

Base phi representations and golden mean beta-expansions

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Abstract

In the base phi representation any natural number is written uniquely as a sum powers of the golden mean with digits 0 and 1, where one requires that the product of two consecutive digits is always 0. In this paper we give precise expressions for the those natural numbers for which the k th digit is 1, proving two conjectures for $k = 0, 1$. The expressions are all in terms of generalized Beatty sequences.

1 Introduction

Base phi representations were introduced by George Bergman in 1957 ([2]). Base phi representations are also known as beta-expansions of the natural numbers, with $\beta = (1 + \sqrt{5})/2 =: \varphi$, the golden mean. A natural number N is written in base phi if N has the form

$$N = \sum_{i=-\infty}^{\infty} d_i \varphi^i,$$

with digits $d_i = 0$ or 1 , and where $d_1 d_{i+1} = 11$ is not allowed. Similarly to base 10 numbers, we write these representations as

$$\beta(N) = d_L d_{L-1} \dots d_1 d_0 \cdot d_{-1} d_{-2} \dots d_{R-1} d_R.$$

The base phi representation of a number N is unique ([2]). Our main concern will be the distribution of the digit $d_0 = d_0(N)$ over the natural numbers $N \in \mathbb{N}$. Several authors have interpreted this in the frequency sense. The following result was conjectured by Bergman, and proved in [6].

Theorem 1.1 *The frequency of 1's in $(d_0(N))$ exists, and $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{M=1}^N d_0(M) = \frac{1}{\varphi+2} = \frac{5-\sqrt{5}}{10}$.*

A more detailed description, obviously implying the previous theorem, was conjectured by Baruchel in 2018 (see A214971 in [8]):

Conjecture 1 *Digit $d_0(N) = 1$ if and only if $N = \lfloor n\varphi \rfloor + 2n + 1$ for some natural number n , or $N = 1$.*

Here $\lfloor \cdot \rfloor$ denotes the floor function, and $(\lfloor n\varphi \rfloor)$ is the well known lower Wythoff sequence. The corresponding result for digit d_1 was conjectured by Kimberling in 2012 (see A054770 in [8]):

Conjecture 2 *Digit $d_1(N) = 1$ if and only if $N = \lfloor n\varphi \rfloor + 2n - 1$ for some natural number n .*

Both conjectures will be proved in Section 5. In Section 2, 3 and 4 we introduce some objects and tools used in the proof. Finally Section 6 gives the result for any digit $d_k(N)$ with $k \geq 1$ of the base phi expansion.

In future work we plan to extend our results to the metallic means, or more generally to arbitrary quadratic bases, as defined and analyzed in [3].

2 Generalized Beatty sequences

The sequences occurring in the conjectures are sequences V of the type $V(n) = p(\lfloor n\alpha \rfloor) + qn + r$, $n \geq 1$, where α is a real number, and p, q , and r are integers. As in [1], we call them *generalized Beatty sequences*. If S is a sequence, we denote its sequence of first order differences as ΔS , i.e., ΔS is defined by

$$\Delta S(n) = S(n+1) - S(n), \quad \text{for } n = 1, 2, \dots$$

It is well known ([7]) that the sequence $\Delta(\lfloor n\varphi \rfloor)$ is equal to the Fibonacci word $x_{1,2} = 1211212112\dots$ on the alphabet $\{1, 2\}$. More generally, we have the following simple lemma.

Lemma 2.1 ([1]) *Let $V = (V(n))_{n \geq 1}$ be the generalized Beatty sequence defined by $V(n) = p\lfloor n\varphi \rfloor + qn + r$, and let ΔV be the sequence of its first differences. Then ΔV is the Fibonacci word on the alphabet $\{2p+q, p+q\}$. Conversely, if $x_{a,b}$ is the Fibonacci word on the alphabet $\{a, b\}$, then any V with $\Delta V = x_{a,b}$ is a generalized Beatty sequence $V = ((a-b)\lfloor n\varphi \rfloor) + (2b-a)n + r$ for some integer r .*

3 Morphisms

A morphism is a map from the set of infinite words over an alphabet to itself, respecting the concatenation operation. The canonical example is the Fibonacci morphism σ on the alphabet $\{0, 1\}$ given by

$$\sigma(0) = 01, \quad \sigma(1) = 0.$$

A central role in this paper is played by the morphism γ on the alphabet $\{A, B, C, D\}$ given by

$$\gamma(A) = AB, \quad \gamma(B) = C, \quad \gamma(C) = D, \quad \gamma(D) = ABC.$$

In the following we write $|w|$ for the length of a finite word w . Here are some useful properties of γ .

Lemma 3.1 *The morphism γ has the following properties*

- i) $|\gamma^n(A)| = L_n$, for all $n \geq 2$, where L_n is the n th Lucas number (see next section).
- ii) $\gamma^n(A) = \gamma^n(C)$ and $\gamma^n(A) = \gamma^{n+1}(B)$ for all $n \geq 2$.

Proof: i) Starting at $n = 2$, it follows easily with induction from the recursion of the Lucas numbers that one has $|\gamma^n(A)| = L_n$, $|\gamma^n(B)| = L_{n-1}$, $|\gamma^n(C)| = L_n$, $|\gamma^n(D)| = L_{n+1}$.

ii) This follows immediately from $\gamma^2(A) = \gamma(AB) = ABC = \gamma(D) = \gamma^2(C)$. □

It is notationally convenient to extend the semigroup of words to the free group of words. For example, one has $DC^{-1}B^{-1}BC = D$.

4 Lucas numbers

The Lucas numbers $(L_n) = (2, 1, 3, 4, 7, 11, 18, 29, 47, 76, 123, 199, 322, \dots)$ are defined by

$$L_0 = 2, \quad L_1 = 1, \quad L_n = L_{n-1} + L_{n-2} \quad \text{for } n \geq 2.$$

The Lucas numbers have a particularly simple base phi representation.

From the well-known formula $L_{2n} = \varphi^{2n} + \varphi^{-2n}$, and the recursion $L_{2n+1} = L_{2n} + L_{2n-1}$, we have for all $n \geq 1$

$$\beta(L_{2n}) = 10^{2n} \cdot 0^{2n-1}1, \quad \beta(L_{2n+1}) = 1(01)^n \cdot (01)^n.$$

Exercise Show that the base phi representation of $L_{2n+1} + 1$ equals $\beta(L_{2n+1} + 1) = 10^{2n+1} \cdot (10)^n 01$ —see also Lemma 3.3. (2) in [6], but note that these authors write the digits in reverse order.

Since $\beta(L_{2n})$ consists of only 0's between the exterior 1's, the following lemma is obvious.

Lemma 4.1 *For all $n \geq 1$ and $k = 1, \dots, L_{2n-1}$ one has $\beta(L_{2n} + k) = \beta(L_{2n}) + \beta(k) = 10 \dots 0 \beta(k) 0 \dots 01$.*

As in [5], [6], and [9], the strategy will be to partition the natural numbers in intervals $[L_n + 1, L_{n+1}]$, and establish recursive relations for the β -expansions of the numbers in these intervals. However, an analogous formula as in Lemma 4.1 starting from an *odd* Lucas number does not exist. To obtain recursive relations the interval $[L_{2n+1} + 1, L_{2n+2} - 1]$ has to be divided into three subintervals. These three intervals are

$$I_n := [L_{2n+1}+1, L_{2n+1}+L_{2n-2}-1], J_n := [L_{2n+1}+L_{2n-2}, L_{2n+1}+L_{2n-1}], K_n := [L_{2n+1}+L_{2n-1}+1, L_{2n+2}-1].$$

Note that I_n and K_n have the same length $L_{2n-2} - 1$, that J_n has length $L_{2n-3} + 1$, and that the starting point $L_{2n+1} + L_{2n-2}$ of J_n can be written as $2L_{2n}$.

From parts b. and c. of Proposition 3.1 and part c. of Proposition 3.2 in the paper by Sanchis and Sanchis ([9]) we obtain¹ recursions for the beta-expansions of the natural numbers in the intervals I_n, K_n and J_n .

Lemma 4.2 ([9]) *For all $n \geq 2$ and $k = 1, \dots, L_{2n-2} - 1$*

$$\beta(L_{2n+1} + k) = 1000(10)^{-1}\beta(L_{2n-1} + k)(01)^{-1}1001,$$

$$\beta(L_{2n+1} + L_{2n-1} + k) = 1010(10)^{-1}\beta(L_{2n-1} + k)(01)^{-1}0001 = 10\beta(L_{2n-1} + k)(01)^{-1}0001.$$

Moreover, for all $n \geq 2$ and $k = 0, \dots, L_{2n-3}$

$$\beta(L_{2n+1} + L_{2n-2} + k) = 10010(10)^{-1}\beta(L_{2n-2} + k)(01)^{-1}001001.$$

As an illustration, we write out what Lemma 4.2 gives for $n = 2$. In the first part k takes the values 1 and $L_2 - 1 = 2$, giving $(10)^{-1}\beta(5)(01)^{-1} = 00 \cdot 10$ and $(10)^{-1}\beta(6)(01)^{-1} = 10 \cdot 00$. So the beta expansions of $L_5 + 1 = 12$, $L_5 + 2 = 13$, $L_5 + L_3 + 1 = 16$ and $L_5 + L_3 + 2 = 17$ are

$$\beta(12) = 100000 \cdot 101001, \quad \beta(13) = 100010 \cdot 001001, \quad \beta(16) = 101000 \cdot 100001, \quad \beta(17) = 101010 \cdot 000001.$$

In the second part of Lemma 4.2 k takes the values 0 and $L_1 = 1$, giving $(10)^{-1}\beta(3)(01)^{-1} = 0 \cdot$ and $(10)^{-1}\beta(4)(01)^{-1} = 1 \cdot$. So the beta expansions of $L_5 + L_2 + 1 = 14$ and $L_5 + L_2 + 1 = 15$ are

$$\beta(14) = 100100 \cdot 001001, \quad \beta(15) = 100101 \cdot 001001.$$

5 A proof of the conjectures

The conjectures in the introduction will be part of the following more general result.

Theorem 5.1 *Let $\beta(N) = (d_i(N))$ be the base phi representation of a natural number N . Then:*

$$\begin{aligned} d_0(N) = 1 & \quad \text{if and only if } N = \lfloor n\varphi \rfloor + 2n + 1 \text{ for some natural number } n, \\ d_1 d_0(N) = 10 & \quad \text{if and only if } N = \lfloor n\varphi \rfloor + 2n - 1 \text{ for some natural number } n, \\ d_1 d_0 d_{-1}(N) = 000 & \quad \text{if and only if } N = \lfloor n\varphi \rfloor + 2n \text{ for some natural number } n, \\ d_1 d_0 d_{-1}(N) = 001 & \quad \text{if and only if } N = 3\lfloor n\varphi \rfloor + n + 1 \text{ for some natural number } n. \end{aligned}$$

¹N.B.: these authors write the beta-expansions in reverse order

It is convenient to code the four possibilities for the digits of N by a map T to an alphabet of four letters $\{A, B, C, D\}$. We let

$$\begin{aligned} T(N) = A & \text{ iff } d_1 d_0(N) = 10, & T(N) = B & \text{ iff } d_1 d_0 d_{-1}(N) = 000, \\ T(N) = C & \text{ iff } d_0(N) = 1, & T(N) = D & \text{ iff } d_1 d_0 d_{-1}(N) = 001. \end{aligned}$$

We thus have the following scheme.

N	$\beta(N)$	$T(N)$	N	$\beta(N)$	$T(N)$	N	$\beta(N)$	$T(N)$
1	1	C	9	10010 · 0101	A	17	101010 · 000001	A
2	10 · 01	A	10	10100 · 0101	B	18	1000000 · 000001	B
3	100 · 01	B	11	10101 · 0101	C	19	1000001 · 000001	C
4	101 · 01	C	12	100000 · 101001	D	20	1000010 · 010001	A
5	1000 · 1001	D	13	100010 · 001001	A	21	1000100 · 010001	B
6	1010 · 0001	A	14	100100 · 001001	B	22	1000101 · 010001	C
7	10000 · 0001	B	15	100101 · 001001	C	23	1001000 · 100101	D
8	10001 · 0001	C	16	101000 · 100001	D	24	1001010 · 000101	A

The reader may check the validity of the following T -values, which we use in the proof of Theorem 5.3:

$$T(L_{2n}) = B, \quad T(L_{2n} + 1) = C, \quad T(L_{2n+1} + 1) = D \quad \text{for all } n \geq 1.$$

Theorem 5.2 *The sequence $(T(N))_{N \geq 2}$ is the unique fixed point of the morphism γ .*

Theorem 5.2 is an immediate consequence of Theorem 5.3.

Theorem 5.3 *Let γ be the morphism given by $A \mapsto AB, B \mapsto C, C \mapsto D, D \mapsto ABC$. Then*

- a) $T(2)T(3) \cdots T(L_n + 1) = \gamma^n(A)$ for $n \geq 2$
- b) $T(L_n + 2)T(L_n + 3) \cdots T(L_{n+1} + 1) = \gamma^{n-1}(A)$ for $n \geq 3$.

Proof: We prove a) and b) simultaneously by induction.

For $n = 2$, $L_2 = 3$, and one finds $T(2)T(3)T(4) = ABC$, which indeed equals $\gamma^2(A)$.

Also for $n = 3$, one has $T(2)T(3)T(4)T(5) = ABCD = \gamma^3(A)$.

Part b) for $n = 3$ is checked by $T(6)T(7)T(8) = ABC = \gamma^2(A)$.

In the following we do not formally perform an induction step $n \rightarrow n + 1$, but show how T -images of intervals can be expressed in T -images of intervals with lower indices. We have for part a)

$$\begin{aligned} T(2) \cdots T(L_{n+1} + 1) &= T(2) \cdots T(L_n + 1) T(L_n + 2) \cdots T(L_{n+1} + 1) \\ &= \gamma^n(A) \gamma^{n-1}(A) \\ &= \gamma^n(AB) = \gamma^{n+1}(A). \end{aligned}$$

Here we used Lemma 3.1 part ii).

For part b), this formula follows for even indices directly from Lemma 4.1 and part a):

$$\begin{aligned} T(L_{2n} + 2) \cdots T(L_{2n+1}) T(L_{2n+1} + 1) &= T(L_{2n} + 2) \cdots T(L_{2n+1}) D \\ &= T(2) \cdots T(L_{2n-1}) D \\ &= T(2) \cdots T(L_{2n-1}) T(L_{2n-1} + 1) = \gamma^{2n-1}(A). \end{aligned}$$

For odd indices, we use Lemma 4.2. We have

$$\begin{aligned}
T(L_{2n+1} + 1) \cdots T(L_{2n+1} + L_{2n-2} - 1) &= T(L_{2n+1} + 1) \gamma^{2n-2}(A) T(L_{2n} + 1)^{-1} T(L_{2n})^{-1} \\
&= D \gamma^{2n-2}(A) C^{-1} B^{-1}, \\
T(L_{2n+1} + L_{2n-2}) \cdots T(L_{2n+1} + L_{2n-1}) &= T(L_{2n-2}) T(L_{2n-2} + 1) \cdots T(L_{2n-1} + 1) T(L_{2n-1} + 1)^{-1} \\
&= B C \gamma^{2n-3}(A) D^{-1}, \\
T(L_{2n+1} + L_{2n-1} + 1) \cdots T(L_{2n+2} - 1) &= D \gamma^{2n-2}(A) C^{-1} B^{-1}.
\end{aligned}$$

Concatenating the T -images of the intervals I_n, J_n and K_n , we obtain, using Lemma 3.1 part ii)

$$\begin{aligned}
&T(L_{2n+1} + 2) \cdots T(L_{2n+2} + 1) = \\
&T(L_{2n-1} + 1)^{-1} D \gamma^{2n-2}(A) C^{-1} B^{-1} B C \gamma^{2n-3}(A) D^{-1} D \gamma^{2n-2}(A) C^{-1} B^{-1} B C = \\
&\gamma^{2n-2}(A) \gamma^{2n-3}(A) \gamma^{2n-2}(A) = \gamma^{2n-2}(ABC) = \gamma^{2n-2}(\gamma^2(A)) = \gamma^{2n}(A).
\end{aligned}$$

Proof of Theorem 5.1: From Theorem 5.2 we know that the digit $d_0(N) = 1$ iff $T(N) = C$, where (with some abuse of notation) $T = CABCABCD \dots$ is the fixed point of γ , prefixed by C . We see from the form of γ^2 that (apart from the prefix C) T is a concatenation of the words ABC and D . Suppose we apply a code: $\psi(ABC) = 0, \psi(D) = 1$. Then γ induces a morphism σ on the alphabet $\{0, 1\}$:

$$\sigma : \quad 0 \mapsto \psi(\gamma(ABC)) = \psi(ABCD) = 01, \quad 1 \mapsto \psi(\gamma(D)) = \psi(ABC) = 1.$$

We see that σ is the Fibonacci morphism, with fixed point $x_{0,1}$. But the 0's in $x_{0,1}$ occur at positions $[n\varphi]$, $n = 1, 2, \dots$ (see, e.g., [7]). Since the differences between the indices of the positions of C in T are expanded by 2 by the inverse of ψ , and because of the prefix C , this implies that the C 's occur at positions $[n\varphi] + 2n + 1$, for $n = 0, 1, \dots$. But obviously A 's always occur at two places before a C , implying that the positions of A are given by $[n\varphi] + 2n - 1$, for $n = 1, \dots$. Similarly the positions of B are given by $[n\varphi] + 2n$.

Finding the positions of D is more involved. Consider the locations of D in the morphism γ^4 :

$$\gamma^4 : \quad A \mapsto ABC\underline{D}ABC, \quad B \mapsto ABC\underline{D}, \quad C \mapsto ABC\underline{D}ABC, \quad D \mapsto ABC\underline{D}ABCABC\underline{D}.$$

We see from this that the difference between the indices of occurrence of D in $T = \gamma^4(T)$ is always 4 or 7. Moreover, the distances generated by A, B, C and D under γ are respectively 7, 4, 7, and the pair 7,4. Mapping $A \mapsto 7, B \mapsto 4, C \mapsto 7, D \mapsto 74$, the morphism γ induces for A, C and B a morphism $7 \mapsto 74, 4 \mapsto 7$. Moreover, this morphism is compatible with the part induced by D : $74 \mapsto 747$. It follows that the sequence of differences of indices of occurrence of D is nothing else but the Fibonacci sequence $x_{7,4}$ on the alphabet $\{7, 4\}$. Lemma 2.1 then gives that this sequence equals $(3[n\varphi] + n + 1)_{n \geq 1}$. \square

Remark 5.4 With induction, using Lemma 4.1 and 4.2, one proves that $d_1 d_0(N) = 10$ forces $d_{-1}(N) = 0$. It follows that Theorem 5.1 implies that

$$\text{Digit } d_{-1}(N) = 1 \text{ if and only if } N = 3[n\varphi] + n + 1 \text{ for some natural number } n.$$

6 A general result

Here we given an expression for the set of N with $d_k(N) = 1$ for any $k > 1$. Recall that we partitioned the natural numbers in Lucas intervals $\Lambda_{2n} := [L_{2n}, L_{2n+1}]$ and $\Lambda_{2n+1} := [L_{2n+1} + 1, L_{2n+2} - 1]$. The basic idea behind this partition is that if

$$\beta(N) = d_L d_{L-1} \dots d_1 d_0 \cdot d_{-1} d_{-2} \dots d_{R-1} d_R,$$

then the left most index $L = L(N)$ and the right most index $R = R(N)$ satisfy

$$L(N) = 2n + 1, \quad R(N) = 2n \text{ iff } N \in \Lambda_{2n}, \quad L(N) = 2n + 2 = R(N) \text{ iff } N \in \Lambda_{2n+1}.$$

This is not hard to see from the simple expressions we have for the β -expansions of the Lucas numbers, see also Theorem 1 in [4]. For the cardinality $|\Lambda_n|$ of Λ_n we have (of course!)

$$|\Lambda_n| = \lfloor \varphi^{n+1} \rfloor - \lfloor \varphi^n \rfloor.$$

Note that we also have $|\Lambda_{2n}| = L_{2n-1} + 1$, and $|\Lambda_{2n+1}| = L_{2n} - 1$, the expressions used in [9]. It can therefore be checked easily that our Theorem 6.1 implies the main result of [9] (for positive k).

Theorem 6.1 *Let $\beta(N) = (d_i(N))$ be the base phi representation of a natural number N , and let $k \geq 2$. Then $d_k(N) = 1$ if and only if N is a member of one of the generalized Beatty sequences $(\lfloor n\varphi \rfloor L_k + nL_{k-1} + r)$, where $r = r_1, r_1 + 1, \dots, r_1 + |\Lambda_k| - 1$, with $r_1 = -L_{k-1}$ if k is even, and $r_1 = -L_{k-1} + 1$ if k is odd.*

Proof: It turns out that the coding with the alphabet $\{A, B, C, D\}$ is still useful. In fact, we extend this alphabet to an alphabet $\{A_0, A_1, B_0, B_1, C_0, C_1, D_0, D_1\}$ via the extended coding T_+ defined for $j = 0, 1$ by

$$T_+(N) = A_j \text{ iff } d_k(N) = j, T(N) = A, \dots, T_+(N) = D_j \text{ iff } d_k(N) = j, T(N) = D.$$

We also want to extend the morphism γ to a morphism γ_+ . Here it turns out that one has to extend γ^{k+2} instead of γ . For simplicity in notation we suppress the dependence on k in γ_+ . We obtain γ_+ by looking at $\gamma^{k+2}(A)\gamma^{k+2}(B)\gamma^{k+2}(C)\gamma^{k+2}(D)$ —note that this word is always a prefix of $(T(N))_{N \geq 2}$ as a consequence of Theorem 5.2. We define

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma_+(A_0) &= \gamma_+(A_1) = T_+(2) \dots T_+(L_{k+2} + 1), \\ \gamma_+(B_0) &= \gamma_+(B_1) = T_+(L_{k+2} + 2) \dots T_+(L_{k+2} + L_{k+1} + 1) = T_+(L_{k+2} + 2) \dots T_+(L_{k+3} + 1), \\ \gamma_+(C_0) &= \gamma_+(C_1) = T_+(L_{k+3} + 2) \dots T_+(L_{k+3} + L_{k+2} + 1) = T_+(L_{k+3} + 2) \dots T_+(L_{k+4} + 1), \\ \gamma_+(D_0) &= \gamma_+(D_1) = T_+(L_{k+4} + 2) \dots T_+(L_{k+4} + L_{k+3} + 1) = T_+(L_{k+4} + 2) \dots T_+(L_{k+5} + 1). \end{aligned}$$

In view of the complexity of the proof we start with the case $k = 2$, so $\gamma^{k+2} = \gamma^4$, and γ_+ has the form:

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma_+(A_0) &= \gamma_+(A_1) = A_0 B_1 C_1 D_0 A_0 B_0 C_0, \\ \gamma_+(B_0) &= \gamma_+(B_1) = A_0 B_1 C_1 D_0, \\ \gamma_+(C_0) &= \gamma_+(C_1) = A_0 B_1 C_1 D_0 A_0 B_0 C_0, \\ \gamma_+(D_0) &= \gamma_+(D_1) = A_0 B_1 C_1 D_0 A_0 B_0 C_0 A_0 B_1 C_1 D_0. \end{aligned}$$

Here the $B_1 C_1$ in $\gamma_+(A_j)$ is coming from the first couple of 1's in $d_2(N)$ occurring in $\Lambda_2 = [L_2, L_3] = [3, 4]$.

We claim that $(T_+(N))_{N \geq 2}$ is the unique fixed point of γ_+ . We will prove this in a way similar to the proof of Theorem 5.3.

CLAIM:

- ⊞ a) $T_+(2) \dots T_+(L_{4n} + 1) = \gamma_+^n(A_0)$ for $n \geq 1$
- ⊞ b) $T_+(L_{4n} + 2) \dots T_+(L_{4n+1} + 1) = \gamma_+^n(B_0)$ for $n \geq 1$.
- ⊞ c) $T_+(L_{4n+1} + 2) \dots T_+(L_{4n+2} + 1) = \gamma_+^n(C_0)$ for $n \geq 1$.
- ⊞ d) $T_+(L_{4n+2} + 2) \dots T_+(L_{4n+3} + 1) = \gamma_+^n(D_0)$ for $n \geq 1$.
- ⊞ e) $T_+(L_{4n+3} + 2) \dots T_+(L_{4n+4} + 1) = \gamma_+^n(A_0 B_0 C_0)$ for $n \geq 1$.

Proof of the claim: This will be done with induction, with an unexpected twist.

First the case $n = 1$.

By definition one has ⊞ a) $T_+(2) \dots T_+(L_4 + 1) = \gamma_+(A_0)$, ⊞ b) $T_+(L_4 + 2) \dots T_+(L_5 + 1) = \gamma_+(B_0)$, ⊞ c) $T_+(L_5 + 2) \dots T_+(L_6 + 1) = \gamma_+(C_0)$, and ⊞ d) $T_+(L_6 + 2) \dots T_+(L_7 + 1) = \gamma_+(D_0)$.

What remains is ⊞ e) $T_+(L_7 + 2) \dots T_+(L_8 + 1) = \gamma_+(A_0 B_0 C_0)$, which can be proved by using Lemma 4.2: the central part of $\beta(L_7 + k)$ equals $\beta(L_5 + k)$ for $k = 1, \dots, L_4 - 1$, yielding $T_+(L_7 + 2) \dots T_+(L_7 + L_4 - 1) = \gamma_+(C_0) C_0^{-1} B_0^{-1}$. Similarly, $T_+(L_7 + L_5 + 1) \dots T_+(L_8 - 1) = D_0 \gamma_+(C_0) C_0^{-1} B_0^{-1}$. In between we have

$T_+(L_7+L_4) \cdots T_+(L_7+L_4+L_3) = B_0 C_0 \gamma_+(B_0) D_0^{-1}$. Pasting these three words together, and adding the two letters $T_+(L_8) = B_0$, and $T_+(L_8+1) = C_0$, we obtain the word $\gamma_+(C_0 B_0 C_0) = \gamma_+(A_0 B_0 C_0)$.

Next we make the induction step $n \rightarrow n+1$.

⊞ a) Here one splits $T_+(2) \cdots T_+(L_{4(n+1)}+1)$ into 5 subwords $T_+(L_{4n+j}+2) \cdots T_+(L_{4n+j+1}+1)$, $j = 0, \dots, 4$. The induction hypothesis then gives

$$T_+(2) \cdots T_+(L_{4(n+1)}+1) = \gamma_+^n(A_0) \gamma_+^n(B_0) \gamma_+^n(C_0) \gamma_+^n(D_0) \gamma_+^n(A_0 B_0 C_0) = \gamma_+^{n+1}(A_0).$$

⊞ b) From Lemma 4.1 one obtains from the induction hypothesis, again with a splitting

$$T_+(L_{4(n+1)}+2) \cdots T_+(L_{4(n+1)+1}+1) = T_+(2) \cdots T_+(L_{4n+3}+1) = \gamma_+^n(A_0) \gamma_+^n(B_0) \gamma_+^n(C_0) \gamma_+^n(D_0) = \gamma_+^{n+1}(B_0).$$

⊞ c) This is more involved, as we have to use Lemma 4.2. This lemma yields

$$\begin{aligned} T_+(L_{4(n+1)+1}+2) \cdots T_+(L_{4(n+1)+1}+L_{4n+2}-1) &= T_+(L_{4(n+1)-1}+2) \cdots T_+(L_{4(n+1)-1}+L_{4n+2}-1) \\ &= T_+(L_{4n+3}+2) \cdots T_+(L_{4n+4}-1) = \gamma_+^n(A_0 B_0 C_0) C_0^{-1} B_0^{-1}, \end{aligned}$$

where we used part e) of the induction hypothesis in the last step. For the 'middle part' Lemma 4.2 yields

$$T_+(L_{4(n+1)+1}+L_{4n+2}) \cdots T_+(L_{4(n+1)+1}+L_{4n+3}) = T_+(L_{4n+2}) \cdots T_+(L_{4n+3}) = B_0 C_0 \gamma_+^n(D_0) D_0^{-1}$$

The last part is similar to the first part. Pasting the three parts together, and adding $B_0 C_0$ at the end we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} T_+(L_{4(n+1)+1}+2) \cdots T_+(L_{4(n+1)+2}+1) &= \gamma_+^n(A_0 B_0 C_0) C_0^{-1} B_0^{-1} B_0 C_0 \gamma_+^n(D_0) D_0^{-1} D_0 \gamma_+^n(A_0 B_0 C_0) C_0^{-1} B_0^{-1} B_0 C_0 \\ &= \gamma_+^n(A_0 B_1 C_1) \gamma_+^n(D_0) \gamma_+^n(A_0 B_0 C_0) = \gamma_+^{n+1}(C_0). \end{aligned}$$

⊞ d) From Lemma 4.1 one obtains

$$\begin{aligned} T_+(L_{4(n+1)+2}+2) \cdots T_+(L_{4(n+1)+3}+1) &= T_+(2) \cdots T_+(L_{4n+5}+1) \\ &= T_+(2) \cdots T_+(L_{4n+4}+1) T_+(L_{4n+4}+2) \cdots T_+(L_{4n+5}+1) \\ &= \gamma_+^{n+1}(A_0) \gamma_+^{n+1}(B_0) = \gamma_+^{n+1}(D_0). \end{aligned}$$

Here we could not use the induction hypothesis, but can apply part a) and b) already proved above.

⊞ e) Again, we have to use Lemma 4.2. This lemma yields

$$\begin{aligned} T_+(L_{4(n+1)+3}+2) \cdots T_+(L_{4(n+1)+3}+L_{4n+2}-1) &= T_+(L_{4(n+1)+1}+2) \cdots T_+(L_{4(n+1)+1}+L_{4n+4}-1) \\ &= T_+(L_{4n+5}+2) \cdots T_+(L_{4n+6}-1) = \gamma_+^{n+1}(C_0) C_0^{-1} B_0^{-1}, \end{aligned}$$

where we used part c) already proved above. For the 'middle part' Lemma 4.2 yields

$$T_+(L_{4(n+1)+3}+L_{4n+4}) \cdots T_+(L_{4(n+1)+3}+L_{4n+5}) = T_+(L_{4n+4}) \cdots T_+(L_{4n+5}) = B_0 C_0 \gamma_+^{n+1}(B_0) D_0^{-1},$$

where we used part b) already proved above.

The last part is similar to the first part. Pasting the three parts together we obtain

$$T_+(L_{4(n+1)+3}+2) \cdots T_+(L_{4(n+1)+4}+1) = \gamma_+^{n+1}(C_0) \gamma_+^{n+1}(B_0) \gamma_+^{n+1}(C_0) = \gamma_+^{n+1}(A_0 B_0 C_0).$$

This finishes the proof of the claim. To finish the proof of the theorem for the case $k=2$, we note that the situation is almost identical² to the appearance of D in $\gamma^4(A), \dots, \gamma^4(D)$ at the end of the proof of Theorem 5.2: the words $B_1 C_1$ occur at indices which differ by 7 or 4, and these differences occur as $x_{7,4}$, the Fibonacci

²This observation also leads to a more or less independent proof of Theorem 6.1 for $k=2$: $B_1 C_1$ occurs always immediately before D_0 , so the positions of B_1 , respectively C_1 , are just those of D in Theorem 5.1 shifted by -1 and -2.

word on the alphabet $\{7, 4\}$. An application of Lemma 2.1 then gives that the numbers N with $d_2(N) = 1$ occur as $N = 3\lfloor n\varphi \rfloor + n + r$ with two possibilities for r , which are found to be $r = 0$ and $r = -1$.

Consider in general the case of an even integer $2k$, $k = 1, 2, \dots$. One first proves that $(T_+(N))_{N \geq 2}$ is the unique fixed point of γ_+ , following the same scheme as in the proof for the $k = 2$ case. Next, one has to sort out where the N with $d_{2k}(N) = 1$ appear with respect to the $\gamma_+(A_0), \dots, \gamma_+(D_0)$ in the fixed point of γ_+ . The first time $d_{2k}(N) = 1$ appears is for $N = L_{2k}$, the first number in Λ_{2k} , and all other N in Λ_{2k} also have $d_{2k}(N) = 1$. By Lemma 4.1, these trains of N 's with $d_{2k}(N) = 1$ also appear at the end of Λ_{2k+2} (excepting $N = L_{2k+3} + 1$). Since they can not appear in Λ_{2k+1} , this *is* the second appearance of the train. Application of Lemma 4.2, and another time Lemma 4.1, then gives that the third appearance is in Λ_{2k+3} , and the fourth and fifth appearance are in Λ_{2k+4} . Moreover, these three Lucas intervals correspond—except for one or two symbols at the begin and at the end—to the intervals used to define $\gamma_+(B_0)$, $\gamma_+(C_0)$, and $\gamma_+(D_0)$, and at the same time it shows that $\gamma_+(C_0) = \gamma_+(A_0)$, and $\gamma_+(D_0) = \gamma_+(B_0)\gamma_+(C_0)$.

This means that the situation is very much like the appearance of B_1C_1 in the words $\gamma_+(A_0), \dots, \gamma_+(D_0)$ in the $k = 2$ case treated above: the trains occur at indices which differ by L_{2k+2} or L_{2k+1} , and these differences occur as $x_{L_{2k+2}, L_{2k+1}}$, the Fibonacci word on the alphabet $\{L_{2k+2}, L_{2k+1}\}$. An application of Lemma 2.1 then gives that the numbers N in the train occur as $\lfloor n\varphi \rfloor L_{2k} + nL_{2k-1} + r$ for some r , since

$$L_{2k+2} - L_{2k+1} = L_{2k}, \quad \text{and} \quad 2L_{2k+1} - L_{2k+2} = L_{2k-1}.$$

Substituting $n = 1$, corresponding to the first train, with first element $N = L_{2k}$, gives $r_1 = -L_{2k-1}$. The length of the train is of course $|\Lambda_{2k}|$.

The proof for odd integers $2k + 1$ follows the same steps, the sole difference being that r_1 turns out to be one larger, due to the fact that Λ_{2k} starts at L_{2k} , but Λ_{2k+1} starts at $L_{2k+1} + 1$. \square

Remark 6.2 A result similar to Theorem 6.1 will hold for digits $d_N(k)$ with k negative, but the situation is somewhat more complex. One has, for example,

Digit $d_{-2}(N) = 1$ if and only if $N = 4\lfloor n\varphi \rfloor + 3n + r$ for some $r = 2, 3, 4$ and some non-negative integer n .

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