

Using Walnut: Recent results in combinatorics on words and number theory

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(Joint work with Jeffrey Shallit)

We explore the use of **Walnut**, a theorem prover for the class of **automatic sequences** (sequence computed by finite automata), to obtain some results in combinatorics on words and number theory.

We first show how Walnut can be used to obtain congruences for combinatorial sequences like the Catalan numbers

$$1, 1, 2, 5, 14, 42, 132, 429, 1430, \dots$$

which count, among other things, the number of strings of properly nested parentheses of length $2n$, or the number of binary trees on n vertices.

We will be working with **base- p expansions**. If

$$n = n_0 + n_1p + n_2p^2 + \cdots + n_rp^r$$

we write

$$(n)_p = n_0n_1n_2 \cdots n_r$$

for the the base- p expansion of n written **least-significant-digit first**.

Let us start with the **binomial coefficients**:

Theorem (Lucas 1878)

Let p be prime and let

$$n = n_0 + n_1p + n_2p^2 + \cdots + n_rp^r$$

$$k = k_0 + k_1p + k_2p^2 + \cdots + k_rp^r.$$

Then

$$\binom{n}{k} \equiv_p \prod_{i=0}^r \binom{n_i}{k_i}.$$

(By convention $\binom{n}{k} = 0$ if $n < k$.)

- ▶ Take $p = 2$. We see that $\binom{n}{k}$ is even exactly when there is some i such that $(k_i, n_i) = (1, 0)$.
- ▶ e.g.,

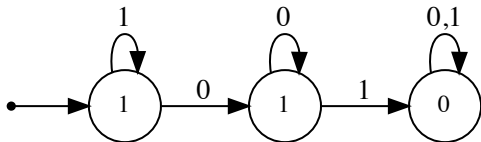
$$293930 = \binom{21}{12} \equiv_2 \binom{1}{0} \binom{0}{0} \binom{1}{1} \binom{0}{1} \binom{1}{0} \equiv_2 0$$

$$51895935 = \binom{29}{12} \equiv_2 \binom{1}{0} \binom{0}{0} \binom{1}{1} \binom{1}{1} \binom{1}{0} \equiv_2 1$$

The sequence of Catalan numbers

$$\begin{aligned} C_n &= \frac{1}{n+1} \binom{2n}{n} \\ &= \binom{2n}{n} - \binom{2n}{n-1} \end{aligned}$$

modulo p can also be computed with a finite automaton: For $p = 2$ we get



Interpreting the automaton gives the following folklore theorem:

Theorem

C_n is odd iff $(n)_2 = 1^k 0^j$; i.e., iff $n = 2^k - 1$.

(Here 1^k means a string of k 1's and 0^j means a string of j 0's.)

- ▶ Rowland and Zeilberger and Rowland and Yassawi gave different algorithms to produce automata for the Catalan numbers modulo p , the Motzkin numbers modulo p , the Delannoy numbers modulo p , etc.
- ▶ Let's now look at the Catalan numbers C_n modulo 3. (Alter and Kubota (1973) studied the general case $C_n \bmod p$.)
- ▶ Let $\mathbf{c}_3 = (C_n \bmod 3)_{n \geq 0}$.

Theorem (Deutsch and Sagan 2006)

The runs of 0's in c_3 begin at positions n where either

$$(n)_3 = 21^i \text{ or } (n)_3 = 21^i 0\{0, 1\}^j, \quad i \geq 1, \quad j \geq 0,$$

and have length $(3^{i+2} - 3)/2$.

Theorem cont'd. (Deutsch and Sagan 2006)

The blocks of non-zero values in c_3 are given by the following:

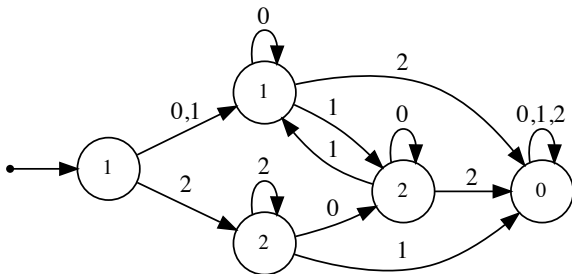
- ▶ The block 11222 occurs at position 0.
- ▶ The block 111222 occurs at all positions n where $(n)_3 = 2^i 0w$ for some $i \geq 2$ and some $w \in \{0, 1\}^*$ that contains an odd number of 1's.
- ▶ The block 222111 occurs at all positions n where $(n)_3 = 2^i 0w$ for some $i \geq 2$ and some $w \in \{0, 1\}^*$ that contains an even number of 1's.

We can obtain this result purely by computer using a program called **Walnut** (developed by Jeffrey Shallit's student Hamoon Mousavi). Suppose we are given

- ▶ A finite automaton reading input n in base- k and outputting the n -th term of a sequence s ; and,
- ▶ A formula φ in first-order-logic involving variables, constants, quantifiers, logical operations, ordering, addition and subtraction of natural numbers, and indexing into s .
- ▶ We can also multiply by a constant (this is just repeated addition), but **we can't multiply two variables**.

- ▶ If φ has no free variables, Walnut will output either that φ is either **TRUE** or **FALSE**.
- ▶ If φ has free variables, Walnut will produce an automaton that accepts the base- k representations of the values of the free variables that satisfy φ .

Applying the Rowland–Zeilberger method gives the automaton



for c_3

which is rather more complicated than the modulo 2 automaton.

The formula

$$\varphi = \exists i \forall j ((j \geq 0 \wedge j < 4) \Rightarrow \mathbf{c}_3(i + j) = 1)$$

asserts that there is a “run” of at least four 1’s in \mathbf{c}_3 .

In Walnut’s language, this is

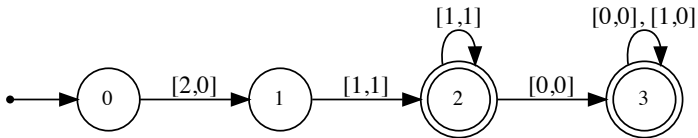
```
eval run4ones "?lsd_3 Ei Aj ((j>=0 & j<4) =>
  CAT3[i+j]=@1)":
```

and evaluates to “FALSE”.

For the runs of 0's we use the Walnut command

```
eval cat3max0 "?lsd_3 n>=1 &
  (At t<n => CAT3[i+t]=@0) &
  CAT3[i+n]!=@0 & (i=0|CAT3[i-1]!=@0)":
```

which produces the automaton



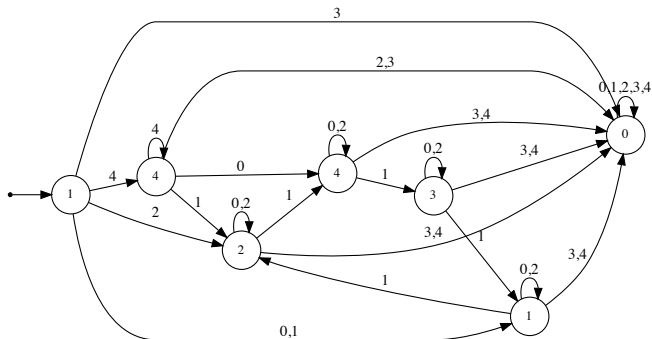
Examining the transition labels of the first component of the input gives the claimed representation for the starting positions of the runs of 0's

$$(i)_3 = 21^k \text{ or } (i)_3 = 21^k 0\{0, 1\}^j$$

and examining the transition labels of the second component gives the claimed length

$$(n)_3 = 01^k; \text{ i.e., } n = (3^{k+2} - 3)/2.$$

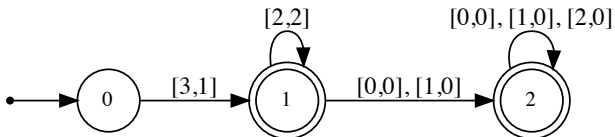
For $p = 5$, the Rowland–Zeilberger method gives the automaton



for

$$c_5 := C_n \bmod 5.$$

Using Walnut, one can obtain the following automaton for the runs of 0's in c_5 :



From this automaton we derive:

Theorem

The runs of 0's in c_5 begin at positions n where either

$$(n)_5 = 32^i \text{ or } (n)_5 = 32^i\{0, 1\}\{0, 1, 2\}^j, \quad i \geq 0, \quad j \geq 0,$$

and have length $(5^{i+2} - 3)/2$.

We can easily characterize the non-zero blocks in c_5 as well.

- ▶ We also obtained similar results for the Motzkin numbers modulo 3 and 5 as well.
- ▶ $\widehat{\text{Walnut}}$ can be used on any k -automatic sequence; i.e., any sequence whose n -th term can be computed by an automaton reading n in base- k as its input.
- ▶ Let's consider a new automatic sequence.
- ▶ In the rest of the talk, binary representations will be most-significant-digit first.

The Rudin-Shapiro coefficients

$$(a(n))_{n \geq 0} = (1, 1, 1, -1, 1, 1, -1, 1, \dots)$$

form an infinite sequence of ± 1 defined recursively by the identities

$$\begin{aligned}a(2n) &= a(n) \\ a(2n + 1) &= (-1)^n a(n)\end{aligned}$$

and the initial condition $a(0) = 1$.

- ▶ The sequence $a(n)$ was introduced independently by **Golay** (1949), **Rudin** (1949), and **Shapiro** (1952).
- ▶ Rudin's motivation was the study of the absolute value of certain Fourier series; Golay was interested in optics.
- ▶ The function $a(n)$ can also be defined as $a(n) = (-1)^{r_n}$, where r_n counts the number of (possibly overlapping) occurrences of 11 in the binary representation of n .

Brillhart and Morton (1978) studied sums of these coefficients, and defined the two sums

$$s(n) = \sum_{0 \leq i \leq n} a(i) \qquad t(n) = \sum_{0 \leq i \leq n} (-1)^i a(i). \quad (1)$$

n	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
$s(n)$	1	2	3	2	3	4	3	4	5	6	7	6	5	4
$t(n)$	1	0	1	2	3	2	1	0	1	0	1	2	1	2

Table: First few values of $s(n)$ and $t(n)$.

- ▶ Brillhart and Morton proved many properties of these sums; typically by a tedious induction.
- ▶ We show how to replace nearly all of these inductions with techniques from logic and automata theory.
- ▶ The Rudin-Shapiro sequence is 2-automatic and therefore also 4-automatic.

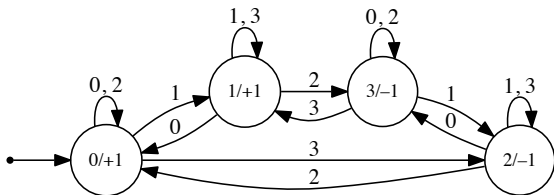


Figure: Base-4 automaton for the Rudin-Shapiro sequence

- ▶ States are labeled **state number/output**.
- ▶ The automaton reads the digits of the base-4 representation of n , starting with the **most significant digit**.
- ▶ Leading zeros in the inputs are allowed.

The main accomplishment of Brillhart and Morton's paper was proving the following inequalities:

Theorem (Brillhart & Morton)

For $n \geq 1$ we have

$$\begin{aligned}\sqrt{3n/5} &\leq s(n) \leq \sqrt{6n} \\ 0 &\leq t(n) \leq \sqrt{3n}.\end{aligned}$$

- ▶ To establish the inequalities for $s(n)$ and $t(n)$ we first determine automata that accept the pairs $(n, s(n))$ and $(n, t(n))$.
- ▶ In order for the automata to be able to process n and $s(n)$ in parallel, it turns out that we need to represent n in **base-4** and $s(n)$ and $t(n)$ in **base-2**.

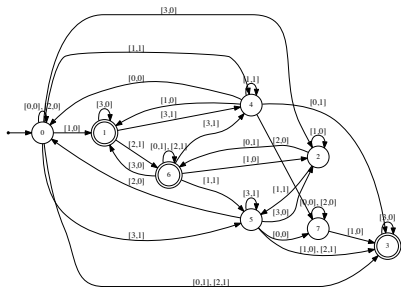
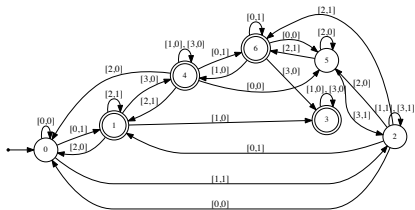


Figure: Synchronized automata for $s(n)$ (top) and $t(n)$ (bottom).

- ▶ To prove the inequalities we need to compare n to $s(n)$, but these numbers are now represented in different bases.
- ▶ We deal with this by defining a kind of “pseudo-square” function as follows: $m(n) = [(n)_2]_4$.
- ▶ In other words, m sends n to the integer obtained by interpreting the base-2 expansion of n as a number in base 4.
- ▶ We do this with the automaton `link42`:

```
reg link42 msd_4 msd_2 "([0,0] | [1,1])*":
```
- ▶ It's not hard to show that

$$(n^2 + 2n)/3 \leq m(n) \leq n^2.$$

We can now prove:

Lemma

For $n \geq 1$ we have $\frac{3n+7}{5} \leq m(s(n)) \leq 3n + 1$, and the upper and lower bounds are tight.

We use the Walnut code

```
def maps "?msd_4 Ex $rss(n,x) & $link42(y,x)":  
eval ms_lowerbnd "?msd_4 An,y (n>=1 & $maps(n,y))  
=> y<=3*n+1":  
eval ms_upperbnd "?msd_4 An,y (n>=1 & $maps(n,y))  
=> 3*n+7<=5*y":
```

Tightness can be easily checked with Walnut.

Corollary

For $n \geq 1$ we have

$$s(n) \geq \sqrt{\frac{3n+7}{5}}.$$

- ▶ As a consequence, we get one of the claimed lower bounds.
- ▶ We simply put the bounds $m(s(n)) \leq s(n)^2$ and $\frac{3n+7}{5} \leq m(s(n))$ together to get $\frac{3n+7}{5} \leq s(n)^2$.
- ▶ Note that our lower bound is actually slightly **stronger** than that of Brillhart-Morton!

- ▶ The upper bound $s(n) \leq \sqrt{6n}$ is more difficult.
- ▶ If $m(s(n)) \leq 2n$, then the result follows immediately from the inequality $(n^2 + 2n)/3 \leq m(n)$.
- ▶ We can easily compute the **exceptional set** of n for which $m(s(n)) > 2n$: the binary representations of these n have the form

$$\{0, 2\}^* \cup \{0, 2\}^* 1\{1, 3\}^*.$$

- ▶ The analysis of these exceptional values is somewhat technical (but still much easier than the original analysis of Brillhart and Morton!)

Walnut can be downloaded here:

<https://cs.uwaterloo.ca/~shallit/walnut.html>

The End