every integer x and $f(\omega) = \omega$. Then: $U = Tt((0^{p-1}\omega)^{\infty}, f)$.

- Define, for $n \ge 1$, Q(n) = 1 if n is the sum of three squares, and Q(n) = 0 otherwise. Then $Q = Tt((111\omega 110\omega)^{\infty}, id)$.
- Let C(n) be the van der Corput sequence (see [8]), used in the theory of distribution modulo 1 and defined by:

if
$$n = \sum_{i \ge 0} b_i(n) 2^i$$
, where b_i is 0 or 1, then $C(n) = \sum_{i \ge 0} b_i(n) 2^{-i-1}$.

Let V(n) = C(n+1) - C(n) be the difference sequence of C. Let finally h be defined on the rational numbers by $h(x) = \frac{x-1}{2}$ and at ω by $h(\omega) = \omega$.

Then one has
$$V = Tt\left(\left(\frac{1}{2}\omega\right)^{\infty}, h\right)$$
.

The first and second proofs are left to the reader; a hint for the third proof is that $C(2n) = \frac{C(n)}{2}$ and $C(2n+1) = \frac{(1+C(n))}{2}$.

- 2) The interested reader can find in [27] a beautiful continued fraction expansion for $\psi(1)$ where ψ is the Carlitz exponential function for $F_2[T]$, and he will certainly recognize a Toeplitz transform hidden in this expansion.
- 3) Actually all sequences given so far are either q-automatic (see [6] or [2]) or q-regular (see [5]). Let us recall that a sequence (U(n)) is said to be q-automatic if its q-kernel (i.e. the set of subsequences $n \to U(q^k n + r)$ of the sequence U, where $k \ge 0$ and $0 \le r \le q^k 1$) is finite. A sequence U with values in a noetherian ring R is said to be q-regular if its q-kernel spans an R-module of finite type.

If one takes the regular paperfolding sequence A, it is not hard to check that ist 2-kernel is finite and equal to $\{A, (01)^{\infty}, (0)^{\infty}, (1)^{\infty}\}$, hence the sequence A is 2-automatic.

In which case does a periodic sequence B with values in a finite alphabet give rise to an automatic Toeplitz transform? We give the following answer to this question:

THEOREM. Let B be a periodic sequence of period T with values in $\Gamma = \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_r, \omega\}$, such that $B(0) \neq \omega$. Denote by d the cardinality of the set $\{h \in [0, T-1] \mid B(h) = \omega\}$. If $d \geqslant 1$ and d divides T, then Tt(B, id) is (T/d)-automatic.

Proof. Let A = Tt(B, id). Denote by $h_0 < h_1 < h_2 < \cdots$ the strictly increasing sequence of the integers to which B assigns ω . Let $h_0 < h_1 < \cdots < h_{d-1}$ be the values of h_j which belong to [0, T-1]. It readily follows from the definition of A that A can be recursively defined by

$$\forall n \notin \{h_0, h_1, \dots\}$$
 $A(n) = B(n),$
 $\forall n \geqslant 0,$ $A(h_n) = A(n).$

Moreover it is not hard to check that

$$\forall n \geqslant 0$$
, $\forall j \in [0, d-1]$, $h_{dn+j} = h_j + Tn$.

Hence

$$\forall n \geqslant 0$$
, $\forall j \in [0, d-1]$, $\forall a \in [0, d-1] - \{h_0, h_1, \dots, h_{d-1}\}$, $A(h_j + Tn) = A(h_{dn+j}) = A(dn+j)$, $A(a + Tn) = B(a + Tn) = B(a)$.

Now let us define the set of sequences S with values in $\Gamma - \{\omega\}$ by: U is an element of S if and only if for every $j = 0, 1, \dots, d - 1$, the sequence $n \to U(dn+j)$ is either constant (hence the constant is an element of $\Gamma - \{\omega\}$), or of the form $n \to A(dn+k)$ for some $k = k(j) \in [0, d-1]$. Notice that the set S is finite as it contains at most (Card $\Gamma - 1 + d$) delements. Let e = T/d. To prove that the e-kernel of the sequence A is finite, it suffices to prove that the set S is stable under the maps $(X(n)) \to (X(en+r))$ for every r in [0, e-1] (note that the sequences $n \to A(q^k n + r)$, $k \ge 0$, $0 \le r \le q^k - 1$ are obtained from the sequence $n \to A(n)$ by applying finitely many such maps, and that the sequence A itself belongs to S).

So let us take a sequence X in the set S, and an element r in [0, e-1]. Let W(n) = X(en+r). To prove that W is in S, one computes W(dn+j) for every j in [0, d-1]: W(dn+j) = X(e(dn+j)+r) = X(d(en)+ej+r), (note that $ej+r \le e(d-1)+e-1=T-1$). Define a and b by ej+r=10 by ej+r=11. With a2 in a3 in a4 by a5 in a5 in a5 in a6 in a7 in a8 in a9 in a9

$$W(dn+j) = X(den+ej+r) = X(d(en+a)+b).$$

As X belongs to S, the sequence (X(dn+b)) is either constant or equal to the sequence (A(dn+c)) for a certain c in [0, d-1]. Hence (X(d(en+a)+b)) is either constant or equal to the sequence (A(d(en+a)+c))) = (A(Tn+ad+c)). But in turn the sequence (A(Tn+ad+c)) is either constant (if ad+c is not one of the h_j 's), or equal to the sequence $(A(Tn+h_u)) = (A(dn+u))$ (if $ad+c=h_u$, hence $u \le d-1$ because $ad+c \le T-1$).

Finally one has (W(dn+j)) = (X(den+ej+r)) = (X(d(en+a)+b)) is either constant or equal to the sequence (A(dn+u)), hence W belongs to S, which concludes the proof.

4) One can notice that the definition of Tt(B, id) can be rewritten without supposing that B is periodic. One can then ask whether the Toeplitz transform of an automatic sequence is still automatic (see [1] for a particular case):

PROPOSITION. Let B be a (non necessarily periodic) sequence on the alphabet Γ such that the set of h for which $B(h) = \omega$ is exactly the set $\{qn + b; n \ge 0\}$, where q and b are two natural numbers $(q \ge 2)$ and 0 < b < q.

Then Tt(B, id) is q-automatic if and only if B is itself q-automatic. If the set $B^{-1}(\omega)$ is not of the previous kind, the result need not hold.

Proof. Let A = Tt(B, id). Then, as usual,

$$\forall n \notin \{qk + b ; k \ge 0\}$$
 $A(n) = B(n),$
 $\forall n \ge 0$ $A(qn + b) = A(n).$

From the first relation one has

$$\forall j \in [0, q-1] - \{b\}, \quad A(qn+j) = B(qn+j).$$

Moreover $B(qn + b) = \omega$.

If A is q-automatic, so are the sequences (A(qn+j)), hence so are all the sequences (B(qn+j)) for j in $[0, q-1]-\{b\}$; but the sequence (B(qn+b)) is constant, hence q-automatic. Finally all the sequences (B(qn+j)) are q-automatic for j in [0, q-1], and this implies the q-automaticity of the sequence B itself.

If B is q-automatic, let K be its q-kernel (remember this is the set of subsequences $\{n \to B(q^k n + r); k \ge 0, 0 \le r \le q^k - 1\}$). K is finite. It is clear that the q-kernel of A is included in $K \cup \{A\}$, hence also finite, thus A is a q-automatic sequence.

Finally we give an example of a 2-automatic sequence which does not satisfy the condition on $B^{-1}(\omega)$, and for which Tt(B, id) is not 2-automatic. Indeed define B by:

$$B(2^n) = \omega \quad \forall n \geqslant 1,$$

 $B(k) = 1$ if k is odd,
 $B(k) = 0$ if k is even and not in $\{2, 4, 8, 16, \dots\}.$

One easily computes

$$B(2n) = \omega$$
 if $n \in \{1, 2, 4, 8, \dots\}$,
 $B(2n) = 0$ otherwise,
 $B(2n+1) = 1$ $\forall n \ge 0$,
 $B(4n) = B(2n)$ $\forall n \ge 0$,
 $B(4n+2) = \omega$ if $n = 0$,
 $B(4n+2) = 0$ $\forall n \ge 1$,
 $B(8n+2) = B(4n+2)$ $\forall n \ge 0$,
 $B(8n+6) = 0$ $\forall n \ge 0$.

Hence the sequence B is 2-automatic (its kernel contains 5 elements). Note that A = Tt(B, id) satisfies

$$A(n) = 1$$
 if n is odd,
 $A(2^n) = A(n)$ $\forall n \ge 1$,
 $A(n) = 0$ if n is even and not in $\{2, 4, 8, \dots\}$.

If A were a 2-automatic sequence, it is well known that the sequence $A(2^n)$ would be ultimately periodic; hence from the second relation the sequence A itself would be ultimately periodic. Taking j large enough, and looking at $A(2^j + 1)$, $A(2^j + 2)$, \cdots , $A(2^{j+1} - 1)$, one sees that A ends ultimately by $010101 \cdots$ (or by $101010 \cdots$, which is the same!). But for a huge odd number u one has $A(2^u) = A(u) = 1$, and $A(2^u + 1) = 1$, which yields the desired contradiction.

Remark. A recent paper studies the ergodic properties of the generalized Rudin-Shapiro sequences (in the sense of [6]) using the Toeplitz device: A criterion for Toeplitz flows to be topologically isomorphic and applications, J. Kwiatkowski and Y. Lacroix, preprint, 1991.

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