#### A second look at binary digits

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### **Binary digits**

Everybody knows that  $(10)_2 = 2$  and  $(11011)_2 = 27$ .

Also,  $-27 = (-11011)_2$ . Or is it?

Some computers know that -27 = (111111111100101) (signed word), and that 32767 + 1 = -32768.

Some people know that  $-1 = (11111...)_2 \in \mathbb{Z}_2$  (start with LSD here), and

$$-27 = (101001111...)_2.$$

Can we do better?

### The expansion algorithm

Define the dynamic mapping  $T : \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z} : a \mapsto \begin{cases} \frac{a}{2} & \text{if } a \text{ even;} \\ \frac{a-1}{2} & \text{if } a \text{ odd.} \end{cases}$ 

Now to expand a, write 0 if a even and 1 otherwise, and continue with T(a). Done when  $T^n(a) = 0$ .

Example:  $27 \xrightarrow{1} 13 \xrightarrow{1} 6 \xrightarrow{0} 3 \xrightarrow{1} 1 \xrightarrow{1} 0$ .

However,  $-1 \xrightarrow{1} -1...$ 

Try other digits:  $\mathcal{D} = \{d_0, d_1\}$ , with  $d_i \equiv i \pmod{2}$ .

Criterion for the existence of a 1-cycle:  $\frac{a-d}{2} = a \Leftrightarrow a = -d$ . So this is hopeless!

#### **Negabinary expansions**

Try other basis -2, with digits  $\{0, 1\}$ :

 $-27 \xrightarrow{1} 14 \xrightarrow{0} -7 \xrightarrow{1} 4 \xrightarrow{0} -2 \xrightarrow{0} 1 \xrightarrow{1} 0$ , so  $-27 = (100101)_{-2}$ .

Theorem (Grünwald 1885) All integers have a finite expansion on the integer basis  $b \leq -2$  and digits  $\{0, 1, \ldots, |b| - 1\}$ .

Proof: there are no cycles except  $0 \xrightarrow{0} 0$  !

Excursion: the balanced ternary expansion uses basis +3 and digits  $\{-1, 0, 1\}$ , and expands all integers finitely. If only computers had three-way switches!

Theorem Let  $a \in \mathbb{Z}_3$ . Then  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$  if and only if its balanced ternary expansion is finite.

# A curious question

**Definition** A digit set  $\mathcal{D}$  is valid for basis  $\pm 2$  if all integers have a finite representation

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\ell} d_i (\pm 2)^i \quad (d_i \in \mathcal{D}).$$

We know that no digit sets are valid for basis +2; for basis -2, we know the valid digit set  $\{0,1\}$ , and thus also  $\{0,-1\}$  by an automorphism of the additive group.

Question Are there any others?

Answer Yes, infinitely many!

## **Expansions of zero**

Is it possible to have a digit set without zero? Yes!

The definition of the mapping T and of the stopping criterion is the same (if you formulate it like I do!).

**Example**: basis -2, digits  $\{1,4\}$ . Expand -27:

 $-27 \xrightarrow{1} 14 \xrightarrow{4} -5 \xrightarrow{1} 3 \xrightarrow{1} -1 \xrightarrow{1} 1 \xrightarrow{1} 0$ , so  $-27 = (111141)_{-2}$ .

Interesting:  $0 \xrightarrow{4} 2 \xrightarrow{4} 1 \xrightarrow{1} 0$ , a 3-cycle!

So,  $0 = ()_{-2} = (144)_{-2} = (144144)_{-2} = \dots$ 

Theorem Any valid digit set gives rise to a nontrivial expansion of zero.

## Experiments



The figure plots all pairs of integers (x, y), with  $|x|, |y| \le 200$ , that are valid digit sets for basis -2.

#### Results

Theorem The digit set  $\{d, D\}$  with d < D is valid for basis -2 if and only if

(i) one of d, D is even and one is odd (trivial)

(ii) either dD = 0 or  $3 \nmid dD$  (avoid 1-cycles except 0)

(iii) we have  $2d \le D$  and  $2D \ge d$  (0 is expansible)

(iv)  $D - d = 3^i$  for some  $i \ge 0$  (the real stuff!)

For example, the only valid digit sets with 0 are  $\{0, \pm 1\}$ . On the other hand, the sets  $\{1, 3^i + 1\}$  are valid for all  $i \ge 0$ .

# **Higher-dimensional analogues**

There is no reason to limit the theory of number systems to  $\mathbb{Z}$ . Consider this setup:

- $\mathcal{O}$  is a  $\mathbb{Z}$ -order.
- $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}$  is nonzero.

•  $\mathcal{D}$  represents  $\mathcal{O}$  modulo  $\alpha$  (we have  $|\mathcal{D}| = |\operatorname{Norm}(\alpha)| < \infty$ ).

Then we can define  $T: \mathcal{O} \to \mathcal{O}: a \mapsto \frac{a-d_a}{\alpha}$ , where  $d_a \in \mathcal{D}$  has  $a \equiv d_a$  (mod  $\alpha$ ).

Easy necessary conditions to have finite expansibility of all  $a \in \mathcal{O}$ :

- $\alpha$  and  $\alpha 1$  must be non-units of  $\mathcal O$
- $\alpha$  must be expanding, i.e., for all  $\sigma : \mathcal{O} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{C}$  we have  $|\sigma(\alpha)| > 1$ .

## The periodic set

With this setup, we call  $(\mathcal{O}, \alpha, \mathcal{D})$  a pre-number system.

Because  $\alpha$  is expanding, the mapping T is almost a contraction on  $\mathcal{O}$ , and the unique finite subset  $\mathcal{P} \subset \mathcal{O}$  that is invariant under T is called the periodic set of the pre-number system.

Theorem The periodic set of  $(\mathbb{Z}, -2, \{d, D\})$  is the arithmetic progression  $\left\{ \left\lceil \frac{2d-D}{3} \right\rceil, \dots, \left\lfloor \frac{2D-d}{3} \right\rfloor \right\}$ .

In higher dimensions, the geometric structure of the periodic set is quite complicated.

## The tile

There is a continuous variant of the (discrete) periodic set, called the tile of the pre-number system, because it usually tiles  $\mathcal{O} \otimes \mathbb{R}$ .

For 
$$(\mathbb{Z}, -2, \{d, D\})$$
, it is the interval  $\left[\frac{2d-D}{3}, \frac{2D-d}{3}\right]$ .

In higher dimensions, these tiles usually have fractal boundary.

To prove a higher-dimensional analogue of the main Theorem, we must characterise the lattice points in the tile, and describe the action of T on them.

## Work in progress

More-or-less-theorem Let  $\alpha$  be an expanding algebraic integer of norm ±2. Then up to finitely many exceptions, a digit set  $\mathcal{D} = \{d_0, d_0 + \delta\}$  makes  $(\mathbb{Z}[\alpha], \alpha, \mathcal{D})$  into a number system if and only if:

- (i)  $\delta \equiv 1 \pmod{\alpha}$  and  $(d_0, \alpha 1) = (1)$
- (ii) there is a nontrivial zero expansion
- (iii)  $\delta$  is a product of prime divisors of  $\alpha 1$  that are regular, totally split and lie over different primes of  $\mathbb{Z}$

Note that for a given degree d, there are only finitely many expanding  $\alpha$  of degree d and norm  $\pm 2$ . A famous example is  $\tau = \frac{-1 \pm \sqrt{-7}}{2}$  satisfying  $x^2 \pm x \pm 2$ . The smallest nonmaximal order among them is generated by  $x^4 \pm x^2 \pm 4$  (Potiopa 1997). The smallest example with a nontrivial ideal class group is  $x^8 - x^6 - x^2 \pm 2$  (CvdW 2009).