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# Admissible endpoints of gaps in the Lagrange spectrum 

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For any irrational number $\alpha$ define the Lagrange constant $\mu(\alpha)$ by

$$
\mu^{-1}(\alpha)=\liminf _{p \in \mathbb{Z}, q \in \mathbb{N}}|q(q \alpha-p)| .
$$

The set of all values taken by $\mu(\alpha)$ as $\alpha$ varies is called the Lagrange spectrum $\mathbb{L}$. An irrational $\alpha$ is called attainable if the inequality

$$
\left|\alpha-\frac{p}{q}\right| \leqslant \frac{1}{\mu(\alpha) q^{2}}
$$

holds for infinitely many integers $p$ and $q$. We call a real number $\lambda \in \mathbb{L}$ admissible if there exists an irrational attainable $\alpha$ such that $\mu(\alpha)=\lambda$. In a previous paper we constructed an example of a nonadmissible element in the Lagrange spectrum. In the present paper we give a necessary and sufficient condition for admissibility of a Lagrange spectrum element. We also give an example of an infinite sequence of left endpoints of gaps in $\mathbb{L}$ which are not admissible.

## 1. Introduction

The Lagrange spectrum $\mathbb{L}$ is usually defined as the set of all values of the Lagrange constants

$$
\mu(\alpha)=\left(\liminf _{p \in \mathbb{Z}, q \in \mathbb{N}}|q(q \alpha-p)|\right)^{-1}
$$

as $\alpha$ runs through the set of irrational numbers. Consider the continued fraction expansion of $\alpha$

$$
\alpha=\left[a_{0} ; a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{n}, \ldots\right] .
$$

For any positive integer $i$ define

$$
\lambda_{i}(\alpha)=\left[a_{i} ; a_{i+1}, a_{i+2}, \ldots\right]+\left[0 ; a_{i-1}, a_{i-2}, \ldots, a_{1}\right] .
$$

It is well-known fact that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\limsup _{i \rightarrow \infty} \lambda_{i}(\alpha)=\mu(\alpha) \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

The equation (1) provides an equivalent definition of the Lagrange constant $\mu(\alpha)$.
The following properties of $\mathbb{L}$ are well known. The Lagrange spectrum is a closed set [Cusick 1975] with minimal point $\sqrt{5}$. All the numbers of $\mathbb{L}$ which are less than 3 form a discrete set. The Lagrange spectrum contains all elements greater than $\sqrt{21}$; see [Freiman 1973; Schecker 1977]. The complement

[^0]of $\mathbb{L}$ is a countable union of maximal gaps of the spectrum. The maximal gaps are open intervals $(a, b)$ such that $(a, b) \cap \mathbb{L}=\varnothing$, but $a$ and $b$ both lie in the Lagrange spectrum. There are infinitely many gaps in the nondiscrete part of the Lagrange spectrum [Gbur 1976].

Let $\alpha$ be an arbitrary irrational number. If the inequality

$$
\left|\alpha-\frac{p}{q}\right| \leqslant \frac{1}{\mu(\alpha) q^{2}}
$$

has infinitely many solutions for integer $p$ and $q$, we call $\alpha$ attainable. This definition was first given in [Malyshev 1977]. One can easily see [Gayfulin 2017] that $\alpha$ is attainable if and only if $\lambda_{i}(\alpha) \geqslant \mu(\alpha)$ for infinitely many indices $i$. We also call a real number $\lambda \in \mathbb{L}$ admissible if there exists an irrational attainable number $\alpha$ such that $\mu(\alpha)=\lambda$.

Let $B$ denote a doubly infinite sequence of positive integers

$$
B=\left(\ldots, b_{-n}, \ldots, b_{-1}, b_{0}, b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n}, \ldots\right)
$$

For an arbitrary integer $i$ define

$$
\lambda_{i}(B)=\left[b_{i} ; b_{i-1}, \ldots\right]+\left[0 ; b_{i+1}, b_{i+2}, \ldots\right]
$$

We will call a doubly infinite sequence $B$ purely periodic if there exists a finite sequence $P$ such that $B=(\bar{P})$. A doubly infinite sequence $B$ is called eventually periodic if there exist three finite sequences $P_{l}, R, P_{r}$ such that $B=\left(\bar{P}_{l}, R, \bar{P}_{r}\right)$. One can also consider an equivalent definition of the Lagrange spectrum using the doubly infinite sequences. We use the notation from [Cusick and Flahive 1989]:

$$
L(B)=\limsup _{i \rightarrow \infty} \lambda_{i}(B), \quad M(B)=\sup \lambda_{i}(B)
$$

The Lagrange spectrum $\mathbb{L}$ is exactly the set of values taken by $L(B)$ as $B$ runs through the set of doubly infinite sequences of positive integers. The set of values taken by $M(B)$ is called the Markoff spectrum. We will denote this set by $\mathbb{M}$.

We will call a doubly infinite sequence $B$ weakly associated with an irrational number $\alpha=\left[a_{0} ; a_{1}, \ldots\right.$, $\left.a_{n}, \ldots\right]$ if the following condition holds:
(1) For any natural $i$ the pattern $\left(b_{-i}, b_{-i+1}, \ldots, b_{0}, \ldots, b_{i}\right)$ occurs in the sequence $a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{n}, \ldots$ infinitely many times.
We will call $B$ strongly associated with $\alpha$ if, additionally,
(2) $\mu(\alpha)=\lambda_{0}(B)=M(B)$.

One can easily see that if $B$ is weakly associated with $\alpha$ then $\mu(\alpha) \geqslant M(B)$. As we will show in Lemma 4.1, if $\alpha$ has bounded partial quotients, it has at least one strongly associated sequence.

## 2. Results of [Gayfulin 2017]

Theorem I. The quadratic irrationality $\lambda_{0}=[3 ; 3,3,2,1, \overline{1,2}]+[0 ; 2,1, \overline{1,2}]$ belongs to $\mathbb{\square}$, but if $\alpha$ is such that $\mu(\alpha)=\lambda_{0}$ then $\alpha$ is not attainable.

Theorem II. If $\lambda \in \mathbb{L}$ is not a left endpoint of some maximal gap in the Lagrange spectrum then there exists an attainable $\alpha$ such that $\mu(\alpha)=\lambda$.

One can easily formulate these theorems using the concept of admissible numbers, introduced above.
Theorem I'. The quadratic irrationality $\lambda_{0}=[3 ; 3,3,2,1, \overline{1,2}]+[0 ; 2,1, \overline{1,2}]$ belongs to $\mathbb{L}$, but is not admissible.

Theorem II'. If $\lambda \in \mathbb{L}$ is not a left endpoint of some maximal gap in the Lagrange spectrum then $\lambda$ is an admissible number.

## 3. Main results

Our first theorem is a small generalization of Theorem 3 in [Gayfulin 2017]. The proof will be quite similar and use some lemmas from that paper.

Theorem 1. Let a be a left endpoint of a gap $(a, b)$ in the Lagrange spectrum and $\alpha$ be an irrational number such that $\mu(\alpha)=a$. Consider a doubly infinite sequence $B$ strongly associated with $\alpha$. Then $B$ is an eventually periodic sequence.

It follows from Theorems I and II that there exist nonadmissible elements in the Lagrange spectrum but all such numbers are left endpoints of some maximal gaps in $\mathbb{L}$. The following theorem gives a necessary and sufficient condition of admissibility of a Lagrange spectrum element.

Theorem 2. A left endpoint of a gap in the Lagrange spectrum a is admissible if and only if there exists a quadratic irrationality $\alpha$ such that $\mu(\alpha)=a$.

Of course, every quadratic irrationality is strongly associated with the unique sequence, which is purely periodic. Therefore Theorem 2 is equivalent to the following statement.

Corollary 3.1. A left endpoint of a gap in the Lagrange spectrum a is not admissible if and only if there does not exist a purely periodic sequence $B$ such that $\lambda_{0}(B)=M(B)=a$.

Theorem 2 provides an instrument to verify nonadmissible points in $\mathbb{L}$. Define

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \alpha_{n}^{*}=2+[0 ; \underbrace{1, \ldots, 1}_{2 n-2}, \overline{2,2}, 1,2]+[0 ; \underbrace{1, \ldots, 1}_{2 n-1}, 2, \underbrace{1, \ldots, 1}_{2 n-2}, \overline{2,2,1,2}], \\
& \beta_{n}=2+2[0 ; \underbrace{\overline{1, \ldots, 1}, 2}_{2 n}] .
\end{aligned}
$$

The fact that $\left(\alpha_{n}^{*}, \beta_{n}\right)$ is the maximal gap in the Markoff spectrum was proved in [Gbur 1976]. It is easy to show that $\alpha_{n}^{*}$ and $\beta_{n}$ belong to $\mathbb{L}$; we will do this in Section 6. Hence, as $\mathbb{L} \subset \mathbb{M}$ [Cusick 1975], the interval $\left(\alpha_{n}^{*}, \beta_{n}\right)$ is the maximal gap in $\mathbb{L}$ too.

Theorem 3. For any integer $n \geqslant 2$ the irrational number $\alpha_{n}^{*}$ is not admissible.
One can easily see that $\alpha_{1}^{*}=2+[0 ; \overline{2,2,1,2}]+[0 ; 1,2, \overline{2,2,1,2}]=\mu([0 ; \overline{2,2,1,2}])=M(\overline{2,2,1,2})$. Thus, $\alpha_{1}^{*}$ is an admissible number by Theorem 2.

## 4. Proof of Theorem 1

The following statement is well known. See the proof in [Cusick and Flahive 1989, Chapter 1, Lemma 6].
Lemma 4.1. Let $A=\ldots, a_{-1}, a_{0}, a_{1}, \ldots$ be any doubly infinite sequence. If $M(A)$ is finite, then there exists a doubly infinite sequence $B$ such that $M(A)=M(B)=\lambda_{0}(B)$.

Using the same argument for the sequence $A=\left(a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{n}, \ldots\right)$, one can easily show:
Lemma 4.2. Let $\alpha=\left[0 ; a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}, \ldots\right]$ be an arbitrary irrational number and $a_{i}<c$ for all $i \in \mathbb{N}$, for some positive real number $c$. Then there exists a doubly infinite sequence $B$ which is strongly associated with $\alpha$.

As $\alpha \leqslant \sqrt{21}$, all elements of $B$ are bounded by 4 . For any natural $n$ define $\varepsilon_{n}=2^{-(n-1)}, \delta_{n}=5^{-2(n+2)}$. We need the following lemmas from [Gayfulin 2017].

Lemma 4.3. Suppose $\alpha=\left[a_{0} ; a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}, b_{1}, \ldots\right]$ and $\beta=\left[a_{0} ; a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}, c_{1}, \ldots\right]$, where $n \geqslant 0, a_{0}$ is an integer, and $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}, b_{1}, b_{2}, \ldots, c_{1}, c_{2}, \ldots$ are positive integers bounded by 4 with $b_{1} \neq c_{1}$. Then for $n$ odd, $\alpha>\beta$ if and only if $b_{1}>c_{1}$; for $n$ even, $\alpha>\beta$ if and only if $b_{1}<c_{1}$. Also,

$$
\delta_{n}<|\alpha-\beta|<\varepsilon_{n} .
$$

Lemma 4.4. Let $\gamma=\left[0 ; c_{1}, c_{2}, \ldots, c_{N}, \ldots\right]$ and $\gamma^{\prime}=\left[0 ; c_{1}^{\prime}, c_{2}^{\prime}, \ldots, c_{N}^{\prime}, \ldots\right]$ be two irrational numbers with partial quotients not exceeding 4. Suppose that every sequence of partial quotients of length $2 n+1$ which occurs in the sequence $\left(c_{1}^{\prime}, c_{2}^{\prime}, \ldots, c_{N}^{\prime}, \ldots\right)$ infinitely many times also occurs in the sequence $\left(c_{1}, c_{2}, \ldots, c_{N}, \ldots\right)$ infinitely many times. Then $\mu\left(\gamma^{\prime}\right)<\mu(\gamma)+2 \varepsilon_{n}$.

The following technical lemma was formulated in [Gayfulin 2017] for $N=(2 n+1)\left(4^{2 n+1}+1\right)$ and the proof was incorrect. However, this is not crucial for the results of that paper, as we just need $N$ to be bounded from above by some growing function of $n$. In this paper, we give a new version of the lemma with correct proof.

Lemma 4.5. Let $n$ be an arbitrary positive integer. Define $N=N(n)=(2 n+2)\left(4^{2 n+2}+1\right)$. If $b_{1}, b_{2}, \ldots, b_{N}$ is an arbitrary integer sequence of length $N$ such that $1 \leqslant b_{i} \leqslant 4$ for all $1 \leqslant i \leqslant N$, then there exist two integers $n_{1}, n_{2}$ such that $b_{n_{1}+i}=b_{n_{2}+i}$ for all $0 \leqslant i \leqslant 2 n+1$ and $n_{1} \equiv n_{2}(\bmod 2)$.
Proof. There exist only $4^{2 n+2}$ distinct sequences of length $2 n+2$ with elements $1,2,3$, 4 . Consider $4^{2 n+2}+1$ sequences: $\left(b_{1}, \ldots, b_{2 n+2}\right),\left(b_{2 n+3}, \ldots, b_{4 n+4}\right), \ldots,\left(b_{(2 n+2) 4^{2 n+2}+1}, \ldots, b_{(2 n+2) 4^{2 n+2}+2 n+2}\right)$. Dirichlet's principle implies that there exist two coinciding sequences among them. Denote these sequences by $\left(b_{n_{1}}, \ldots, b_{n_{1}+2 n+1}\right)$ and $\left(b_{n_{2}}, \ldots, b_{n_{2}+2 n+1}\right)$. Note that the index of the first element of each sequence is odd; hence $n_{1} \equiv n_{2} \equiv 1(\bmod 2)$, which finishes the proof.

If $n_{1} \equiv n_{2}(\bmod 2)$ then the sequence $\left(b_{n_{1}}, b_{n_{1}+1}, \ldots, b_{n_{2}-1}\right)$ has even length. This fact will be useful in our argument.

Lemma 4.6. Let $B$ be an arbitrary integer sequence of even length. Let $A$ be an arbitrary finite integer sequence and $C$ an arbitrary nonperiodic infinite sequence. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\min ([0 ; A, B, B, C],[0 ; A, C])<[0 ; A, B, C]<\max ([0 ; A, B, B, C],[0 ; A, C]) \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. As the sequence $C$ is nonperiodic, the continued fractions in (2) are not equal. Without loss of generality, one can say that the sequence $A$ is empty. Suppose that

$$
[0 ; B, C]>[0 ; B, B, C]
$$

As the length of $B$ is even, one can see that $[0 ; C]>[0 ; B, C]$, which is exactly the right-hand side of (2). The case when $[0 ; B, C]<[0 ; B, B, C]$ is treated in exactly the same way.
Lemma 4.7. Let $\gamma=\left[0 ; b_{1}, b_{2}, \ldots, b_{N}, \ldots\right]$ be an arbitrary irrational number, not a quadratic irrationality. Consider the sequence $B_{N}=\left(b_{1}, b_{2}, \ldots, b_{N}\right)$ and define two numbers $n_{1}$ and $n_{2}$ from Lemma 4.5. Define two new sequences of positive integers

$$
\begin{aligned}
& B_{N}^{1}=\left(b_{1}, b_{2}, \ldots, b_{n_{1}-1}, b_{n_{2}}, b_{n_{2}+1}, \ldots, b_{N}\right) \\
& B_{N}^{2}=\left(b_{1}, b_{2}, \ldots, b_{n_{1}-1}, b_{n_{1}}, \ldots, b_{n_{2}-1}, b_{n_{1}}, \ldots, b_{n_{2}-1}, b_{n_{2}}, b_{n_{2}+1}, \ldots, b_{N}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Let us also define two new irrational numbers:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \gamma^{1}=\left[0 ; b_{1}, b_{2}, \ldots, b_{n_{1}-1}, b_{n_{2}}, b_{n_{2}+1}, \ldots, b_{N}, b_{N+1}, \ldots\right]=\left[0 ; B_{N}^{1}, b_{N+1}, \ldots\right] \\
& \gamma^{2}=\left[0 ; b_{1}, b_{2}, \ldots, b_{n_{1}-1}, b_{n_{1}}, \ldots, b_{n_{2}-1}, b_{n_{1}}, \ldots, b_{n_{2}-1}, b_{n_{2}}, b_{n_{2}+1}, \ldots, b_{N}, \ldots\right]=\left[0 ; B_{N}^{2}, b_{N+1}, \ldots\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

Then $\max \left(\gamma^{1}, \gamma^{2}\right)>\gamma$.
Proof. We apply Lemma 4.6 for $A=\left(b_{1}, b_{2}, \ldots, b_{n_{1}-1}\right), B=\left(b_{n_{1}}, b_{n_{1}+1}, \ldots, b_{n_{2}-1}\right), C=\left(b_{n_{2}}, b_{n_{2}+1}, \ldots\right)$. Here $\gamma=[0 ; A, B, C], \gamma^{1}=[0 ; A, C]$, and $\gamma^{2}=[0 ; A, B, B, C]$. Note that as $\gamma$ is not a quadratic irrationality, the sequence $C$ is not periodic.

Now we are ready to prove Theorem 1.
Proof. Suppose that $B$ is not periodic on the right side. Consider an increasing sequence of indices $k(j)$ such that for any natural $j$ the sequence $\left(a_{k(j)-j}, \ldots, a_{k(j)}, \ldots, a_{k(j)+j}\right)$ coincides with the sequence $\left(b_{-j}, \ldots, b_{0}, \ldots, b_{j}\right)$. Of course,

$$
\lim _{j \rightarrow \infty} \lambda_{k(j)}(\alpha)=\lambda_{0}(B)=\mu(\alpha)
$$

Without loss of generality, one can say that $k(j+1)-k(j) \rightarrow \infty$ as $j \rightarrow \infty$. Consider an even $n$ such that $\varepsilon_{n}<\frac{1}{2}(b-a)$ and $N=N(n)$ as defined in Lemma 4.5. Define $n_{1}<n_{2}$ from Lemma 4.5 for the sequence $\left(b_{1}, \ldots, b_{N}\right)$. As $B$ is not periodic to the right, define a minimal positive integer $r$ such that $b_{n_{1}+r} \neq b_{n_{2}+r}$. Consider the sequences $B_{N}^{1}, B_{N}^{2}$ and the continued fractions $\gamma_{1}, \gamma_{2}$ from Lemma 4.7 applied to the continued fraction $\left[0 ; b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n} \ldots\right]=\gamma$. If $\gamma_{2}>\gamma$, define $g=2$; otherwise we put $g=1$. Consider the doubly infinite sequence $B^{\prime}=\left(\ldots, b_{-n}, b_{0}, B_{N}^{g}, b_{N+1}, \ldots\right)$. Note that

$$
a=\lambda_{0}(B)<\lambda_{0}\left(B^{\prime}\right)<a+\varepsilon_{n}<b
$$

Consider the corresponding continued fraction $\alpha^{\prime}$ which is obtained from the continued fraction $\alpha$ by replacing every segment $\left(a_{k(j)}, \ldots, a_{k(j)+N}\right)=\left(a_{k(j)}, B_{N}\right)$ by the segment $\left(a_{k(j)}, B_{N}^{g}\right)$ for every $j \geqslant n_{2}+r$. One can easily see that $\alpha^{\prime}$ and $\alpha$ satisfy the condition of Lemma 4.4 and hence $\mu\left(\alpha^{\prime}\right)<\mu(\alpha)+2 \varepsilon_{n}$. But as $\mu(\alpha)+2 \varepsilon_{n}<b$ and $(a, b)$ is the gap in $\mathbb{L}$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mu\left(\alpha^{\prime}\right) \leqslant \mu(\alpha)=a \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

On the other hand, one can easily see that the sequence $B^{\prime}$ is weakly associated with $\alpha^{\prime}$. This means that

$$
\mu\left(\alpha^{\prime}\right) \geqslant M(B) \geqslant \lambda_{0}\left(B^{\prime}\right)>\lambda_{0}(B)=a .
$$

We obtain a contradiction with (3). The case when $B$ is not periodic on the left side is considered in exactly the same way.

## 5. Proof of Theorem 2

The following lemma from [Gayfulin 2017] immediately implies the " $\Leftarrow$ " part of the statement of Theorem 2.

Lemma 5.1. Consider an arbitrary point a in the Lagrange spectrum. If there exists a quadratic irrationality $\gamma$ such that $\mu(\gamma)=a$, then $a$ is admissible.

Now it is sufficient to prove that if $a$ is an admissible left endpoint of a gap in the Lagrange spectrum, then there exists a quadratic irrationality $\alpha$ such that $\mu(\alpha)=a$.

Proof. Let $a$ be an admissible left endpoint of some gap in the Lagrange spectrum. Let $\alpha=\left[a_{0} ; a_{1}, \ldots\right.$, $\left.a_{n}, \ldots\right]$ be an irrational number such that $\mu(\alpha)=a$. Suppose that $\alpha$ is attainable, but not a quadratic irrationality. Let $k(j)$ be a growing sequence of indices such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lambda_{k(j)}(\alpha) \geqslant \mu(\alpha) \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Of course,

$$
\lim _{j \rightarrow \infty} \lambda_{k(j)}(\alpha)=\mu(\alpha)
$$

Consider a sequence $B=\left(\ldots, b_{-n}, \ldots, b_{-1}, b_{0}, b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n}, \ldots\right)$ strongly associated with $\alpha$ having the following property: the sequence $\left(b_{-i}, \ldots, b_{0}, \ldots, b_{i}\right)$ coincides with the sequence $\left(a_{k(j)-i}, \ldots, a_{k(j)}, \ldots\right.$, $\left.a_{k(j)+i}\right)$ for infinitely many $j$ 's. Theorem 1 implies that $B$ is eventually periodic. That is, there exist a positive integer $m$ and two finite sequences $L$ and $R$ such that

$$
B=\left(\bar{L}, b_{-m}, \ldots, b_{0}, \ldots, b_{m}, \bar{R}\right)
$$

It follows from (4) that one of the inequalities

$$
\begin{gathered}
{\left[a_{k(j)} ; a_{k(j+1)}, \ldots\right] \geqslant\left[b_{0} ; b_{1}, \ldots, b_{m}, \bar{R}\right]} \\
{\left[0 ; a_{k(j-1)}, \ldots, a_{1}\right] \geqslant\left[0 ; b_{-1}, \ldots, b_{-m}, \bar{L}\right]}
\end{gathered}
$$

holds for infinitely many $j$ 's. Note that $\left[a_{k(j)} ; a_{k(j+1)}, \ldots\right] \neq\left[b_{0} ; b_{1}, \ldots, b_{m}, \bar{R}\right]$, as $\alpha$ is not a quadratic irrationality and, of course, $\left[0 ; a_{k(j-1)}, \ldots, a_{1}\right] \neq\left[0 ; b_{-1}, \ldots, b_{-m}, \bar{L}\right]$. Suppose that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left[a_{k(j)} ; a_{k(j+1)}, \ldots\right]>\left[b_{0} ; b_{1}, \ldots, b_{m}, \bar{R}\right] \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

for infinitely many $j$ 's. Denote by $p$ the length of period $R$. Denote by $r(j)$ the minimal positive number such that $a_{k(j)+r(j)} \neq b_{r(j)}$. Without loss of generality, one can say that:
(1) $k(j+1)-k(j)-r(j) \rightarrow \infty$ as $j \rightarrow \infty$.
(2) $\left[a_{k(j)} ; a_{k(j+1)}, \ldots\right]>\left[b_{0} ; b_{1}, \ldots, b_{m}, \bar{R}\right]$ for every $j \in \mathbb{N}$.
(3) $\left[a_{k(j)} ; a_{k(j+1)}, \ldots, a_{k(j)+m}\right]=\left[b_{0} ; b_{1}, \ldots, b_{m}\right]$ for every $j \in \mathbb{N}$.
(4) The sequence $\left(a_{k(j)-j}, \ldots, a_{k(j)}, \ldots, a_{k(j)+j}\right)$ coincides with the sequence $\left(b_{-j}, \ldots, b_{0}, \ldots, b_{j}\right)$ for every $j \in \mathbb{N}$.
(5) Period length $p$ is even.

Denote by $t(j)$ the number of periods $P$ in the sequence $\left(b_{m+1}, \ldots, b_{r(j)}\right)$. Of course,

$$
t(j)=\left[\frac{r(j)-m}{p}\right]
$$

and $t(j)$ tends to infinity as $j \rightarrow \infty$. Lemma 4.3 implies that since (5) holds, we have

$$
[a_{k(j)} ; a_{k(j+1)}, \ldots, a_{k(j)+m}, \underbrace{R, \ldots, R}_{t(j) \text { times }}, \ldots, a_{k(j)+r(j)}, \ldots]>\left[b_{0} ; b_{1}, \ldots, b_{m}, \bar{R}\right] .
$$

Denote by $\alpha_{n}$ a continued fraction obtained from the continued fraction $\alpha=\left[a_{0} ; a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}, \ldots\right]$ as follows: for any $j \in \mathbb{N}$ if $t(j)>n$, then every pattern

$$
a_{k(j)}, a_{k(j+1)}, \ldots, a_{k(j)+m}, \underbrace{R, \ldots, R}_{t(j) \text { times }}, \ldots, a_{k(j)+r(j)}
$$

is replaced by the pattern

$$
a_{k(j)}, a_{k(j+1)}, \ldots, a_{k(j)+m}, \underbrace{R, \ldots, R}_{n \text { times }}, \ldots, a_{k(j)+r(j)} .
$$

As the length of the period $R$ is even, by Lemma 4.3 one has

$$
\begin{equation*}
[a_{k(j)} ; a_{k(j+1)}, \ldots, a_{k(j)+m}, \underbrace{R, \ldots, R}_{n \text { times }}, \ldots, a_{k(j)+r(j)}, \ldots]-\left[b_{0} ; b_{1}, \ldots, b_{m}, \bar{R}\right]>\delta_{m+(n+1) p} . \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

On the other hand, as the sequence $\left(a_{k(j)-j}, \ldots, a_{k(j)}\right)$ coincides with the sequence $\left(b_{-j}, \ldots, b_{0}\right)$ for all $j \in \mathbb{N}$, by Lemma 4.3 one has

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|\left[0 ; a_{k(j)-1}, \ldots, a_{k(j)-j}, \ldots, a_{1}\right]-\left[0 ; b_{-1}, \ldots, b_{-m}, \bar{L}\right]\right|<\varepsilon_{j} . \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

For any positive integers $n, m, p$ there exists $J$ such that for all $j>J$ one has $\varepsilon_{j}<\frac{1}{2} \delta_{m+(n+1) p}$. Now, from (6) and (7) we have for $j>J$

$$
\begin{align*}
& \left(\left[0 ; a_{k(j)-1}, \ldots, a_{k(j)-j}, \ldots, a_{1}\right]\right. \\
& \quad+[a_{k(j)} ; a_{k(j+1)}, \ldots, a_{k(j)+m}, \underbrace{\left.\left.R, \ldots, a_{k(j)+r(j)}, \ldots\right]\right)}_{n+\ldots, R} \\
& \quad-\left(\left[0 ; b_{-1}, \ldots, b_{-m}, \bar{L}\right]+\left[b_{0} ; b_{1}, \ldots, b_{m}, \bar{R}\right]\right)>\frac{1}{2} \delta_{m+(n+1) p} . \tag{8}
\end{align*}
$$

Considering the limit in (8) as $j \rightarrow \infty$, we can easily see that $\mu\left(\alpha_{n}\right) \geqslant \mu(\alpha)+\frac{1}{2} \delta_{m+(n+1) p}$.
Note that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \mu\left(\alpha_{n}\right)=\mu(\alpha)=a . \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Indeed, every pattern of length $n p$ which occurs in the sequence of partial quotients of $\alpha$ infinitely many times occurs in the sequence of partial quotients of $\alpha_{n}$ infinitely many times. Similarly, every pattern of
length $n p$ which occurs in the sequence of partial quotients of $\alpha_{n}$ infinitely many times, occurs in the sequence of partial quotients of $\alpha$ infinitely many times too. Then, by Lemma 4.4,

$$
\left|\mu(\alpha)-\mu\left(\alpha_{n}\right)\right|<2 \varepsilon_{n p}=2^{-n p+2} \rightarrow 0
$$

as $n \rightarrow \infty$. We obtain a contradiction with the fact that $a$ is the left endpoint of the gap $(a, b)$ in the Lagrange spectrum. Indeed, (8) implies that $\mu\left(\alpha_{n}\right)>\mu(\alpha)$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. In addition, (9) implies that there exists a positive integer $N$ such that for any $n>N$ one has $a=\mu(\alpha)<\mu\left(\alpha_{n}\right)<b$.

If (5) does not hold infinitely many times, then the inequality

$$
\left[0 ; a_{k(j-1)}, \ldots, a_{1}\right]>\left[0 ; b_{-1}, \ldots, b_{-m}, \bar{L}\right]
$$

holds infinitely many times. As $\alpha$ is not a quadratic irrationality, for any positive integer $s$ there exists an integer $N(s)>s$ such that for all $n \geqslant N(s)$ the continued fraction $\left[0 ; a_{n}, a_{n-1}, \ldots, a_{s}\right]$ is not convergent to the continued fraction $\left[0 ; b_{-1}, \ldots, b_{-m}, \bar{L}\right]$. Without loss of generality, one can say that $k(1)>N(1)$, $k(j+1)>N(2 k(j))$. Denote by $r(j)$ the minimal positive number such that $a_{k(j)-r(j)} \neq b_{-r(j)}$. It is easy to see that the number $r(j)$ is well-defined and

$$
r(j+1) \leqslant k(j+1)-N(2 k(j))<k(j+1)-2 k(j) .
$$

Therefore $k(j+1)-r(j+1)-k(j) \rightarrow \infty$ as $j \rightarrow \infty$. Now one can easily complete the proof using exactly the same argument as we used in the first case.

## 6. Proof of Theorem 3

First of all, let us show that $\left(\alpha_{n}^{*}, \beta_{n}\right)$ is the maximal gap in $\mathbb{L}$. As

$$
\beta_{n}=2+2[0 ; \underbrace{\overline{1, \ldots, 1,2}}_{2 n}]=\mu([0 ; \underbrace{\overline{1, \ldots, 1}, 2}_{2 n}]),
$$

we have $\beta_{n} \in \mathbb{L}$. The proof of the fact that $\alpha_{n}^{*} \in \mathbb{L}$ when $n \geqslant 2$ is a little more complicated. Recall that

$$
\alpha_{n}^{*}=2+[0 ; \underbrace{1, \ldots, 1}_{2 n-2}, \overline{2,2,1,2}]+[0 ; \underbrace{1, \ldots, 1}_{2 n-1}, 2, \underbrace{1, \ldots, 1}_{2 n-2}, \overline{2,2,1,2}] .
$$

Denote by $C_{n}(k)$ the finite sequence of integers

$$
C_{n}(k)=(\underbrace{2,1,2,2}_{k}, \underbrace{1, \ldots, 1}_{2 n-2}, 2, \underbrace{1, \ldots, 1}_{2 n-1}, 2, \underbrace{1, \ldots, 1}_{2 n-2}, \underbrace{2,2,1,2}_{k}) .
$$

A little calculation shows that

$$
L\left(\overline{C_{n}(k)}\right)=2+[0 ; \underbrace{1, \ldots, 1}_{2 n-2}, \underbrace{2,2,1,2}_{k}, \ldots]+[0 ; \underbrace{1, \ldots, 1}_{2 n-1}, 2, \underbrace{1, \ldots, 1}_{2 n-2}, \underbrace{2,2,1,2}_{k}, \ldots] .
$$

Therefore $\lim _{k \rightarrow \infty} L\left(\overline{C_{n}(k)}\right)=\alpha_{n}^{*}$. As $\mathbb{L}$ is closed set, we obtain that $\alpha_{n}^{*} \in \mathbb{L}$.
By [Gbur 1976, Lemma 4], $\alpha_{n}^{*}$ is a growing sequence. One can easily see that

$$
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \alpha_{n}^{*}=2+2[0 ; \overline{1}]=\sqrt{5}+1 \approx 3.236
$$

Thus, we have

$$
\alpha_{2}^{*} \leqslant \alpha_{n}^{*}<1+\sqrt{5}, \quad \text { where } n \geqslant 2 .
$$

The following lemma is a compilation of Lemmas 3 and 4 from [Gbur 1976].
Lemma 6.1. Consider a doubly infinite sequence $B=\left(\ldots, b_{-n}, \ldots, b_{-1}, b_{0}, b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n}, \ldots\right)$ such that $M(B)<\sqrt{5}+1$. Then all elements of $B$ are bounded by 2 and $B$ does not contain patterns of the form $(2,1,2,1)$ and $(1,2,1,2)$.

By Lemma 4.1, without loss of generality one can say that $M(B)=\lambda_{0}(B)$. Denote the continued fractions $\left[0 ; b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n}, \ldots\right]$ and $\left[0 ; b_{-1}, \ldots, b_{-n}, \ldots\right]$ by $x$ and $y$ respectively. Then

$$
M(B)=b_{0}+x+y
$$

Without loss of generality one can say that $x \leqslant y$. Now we need the following lemma from [Gbur 1976, Theorem 4(i)].

Lemma 6.2. Let $B$ be a doubly infinite sequence such that $M(B)=\lambda_{0}(B)$. Then for all $n \geqslant 1$ we have

$$
\beta_{n} \leqslant M(B)=2+x+y \leqslant \alpha_{n+1}^{*} \Longleftrightarrow x=[0 ; \underbrace{1, \ldots, 1}_{2 n}, 2, \ldots] \text { and } y=[0 ; \underbrace{1, \ldots, 1}_{2 n}, \ldots] .
$$

It also follows from [Gbur 1976, Theorem 4(ii)] that

$$
2+[0 ; \underbrace{1, \ldots, 1}_{2 n+1}, \ldots]+[0 ; \underbrace{1, \ldots, 1}_{2 n+1}, 2, \ldots]<\sqrt{5}+1 .
$$

Define

$$
\begin{aligned}
w_{0} & =[0 ; \overline{2,1,2,2}], \\
x_{0} & =[0 ; \underbrace{1, \ldots, 1}_{2 n}, \overline{2,2,1,2}]=[0 ; \underbrace{1, \ldots, 1}_{2 n}, 2+w_{0}], \\
y_{0} & =[0 ; \underbrace{1, \ldots, 1}_{2 n+1}, 2, \underbrace{1, \ldots, 1}_{2 n}, \overline{2,2,1,2}]=[0 ; \underbrace{1, \ldots, 1}_{2 n+1}, 2, \underbrace{1, \ldots, 1}_{2 n}, 2+w_{0}] .
\end{aligned}
$$

Lemma 6.3. Let $w=\left[0 ; a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{n}, \ldots\right]$ be a continued fraction with elements equal to 1 or 2 . Suppose that the sequence $\left(a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{n}, \ldots\right)$ does not contain the pattern $(2,1,2,1)$. Then $w \geqslant w_{0}$.
Proof. Denote the elements of the continued fraction $w_{0}=[0 ; \overline{2,1,2,2}]$ by $\left[0 ; a_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, a_{m}^{\prime}, \ldots\right]$. Denote by $r$ the minimal index such that $a_{r} \neq a_{r}^{\prime}$. Suppose that $w<w_{0}$. Then either $r$ is odd, $a_{r}=2, a_{r}^{\prime}=1$ or $r$ is even, $a_{r}=1, a_{r}^{\prime}=2$. However $a_{r}^{\prime}=2$ for any odd $r$; thus the first case leads to a contradiction. Consider the second case. Of course, $r \geqslant 4$. Then $a_{r-3}^{\prime}=a_{r-3}=2, a_{r-2}^{\prime}=a_{r-2}=1, a_{r-1}^{\prime}=a_{r-1}=2$. This means that $\left(a_{r-3}, a_{r-2}, a_{r-1}, a_{r}\right)=(2,1,2,1)$ and we obtain a contradiction.

Now we prove Theorem 3.
Proof. Suppose that $\alpha_{n}^{*}$ is admissible for some $n \geqslant 2$. Consider an attainable number $\alpha$ such that $\mu(\alpha)=\alpha_{n}^{*}$. Let $B=\left(\ldots, b_{-n}, \ldots, b_{-1}, b_{0}, b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n}, \ldots\right)$ be any sequence strongly associated with $\alpha$. Denote by $f$ the increasing function

$$
f(t)=[0 ; \underbrace{1, \ldots, 1}_{2 n+1}, 2+t] .
$$

By Lemma 6.2, there exist $0<v, w<1$ such that

$$
x=[0 ; \underbrace{1, \ldots, 1}_{2 n}, 2+v] \text { and } y=[0 ; \underbrace{1, \ldots, 1}_{2 n-1}, 1+w] .
$$

Note that $x \leqslant x_{0}$. Indeed,

$$
x=[0 ; \underbrace{1, \ldots, 1}_{2 n}, 2+v] \leqslant[0 ; \underbrace{1, \ldots, 1}_{2 n}, 2+w_{0}]=x_{0} \Longleftrightarrow v \geqslant w_{0} .
$$

The last equality follows from Lemmas 6.3 and 6.1. Therefore

$$
y=[0 ; \underbrace{1, \ldots, 1}_{2 n-1}, 1+w] \geqslant y_{0}=f\left(x_{0}\right) .
$$

In particular, $b_{-2 n-1}=1, b_{-2 n-2}=2$ and there exists $0<v \leqslant x_{0}$ such that $y=f(v) \geqslant f\left(x_{0}\right)$. Hence $v \geqslant x_{0}$. On the other hand,

$$
2+v+f(x)=\lambda_{-2 n-2}(B) \leqslant M(B)=\lambda_{0}(B)=2+x+f(v)
$$

As $|f(y)-f(z)|<|y-z|$ for any $0<y, z<1$, one can easily see that $v \leqslant x$. Thus, $v=x=x_{0}$ and $y=y_{0}$. Hence the sequence $B$ satisfies

$$
B=(\overline{2,1,2,2}, \underbrace{1, \ldots, 1}_{2 n}, 2, \underbrace{1, \ldots, 1}_{2 n+1}, 2, \underbrace{1, \ldots, 1}_{2 n}, \overline{2,2,1,2})
$$

and is not purely periodic. We obtain a contradiction with Corollary 3.1 , as we supposed $B$ to be an arbitrary sequence strongly associated with $\alpha$.

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