L. CARLITZ<sup>\*</sup>and RICHARD SCOVILLE Duke University, Durham, North Carolina and

VERNER E. HOGGATT, JR. San Jose State University, San Jose, California

### 1. INTRODUCTION AND SUMMARY

Consider the sequence defined by

(1.1)  $u_0 = 0, \quad u_1 = 1, \quad u_{n+1} = u_n + 2u_{n-1} \quad (n \ge 1).$ 

It follows at once from (1.1) that

(1.2) 
$$u_n = \frac{1}{3}(2^n - (-1)^n), \quad u_n + u_{n+1} = 2^n.$$

The first few values of  $u_n$  are easily computed.

It is not difficult to show that the sums

(1.3) 
$$\sum_{i=2}^{k} \epsilon_{i} u_{i} \qquad (k = 2, 3, 4, \cdots),$$

where each  $\epsilon_i$  = 0 or 1, are distinct. The first few numbers in (1.3) are

Thus there is a sequence of "missing" numbers beginning with

$$(1.4) 2, 7, 10, 13, 18, 23, 28, 31, 34, 39, \cdots$$

In order to identify the sequence (1.4) we first define an array of positive integers R in the following way. The elements of the first row are denoted by a(n), of the second row by b(n), of the third row by c(n). Put

<sup>\*</sup> Supported in part by NSF Grant GP-17031.

a(1) = 1, b(1) = 3, c(1) = 2.

Assume that the first n - 1 columns of R have been filled. Then a(n) is the smallest integer not already appearing, while

(1.5) b(n) = a(n) + 2nand (1.6) c(n) = b(n) - 1.

The sets  $\{a(n)\}, \{b(n)\}, \{c(n)\}\$  constitute a disjoint partition of the positive integers. The following table is readily constructed.

n	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
a	1	4	5	6	9	12	15	16	17	20	21	22
b	3	8	11	14	19	24	29	32	35	40	43	48
с	2	7	10	13	18	23	28	31	34	39	42	47

The table suggests that the numbers c(n) are the "missing" numbers (1.4) and we shall prove that this is indeed the case.

Let  $A_k$  Denote the set of numbers

(1.7) 
$$\begin{cases} N = u_{k_1} + u_{k_2} + \dots + u_{k_r}, \\ 2 \le k = k_1 \le k_2 \le \dots \le k_r \end{cases}$$

and  $r = 1, 2, 3, \cdots$ . We shall show that

(1.8) 
$$A_{2k+2} = ab^{k}a(N) \cup ab^{k}c(N) \quad (k \ge 0)$$

and

(1.9) 
$$A_{2k+1} = b^k a(\widetilde{N}) \cup b^k c(\widetilde{N}) \qquad (k \ge 1),$$

where N denotes the set of positive integers.

If N is given by (1.7), we define

(1.10)  $e(N) = u_{k_{r}-1} + u_{k_{r}-1} + \cdots + u_{k_{r}-1}$ . Then we shall show that (1.11) e(a(n)) = n

(1.12) 
$$e(b(n)) = a(n)$$
.

Clearly the domain of the function c(n) is restricted to  $a(\underbrace{N}) \cup b(\underbrace{N})$ . However, since, as we shall see below,  $(b(n) - 2) \in a(\underbrace{N})$  and

500

(1.13) e(b(n) - 2) = a(n), it is natural to define (1.14) e(c(n)) = a(n).

Then e(n) is defined for all n and we show that e(n) is monotone.

The functions a, b, c satisfy various relations. In particular we have

 $a^{2}(n) = b(n) - 2 = a(n) + 2n - 2$  ab(n) = ba(n) + 2 = 2a(n) + b(n) ac(n) = ca(n) + 2 = 2a(n) + c(n)cb(n) = bc(n) + 2 = 2a(n) + 3c(n) + 2

Moreover if we define (1.15) then we have

$$d(n) = a(n) + n$$

$$da(n) = 2d(n) - 2$$

$$db(n) = 4d(n)$$

$$dc(n) = 4d(n) - 2$$

It follows from (1.11) and (1.12) that every positive integer N can be written in the form

(1.16)  $N = u_{k_1} + u_{k_2} + \dots + u_{k_r},$ 

where now

$$1 \leq k_1 \leq k_2 < \cdots \leq k_r$$
.

Hence N is a "missing" number if and only if  $k_1 = 1$ ,  $k_2 = 2$ .

The representation (1.16) is in general not unique. The numbers a(n) are exactly those for which, in the representation (1.7),  $k_1$  is even. Hence in (1.66) if we assume that  $k_1$  is odd, the representation (1.16) is unique. We accordingly call this the <u>canonical representation</u> of N.

Returning to (1.15), we define the complementary function d'(n) so that the sets  $\{d(n)\}$ ,  $\{d'(n)\}$  constitute a disjoint partition of the positive integers. We shall show that

$$d(n) = 2d'(n)$$
.

n	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	
ď١	1	3	4	5	7	9	11	12	13	15	16	17	19	20	21	23	-
d	2	6	8	10	14	18	22	24	26	30	32	34	38	40	42	46	

1972]

(1.17)

[Nov.

$$\delta (\mathbf{N}) = \left[\frac{\mathbf{N}}{2}\right] - \left[\frac{\mathbf{N}}{4}\right] + \left[\frac{\mathbf{N}}{8}\right] - \cdots$$
$$\delta' (\mathbf{N}) = \left[\mathbf{N}\right] - \left[\frac{\mathbf{N}}{2}\right] + \left[\frac{\mathbf{N}}{4}\right] - \cdots$$

Finally, if N has the canonical representation (1.16) we define

(1.18) 
$$f(N) = \sum_{i=1}^{r} (-1)^{k_i}$$

It follows that

(1.19) 
$$a(N) = 2N + f(N)$$
 and

(1.20) 
$$d(N) = a(N) + N = \sum_{i=1}^{r} 2^{k_i},$$

so that there is a close connection with the binary representation of an integer.

Even though there is no "natural" irrationality associated with the sequence  $\{u_n\}$ , it is evident from the above summary that many of the results of the previous papers of this series [2, 3, 4, 5, 6] have their counterpart in the present situation.

The material in the final two sections of the paper is not included in the above summary.

#### 2. THE CANONICAL REPRESENTATION

As in the Introduction, we define the sequence  $\{u_n\}$  by means of

$$u_0 = 0$$
,  $u_1 = 1$ ,  $u_{n+1} = u_n + 2u_{n-1}$   $(n \ge 1)$ .

We first prove the following.

Theorem 2.1. Every positive integer N can be written uniquely in the form

(2.1)  $N = \epsilon_1 u_1 + \epsilon_2 u_2 + \cdots,$ where the  $\epsilon_1 = 0 \text{ or } 1$  and (2.2)  $\epsilon_1 = \cdots = \epsilon_{k-1} = 0, \quad \epsilon_k = 1 \implies k \text{ odd } .$ 

<u>Proof</u>. The theorem can be easily proved by induction on n as follows. Let  $C_{2n}$  consist of all sequences

 $(\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2, \cdots, \epsilon_{2n})$   $(\epsilon_i = 0 \text{ or } 1)$ 

satisfying (2.2). Then the map

$$(\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2, \cdots, \epsilon_{2n}) \longrightarrow \epsilon_1 u_1 + \epsilon_2 u_2 + \cdots + \epsilon_{2n} u_{2n}$$

is 1 - 1 and onto from  $C_{2n}$  to  $[0, \dots, u_{2n+1} - 1]$ . Clearly  $C_2 \longrightarrow [0,1]$ . Assuming that

$$C_{2n} \rightarrow [0, \cdots, u_{2n+1} - 1]$$
,

we see that

$$C_{2n+2} \longrightarrow [0, \dots, u_{2n+1} - 1] \qquad [u_{2n+1}, \dots, 2u_{2n+1} - 1]$$
$$\cup [u_{2n+2} + 1, \dots, u_{2n+1} + u_{2n+2} - 1]$$
$$\cup [u_{2n+1} + u_{2n+2}, \dots, 2u_{2n+1} + u_{2n+2} - 1]$$
$$= [0, \dots, u_{2n+3} - 1]$$

since

$$2u_{2n+1} - 1 = u_{2n+2}$$
.

If (2.2) is satisfied we call (2.1) the canonical representation of N.

In view of the above we have also

Theorem 2.2. If N and M are given canonically by

(2.3) 
$$N = \sum \epsilon_{i} u_{i}, \qquad M = \sum \delta_{i} u_{i},$$
  
then  
$$\sum \epsilon_{i} 2^{i} \leq \sum \delta_{i} 2^{i}.$$

Let N be given by (2.1) and define

(2.4) 
$$\phi(N) = \sum \epsilon_i 2^1$$

Note that since

(2.5) 
$$u_n = \frac{1}{3} (2^n - (-1)^n)$$
,

we have

(2.6) 
$$N = \frac{1}{3} (\phi(N) - f(N))$$

where

(2.7) 
$$f(N) = \epsilon (-1)^{i} \epsilon_{i}.$$

Theorem 2.3. There are exactly N numbers of the form  $2^{k}K$ , k, K odd, less than or equal to  $\phi(N)$ .

Proof. The N numbers of the stated form are simply

$$\phi(1), \phi(2), \cdots, \phi(N)$$
.

If N is given canonically by

$$N = \epsilon_1 u_1 + \epsilon_2 u_2 + \cdots,$$

we define

(2.8) 
$$a(n) = \epsilon_1 u_2 + \epsilon_3 u_3 + \cdots$$

This is of course never canonical. Define

(2.9) 
$$b(n) = a(N) + 2N = \epsilon_1 u_3 + \epsilon_1 u_4 + \cdots$$

The representation (2.9) is canonical.

Suppose  $\epsilon_{2k+1}$  is the first nonzero  $\epsilon_i$  in the canonical representation of N. Then, since

$$u_1 + u_2 + \cdots + u_{2k+1} = u_{2k+2}$$

we see that a(N) is given canonically by

(2.10) 
$$a(n) = u_1 + u_2 + \cdots + u_{2k+1} + 0 \cdot u_{2k+2} + \epsilon_{2k+2} u_{2k+3} + \cdots$$

Let c(N) = b(N) - 1. Then, since

$$u_1 + u_2 + \cdots + u_{2k+2} = u_{2k+3} - 1$$

c(N) is given canonically by

(2.11) 
$$c(N) = u_1 + u_2 + \cdots + u_{2k+2} + 0 \cdot u_{2k+3} + \epsilon_{2k+2} u_{2k+4} + \cdots$$
  
We now state

<u>Theorem 2.4.</u> The three functions a, b, c defined above are strictly monotone and their ranges  $a(\underline{N})$ ,  $b(\underline{N})$ ,  $c(\underline{N})$  form a disjoint partition of  $\underline{N}$ .

Proof. We have

(2.12)  $\phi(a(N) + 1) = 2\phi(N) + 2$ and (2.13)  $\phi(b(N)) = 4\phi(N)$ .

Since  $\phi$  is 1-1 and monotone, it follows that a, b, c are monotone. By (2.10), a(N) consists of those N whose canonical representations begin with an odd number of 1's; b(N) of those which begin with 0; and c(N) of those which begin with an even number of 1's. Hence all numbers are accounted for.

It is now clear that the functions a, b, c defined above coincide with the a, b, c defined in the Introduction.

The following two theorems are easy corollaries of the above.

1972

505

<u>Theorem 2.5.</u>  $c(\underline{N})$  is the set of integers that cannot be written as a sum of distinct  $u_i$  with  $i \ge 2$ .

Thus the c(N) are the "missing" numbers of the Introduction.

<u>Theorem 2.6.</u> If  $K \notin c(\underline{N})$ , then K can be written uniquely as a sum of distinct  $u_i$  with  $i \ge 2$ .

3. RELATIONS INVOLVING a, b, AND c

We now define

$$d(N) = a(N) + N.$$

Since

(3.2)

$$u_{k} + u_{k+1} = 2^{k}$$
,

it follows at once from (2.4) and (2.8) that

(3.1)  $d(N) = \phi(N).$ 

Hence, by (2.6), we may write

2N = a(N) - f(N) .

Let d' denote the monotone function whose range is the complement of the range of d. Since the range of  $\phi$  (that is, of d) consists of the numbers  $2^{k}K$ , with k,K both odd, it follows that the range of d' consists of the numbers  $2^{k}K$  with k even and K odd. We have therefore

d(N) = 2d'(N). (3.3)Thus (2.12) and (2.13) become d(a + 1) = 2d + 2(3.4)and db = 4d, (3, 5)respectively. From (2.10) we obtain da = 2d - 2(3.6)and (3.7)d'a = d - 1. Theorem 3.1. We have  $a^{2}(N) = b(N) - 2 = a(N) + 2N - 2$ (3.8)(3.9) ab(N) = ba(N) + 2 = 2a(N) + b(N)ac(N) = ca(N) + 2 = 2a(N) + c(N)(3.10)cb(N) = bc(N) + 2 = 2a(N) + 3c(N)(3.11) da(N) = 2d(N) - 2(3.12)db(N) = 4d(N)(3.13)dc(N) = 4d(N) - 2. (3.14)

• :

Proof. The first four formulas follow from the definitions. For example if

$$N = u_{2k+1} + \epsilon_{2k+2} u_{2k+2} + \cdots$$

then

a(N) = 
$$1 \cdot u_1 + 1 \cdot u_2 + \cdots + 1 \cdot u_{2k+1} + \epsilon_{2k+2} u_{2k+3} + \cdots$$

and

$$a^{2}(N) = 1 \cdot u_{2} + \dots + 1 \cdot u_{2k+2} + \epsilon_{2k+2} u_{2k+4} + \dots$$
$$= u_{2k+3} - 2 + \epsilon_{2k+2} u_{2k+4} + \dots$$
$$= b(N) - 2.$$

Formula (3.12) is the same as (3.6) while (3.13) and (3.14) follow from the formulas for ab and ac.

In view of Theorem 2.6, every

$${\tt N}\ \in\ a(\underline{\tt N})\ \cup\ b(\underline{\tt N})$$

can be written uniquely in the form  $N = \delta_2 u_2 + \delta_3 u_3 + \cdots$ (3.15)

with  $\delta_2 = 0$ , 1. We define  $A_k$  as the set of N for which  $\delta_k$  is the first nonzero  $\delta_i$ . Theorem 3.2. We have

$$(3.16) A_{2k+2} = ab^{k}a(\underline{N}) \cup ab^{k}c(\underline{N}) (k \ge 0)$$

$$(3.17) A_{2k+1} = b^{k}a(\underline{N}) \cup b^{k}c(\underline{N}) (k \ge 1).$$

Proof. By (2.9), (2.10) and (2.11), the union

 $a(N) \cup c(N)$ 

consists of those K for which

 $\epsilon_1 = \epsilon_1(K) = 1$ .

Hence, applying a, we have

$$A_2 = a^2(N) \cup ac(N)$$

and, applying b,

$$A_3 = ba(\underline{N}) \cup bc(\underline{N}) .$$

Continuing in this way, it is clear that we obtain the stated results. Theorem 3.2 admits of the following refinement. Theorem 3.3. We have

$$[1972] \qquad \text{REPRESENTATIONS FOR A SPECIAL SEQUENCE} \\ (3.20) \qquad b^{k} c(\underline{N}) = \{ N \in A_{2k+1} \mid N = b^{k} c(\underline{n}) \equiv n+1 \pmod{2} \}.$$

Proof. The theorem follows from Theorem 3.2 together with the observation

(3.21) 
$$a(n) \equiv b(n) \equiv n$$
,  $c(n) \equiv n + 1 \pmod{2}$ .  
Let

 $N \in a(N) \cup b(N)$ ,

so that (3.15) is satisfied. We define  $(3.21) \qquad \qquad e(\mathbb{N}) \ = \ \delta_2 u_1 \ + \ \delta_3 u_2 \ + \ \cdots \ .$ 

Then from the definition of a and b we see that

(3.22) 
$$e(a(n)) = n$$
  
and  
(3.23)  $e(b(n)) = a(n)$ .  
Since  
 $a^{2}(n) = b(n) - 2 < c(n) < b(n)$ ,  
we define

(3.24) e(c(n)) = a(n).

Thus e(n) is now defined for all n.

n	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
е	1	1	1	2	3	4	4	4	5	5	5	6	6	6	7	8	9	9	9	10
n	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40
е	11	12	12	12	13	14	15	15	15	16	16	16	17	17	17	18	19	20	20	20

Theorem 3.4. The function e is monotone. Indeed e(n) = e(n - 1) if and only if

$$n \in b(N) \cup c(N)$$
.

 $\text{Otherwise } (n \in a(\underline{N}))$ 

$$e(n) = e(n - 1) + 1$$
.

Proof. We have already seen that

e b(n) = e c(n) = e c(n) - 1 = a(n).

Thus it remains to show that

e(a(n)) = e(a(n) - 1) + 1.

Let

(3.25)

 $n = u_{2k+1} + \epsilon_{2k+2} u_{2k+2} + \cdots$ 

be the canonical representation of n. Then

$$a(n) = u_{2k+2} + \epsilon_{2k+2} u_{2k+3} + \cdots$$

Since

$$u_{2k+2} - 1 = u_2 + u_3 + u_4 + \dots + u_{2k+1}$$

we get

$$a(n) - 1 = u_2 + u_3 + \cdots + u_{2k+1} + \epsilon_{2k+2} u_{2k+3} + \cdots$$

It follows that

$$e(a(n) - 1) = u_1 + u_2 + \dots + u_{2k} + \epsilon_{2k+2} u_{2k+2} + \dots$$
$$= (u_{2k+1} - 1) + \epsilon_{2k+2} u_{2k+2} + \dots$$
$$= n - 1.$$

This evidently proves (3.25).

Theorem 3.5. We have

(3.26) 
$$\begin{cases} a(n + 1) = a(n) + 3 \\ a(n + 1) = a(n) + 1 \end{cases} \begin{pmatrix} n \in a(N) \\ n \in b(N) \cup c(N) \end{pmatrix}.$$

Proof. Formula (3.4) is evidently equivalent to

(3.27) 
$$a(a(n) + 1) = b(n) + 1$$
.  
By (3.8)  $a^{2}(n) = b(n) - 2 = c(n) - 1$ ,

so that we have the sequence of consecutive integers

$$(3.28) a2(n), c(n), b(n), a a(n) + 1.$$

On the other hand, by (3.9) and (3.10)

ab(n) = ac(n) + 1.

Finally, since

$$b(n) + 1 \in a(n)$$
,

we have, by (3.28),

$$a(b(n) + 1) = a^{2}(a(n) + 1) = b a(n) + 1 - 2$$
  
=  $a(a(n) + 1) + 2a(n)$   
=  $2a(n) + b(n) + 1$   
=  $ab(n) + 1$ .

This completes the proof of the theorem.

If we let  $\alpha(n)$  denote the number of  $a(k) \leq n$ , it follows at once from Theorem 3.5 that

(3.29) 
$$a(n) = n + 2\alpha(n)$$
  $(n \ge 1)$ .

This is equivalent to

1972] REPRESENTATIONS FOR A SPECIAL SEQUENCE (3.30) $d'(n) = n + \alpha(n) .$ We shall now show that (3.31) $\alpha(n + 1) = e(n) .$ Let  $n \in a(N) \cup b(N)$ . Then  $n = u_k = \epsilon_{k+1} u_{k+1} + \cdots$  (k ≥ 2) and  $e(n) = u_{k-1} + \epsilon_{k+1} u_k + \cdots$ Also  $n + 1 = u_1 + u_k + \epsilon_{k+1} u_{k+1} + \cdots$ (canonical), so that  $a(n + 1) = u_2 + u_{k+1} + \epsilon_{k+1} u_{k+2} + \cdots$ It follows that a(n + 1) - 2e(n) = n + 1 ( $n \notin c(N)$ ). (3,32) If  $n \in c(\underline{N})$  we have e(n) = e(n + 1). Since  $n + 1 \in b(\underline{N})$ , we may use (3.32). Thus 2e(n) = 2e(n + 1) = a(n + 2) - (n + 2) = a(n + 1) - (n + 1), by (3.26). Hence

509

$$a(n + 1) - 2e(n) = n + 1$$

for all n. This is evidently equivalent to (3.31).

This proves

Theorem 3.6. The number of  $a(k) \le n$  is equal to e(n). Moreover

a(n) = n + 2e(n - 1)(n > 1). (3.33)

A few special values of a(n) may be noted:

(3.34) 
$$a(2^{2k-1}) = 2^{2k}$$
  $(k \ge 1)$ 

(3.35) 
$$a(2^{2K}) = 2^{2K+1} - 2$$
  $(k \ge 1)$ 

(3.36) 
$$a(2^{2k-1} - 2) = 2^{2k} - 4$$
  $(k \ge 1)$ 

$$(3.37) a(22k - 2) = 22k+1 - 6 (k \ge 2).$$

## 4. COMPARISON WITH THE BINARY REPRESENTATION

If N is given in its binary representation

$$N = \gamma_0 + \gamma_1 \cdot 2 + \gamma_2 \cdot 2^2 + \cdots,$$

where  $\gamma_1 = 0$  or 1, we define

510

#### REPRESENTATIONS FOR A SPECIAL SEQUENCE

 $\delta(N) = \gamma_0 u_0 + \gamma_1 u_1 + \gamma_2 u_2 + \cdots$ 

(4.2) and (4.3)

(4.4) and

(4.5)

(4.6)

Let

(N) =  $\sum_{i} \gamma_{i} (-1)^{i}$ . Then we have  $\delta(d(N)) = N$  $\chi(d(N)) = f(N) .$ A simple computation leads to  $\delta(N) = \left[\frac{N}{2}\right] - \left[\frac{N}{4}\right] + \left[\frac{N}{8}\right] - \cdots .$ 

(4.7)	$\delta^{\dagger}(N) = N - \left[\frac{N}{2}\right] + \left[\frac{N}{4}\right] - \cdots$
so that	
(4.8)	$\delta(N) + \delta'(N) = N$ .

Theorem 4.1. The number of  $d(k) \leq n$  is equal to  $\delta(N)$ . The number of  $d'(k) \leq n$  is equal to  $\delta'(N)$ .

Proof. Since  $\delta$  is monotone, we have  $d(k) \leq n$  if and only if

$$k = \delta d(k) \leq \delta(n)$$
.

We have seen in Section 3 that if  $\,N\,$  has the canonical representation

then (4.9)  $N = \epsilon_1 u_1 + \epsilon_2 u_2 + \cdots$ a(N) - 2N = f(N),

where

and

 $f(N) = \sum_{i} (-1)^{i} \epsilon_{i}$ .

It follows that

(4.10) 
$$d(N) = a(N) + N = \sum_{i} \epsilon_{i} \cdot 2^{i}$$
.

Replacing N by d(N), d'(N) in (4.9), we get

$$(4.11) a(d(N)) - 2d(N) = f(d(N))$$

(4.12) 
$$a(d'(N)) - 2d'(N) = f(d(N))$$
.

[Nov.

. .

Theorem 4.2. The function f(d) takes on every even value (positive, negative or zero) infinitely often. The function f(d') takes on every odd value (positive or negative) infinitely often.

Proof. Consider the number

$$N = u_1 + u_3 + u_5 + \dots + u_{2k-1}$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} (2^1 + 1) + \frac{1}{3} (2^3 + 1) + \dots + \frac{1}{3} (2^{2k-1} + 1)$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{2}{3} (2^{2k} - 1) + k \right) .$$
Clearly
(4.13)
$$N \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$$
if and only if
(4.14)
$$k \equiv 0 \pmod{4} .$$

Clearly (4.13)

(4.14)

It follows from (4.13) that  $N \in d(N)$ . Also it is evident that

(4.15) 
$$f(N) = -k, \quad k \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$$
.

In the next place the number

$$N = u_3 + u_5 + \dots + u_{2k+1}$$
  
=  $\frac{1}{3} (2^3 + 1) + \frac{1}{3} (2^5 + 1) + \dots + \frac{1}{3} (2^{2k+1} + 1)$   
= 3k (mod 8) .

Hence for  $k \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$ , we have  $N \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$  and so as above  $N \in d(\underline{N})$ . Also it is evident that (4.15) holds in this case also.

Now consider

$$N = u_1 + u_2 + u_4 + u_6 + \dots + u_{2k}$$
  
= 1 +  $\frac{1}{3}(2^2 - 1) + \frac{1}{3}(2^4 - 1) + \dots + \frac{1}{3}(2^{2k} - 1)$   
= 1 + k (mod 4).

Thus for k odd,  $N \in d(N)$ . Also it is clear that

$$f(N) = k - 1$$
.

This evidently proves the first half of the theorem.

To form the second half of the theorem we first take

$$N = u_1 + u_3 + u_5 + \cdots + u_{2k-1}$$
.

Then

 $N \equiv k \pmod{2}$ .

Thus for k odd,  $N \in d'(\underline{N})$ . Moreover

(4.16) f(N) = -k.

Next for

$$N = u_1 + u_2 + u_4 + u_6 + \dots + u_{2k} + u_{2k+2}$$

we again have

$$N \equiv k \pmod{2}$$
,

so that  $N \in d'(\underline{N})$  for k odd. Clearly (4.17) f(N) = k.

> This completes the proof of the theorem. As an immediate corollary of Theorem 4.2 we have <u>Theorem 4.3.</u> The commutator

> > ad(N) - da(N) = fd(N) + 2

takes on every even value infinitely often. Also the commutator

$$ad'(N) - d'a(N) = fd'(N) + 1$$

takes on every even value infinitely often.

#### 5. WORDS

By a word function, or briefly, word, is meant a function of the form

(5.1) 
$$w = a^{\alpha} b^{\beta} c^{\gamma} a^{\alpha'} b^{\beta'} c^{\gamma'} \cdots,$$

where the exponents are arbitrary non-negative integers.

Theorem 5.1. Every word function w(n) can be linearized, that is

(5.2) 
$$w(n) = A_w a(n) + B_w n - C_w \qquad (A_w > 0)$$

where  $A_w$ ,  $B_w$ ,  $C_w$  are independent of n. Moreover the representation (5.2) is unique. <u>Proof.</u> The representation (5.2) follows from the relations

,

(5.3)  $\begin{cases} a^{2}(n) = a(n) + 2n - 2 \\ ab(n) = 2a(n) + b(n) = 3a(n) + 2n \\ ac(n) = 2a(n) + c(n) = 3a(n) + 2n - 1 \end{cases}$ 

If we assume a second representation (5.2) it follows that a(n) is a linear function of n. This evidently contradicts Theorem 3.5.

1972]

<u>Theorem 5.2.</u> For any word w, the coefficient  $B_{W}$  in (5.2) is even. Hence the function d is not a word.

Proof. Repeated application of (5.3).

Remark. If we had defined words as the set of functions of the form

then, in view of Theorem 4.3, we would not be able to assert the extended form of Theorem 5.1.

Combining (5.3) with (5.2), we get the following recurrences for the coefficients  $\rm A_w^{}, \rm B_w^{}, \rm C_w^{}$  :

(5.5)  
$$\begin{cases} A_{wa} = A_{w} + B_{w} \\ B_{wa} = 2A_{w} \\ C_{wa} = 2A_{w} + C_{w} \end{cases}$$

(5.6)  $\begin{cases} A_{wb} = 3A_{w} + B_{w} \\ B_{wb} = 2A_{w} + 2B_{w} \\ C_{wb} = C_{w} \end{cases}$ 

(5.7) 
$$\begin{cases} A_{wc} = 3A_{w} + B_{w} \\ B_{wc} = 2A_{w} + 2B_{w} \\ C_{wc} = A_{w} + B_{w} + C_{w} \end{cases}$$

In particular we find that

(5.8) 
$$a^{k}(n) = u_{k}a(n) + 2u_{k-1}n - (u_{k+1} - 1),$$

$$(3.3)$$
 as  $(1) - u_{2k+1} a_{2k+1} - 1/n$ ,

(5.10) 
$$ac^{k}(n) = u_{2k+1}a(n) + (u_{2k+1} - 1)n - \frac{1}{3}(4u_{2k} - k),$$

(5.11) 
$$b^{\kappa}(n) = u_{2k}a(n) + (u_{2k} + 1)n$$
,

(5.12) 
$$a^{k}b^{j}(n) = u_{k+2j}a(n) + 2u_{k+2j-1}n - (u_{k+1} - 1),$$

(5.13) 
$$b^{J}a^{K}(n) = u_{k+2j}a(n) + 2u_{k+2j-1}n - (u_{k+2j+1} - u_{2j+1})$$
,

(5.14) 
$$a^{k}b^{j}(n) - b^{j}a^{k}(n) = u_{k+2j+1} - u_{k+1} - u_{2j+1} + 1$$
  
 $= \frac{2}{3}(2^{k} - 1)(2^{2j} - 1).$ 

We shall now evaluate  $A_w$  and  $B_w$  explicitly. For w as given by (5.1) we define the weight of w by means of

We shall show that

514

(5.15)

(5.16) 
$$A_w = u_p, \qquad B_w = 2u_{p-1}.$$

The proof is by induction on p. For p = 1, (5.16) obviously holds. Assume that (5.16) holds up to and including the value p. By the inductive hypothesis, (5.5), (5.6), (5.7) become

(5.17) 
$$\begin{cases} A_{wa} = A_{p} + B_{p} = u_{p} + 2u_{p-1} = u_{p+1} \\ B_{wa} = 2A_{p} = 2u_{p} \end{cases}$$

(5.18) 
$$\begin{cases} A_{wb} = A_{wc} = 3A_{p} + B_{p} = 3u_{p} + 2u_{p-1} = u_{p+2} \\ B_{wp} = B_{wc} = 2A_{p} + 2B_{p} = 2u_{p} + 2u_{p-1} = u_{p+1} \end{cases}$$

This evidently completes the induction.

As for  $C_w$ , we have

,

(5.19)  
$$\begin{cases} C_{wa} = 2u_{p} + C_{w} \\ C_{wb} = C_{w} \\ C_{wc} = u_{p+1} + C_{w} \end{cases}$$

Unlike  $A_w$  and  $B_w$ , the coefficient  $C_w$  is not a function of the weight alone. For example

$$C_{a^2} = 2$$
,  $C_b = 0$ ,  $C_c = 1$ ,  
 $C_{a^3} = 4$ ,  $C_{ab} = 0$ ,  $C_{ac} = 1$ .

Repeated application of (5.19) gives

of which the first two agree with (5.8) and (5.11).

We may state

Theorem 5.3. If w is a word of weight p, then

(5.20) 
$$w(n) - u_p a(n) + 2u_{p-1}n - C_w$$
,

where  $C_{W}$  can be evaluated by means of (5.19). If w, w' are any words of equal weight, then

(5.21) 
$$W(n) - W'(n) = C_{W'} - C_{W}$$
.

Nov.

Theorem 5.4. For any word w, the representation

$$w = a^{\alpha} b^{\beta} c^{\gamma} a^{\alpha'} b^{\beta'} c^{\gamma'} \cdots$$

is unique.

<u>Proof.</u> The theorem is a consequence of the following observation. If u, v are any words, then it follows from any one of

$$ua = va$$
,  $ub = vb$ ,  $uc = vc$ 

that u = v.

<u>Theorem 5.5</u>. The words u, v satisfy uv = vu if and only if there is a word w such that

$$u = w^r$$
,  $v = w^s$ ,

where r,s are non-negative integers.

<u>Theorem 5.6.</u> In the notation of Theorem 5.3,  $C_w = C'_w$  if and only if w = w'. <u>Remark</u>. It follows from (5.20) that no multiple of d'(n) is a word function.

## 6. GENERATING FUNCTIONS

Put

(6.1) 
$$A(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x^{a(n)}, \quad B(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x^{b(n)}, \quad C(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x^{c(n)}$$

and

(6.2) 
$$D(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x^{d(n)}, \quad D_1(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x^{d^{\dagger}(n)},$$

where of course |x| < 1. Then clearly

(6.3) 
$$A(x) + B(x) + C(x) = \frac{x}{1 - x}$$

and

(6.4) 
$$D(x) + D_1(x) = \frac{x}{1 - x}$$
.

Since

$$b(n) = c(n) + 1$$
,  $d(n) = 2d'(n)$ ,

(6.3) and (6.4) reduce to

(6.5) 
$$A(x) + (1 + x)C(x) = \frac{x}{1 - x}$$
,

and

(6.6) 
$$D_1(x) + D_1(x^2) = \frac{x}{1 - x}$$
,

respectively.

It follows from (6.6) that

$$D_{1}(x) = \frac{x}{1-x} - \frac{x^{2}}{1-x^{2}} + \frac{x^{4}}{1-x^{4}} - \cdots$$
$$= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^{k} \sum_{r=1}^{\infty} x^{2^{k}r}$$
$$= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x^{n} \sum_{2^{k}r=n} (-1)^{k} ,$$

so that

$$d'(n) = \sum_{2^{k}r=n} (-1)^{k}$$

This is equivalent to the result previously obtained that

$$d^{\dagger}(\underline{N}) = \{2^{m}M \mid m \text{ even, } M \text{ odd}\}.$$

<u>Theorem 6.1.</u> Each of the functions A(x), B(x), C(x), D(x),  $D_1(x)$  has the unit circle as a natural boundary.

<u>Proof</u>. It will evidently suffice to prove the theorem for A(x) and  $D_1(x)$ . We consider first the function  $D_1(x)$ .

To begin with,  $D_1(x)$  has a singularity at x = 1. Hence, by (6.6),  $D_1(x)$  has a singularity at x = -1. Replacing x by  $x^2$ , (6.6) becomes

$$D_1(x^2) + D_1(x^4) = \frac{x^2}{1 - x^2}$$
.

We infer that  $D_1(x)$  has singularities at  $x = \pm i$ . Continuing in this way we show that  $D_1(x)$  has singularities at

x = 
$$e^{2k\pi i/2^n}$$
 (k = 1, 3, 5, ...,  $2^n$  - 1; n = 1, 2, 3, ...).

This proves that  $D_1(x)$  cannot be continued analytically across the unit circle.

In the next place if the function

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n x^n ,$$

where the  $c_n = 0$  or 1, can be continued across the unit circle, then [1, p. 315]

$$f(x) = \frac{P(x)}{1 - x^k},$$

where P(x) is a polynomial and k is some positive integer. Hence

(6.7) 
$$c_n = c_{n-k} \quad (n \ge n_0)$$
.

Now assume that A(x) can be continued across the unit circle. Then by (6.7), there exists an integer k such that

$$a(n) = a(n_1) + k$$
 (n > n<sub>0</sub>),

where  $n_{1}\ \text{depends on}\ n_{\text{\bullet}}$  . It follows that

(6.8) 
$$a(n) = a(n - r) + k$$
  $(n > n_0)$   
for some fixed r. This implies  
(6.9)  $d(n) = a(n - r) + k + r$   $(n > u_0)$ .

However (6.9) contradicts the fact that  $D(x) = D_1(x^2)$  cannot be continued across the unit circle.

Theorem 6.2. Let w(n) be an arbitrary word function of positive weight and put

(6.10) 
$$F_w(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x^{w(n)}$$
.

Then  $F_{w}(x)$  cannot be continued across the unit circle.

<u>Proof</u>. Assume that  $F_w(x)$  does admit of analytic continuation across the unit circle. Then there exist integers r,k such that

$$w(n) = w(n - r) + s$$
  $(n > n_0)$ .

By (5.2) this becomes

$$A_{W}a(n) + B_{W}r = A_{W}(n - r) + k$$
.

This implies

(6.11) 
$$A_w d(n) = A_w d(n - r) + (A_w - B_w)r + k$$
.

Since  $A_{W} > 0$ , (6.11) contradicts the fact that D(x) cannot be continued. Put

(6.12) 
$$E(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x^{e(n)}$$
.

Then, by Theorem 3.4,

(6.13) 
$$E(x) = \frac{x}{1-x} + 2A(x)$$
.

Also

(6.14) 
$$(1 - x)^{-1}A(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} e(n) x^{n}$$
.

In the next place, by (3.8), (3.9), and (3.10),

$$A(x) = \sum_{1}^{\infty} x^{a^{2}(n)} + \sum_{1}^{\infty} x^{ab(n)} + \sum_{1}^{\infty} x^{ac(n)}$$
$$= x^{-2}B(x) + (1 + x^{-1})F_{ab}(x) .$$

Since

$$A(x) + (1 + x^{-1})B(x) = \frac{x}{1 - x}$$
,

it follows that

(6.15) 
$$(1 + x)^2 F_{ab}(x) = (1 + x + x^2)A(x) - \frac{x}{1 - x}$$

Let w, w' be two words of equal weight. Then by (5.21),

(6.16) 
$$x^{C_W}F_W(x) = x^{C_W'}F_{W'}(x)$$
.

Thus it suffices to consider the functions

$$F_{ak}(x)$$
 (k = 1, 2, 3, ...).

We have

$$F_{a}^{k}(x) = F_{a}^{k-1}(x) + F_{a}^{k}(x) + F_{a}^{k}(x)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{a}^{k}\mathbf{b}(\mathbf{n}) &= \mathbf{u}_{k}\mathbf{a}\mathbf{b}(\mathbf{n}) + 2\mathbf{u}_{k-1}\mathbf{b}(\mathbf{n}) - (\mathbf{u}_{k+1} - 1) \\ &= \mathbf{u}_{k}(3\mathbf{a}(\mathbf{n}) + 2\mathbf{n}) + 2\mathbf{u}_{k-1}(\mathbf{a}(\mathbf{n}) + 2\mathbf{n}) - (\mathbf{u}_{k+1} - 1) \\ &= (3\mathbf{u}_{k} + 2\mathbf{u}_{k-1})\mathbf{a}(\mathbf{n}) + 2(\mathbf{u}_{k} + 2\mathbf{u}_{k-1})\mathbf{n} - (\mathbf{u}_{k+1} - 1) \\ &= \mathbf{u}_{k+2}\mathbf{a}(\mathbf{n}) + 2\mathbf{u}_{k+1}\mathbf{n} - (\mathbf{u}_{k+1} - 1) \\ &= \mathbf{a}^{k+2}(\mathbf{n}) + 2^{k+1} \end{aligned}$$

$$a^{k}c(n) = u_{k}ac(n) + 2u_{k-1}c(n) - (u_{k+1} - 1)$$
  
=  $u_{k}(3a(n) + 2n - 1) + 2u_{k-1}(a(n) + 2n - 1) - (u_{k+1} - 1)$   
=  $u_{k+2}a(n) + 2u_{k+1}n - (2u_{k+1} - 1)$   
=  $a^{k+2}(n) + u_{k+2}$ 

[Continued on page 550.]

.