Adventures in Automata with a Theorem-Prover

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The familiar research methodology for mathematics



Advantages:

- it's familiar
- it's worked for centuries

Disadvantages:

- need to be clever
- might be preposterously difficult if sought description is complicated

A new (?) research methodology for mathematics



Advantages:

- don't need to be very clever
- sometimes it automatically generates the conjecture for you

Disadvantages:

- decision procedures don't exist for most of mathematics
- sometimes they take ridiculous amounts of space and time

Examples of this new approach

• The Wilf-Zeilberger (WZ) approach to automatically prove combinatorial identities, such as

$$\sum_{-n \le k \le n} (-1)^k \binom{2n}{n+k}^3 = \frac{(3n)!}{n!^3}.$$

- Use of SAT solvers (e.g., the recent solution of the Boolean pythagorean triples problem)
- Proof assistants like Isabelle and Coq

Hilbert's dreams



David Hilbert (1862–1943) German mathematician.

- To show that every true statement is provable (killed by Gödel)
- To provide an algorithm to decide if a given statement is provable (killed by Turing)
- Nevertheless, some subclasses of problems are decidable — i.e., an algorithm exists guaranteed to prove or disprove any statement in the class

First-order logic

- Let (N, +) denote the set of all first-order logical formulas in the natural numbers with addition.
- Here we are allowed to use any number of variables, logical connectives like "and", "or", "not", etc., addition of natural numbers, comparison of natural numbers, and quantifiers like "there exists" (∃) and "for all" (∀).
- This is sometimes called *Presburger arithmetic*.
- Example: $\forall x, y \ x + y = y + x$. What does this assert?

Another example: the Chicken McNuggets problem

A famous problem in elementary arithmetic books:



At McDonald's, Chicken McNuggets are available in packs of either 6, 9, or 20 nuggets. What is the largest number of McNuggets that one **cannot** purchase?

In Presburger arithmetic we can express the "Chicken McNuggets theorem" that 43 is the largest integer that cannot be represented as a non-negative integer linear combination of 6, 9, and 20, as follows:

$$(\forall n > 43 \exists x, y, z \ge 0 \text{ such that } n = 6x + 9y + 20z) \land$$

 $\neg(\exists x, y, z \ge 0 \text{ such that } 43 = 6x + 9y + 20z).$

Here, of course, "6x" is shorthand for the expression "x + x + x + x + x + x", and similarly for 9y and 20z.

Presburger's theorem



Mojżesz Presburger (1904–1943) Murdered by the Nazis. Presburger proved that $FO(\mathbb{N}, +)$ is *decidable*: that is, there exists an algorithm that, given a sentence in $\langle \mathbb{N}, + \rangle$ with no free variables, will decide its truth.

He used quantifier elimination.

His master's thesis was one of the most influential of all time in mathematics.

Büchi's proof of Presburger's theorem



Julius Richard Büchi (1924–1984) Swiss logician Büchi found a completely different proof of Presburger's theorem. Numbers are represented in base-k for some integer $k \ge 2$. And logical formulas are implemented by means of *finite automata*.

What are finite automata?

Finite automata are a model of a very simple kind of computing machine, having only finite memory (called the "states").

Their inputs are strings of symbols ("words") chosen from a finite alphabet Σ .

As each letter is processed from left to right, the automaton looks up in a table (the "transition function") which state to go to, based on the current state and current input letter.

Certain states are called "final". If, after reading the entire input, the automaton ends in a final state, the input is *accepted*; otherwise it is *rejected*. This is the basic automaton model.

In a variation of the model, we associate an output letter with each state, and then the output corresponding to an input is the output associated with the last state reached.

Example of an automaton

Here is an automaton accepting those words over $\{1, 2, 3\}$ whose first symbol is the same as the last symbol:



Double circle: indicates final state.

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Adventures in Automat

Second example of an automaton

This automaton computes *n* modulo 3, where *n* is expressed in base 2:



Here the output associated with each state is the number of that state. The meaning of state i is "number represented in binary by the word seen so far is congruent to $i \pmod{3}$ ".

Decidability of Presburger arithmetic: Büchi's proof

Ideas:

- represent integers in an integer base $k \ge 2$ using the alphabet $\Sigma_k = \{0, 1, \dots, k-1\}$, most-significant-digit first.
- represent *t*-tuples of integers as words over the alphabet Σ_k^t , padding with leading zeroes, if necessary. This corresponds to reading the base-*k* representations of the *t*-tuples *in parallel*.
- For example, the pair of natural numbers (21,7) can be represented in base 2 by the word

[1,0][0,0][1,1][0,1][1,1].

- First component spells out 10101, which is 21 in base 2
- Second component spells out 00111, which is 7 in base 2

Decidability of Presburger arithmetic: proof sketch

- Given a formula φ with free variables x₁, x₂,..., x_t, we inductively construct an automaton accepting the base-k expansions of those t-tuples (x₁,..., x_t) for which the formula evaluates to true.
- For example, the relation x + y = z can be checked by a simple 2-state automaton depicted below, where transitions not depicted lead to a nonaccepting "dead state".



Decidability of Presburger arithmetic: proof sketch

- Relations like x = y and x < y can be checked similarly.
- If a formula is of the form ∃x₁, x₂,...x_t p(x₁,...,x_t,...,x_u), then we use nondeterminism to "guess" the x_i for 1 ≤ i ≤ t and check them.
- This is done by "projecting" away the first *t* components of the transitions.
- If the formula is of the form $\forall p$, we use the equivalence

$$\forall p \equiv \neg \exists \neg p;$$

this may require using something called the "subset construction", which can produce exponential blow-up in the size of the automaton.

Decidability of Presburger arithmetic: proof sketch

- We now parse the formula φ , applying well-known constructions on automata to implement the operations in the formula.
- At the end, if there are no free variables, eventually we get a 1-state automaton that either accepts everything ("true") or rejects everything ("false").
- If there are *t* free variables left, at the end we get an automaton taking *t*-tuples as input, and accepting those *t*-tuples of natural numbers making the formula evaluate to "true".

The bad news

The worst-case running time of the algorithm above is bounded above by
 2^{p(N)}

where the number of 2's in the exponent is equal to the number of quantifier alternations, p is a polynomial, and N is the size of the logical formula.

• This bound can be improved to double-exponential.

The good news

 With a small extension to Presburger's logical theory — adding the function V_k(n), the largest power of k dividing n — one can also verify statements that are much more interesting! But then the worst-case time bound returns to



- Based on a beautiful logical theory due to Büchi, Bruyère, Hansel, Michaux, Villemaire, etc.
- Despite the awful worst-case bound on running time, an implementation often succeeds in verifying statements in the theory in a reasonable amount of time and space.
- Many old results from the literature can been verified with this technique, and many new ones can be proved.

What can we prove things about?

- One large class of objects: the class of *k*-automatic sequences
- These are infinite sequences

$$\mathbf{a} = a_0 a_1 a_2 \cdots$$

over a finite alphabet of letters, generated by a finite-state machine (automaton)

- The automaton, given *n* as input, computes *a_n* as follows:
 - *n* is represented in some fixed integer base $k \ge 2$
 - The automaton moves from state to state according to this input
 - Each state has an output letter associated with it
 - The output on input *n* is the output associated with the last state reached

The canonical example of automatic sequence: the Thue-Morse sequence



By determining the parity of the number of 1's in the base-2 expansion of the input n, this automaton generates the *Thue-Morse sequence*

$$\mathbf{t} = (t_n)_{n \ge 0} = 0110100110010110 \cdots$$

Thue and Morse



Axel Thue (1863–1922) Norwegian number theorist



Marston Morse (1892–1977) American mathematician

Photo by Konrad Jacobs,

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What's next?

My students built a program, called Walnut, that can prove or disprove statements in the logical theory $\langle \mathbb{N}, +, V_k \rangle$.

Now that we have such a decision procedure that works on a class of mathematically-interesting objects, what can we^{*} do with it?

- Give new, almost trivial proofs of famous old results for which only complicated and/or case-based proofs exist.
- 2 Check existing claims in the literature and fix wrong ones.
- Improve previously-known results (e.g., turn an "if" into an "if and only if").
- Explore new claims (and obtain new results "purely mechanically", just by stating the properties of the object we want!).

* That is, I and my co-authors (Émilie Charlier, Narad Rampersad, Hamoon Mousavi, Daniel Gabric, Jason Bell, Aseem Baranwal, Thomas Lidbetter, Lucas Mol, Ramin Zarifi, ...).

Proving a famous old result: t is overlap-free

Probably the most famous result about the Thue-Morse sequence

 $\mathbf{t} = t_0 t_1 t_2 \cdots = 0110100110010110 \cdots$

is Thue's 1912 theorem that **t** is *overlap-free*.

An *overlap* is a word of the form $a \times a \times a$, where a is a single letter and x is a (possibly empty) word, like the English word alfalfa.

When we say \mathbf{t} is overlap-free, we mean it contains no contiguous block that is an overlap.

Let us try to prove this by phrasing the existence of an overlap as a first-order logic statement.

Existence of overlap

If t had an overlap, this is what it would look like:



In other words, there would exist integers i, n with $n \ge 1$, such that

$$t_i t_{i+1} \cdots t_{i+n} = t_{i+n} t_{i+n+1} \cdots t_{i+2n}.$$

We can express this in the logical system $\langle \mathbb{N}, +, n \to t_n \rangle$ as follows:

$$\exists i, n \ (n \geq 1) \land \forall j \ (j \leq n) \implies t_{i+j} = t_{i+j+n}.$$

The Thue-Morse word is overlap-free

Now we can evaluate the assertion

$$\exists i, n \ (n \geq 1) \land \forall j \ (j \leq n) \implies t_{i+j} = t_{i+j+n}$$

using our decision procedure, by translating it into the syntax of Walnut:

eval tmhasover "Ei,n (n>=1) & Aj (j<=n) => T[i+j]=T[i+j+n]":

Here

- eval tells Walnut to evaluate the statement that follows
- tmhasover is a filename where results will be stored
- E means " \exists " and A means " \forall "
- & means "logical and"; => means "logical implication"
- T is Walnut's way of writing the Thue-Morse sequence

The output of Walnut

```
eval tmhasover "Ei,n (n>=1) & Aj (j<=n) => T[i+j]=T[i+j+n]":
computed ~:1 states - 288ms
computed ~:2 states - 3ms
n>=1:2 states - 389ms
j<=n:2 states - 1ms
T[(i+j)]=T[((i+j)+n)]:12 states - 15ms
(j<=n=>T[(i+j)]=T[((i+j)+n)]):25 states - 4ms
(A j (j<=n=>T[(i+j)]=T[((i+j)+n)])):1 states - 32ms
(n>=1&(A j (j<=n=>T[(i+j)]=T[((i+j)+n)])):1 states - 1ms
(E i , n (n>=1&(A j (j<=n=>T[(i+j)]=T[((i+j)+n)]))):1 states - 0ms
Total computation time: 523ms.
```

FALSE

and so we have **proven** that the Thue-Morse word **t** has no overlaps!

Another example: Dejean's ternary word

Let's see another example of a much shorter proof of an existing theorem.

Françoise Dejean (1972), in a famous paper, gave an example of an infinite ternary word with the property that it avoids $(7/4 + \epsilon)$ -powers, namely,

 $dej = 01202120121021202101201020\cdots,$

the fixed point, starting with 0, of the 19-uniform morphism

 $\begin{array}{l} 0 \rightarrow 0120212012102120210\\ 1 \rightarrow 1201020120210201021\\ 2 \rightarrow 2012101201021012102 \;. \end{array}$

This means that the word **dej** has no factor of the form xx' with x' a prefix of x and |xx'|/|x| > 7/4.

Her proof was about 5 pages long and rather complicated.

Excerpts from Dejean's proof



En associant le facteur gauche (4) avec le facteur droit (4), on obtient le morphisme w défini par

nécessairement $h_1 = h_2$.

Si f contient un facteur caractéristique du mot w(x) ($v\in X$), après un facteur gauche de longueur n, n ouis (l'enne 2) que h_i contient z et que $r+n=n_{\rm m}$ mol 19, où $n_{\rm m}=0,$ 6, ou 12 suivant qu'il s'agit d'un facteur caractéristique gauche, central, ou droit de w(x). De même, de w(h_0) e X'/X', on déduit s $i-n=n_{\rm m}$ mol 19. Mais alors, r=s, et les premières lettres x_i et x_i straiter X of k of the factor matrix of the factor matrix of the model k of the matrix of the

$$\begin{split} w(h_1) &= w(x_1) \ w(g_1) \ w(z_1) &= w(x_1) \ f_1 w(z_1), \\ w(h_2) &= w(x_1) \ w(g_2) \ w(z_1) &= w(x_1) \ f_1 w(z_1). \end{split}$$

The second secon

Another example: Dejean's ternary word

But, using Walnut, we can verify her construction in 79 seconds, just by building a formula asserting the existence of a $(7/4 + \epsilon)$ -power in **dej**:

```
eval dejean "?msd_19 Ei,n n>=1 & Aj (j>=i & 4*j<=4*i+3*n)
=> DEJ[j]=DEJ[j+n]":
```

```
eval dejean "?msd_19 Ei,n n>=1 & Aj (j>=i & 4*j<=4*i+3*n) => DEJ[j]=DEJ[j+n]":
computed ~:1 states - 2ms
computed ~:2 states - 1ms
n>=1:2 states - 36ms
j>=1:2 states - 4ms
(4*j)<=(((4*i)+(3*n)):11 states - 10145ms
(j>=i&(4*j)<(((4*i)+(3*n))):14 states - 1164ms
DEJ[j]=DEJ[(j+n)]:6 states - 690ms
((j>=i&(4*j)<(((4*i)+(3*n)))=>DEJ[j]=DEJ[(j+n)]):79 states - 3146ms
(A j ((j>=i&(4*j)<(((4*i)+(3*n)))=>DEJ[j]=DEJ[(j+n)]):1 states - 5996ms
(n>=1&(A j ((j)=i&(4*j)<((4*i)+(3*n)))=>DEJ[j]=DEJ[(j+n)])):1 states - 2ms
(E i , n (n>=1&(A j ((j)=i&(4*j)<((4*i)+(3*n)))=>DEJ[j]=DEJ[(j+n)]))):1 states - 1ms
Total computation time: 79365ms.
```

FALSE

Check existing claims in the literature

Example from a recent preprint:

"...it follows from Proposition 2.1 that every segment of length k of t is a factor of every segment of length $\ell = 8k - 1$ of t".

Let's check this:

Walnut returns FALSE, so the claim is wrong.

But we can do even more...

Let's find those k for which the claim is true!

Check existing claim in the literature

This produces an automaton, specifying those lengths k, represented in base 2, for which the claim is true.



So it's wrong for (e.g.) k = 10 and infinitely many k.

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Adventures in Automat

Improving previously-known results: unbordered factors

- A word is *bordered* if it can be expressed as *uvu* for words *u*, *v* with *u* nonempty, and otherwise it is unbordered.
- Example: the English word ionization has border ion.
- James Currie and Kalle Saari proved that t has an unbordered factor of length n if n ≠ 1 (mod 6).
- However, these are not the only lengths with an unbordered factor; for example,

0011010010110100110010110100101

is an unbordered factor of t of length 31.

Unbordered factors

We can express the property that \mathbf{t} has an unbordered factor of length n as follows:

```
\exists i \neg \text{BORDERED}(i, n)
```

where

 $\operatorname{BORDERED}(i,n) := \exists j \ (1 \leq j \leq n/2) \ \land \ \forall k \ (k < j) \implies t_{i+k} = t_{i+n+k-j}$

asserts that the length-n factor of **t**, starting at position i, has a border. Let's translate this to Walnut:

Now we can verify the Currie-Saari theorem: if $n \not\equiv 1 \pmod{6}$, then **t** has an unbordered factor of length 6:

eval checkcs "An $(1!=n-6*(n/6)) \Rightarrow$ sunbordlength(n)":

and Walnut returns TRUE.

Unbordered factors

However, we can do much more!

Walnut compiles our unbordlength definition into an automaton that recognizes the base-2 representation of all n for which **t** has a length-n unbordered factor:



and so (by inspection of this automaton) we have improved the Currie-Saari result as follows:

Theorem. The Thue-Morse sequence **t** has an unbordered factor of length n if and only if $(n)_2 \notin 1(01^*0)^*10^*1$.

Exploring new results: avoiding the pattern xxx^R

Let's look at how Walnut was used to prove a completely new result (for which no other proof is currently known):

- Recall that by x^R we mean the reversal of the word x. For example, $(stressed)^R = desserts$.
- We are interested in avoiding the pattern xxx^R in binary words.
- An example of the pattern xxx^R in English is contained in the word bepepper.
- Are there infinite binary words avoiding this pattern?

An extended example: avoiding the pattern xxx^R

- We start by trying depth-first search of the space of binary words
- If there is a word avoiding the pattern, this procedure will give the lexicographically least such sequence.
- When we do, we get the word

 $(001)^3 1 (01)^\omega = 001001001101010 \cdots$.

- So in particular the word $(01)^{\omega} = 010101\cdots$ avoids the pattern. (Easy proof!)
- This suggests a question: are there any *other* periodic infinite words avoiding xxx^R?
- Also: are there any *aperiodic* infinite words avoiding xxx^R?

An extended example: avoiding the pattern xxx^R

When we search for other primitive words z such that z^{ω} avoids the pattern, we find there are some of length 10:

0010011011	1001001101
0011011001	1001101100
0100110110	1011001001
0110010011	1100100110
0110110010	1101100100

- We notice that each of these words is of the form $w\overline{w}$.
- This suggests looking at words of this form.
- The next ones are w = 001001001101100100100, and its shifts and complements.

An extended example: avoiding the pattern xxx^R

• To summarize, here are the solutions we've found so far, $(w \, \overline{w})^{\omega}$

W	length of w
0	1
00100	5
001001001101100100100	21

• The presence of the numbers 1,5,21 suggests some connection with the Fibonacci numbers: these are *F*₂, *F*₅, *F*₈.

An aperiodic word avoiding xxx^R

- Suppose we take the run-length encodings of the words of length 21. One of them looks familiar: 2122121221221. This is a prefix of the infinite Fibonacci word generated by iterating the morphism 2 → 21, 1 → 2.
- This suggests the construction of an *infinite* aperiodic word avoiding xxx^R : take the infinite Fibonacci word, and use it as "repetition factors" for 0 and 1 alternating. This gives the infinite word

 $rf = 001001101101100100110 \cdots$

which we conjecture avoids xxx^R .

• Can we find an automaton generating this sequence? Yes, but now it is not based on base-2 representations, but rather Fibonacci (or "Zeckendorf") representations.

Fibonacci (Zeckendorf) representation

• Fibonacci numbers: $F_0 = 0$, $F_1 = 1$, $F_n = F_{n-1} + F_{n-2}$



 In analogy with base-2 representation, we can represent every non-negative integer in the form

$$\sum_{0 \le i \le t} \epsilon_i F_{i+2} \quad \text{with} \quad \epsilon_i \in \{0, 1\}.$$

Fibonacci (Zeckendorf) representation

- But then some integers have multiple representations, e.g., 14 = 13 + 1 = 8 + 5 + 1 = 8 + 3 + 2 + 1
- So we impose the additional condition that ε_iε_{i+1} = 0 for all *i*: never use two adjacent Fibonacci numbers.
- Usually we write the representation in the form

$$\epsilon_t \epsilon_{t-1} \cdots \epsilon_0,$$

with most significant digit first. So, for example, 19 is represented by 101001. This is called *Fibonacci representation* or *Zeckendorf representation*.



Edouard Zeckendorf (1901–1983)

Fibonacci-automatic infinite words

- Consider a finite automaton that takes Fibonacci representation of n as input
- Outputs are associated with the last state reached
- Invalid inputs (those with two consecutive 1's) are rejected or not considered
- An infinite word results from feeding the canonical representation of each $n \ge 0$ into the automaton.

The Fibonacci decision procedure

- Exactly like before, except now all integers are represented in Fibonacci representation
- Comparison is easy
- Addition is harder; need an adder
- There is a 17-state automaton that on input (x, y, z) in Fibonacci representation will determine whether x + y = z
- Based on ideas originally due to Jean Berstel and since elaborated by others: Frougny, Sakarovitch, etc.

An aperiodic word avoiding xxx^R

It turns out that our word

 $rf = 001001101101100100110 \cdots$

is generated by a Fibonacci automaton of 8 states:



Avoiding xxx^R

So we can now prove that **rf** avoids the pattern xxx^R :

To prove this we use the following Walnut code:

def rffactoreq "?msd_fib At t<n => RF[i+t]=RF[j+t]":

- eval rfprop "?msd_fib Ei,n n>=1 & \$rffactoreq(i,i+n,n) &
 \$rfrevcheck(i,i+2*n,n)":

When we run this formula in Walnut it reports FALSE. So the pattern xxx^R doesn't occur in **rf** !

Similarly, we can prove that **rf** is not ultimately periodic:

eval rfup "?msd_fib Ei,p (p>=1) & At (t>i) => RF[t]=RF[t+p]":

The best possible (?) research methodology



Advantages:

• no work at all: just state the desired properties of the object, and the program finds an example and proves its correctness.

Disadvantages:

• Having to explain why you should be paid for something that easy!

We can combine the depth-first or breadth-first search over a space with a decision procedure to (a) figure out a good candidate for a solution and then (b) prove it is correct.

Example: In 1965, Richard Dean studied the *Dean words:* squarefree words over $\{x, y, x^{-1}, y^{-1}\}$ that are not reducible (that is, there are no occurrences of $xx^{-1}, x^{-1}x, yy^{-1}, y^{-1}y$).

Let us use the coding $0 \leftrightarrow x$, $1 \leftrightarrow y$, $2 \leftrightarrow x^{-1}$, $3 \leftrightarrow y^{-1}$.

We can use "automatic breadth-first search" to find a candidate for an infinite Dean word.

In automatic breadth-first search, you guess that the infinite word you want to construct is k-automatic for some integer $k \ge 2$, and generated by a DFAO of $\le \ell$ states.

You then use BFS to explore the tree of all words w obeying the particular constraints, such that the smallest k-DFAO generating w has $\leq \ell$ states.

If you are lucky, BFS will converge to the prefixes of a single k-automatic infinite word (or small number of such words).

When implemented for Dean words, breadth-first search quickly converges on the sequence

```
0121032101230321\cdots,
```

which (using the Myhill-Nerode theorem) we can guess as generated by the automaton below:



Then we carry out the following Walnut commands:

```
morphism d "0->01 1->21 2->03 3->23":
promote DE d:
eval dean1 "Ei,n (n>=1) & At (t<n) => DE[i+t]=DE[i+n+t]":
# check if there's a square
eval dean02 "Ei DE[i]=@0 & DE[i+1]=@2":
eval dean20 "Ei DE[i]=@2 & DE[i+1]=@0":
eval dean13 "Ei DE[i]=@1 & DE[i+1]=@3":
eval dean31 "Ei DE[i]=@3 & DE[i+1]=@1":
# check for existence of factors 02, 20, 13, 31
```

All of these return FALSE, so this word is a Dean word. We have thus proved the existence of Dean words with essentially no human intervention.

What other properties of automatic sequences are decidable?

- A difficult candidate: abelian properties
- We say that a nonempty word x is an *abelian square* if it of the form ww' with |w| = |w'| and w' a permutation of w. (An example in English is the word reappear.)
- Luke Schaeffer showed that the predicate for abelian squarefreeness is indeed inexpressible in $\langle \mathbb{N}, +, V_k \rangle$
- However, for some sequences (e.g., Thue-Morse, Fibonacci, Tribonacci) many abelian properties are decidable

Tribonacci synchronization: a new result

With the same ideas we can write first-order formulas for properties of the Tribonacci sequence $\mathbf{tr} = 0102010\cdots$, defined as the fixed point of the morphism $0 \rightarrow 01$, $1 \rightarrow 02$, $2 \rightarrow 0$.

An abelian cube is a word of the form w = x x' x'', where x', x'' are permutations of x, like the English word deeded. The order of the abelian cube w is defined to be |x|.

What are the orders of abelian cubes appearing in tr?

Answer: there is a Tribonacci automaton of 1169 states (!) recognizing the set of all these orders (expressed in the Tribonacci numeration system). Probably there is no simple description of what these orders are.

Similarly, one can study the *additive cubes* appearing in the Tribonacci word **tr**.

These are factors of **tr** of the form xx'x'', where $\sum x = \sum x' = \sum x''$.

Theorem. There is a Tribonacci automaton with 4927 states (!) recognizing the Tribonacci representation of the orders of additive cubes in **tr**.

Once again, probably there is no simple description of these orders.

Decision methods as a kind of powerful telescope

The use of the "light-year" as a yardstick strikes one with a certain awe. This amounts to taking a distance of nearly 6.000.000.000 miles as the unit for the measurement of astronomical distances: and in some of his calculations which have to do with extra-galactic systems the astronomer has to apply this little measuring rod thousands of times. These vast distances and these vast numbers stagger the imagination, and yet the mathematician reaches out with his high-powered machines and his high-powered theorems and investigates the internal structure of his distant bodies much as the astronomer inquires into the structure of some distant star.

- D. N. Lehmer, "Hunting Big Game in the Theory of Numbers", 1932

Other limits to the approach

- Consider the morphism $a \rightarrow abcc$, $b \rightarrow bcc$, $c \rightarrow c$.
- The fixed point of this morphism is

 $\mathbf{s} = \textit{abccbccccbcccccbccccccb} \cdots$

- It encodes, in the positions of the *b*'s, the characteristic sequence of the squares.
- So the first-order theory FO(N, +, n → s[n]) is powerful enough to express the assertion that "n is a square"
- With that, one can express multiplication, and so it is undecidable.

Our publicly-available prover, originally written by Hamoon Mousavi, is called Walnut and can be downloaded from

https://cs.uwaterloo.ca/~shallit/walnut.html .

Designer and Implementers of Walnut



Hamoon Mousavi—Designer and Implementer





Aseem Baranwal—implementer

Laindon C. Burnett-implementer

Jeffrey Shallit

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