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# Slow Beatty Sequences, Devious Convergence, and Partitional Divergence

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**Abstract.** Sequences  $(\lfloor nr \rfloor)$  for  $0 < r < 1$  are introduced as *slow Beatty sequences*. They and ordinary Beatty sequences (for which  $r > 1$ ) provide examples of sequences that converge deviously (which at first might seem to diverge), as well as partitionally divergent sequences (which consist of convergent subsequences).

**1. INTRODUCTION.** Eleven years after receiving the first Ph.D. in mathematics ever granted by a Canadian university—and 19 years before presiding over the Canadian Mathematical Society and 8 more before donning the robe of the Chancellor of the University of Toronto—Samuel Beatty sent a problem proposal [2] to this MONTHLY. The proposal is often cast like this: if  $r$  and  $s$  are positive irrationals satisfying  $1/r + 1/s = 1$ , then the sequences  $(\lfloor nr \rfloor)$  and  $(\lfloor ns \rfloor)$  partition the positive integers. This is now known as Beatty's theorem, and the sequences as Beatty sequences (although Lord Rayleigh had published the theorem in 1894). Choosing  $r$  to be the golden ratio ( $\varphi = (1 + \sqrt{5})/2$ ) gives the lower and upper Wythoff sequences, represented here as indexed in the Online Encyclopedia of Integer Sequences [4]:

$$A000201 = (1, 3, 4, 6, 8, 9, 11, 12, 14, 16, 17, 19, 21, 22, 24, 25, \dots)$$

$$A001950 = (2, 5, 7, 10, 13, 15, 18, 20, 23, 26, 28, 31, 34, 36, 39, \dots).$$

Now suppose that  $r$  is an irrational number. If  $r > 1$ , the sequence  $(\lfloor nr \rfloor)$  is a Beatty sequence, but not otherwise. If  $0 < r < 1$ , we shall call  $(\lfloor nr \rfloor)$  a *slow Beatty sequence*. A close connection between the two is given by Theorem 1.

**Theorem 1.** *Suppose that  $t$  in  $(0, 1)$  is irrational, and let  $s(n) = \lfloor nt \rfloor$ . Let  $a$  be the sequence of numbers  $n$  such that  $s(n + 1) = s(n)$ , and  $b$  the sequence of those  $n$  such that  $s(n + 1) = s(n) + 1$ . Then  $b$  is the Beatty sequence of  $1/t$ , and  $a$  is the Beatty sequence of  $1/(1 - t)$ . Conversely, if  $c$  and  $d$  are a pair of Beatty sequences, say, of  $1/t$  and  $1/(1 - t)$ , and  $s(n)$ ,  $a$ , and  $b$  are as before, then one of the following holds:  $c = a$  and  $d = b$ , or  $c = b$  and  $d = a$ .*

*Proof.* The condition  $s(n + 1) = s(n) + 1$  is equivalent to the presence of an integer between  $nt$  and  $(n + 1)t$ . Suppose that  $n = \lfloor m/t \rfloor$  for some  $m$ , and let  $\varepsilon = m/t - n$ . Then  $0 < \varepsilon < 1$ , so that

$$m < (m/t - \varepsilon)t + t = nt + t.$$

Also,  $nt < m$ , so that an integer between  $nt$  and  $(n + 1)t$  is  $m$ . There can be at most one such integer since  $0 < t < 1$ . Thus,  $(\lfloor m/t \rfloor)$ , for  $m = 1, 2, \dots$ , is the sequence  $b$ . By Beatty's theorem,  $a$  is the sequence  $(\lfloor m/(1 - t) \rfloor)$ . For the converse, if  $\lfloor nr \rfloor$

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and  $\lfloor ns \rfloor$  are arbitrary Beatty sequences, let  $t = 1/r$ , so that the two sequences are  $\lfloor n/t \rfloor$  and  $\lfloor n/(1-t) \rfloor$ , both of which satisfy the description of  $s(t)$  in the statement of the theorem. ■

Theorem 1 shows that the two kinds of Beatty sequences are so closely related that one should ask if slow Beatty sequences occur on their own. A wonderful example [1] is the definition of the rabbit constant (A014565):

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^{\lfloor n/\varphi \rfloor}} = [2, 2^0, 2^1, 2^1, 2^2, 2^3, 2^5, \dots],$$

where the continued fraction consists of the numbers  $2^{F_n}$ , where  $F_n$  is the  $n$ th Fibonacci number, for  $n \geq -1$ .

Another example springs from the infinite Fibonacci word

$$A005614 = (1, 0, 1, 1, 0, 1, 0, 1, 1, 0, \dots),$$

defined as the fixed point of the morphism  $1 \rightarrow 10, 0 \rightarrow 1$ , starting with 1. The partial sums of the terms are 1, 1, 2, 3, 3, 4, 4, 5, 6, 6,  $\dots$ , given by the slow Beatty sequence  $(\lfloor n/\varphi \rfloor)$  used to define the rabbit constant. The sequence is also closely related to the Hofstadter G-sequence, A005206.

Frequently, Beatty sequences occur in connection with inequalities; an example involving fractional parts follows:

$$\{n\varphi\} > 1/\varphi^2,$$

which holds if and only if  $n = \lfloor k\varphi \rfloor$  for some positive integer  $k$  or  $n = \lfloor k\varphi^2 \rfloor$  for some negative integer  $k$ . Another example comes from the inequality

$$2k^2 < n^2,$$

where  $k$  and  $n$  are integers. Here, for each  $n$ , the greatest such  $k$  is given by the slow Beatty sequence  $(\lfloor n/\sqrt{2} \rfloor)$ . This last inequality suggests many other slow Beatty sequences.

**2. DEVIIOUS CONVERGENCE.** We turn now to quite a different feature of slow Beatty sequences. Let  $t > 1$  and

$$g(n) = g(n, t) = \frac{n}{t \lfloor n/t \rfloor}.$$

Taking  $t = \varphi$ , a numerical analyst might notice that  $g(n) = F_{35}/(\varphi F_{34})$  for more than 1000 values of  $n$ . If nearly asleep, she might conclude that  $(g(n))$  converges to  $F_{35}/(\varphi F_{34})$ . However, let  $L_n$  denote the  $n$ th Lucas number. Further checking shows that  $g(n) = L_{58}/(\varphi L_{57})$  for more than a million values of  $n$ , even though, clearly,  $(g(n))$  converges to 1. The slow and distinctive manner of convergence suggests a definition.

**Definition.** A sequence  $(x_n)$  converges *deviously* to  $L$  if (1) it converges to  $L$ , and (2) for every real  $B$ , there exists  $\ell \neq L$  such that  $x_n = \ell$  for more than  $B$  numbers  $n$ .

We next summarize without proof some well-known relevant facts for easy reference.

**Lemma 1.** *Let  $L_n$  and  $F_n$  denote the  $n$ th Lucas and  $n$ th Fibonacci numbers. Then*

1.  $L_n = \varphi^n + (-\varphi)^n$ ,
2.  $F_n = (\varphi^n - (-\varphi)^n)/\sqrt{5}$ ,
3. if  $N$  and  $m$  are integers and  $0 \leq t < 1/N$ , then  $\lfloor N(m+t) \rfloor = Nm = N \lfloor m+t \rfloor$ ,
4. if  $x$  is real and  $m$  is an integer, then  $\lfloor x-m \rfloor = \lfloor x \rfloor - m$ .

**Theorem 2.** *The sequence  $(g(n)) = (g(n, \varphi))$  converges deviously to 1. Indeed,*

$$g(F_{2h+1}) = g(kF_{2h+1}) \text{ for } k = 1, 2, \dots, L_{2h+1},$$

$$g(L_{2h}) = g(kL_{2h}) \text{ for } k = 1, 2, \dots, F_{2h}.$$

*Proof.* We use the four items of Lemma 1 in the order written. First,  $L_{2h+1} = \lfloor \varphi^{2h+1} \rfloor$  implies  $1/\varphi^{2h+1} < 1/k$  for  $k = 1, 2, \dots, L_{2h+1}$ . For these  $k$ ,

$$F_{2h+1}\varphi = F_{2h+2} + 1/\varphi^{2h+1}$$

so that

$$\{F_{2h+1}\varphi\} < 1/k$$

and

$$\lfloor kF_{2h+1}\varphi \rfloor = k \lfloor F_{2h+1}\varphi \rfloor.$$

It follows that

$$\lfloor kF_{2h+1}(\varphi - 1) \rfloor = k \lfloor F_{2h+1}(\varphi - 1) \rfloor$$

and hence

$$\lfloor kF_{2h+1}/\varphi \rfloor = k \lfloor F_{2h+1}/\varphi \rfloor.$$

Therefore,

$$\frac{F_{2h+1}}{\varphi \lfloor F_{2h+1}/\varphi \rfloor} = \frac{kF_{2h+1}}{\varphi \lfloor kF_{2h+1}/\varphi \rfloor},$$

as desired.

To prove the second identity, we start with

$$\varphi < \frac{L_{2h+1}}{L_{2h}} + \frac{1}{F_{4h}},$$

for which the reader may supply a proof. Since  $F_{4h} = L_{2h}F_{2h}$ , we have  $\varphi L_{2h} - L_{2h+1} < 1/F_{2h}$ , so that  $\{\varphi L_{2h}\} < 1/k$  for  $k = 1, 2, \dots, F_{2h}$ . For these  $k$ ,

$$\lfloor kL_{2h}/\varphi \rfloor = k \lfloor L_{2h}/\varphi \rfloor,$$

and the desired result follows. ■

It is natural to ask what happens when floor is replaced by ceiling. For  $t > 0$ , define

$$\widehat{g}(n) = \widehat{g}(n, t) = \frac{n}{t \lceil n/t \rceil}.$$

**Theorem 3.** *The sequence  $(\widehat{g}(n)) = (\widehat{g}(n), \varphi)$  converges deviously to 1. Indeed,*

$$\begin{aligned} \widehat{g}(F_{2h}) &= \widehat{g}(kF_{2h}) \text{ for } k = 1, 2, \dots, L_{2h} - 1, \\ \widehat{g}(L_{2h+1}) &= \widehat{g}(kL_{2h+1}) \text{ for } k = 1, 2, \dots, F_{2h+1} - 1. \end{aligned}$$

A proof similar to that of Theorem 2 can be developed from the identities  $L_{2h} = \lceil \varphi^{2h+1} \rceil$  and

$$\varphi < \frac{L_{2h}}{L_{2h+1}} + \frac{1}{F_{4h}} + 1.$$

If  $(g(n))$  is any sequence that converges deviously, then one still has, of course,

$$g(n+1) - g(n) \rightarrow 0.$$

However, if  $k(n)$  is any function such that

$$h(n) := k(n)(g(n+1) - g(n)) \not\rightarrow 0,$$

then the sequence  $(h(n))$  diverges (since it does not tend to 0 on a subsequence). The simplest possibility in this case is that  $(h(n))$  has two limit points. These observations are especially relevant for the particular  $g(n)$  introduced above, as we shall see in the next section.

### 3. PARTITIONAL DIVERGENCE.

**Definition.** Suppose that  $w_1$  and  $w_2$  are any two sequences that partition the positive integers, and let  $w = \{w_1, w_2\}$ . Suppose further that  $(a_n)$  is a sequence such that  $a_{w_1(n)} \rightarrow L_1$  and  $a_{w_2(n)} \rightarrow L_2$ , so that  $(a_n)$  converges if and only if  $L_1 = L_2$ . If  $L_1 \neq L_2$ , we shall say that  $(a_n)$  *diverges partitionally on  $w$* .

We now take  $k(n) = n$  and show that for our specific  $g(n)$  the sequence given by

$$h(n) = n(g(n+1) - g(n))$$

diverges partitionally. Moreover, the relevant partition is a partition into Beatty sequences! (Also, we can take for  $t$  any irrational number greater than 1.)

**Lemma 2.** *Suppose that  $t > 1$  is irrational and  $n$  is a positive integer. Then*

$$\left\lfloor \frac{\lfloor nt \rfloor}{t} \right\rfloor = n - 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \left\lfloor \frac{\lfloor nt \rfloor + 1}{t} \right\rfloor = n, \tag{1}$$

and if  $\widehat{t} = t/(t-1)$ , then

$$\left\lfloor \frac{\lfloor n\widehat{t} \rfloor}{t} \right\rfloor = \left\lfloor \frac{n}{t-1} \right\rfloor \quad \text{and} \quad \left\lfloor \frac{\lfloor n\widehat{t} \rfloor + 1}{t} \right\rfloor = \left\lfloor \frac{n}{t-1} \right\rfloor. \tag{2}$$

*Proof.* Of the four identities we prove only the third, as the other three have similar proofs. For  $s > 0$  we have

$$\frac{\lfloor ns \rfloor}{s} \leq n,$$

so

$$\lfloor ns \rfloor (1 + (1/s)) \leq \lfloor ns + n \rfloor.$$

Set  $s = 1/(t - 1)$  to obtain

$$t \left\lfloor \frac{n}{t-1} \right\rfloor \leq \left\lfloor \frac{nt}{t-1} \right\rfloor.$$

Divide by  $t$  and apply the floor function to obtain

$$\left\lfloor \frac{n}{t-1} \right\rfloor \leq \left\lfloor \frac{\lfloor nt \rfloor}{t} \right\rfloor.$$

Since clearly also

$$\left\lfloor \frac{n}{t-1} \right\rfloor \geq \left\lfloor \frac{\lfloor nt \rfloor}{t} \right\rfloor,$$

the third identity is proved. ■

**Theorem 4.** *Suppose that  $t > 1$  is irrational, so that the Beatty sequences given by  $w_1(n) = \lfloor nt \rfloor$  and  $w_2(n) = \lfloor nt/(t-1) \rfloor$  partition the positive integers. Then the sequence  $(h(n))$  is partitionally divergent; indeed,  $h(w_1(n)) \rightarrow 1-t$  and  $h(w_2(n)) \rightarrow 1$ .*

*Proof.* Substitute  $\lfloor nt \rfloor$  for  $n$  and apply (1):

$$\begin{aligned} h(w_1(n)) &= \frac{\lfloor nt \rfloor (\lfloor nt + 1 \rfloor)}{tn} - \frac{\lfloor nt \rfloor^2}{t(n-1)} \\ &= \frac{\lfloor nt \rfloor}{t} \left( \frac{nt - \varepsilon_n + 1}{n} - \frac{nt - \varepsilon_n}{n-1} \right), \end{aligned}$$

where  $0 < \varepsilon_n < 1$ . The last equation readily reduces to

$$h(w_1(n)) = \frac{\lfloor nt \rfloor}{nt} \left( \frac{n(1-t)}{n-1} + \frac{\varepsilon_n - 1}{n-1} \right),$$

so that  $h(w_1(n)) \rightarrow 1-t$ . Next, let

$$\widehat{\varepsilon}_n = \frac{nt}{t-1} - \left\lfloor \frac{nt}{t-1} \right\rfloor = \text{fractional part of } n\widehat{t}.$$

A calculation similar to that above but using (2) shows that

$$\begin{aligned}
 h(w_2(n)) &= \left(\frac{nt}{t-1} - \widehat{\varepsilon}_n\right) \left( \frac{\left\lfloor \frac{nt}{t-1} \right\rfloor + 1}{t \left\lfloor \frac{n}{t-1} \right\rfloor} - \frac{\left\lfloor \frac{nt}{t-1} \right\rfloor}{t \left\lfloor \frac{n}{t-1} \right\rfloor} \right) \\
 &= \left(\frac{nt}{t-1} - \widehat{\varepsilon}_n\right) \left( \frac{1}{t \left\lfloor \frac{n}{t-1} \right\rfloor} \right) (1) \\
 &= \frac{n}{(t-1) \left\lfloor \frac{n}{t-1} \right\rfloor} - \frac{\widehat{\varepsilon}_n}{t \left\lfloor \frac{n}{t-1} \right\rfloor},
 \end{aligned}$$

so that  $h(w_2(n)) \rightarrow 1$ . ■

Of course the definition of partitional divergence extends to partitions into more than two classes. For a simple example involving three classes, consider the previously mentioned Beatty sequences  $A = A000201$  and  $B = A001950$ . The complement of  $B$  is  $A$ , which partitions into the composite sequences  $AA = (1, 4, 6, 9, 12, \dots)$  and  $AB = (3, 8, 11, 16, \dots)$ ; viz., if  $a(n) = \lfloor n\varphi \rfloor$  and  $b(n) = \lfloor n\varphi^2 \rfloor$  are the  $n$ th terms of the lower and upper Wythoff sequences, respectively, then  $a(a(n))$  is the  $n$ th term of  $AA$  and  $a(b(n))$  is the  $n$ th term of  $AB$ . We shall create a sequence that diverges partitionally according to the three classes  $B, AA, AB$ . Let

$$\begin{aligned}
 f(n) &= \lceil n/\varphi \rceil / \lfloor n/\varphi \rfloor; \\
 s(n) &= \varphi f(n)(f(n+2) - 2f(n+1) + f(n)).
 \end{aligned}$$

**Theorem 5.** *The sequence  $(s(n))$  diverges partitionally. Specifically,  $s(AA)$  is the constant sequence  $(\varphi, \varphi, \dots)$ ;  $s(B)$  is the constant sequence  $-s(AA)$ ; and  $s(AB)(n) = 2\varphi/(1 + n + \lfloor n\varphi \rfloor)$ , which converges to 0.*

A proof of Theorem 5 is straightforward and omitted. It is interesting that  $AA$  is column 1 of the Wythoff array  $W$  (described at A035513),  $B$  is the ordered sequence of all the terms in the even numbered columns of  $W$ , and  $AB$  likewise matches the odd numbered columns, except the first.

**Remark.** For a guide to much of the literature on Beatty sequences, see the introductory remarks of [3] and the references [3, 12, 14] of [3].

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### **100 Years Ago This Month in The American Mathematical Monthly Edited by Vadim Ponomarenko**

An interesting article on “University Registration and Statistics” appeared in *Science* on January 21. The registrations from thirty of the larger universities, including the large endowed universities and most of the state universities of the middle west, are compiled. These tables show a total registration in September, 1915, of 100,514 students, or approximately one student from each thousand of population in the United States. This student body is governed and instructed by more than 12,000 officers and instructors, or about one officer or instructor to every eight students. During the summer sessions of 1915, the thirty institutions report registrations of 35,652 students. For the year 1915–1916, the following are the eight universities with largest registrations: Columbia (7,042); Pennsylvania (6,655); California (5,977); New York University (5,853); Michigan (5,821); Illinois (5,511); Harvard (5,435); Cornell (5,392).

[The 30 biggest U.S. colleges in Fall 2013 together enrolled 2,708,792 students.  
-Eds.]

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