

## Univoque numbers and an avatar of Thue–Morse

by

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**1. Introduction.** Komornik and Loreti determined in [17] the smallest *univoque* real number in the interval  $(1, 2)$ , i.e., the smallest number  $\lambda \in (1, 2)$  such that 1 has a unique expansion  $1 = \sum_{j \geq 0} a_j / \lambda^{j+1}$  with  $a_j \in \{0, 1\}$  for every  $j \geq 0$ . The word “univoque” in this context seems to have been introduced (with a slightly different meaning) by Daróczy and Kátai in [12, 13], while unique expansions of the real number 1 were characterized by Erdős, Joó, and Komornik in [14]. The first author and Cosnard showed in [4] how the result of [17] parallels (and can be deduced from) their study of a certain set of binary sequences arising in the study of iterations of unimodal continuous functions on the unit interval (see [11, 2, 1]). The relevant sets of binary sequences occurring in [2, 1], resp. [17], can be defined by

$$\Gamma := \{A \in \{0, 1\}^{\mathbb{N}} : \forall k \geq 0, \bar{A} \leq \sigma^k A \leq A\},$$
$$\Gamma_{\text{strict}} := \{A \in \{0, 1\}^{\mathbb{N}} : \forall k \geq 1, \bar{A} < \sigma^k A < A\},$$

where  $\sigma$  is the shift on sequences and the bar operation replaces 0’s by 1’s and 1’s by 0’s, i.e., if  $A = (A_n)_{n \geq 0}$ , then  $\sigma A := (a_{n+1})_{n \geq 0}$  and  $\bar{A} := (1 - a_n)_{n \geq 0}$ ; furthermore,  $\leq$  denotes the lexicographical order on sequences induced by  $0 < 1$ , the notation  $A < B$  meaning as usual that  $A \leq B$  and  $A \neq B$ . The smallest univoque number in  $(1, 2)$  and the smallest nonperiodic sequence in  $\Gamma$  both involve the Thue–Morse sequence (see for example [6] for more on this sequence).

It is tempting to generalize these sets to alphabets with more than two letters.

**DEFINITION 1.** For  $b$  a positive integer, we will say that the real number  $\lambda > 1$  is  $\{0, 1, \dots, b\}$ -*univoque* if the number 1 has a unique expansion as  $1 = \sum_{j \geq 0} a_j \lambda^{-(j+1)}$ , where  $a_j \in \{0, 1, \dots, b\}$  for all  $j \geq 0$ . Furthermore, if  $\lambda > 1$  is  $\{0, 1, \dots, \lceil \lambda \rceil - 1\}$ -univoque, we will simply say that  $\lambda$  is *univoque*.

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REMARK 1. If  $\lambda > 1$  is  $\{0, 1, \dots, b\}$ -univoque for some positive integer  $b$ , then  $\lambda \leq b + 1$ . Also note that any integer  $q \geq 2$  is univoque, since there is exactly one expansion  $1 = \sum_{j \geq 0} a_j q^{-(j+1)}$  with  $a_j \in \{0, 1, \dots, q - 1\}$ , namely  $1 = \sum_{j \geq 0} (q - 1) q^{-(j+1)}$ .

Komornik and Loreti studied in [18] the reals  $\lambda \in (1, b + 1]$  that are  $\{0, 1, \dots, b\}$ -univoque. For their study, they introduced *admissible sequences* on the alphabet  $\{0, 1, \dots, b\}$ . Denote, as above, by  $\sigma$  the shift on sequences, and by bar the operation that replaces every  $t \in \{0, 1, \dots, b\}$  by  $b - t$ , i.e., if  $A = (a_n)_{n \geq 0}$ , then  $\bar{A} := (b - a_n)_{n \geq 0}$ . Also denote by  $\leq$  the lexicographical order on sequences induced by the natural order on  $\{0, 1, \dots, b\}$ . Then a sequence  $A = (a_n)_{n \geq 0}$  on  $\{0, 1, \dots, b\}$  is *admissible* if

$$\begin{aligned} \forall k \geq 0 \text{ such that } a_k < b, \quad \sigma^{k+1} A < A, \\ \forall k \geq 0 \text{ such that } a_k > 0, \quad \sigma^{k+1} A > \bar{A}. \end{aligned}$$

(Note that our notation is not exactly the notation of [18], since our sequences are indexed by  $\mathbb{N}$  and not  $\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$ .) These sequences have the following property: the map that associates with a real  $\lambda \in (1, b + 1]$  the sequence of coefficients  $(a_j)_{j \geq 0} \in \{0, 1, \dots, b\}$  of the greedy (i.e., lexicographically largest) expansion of 1,  $1 = \sum_{j \geq 0} a_j \lambda^{-(j+1)}$ , is a bijection from the set of  $\{0, 1, \dots, b\}$ -univoque  $\lambda$ 's to the set of admissible sequences on  $\{0, 1, \dots, b\}$  (see [18]).

Now there are two possible generalizations of the result of [17] on the smallest univoque number in  $(1, 2)$ , i.e., the smallest admissible binary sequence. One is to look at the smallest (if any) admissible sequence on the alphabet  $\{0, 1, \dots, b\}$ , as did Komornik and Loreti in [18], the other is to look at the smallest (if any) univoque number in  $(b, b + 1)$ , as did de Vries and Komornik in [22].

It so happens that the first author has already studied a generalization of the set  $\Gamma$  to the case of more than two letters (see [1, Part 3]). Interestingly enough, unlike the study of  $\Gamma$ , this study was unrelated to iterations of continuous functions, being just a tempting formal arithmetico-combinatorial generalization of the study of the set  $\Gamma$  of binary sequences to a similar set of sequences with more than two values.

The purpose of the present paper is threefold:

(1) to show how the 1983 study [1, Part 3, pp. 63–90] gives both the result of Komornik and Loreti in [18] on the smallest admissible sequence on  $\{0, 1, \dots, b\}$ , and the result of de Vries and Komornik in [22] on the smallest univoque number  $\lambda \in (b, b + 1)$  where  $b$  is any positive integer;

(2) to bring to light a *universal* morphism that governs the smallest elements in (1) above, and to show that the infinite sequence generated by this morphism is an avatar of the Thue–Morse sequence;

(3) to prove that the smallest univoque number in  $(b, b + 1)$  (where  $b$  is any positive integer) is transcendental.

The paper consists of five sections. In Section 2 we recall some results of [1, Part 3, pp. 63–90] on the generalization of the set  $\Gamma$  to a  $(b + 1)$ -letter alphabet. Then we give some properties of the lexicographically least nonperiodic sequence of this set, completing the results of [1, Part 3, pp. 63–90]. In Section 3 we give two corollaries of the properties of this least sequence: one gives the result in [18], the other gives the result in [22]. The transcendence results are proven in the last section.

### 2. The generalized $\Gamma$ and $\Gamma_{\text{strict}}$ sets

DEFINITION 2. Let  $b$  be a positive integer, and  $\mathcal{A}$  be a finite ordered set with  $b + 1$  elements  $\alpha_0 < \alpha_1 < \dots < \alpha_b$ . The *bar* operation is defined on  $\mathcal{A}$  by  $\bar{\alpha}_j = \alpha_{b-j}$ . We extend this operation to  $\mathcal{A}^{\mathbb{N}}$  by  $\overline{(a_n)_{n \geq 0}} := (\bar{a}_n)_{n \geq 0}$ . Let  $\sigma$  be the *shift* on  $\mathcal{A}^{\mathbb{N}}$ , defined by  $\sigma((a_n)_{n \geq 0}) := (a_{n+1})_{n \geq 0}$ .

We define

$$\Gamma(\mathcal{A}) := \{A = (a_n)_{n \geq 0} \in \mathcal{A}^{\mathbb{N}} : a_0 = \max \mathcal{A}, \forall k \geq 0, \bar{A} \leq \sigma^k A \leq A\},$$

$$\Gamma_{\text{strict}}(\mathcal{A}) := \{A = (a_n)_{n \geq 0} \in \mathcal{A}^{\mathbb{N}} : a_0 = \max \mathcal{A}, \forall k \geq 1, \bar{A} < \sigma^k A < A\}.$$

REMARK 2. The set  $\Gamma(\mathcal{A})$  was introduced by the first author in [1, Part 3, p. 63]. Note that there is a misprint in the definition on p. 66 in [1]:  $\alpha_{\beta-i}$  should be changed into  $\alpha_{\beta-1-i}$  as confirmed by the rest of the text.

REMARK 3. A sequence belongs to  $\Gamma_{\text{strict}}(\mathcal{A})$  if and only if it belongs to  $\Gamma(\mathcal{A})$  and is nonperiodic. Indeed,  $\sigma^k A = A$  if and only if  $A$  is  $k$ -periodic; if  $\sigma^k A = \bar{A}$ , then  $\sigma^{2k} A = A$ , and the sequence  $A$  is  $2k$ -periodic.

REMARK 4. If the set  $\mathcal{A} := \{i, i + 1, \dots, i + z\}$ , where  $i$  and  $z$  are integers, is equipped with the natural order, then for any  $x \in \mathcal{A}$ , we have  $\bar{x} = 2i + z - x$ . Indeed, following Definition 2 above, we write  $\alpha_0 := i, \alpha_1 := i + 1, \dots, \alpha_z := i + z$ . Hence, for any  $j \in [0, z]$ , we have  $\bar{\alpha}_j = \alpha_{z-j}$ , which can be rewritten  $\bar{i + j} = i + z - j$ , i.e., for any  $x$  in  $\mathcal{A}$ , we have  $\bar{x} = i + z - (x - i) = 2i + z - x$ .

A first result is that the sets  $\Gamma_{\text{strict}}(\mathcal{A})$  are closely linked to the set of admissible sequences whose definition was recalled in the introduction.

PROPOSITION 1. Let  $A = (a_n)_{n \geq 0}$  be a sequence in  $\{0, 1, \dots, b\}^{\mathbb{N}}$  such that  $a_0 = t \in [0, b]$  and  $A \neq b b b \dots$ . Then  $A$  is admissible if and only if  $2t > b$  and  $A \in \Gamma_{\text{strict}}(\{b - t, b - t + 1, \dots, t\})$ . (The order on  $\{b - t, b - t + 1, \dots, t\}$  is induced by the order on  $\mathbb{N}$ . From Remark 4 the bar operation is given by  $\bar{j} = b - j$ .)

*Proof.* First suppose that  $2t > b$  and  $A \in \Gamma_{\text{strict}}(\{b-t, b-t+1, \dots, t\})$ . Then, for all  $k \geq 1$ ,  $\bar{A} < \sigma^k A < A$ , which clearly implies that  $A$  is admissible.

Conversely, suppose that  $A$  is admissible. We thus have

$$\begin{aligned} \forall k \geq 1 \text{ such that } a_{k-1} < b, \quad \sigma^k A < A, \\ \forall k \geq 1 \text{ such that } a_{k-1} > 0, \quad \sigma^k A > \bar{A}. \end{aligned}$$

We first prove that if  $A$  is not a constant sequence, then

$$\forall k \geq 1, \quad \bar{A} < \sigma^k A < A.$$

We only prove that  $\sigma^k A < A$ ; the remaining inequalities are proved in a similar way. If  $a_{k-1} < b$ , then  $\sigma^k A < A$ . If  $a_{k-1} = b$ , there are two cases: either

- $a_0 = a_1 = \dots = a_{k-1} = b$ ; then if  $a_k < b$  we clearly have  $\sigma^k A < A$ ; if  $a_k = b$ , then the sequence  $\sigma^k A$  begins with some block of  $b$ 's followed by a letter  $< b$ , thus it begins with a block of  $b$ 's shorter than the initial block of  $b$ 's in  $A$ , hence  $\sigma^k A < A$ ; or
- there exists an index  $\ell$  with  $1 < \ell < k$  such that  $a_{\ell-1} < b$  and  $a_\ell = a_{\ell+1} = \dots = a_{k-1} = b$ . As  $A$  is admissible, we have  $\sigma^\ell A < A$ . It thus suffices to prove that  $\sigma^k A \leq \sigma^\ell A$ . This is clearly the case if  $a_k < b$ . On the other hand, if  $a_k = b$ , the sequence  $\sigma^k A$  begins with a block of  $b$ 's which is shorter than the initial block of  $b$ 's in  $\sigma^\ell A$ , hence  $\sigma^k A \leq \sigma^\ell A$ .

Now, since  $a_0 = t$  and  $\sigma^k A < A$  for all  $k \geq 1$ , we have  $a_k \leq t$  for all  $k \geq 0$ . Similarly, since  $\sigma^k A > \bar{A}$  for all  $k \geq 1$ , we have  $a_k \geq b-t$  for all  $k \geq 1$ . Finally,  $A > \bar{A}$  implies that  $t = a_0 \geq b-t$ . Thus  $2t \geq b$  and  $A \in \Gamma(\{b-t, b-t+1, \dots, t\})$ . Now, if  $b = 2t$ , then  $\{b-t, b-t+1, \dots, t\} = \{t\}$  and  $\bar{t} = t$ . This implies that  $A = t t t \dots$ , which is not an admissible sequence. ■

REMARK 5. For  $b = 1$ , this (easy) result is given without proof in [14] and proved in [4].

We need another definition from [1].

DEFINITION 3. Let  $b$  be a positive integer, and  $\mathcal{A}$  be a finite ordered set with  $b + 1$  elements  $\alpha_0 < \alpha_1 < \dots < \alpha_b$ . We suppose that  $\mathcal{A}$  is equipped with a bar operation as in Definition 2. Let  $A = (a_n)_{n \geq 0}$  be a periodic sequence of *smallest* period  $T$ , and with  $a_{T-1} < \max \mathcal{A}$ . Let  $a_{T-1} = \alpha_j$  (thus  $j < b$ ). Then  $\Phi(A)$  is the  $2T$ -periodic sequence beginning with  $a_0 a_1 \dots a_{T-2} \alpha_{j+1} \bar{a}_0 \bar{a}_1 \dots \bar{a}_{T-2} \alpha_{b-j-1}$ , i.e.,

$$\Phi((a_0 a_1 \dots a_{T-2} \alpha_j)^\infty) := (a_0 a_1 \dots a_{T-2} \alpha_{j+1} \bar{a}_0 \bar{a}_1 \dots \bar{a}_{T-2} \alpha_{b-j-1})^\infty.$$

We first prove the following easy claim.

PROPOSITION 2. *The smallest element of  $\Gamma(\{b-t, b-t+1, \dots, t\})$  (where  $2t > b$ ) is the 2-periodic sequence  $(t (b-t))^\infty = (t (b-t) t (b-t) t \dots)$ .*

*Proof.* Since any sequence  $A = (a_n)_{n \geq 0}$  in  $\Gamma(\{b-t, b-t+1, \dots, t\})$  begins in  $t$ , and satisfies  $\sigma A \geq \bar{A}$ , it must satisfy  $a_0 = t$  and  $a_1 \geq b-t$ . Now if  $a_0 = t$  and  $a_1 = b-t$ , then  $A$  must be the 2-periodic sequence  $(t (b-t))^\infty$  ([1, Lemma 2b, p. 73]). Since this periodic sequence trivially belongs to  $\Gamma(\{b-t, b-t+1, \dots, t\})$ , it is its smallest element. ■

Denoting as usual by  $\Phi^s$  the  $s$ th iterate of  $\Phi$ , we state the following theorem which is a particular case of the theorem on pp. 72–73 of [1] about the smallest elements in certain subintervals of  $\Gamma(\{0, 1, \dots, b\})$ , and of the definition of  $q$ -mirror sequences given in [1, Section II, 1, p. 67] (here  $q = 2$ ).

THEOREM 1 ([1]). *Define  $P := (t (b-t))^\infty = (t (b-t) t (b-t) t \dots)$ . The smallest nonperiodic sequence in  $\Gamma(\{b-t, b-t+1, \dots, t\})$  (i.e., the smallest element of  $\Gamma_{\text{strict}}(\{b-t, b-t+1, \dots, t\})$ ) is the sequence*

$$M := \lim_{s \rightarrow \infty} \Phi^s(P),$$

*that actually takes the (not necessarily distinct) values  $b-t, b-t+1, t-1, t$ . Furthermore, this sequence*

$$M = (m_n)_{n \geq 0} = t \ b-t+1 \ b-t \ t \ b-t \ t-1 \ \dots$$

*can be recursively defined by*

$$\begin{aligned} \forall k \geq 0, \quad m_{2^{2k}-1} &= t, \\ \forall k \geq 0, \quad m_{2^{2k+1}-1} &= b+1-t, \\ \forall k \geq 0, \forall j \in [0, 2^{k+1}-2], \quad m_{2^{k+1}+j} &= \bar{m}_j. \end{aligned}$$

It was proven in [1] that the sequence  $\lim_{s \rightarrow \infty} \Phi^s((t (b-t))^\infty)$  is 2-automatic (for more about automatic sequences, see [7]). The second author noted that this sequence is actually a fixed point of a uniform morphism of length 2 as soon as the cardinality of the set  $\{b-t, b-t+1, \dots, b\}$  is at least 4, i.e.,  $2t \geq b+3$ . (Recall that we always have  $t \geq b-t$ , i.e.,  $2t \geq b$ .) More precisely, we have Theorem 2 below, where the Thue–Morse sequence pops up, as in [1] and in [18], but also as in [2] and [17]. Before stating this theorem we give a definition.

DEFINITION 4. The “universal” morphism  $\Theta$  is defined on  $\{e_0, e_1, e_2, e_3\}$  by

$$\Theta(e_3) := e_3e_1, \quad \Theta(e_2) := e_3e_0, \quad \Theta(e_1) := e_0e_3, \quad \Theta(e_0) := e_0e_2.$$

Note that this morphism has an infinite fixed point beginning in  $e_3$ ,

$$\Theta^\infty(e_3) = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \Theta^k(e_3) = e_3 \ e_1 \ e_0 \ e_3 \ e_0 \ e_2 \ e_3 \ e_1 \ e_0 \ e_2 \ \dots$$

**THEOREM 2.** *Let  $(\varepsilon_n)_{n \geq 0}$  be the Thue–Morse sequence defined by  $\varepsilon_0 = 0$  and  $\varepsilon_{2k} = \varepsilon_k$  and  $\varepsilon_{2k+1} = 1 - \varepsilon_k$  for all  $k \geq 0$ . Then the smallest nonperiodic sequence  $M = (m_n)_{n \geq 0}$  in  $\Gamma(\{b - t, b - t + 1, \dots, t\})$  satisfies*

$$\forall n \geq 0, \quad m_n = \varepsilon_{n+1} - (2t - b - 1)\varepsilon_n + t - 1.$$

*Using the morphism  $\Theta$  introduced in Definition 4 above we thus have:*

- *if  $2t \geq b + 3$ , then  $M$  is the fixed point beginning in  $t$  of the morphism deduced from  $\Theta$  by renaming  $e_0, e_1, e_2, e_3$  respectively  $b - t, b - t + 1, t - 1, t$  (note that the condition  $2t \geq b + 3$  implies that these four numbers are distinct);*
- *if  $2t = b + 2$  (thus  $b - t + 1 = t - 1$ ), then  $M$  is the pointwise image of the fixed point beginning in  $e_3$  of the morphism  $\Theta$  under the map  $g$  defined by  $g(e_3) := t, g(e_2) = g(e_1) := t - 1, g(e_0) := b - t$ ;*
- *if  $2t = b + 1$  (thus  $b - t = t - 1$  and  $b - t + 1 = t$ ), then  $M$  is the pointwise image of the fixed point beginning in  $e_3$  of the morphism  $\Theta$  under the map  $h$  defined by  $h(e_3) = h(e_1) := t, h(e_2) = h(e_0) := t - 1$ .*

*Proof.* Let us first prove that the sequence  $M = (m_n)_{n \geq 0}$  is equal to the sequence  $(u_n)_{n \geq 0}$ , where  $u_n := \varepsilon_{n+1} - (2t - b - 1)\varepsilon_n + t - 1$ . It suffices to prove that  $(u_n)_{n \geq 0}$  satisfies the recursive relations defining  $(m_n)_{n \geq 0}$  that are given in Theorem 1. Recall that  $\varepsilon_n$  is equal to the parity of the sum of the binary digits of  $n$  (see [6] for example). Hence, for all  $k \geq 0$ ,  $\varepsilon_{2^{2k-1}} = 0, \varepsilon_{2^{2k+1}-1} = 1$ , and  $\varepsilon_{2^{2k}} = \varepsilon_{2^{2k+1}} = 1$ . This implies that for all  $k \geq 0$ ,  $u_{2^{2k-1}} = t$  and  $u_{2^{2k+1}-1} = b + 1 - t$ . Furthermore, for all  $k \geq 0$  and  $j \in [0, 2^{k+1} - 2]$ , we have  $\varepsilon_{2^{k+1}+j} = 1 - \varepsilon_j$  and  $\varepsilon_{2^{k+1}+j+1} = 1 - \varepsilon_{j+1}$ . Hence  $u_{2^{k+1}+j} = b - u_j = \bar{u}_j$ .

To show how the “universal” morphism  $\Theta$  enters the picture, we study the sequence  $(v_n)_{n \geq 0}$  with values in  $\{0, 1\}^2$  defined by  $v_n := (\varepsilon_n, \varepsilon_{n+1})$  for all  $n \geq 0$ . Since  $v_{2n} = (\varepsilon_n, 1 - \varepsilon_n)$  and  $v_{2n+1} = (1 - \varepsilon_n, \varepsilon_{n+1})$  for all  $n \geq 0$ , we clearly have

- if  $v_n = (0, 0)$ , then  $v_{2n} = (0, 1)$  and  $v_{2n+1} = (1, 0)$ ,
- if  $v_n = (0, 1)$ , then  $v_{2n} = (0, 1)$  and  $v_{2n+1} = (1, 1)$ ,
- if  $v_n = (1, 0)$ , then  $v_{2n} = (1, 0)$  and  $v_{2n+1} = (0, 0)$ ,
- if  $v_n = (1, 1)$ , then  $v_{2n} = (1, 0)$  and  $v_{2n+1} = (0, 1)$ .

This exactly means that  $(v_n)_{n \geq 0}$  is the fixed point beginning in  $(0, 1)$  of the 2-morphism

$$\begin{aligned} (0, 0) &\rightarrow (0, 1)(1, 0), \\ (0, 1) &\rightarrow (0, 1)(1, 1), \\ (1, 0) &\rightarrow (1, 0)(0, 0), \\ (1, 1) &\rightarrow (1, 0)(0, 1). \end{aligned}$$

We may define  $e_0 := (1, 0)$ ,  $e_1 := (1, 1)$ ,  $e_2 := (0, 0)$ ,  $e_3 := (0, 1)$ . Then the above morphism can be written

$$e_3 \rightarrow e_3e_1, \quad e_2 \rightarrow e_3e_0, \quad e_1 \rightarrow e_0e_3, \quad e_0 \rightarrow e_0e_2,$$

which is the morphism  $\Theta$ . The above construction shows that the sequence  $(v_n)_{n \geq 0}$  is a fixed point of  $\Theta$ .

Now, define the map  $\omega$  on  $\{0, 1\}^2$  by

$$\omega((x, y)) := y - (2t - b - 1)x + t - 1.$$

We have  $\omega(v_n) = m_n$  for all  $n \geq 0$ . Thus

- if  $2t \geq b + 3$ , the sequence  $(m_n)_{n \geq 0}$  takes exactly four distinct values, namely  $b - t, b - t + 1, t - 1, t$ . This implies that  $(m_n)_{n \geq 0}$  is the fixed point beginning in  $t$  of the morphism obtained from  $\Theta$  by renaming the letters, i.e.,  $e_3 \rightarrow t, e_2 \rightarrow (t - 1), e_1 \rightarrow (b - t + 1), e_0 \rightarrow (b - t)$ . The morphism can thus be written  $t \rightarrow t(b - t + 1), (t - 1) \rightarrow t(b - t), (b - t + 1) \rightarrow (b - t)t, (b - t) \rightarrow (b - t)(t - 1)$ ;
- if  $2t = b + 2$  (resp.  $2t = b + 1$ ) the sequence  $(m_n)_{n \geq 0}$  takes exactly three (resp. two) values, namely  $b - t, t - 1, t$  (resp.  $t - 1, t$ ). It is still the pointwise image under  $\Theta$  of the sequence  $(v_n)_{n \geq 0}$ . Renaming the fixed point of  $\Theta$  under  $g$  (resp.  $h$ ) as in the statement of Theorem 2 only takes into account that the integers  $b - t, b - t + 1, t - 1, t$  are not distinct. ■

REMARK 6. The reason for the choice of indices for  $e_3, e_2, e_1, e_0$  is that the order of indices is the same as the natural order on the integers  $t, t - 1, b - t + 1, b - t$  to which they correspond when  $2t \geq b + 3$ . In particular, if  $b = t = 3$ , the morphism reads:  $3 \rightarrow 31, 2 \rightarrow 30, 1 \rightarrow 03, 0 \rightarrow 02$ . Interestingly enough, though not surprisingly, this morphism also occurs (up to renaming the letters once more) in the study of infinite square-free sequences on a 3-letter alphabet. Namely, in [9], Berstel proves that the square-free Istrail sequence [15], originally defined (with no mention of the Thue–Morse sequence) as the fixed point of the (nonuniform) morphism  $0 \rightarrow 12, 1 \rightarrow 102, 2 \rightarrow 0$ , is actually the pointwise image of the fixed point beginning in 1 of a 2-morphism  $\Theta'$  on the 4-letter alphabet  $\{0, 1, 2, 3\}$  under the map  $0 \rightarrow 0, 1 \rightarrow 1, 2 \rightarrow 2, 3 \rightarrow 0$ . The morphism  $\Theta'$  is given by

$$\Theta'(0) = 12, \quad \Theta'(1) = 13, \quad \Theta'(2) = 20, \quad \Theta'(3) = 21.$$

The reader will note immediately that  $\Theta'$  is another avatar of  $\Theta$  obtained by renaming letters as follows:  $0 \rightarrow 2, 1 \rightarrow 3, 2 \rightarrow 0, 3 \rightarrow 1$ . This, in particular, shows that *the sequence  $(m_n)_{n \geq 0}$ , in the case where  $2t = b + 2$ , is the fixed point of the nonuniform morphism  $t \rightarrow t(t - 1)(b - t), (t - 1) \rightarrow t(b - t), (b - t) \rightarrow (t - 1)$ , i.e., an avatar of Istrail’s square-free sequence. Furthermore, it follows from [9] that this sequence on three letters cannot be the fixed point*

of a uniform morphism. A last remark is that the square-free Brauholtz sequence on three letters given in [10] (see also [9, p. 18-07]) is exactly our sequence  $(m_n)_{n \geq 0}$  when  $t = b = 2$ , i.e., the sequence 2 1 0 2 0 1 2 1 0 1 2 0 ...

### 3. Small admissible sequences and small univoque numbers with given integer part

**3.1. Small admissible sequences with values in  $\{0, 1, \dots, b\}$ .** In [18] the authors are interested in the smallest admissible sequence with values in  $\{0, 1, \dots, b\}$ , where  $b$  is an integer  $\geq 1$ . They prove in particular the following result, which is an immediate corollary of our Theorem 2.

**COROLLARY 1** (Theorems 4.3 and 5.1 of [18]). *Let  $b$  be an integer  $\geq 1$ . The smallest admissible sequence with values in  $\{0, 1, \dots, b\}$  is the sequence  $(z + \varepsilon_{n+1})_{n \geq 0}$  if  $b = 2z + 1$ , and  $(z + \varepsilon_{n+1} - \varepsilon_n)_{n \geq 0}$  if  $b = 2z$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $A = (a_n)_{n \geq 0}$  be the smallest (nonconstant) admissible sequence with values in  $\{0, 1, \dots, b\}$ . Since  $A > \bar{A}$ , we must have  $a_0 \geq \bar{a}_0 = b - a_0$ .

Thus, if  $b = 2z + 1$  we have  $a_0 \geq z + 1$ . We also have, for all  $i \geq 0$ ,  $\bar{a}_0 \leq a_i \leq a_0$ . Now the smallest element of  $\Gamma(\{b - z - 1, b - z, \dots, z - 1, z + 1\})$  is the smallest admissible sequence on  $\{0, 1, \dots, b\}$  that begins in  $z + 1$ . Hence this is the smallest admissible sequence with values in  $\{0, 1, \dots, b\}$ . Theorem 2 shows that this sequence is  $(m_n)_{n \geq 0}$  with  $m_n = \varepsilon_{n+1} + z$  for all  $n \geq 0$ .

If  $b = 2z$ , we have  $a_0 \geq z$ . But if  $a_0 = z$ , then  $\bar{a}_0 = z$ , and the condition of admissibility implies that  $a_n = z$  for all  $n \geq 0$  and  $(a_n)_{n \geq 0}$  would be the constant sequence  $(z z z \dots)$ . Hence we must have  $a_0 \geq z + 1$ . Now the smallest element of  $\Gamma(\{b - z - 1, b - z, \dots, z - 1, z + 1\})$  is the smallest admissible sequence on  $\{0, 1, \dots, b\}$  that begins in  $z + 1$ . Hence this is the smallest admissible sequence with values in  $\{0, 1, \dots, b\}$ . Theorem 2 implies that this sequence is  $(m_n)_{n \geq 0}$  with  $m_n = \varepsilon_{n+1} - \varepsilon_n + z$  for all  $n \geq 0$ . ■

**3.2. Small univoque numbers with given integer part.** We are interested here in the univoque numbers  $\lambda$  in an interval  $(b, b + 1]$  with  $b$  a positive integer. This set was studied in [16], where it was proved to have Lebesgue measure 0. Since  $1 = \sum_{j \geq 0} a_j \lambda^{-(j+1)}$  and  $\lambda \in (b, b + 1]$ , and  $a_0 \leq b$ , the fact that the expansion of 1 is unique, hence equal to the greedy expansion, implies that  $a_0 = b$ . In other words, we study the admissible sequences with values in  $\{0, 1, \dots, b\}$  that begin in  $b$ , i.e., the set  $\Gamma_{\text{strict}}(\{0, 1, \dots, b\})$ . A corollary of Theorem 2 is that, for any positive integer  $b$ , there exists a smallest univoque number belonging to  $(b, b + 1]$ . This result was obtained in [22] (see the penultimate remark in that paper); it generalizes the result obtained for  $b = 1$  in [17].



**COROLLARY 2.** *For any positive integer  $b$ , there exists a smallest univoque number in  $(b, b+1]$ . It is the solution of the equation  $1 = \sum_{n \geq 0} d_n \lambda^{-n-1}$ , where  $d_n := \varepsilon_{n+1} - (b-1)\varepsilon_n + b - 1$  for all  $n \geq 0$ .*

*Proof.* It suffices to apply Theorem 2 with  $t = b$ . ■

**4. Transcendence results.** We now prove, mimicking the proof given in [3], that numbers  $\lambda$  such that the  $\lambda$ -expansion of 1 is given by the sequence  $(m_n)_{n \geq 0}$  are transcendental. This generalizes the transcendence results of [3] and [18].

**THEOREM 3.** *Let  $b$  be an integer  $\geq 1$  and  $t \in [0, b]$  be an integer such that  $2t \geq b + 1$ . Define the sequence  $(m_n)_{n \geq 0}$  as in Theorem 2 by  $m_n := \varepsilon_{n+1} - (2t - b - 1)\varepsilon_n + t - 1$  for all  $n \geq 0$ , thus  $(m_n)_{n \geq 0}$  begins with  $t \ b - t + 1 \ b - t \ t \ b - t \ t - 1 \ \dots$ . Then the number  $\lambda \in (1, b + 1)$  defined by  $1 = \sum_{n \geq 0} m_n \lambda^{-n-1}$  is transcendental.*

*Proof.* Define the  $\pm 1$  Thue–Morse sequence  $(r_n)$  by  $r_n := (-1)^{\varepsilon_n}$ . We clearly have  $r_n = 1 - 2\varepsilon_n$  (recall that  $\varepsilon_n$  is 0 or 1). It is also immediate that the function  $F$  defined for the complex numbers  $X$  with  $|X| < 1$  by  $F(X) = \sum_{n \geq 0} r_n X^n$  satisfies  $F(X) = \prod_{k \geq 0} (1 - X^{2^k})$  (see, e.g., [6]). Since

$$2m_n = 2\varepsilon_{n+1} - 2(2t - b - 1)\varepsilon_n + 2t - 2 = b - r_{n+1} + (2t - b - 1)r_n$$

we have, for  $|X| < 1$ ,

$$2X \sum_{n \geq 0} m_n X^n = ((2t - b - 1)X - 1)F(X) + 1 + \frac{bX}{1 - X}.$$

Taking  $X = 1/\lambda$  where  $1 = \sum_{n \geq 0} m_n \lambda^{-n-1}$ , we get the equation

$$2 = ((2t - b - 1)\lambda^{-1} - 1)F(1/\lambda) + 1 + \frac{b}{\lambda - 1}.$$

Now, if  $\lambda$  were algebraic, then this equation shows that  $F(1/\lambda)$  would be an algebraic number. But, since  $1/\lambda$  would then be an algebraic number in  $(0, 1)$ , the quantity  $F(1/\lambda)$  would be transcendental from a result of Mahler [19], giving a contradiction. ■

**REMARK 7.** In particular the  $\{0, 1, \dots, b\}$ -univoque number corresponding to the smallest admissible sequence with values in  $\{0, 1, \dots, b\}$  is transcendental, as proved in [18] (Theorems 4.3 and 5.9). Also the smallest univoque number belonging to  $(b, b + 1)$  is transcendental.

**5. Conclusion.** There are many papers dealing with univoque numbers. We just mention here the study of univoque Pisot numbers. The authors together with K. G. Hare determined in [5] the smallest univoque Pisot number, which happens to have algebraic degree 14. Note that the number

corresponding to the sequence of Proposition 2 is the larger real root of the polynomial  $X^2 - tX - (b - t + 1)$ , hence a Pisot number (which is unitary if  $t = b$ ). Also note that for any  $b \geq 2$ , the real number  $\beta$  such that the  $\beta$ -expansion of 1 is  $b1^\infty$  is a univoque Pisot number in  $(b, b + 1)$ . It would be interesting to determine the smallest univoque Pisot number in  $(b, b + 1)$ : the case  $b = 1$  was addressed in [5], but the proof uses heavily the fine structure of Pisot numbers in  $(1, 2)$  (see [8, 20, 21]). A similar study of Pisot numbers in  $(b, b + 1)$  would certainly help.

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