Abstract Numeration Systems

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Sums of three squares

- \blacktriangleright 7, 15, 23, 28, 31, 39, ...
- \triangleright These numbers cannot be written as a sum of three squares.

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 \blacktriangleright Is there a pattern?

Theorem (Legendre–Gauss 1798)

A number n is the sum of three squares if and only if n is not of the form $4^a(8m+7)$.

Theorem (Legendre–Gauss 1798)

A number n is the sum of three squares if and only if the binary representation of n is not of the form $(0 + 1)$ *111 (00) *.

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A set $X \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ is k-recognizable (or k-automatic) if the language $[X]_k$ consisting of the base-k representations of the elements of X is accepted by a finite automaton.

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The natural numbers

- \blacktriangleright The set N is *k*-recognizable for all *k*.
- \blacktriangleright $[N]_k$ is the regular language

$$
\{1,\ldots,k-1\}\{0,1,\ldots,k-1\}^* \cup \{\epsilon\}.
$$

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Examples in base 2

\blacktriangleright The Thue–Morse set

 ${n \in \mathbb{N} : [n]_2}$ contains an odd number of 1's}

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is 2-recognizable.

 \blacktriangleright The set of powers of 2 is 2-recognizable.

A "gap" theorem

Theorem (Eilenberg)

Let $k > 2$ be an integer. A k-recognizable set

 $X = \{x_0 < x_1 < \cdots\}$

of non-negative integers satisfies either

$$
\limsup_{n \to \infty} (x_{n+1} - x_n) < \infty
$$

or

$$
\limsup_{n \to \infty} \frac{x_{n+1}}{x_n} > 1.
$$

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► The set $\{n^2 : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ of squares is not *k*-recognizable:

$$
\limsup_{n \to \infty} ((n+1)^2 - n^2) = \infty
$$

and

$$
\limsup_{n \to \infty} \frac{(n+1)^2}{n^2} = 1.
$$

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- \blacktriangleright The set of prime numbers is not k-recognizable for any k.
- \blacktriangleright There can be arbitrarily large gaps between sucessive prime numbers.
- If p_n is the *n*-th prime, the Prime Number Theorem implies that

$$
p_{n+1}/p_n \to 1.
$$

- \blacktriangleright Recognizability depends on the base.
- \blacktriangleright The powers of 2 are not recognizable in base 3.
- \triangleright Which sets are recognizable in all bases?
- \blacktriangleright Two numbers k and ℓ are multiplicatively independent if $k^m = \ell^n$ implies $m = n = 0$.

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 \triangleright A set is ultimately periodic if it is a finite union of arithmetic progressions.

Cobham's Theorem 1969

Let $k, \ell > 2$ be two multiplicatively independent integers and let $X \subseteq \mathbb{N}$. The set X is both k-recognizable and ℓ -recognizable if and only if it is ultimately periodic.

Determining periodicity

- Given an automaton accepting a k -recognizable set, can we tell if this set is ultimately periodic?
- \blacktriangleright Honkala (1986) showed that there is an algorithm to solve this problem.
- \blacktriangleright This result was often reproved: Muchnik (1991), Fagnot (1997), Allouche et al. (2009).

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 \blacktriangleright Leroux (2005) gave a polynomial time algorithm.

The characteristic sequence of the powers of 2

 \blacktriangleright Iterate the 2-uniform map

$$
a \mapsto ab, b \mapsto bc, c \mapsto cc
$$

to get the infinite sequence

abbcbcccbcccccccbcccccccccccccccbcc · · · .

Now recode by $a, c \mapsto 0; b \mapsto 1$:

 $011010001000000010000000000000000100 \cdots$

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- A sequence is k-automatic if it is generated by first iterating a k -uniform map and then renaming some of the symbols.
- \triangleright E.g.: the Thue–Morse sequence is generated by the 2-uniform map $0 \mapsto 01$; $1 \mapsto 10$:

 $0 \rightarrow 01 \rightarrow 0110 \rightarrow 01101001 \rightarrow 0110100110010110 \rightarrow \cdots$

A morphic characterization of k -recognizability

Theorem (Cobham 1972)

Let $k > 2$. A set $X \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ is k-recognizable if and only if its characteristic sequence is k -automatic.

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A logical characterization of k -recognizability

Theorem (Büchi–Bruyère)

Let $V_k(n)$ be the largest power of k that divides n. A set is k -recognizable if and only if it is definable in the first order theory $\langle \mathbb{N}, +, V_k \rangle$.

Theorem (Christol 1979)

Let p be a prime and let $\mathbf{a} = (a_n)_{n \geq 0}$ be a sequence over $\{0, 1, \ldots, p-1\}$. Then

is algebraic over $\mathbb{F}_p(X)$ if and only if a is a *p*-automatic sequence.

Positional numeration systems

 \triangleright A positional numeration system is an increasing sequence of integers $U = (U_n)_{n \geq 0}$ such that

 \blacktriangleright $U_0 = 1$ and

$$
\blacktriangleright C_U := \sup_{n \ge 0} [U_{n+1}/U_n] < \infty.
$$

The Fibonacci numeration system

- ► Let $U = (U_n)_{n>0}$ be the sequence of Fibonacci numbers.
- $I = I$.e., $U_{n+2} = U_{n+1} + U_n$ and $U_0 = 1$, $U_1 = 2$.
- \blacktriangleright The greedy representation of 13 is 100000, since

$$
13 = 1 \cdot 13 + 0 \cdot 8 + 0 \cdot 5 + 0 \cdot 3 + 0 \cdot 2 + 0 \cdot 1.
$$

- \blacktriangleright 13 also has the non-greedy representation 11000.
- \blacktriangleright The language of greedy representations is

 $1\{0,01\}^* \cup \{\epsilon\}.$

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- A set X of integers is U-recognizable if the language $[X]_{U}$ of greedy representations is accepted by a finite automaton.
- A numeration system $U = (U_n)_{n \geq 0}$ is linear if it satisfies a linear recurrence over $\mathbb Z$.

- Introduced and studied by Fraenkel (1985) .
- If N is U-recognizable, then U is linear (Shallit).

A system where N is not recognizable

► Let U be defined by $U_n = (n+1)^2$ for $n \ge 0$.

 \blacktriangleright Then U satisfies the linear recurrence

$$
U_{n+3} = 3U_{n+2} - 3U_{n+1} + U_n.
$$

 \blacktriangleright Suppose $[N]_U$ regular. Then

$$
[\mathbb{N}]_U \cap 10^* 10^* = \{10^a 10^b \in \{0, 1\}^* : b^2 < 2a + 4\}
$$

would also be regular, which is easily shown to be false.

Bertrand numeration systems

A numeration system $U = (U_n)_{n \geq 0}$ is a Bertrand numeration system if it has the following property:

a word w is in $[N]_U$ if and only if w0 is in $[N]_U$.

Examples of Bertrand systems

 \blacktriangleright the integer base-k numeration systems

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 \blacktriangleright the Fibonacci numeration system

A non-Bertrand numeration system

- \triangleright Change the initial conditions of the Fibonacci recurrence $U_{n+2} = U_{n+1} + U_n$ to $U_0 = 1$, $U_1 = 3$:
- In the greedy representation of the number 2 is the word 2
- \triangleright the greedy representation of the number 6 is the word 102, not the word 20.

β -expansions

- **►** Bertrand systems are linked with β -expansions.
- Eet $\beta > 1$ be a real number.
- **►** The β -expansion of $x \in [0, 1]$, denoted $d_{\beta}(x) = (t_i)_{i \geq 1}$, is the lexicographically largest sequence of non-negative integers such that

$$
x = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} t_i \beta^{-i}.
$$

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Parry numbers

\blacktriangleright If

$$
d_{\beta}(1) = t_1 \cdots t_m 0^{\omega},
$$

with $t_m \neq 0$, then we say that $d_\beta(1)$ is finite.

 \blacktriangleright In this case we define

$$
d_{\beta}^{*}(1) = (t_{1} \cdots t_{m-1}(t_{m} - 1))^{\omega}.
$$

- ► Otherwise, we define $d_{\beta}^*(1) = d_{\beta}(1)$.
- ► If $d^*_{\beta}(1)$ is ultimately periodic, then β is called a Parry number.

Systems with a dominant root

 \blacktriangleright Let U be a linear numeration system.

for some real $\beta > 1$, then U satisfies the dominant root condition.

 U_{n+1} U_n

 $=\beta$

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 $\lim_{n\to\infty}$

 \triangleright β is the dominant root.

 \blacktriangleright If

A necessary condition for recognizability

Theorem (Hollander 1998)

Let U be a linear numeration system with dominant root β . If N is U-recognizable, then β is a Parry number.

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 \blacktriangleright Hollander also gave a much stronger result.

Theorem (Bertrand 1989)

Let $U = (U_n)_{n \geq 0}$ be a numeration system. Let Fact (D_β) denote the set of factors occurring in the β -expansions of the real numbers in [0, 1). There exists a real number $\beta > 1$ such that $0^*[\mathbb{N}]_U = \mathsf{Fact}(D_\beta)$ if and only if U is a Bertrand numeration system. In this case, if $d^*_{\beta}(1)=(t_i)_{i\geq 1}$, then

$$
U_n = t_1 U_{n-1} + \dots + t_n U_0 + 1.
$$

Obtaining a Bertrand system from a Parry number

- If β is a Parry number, then U is a linear recurrence sequence and β is a root of its characteristic polynomial.
- Every Parry number β has an associated canonical numeration system.
- \blacktriangleright The language of the canonical numeration system associated with β is Fact(D_β).

- \blacktriangleright It is a regular language.
- \blacktriangleright I.e., $\mathbb N$ is U-recognizable.

Pisot systems

- \triangleright A Pisot number is a real algebraic integer greater than one such that all of its algebraic conjugates have absolute value less than one.
- \triangleright A Pisot system is a linear numeration system whose characteristic polynomial is the minimal polynomial of a Pisot number.

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Theorem (Frougny–Solomyak; Bruyère–Hansel)

Let U be a Pisot system. Then $\mathbb N$ is U-recognizable.

Determining periodicity

- \blacktriangleright Given a linear numeration system U and an automaton accepting a U -recognizable set, can we tell if this set is ultimately periodic?
- \blacktriangleright For Pisot systems, yes. The proof of Allouche et al. (2009) for the integer bases can be applied here (because in Pisot systems, addition is "recognizable").

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- \blacktriangleright The problem is open in general.
- \triangleright Partial results due to Bell et al. (2009).

A more general class of numeration systems

- \triangleright Previously, we considered positional systems and then restricted our attention to those that give rise to a regular numeration language.
- \triangleright Now we consider an arbitrary regular language and use it to define a numeration system (Lecomte and Rigo 2001).

Abstract numeration systems

- An abstract numeration system is a triple $S = (L, \Sigma, <)$:
- \blacktriangleright $(\Sigma, <)$ is a totally ordered alphabet.
- \blacktriangleright The numeration language L is an infinite regular language over Σ .
- $\blacktriangleright [\cdot]_S : \mathbb{N} \to L$ is a bijection mapping $n \in \mathbb{N}$ to the $(n + 1)$ -th word of L in the genealogical order.
- \triangleright $X \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ is S-recognizable if $[X]_S = \{ [n]_S : n \in X \}$ is regular.

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 \blacktriangleright The base-k system is an abstract numeration system with numeration language

$$
\{1,\ldots,k-1\}\{0,1,\ldots,k-1\}^* \cup \{\epsilon\}.
$$

 \triangleright The Fibonacci system is an abstract numeration system with numeration language

 $1\{0,01\}^* \cup \{\epsilon\}.$

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Another abstract numeration system

- Recall: the set $\{n^2 : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ of squares is not k-recognizable for any k .
- \blacktriangleright The set of squares is S-recognizable for the abstract numeration system

$$
S = (a^*b^* \cup a^*c^*, \{a, b, c\}, a < b < c).
$$

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 \blacktriangleright The language of representations of the squares is the regular language a^* .

Polynomial sequences

Theorem (Rigo; Strogalov)

For any polynomial $P \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ such that $P(\mathbb{N}) \subseteq \mathbb{N}$, there exists S such that P is S -recognizable.

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Recgonizability of periodic sets

Theorem (Lecomte and Rigo 2001)

Let S be an abstract numeration system. Every ultimately periodic set is S -recognizable.

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The characteristic sequence of the squares

 \triangleright Recall: the set of squares is recognizable in the system

$$
S = (a^*b^* \cup a^*c^*, \{a, b, c\}, a < b < c).
$$

Its characteristic sequence can be generated using the non-uniform morphism

$$
h: a \mapsto abcc, b \mapsto bcc, c \mapsto c
$$

and a coding

$$
g: a, b \mapsto 1, c \mapsto 0.
$$

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The characteristic sequence of the squares

 \blacktriangleright We have

a → abcc → abccbcccc → abccbcccccc → · · ·

and when we recode we obtain the sequence

 $11001000010000001000000000 \cdots$

 \triangleright A sequence is morphic if it is generated by first iterating a morphism and then renaming some of the symbols.

A morphic characterization of S-recognizability

Theorem (Rigo and Maes 2002)

Let $X \subseteq \mathbb{N}$. Then there exists an abstract numeration system S such that X is S-recognizable if and only if the characteristic sequence of X is morphic.

Determining periodicity

- \blacktriangleright Given an abstract numeration system S and an automaton accepting a S -recognizable set, can we tell if this set is ultimately periodic?
- \triangleright The problem is open for the restricted case of linear numeration systems, so it is open here as well.
- In view of the equivalence of S -recognizable sets and morphic sequences, the periodicity question is equivalent to the analogous problem for morphic sequences.
- \triangleright This is the HD0L periodicity problem, a longstanding open problem in combinatorics on words.

Conclusion

- \triangleright Abstract numerations generalize the integer base systems and the linear numeration systems.
- \blacktriangleright They include these systems as special cases.
- \blacktriangleright In the general case, certain interesting properties are preserved (e.g., recognizability of periodic sets).
- \triangleright Certain properties are (possibly) lost (e.g., a logical characterization of recognizability).
- A generalization of S -recognizable sets to higher dimensions has also been studied.

The End

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