# PROOF OF IRVINE'S CONJECTURE VIA MECHANIZED GUESSING 

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#### Abstract

We prove a recent conjecture of Sean A. Irvine about a nonlinear recurrence, using mechanized guessing and verification. Finite automata and the theorem-prover Walnut play a large role in the proof.


## 1. Introduction

Mathematicians have long used intelligent guessing of a problem's solution, followed by rigorous verification (for example, by induction), to prove theorems. In this note I show how to do this, at least in some cases, using a simple algorithm to infer a finite automaton from empirical data. Once a candidate automaton is inferred, a rigorous proof of its correctness can be supplied by using Walnut, a theorem-prover for automatic sequences $[8,12]$.

On May 242017 Ilya Gutkovskiy proposed the following nonlinear recurrence as sequence A286389 in the OEIS (On-Line Encyclopedia of Integer Sequences) [9]:

$$
g_{n}= \begin{cases}0, & \text { if } n=0  \tag{1}\\ n-g_{\left\lfloor g_{n-1} / 2\right\rfloor}, & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

The first few values of this sequence, which we call Gutkovskiy's sequence, are given in Table 1. This recurrence is a variation on similar sequences originally discussed by Hofstadter [7, p. 137].

Then, on July 20 2022, Sean A. Irvine observed that this sequence seemed to be given by the partial sums of the sequence A285431, which is the fixed point of the morphism $h$, where $h(1)=110$ and $h(0)=11$. We denote the sequence A285431 by $\left(k_{n}\right)_{n \geq 1}$, in honor of its proposer, Clark Kimberling. The first few values of the sequence $\underline{\text { A285431 }}$ are also given in Table 1; in order to maintain the indexing given

[^0]in the OEIS, we define $k_{0}=0$. More precisely, then, Irvine's conjecture is that $g_{n}=\sum_{1 \leq i \leq n} k_{i}$.

| $n$ | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $g_{n}$ | 0 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 8 |
| $k_{n}$ | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 |

Table 1: First few values of $g_{n}$.

In this note we prove Irvine's conjecture, as well as a number of related results, using automata theory.

All the needed Walnut code to verify the claims of the paper is available on the author's website, https://cs.uwaterloo.ca/~shallit/papers.html.

## 2. From a Morphism to a Numeration System

We start with the morphism $h:\{0,1\} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{*}$ defined by $1 \rightarrow 110,0 \rightarrow 11$ that generates OEIS sequence A285431. Define $K_{n}=h^{n}(1)$, so that $K_{0}=1, K_{1}=110$, $K_{2}=11011011$, and so forth.

Proposition 1. For $n \geq 2$ we have $K_{n}=K_{n-1} K_{n-1} K_{n-2} K_{n-2}$.
Proof. By induction on $n$. The base cases of $n=0,1$ are trivial. Otherwise assume $n \geq 2$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
K_{n} & =h^{n}(1)=h^{n-1}(h(1))=h^{n-1}(1) h^{n-1}(1) h^{n-1}(0) \\
& =K_{n-1} K_{n-1} h^{n-2}(11)=K_{n-1} K_{n-1} K_{n-2} K_{n-2} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Since each $K_{i}$ is the prefix of $K_{i+1}$, it follows that there is a unique limiting infinite word $\mathbf{k}=k_{1} k_{2} k_{3} \cdots=1101101111 \cdots$ of which all the $K_{i}$ are prefixes. Furthermore, Proposition 1 shows that $\mathbf{k}$ is a "generalized automatic sequence" as studied in [11], and hence there is a numeration system associated with it, where $k_{n}$ can be computed by a finite automaton taking, as inputs, the representation of $n$ in this numeration system.

We now explain how this is done. Define $\mathcal{K}_{n}=\left|K_{n}\right|$, so that $\mathcal{K}_{0}=1, \mathcal{K}_{1}=3$, $\mathcal{K}_{2}=8$, and in general $\mathcal{K}_{n}=2 \mathcal{K}_{n-1}+2 \mathcal{K}_{n-2}$. This two-term linear recurrence is sequence A028859 in the OEIS (and also A155020 shifted by one). The Binet form for $\mathcal{K}_{n}$, which can be easily verified, is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{K}_{n}=\left(\frac{1}{2}+\frac{\sqrt{3}}{3}\right) \gamma^{n}+\left(\frac{1}{2}-\frac{\sqrt{3}}{3}\right) \delta^{n} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\gamma=1+\sqrt{3}$ and $\delta=1-\sqrt{3}$.
We now build a numeration system, which we call $K$-representation, out of the sequence $\left(\mathcal{K}_{i}\right)_{i \geq 0}$. We represent every natural number as a sum $\sum_{0 \leq i \leq t} a_{i} \mathcal{K}_{i}$, where $a_{i} \in \Sigma_{3}:=\{0,1,2\}$. Furthermore we associate a ternary word $a_{t} \cdots a_{0}$ with the corresponding sum, as follows:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left[a_{t} \cdots a_{0}\right]_{K}:=\sum_{0 \leq i \leq t} a_{i} \mathcal{K}_{i} . \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Notice that words are written "backwards" so the most significant digit is at the left.

Evidently, numbers could have multiple representations in this system as we have described it so far. For example, $[22]_{K}=8=[100]_{K}$. In order to get a unique, canonical representation, we impose the restriction $a_{i} a_{i+1} \neq 22$. This is in analogy with a similar restriction for the Zeckendorf (or Fibonacci) numeration system. We let $(n)_{K}$ denote this canonical representation for $n$. Table 2 gives the first few representations in this numeration system. Notice that the canonical representation for 0 is $\epsilon$, the empty string.

| $n$ | $(n)_{K}$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| 0 | $\epsilon$ |
| 1 | 1 |
| 2 | 2 |
| 3 | 10 |
| 4 | 11 |
| 5 | 12 |
| 6 | 20 |
| 7 | 21 |
| 8 | 100 |
| 9 | 101 |
| 10 | 102 |

Table 2: Representation for the first few numbers.

It is now easy to see that the greedy algorithm produces the canonical representation [4]. Furthermore, it is easy to see that there is a finite automaton that takes, as input, a string $x$ over the alphabet $\Sigma_{3}$, and accepts if and only if $x$ is a canonical representation. It is depicted in Figure 1. (We routinely omit useless states without comment.)

Some of the sequences we study in this paper were previously studied by Fraenkel and co-authors $[5,1]$, in the context of some variations on Wythoff's game. These authors already found the numeration system we described here. Also see [3]. Our


Figure 1: Automaton accepting canonical representations.
main contribution is to combine the use of automata theory with the numeration system.

## 3. An Incrementer Automaton for $K$-Representations

We claim that we can go from the $K$-representation of $n$ to that of $n+1$ as follows: if the last digit is 0 , add one to it. If the last digit is 1 , add one to it, except in the case that the representation ends with $a(21)^{i}$, for $a \in\{0,1\}$, in which case the representation of $n+1$ ends in $(a+1) 0^{2 i}$ instead. If the last two digits are $a 2$, for $a \in\{0,1\}$, then the last two digits of $n+1$ are $(a+1) 0$. Verification of this is straightforward and is left to the reader.

A synchronized automaton 'incr' implementing these rules is depicted in Figure 2. The meaning of "synchronized" here is that the DFA takes the canonical $K$-representations of $n$ and $x$ in parallel as input, and accepts if $x=n+1$.


Figure 2: Incrementer automaton for $K$-representations.

## 4. An Adder Automaton for $\boldsymbol{K}$-Representation

The next step is to build an "adder" for $K$-representations. This is a synchronized automaton that takes, in parallel, the canonical $K$-representations of integers $x, y, z$, and accepts if and only if $x+y=z$. The existence of this automaton for our numeration system follows from very general results of Frougny and Solomyak [6].

However, in this case it is actually easier to just "guess" the automaton from empirical data, and then verify its correctness. The method of guessing the automaton for a language $L$ is based on the Myhill-Nerode theorem from formal language theory. For every string $x$, we define $q_{x, n}=\{|y| \leq n: x y \in L\}$. For each $n$ there are only finitely many distinct $q_{x, n}$, and we can form an automaton out of them by letting the initial state be $q_{\epsilon, n}$, the final states be $\left\{q_{x, n}: x \in L\right\}$, and the transition function $\delta$ defined by $\delta\left(q_{x, n}, a\right)=q_{x a, n}$. If we are lucky, the resulting automata, as $n$ grows, will appear to "converge" to a single automaton, which forms our guess. For more details, see [12, Sec. 5.7]. In this case, our candidate adder automaton has 42 states.

Once we have an automaton that we believe is an adder, we can verify its correctness by induction by checking the following conditions:
(i) $\forall x, y \exists z \operatorname{add}(x, y, z)$ (adder is well-defined)
(ii) $\forall x, y, z, w(\operatorname{add}(x, y, z) \wedge \operatorname{add}(x, y, w)) \Longrightarrow z=w$ (adder represents a function)
(iii) $\forall x, y, z \operatorname{add}(x, y, z) \Longleftrightarrow \operatorname{add}(y, x, z)$ (commutative law)
(iv) $\forall x, y, z, t(\exists r \operatorname{add}(x, y, r) \wedge \operatorname{add}(r, z, t)) \Longleftrightarrow(\exists s \operatorname{add}(y, z, s) \wedge \operatorname{add}(x, s, t))$ (associative law)
(v) $\forall x \operatorname{add}(x, 0, x)$ (base case of induction)
(vi) $\forall x, y \operatorname{add}(x, 1, y) \Longleftrightarrow \operatorname{incr}(x, y)$ (induction step).

To verify the correctness of the adder automaton using Walnut, we use the following straightforward implementation of the conditions above:

```
eval check_i "?msd_kim Ax,y Ez $add(x,y,z)":
eval check_ii "?msd_kim Ax,y,z,w ($add(x,y,z) & $add(x,y,w)) => z=w":
eval check_iii "?msd_kim Ax,y,z $add(x,y,z) <=> $add(y,x,z)":
eval check_iv "?msd_kim Ax,y,z,t (Er $add(x,y,r) & $add(r,z,t)) <=>
    (Es $add(y,z,s) & $add(x,s,t))":
eval checkv "?msd_kim Ax $add(x,0,x)":
eval checkvi "?msd_kim Ax,y $add(x,1,y) <=> $incr(x,y)":
Walnut returns TRUE for all six statements. The correctness of the adder now follows.
```

We briefly comment on the syntax of Walnut commands. Here A and E represent the universal and existential quantifiers $\forall$ and $\exists$, respectively. The jargon ?msd_kim means to interpret the statements using the $K$-numeration system. The symbol \& means logical "and", I means logical "or", ~ is logical negation, => is implication, and $\Leftrightarrow$ represents "if and only if". The command def defines an automaton, eval evaluates truth or falsity, and reg converts a regular expression to an automaton.

## 5. The Kimberling Sequence

Define $k_{n}^{\prime}=k_{n+1}$ for $n \geq 0$. It is now easy to create a DFAO (deterministic finite automaton with output) computing the sequence $\left(k_{n}^{\prime}\right)_{n \geq 0}$, by associating states of the DFAO with letters of the alphabet, and transitions with images of those letters, as explained in [11]. It is depicted in Figure 3. This DFAO takes a canonical $K$ -


Figure 3: DFAO computing $k_{n}^{\prime}$.
representation of $n$ as input, and outputs (as the last state reached) the value of $k_{n}^{\prime}$. In Walnut this is represented by the file KP. txt, as follows:

```
msd_kim
0 1
0 -> 0
1 -> 0
2 -> 1
10
0 -> 0
1 -> 0
```

Once we have this DFAO, we can get a DFAO for $\left(k_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ simply by shifting the index.
def kks "?msd_kim KP[n-1]=@1":
combine K kks:
The resulting DFAO is depicted in Figure 4.


Figure 4: DFAO for the sequence $\mathbf{k}$.
We can now verify that this automaton actually does compute the Kimberling sequence. We can do this by induction, by verifying that

$$
\mathbf{k}\left[1 . . \mathcal{K}_{n}\right]=\mathbf{k}\left[1 . . \mathcal{K}_{n-1}\right] \mathbf{k}\left[1 . . \mathcal{K}_{n-1}\right] \mathbf{k}\left[1 . . \mathcal{K}_{n-2}\right] \mathbf{k}\left[1 . . \mathcal{K}_{n-2}\right]
$$

To do so, we use the following Walnut code:

```
reg isk msd_kim "0*10*":
reg pair msd_kim msd_kim "[0,0]*[1,0][0,1][0,0]*":
eval checkk1 "?msd_kim At,x ($isk(x) & t>=1 & t<=x) => K[t+x]=K[t]":
eval checkk2 "?msd_kim At,x,y ($pair(x,y) & t>=1 & t<=y)
    => K[t+2*x]=K[t]":
eval checkk3 "?msd_kim At,x,y ($pair(x,y) & t>=1 & t<=y)
    => K[t+2*x+y]=K[t]":
```

Here isk $(x)$ asserts that $x=\mathcal{K}_{n}$ for some $n \geq 1$, and pair $(x, y)$ asserts that $x=\mathcal{K}_{n+1}$ and $y=\mathcal{K}_{n}$ for some $n \geq 1$.

## 6. Synchronized Automaton for Gutkovskiy's Sequence

The last piece of the puzzle we need is a synchronized DFA computing Gutkovskiy's sequence A286389. To find this automaton we once again guess it from empirical data, and then verify it using Equation (1).

The guessed 17 -state automaton is called 'gut', and is displayed in Figure 5.


Figure 5: Synchronized automaton for Gutkovskiy's sequence $g_{n}$.
To verify its correctness we use the following Walnut code:
eval check1 "?msd_kim An Ex \$gut(n,x)":
eval check2 "?msd_kim An, $x, y$ (\$gut (n,x) \& \$gut(n,y)) => $x=y ":$
eval check3 "?msd_kim \$gut (0,0) \& An, $x, y, z$ ( $n>=1$ \& \$gut (n, x) \&
$\$ \operatorname{gut}(n-1, y) \& \operatorname{ggut}^{(y / 2, z))} \Rightarrow>x+z=n ":$
Thus our automaton correctly computes Gutkovskiy's sequence.
As an example, consider the path

$$
0 \xrightarrow{[1,0]} 1 \xrightarrow{[0,2]} 5 \xrightarrow{[2,1]} 3 \xrightarrow{[0,1]} 8
$$

corresponding to the representations 1020 and 0211 for 28 and 20 , respectively. Indeed, $g_{28}=20$.

## 7. Proof of Irvine's Conjecture and More

We now have everything we need to prove Irvine's conjecture.
Theorem 1. For $n \geq 0$ we have $g_{n}=\sum_{1 \leq i \leq n} k_{i}$.
Proof. We use the following Walnut code:

```
eval check "?msd_kim An K[n]=@1 <=> (Ex $gut(n-1,x) & $gut(n,x+1))":
``` and Walnut returns TRUE.

Dekking, in the 'formula' section of sequence A286389, observed that \(g_{n}=(\sqrt{3}-\) 1) \(n+O(1)\). In fact we can prove a more exact expression, a kind of "closed form" for \(g_{n}\).

Theorem 2. Define \(\alpha=(\sqrt{3}-1) / 2\) and \(\beta=\sqrt{3} / 3\). We have
\[
g_{n}= \begin{cases}2\lfloor\alpha n\rfloor+1, & \text { if }[n]_{K} \text { ends in } 1 ; \\ 2\lfloor\alpha n+\beta\rfloor, & \text { if }[n]_{K} \text { ends in } 0 \text { or } 2\end{cases}
\]

Proof. The starting point is the Binet form given in Equation (2). From this, we easily verify that
\[
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{K}_{i+1}-\gamma \mathcal{K}_{i}=(2-\sqrt{3}) \delta^{i} \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
\]
for \(i \geq 0\).
Now suppose \(x=a_{t} a_{t-1} \cdots a_{0} \in\{0,1,2\}^{*}\). From Equation (3) we have
\[
[x]_{K}=\sum_{0 \leq i \leq t} a_{i} \mathcal{K}_{i}
\]
and
\[
[x 0]_{K}=\sum_{0 \leq i \leq t} a_{i} \mathcal{K}_{i+1}
\]

Then, from Equation (4), we get
\[
\begin{equation*}
[x 0]_{K}-\gamma[x 0]_{K}=\sum_{0 \leq i \leq t} a_{i}(2-\sqrt{3}) \delta^{i} \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
\]

Since \(-1<\delta<0\), we can bound the left-hand side of Equation (5) by considering even powers of \(\delta\) separately from odd powers of \(\delta\). Summing to infinity, we get
\[
\begin{equation*}
-2+\frac{2 \sqrt{3}}{3}<[x 0]_{K}-\gamma[x]_{K}<\frac{2 \sqrt{3}}{3} \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
\]

This is one of the two crucial relations.
The second crucial relation, which can be proved by Walnut, is
\[
\begin{equation*}
g\left([x a]_{K}\right)=2[x]_{K}+a . \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
\]
for \(a \in\{0,1,2\}\). Here I am writing \(g()\) instead of \(g\) to make it easier to understand. To prove it, we use the following Walnut code:
```

reg has22 {0,1,2} "(0|1|2)*22(0|1|2)*":
reg lastd {0,1,2} {0,1,2}
"()|([0,0]|[1,0]|[2,0])*([0,0]|[1,1]|[2,2])":
def lastdig "?msd_kim $lastd(n,x) & ~$has22(n)":
eval testeq "?msd_kim An,x,y,z (\$gut(n,x) \& \$lastdig(n,y) \&
\$kshift(n,z)) => x=2*z+y":

```

Here
- has22 checks for occurrence of the forbidden pattern 22 in an expansions;
- lastd takes two inputs \(x\) and \(y\) and accepts if \(y\) is the last digit of \(x\);
- lastdig further enforces the condition that the inputs be in the proper form for a Kimberling expansion; and
- kshift is a simple 3-state automaton that accepts, in parallel, inputs of the form \(x a\) and \(0 x\).

Since the last command returns TRUE, the result is proved.
Now let \(n\) be a positive integer with Kimberling expansion \(x a\), for some string \(x\) and \(a \in\{0,1,2\}\). Then it is trivial that \(n=[x 0]_{K}+a\). Multiply Equation (6) by \(-2 / \gamma\), which reverses the inequalities, to get
\[
\begin{equation*}
\frac{2 \sqrt{3}}{3}-2<2[x]_{K}-(2 / \gamma)[x 0]_{K}<\frac{8 \sqrt{3}}{3}-4 \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
\]

Now add \(a(1-2 / \gamma)\) to both sides of Equation (8) to get
\[
\begin{equation*}
\frac{2 \sqrt{3}}{3}-2+a(1-2 / \gamma)<2[x]_{K}+a-(2 / \gamma)([x 0]+a)<\frac{8 \sqrt{3}}{3}-4+a(1-2 / \gamma) \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
\]

Finally, since \(n=[x a]\) and \(g_{n}=2[x]+a\) and \([x 0]+a=[x a]\) and \(1-2 / \gamma=2-\sqrt{3}\), we get
\[
\begin{equation*}
\frac{2 \sqrt{3}}{3}-2+a(2-\sqrt{3})<g_{n}-(2 / \gamma) n<\frac{8 \sqrt{3}}{3}-4+a(2-\sqrt{3}) \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
\]

From Equation (7) we see that \(g(n)\) is odd if and only if \(a=1\). In this case, setting \(a=1\), subtracting 1 from Equation (10) and dividing by 2, we get
\[
\begin{aligned}
-0.7886751347 \cdots=-(\sqrt{3} / 6+1 / 2)<(g(n)-1) / 2-n / \gamma< & 5 \sqrt{3} / 6-3 / 2 \\
& =-0.0566243267 \ldots
\end{aligned}
\]
and hence \(\lceil(g(n)-1) / 2-n / \gamma\rceil=0\). But \((g(n)-1) / 2\) is an integer, so we can shift it out of the ceiling expression to get \((g(n)-1) / 2+\lceil-n / \gamma\rceil=0\). Using \(-\lfloor x\rfloor=\lceil-x\rceil\), we get \((g(n)-1) / 2-\lfloor n / \gamma\rfloor=0\) and hence \((g(n)-1) / 2=\lfloor n / \gamma\rfloor\). Thus \(g(n)=2\lfloor n / \gamma\rfloor+1\).

Now note that \(g(n)\) is even if and only if either \(a=0\) or \(a=2\). Then, starting with Equation (10), and dividing by 2, we find
\[
\sqrt{3} / 3-1<g(n) / 2-n / \gamma<\sqrt{3} / 3
\]

Adding \(1-\sqrt{3} / 3\) to these inequalities gives
\[
g(n) / 2-n / \gamma+1-\sqrt{3} / 3 \in(0,1)
\]
so \(\lceil g(n) / 2-n / \gamma+1-\sqrt{3} / 3\rceil=1\). But \(g(n) / 2+1\) is an integer, so we can pull it out of the ceiling to get \(g(n) / 2+1+\lceil-n / g-\sqrt{3} / 3\rceil=1\). Thus \(g(n) / 2+1-\lfloor n / g+\sqrt{3} / 3\rfloor=\) 1 , and hence \(g(n) / 2=\lfloor n / g+\sqrt{3} / 3\rfloor\), as desired.

Remark 1. The idea of the proof follows the general lines of a proof of Don Reble for Fibonacci representations [10].

\section*{8. Some Related Sequences and a Problem of Fokkink, Ortega, and Rust}

We now turn to three related sequences; for \(n \geq 1\) the first two give the \(n\) 'th positions of the ones (resp., zeros) in the sequence \(\mathbf{k}\). We call them \(A_{n}\) and \(B_{n}\), respectively. The third sequence, called \(Q_{n}\), has a more complicated definition:
\[
Q_{n}= \begin{cases}n, & \text { if } n \leq 1 ;  \tag{11}\\ Q_{m}, & \text { if } n=Q_{m}+2 m \text { and there is } \\ & \text { exactly one } i<n \text { with } Q_{i}=Q_{m} \\ \text { least positive integer not in } & \\ \left\{Q_{1}, \ldots, Q_{n-1}\right\}, & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
\]

It is sequence A026366 in the OEIS.
\begin{tabular}{c|cccccccccccccccc}
\(n\) & 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 & 9 & 10 & 11 & 12 & 13 & 14 & 15 \\
\hline\(A_{n}\) & 0 & 1 & 2 & 4 & 5 & 7 & 8 & 9 & 10 & 12 & 13 & 15 & 16 & 17 & 18 & 20 \\
\(B_{n}\) & 0 & 3 & 6 & 11 & 14 & 19 & 22 & 25 & 28 & 33 & 36 & 41 & 44 & 47 & 50 & 55 \\
\(Q_{n}\) & 0 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 3 & 4 & 2 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 & 3 & 9 & 10 & 4 & 11
\end{tabular}

Table 3: First few values of \(A_{n}, B_{n}\), and \(Q_{n}\).
Once again we can guess synchronized automata computing these functions and verify that they are correct. The guessed automaton for \(A_{n}\) has 23 states, the guessed automaton for \(B_{n}\) has 24 states, and the guessed automaton for \(Q_{n}\) has 45 states. We call them 'aa', 'bb', and 'qq', respectively.

We now verify correctness of \(A\) and \(B\) :
```

eval check_A_1 "?msd_kim An Ex $aa(n,x)":
eval check_A_2 "?msd_kim An,x,y ($aa(n,x) \& \$aa(n,y)) => x=y":
eval check_A_3 "?msd_kim Ax (En n>=1 \& $aa(n,x)) <=> K[x]=@1":
eval check_A_4 "?msd_kim An,x,y ($aa(n,x) \& \$aa(n+1,y)) => x<y":

```
```

eval check_B_1 "?msd_kim An Ex $bb(n,x)":
eval check_B_2 "?msd_kim An,x,y ($bb(n,x) \& \$bb(n,y)) => x=y":
eval check_B_3 "?msd_kim Ax (En $bb(n,x)) << K[x]=@0":
eval check_B_4 "?msd_kim An,x,y ($bb(n,x) \& \$bb(n+1,y)) => x<y":

```
and Walnut returns TRUE for all of these.
To verify correctness of \(Q\), we need to verify its definition:
```

def occurs_once_in "?msd_kim (Ei,x i>=1 \& i<n \& \$qq(i,x) \& \$qq(m,x)) \&
(~Ei,j,x i>=1 \& i<j \& j<n \& \$qq(i,x) \& \$qq(j,x) \& \$qq(m,x))":

# true if Q_m occurs exactly once in Q_0, Q_1, ..., Q_{n-1}

def occurs_in "?msd_kim Ei,y i<n \& \$qq(i,y) \& \$qq(i,x)":

# true if x occurs in Q_0, ..., Q_{n-1}

def least_not_in "?msd_kim (~$occurs_in(n,x)) &
    (Az (~$occurs_in(n,z)) => z>=x)":

# true if x is the least integer not in Q_1, ..., Q_{n-1}

eval check_Q_1 "?msd_kim An Ex $qq(n,x)":
eval check_Q_2 "?msd_kim An,x,y ($qq(n,x) \& \$qq(n,y)) => x=y":
eval check_Q_3 "?msd_kim Am,n,y,z (1<=m \& m<n \& \$occurs_once_in(m,n) \&
\$qq(m,y) \& n=y+2*m \& $qq(n,z)) => y=z":
eval check_Q_4 "?msd_kim An,y ($qq(n,y) \& ~ (Em 1<=m \& m<n \&
\$occurs_once_in(m,n))) => \$least_not_in(n,y)":

```

So indeed our automaton computes \(Q_{n}\) correctly.
If we look at OEIS sequence A026367, we see that its description says (essentially) "least \(t\) such that \(Q_{t}=n\) ". This allows use to verify that \(\underline{\text { A026367 is in fact } A_{n} \text {, as }}\) follows:
```

def check_A_5 "?msd_kim An,t \$aa(n,t) => $qq(t,n) & Au (u<t)
    => ~$qq(u,n)":

```

Similarly, if we look at OEIS sequence A026368, we see that its description says (essentially) "greatest \(t\) such that \(Q_{t}=n\) ". We can then verify that A026368 is in fact \(B_{n}\), as follows:
```

def check_B_5 "?msd_kim An,t \$bb(n,t) => $qq(t,n) & Au (u>t)
    => ~$qq(u,n)":

```

In particular, we have proved Neil Sloane's observation that " \(\underline{A 026368}\) appears to be [the] complement[ary] sequence of A026367".

We can easily verify the observation of Fokkink, Ortega, and Rust [3] that \(B_{n}=\) \(2 A_{n}+n\) for \(n \geq 0\) :
```

eval check_FOR "?msd_kim An,x,y (\$aa(n,x) \& \$bb(n,y)) => y=2*x+n":

```
and Walnut returns TRUE.
Finally, Fokkink, Ortega, and Rust [3] left the following as an open problem, which we can turn into a theorem.

Theorem 3. For all \(n\) we have \(A_{B_{n}} \in\left\{A_{n}+B_{n}-1, A_{n}+B_{n}\right\}\).
Proof. We use the following Walnut code:
```

eval check_FOR_2 "?msd_kim An,t,x,y (\$aa(n,t) \& \$bb(n,x) \&

```
    \(\$ \mathrm{aa}(\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{y}))=>(\mathrm{y}=\mathrm{t}+\mathrm{x} \mid \mathrm{y}+1=\mathrm{t}+\mathrm{x})\) ":
and Walnut returns TRUE.
Remark 2. Furthermore we could, if it were desired, give a DFAO that computes, for each input \(n\), which of the two alternatives in Theorem 3 holds.

Similarly we can prove, for example, that \(B_{A_{n}}-A_{n}-B_{n} \in\{-3,-2,-1,0,1\}\).

\section*{9. Two More Related Sequences}

In this section we consider two additional related sequences: \(g_{n}^{\prime}:=g_{n} \bmod 2\), and \(h_{n}:=\sum_{0 \leq i<n} g_{n}^{\prime}\). The first few terms are given in Table 4.
\begin{tabular}{c|cccccccccccccccccc}
\(n\) & 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 & 9 & 10 & 11 & 12 & 13 & 14 & 15 & 16 & 17 \\
\hline\(g_{n}^{\prime}\) & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\
\(h_{n}\) & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 2 & 2 & 2 & 3 & 3 & 4 & 4 & 4 & 5 & 5 & 5 & 6 & 6
\end{tabular}

Table 4: First few values of \(g_{n}^{\prime}\) and \(h_{n}\).
Theorem 4. The sequence \(\left(g_{n}^{\prime}\right)_{n \geq 0}\) is sequence A284772 in the OEIS, that is, it is the fixed point of the morphism \(u: 0 \rightarrow 01,1 \rightarrow 0010\).

Proof. First, we create an automaton (in the Kimberling numeration system) for \(g_{n}^{\prime}\) with Walnut:
```

def gp "?msd_kim Ex,y \$gut(n,x) \& x=2*y+1":

```
combine GP gp:
which produces the automaton GP computing \(g_{n}^{\prime}\) displayed in Figure 6.


Figure 6: DFAO computing \(g^{\prime}(n)\).

From the transition diagram of this automaton, we can easily read off the morphism \(r: 0 \rightarrow 012,1 \rightarrow 012,2 \rightarrow 01\) and coding \(s: 0,2 \rightarrow 0,1 \rightarrow 1\), so that \(\left(g_{n}^{\prime}\right)_{n \geq 0}=s\left(r^{\omega}(0)\right)\).

It now remains to verify that \(u^{\omega}(0)=s\left(r^{\omega}(0)\right)\). To do this, we prove by induction on \(n\) that
\[
\begin{equation*}
u^{n}(0)=s\left(r^{n-1}(01)\right) \quad \text { and } \quad u^{n}(1)=s\left(r^{n-1}(2012)\right. \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
\]

The base case is \(n=1\) and is trivial. Now assume \(n \geq 2\). For the induction step, assume that Equation (12) holds for \(n^{\prime}<n\). Then
\[
\begin{aligned}
u^{n}(0) & =u^{n-1}(01)=s\left(r^{n-2}(01) r^{n-2}(2012)\right)=s\left(r^{n-2}(012012)\right)=s\left(r^{n-1}(01)\right) \\
u^{n}(1) & =u^{n-1}(0010)=s\left(r^{n-2}(01) r^{n-2}(01) r^{n-2}(2012) r^{n-2}(01)\right) \\
& =s\left(r^{n-2}(0101201201)\right)=s\left(r^{n-1}(2012)\right)
\end{aligned}
\]
as desired.
Theorem 5. For \(n \geq 0\) we have \(g_{n}=2 h_{n}+g_{n}^{\prime}\).
Proof. We just sketch the proof, as the idea is similar to what we have done before. First, we "guess" a synchronized automaton computing \(\left(h_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}\). Then we verify it is correct using the fact that we must have \(h_{n+1}=h_{n}+g_{n}^{\prime}\). Finally, we verify the equation \(g_{n}=2 h_{n}+g_{n}^{\prime}\).

\section*{10. Subword Complexity}

Recall that the subword complexity function \(\rho(n)\) counts the number of distinct factors of length \(n\) of an infinite word. In this section we compute this function for k.

Call a factor \(w\) of an infinite binary word \(\mathbf{x}\) right-special if both \(w 0\) and \(w 1\) appear in \(\mathbf{x}\). For binary words we know that \(\rho(n+1)-\rho(n)\) counts the number of length- \(n\) right-special factors.

Walnut formulas for special factors are given in [12, Sec. 8.8.6]. Adapting them to our situation, we have the following code:
```

def keqfac "?msd_kim At (t<n) => K[i+t]=K[j+t]":
def kisrs "?msd_kim Ej \$keqfac(i,j,n) \& K[i+n]!=K[j+n]":
eval nothree "?msd_kim Ei,j,k,n \$kisrs(i,n) \& \$kisrs(j,n)
\& $kisrs(k,n) & ~$keqfac(i,j,n) \& ~$keqfac(j,k,n) &
    ~$keqfac(i,k,n)":
def hastwo "?msd_kim Ei,j \$kisrs(i,n) \& $kisrs(j,n) &
    ~$keqfac(i,j,n)":

```

Here
- keqfac asserts that \(\mathbf{k}[i . . i+n-1]=\mathbf{k}[j . . j+n-1]\);
- kisrs asserts that \(\mathbf{k}[i . . i+n-1]\) is a right-special factor;
- nothree asserts that there is no \(n\) for which \(\mathbf{k}\) has three or more distinct right-special factors of length \(n\);
- hastwo accepts precisely those \(n\) for which \(\mathbf{k}\) has exactly two distinct rightspecial factors of length \(n\).

The automaton created by 'hastwo' is displayed in Figure 7.
We can now prove the following theorem.
Theorem 6. The infinite word \(\mathbf{k}\) has exactly two distinct right-special factors of length \(n\) if and only if there exists \(i \geq 0\) such that one of the following holds:
- \(x \leq n<x+\mathcal{K}_{2 i}\), where \(x=\mathcal{K}_{1}+\mathcal{K}_{3}+\cdots+\mathcal{K}_{2 i+1}\);
- \(y \leq n<y+\mathcal{K}_{2 i+1}\), where \(y=\mathcal{K}_{0}+\mathcal{K}_{2}+\cdots+\mathcal{K}_{2 i+2}\).

Proof. We use the following Walnut code:
```

reg ul msd_kim msd_kim "[0,0]*[1,1][0,1](%5B1,1%5D%5B0,0%5D)*(()|[1,1]":
eval check_sw "?msd_kim An \$hastwo(n) <=> Ex,y \$ul(x,y) \& x<=n \& n<y":

```
and Walnut returns TRUE.


Figure 7: Automaton accepting those \(n\) for which \(\mathbf{k}\) has exactly two distinct rightspecial factors of length \(n\).

Corollary 1. We have \(\limsup _{n \geq 1} \rho(n) / n=(30+\sqrt{3}) / 23 \doteq 1.37965438\) and \(\liminf _{n \geq 1} \rho(n) / n=(3+\sqrt{3}) / 4 \doteq 1.1830127\).

\section*{11. Critical Exponents}

Recall that we say \(p \geq 1\) is a period of a finite word \(x=x[1 . . n]\) if \(x[i]=x[i+p]\) for \(1 \leq i \leq n-p\). The exponent of a finite word \(x\) is the length of \(x\) divided by its shortest period. Finally, the critical exponent of an infinite word \(\mathbf{z}\) is the supremum, over all finite nonempty factors \(x\) of \(\mathbf{z}\), of the exponent of \(x\).

Theorem 7. The critical exponent of \(\mathbf{k}\) is \((2 \sqrt{3}+12) / 3 \doteq 5.1547\).

Proof. Since the basic ideas have already been covered elsewhere in detail [12, pp. 148-150], we just sketch them here. We create Walnut formulas for the shortest period of a factor of \(\mathbf{k}\), and then obtain the corresponding longest words with the given period. Then we restrict to those factors of exponent at least 5 . The resulting automaton, computed by 'klong5', accepts pairs of the form \((n, p)=\) \(\left(\left[121(01)^{i} 0\right]_{K},\left[10(00)^{i} 0\right]_{K}\right)\) and \((n, p)=\left(\left[121(01)^{i} 02\right]_{K},\left[10(00)^{i} 00\right]_{K}\right)\). Routine work with two-term linear recurrences then gives the result.
```

def kperi "?msd_kim p>0 \& p<=n \& Aj (j>=i \& j+p<i+n) => K[j]=K[j+p]":
def klper "?msd_kim $kperi(i,n,p) & (Aq (q>=1 & q<p) =>
    ~$kperi(i,n,q))":
def kleastp "?msd_kim Ei,n n>=1 \& \$klper(i,n,p)":
def klongest "?msd_kim (Ei \$klper(i,n,p)) \&
(Ar,i \$klper(i,r,p) => r<=n)":
def klong5 "?msd_kim \$klongest(n,p) \& n>5*p":

```

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