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RUNS IN PAPERFOLDING SEQUENCES

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Abstract

The paperfolding sequences form an uncountable class of infinite sequences over the alphabet {-1, 1} that describe the sequence of folds arising from iterated folding of a piece of paper, followed by unfolding. In this note, we observe that the sequence of run lengths in such a sequence, as well as the starting and ending positions of the *n*th run, is 2-synchronised and hence computable by a finite automaton. As a specific consequence, we obtain the recent results of Bunder, Bates and Arnold ['The summed paperfolding sequence', *Bull. Aust. Math. Soc.* **110** (2024), 189–198] in much more generality, via a different approach. We also prove results about the critical exponent and subword complexity of these run-length sequences.

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1. Introduction

Paperfolding sequences are sequences over the alphabet $\{-1,1\}$ that arise from the iterated folding of a piece of paper, introducing a hill (+1) or valley (-1) at each fold. They are admirably discussed, for example, in [8, 9].

The formal definition of a paperfolding sequence is based on a (finite or infinite) sequence of *unfolding instructions* \mathbf{f} . For finite sequences \mathbf{f} , we define a map $P: \{-1, 1\}^* \to \{-1, 1\}^*$ as follows:

$$P_{\epsilon} = \epsilon, \quad P_{\mathbf{f}a} = (P_{\mathbf{f}}) \ a \left(-P_{\mathbf{f}}^{R}\right)$$
 (1.1)

for $a \in \{-1, 1\}$ and $\mathbf{f} \in \{-1, 1\}^*$. Here, ϵ denotes the empty sequence of length 0, -x changes the sign of each element of a sequence x and x^R reverses the order of symbols in a sequence x. An easy induction now shows that $|P_{\mathbf{f}}| = 2^{|\mathbf{f}|} - 1$, where |x| means the length, or number of symbols, of a sequence x.

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n	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
$\overline{P_{1^{\omega}}[n]}$	1	1	-1	1	1	-1	-1	1	1	1	-1	-1	1	-1	-1	1

Now, let $\mathbf{f} = f_0 f_1 f_2 \cdots$ be an infinite sequence in $\{-1, 1\}^{\omega}$. It is easy to see that $P_{f_0 f_1 \cdots f_n}$ is a prefix of $P_{f_0 f_1 \cdots f_{n+1}}$ for all $n \ge 0$, so there is a unique infinite sequence of which all the $P_{f_0 f_1 \cdots f_n}$ are prefixes; we call this infinite sequence $P_{\mathbf{f}}$.

As in the previous paragraph, we always index the unfolding instructions starting at 0: $\mathbf{f} = f_0 f_1 f_2 \cdots$. Also by convention, the paperfolding sequence itself is indexed starting at 1: $P_{\mathbf{f}} = p_1 p_2 p_3 \cdots$. With these conventions, we immediately see that $P_{\mathbf{f}}[2^n] = p_{2^n} = f_n$ for $n \ge 0$. Since there are a countable infinity of choices between -1 and 1 for the unfolding instructions, there are uncountably many infinite paperfolding sequences.

As an example, let us consider the most famous such sequence, the *regular* paperfolding sequence, where the sequence of unfolding instructions is $1^{\omega} = 111 \cdots$. Here, we have, for example,

$$P_1 = 1$$
, $P_{11} = 11(-1)$, $P_{111} = 11(-1)11(-1)(-1)$.

The first few values of the limiting infinite paperfolding sequence $P_{1^{\omega}}[n]$ are given in Table 1. The sequence $P_{1^{\omega}}[n]$ is sequence $\underline{A034947}$ in the *On-Line Encyclopedia of Integer Sequences* (OEIS) [20].

The paperfolding sequences have many interesting properties that have been explored in a number of papers. In addition to the papers [8, 9] already cited, the reader can also see those of Allouche [2], Allouche and Bousquet-Mélou [4, 5], and Goč *et al.* [10], to name just a few.

Recently, Bunder *et al.* [6] explored the sequence of lengths of runs of the regular paperfolding sequence and proved some theorems about them. Here, by a 'run', we mean a maximal block of consecutive identical values. For example, the sequence of runs of the regular paperfolding sequence begins 2, 1, 2, 2, 3, 2, 1, 2,

Runs and run-length encodings are a long-studied feature of sequences (see, for example, [11]). The run lengths R_{1111} for the finite paperfolding sequence P_{1111} , as well as the starting positions S_{1111} and ending positions E_{1111} of the *n*th run, are given in Table 2.

As it turns out, however, *much* more general results, applicable to *all* paperfolding sequences, can be proven rather simply, in some cases making use of the Walnut theorem-prover [14]. As shown in [17], to use Walnut, it suffices to state a claim in first-order logic and then the prover can rigorously determine its truth or falsity.

To use Walnut to study the run-length sequences, these sequences must be computable by a finite automaton ('automatic'). Although the paperfolding sequences themselves have this property (as shown, for example, in [10]), there is no reason,

\overline{n}	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
$\overline{P_{1111}[n]}$	1	1	-1	1	1	-1	-1	1	1	1	-1	-1	1	-1	-1
$R_{1111}[n]$	2	1	2	2	3	2	1	2							
$S_{1111}[n]$	1	3	4	6	8	11	13	14							
$E_{1111}[n]$	2	3	5	7	10	12	13	15							

TABLE 2. Run lengths of the regular paperfolding sequence.

a priori, to expect that the sequence of run lengths will also have the property. For example, the sequence of runs of the Thue–Morse sequence $\mathbf{t} = 01101001100110110 \cdots$ is $12112221121 \cdots$, a fixed point of the morphism $1 \rightarrow 121$, $2 \rightarrow 12221$ [3], and is known to *not* be automatic [1].

The starting and ending positions of the *n*th run are integer sequences. To use Walnut to study these, we would need these sequences to be *synchronised* (see [16]); that is, there would need to be an automaton that reads the integers *n* and *x* in parallel and accepts if *x* is the starting (respectively, ending) position of the *n*th run. However, there is no reason, *a priori*, that the starting and ending positions of the *n*th run of an arbitrary automatic sequence should be synchronised. Indeed, if this were the case and the length of runs were bounded, then the length of these runs would always be automatic, which, as we have just seen, is not the case for the Thue–Morse sequence.

However, as we will see, there is a *single* finite automaton that can compute the run sequence $R_{\mathbf{f}}$ for *all* paperfolding sequences simultaneously, and the same thing applies to the sequences $S_{\mathbf{f}}$ and $E_{\mathbf{f}}$ of starting and ending positions, respectively.

In this paper, we use these ideas to study the run-length sequences of paperfolding sequences, explore their critical exponent and subword complexity, and generalise the results of Bunder *et al.* [6] on the continued fraction of a specific real number to uncountably many real numbers.

2. Automata for the starting and ending positions of runs

We start with a basic result with a simple induction proof.

PROPOSITION 2.1. Let **f** be a finite sequence of unfolding instructions of length n. Then, the corresponding run-length sequence $R_{\mathbf{f}}$, as well as $S_{\mathbf{f}}$ and $E_{\mathbf{f}}$, has length 2^{n-1} .

PROOF. The result is clearly true for n = 1. Now suppose **f** has length n + 1 and write $\mathbf{f} = \mathbf{g}a$ for $a \in \{-1, 1\}$. For the induction step, we use (1.1). From it, we see that there are 2^{n-1} runs in $P_{\mathbf{g}}$ and in $-P_{\mathbf{g}}^R$. Since the last symbol of $P_{\mathbf{g}}$ is the negative of the first symbol of $-P_{\mathbf{g}}^R$, introducing a between them extends the length of one run, and does not affect the other. Thus, we do not introduce a new run nor combine two existing runs into one. Hence, the number of runs in $P_{\mathbf{f}}$ is 2^n , as desired.

REMARK 2.2. Bunder *et al.* [6] proved the same result for the specific case of the regular paperfolding sequence. It also follows as a special case of [5, Corollaire 5.3] (as corrected by [12]).

Next, we find automata for the starting and ending positions of the runs. Let us start with the starting positions.

The desired automaton sp takes three inputs in parallel. The first input is a finite sequence \mathbf{f} of unfolding instructions, the second is the number n written in base 2 and the third is some number x, also expressed in base 2. The automaton accepts if and only if $x = S_{\mathbf{f}}[n]$.

Normally, we think of the unfolding instructions as over the alphabet $\{-1, 1\}$, but it is useful to be more flexible and also allow 0s, but only at the end; these 0s are essentially disregarded. We need this because the parallel reading of inputs requires that all three inputs be of the same length. Thus, for example, the sequences -1, 1, 1, 0 and -1, 1, 1 are considered to specify the same paperfolding sequence, while -1, 0, 1, 1 is not considered a valid specification.

Because we choose to let f_0 be the first symbol of the unfolding instructions, it is also useful to require that the inputs n and x mentioned above be represented with the *least-significant digit first*. In this representation, we allow an unlimited number of trailing zeros.

Finally, although we assume that $S_{\mathbf{f}}$ is indexed starting at position 1, it is useful to define $S_{\mathbf{f}}[0] = 0$ for all finite unfolding instruction sequences \mathbf{f} .

To find the automaton computing the starting positions of runs, we use a guessing procedure described in [17], based on a variant of the Myhill–Nerode theorem. Once a candidate automaton is guessed, we can rigorously verify its correctness with Walnut.

We will need one Walnut automaton, FOLD, already introduced in [17], and another one that we can define via a regular expression.

- FOLD takes two inputs, **f** and *n*. If *n* is in the range $1 \le n < 2^{|\mathbf{f}|}$, then it returns the *n*th term of the paperfolding sequence specified by **f**.
- 1nk takes two inputs, \mathbf{f} and x. It accepts if \mathbf{f} is the valid code of a paperfolding sequence (that is, no 0s except at the end) and x is $2^t 1$, where t is the length of \mathbf{f} (not counting 0s at the end). It can be created using the Walnut command

Our guessed automaton sp has 17 states. We must now verify that it is correct. To do so, we need to verify the following things.

- (1) The candidate automaton sp computes a partial function. More precisely, for a given \mathbf{f} and n, at most one input of the form (\mathbf{f}, n, x) is accepted.
- (2) sp accepts $(\mathbf{f}, 0, 0)$.
- (3) sp accepts $(\mathbf{f}, 1, 1)$ provided $|\mathbf{f}| \ge 1$.
- (4) There is an x such that sp accepts $(\mathbf{f}, 2^{|\mathbf{f}|-1}, x)$.
- (5) sp accepts no input of the form (\mathbf{f}, n, x) if $n > 2^{|\mathbf{f}|-1}$.

- (6) If sp accepts $(\mathbf{f}, 2^{|\mathbf{f}|-1}, x)$, then the symbols $P_{\mathbf{f}}[t]$ for $x \le t < 2^{|\mathbf{f}|}$ are all the same.
- (7) Runs are nonempty: if sp accepts $(\mathbf{f}, n 1, y)$ and (\mathbf{f}, n, z) , then y < z.
- (8) Finally, we check that if sp accepts (\mathbf{f}, n, x) , then x is truly the starting position of the nth run. This means that all the symbols from the starting position of the (n-1)th run to x-1 are the same, and different from $P_{\mathbf{f}}[x]$.

We use the following Walnut code to check each of these. A brief review of Walnut syntax may be useful:

- ?lsd_2 specifies that all numbers are represented with the least-significant digit first and in base 2;
- A is the universal quantifier \forall and E is the existential quantifier \exists ;
- & is logical AND, | is logical OR, W is logical NOT, => is logical implication, <=> is logical IFF, and != is inequality;
- eval expects a quoted string representing a first-order assertion with no free (unbound) variables, and returns TRUE or FALSE;
- def expects a quoted string representing a first-order assertion φ that may have free (unbound) variables, and computes an automaton accepting the representations of those tuples of variables that make φ true, which can be used later.

```
eval tmp1 "?lsd_2 Af,n ~Ex,y x!=y & sp(f,n,x) & p(f,n,y)":
# check that it is a partial function
eval tmp2 "?1sd_2 Af,x lnk(f,x) => sp(f,0,0)":
# check that 0th run is at position 0; the lnk makes sure that
# the format of f is correct
        (doesn't have 0's in the middle of it.)
eval tmp3 "?lsd_2 Af,x (lnk(f,x) \& x>=1) => lnk(f,1,1)":
# check if code specifies nonempty string then first run is at
        position 1
eval tmp4 "?lsd_2 Af,n,z (\ln k(f,z) \& z+1=2*n) => Ex sp(f,n,x)":
# check it accepts n = 2^{\{|f|-1\}}
eval tmp5 "?lsd_2 Af,n,z (lnk(f,z) \& z+1<2*n) => ~Ex ln(f,n,x)":
# check that it accepts no n past 2^{\{|f|-1\}}
eval tmp6 "?1sd_2 Af,n,z,x (\frac{1}{n} (\frac{1}{n}) & 2*n=z+1 & \frac{1}{n}
        => At (t>=x & t<z) => FOLD[f][x]=FOLD[f][t]":
# check last run is right and goes to the end of the finite
# paperfolding sequence specified by f
eval tmp7 "?lsd_2 Af,n,x,y,z (lnk(f,z) & sp(f,n-1,x) & lnk(f,z) 
        sp(f,n,y) & 1 <= n & 2*n <= z+1) => x < y'':
# check that starting positions form an increasing sequence
eval tmp8 "?1sd_2 Af_n,x,y,z,t ($lnk(f,z) & n>=2 & $sp(f,n-1,y) &
        p(f,n,x) & x \le x < y \le t & t < x > p(f,n,x) = FOLD[f][x]! = FOLD[f][t]":
# check that starting position code is actually right
```

6 J. Shallit [6]

Walnut returns TRUE for all of these, which gives us a proof by induction on n that indeed $x_n = S_f[n]$.

From the automaton for starting positions of runs, we can obtain the automaton for ending positions of runs, ep, using the following Walnut code:

def ep "?lsd_2 Ex \$lnk(f,x) & ((2*
$$n \le x-1$$
 & \$sp(f,n+1,z+1)) | (2* $n-1=x$ & z=x))":

Thus, we have proved the following result.

THEOREM 2.3. There is a synchronised automaton of 17 states sp computing $S_{\mathbf{f}}[n]$ and one of 13 states ep computing $E_{\mathbf{f}}[n]$ for all paperfolding sequences simultaneously.

Using the automaton ep, we are now able to prove the following new theorem. Roughly speaking, it says that the ending position of the *n*th run for the unfolding instructions \mathbf{f} is $2n - \epsilon_n$, where $\epsilon_n \in \{0, 1\}$, and we can compute ϵ_n by looking at a sequence of unfolding instructions closely related to \mathbf{f} .

THEOREM 2.4. Let \mathbf{f} be a finite sequence of unfolding instructions of length at least 2. Define a new sequence \mathbf{g} of unfolding instructions as follows:

$$\mathbf{g} := \begin{cases} 1 \ (-x) & \text{if } \mathbf{f} = 11x, \\ (-1) \ (-x) & \text{if } \mathbf{f} = 1(-1)x, \\ (-1) \ x & \text{if } \mathbf{f} = (-1)1x, \\ 1 \ x & \text{if } \mathbf{f} = (-1)(-1)x. \end{cases}$$
 (2.1)

Then,

$$E_{\mathbf{f}}[n] + \epsilon_n = 2n \tag{2.2}$$

for $1 \le n < 2^{n-1}$, where

$$\epsilon_n = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } P_{\mathbf{g}}[n] = 1, \\ 1 & \text{if } P_{\mathbf{g}}[n] = -1. \end{cases}$$

Furthermore, if **f** is an infinite set of unfolding instructions, then (2.2) holds for all $n \ge 1$.

PROOF. We prove this using Walnut. First, we need an automaton assoc that takes two inputs \mathbf{f} and \mathbf{g} in parallel, and accepts if \mathbf{g} is defined as in (2.1). This automaton is depicted in Figure 1 and correctness is left to the reader. Now, we use the following Walnut code:

and Walnut returns TRUE.

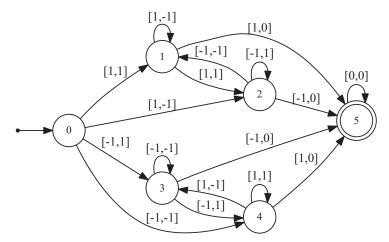


FIGURE 1. The automaton assoc.

3. Automaton for the sequence of run lengths

Next, we turn to the sequence of run lengths itself. We can compute these from the automata for ep and sp:

def rl "?lsd_2 Ex,y
$$sp(f,n,x) & p(f,n,y) & z=1+(y-x)$$
":

PROPOSITION 3.1. For all finite and infinite sequences of paperfolding instructions, the only run lengths are 1,2 or 3.

PROOF. It suffices to prove this for finite paperfolding sequences:

and Walnut returns TRUE.

REMARK 3.2. Proposition 3.1 was proved by Bunder *et al.* [6] for the specific case of the regular paperfolding sequence.

We now use another feature of Walnut, which is that we can turn a synchronised automaton computing a function of finite range into an automaton returning the value of the function. The following code:

```
def rl1 "?lsd_2 $rl(f,n,1)":
def rl2 "?lsd_2 $rl(f,n,2)":
def rl3 "?lsd_2 $rl(f,n,3)":
combine RL rl1=1 rl2=2 rl3=3:
```

8 J. Shallit [8]

computes an automaton RL of two inputs \mathbf{f} and n, and returns the value of the run-length sequence at index n (either 1, 2 or 3) for the unfolding instructions \mathbf{f} . This automaton has 31 states.

We now turn to examining the factors of the run-length sequences of paperfolding sequences. Recall that a factor is a contiguous block sitting inside a large sequence. We start with overlaps.

Recall that an *overlap* is a string of the form *axaxa*, where *a* is a single letter and *x* is a possibly empty string. For example, the word entente is an overlap from French. We now prove that the sequence of run lengths in a paperfolding sequence contains no overlaps.

THEOREM 3.3. The sequence of run lengths corresponding to every finite or infinite paperfolding sequence is overlap-free.

PROOF. It suffices to prove the result for every finite paperfolding sequence. We can do this as follows:

and Walnut returns TRUE.

We now consider squares, that is, blocks of the form zz, where z is a nonempty sequence.

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THEOREM 3.4. The only possible squares occurring in the run lengths of a paperfolding sequence are 22, 123123 and 321321.

PROOF. We start by showing that the only squares are of order 1 or 3:

```
def chk_sq1 "?lsd_2 Af,i,n,x ($lnk(f,x) & x>=1 & i>=1 & n>=1
    & i+2*n-1<=(x+1)/2 & At (t<n) => RL[f][i+t]=RL[f][i+n+t])
    => (n=1|n=3)":
```

Next, we check that the only square of order 1 is 22:

```
def chk_sq2 "?lsd_2 Af,x,i ($lnk(f,x) & x>=1 & i>=1 & i+1<=(x+1)/2 & RL[f][i]=RL[f][i+1]) => RL[f][i]=@2":
```

Finally, we check that the only squares of order 3 are 123123 and 321321:

```
def chk_sq3 "'?lsd_2 Af,x,i ($lnk(f,x) & x>=1 & i>=1 &
    i+5<=(x+1)/2 & RL[f][i]=RL[f][i+3] & RL[f][i+1]=RL[f][i+4]
    & RL[f][i+2]=RL[f][i=5]) => ((RL[f][i]=@1 & RL[f][i+1]=@2
    & RL[f][i+2]=@3)|(RL[f][i]=@3 & RL[f][i+1]=@2
    & RL[f][i+2]=@1))":
```

PROPOSITION 3.5. In every finite paperfolding sequence formed by 7 or more unfolding instructions, the squares 22, 123123 and 321321 are all present in the run-length sequence.

We now turn to palindromes.

THEOREM 3.6. The only palindromes that can occur in the run-length sequence of a paperfolding sequence are 1, 2, 3, 22, 212, 232, 12321 and 32123.

PROOF. It suffices to check the factors of the run-length sequences of length at most 7. These correspond to factors of length at most $2 + 3 \times 7 = 23$, and by the bounds on the 'appearance' function given in [17, Theorem 12.2.2]; to guarantee we have seen all of these factors, it suffices to look at prefixes of paperfolding sequences of length at most $13 \times 23 = 299$. (Also see [7].) Hence, it suffices to look at all 2^9 finite paperfolding sequences of length $2^9 - 1 = 511$ specified by instructions of length 9. When we do this, the only palindromes we find are those in the statement of the theorem.

Recall that the *subword complexity* of an infinite sequence is the function that counts, for each $n \ge 0$, the number of distinct factors of length n appearing in it. The subword complexity of the paperfolding sequences was determined by Allouche [2].

THEOREM 3.7. The subword complexity of the run-length sequence of an infinite paperfolding sequence is 4n + 4 for $n \ge 6$.

PROOF. First we prove that if x is a factor of a run-length sequence and $|x| \ge 2$, then xa is a factor of the same sequence for at most two different a:

```
def faceq "?lsd_2 At (t<n) => RL[f][i+t]=RL[f][j+t]":
eval three "?lsd_2 Ef,i,j,k,n n>=2 & i>=1 & RL[f][i+n]=@1 &
    RL[f][j+n]=@2 & RL[f][k+n]=@3 & $faceq(f,i,j,n)
    & $faceq(f,j,k,n)":
```

Next, we prove that if $|x| \ge 5$, then exactly four factors of a run-length sequence are right-special (have a right extension by two different letters):

```
def rtspec "?lsd_2 Ej,x $lnk(f,x) & i+n<=x & i>=1 &
    $faceq(f,i,j,n) & RL[f][i+n]!=RL[f][j+n]":
eval nofive "?lsd_2 ~Ef,i,j,k,l,m,n n>=5 & i<j & j<k & k<l
    & l<m & $rtspec(f,i,n) & $rtspec(f,j,n) & $rtspec(f,k,n) &
    $rtspec(f,l,n) & $rtspec(f,m,n)":
eval four "?lsd_2 Af,n,x ($lnk(f,x) & x>=127 & n>=6 &
    13*n<=x) => Ei,j,k,l i>=1 & i<j & j<k & k<l &
    $rtspec(f,i,n) & $rtspec(f,j,n) & $rtspec(f,k,n)
    & $rtspec(f,i,n) ":</pre>
```

Here, no five shows that no length 5 or larger has five or more right-special factors of that length, and every length 6 or larger has exactly four such right-special factors.

10 J. Shallit [10]

Here, we have used [17, Theorem 12.2.2], which guarantees that every factor of length n of a paperfolding sequence can be found in a prefix of length 13n. Thus, we see that if there are t factors of length $n \ge 6$, then there are t + 4 factors of length n + 1: the t arising from those that can be extended in exactly one way to the right, and the 4 additional from those that have two extensions.

Since there are 28 factors of every run-length sequence of length 6 (which we can check just by enumerating them, again using [17, Theorem 12.2.2]), the result now follows by a trivial induction.

4. The regular paperfolding sequence

In this section, we specialise everything we have done so far to the case of a single infinite paperfolding sequence, the so-called regular paperfolding sequence, where the folding instructions are $1^{\omega} = 111 \cdots$. In [6], the sequence $2122321231232212 \cdots$ of run lengths for the regular paperfolding sequence was called g(n), and the sequence $2, 3, 5, 7, 10, 12, 13, 15, 18, 19, 21, \ldots$ of ending positions of runs was called h(n). We adopt their notation. Note that g(n) forms sequence A088431 in the OEIS, while the sequence of starting positions of runs $1, 3, 4, 6, 8, 11, 13, 14, 16, \ldots$ is A371594. The sequence h(n) of ending positions of runs is A381929.

In this case, we can construct an automaton computing the nth term of the run length sequence g(n) as follows:

```
reg rps {-1,0,1} {0,1} "[1,1]*[0,0]*":

def runlr1 "?lsd_2 Ef,x $rps(f,x) & n>=1 & n<=x/2 & RL[f][n]=@1":

def runlr2 "?lsd_2 Ef,x $rps(f,x) & n>=1 & n<=x/2 & RL[f][n]=@2":

def runlr3 "?lsd_2 Ef,x $rps(f,x) & n>=1 & n<=x/2 & RL[f][n]=@3":

combine RLR runlr1=1 runlr2=2 runlr3=3:
```

The resulting automaton is depicted in Figure 2.

Casual inspection of this automaton immediately proves many of the results of [6], such as the multi-part Theorems 2.1 and 2.2. To name just one example, the sequence g(n) takes the value 1 if and only if $n \equiv 2, 7 \pmod{8}$. We can also use Walnut to prove the other results from [6].

We can also specialise sp and ep to the case of the regular paperfolding sequence, as follows:

These automata are depicted in Figures 3 and 4.

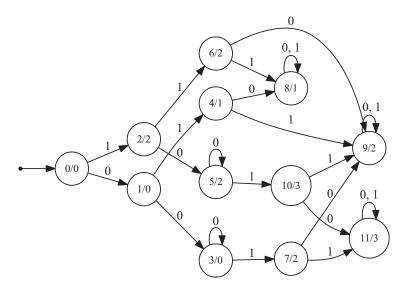


FIGURE 2. The lsd-first automaton RLR.

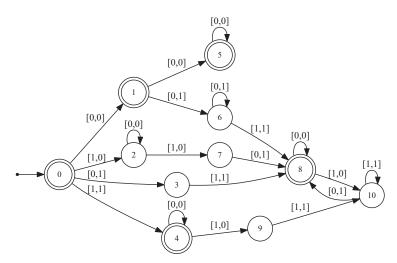


FIGURE 3. Synchronised automaton sp_reg for starting positions of runs of the regular paperfolding sequence.

Once we have these automata, we can easily recover many of the results of [6], such as Theorem 3.2. For example, if $n \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, then h(n) = 2n. We can prove this as follows with Walnut:

eval test32a "?lsd_2 An $(n=4*(n/4)+1) => p_reg(n,2*n)$ ":

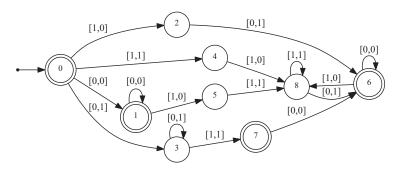


FIGURE 4. Synchronised automaton ep_reg for ending positions of runs of the regular paperfolding sequence.

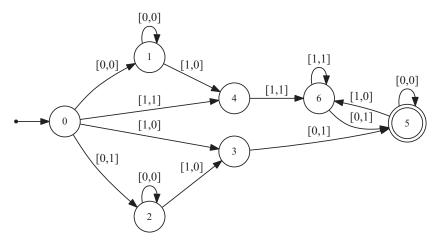


FIGURE 5. The automaton tt computing t(n).

The reader may enjoy constructing Walnut expressions to check the other results of [6].

Slightly more challenging to prove is the sum property, conjectured by Hendriks, and given in [6, Theorem 4.1]. We state it as follows.

THEOREM 4.1. Arrange the set of positive integers not in $H := \{h(n) + 1 : n \ge 0\}$ in increasing order and let t(n) be the nth such integer for $n \ge 1$. Then:

- (a) $g(h(i) + 1) = 2 \text{ for } i \ge 0;$
- (b) $g(t(2i)) = 3 \text{ for } i \ge 1$;
- (c) g(t(2i-1)) = 1 for $i \ge 1$.

PROOF. The first step is to create an automaton tt computing t(n). Once again, we guess the automaton from data and then verify its correctness. It is depicted in Figure 5.

To verify its correctness, we need to verify that tt indeed computes an increasing function t(n) and further that the set $\{t(n) : n \ge 1\} = \{1, 2, ..., \} \setminus H$. We can do this as follows:

```
eval tt1 "?lsd_2 An (n>=1) => Ex $tt(n,x)":
# takes a value for all n
eval tt2 "?lsd_2 ~En,x,y n>=1 & x!=y & $tt(n,x) & $tt(n,y)":
# does not take two different values for the same n
eval tt3 "?lsd_2 An,y,z (n>=1 & $tt(n,y) & $tt(n+1,z)) => y<z":
# is an increasing function
eval tt4 "?lsd_2 Ax (x>=1) =>
        ((En n>=1 & $tt(n,x)) <=> (~Em,y $ep_reg(m,y) & x=y+1))":
# takes all values not in H
```

Now, we can verify parts (a)–(c) of Theorem 4.1 as follows:

```
eval parta "?lsd_2 Ai,x (i>=1 & $ep_reg(i,x)) => RLR[x+1]=@2":
eval partb "?lsd_2 Ai,x (i>=1 & $tt(2*i,x)) => RLR[x]=@3":
eval partc "?lsd_2 Ai,x (i>=1 & $tt(2*i-1,x)) => RLR[x]=@1":
```

and Walnut returns TRUE for all of these. This completes the proof.

5. Connection with continued fractions

Dimitri Hendriks observed, and Bunder *et al.* [6] proved, a relationship between the sequence of runs for the regular paperfolding sequence and the continued fraction for the real number $\sum_{i>0} 2^{-2^i}$.

As it turns out, however, a *much* more general result holds; it links the continued fractions for uncountably many irrational numbers to runs in the paperfolding sequences.

THEOREM 5.1. Let $n \ge 2$ and $\epsilon_i \in \{-1, 1\}$ for $2 \le i \le n$. Define

$$\alpha(\epsilon_2, \epsilon_3, \dots, \epsilon_n) := \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \sum_{2 \le i \le n} \epsilon_i 2^{-2^i}.$$

Then, the continued fraction for $\alpha(\epsilon_2, \epsilon_3, \dots, \epsilon_n)$ is given by $[0, 1, (2R_{1,\epsilon_2,\epsilon_3,\dots,\epsilon_n})']$, where the prime indicates that the last term is increased by 1.

As a consequence, the numbers $\alpha(\epsilon_2, \epsilon_3,...)$ have continued fraction given by $[0,1,2R_{1,\epsilon_2,\epsilon_3,...}]$.

REMARK 5.2. The numbers $\alpha(\epsilon_2, \epsilon_3, ...)$ were proved transcendental by Kempner [13]. They are sometimes erroneously called Fredholm numbers, even though Fredholm never studied them [15, page 162].

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As an example, suppose $(\epsilon_2, \epsilon_3, \epsilon_4, \epsilon_5) = (1, -1, -1, 1)$. Then,

$$x(1,-1,-1,1) = 3472818177/2^{32} = [0,1,4,4,2,6,4,2,4,6,4,2,4,6,2,4,5],$$

while $R_{1,1,-1,-1,1} = 2213212232123122$.

To prove Theorem 5.1, we need the 'folding lemma'.

LEMMA 5.3. Suppose $p/q = [0, a_1, a_2, ..., a_t]$, t is odd and $\epsilon \in \{-1, 1\}$. Then,

$$p/q + \epsilon/q^2 = [0, a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{t-1}, a_t - \epsilon, a_t + \epsilon, a_{t-1}, \dots, a_2, a_1].$$

PROOF. See [9, page 177], although the general ideas can also be found in [18, 19]. □ We can now prove Theorem 5.1 by induction.

PROOF OF THEOREM 5.1. From Lemma 5.3, we see that if $\alpha(\epsilon_2, \epsilon_3, ..., \epsilon_n) = [0, 1, a_2, ..., a_t]$, then

$$\alpha(\epsilon_2, \epsilon_3, \dots, \epsilon_n, \epsilon_{n+1}) = [0, 1, a_2, \dots, a_{t-1}, a_t - \epsilon_{n+1}, a_t + \epsilon_{n+1}, a_{t-1}, a_{t-2}, \dots, a_3, a_2 + 1].$$

Now, for the paperfolding sequence, $P_{1,\epsilon_2,\epsilon_3,...,\epsilon_n}$ always ends in -1. Write $R_{1,\epsilon_2,\epsilon_3,...,\epsilon_n} = b_1b_2\cdots b_t$. Then,

$$R_{1,\epsilon_{1},\dots,\epsilon_{n},\epsilon_{n+1}} = b_{1}\cdots b_{t-1}, b_{t}+1, b_{t-1},\dots,b_{1}$$

if $\epsilon_{n+1} = -1$ (because we extend the last run with one more -1), and

$$R_{1,\epsilon_{1},\ldots,\epsilon_{n},\epsilon_{n+1}} = b_{1}\cdots b_{t-1}, b_{t}, b_{t}+1, b_{t-1},\ldots,b_{1}$$

if $\epsilon_{n+1} = 1$.

Suppose

$$\alpha(\epsilon_2, \epsilon_3, \dots, \epsilon_n) = [0, 1, (2R_{1,\epsilon_2,\epsilon_3,\dots,\epsilon_n})'] = [0, 1, a_2, \dots, a_t]$$

and let $R_{1,\epsilon_2,\dots,\epsilon_n} = b_1 b_2 \cdots b_{t-1}$. Then,

$$\alpha(\epsilon_{2}, \epsilon_{3}, \dots, \epsilon_{n}, \epsilon_{n+1}) = [0, 1, a_{2}, \dots, a_{t-1}, a_{t} - \epsilon_{n+1}, a_{t} + \epsilon_{n+1}, a_{t-1}, \dots, a_{3}, a_{2} + 1]$$

$$= [0, 1, 2b_{1}, \dots, 2b_{t-2}, 2b_{t-1} + 1 - \epsilon_{n+1}, 2b_{t-1} + 1 + \epsilon_{n+1}, 2b_{t-2}, \dots, 2b_{2}, 2b_{1}, 1]$$

$$= [0, 1, 2b_{1}, \dots, 2b_{t-2}, 2b_{t-1} + 1 - \epsilon_{n+1}, 2b_{t-1} + 1 + \epsilon_{n+1}, 2b_{t-2}, \dots, 2b_{2}, 2b_{1} + 1]$$

$$= [0, 1, 2R'_{1,\epsilon_{1},\dots,\epsilon_{n+1}}],$$

as desired.

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