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# Abstract $\beta$-expansions and ultimately periodic representations 

par Michel Rigo et Wolfgang Steiner


#### Abstract

RÉSumÉ. Pour les systèmes de numération abstraits construits sur des langages réguliers exponentiels (comme par exemple, ceux provenant des substitutions), nous montrons que l'ensemble des nombres réels possédant une représentation ultimement périodique est $\mathbb{Q}(\beta)$ lorsque la valeur propre dominante $\beta>1$ de l'automate acceptant le langage est un nombre de Pisot. De plus, si $\beta$ n'est ni un nombre de Pisot, ni un nombre de Salem, alors il existe des points de $\mathbb{Q}(\beta)$ n'ayant aucune représentation ultimement périodique.


#### Abstract

For abstract numeration systems built on exponential regular languages (including those coming from substitutions), we show that the set of real numbers having an ultimately periodic representation is $\mathbb{Q}(\beta)$ if the dominating eigenvalue $\beta>1$ of the automaton accepting the language is a Pisot number. Moreover, if $\beta$ is neither a Pisot nor a Salem number, then there exist points in $\mathbb{Q}(\beta)$ which do not have any ultimately periodic representation.


## 1. Introduction

In (7) abstract numeration systems on regular languages have been introduced. They generalize in a natural way a large variety of classical positional systems like the $q$-ary system or the Fibonacci system: each nonnegative integer $n$ is represented by the $n$th word of an ordered infinite regular language $L$. For instance, considering the natural ordering of the digits, the genealogical enumeration of the words belonging to the language $L=\{0\} \cup\{1, \ldots, q-1\}\{0, \ldots, q-1\}^{*}\left(\right.$ resp. $\left.L=\{0,1\} \cup\{10\}\{10,0\}^{*}\{\lambda, 1\}\right)$ leads back to the $q$-ary (resp. the Fibonacci) system. Later on, this setting has been extended to allow the representation of real numbers as well as of integers.

Various notions appearing in number theory, in formal languages theory or in the analysis of algorithms depend on how numbers are represented. So these abstract systems have led to new nontrivial applications. To cite
just a few: the characterization of the so-called recognizable sets of integers, the investigation of the dynamical and topological properties of the "odometers" or the study of the asymptotic behavior of the corresponding "sum-of-digits" function.

As we will see, it turns out that this way of representing real numbers is a quite natural generalization of Rényi's $\beta$-expansions 11]. More precisely, the primitive automata lead to the representations of real numbers based on substitutions introduced by Dumont and Thomas [3]. The nonprimitive automata provide new numeration systems.

Real numbers having an ultimately periodic representation deserve a special attention. Indeed, for the $q$-ary system, these numbers are exactly the rational numbers. More generally, the set of ultimately periodic representations is dense in the set of all the admissible representations and therefore this rises number-theoretic questions like the approximation of real numbers by numbers having ultimately periodic expansions.

On the one hand, for Rényi's classical $\beta$-expansions it is well-known that the set of real numbers with ultimately periodic representation is $\mathbb{Q}(\beta)$ whenever $\beta$ is a Pisot number [11, 12]. On the other hand, for abstract numeration systems, the algebraic structure of this set was unknown. A first attempt to solve this problem is done in (9] where it is shown that a real number has an ultimately periodic representation if it is the fixed point of the composition of some affine functions depending only on the automaton of the abstract system. Even if this latter result gives some insights about those generalized $\beta$-expansions, the algebraic structure of the set was still to determine.

To any regular language, is associated in a canonical way its minimal automaton and consequently some adjacency matrix. We can therefore speak of the eigenvalues of an automaton, the corresponding adjacency matrix being considered. The present paper studies abstract numeration systems having the following property: the dominating eigenvalue $\beta>1$ of the minimal (trimmed) automaton of the regular language on which the system is built, is a Pisot number. Thus we settle the problem of describing the set of real numbers with ultimately periodic representation by obtaining an analogue of a theorem found independently by Bertrand [1] and Schmidt [12]. Note that our result restricted to classical $\beta$-expansions gives back a new short and intuitive proof for this case. Moreover, we show that if $\beta$ is neither a Pisot nor a Salem number then there exists at least one point in $\mathbb{Q}(\beta)$ which does not have any ultimately periodic representation.

This paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, we recall all the necessary material about abstract numeration systems. In Section 3, we state precisely the results which are proved in Section 4. Finally, Section 5 is
devoted to some examples which we hope could provide a better understanding of the key algorithm involved in the proof of our main result.

## 2. Preliminaries

Let $(\Sigma,<)$ be a finite and totally ordered alphabet. We denote by $\Sigma^{*}$ the free monoid generated by $\Sigma$ for the concatenation product. The neutral element is $\lambda$ and the length of a word $w \in \Sigma^{*}$ is denoted $|w|$. Recall that if $u$ and $v$ are two words over $(\Sigma,<)$, then $u$ is genealogically less than $v$ if either $|u|<|v|$ or $|u|=|v|$ and there exist $p, u^{\prime}, v^{\prime} \in \Sigma^{*}, s, t \in \Sigma$ such that $u=p s u^{\prime}, v=p t v^{\prime}$ and $s<t$. In this case, we write $u<_{\text {gen }} v$ or simply $u<v$. In the literature, one also finds the term military ordering. This ordering is naturally extended to the set $\Sigma^{\omega}$ of all the infinite words over $\Sigma$ by the lexicographical ordering.

Let $L$ be an infinite regular language over $(\Sigma,<)$. The words of $L$ can be enumerated by increasing genealogical ordering leading to a one-to-one correspondence between $\mathbb{N}$ and $L$. We say that $S=(L, \Sigma,<)$ is an abstract numeration system. If $w$ is the $n$th word of the genealogically ordered language $L$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$ (positions inside $L$ are counted from 0 ), then we $\operatorname{write} \operatorname{val}(w)=n$ and we say that $w$ is the representation of $n$ or that $n$ is the numerical value of $w$ (the abstract numeration system $S$ being understood). This way of representing nonnegative integers has been first introduced in (7) and generalizes classical numeration systems like the positional systems built over linear recurrent sequences of integers whose characteristic polynomial is the minimal polynomial of a Pisot number [2].

Under some natural assumptions on $L$, not only integers but also real numbers can be represented using infinite words [8]. We briefly present notation used throughout this paper. The minimal automaton of $L$ is $\mathcal{M}_{L}=\left(Q, q_{0}, \Sigma, \tau, F\right)$ where $Q$ is the set of states, $q_{0} \in Q$ the initial state, $\tau: Q \times \Sigma \rightarrow Q$ the transition function and $F \subseteq Q$ the set of final states. The function $\tau$ is naturally extended to $Q \times \Sigma^{*}$ by $\tau(q, \lambda)=q$ and $\tau(q, s w)=\tau(\tau(q, s), w)$ where $q \in Q, s \in \Sigma$ and $w \in \Sigma^{*}$. We refer the reader to [4] for more about automata theory. For $q \in Q$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we denote by $\mathbf{u}_{q}(n)$ the number of words of length $n$ accepted from $q$ in $\mathcal{M}_{L}$, i.e.,

$$
\mathbf{u}_{q}(n)=\#\left\{w \in \Sigma^{n} \mid \tau(q, w) \in F\right\}
$$

and by $\mathbf{v}_{q}(n)$ the number of words of length at most $n$ accepted from $q$, $\mathbf{v}_{q}(n)=\sum_{i=0}^{n} \mathbf{u}_{q}(i)$. Observe in particular that $\mathbf{u}_{q_{0}}(n)=\#\left(L \cap \Sigma^{n}\right)$ is the growth function of $L$.

In this paper, we assume that $L$ has the following properties (again we refer to [8] for details). There exist $\beta>1$ and $P \in \mathbb{R}[x]$ such that for all
states $q \in Q$, there exist some nonnegative real number $a_{q}$ such that

$$
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\mathbf{u}_{q}(n)}{P(n) \beta^{n}}=a_{q} .
$$

Moreover, w.l.o.g., we assume that $a_{q_{0}}=1-\frac{1}{\beta}$ (indeed, if $a_{q_{0}}$ differs from $1-\frac{1}{\beta}$ then we replace the polynomial $P$ with $\left.\frac{a_{q_{0}}}{1-\frac{1}{\beta}} P\right)$. Clearly $\beta>1$ is the dominant eigenvalue of the automaton $\mathcal{M}_{L}$. (In order to relate $\beta$ to the growth of $L, \mathcal{M}_{L}$ is assumed to be trim, i.e., it is accessible and coaccessible, and in particular $\tau$ could possibly be a partial function). We denote by $\chi_{\beta}$ the minimal polynomial of $\beta$,

$$
\chi_{\beta}(x)=x^{d}-b_{1} x^{d-1}-b_{2} x^{d-2}-\cdots-b_{d-1} x-b_{d} \in \mathbb{Z}[x] .
$$

The set $\mathcal{L}_{\infty}$ is defined as the set of infinite words which are limit of the converging sequences of words in $L$ (we use the usual infinite product topology on $\left.\Sigma^{\omega}\right)$. If $\left(p_{j}\right)_{j \geq 0} \in L^{\mathbb{N}}$ converges to an infinite word $w \in \mathcal{L}_{\infty}$ then it is well-known that the limit

$$
\lim _{j \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\operatorname{val}\left(p_{j}\right)}{\mathbf{v}_{q_{0}}\left(\left|p_{j}\right|\right)}
$$

exists. Its value will be denoted $\operatorname{val}_{\infty}(w)$ and we say that $w$ is a representation of $\operatorname{val}_{\infty}(w)$ or conversely that $\operatorname{val}_{\infty}(w)$ is the numerical value of $w$. In this setting, we are able to represent all the numbers lying in the interval $[1 / \beta, 1]$. Moreover, the representation of a real number $x \in[1 / \beta, 1]$ is not necessarily unique; we denote by $\operatorname{rep}(x)$ the set of words in $\mathcal{L}_{\infty}$ representing $x$, i.e.,

$$
\operatorname{rep}(x)=\left\{w \in \mathcal{L}_{\infty} \mid \operatorname{val}_{\infty}(w)=x\right\} .
$$

Note that this situation even occurs for classical numeration systems. For instance in base ten, $\operatorname{rep}(2 / 10)=\left\{.2(0)^{\omega}, .1(9)^{\omega}\right\}$. Denote by $\mathcal{W}_{\ell}$ the set of words of length $\ell$ which are prefix of an infinite number of words in $L$ they are prefix of at least one element in $\mathcal{L}_{\infty}$. If $u \in \mathcal{W}_{\ell}$, then we denote

$$
X_{u}:=\left\{w \in \mathcal{L}_{\infty} \mid \exists v \in \Sigma^{\omega}: w=u v\right\} .
$$

If $|t|=1$, i.e., if $t$ is a letter in $\mathcal{W}_{1}$ then the set of real numbers having a representation starting with $t$ is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{val}_{\infty}\left(X_{t}\right)=\left[\frac{1}{\beta}+\sum_{z<t, z \in \mathcal{W}_{1}} \frac{a_{\tau\left(q_{0}, z\right)}}{\beta}, \frac{1}{\beta}+\sum_{z \leq t, z \in \mathcal{W}_{1}} \frac{a_{\tau\left(q_{0}, z\right)}}{\beta}\right]=: I_{t} \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

which is an interval of length $a_{\tau\left(q_{0}, t\right)} / \beta$. Note that

$$
\mathbf{u}_{q}(n)=\sum_{t \in \Sigma} \mathbf{u}_{\tau(q, t)}(n-1)
$$

(where the sum runs over those $t$ for which $\tau(q, t)$ exists) and therefore

$$
\begin{equation*}
a_{q}=\sum_{\substack{t \in \Sigma,(q, t) \in \operatorname{dom} \tau}} \frac{a_{\tau(q, t)}}{\beta} . \tag{2.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

When looking at the real numbers represented by a word which has a prefix in $\mathcal{W}_{2}$ starting with the letter $t$, the interval $I_{t}$ is then divided into smaller intervals: one interval for each letter $s$ such that $t s \in \mathcal{W}_{2}$. This procedure of dividing intervals is repeated and one can obtain the numerical value of an infinite word $w=\left(w_{j}\right)_{j \geq 1} \in \mathcal{L}_{\infty}$ as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{val}_{\infty}(w)=\frac{1}{\beta}+\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \sum_{q \in Q} a_{q} \epsilon_{q, j} \beta^{-j} \tag{2.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

with

$$
\begin{equation*}
\epsilon_{q, j}:=\#\left\{s<w_{j} \mid \tau\left(q_{0}, w_{1} \cdots w_{j-1} s\right)=q\right\} . \tag{2.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

A detailed proof of this formula can be found in [8, Corollary 7] (where the notation is slightly different and $a_{q_{0}}$ is assumed to be 1 ).

The longer the known prefix of a representation of a real number is, the more accurate the approximation of this number is. Precisely, if $u$ is a word of length $\ell \geq 1$ then it can be shown that $\operatorname{val}_{\infty}\left(X_{u}\right)$ is equal to

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left[\frac{1}{\beta}+\sum_{z<u, z \in \mathcal{W}_{\ell}} \frac{a_{\tau\left(q_{0}, z\right)}}{\beta^{\ell}}, \frac{1}{\beta}+\sum_{z \leq u, z \in \mathcal{W}_{\ell}} \frac{a_{\tau\left(q_{0}, z\right)}}{\beta^{\ell}}\right]=: I_{u} \tag{2.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

since, for $u=u_{1} \cdots u_{\ell} \in \mathcal{W}_{\ell}$, we have

$$
\sum_{z<u, z \in \mathcal{W}_{\ell}} \frac{a_{\tau\left(q_{0}, z\right)}}{\beta^{\ell}}=\sum_{j=1}^{\ell} \sum_{\substack{t<u_{j}, u_{1} \cdots u_{j-1} t \in \mathcal{W}_{j}}} \frac{a_{\tau\left(q_{0}, u_{1} \cdots u_{j-1} t\right)}}{\beta^{j}} .
$$

Finally, if $M \subseteq \Sigma^{\omega}$ we denote by uper $(M)$ the set of words in $M$ which are ultimately periodic. This means that $w \in \operatorname{uper}(M)$ if and only if there exist $u, v \in \Sigma^{*}, v \neq \lambda$ such that $w=u(v)^{\omega}$.

As usual, we denote by $\mathbb{Q}(\beta)$ the smallest field containing $\mathbb{Q}$ and $\beta$. Since $\beta$ is algebraic and of degree $d$, we have $\mathbb{Q}(\beta)=\mathbb{Q}[\beta]$ and every element of $\mathbb{Q}(\beta)$ can be decomposed as $x=\sum_{i=1}^{d} x_{i} \beta^{-i}$ with $x_{i} \in \mathbb{Q}$. We write $x=. x_{1} \ldots x_{d}$. We assume that the reader is familiar with classical $\beta$-expansions, see for instance [6, 10, 11]. Note that we always refer to the $\beta$-expansions computed through the greedy algorithm. Recall that the greedy $\beta$-expansion of a number is the maximal one for the lexicographical order. In this way, if $\beta$ is a Pisot number, then the usual $\beta$-expansions can be seen as a special case of the more abstract representations considered here (see [9, Section 9])

We denote by $L_{\beta}$ the set of infinite words which are the $\beta$-expansions of the real numbers in $[0,1)$, therefore $\operatorname{uper}\left(L_{\beta}\right)$ is the set of real numbers with ultimately periodic $\beta$-expansion.

## 3. Results

In this paper, we will show the following results.
Proposition 3.1. Let $S=(L, \Sigma,<)$ be an abstract numeration system satisfying the assumptions given in Section 图. For every $w \in \operatorname{uper}\left(\mathcal{L}_{\infty}\right)$, we have

$$
\operatorname{val}_{\infty}(w) \in \mathbb{Q}(\beta) \cap[1 / \beta, 1] .
$$

The converse holds when $\beta$ is a Pisot number.
Theorem 3.1. Let $S=(L, \Sigma,<)$ be an abstract numeration system satisfying the assumptions given in Section 0 . If $\beta$ is a Pisot number, then every $x \in \mathbb{Q}(\beta) \cap[1 / \beta, 1]$ is the numerical value of some ultimately periodic word $w$, i.e.,

$$
\operatorname{rep}(x) \cap \operatorname{uper}\left(\mathcal{L}_{\infty}\right) \neq \emptyset \quad \text { for all } x \in \mathbb{Q}(\beta) \cap[1 / \beta, 1] .
$$

In particular, the lexicographically maximal word $w \in \operatorname{rep}(x)$ is ultimately periodic.
Proposition 3.2. Let $S=(L, \Sigma,<)$ be an abstract numeration system satisfying the assumptions given in Section 因. If $\beta$ is neither a Pisot nor a Salem number, then we have some $x$ in $\mathbb{Q}(\beta) \cap[1 / \beta, 1]$ with $\operatorname{rep}(x) \cap$ $\operatorname{uper}\left(\mathcal{L}_{\infty}\right)=\emptyset$.

For classical $\beta$-numeration systems, we have the following.
Corollary 3.1 (Bertrand [1], Schmidt 12]). If $\beta>1$ is a Pisot number, then

$$
\operatorname{uper}\left(L_{\beta}\right)=\mathbb{Q}(\beta) \cap[0,1)
$$

If $\beta$ is neither a Pisot nor a Salem number, then

$$
\mathbb{Q}(\beta) \cap[0,1) \nsubseteq \operatorname{uper}\left(L_{\beta}\right)
$$

Remark. In Corollary 3.1, the interval is different from $\left[\frac{1}{\beta}, 1\right]$, in order to state the result in the usual way. Indeed, the $\beta$-expansion of $x \in$ $\left[\beta^{-m-1}, \beta^{-m}\right)$ for some $m \geq 1$ is obtained by placing $m$ zeroes in front of the expansion of $\beta^{m} x$ (and the $\beta$-expansion of 0 is $.0^{\omega}$ ).

Similarly, we can represent each number $x \in \mathbb{R}^{+}$in our system by shifting the representations of $[1 / \beta, 1]$. For instance, we can define

$$
\operatorname{val}_{\infty}^{\prime}\left(w_{1} \cdots w_{m} \cdot w_{m+1} w_{m+2} \cdots\right):=\beta^{m} \operatorname{val}_{\infty}\left(w_{1} w_{2} \cdots\right)
$$

and

$$
\operatorname{val}_{\infty}^{\prime}\left(.0^{m} w_{1} w_{2} \cdots\right):=\beta^{-m} \operatorname{val}_{\infty}\left(w_{1} w_{2} \cdots\right)
$$

where, in case 0 is a letter of the alphabet, 0 must not be accepted from $q_{0}$.

## 4. Proofs of the results

We will need a small lemma.
Lemma 4.1. We have $a_{q} \in \mathbb{Q}(\beta)$ for all $q \in Q$.
Proof. Applying (2.2) for all $q \in Q$ provides a system of linear equations for the $a_{q}$ 's. It is easily seen that the solutions of this system are exactly the eigenvectors of the automaton $\mathcal{M}_{L}$ to the eigenvalue $\beta$. If the eigenspace for $\beta$ has dimension 1 , then the solution is entirely determined by $a_{q_{0}}=1-\frac{1}{\beta}$ and has clearly elements in $\mathbb{Q}(\beta)$.

If the eigenspace has larger dimension, then observe that the number of paths from $q$ to $q^{\prime}$ of length $n, m_{q, q^{\prime}}(n)$, is the element $\left(q, q^{\prime}\right)$ of $A^{n}$, where $A$ denotes the adjacency matrix of the automaton. Hence $m_{q, q^{\prime}}(n)$ satisfies a linear recurrence with characteristic polynomial equal to that of $A$ and is therefore of the form $m_{q, q^{\prime}}(n)=P_{q, q^{\prime}}(n) \beta^{n}+\cdots$ for some polynomial $P_{q, q^{\prime}} \in \mathbb{Q}(\beta)[x]$ (indeed, since $m_{q, q^{\prime}}(n) \in \mathbb{Z}$, one can easily show using some reasoning about generating functions that $\left.P_{q, q^{\prime}} \in \mathbb{Q}(\beta)[x]\right)$. We clearly have

$$
a_{q}=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\sum_{q^{\prime} \in F} m_{q, q^{\prime}}(n)}{P(n) \beta^{n}}=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty}\left(1-\frac{1}{\beta}\right) \frac{\sum_{q^{\prime} \in F} P_{q, q^{\prime}}(n)+\cdots}{\sum_{q^{\prime} \in F} P_{q_{0}, q^{\prime}}(n)+\cdots}
$$

where the other terms can be neglected even if we have other eigenvalues of modulus $\beta$ because we have assumed that this limit exists. Hence we have $a_{q} \in \mathbb{Q}(\beta)$.
Proof of Propositionrefpper. Let $w=\left(w_{j}\right)_{j \geq 1} \in \operatorname{uper}\left(\mathcal{L}_{\infty}\right)$. By (2.3), we have

$$
\operatorname{val}_{\infty}(w)=\frac{1}{\beta}+\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \sum_{q \in Q} a_{q} \epsilon_{q, j} \beta^{-j}
$$

with ultimately periodic sequences $\left(\epsilon_{q, j}\right)_{j \geq 1}$ and, with Lemma 4.1, the first statement is proved. More details on the periodicity of $\left(\epsilon_{q, j}\right)_{j \geq 1}$ are given in (9].
Proof of Theoremrefmt. The sketch of the proof is the following.
(A) We show that representing a real number in an abstract system can be viewed as a generalization of the classical $\beta$-transformation.
(B) We derive an algorithm to compute the representation of a given real number.
(C) Using this algorithm, we obtain the expected result. Note that we use the fact that $\beta$ is a Pisot number only in this last part. The first two parts are independent of the algebraic properties of $\beta$.
(A) Let $x \in \mathbb{Q}(\beta) \cap[1 / \beta, 1]$ and $w=\left(w_{j}\right)_{j \geq 1}$ be the lexicographically maximal word in $\operatorname{rep}(x)$.

For $q \in Q$ and $t \in \Sigma$, set

$$
\alpha_{q}(t):=\sum_{q^{\prime} \in Q}\left(a_{q^{\prime}} \cdot \#\left\{s<t \mid \tau(q, s)=q^{\prime}\right\}\right)
$$

Then from (2.3), (2.4) and the definition of the $\alpha_{q}(t)$ 's and $\epsilon_{q, j}$ 's, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{val}_{\infty}(w)=\left(1+\alpha_{q_{0}}\left(w_{1}\right)\right) \beta^{-1}+\sum_{j=2}^{\infty} \alpha_{\tau\left(q_{0}, w_{1} \cdots w_{j-1}\right)}\left(w_{j}\right) \beta^{-j} \tag{4.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Remark. Let us make a small digression about the classical $\beta$-numeration systems. If the $\beta$-expansion of 1 is finite or ultimately periodic (which in particular is true when $\beta$ is a Pisot number) then the $\beta$-shift is sofic. The set of factors appearing in $L_{\beta}$ is a regular language and the deterministic finite automaton $\mathcal{M}_{\beta}$ recognizing this language has a very special form and is depicted in Figure 1:

Let $t_{1} \cdots t_{m}$ or $t_{1} \cdots t_{m-p}\left(t_{m-p+1} \cdots t_{m}\right)^{\omega}$ be the expansion of 1 . Then the set of states of $\mathcal{M}_{\beta}$ is $\{\mathbf{1}, \ldots, \mathbf{m}\}, \mathbf{1}$ is the initial state, all states are final and the alphabet of digits is $\Sigma=\{0, \ldots,\lfloor\beta\rfloor\}$. For every $j, 1 \leq j \leq m$, we have $t_{j}$ edges $\mathbf{j} \rightarrow \mathbf{1}$ labelled by $0, \ldots, t_{j}-1$ and, for $j<m$, one edge $\mathbf{j} \rightarrow \mathbf{j}+\mathbf{1}$ labelled by $t_{j}$. If the expansion of 1 is ultimately periodic, then we have an additional edge $\mathbf{m} \rightarrow \mathbf{m}-\mathbf{p}+\mathbf{1}$ labelled by $t_{m}$. (See for instance [5].)


Figure 1. The automaton $\mathcal{M}_{\beta}$ in the ultimately periodic case.
Since, for abstract systems, leading zeroes may change the value of the words in the language (indeed for the genealogical ordering $v<0^{n} v$ and therefore these two words lead to different numerical values), we need an automaton $\mathcal{M}_{\beta}^{\prime}$ which differs slightly from $\mathcal{M}_{\beta}$ by adding a state $q_{0}$ which
is dedicated to be the initial state of this new automaton and forbids the reading of an initial zero. More precisely, we add $t_{1}-1$ edges $q_{0} \rightarrow \mathbf{1}$ labelled by $1, \ldots, t_{1}-1$ and one edge $q_{0} \rightarrow \mathbf{2}$ labelled by $t_{1}$. (See (9) and Example 5.)

For the automaton $\mathcal{M}_{\beta}^{\prime}$, we have $\epsilon_{q, j}=0$ for all $q \neq 1$ and $a_{1}=1$. So (4.1) has the form

$$
x=\left(1+\epsilon_{1,1}\right) \beta^{-1}+\sum_{j=2}^{\infty} \epsilon_{1, j} \beta^{-j} .
$$

The digits $\epsilon_{1, j}$ are obtained by the $\beta$-transformation

$$
T_{\beta}:[0,1) \rightarrow[0,1): y \mapsto \beta y-\lfloor\beta y\rfloor .
$$

We have $\epsilon_{1, j}=\left\lfloor\beta T_{\beta}^{j-1}\left(x-\beta^{-1}\right)\right\rfloor$ for all $j \geq 1$.
Now, we go back to the general case. Let $\ell>0$. If $v \in \mathcal{W}_{\ell}$, the interval $I_{v}$ given in (2.5) can be split into intervals $I_{v t}, t \in \Sigma$. Clearly, if $|I|$ denotes the length of $I$ then $\left|I_{v t}\right| /\left|I_{v}\right|=a_{\tau\left(q_{0}, v t\right)} /\left(\beta a_{\tau\left(q_{0}, v\right)}\right)$. Roughly speaking, this is the reason why we will multiply all quantities by $\beta$. Therefore if a real number has a representation beginning with $v$ then it is quite easy to determine the next letter $t$ in the representation by determining to which interval $I_{v t}$ it belongs. To that end, we compare with the $a_{\tau\left(q_{0}, v t\right)}$ 's, $t \in \Sigma$, after multiplication by $\beta$. In a more precise way, to obtain a generalization of the $\beta$-transformation, we set

$$
\lfloor y\rfloor_{q}=\max \left\{\alpha_{q}(s) \mid s \in \Sigma, \alpha_{q}(s) \leq y\right\}
$$

and

$$
T_{S, q}:\left[0, a_{q}\right] \rightarrow\left[0, \max \left\{a_{q^{\prime}} \mid q^{\prime}=\tau(q, s), s \in \Sigma\right\}\right]: y \mapsto \beta y-\lfloor\beta y\rfloor_{q} .
$$

(B) For $x \in \mathbb{Q}(\beta)$, we have

$$
x=x_{1} \ldots x_{d}=\frac{x_{1}}{\beta}+\cdots+\frac{x_{d}}{\beta^{d}} \text { with } x_{k} \in \mathbb{Q} .
$$

Starting with this expansion of $x$, we will calculate iteratively the sequence $\left(w_{j}\right)_{j \geq 1}$. During those computations we denote by $q_{j}$ the state of $\mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{L}}$ obtained at the $j$ th step of the procedure: $q_{j}=\tau\left(q_{j-1}, w_{j}\right)$. For $j=1$, we start with the initial state $q_{0}$.

As a first step, we set $x_{1}^{(d)}=x_{1}, x_{2}^{(d-1)}=x_{2}, \ldots, x_{d}^{(1)}=x_{d}$. Then let inductively for $j \geq 1$,

$$
\begin{align*}
x_{j}^{(d+1)} & =x_{j}^{(d)}+z_{j}  \tag{4.2}\\
x_{j+1}^{(d)} & =x_{j+1}^{(d-1)}-z_{j, 1} \\
x_{j+2}^{(d-1)} & =x_{j+2}^{(d-2)}-z_{j, 2} \\
& \vdots \\
x_{j+2}^{(2)} & =x_{j+d-1}^{(1)}-z_{j, d-1} \\
x_{j+d-1}^{(1)} & =-z_{j, d}
\end{align*}
$$

with

$$
\begin{aligned}
z_{1} & =\lfloor\beta x-1\rfloor_{q_{0}}-\left(x_{1}^{(d)}-1\right)=. z_{1,1} \cdots z_{1, d} \in \mathbb{Q}(\beta), \\
w_{1} & =\max \left\{s \in \Sigma \mid \alpha_{q_{0}}(s)=x_{1}^{(d+1)}-1\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

and for $j \geq 2$

$$
\begin{align*}
z_{j} & =\left\lfloor x_{j}^{(d)} \cdot x_{j+1}^{(d-1)} \cdots x_{j+d-1}^{(1)}\right\rfloor_{q_{j-1}}-x_{j}^{(d)}=. z_{j, 1} \cdots z_{j, d} \in \mathbb{Q}(\beta), \\
w_{j} & =\max \left\{s \in \Sigma \mid \alpha_{q_{j-1}}(s)=x_{j}^{(d+1)}\right\} . \tag{4.3}
\end{align*}
$$

It is easy to check that

$$
. x_{j+1}^{(d)} \cdots x_{j+d}^{(1)}=T_{S, q_{j-1}}\left(. x_{j}^{(d)} \cdots x_{j+d-1}^{(1)}\right)
$$

Indeed, as explained earlier, we have first to multiply.$x_{j}^{(d)} \cdots x_{j+d-1}^{(1)}$ (which determines the position of $x$ in the interval $I_{w_{0} \cdots w_{j-1}}$ ) by $\beta$ and therefore we consider $x_{j}^{(d)} . x_{j+1}^{(d-1)} \cdots x_{j+d-1}^{(1)}$. In order to retrieve the next letter $w_{j}$ in the representation, this latter quantity has to be compared with the $\alpha_{q_{j}}(t)$ 's, $t \in \Sigma$. Since we are looking for the lexicographically maximal word in rep $(x)$, we consider (4.3).

We clearly have

$$
\begin{aligned}
x & =x_{1}^{(d)} \cdots x_{d}^{(1)}=x_{1}^{(d+1)} x_{2}^{(d)} \cdots x_{d+1}^{(1)}=\cdots \\
& =x_{1}^{(d+1)} \cdots x_{j}^{(d+1)} x_{j+1}^{(d)} \cdots x_{j+d}^{(1)}=\cdots=x_{1}^{(d+1)} x_{2}^{(d+1)} \cdots
\end{aligned}
$$

With

$$
\begin{aligned}
z_{j}= & \left\lfloor x_{j}^{(d)} \cdot x_{j+1}^{(d-1)} \cdots x_{j+d-1}^{(1)}\right\rfloor-x_{j}^{(d)} \\
& +\left\lfloor x_{j}^{(d)} \cdot x_{j+1}^{(d-1)} \cdots x_{j+d-1}^{(1)}\right\rfloor_{q_{j-1}}-\left\lfloor x_{j}^{(d)} \cdot x_{j+1}^{(d-1)} \cdots x_{j+d-1}^{(1)}\right\rfloor
\end{aligned}
$$

and

$$
\Delta_{q}(y)=\lfloor y\rfloor_{q}-\lfloor y\rfloor=. \Delta_{q, 1}(y) \cdots \Delta_{q, d}(y) \in \mathbb{Q}(\beta)
$$

the $z_{j, i}$ 's are given by

$$
z_{j, i}=\left(\left\lfloor x_{j}^{(d)} \cdot x_{j+1}^{(d-1)} \cdots x_{j+d-1}^{(1)}\right\rfloor-x_{j}^{(d)}\right) b_{i}+\Delta_{q_{j-1}, i}\left(x_{j}^{(d)} \cdot x_{j+1}^{(d-1)} \cdots x_{j+d-1}^{(1)}\right)
$$

$$
\begin{align*}
= & \frac{b_{i}}{\beta} x_{j+1}^{(d-1)}+\cdots+\frac{b_{i}}{\beta^{d-1}} x_{j+d-1}^{(1)}-\left\{x_{j}^{(d)} \cdot x_{j+1}^{(d-1)} \cdots x_{j+d-1}^{(1)}\right\} b_{i}  \tag{4.4}\\
& +\Delta_{q_{j-1}, i}\left(x_{j}^{(d)} \cdot x_{j+1}^{(d-1)} \cdots x_{j+d-1}^{(1)}\right),
\end{align*}
$$

where we have used $y=.\left(y b_{1}\right) \cdots\left(y b_{d}\right)$ in the first line and $\lfloor y\rfloor=y-\{y\}$ in the second one.

Remark. In the special case of classical $\beta$-numeration systems, we have $\lfloor y\rfloor_{q}=\lfloor y\rfloor$, hence $\Delta_{q}(y)=0$, the $z_{j}$ 's are rational numbers and $z_{j, i}=z_{j} b_{i}$.
(C) Thus from (4.2) and (4.4), we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left(\begin{array}{c}
x_{j+1}^{(d)} \\
x_{j+2}^{(d+1)} \\
\vdots \\
x_{j+d-1}^{(2)} \\
x_{j+d}^{(1)}
\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{ccccc}
0 & 1-\frac{b_{1}}{\beta} & -\frac{b_{1}}{\beta^{2}} & \cdots & -\frac{b_{1}}{\beta^{d-1}} \\
0 & -\frac{b_{2}}{\beta} & 1-\frac{b_{2}}{\beta^{2}} & \ddots & \vdots \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & -\frac{b_{d-2}}{\beta^{d-1}} \\
\vdots & \vdots & & \ddots & 1-\frac{b_{d-1}}{\beta_{d}^{d-1}} \\
0 & -\frac{b_{d}}{\beta} & \cdots & \cdots & -\frac{b_{d}-1}{\beta^{d-1}}
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{c}
x_{j}^{(d)} \\
x_{j+1}^{d-1)} \\
\vdots \\
x_{j+d-2}^{(2)} \\
x_{j+d-1}^{(1)}
\end{array}\right) \\
& +\left\{x_{j}^{(d)} \cdot x_{j+1}^{(d-1)} \ldots x_{j+d-1}^{(1)}\right\}\left(\begin{array}{c}
b_{1} \\
\vdots \\
b_{d}
\end{array}\right)-\left(\begin{array}{c}
\Delta_{q_{j-1}, 1}\left(x_{j}^{(d)} \cdot x_{j+1}^{(d-1)} \cdots x_{j+d-1}^{(1)}\right) \\
\vdots \\
\Delta_{q_{j-1}, d}\left(x_{j}^{(d)} \cdot x_{j+1}^{(d-1)} \ldots x_{j+d-1}^{(1)}\right)
\end{array}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

i.e., the $x_{j}^{(i)}$,s satisfy a linear recurrence up to two terms which are bounded because $\Delta_{q}(y)$ takes only finitely many values and $\left\{x_{j}^{(d)} \cdot x_{j+1}^{(d-1)} \ldots x_{j+d-1}^{(1)}\right\}<1$.

Denote the above matrix by $M$. We claim that its eigenvalues are 0 and the conjugates of $\beta$, which we denote by $\beta_{2}, \ldots, \beta_{d}$. To prove this, we show that $\mathbf{v}_{1}=(1,0, \ldots, 0)^{t}$ and

$$
\mathbf{v}_{i}=\left(\beta_{i}^{d-1}, b_{2} \beta_{i}^{d-2}+b_{3} \beta_{i}^{d-3}+\cdots+b_{d}, \ldots, b_{d-1} \beta_{i}^{d-2}+b_{d} \beta_{i}^{d-3}, b_{d} \beta_{i}^{d-2}\right)^{t}
$$

$2 \leq i \leq d$, are right eigenvectors.
For $\mathbf{v}_{1}$, this is obvious. For $2 \leq i \leq d$, note that the $\beta_{i}$ 's are roots of

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\chi_{\beta}(x)}{x-\beta}=x^{d-1}+\left(\beta-b_{1}\right) x^{d-2}+\cdots+\left(\beta^{d-1}-b_{1} \beta^{d-2}-\cdots-b_{d-1}\right) . \tag{4.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

The $k$-th element of $M \mathbf{v}_{i}, 2 \leq i \leq d$, is given by

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(M \mathbf{v}_{i}\right)_{k}= & -b_{k}\left(\left(\frac{b_{2}}{\beta}+\cdots+\frac{b_{d}}{\beta^{d-1}}\right) \beta_{i}^{d-2}+\cdots+\frac{b_{d}}{\beta}\right) \\
& +\left(b_{k+1} \beta_{i}^{d-2}+\cdots+b_{d} \beta_{i}^{k-1}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $1=. b_{1} \ldots b_{d}$, we have $\frac{b_{\ell}}{\beta}+\cdots+\frac{b_{d}}{\beta^{-\ell+1}}=\beta^{\ell-1}-b_{1} \beta^{\ell-2}-\cdots-b_{\ell-1}$, $2 \leq \ell \leq d$, and

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(M \mathbf{v}_{i}\right)_{k}= & -b_{k}\left(\left(\beta-b_{1}\right) \beta_{i}^{d-2}+\cdots+\left(\beta^{d-1}-b_{1} \beta^{d-2}-\cdots-b_{d-1}\right)\right) \\
& +b_{k+1} \beta_{i}^{d-2}+\cdots+b_{d} \beta_{i}^{k-1}
\end{aligned}
$$

And finally, since $\beta_{i}$ is a root of (4.5), we have

$$
\left(M \mathbf{v}_{i}\right)_{k}=b_{k} \beta_{i}^{d-1}+b_{k+1} \beta_{i}^{d-2}+\cdots+b_{d} \beta_{i}^{k-1}=\beta_{i}\left(\mathbf{v}_{i}\right)_{k}
$$

Now, if $\beta$ is a Pisot number, then the eigenvalues $\beta_{i}$ have modulus smaller than some $\rho<1$. We clearly have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(\begin{array}{c}
x_{j+1}^{(d)} \\
\vdots \\
x_{j+d}^{(1)}
\end{array}\right)= & M^{j}\left(\begin{array}{c}
x_{1}^{(d)} \\
\vdots \\
x_{d}^{(1)}
\end{array}\right)+\sum_{k=1}^{j}\left\{x_{k}^{(d)} \cdot x_{k+1}^{(d-1)} \ldots x_{k+d-1}^{(1)}\right\} M^{j-k}\left(\begin{array}{c}
b_{1} \\
\vdots \\
b_{d}
\end{array}\right) \\
& -\sum_{k=1}^{j} M^{j-k}\left(\begin{array}{c}
\Delta_{q_{j-1}, 1}\left(x_{k}^{(d)} \cdot x_{k+1}^{(d-1)} \ldots x_{k+d-1}^{(1)}\right) \\
\vdots \\
\Delta_{q_{j-1}, d}\left(x_{k}^{(d)} \cdot x_{k+1}^{(d-1)} \ldots x_{k+d-1}^{(1)}\right)
\end{array}\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{d} \gamma_{i, j} \mathbf{v}_{i}
\end{aligned}
$$

with $\left|\gamma_{1, j}\right| \leq c$ for $j>1$ and some constant $c$ and

$$
\left|\gamma_{i, j}\right| \leq\left|\gamma_{i, 0}\right|\left|\beta_{i}\right|^{j}+c_{i}\left(\left|\beta_{i}\right|^{j-1}+\cdots+1\right)<c_{i} \frac{1}{1-\rho}+\varepsilon
$$

for $2 \leq i \leq d$, some constants $c_{i}$ and all $j>J(\varepsilon)$. These bounds are obtained by considering the decomposition as sum of $\mathbf{v}_{i}$ 's of the various vectors appearing in the above formula.

Hence $\left(x_{j+1}^{(d)}, \ldots, x_{j+d}^{(1)}\right)$ is bounded. By the first line of (4.4), we see that the $z_{j, i}$ 's are rational numbers and the denominator of $z_{j, i}$ divides the least common multiple of the denominator of $x_{j}^{(d)}$ and that of all $\Delta_{q, i}(y)$ 's (which are only finitely many). So we get inductively that the $z_{j, i}$ 's and the $x_{j}^{(i)}$,s with $i \leq d$ are rational numbers with bounded denominator. Thus we have only finitely many possibilities for $\left(x_{j+1}^{(d)}, \ldots, x_{j+d}^{(1)}, q_{j-1}\right)$ and this sequence is ultimately periodic. Since $w_{j}$ is determined by this vector (see formula (4.3)), the sequence $\left(w_{j}\right)_{j \geq 1}$ is ultimately periodic too.

Remark. In the statement of Theorem 3.1, the lexicographically maximal word $w \in \operatorname{rep}(x)$ is said to be ultimately periodic. Note that we have more than one representation of $x$ if and only if $x$ is in $I_{w_{1} \cdots w_{j-1} w_{j}}$ and $I_{w_{1} \cdots w_{j-1} s}$ for some $j$ and $s<w_{j}$. This means that $x$ is the left boundary of $I_{w_{1} \cdots w_{j-1} w_{j}}$ and the right boundary of $I_{w_{1} \cdots w_{j-1} s}$. It is easy to see that the lexicographically minimal representation of each boundary point is ultimately periodic. Hence the lexicographically lexicographically minimal word in $w \in \operatorname{rep}(x)$ is ultimately periodic too.

If $a_{q} \neq 0$ for all $q \in Q$, then the lexicographically minimal and maximal words are the only elements in $\operatorname{rep}(x)$. If $a_{q}=0$ for some $q \in Q$, then we may have uncountably many representations of $x$ and some of them can be aperiodic.

Proof of Proposition 3.2. We use the same notation as in the proof of Theorem 3.1. Since $\beta$ is neither Pisot nor Salem, let, w.l.o.g., $\left|\beta_{2}\right|>1$. We have to find some $x$ such that $\gamma_{2,1}$ satisfies

$$
\left|\gamma_{2,1}\right|<\left|\gamma_{2,1}\right|\left|\beta_{2}\right|-c_{2},
$$

because this implies $\left|\gamma_{2,2}\right|>\left|\gamma_{2,1}\right|$, hence $\left|\gamma_{2,2}\right|<\left|\gamma_{2,2}\right|\left|\beta_{2}\right|-c_{2}$ and, inductively,

$$
\left|\gamma_{2,1}\right|<\left|\gamma_{2,2}\right|<\left|\gamma_{2,3}\right|<\cdots
$$

Then the sequence $\left(x_{j+1}^{(d)}, \ldots, x_{j+d}^{(1)}\right)$ is aperiodic and the sequence $\left(w_{j}\right)_{j \geq 1}$ as well. Furthermore, $\left(x_{j+1}^{(d)}, \ldots, x_{j+d}^{(1)}\right) \neq \mathbf{0}$ for all $j \geq 0$ implies that $\left(w_{j}\right)_{j \geq 1}$ is the only representation of $x$. Indeed, by Remark $\square, x$ is the left boundary point of an interval $I_{w_{1} \cdots w_{j}}$ for some $j \geq 1$ if $x$ has more than one representation, but this implies $. x_{j+1}^{(d)} \cdots x_{j+d}^{(1)}=0$ and thus $\left(x_{j+1}^{(d)}, \ldots, x_{j+d}^{(1)}\right)=\mathbf{0}$.

To show that an $x$ with sufficiently large $\gamma_{2,1}$ exists, we observe first that, if we change the value of $x_{1}^{(d)}$, then we only change $\gamma_{1,1}$, but not the other $\gamma_{j, 1}$. Clearly we have for every choice of $\left(x_{2}^{(d-1)}, \ldots, x_{d}^{(1)}\right)$ an $x_{1}^{(d)} \in \mathbb{Q}$ such that.$x_{1}^{(d)} \cdots x_{d}^{(1)} \in[1 / \beta, 1]$. Finally, since the $\mathbf{v}_{1}, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_{d}$ (respectively the real and imaginary parts) form a basis of $\mathbb{R}^{d}$, we have points $\left(x_{1}^{(d)}, \ldots, x_{d}^{(1)}\right) \in \mathbb{Q}^{d}$ with arbitrarily large $\gamma_{2,1}$.

## 5. Examples

In this section, we consider two examples. The first one shows a run of the algorithm introduced in the proof of Theorem 3.1 for a numeration system built upon an arbitrary regular language. In the second one, we just present the Fibonacci system in this general setting.

Example. Consider the alphabet $\{a<b<c\}$ and the language accepted by the automaton depicted in Fig. [2. The states are denoted 1, 2 and 3. The initial state is $\mathbf{1}$ and the set of final states is $\{\mathbf{2}, \mathbf{3}\}$.


Figure 2. A trim minimal automaton.
The adjacency matrix of $\mathcal{M}_{L}$ is

$$
\left(\begin{array}{lll}
2 & 1 & 0 \\
1 & 0 & 1 \\
1 & 0 & 0
\end{array}\right)
$$

and we denote by $\beta$ its dominating eigenvalue which is the real root of $\chi_{\beta}(x)=x^{3}-2 x^{2}-x-1$ and a Pisot number $(\beta \simeq 2.5468)$. By definition, we have $a_{1}=1-1 / \beta(\simeq 0.6074)$ and it is easy to see that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& a_{3}=\frac{a_{1}}{\beta}=\frac{1}{\beta}-\frac{1}{\beta^{2}}(\simeq 0.2385) \\
& a_{2}=\frac{a_{1}+a_{3}}{\beta}=\frac{1}{\beta}-\frac{1}{\beta^{3}}(\simeq 0.3321)
\end{aligned}
$$

The interval $[1 / \beta, 1]$ is split into three intervals $I_{a}, I_{b}$ and $I_{c}$ of respective lengths $a_{1} / \beta, a_{2} / \beta$ and $a_{1} / \beta$. Let $x=\frac{9}{5} / \beta-\frac{6}{5} / \beta^{2}-\frac{2}{5} / \beta^{3}(\simeq 0.4975)$. We denote by $\left(w_{j}\right)_{j \geq 1}$ the maximal representation of $x$. Since

$$
(0.3926 \simeq) \frac{1}{\beta}<x<\frac{1}{\beta}+\frac{a_{1}}{\beta}(\simeq 0.6311)
$$

we have $w_{1}=a$ and $q_{1}=1$. The interval $I_{a}$ is divided into $I_{a a}, I_{a b}$ and $I_{a c}$ of length respectively $a_{1} / \beta^{2}, a_{2} / \beta^{2}$ and $a_{1} / \beta^{2}$. Since

$$
(0.4863 \simeq) \frac{1}{\beta}+\frac{a_{1}}{\beta^{2}}<x<\frac{1}{\beta}+\frac{a_{1}+a_{2}}{\beta^{2}}(\simeq 0.5375)
$$

we have $w_{2}=b$ and $q_{2}=\mathbf{2}$. Now, $I_{a b}=I_{a b a} \cup I_{a b b}$ and these latter intervals are of length $a_{3} / \beta^{3}$ and $a_{1} / \beta^{3}$. Here

$$
(0.4863 \simeq) \frac{1}{\beta}+\frac{a_{1}}{\beta^{2}}<x<\frac{1}{\beta}+\frac{a_{1}}{\beta^{2}}+\frac{a_{3}}{\beta^{3}}(\simeq 0.5007)
$$

thus $w_{3}=a$ and $q_{3}=\mathbf{3}$. Since there is only one edge from state $\mathbf{3}$, we have $I_{a b a}=I_{a b a c}, w_{4}=c$ and $q_{4}=1$. As a last step, $I_{a b a c}=I_{a b a c a} \cup I_{a b a c b} \cup I_{a b a c c}$ and the corresponding lengths are $a_{1} / \beta^{5}, a_{2} / \beta^{5}$ and $a_{1} / \beta^{5}$ respectively. Here,

$$
(0.4951 \simeq) \frac{1}{\beta}+\frac{a_{1}}{\beta^{2}}+\frac{a_{1}+a_{2}}{\beta^{5}}<x<\frac{1}{\beta}+\frac{a_{1}}{\beta^{2}}+\frac{a_{1}+a_{2}+a_{1}}{\beta^{5}}(\simeq 0.5007)
$$

so $w_{5}=c$ and $q_{5}=\mathbf{1}$. To show the periodicity of the representation of $x$, one has to observe that $q_{1}=q_{5}$ and the relative position of $x$ inside $I_{a}$ is the same as the position of $x$ inside $I_{a b a c c}$ :

$$
\frac{x-1 / \beta}{a_{1} / \beta}=\frac{x-1 / \beta-a_{1} / \beta^{2}-\left(a_{1}+a_{2}\right) / \beta^{5}}{a_{1} / \beta^{5}}
$$

Hence $x=\operatorname{val}_{\infty}\left(a(b a c c)^{\omega}\right)$.
Now we consider the algorithm and notation of the proof of Theorem 3.1: $d=3,\left(b_{1}, b_{2}, b_{3}\right)=(2,1,1), x=. x_{1} x_{2} x_{3}=\cdot \frac{9}{5}\left(-\frac{6}{5}\right)\left(-\frac{2}{5}\right)$. First, by definition of the $\alpha_{q}(t)$ 's, we have
$\alpha_{1}(a)=0, \alpha_{1}(b)=a_{1}, \alpha_{1}(c)=a_{1}+a_{2}, \alpha_{2}(a)=0, \alpha_{2}(b)=a_{3}, \alpha_{3}(c)=0$.
As initialization step we set $x_{1}^{(3)}=\frac{9}{5}, x_{2}^{(2)}=-\frac{6}{5}, x_{3}^{(1)}=-\frac{2}{5}$ and $q_{0}=1$.
For $j=1$, we have

$$
z_{1}=\lfloor\beta x-1\rfloor_{1}-\left(x_{1}^{(3)}-1\right)=\alpha_{1}(a)-\frac{4}{5}=-\frac{4}{5}=\cdot\left(-\frac{8}{5}\right)\left(-\frac{4}{5}\right)\left(-\frac{4}{5}\right)
$$

because of $0=\alpha_{1}(a) \leq \beta x-1<\alpha_{1}(b)=\beta-1$ and the first step gives
$x_{1}^{(4)}=\frac{9}{5}-\frac{4}{5}=1, \quad x_{2}^{(3)}=-\frac{6}{5}+\frac{8}{5}=\frac{2}{5}, \quad x_{3}^{(2)}=-\frac{2}{5}+\frac{4}{5}=\frac{2}{5}, \quad x_{4}^{(1)}=\frac{4}{5}$,
$w_{1}=a$ and $q_{1}=\tau(\mathbf{1}, a)=\mathbf{1}$.
For $j=2$, we have

$$
z_{2}=\left\lfloor x_{2}^{(3)} \cdot x_{3}^{(2)} x_{4}^{(1)}\right\rfloor_{1}-x_{2}^{(3)}=\alpha_{1}(b)-\frac{2}{5}=\frac{3}{5}-\frac{1}{\beta}=\cdot \frac{1}{5} \frac{3}{5} \frac{3}{5}
$$

because of $1-1 / \beta=\alpha_{1}(b) \leq x_{2}^{(3)} \cdot x_{3}^{(2)} x_{4}^{(1)}=\frac{2}{5} \cdot \frac{2}{5} \frac{4}{5}<\alpha_{1}(c)=1-1 / \beta^{3}$, hence
$x_{2}^{(4)}=\frac{2}{5}+\frac{3}{5}-\frac{1}{\beta}=a_{1}, x_{3}^{(3)}=\frac{2}{5}-\frac{1}{5}=\frac{1}{5}, x_{4}^{(2)}=\frac{4}{5}-\frac{3}{5}=\frac{1}{5}, x_{5}^{(1)}=-\frac{3}{5}$, $w_{2}=b$ and $q_{2}=\tau(\mathbf{1}, b)=\mathbf{2}$.

For $j=3$, we have

$$
z_{3}=\left\lfloor x_{3}^{(3)} \cdot x_{4}^{(2)} x_{5}^{(1)}\right\rfloor_{2}-x_{3}^{(3)}=\alpha_{2}(a)-\frac{1}{5}=-\frac{1}{5}=\cdot\left(-\frac{2}{5}\right)\left(-\frac{1}{5}\right)\left(-\frac{1}{5}\right)
$$

because of $0=\alpha_{\mathbf{2}}(a) \leq x_{3}^{(3)} \cdot x_{4}^{(2)} x_{5}^{(1)}=\frac{1}{5} \cdot \frac{1}{5}\left(-\frac{3}{5}\right)<\alpha_{\mathbf{2}}(b)=1 / \beta-1 / \beta^{3}$ and

$$
x_{3}^{(4)}=\frac{1}{5}-\frac{1}{5}=0, x_{4}^{(3)}=\frac{1}{5}+\frac{2}{5}=\frac{3}{5}, x_{5}^{(2)}=-\frac{3}{5}+\frac{1}{5}=-\frac{2}{5}, x_{6}^{(1)}=\frac{1}{5}
$$

$w_{3}=a$ and $q_{3}=\tau(\mathbf{2}, a)=\mathbf{3}$.
For $j=4$, we only have the possibility $w_{4}=c, q_{4}=\mathbf{1}$, because of $q_{3}=\mathbf{3}$.
Thus $z_{3}=-x_{4}^{(3)}=-\frac{3}{5}=.\left(-\frac{6}{5}\right)\left(-\frac{3}{5}\right)\left(-\frac{3}{5}\right)$ and

$$
x_{4}^{(4)}=0, x_{5}^{(3)}=-\frac{2}{5}+\frac{6}{5}=\frac{4}{5}, x_{6}^{(2)}=\frac{1}{5}+\frac{3}{5}=\frac{4}{5}, x_{7}^{(1)}=\frac{3}{5}
$$

Finally for $j=5$, we have

$$
z_{5}=\left\lfloor x_{5}^{(3)} \cdot x_{6}^{(2)} x_{7}^{(1)}\right\rfloor_{2}-x_{5}^{(3)}=\alpha_{1}(c)-\frac{4}{5}=\frac{1}{5}-\frac{1}{\beta^{3}}=\cdot \frac{2}{5} \frac{1}{5}\left(-\frac{4}{5}\right)
$$

because of $1-1 / \beta^{3}=\alpha_{2}(c) \leq x_{5}^{(3)} \cdot x_{6}^{(2)} x_{7}^{(1)}=\frac{4}{5} \cdot \frac{4}{5} \frac{3}{5}<\beta a_{1}=\beta-1$ and
$x_{5}^{(4)}=\frac{4}{5}+\frac{1}{5}-\frac{1}{\beta^{3}}=a_{1}+a_{2}, x_{6}^{(3)}=\frac{4}{5}-\frac{2}{5}=\frac{2}{5}, x_{7}^{(2)}=\frac{3}{5}-\frac{1}{5}=\frac{2}{5}, x_{8}^{(1)}=\frac{4}{5}$,
$w_{5}=c$ and $q_{5}=\tau(\mathbf{1}, c)=\mathbf{1}$.
Hence we have $\left(x_{2}^{(3)}, x_{3}^{(2)}, x_{4}^{(1)}\right)=\left(x_{6}^{(3)}, x_{7}^{(2)}, x_{8}^{(1)}\right)$ and $q_{1}=q_{5}$. This clearly implies that the sequence is ultimately periodic, $w_{1} w_{2} \cdots=a(b a c c)^{\omega}$ and $x=.1\left(a_{1} 00\left(a_{1}+a_{2}\right)\right)^{\omega}$.

Example. Here we consider the classical Fibonacci system. If $\beta$ is the golden ratio $\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}$, then we get the automaton depicted in Fig. 3. This


Figure 3. The automaton $\mathcal{M}_{\beta}^{\prime}$.
automaton has two parts: an initial state $q_{0}$ where the digit 0 is not accepted and the usual automaton given by the states $\mathbf{1}$ and $\mathbf{2}$ where the factor 11 is not accepted. In this setting, $a_{q_{0}}=1-1 / \beta=1 / \beta^{2}$ implies

$$
\begin{aligned}
& a_{2}=a_{q_{0}} \beta=\frac{1}{\beta} \\
& a_{1}=a_{\mathbf{2}} \beta=1
\end{aligned}
$$

The reader can check that the usual Rényi's $\beta$-expansion of a real number $x \in[1 / \beta, 1)$ coincides with the representation computed by the algorithm given in the proof of Theorem 3.1.

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