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# Minimum Degree and Density of Binary Sequences 

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#### Abstract

For $d, k \in \mathbb{N}$ with $k \leq 2 d$, let $g(d, k)$ denote the infimum density of binary sequences $\left(x_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{Z}} \in\{0,1\}^{\mathbb{Z}}$ which satisfy the minimum degree condition $\sum_{j=1}^{d}\left(x_{i+j}+\right.$ $\left.x_{i-j}\right) \geq k$ for all $i \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $x_{i}=1$. We reduce the problem to determine $g(d, k)$ to a combinatorial problem related to the generalized $k$-girth of a graph $G$ which is defined as the minimum order of an induced subgraph of $G$ of minimum degree at least $k$. Extending results of Kézdy and Markert, and of Bermond and Peyrat, we present a minimum mean cycle formulation which allows to determine $g(d, k)$ for small values of $d$ and $k$. For odd values of $k$ with $d+1 \leq k \leq 2 d$, we conjecture $g(d, k)=\frac{k^{2}-1}{2(d k-1)}$ and show that this holds for $k \geq 2 d-3$.


Keywords: Minimum degree; density; binary sequence; girth; generalized girth; power of cycle

## Proposed running head: "Degree and Density of Sequences"

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## 1 Introduction

Let $d \in \mathbb{N}$ be fixed. For a two-way infinite binary sequence

$$
X=\left(x_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{Z}}=\left(\ldots, x_{-1}, x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots\right) \in\{0,1\}^{\mathbb{Z}}
$$

we define the minimum degree $\delta(X)$ of $X$ as

$$
\delta(X)=\min \left\{\sum_{j=1}^{d}\left(x_{i+j}+x_{i-j}\right) \mid i \in \mathbb{Z}, x_{i}=1\right\} .
$$

If $x_{i}=0$ for all $i \in \mathbb{Z}$, then we write $X=0$ and call $X$ trivial.
For $k \in \mathbb{N}$ with $k \leq 2 d$, we consider the infimum density $g(d, k)$ of non-trivial binary sequences subject to a minimum degree condition defined as

$$
g(d, k)=\inf \left\{\left.\liminf _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2 n+1} \sum_{i=-n}^{n} x_{i} \right\rvert\, X=\left(x_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{Z}} \in\{0,1\}^{\mathbb{Z}}, X \neq 0, \delta(X) \geq k\right\}
$$

Considering the binary sequence $\left(x_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{Z}}$ with $x_{i}=1$ if and only if $1 \leq i \leq k+1$, it follows that $g(d, k)=0$ for $k \leq d$. While for such values of $k$, the calculation of $g(d, k)$ is trivial, for $k \geq d+1$, the calculation of $g(d, k)$ leads to an interesting combinatorial problem.

We prove as our first result that we can restrict ourselves to periodic sequences whose period is bounded in terms of $d$. Note that $g(d, 2 d)=1$ for all $d \in \mathbb{N}$.

Theorem 1 Let $d, k \in \mathbb{N}$ with $d \geq 2$ and $d+1 \leq k \leq 2 d$. There is a non-trivial periodic binary sequence $X=\left(x_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{Z}}$ whose period $p$ is at most $d 2^{2 d+1}$ such that $\delta(X) \geq k$ and

$$
g(d, k)=\frac{1}{p} \sum_{j=1}^{p} x_{j} .
$$

Proof: Let $0<\epsilon<\frac{1}{3}$. Let $X=\left(x_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{Z}}$ be a non-trivial binary sequence such that $\delta(X) \geq k$ and $\liminf _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2 n+1} \sum_{j=-n}^{n} x_{j} \leq g(d, k)+\epsilon$. Since $x_{i}=1$ for infinitely many $i \in \mathbb{Z}$, we have

$$
\liminf _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2 n+1} \sum_{j=-n}^{n} x_{j} \geq \frac{1}{2}\left(\liminf _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} x_{j}+\liminf _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} x_{-j}\right)
$$

By symmetry, we may assume that $\liminf _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} x_{j} \leq g(d, k)+\epsilon$.
Note that $\delta(X) \geq k \geq d+1$ implies that $X$ does not contain $d$ consecutive 0 -entries.
We call some $n \in \mathbb{N} \operatorname{good}$ if

- $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} x_{j} \leq g(d, k)+2 \epsilon$ and
- $\left(x_{j_{1}}, x_{j_{1}+1}, \ldots, x_{j_{1}+2 d-1}\right)=\left(x_{j_{2}}, x_{j_{2}+1}, \ldots, x_{j_{2}+2 d-1}\right)$ for some $1 \leq j_{1} \leq\lfloor\epsilon n\rfloor-2 d+1$ and $n-\lfloor\epsilon n\rfloor+1 \leq j_{2} \leq n-2 d+1$.

Claim There are infinitely many good $n \in \mathbb{N}$.
Proof of the claim: Let $n_{1}, n_{2}, \ldots, n_{2^{2 d}} \in \mathbb{N}$ be such that $\frac{1}{n_{i}} \sum_{j=1}^{n_{i}} x_{j} \leq g(d, k)+2 \epsilon$ for $1 \leq i \leq$ $2^{2 d}, 2 d \leq\left\lfloor\epsilon n_{1}\right\rfloor$, and $n_{i} \leq\left\lfloor\epsilon n_{i+1}\right\rfloor$ for $1 \leq i \leq 2^{2 d}-1$. Clearly, it suffices to prove that one of the $n_{i}$ 's is good. For contradiction, we assume that all $n_{i}$ 's are bad. Inductively, this implies that for $1 \leq i \leq 2^{2 d}$, the sequence $\left(x_{j}\right)_{j \in\left\{1,2, \ldots,\left\lfloor n_{i}\right\}\right\}}$ contains $i$ distinct subsequences of the form $\left(x_{j}, x_{j+1}, \ldots, x_{j+2 d-1}\right)$ with $1 \leq j \leq\left\lfloor\epsilon n_{i}\right\rfloor-2 d+1$ which are different from all subsequences of the form $\left(x_{j}, x_{j+1}, \ldots, x_{j+2 d-1}\right)$ with $n_{i}-\left\lfloor\epsilon n_{i}\right\rfloor+1 \leq j \leq n_{i}-2 d+1$. Since there are exactly $2^{2 d}$ distinct binary sequences of length $d$, this is impossible for $i=2^{2 d}$, which completes the proof of the claim.

Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$ be good. Let $\left(x_{j_{1}}, x_{j_{1}+1}, \ldots, x_{j_{1}+2 d-1}\right)=\left(x_{j_{2}}, x_{j_{2}+1}, \ldots, x_{j_{2}+2 d-1}\right)$ for $1 \leq j_{1} \leq$ $\lfloor\epsilon n\rfloor-2 d+1$ and $n-\lfloor\epsilon n\rfloor+1 \leq j_{2} \leq n-2 d+1$.

The non-trivial periodic binary sequence $X^{\prime}=\left(x_{i}^{\prime}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{Z}}$ with $x_{i}^{\prime}=x_{i}$ for $j_{1}+2 d \leq i \leq$ $j_{2}+2 d-1$ of period $p^{\prime}=j_{2}-j_{1}$ satisfies $\delta\left(X^{\prime}\right) \geq k$ and

$$
\frac{1}{p^{\prime}} \sum_{j=1}^{p^{\prime}} x_{j}^{\prime} \leq \frac{1}{1-2 \epsilon}(g(d, k)+2 \epsilon) .
$$

If $p^{\prime}>2 d 2^{2 d}$, then the pigeonhole principle implies the existence of indices $1 \leq j_{1}, j_{2} \leq p^{\prime}$ with $\left(x_{j_{1}}^{\prime}, x_{j_{1}+1}^{\prime}, \ldots, x_{j_{1}+2 d-1}^{\prime}\right)=\left(x_{j_{2}}^{\prime}, x_{j_{2}+1}^{\prime}, \ldots, x_{j_{2}+2 d-1}^{\prime}\right)$ and $j_{1}+2 d \leq j_{2} \leq j_{1}+p^{\prime}-2 d$. Let $X^{\prime \prime}=\left(x_{i}^{\prime \prime}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{Z}}$ be the non-trivial $p^{\prime \prime}$-periodic binary sequence with $x_{i}^{\prime \prime}=x_{i}^{\prime}$ for $j_{1}+2 d \leq$ $i \leq j_{2}+2 d-1$ with $p^{\prime \prime}=j_{2}-j_{1}$. Similarly, let $X^{\prime \prime \prime}=\left(x_{i}^{\prime \prime \prime}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{Z}}$ be the non-trivial $p^{\prime \prime \prime}$-periodic binary sequence with $x_{i}^{\prime \prime \prime}=x_{i}^{\prime}$ for $j_{2}+2 d \leq i \leq j_{1}+p^{\prime}+2 d-1$ with $p^{\prime \prime \prime}=j_{1}+p^{\prime}-j_{2}$. Clearly, $p^{\prime \prime}, p^{\prime \prime \prime}<p^{\prime}, \delta\left(X^{\prime \prime}\right), \delta\left(X^{\prime \prime \prime}\right) \geq k$, and either $\frac{1}{p^{\prime \prime}} \sum_{j=1}^{p^{\prime \prime}} x_{j}^{\prime \prime} \leq \frac{1}{1-2 \epsilon}(g(d, k)+2 \epsilon)$ or $\frac{1}{p^{\prime \prime \prime}} \sum_{j=1}^{p^{\prime \prime \prime}} x_{j}^{\prime \prime \prime} \leq$ $\frac{1}{1-2 \epsilon}(g(d, k)+2 \epsilon)$. This implies that for every $0<\epsilon<\frac{1}{3}$, there is a non-trivial periodic binary sequence $X=\left(x_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{Z}}$ whose period $p$ is at most $d 2^{2 d+1}$ such that $\delta(X) \geq k$ and $\frac{1}{p} \sum_{j=1}^{p} x_{j} \leq \frac{1}{1-2 \epsilon}(g(d, k)+2 \epsilon)$. Since for every such sequence $X$, the quantity $\frac{1}{p} \sum_{j=1}^{p} x_{j}$ is a rational number whose denominator is bounded by $d 2^{2 d+1}$, the desired result follows.

For the further investigations, it is more convenient to consider a cyclic binary sequence

$$
X=\left(x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{p-1}\right)=x_{0} x_{1} \ldots x_{p-1}
$$

of length $p$ instead of a periodic binary sequence $\left(x_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{Z}}$ with period $p$. As usual, we will consider indices modulo the length $p$. We say that an entry $x_{i}$ of $X$ sees another entry $x_{j}$ of $X$ if the cyclic distance of $x_{i}$ and $x_{j}$ is at least 1 and at most $d$. To avoid double-counting,
we define the minimum degree $\delta(X)$ of $X$ as the minimum number of distinct 1-entries of $X$ seen by a 1-entry of $X$. Furthermore, we define the density $\mu(X)$ of $X$ as

$$
\mu(X)=\frac{1}{p} \sum_{j=1}^{p} x_{j} .
$$

With these notions, Theorem 1 implies that $g(d, k)$ equals the minimum density of a nontrivial cyclic binary sequence $X$ of length at most $d 2^{2 d+1}$ and minimum degree $\delta(X) \geq k$.

Our original motivation to study $g(d, k)$ comes from graph theory: For a finite, simple and undirected graph $G=(V, E)$ and $k \in \mathbb{N}$, the $k$-girth $g_{k}(G)$ of $G$ is the minimum order of an induced subgraph of $G$ of minimum degree at least $k$. The notion of $k$-girth was proposed and studied by Erdős et al. [3-5] and Bollobás and Brightwell [2]. It generalizes the usual girth, the length of a shortest cycle, which coincides with the 2-girth.

Kézdy and Markert studied bounds on this generalized girth [7, 8]. They conjectured that the $d$-th power of the cycle of length $n \geq 2 d+1$, denoted by $C_{n}^{d}$, is the $2 d$-regular graph with largest $(d+1)$-girth [8] (see also Chapter 5 of [7]). During the 1988 SIAM conference, Kézdy [6] posed the problem to determine the exact value of the $(d+1)$-girth of $C_{n}^{d}$. For odd values of $d$, this problem was solved by Bermond and Peyrat [1] who proved that for $d+1 \leq k \leq 2 d$, the $k$-girth of $C_{n}^{d}$ satisfies

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{g_{k}\left(C_{n}^{d}\right)}{n} \geq \frac{k}{2 d} . \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

The bound (1) is best-possible whenever $k$ is even in view of the induced subgraph of $C_{n}^{d}$ where $n$ is a multiple of $d$ and which alternately contains $\frac{k}{2}$ consecutive vertices of $C_{n}^{d}$ and does not contain the next $d-\frac{k}{2}$ consecutive vertices of $C_{n}^{d}$. For odd values of $k$, Bermond and Peyrat mentioned results for some small values of $d$ and $k$, and proved the best-possible estimate $\frac{g_{2 d-1}\left(C_{n}^{d}\right)}{n} \geq \frac{2 d}{2 d+1}$.

An induced subgraph $G$ of $C_{n}^{d}$ can be conveniently identified with a cyclic binary sequence $X=\left(x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n-1}\right)$ of length $n$ where 1-entries correspond to vertices of $C_{n}^{d}$ which belong to $G$ and 0 -entries correspond to vertices of $C_{n}^{d}$ which do not belong to $G$. This correspondence implies that $g(d, k)$ equals the minimum $k$-girth of the $d$-th power of cycles, i.e.

$$
g(d, k)=\min \left\{\left.\frac{g_{k}\left(C_{n}^{d}\right)}{n} \right\rvert\, n \geq 3\right\} .
$$

The above-mentioned results of Bermond and Peyrat imply that $g(d, k)=\frac{k}{2 d}$ for $d+1 \leq k \leq$ $2 d$ with even $k$ and that $g(d, 2 d-1)=\frac{2 d}{2 d+1}$. Kézdy and Markert determined $g(4,5)=\frac{12}{19}$ and $g(6,7)=\frac{24}{41}$ with the help of a computer. Bermond and Peyrat [1] claimed that $g(5,7)=\frac{5}{7}$ which is not correct (see Section 2). Furthermore, they conjectured that

$$
g(d, k)=\frac{d(2 d+3-k)}{2\left(d^{2}-(k-d-2) d-(k-d)\right)}
$$

for $d+1 \leq k \leq 2 d$ with $k$ odd. Since this expression is less than $\frac{k}{2 d}$ if and only if $\left|k-\frac{3 d}{2}\right|<\frac{d}{2} \sqrt{1-\frac{4}{d+1}}$, this conjecture is obviously not correct in view of (1).

Our results are as follows. In Section 2, we explain how for fixed values of $d$ and $k$, the problem to determine $g(d, k)$ can be reduced to a minimum mean cycle problem on a suitably defined directed graph with arc costs. This allows to determine $g(d, k)$ and also the structure of optimal subgraphs of $C_{n}^{d}$ for many small values of $d$ and $k$ and motivates a corresponding conjecture explained in Section 3. Moreover, in Section 4, we prove as our main result that our conjecture is true for $k=2 d-3$, i.e. we determine $g(d, 2 d-3)$.

## 2 Minimum Mean Cycle Formulation

Given a directed graph $D=(V, A)$ and a cost function $c: A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, a minimum mean cycle is a directed cycle

$$
C: v_{1} v_{2} \ldots v_{n} v_{1}
$$

in $D$ for which

$$
\bar{c}(A(C))=\frac{1}{n} \sum_{a \in A(C)} c(a)
$$

is minimum. Karp [9] observed that a minimum mean cycle can be found efficiently using shortest path methods.

For $d \in \mathbb{N}$ and $d+1 \leq k \leq 2 d$, let $D=(V, A)$ be the directed graph whose vertex set $V$ consists of all binary sequences

$$
\left(x_{-d}, \ldots, x_{-1}, x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{d}\right)
$$

of length $2 d+1$ with $x_{0}=1$ and $\sum_{i=1}^{d}\left(x_{i}+x_{-i}\right) \geq k$ and which contains a directed arc $(x, y)$ of $\operatorname{cost} c((x, y))=-i^{*}$ from a vertex $x=\left(x_{-d}, \ldots, x_{d}\right)$ to a vertex $y=\left(y_{-d}, \ldots, y_{d}\right)$ exactly if

$$
\left(x_{i^{*}-d}, \ldots, x_{0}, \ldots, x_{i^{*}}, \ldots, x_{d}\right)=\left(y_{-d}, \ldots, y_{-i^{*}}, \ldots, y_{0}, \ldots, y_{d-i^{*}}\right)
$$

for $i^{*}=\min \left\{i \mid 1 \leq i \leq d, x_{i}=1\right\}$. Note that $i^{*}$ is well-defined and that the last condition implies that $x$ and $y$ can be suitably overlayed, i.e. there is a binary sequence $z$ of length $2 d+1+i^{*}$ such that $x$ corresponds to the first $2 d+1$ entries of $z$ and $y$ corresponds to the last $2 d+1$ entries of $z$. See Figure 1 for an illustration.

Theorem 2 If $D$ and $c$ are as above and $C$ is a minimum mean cycle of $D$, then

$$
g(d, k)=-\frac{1}{\bar{c}(A(C))}
$$



Figure 1: Induced subgraph of the directed graph $D$ for $d=4$ and $k=5$.

Proof: Clearly, for every directed cycle $C: v_{1} v_{2} \ldots v_{n} v_{1}$ in $D$, suitably overlaying the sequences $v_{1}, v_{2}, \ldots, v_{n}$ - as $x$ and $y$ above - results in a cyclic binary sequence $X$ with $\delta(X) \geq k$. Since the number of 1-entries of $X$ equals $n$ and the length of $X$ equals $-\sum_{a \in A(C)} c(a)$, we obtain $\mu(X)=-\frac{1}{\bar{c}(A(C))}$.

Conversely, if $X$ is a cyclic binary sequence with $\delta(X) \geq k$, the sequences of length $2 d+1$ centered at the consecutive 1-entries of $X$ define a directed closed walk $W$ in $D$. By Euler's theorem, $W$ contains a directed cycle $C$ with $\bar{c}(A(C)) \leq \bar{c}(A(W))$. Since the length of $W$ equals the number of 1-entries of $X$ and the length of $X$ is $-\sum_{a \in A(C)} c(a)$, we obtain $\bar{c}(A(C)) \leq \bar{c}(A(W))=-\frac{1}{\mu(X)}$.

These two observations clearly imply the desired result.
Table 1 summarizes some explicit values of $g(d, k)$ obtained by this approach together with realizing cyclic binary sequences. In fact, we determined optimal sequences for all values of $d$ and $d+1 \leq k \leq 2 d$ with $d \leq 13, k \geq 2 d-7$, and $k$ odd. For $(d, k)=(5,7)$ for example, we obtained $g(5,7)=\frac{24}{34}$, and a realizing cyclic binary sequence is

$$
(1,1,1,0,1,1,1,1,0,1,0,1,1,0,1,1,1,1,0,1,1,0,1,0,1,1,1,1,0,1,1,1,0,0) \text {, }
$$

which we write shortly as $1^{3} 01^{4} 0101^{2} 01^{4} 01^{2} 0101^{4} 01^{3} 0^{2}$.

| $2 d-k$ | $(d, k)$ | $g(d, k)$ | Optimal cyclic sequences, candidates for $\mathbf{u}$ highlighted |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 3 | $(4,5)$ | 12/19 | $\mathbf{1}^{\mathbf{2}} \mathbf{0 1} 1^{2} 010 \mathbf{1 0 1}^{\mathbf{2}} 101^{2} 0^{2}$ |
|  | $(5,7)$ | 24/34 | $\mathbf{1}^{\mathbf{3}} \mathbf{0 1} 1^{3} 010 \mathbf{1}^{\mathbf{2}} \mathbf{0 1}^{\mathbf{2}} 1^{2} 01^{2} 0 \mathbf{1 0 1}^{\mathbf{3}} 101^{3} 0^{2}$ |
|  | $(6,9)$ | 40/53 | $\mathbf{1}^{4} \mathbf{0 1} 1^{4} 010 \mathbf{1}^{\mathbf{3}} \mathbf{0 1}^{\mathbf{2}} 1^{3} 01^{2} 0 \mathbf{1}^{\mathbf{2}} \mathbf{0 1} \mathbf{1}^{\mathbf{3}} 1^{2} 01^{3} 0 \mathbf{1 0 1}^{\mathbf{4}} 101^{4} 0^{2}$ |
|  | $(7,11)$ | 60/76 | $\mathbf{1}^{5} 011^{5} 0101^{4} 01^{2} 1^{4} 01^{2} 01^{\mathbf{3}} \mathbf{0 1}^{\mathbf{3}} 1^{3} 01^{3} 0 \mathbf{1}^{\mathbf{2}} \mathbf{0 1}^{4} 1^{2} 01^{4} 0 \mathbf{1 0 1}^{5} 101^{5} 0^{2}$ |
| 5 | $(6,7)$ | 24/41 | $\mathbf{1 0}^{\mathbf{2}} \mathbf{1}^{\mathbf{3}} 10^{2} 1^{3} 0^{3} \mathbf{1}^{\mathbf{3}} \mathbf{0}^{\mathbf{2}} \mathbf{1} 1^{3} 0^{2} 10 \mathbf{1}^{\mathbf{2}} \mathbf{0}^{\mathbf{2}} \mathbf{1}^{\mathbf{2}} 1^{2} 0^{2} 1^{2} 0$ |
|  |  |  | 101 ${ }^{2} 01101^{2} 010^{2} \mathbf{1}^{2} 01011^{2} 0101010101^{2} 10101^{2} 0^{2}$ |
|  | $(7,9)$ |  | $\mathbf{1}^{\mathbf{4}} \mathbf{0}^{\mathbf{2}} \mathbf{1} 1^{4} 0^{2} 10 \mathbf{1}^{\mathbf{3}} \mathbf{0}^{\mathbf{2}} \mathbf{1}^{\mathbf{2}} 1^{3} 0^{2} 1^{2} 0 \mathbf{1}^{\mathbf{2}} \mathbf{0}^{\mathbf{2}} \mathbf{1}^{\mathbf{3}} 1^{2} 0^{2} 1^{3} 0 \mathbf{1 0}^{\mathbf{2}} \mathbf{1}^{\mathbf{4}} 10^{2} 1^{4} 0^{3}$ |
|  |  |  | $\mathbf{1}^{\mathbf{3}} \mathbf{0 1 0 1} 1^{3} 01010 \mathbf{1}^{\mathbf{2}} \mathbf{0 1 0 1}^{\mathbf{2}} 1^{2} 0101^{2} 0 \mathbf{1 0 1 0 1}^{\mathbf{3}} 10101^{3} 0^{2} \mathbf{1 0 1}^{\mathbf{3}} \mathbf{0 1} 101^{3} 010^{2}$ |
|  |  | 20/31 | $\mathbf{1 0 1}^{\mathbf{2}} \mathbf{0 1}^{\mathbf{2}} 101^{2} 01^{2} 0^{2} \mathbf{1}^{\mathbf{2}} \mathbf{0 1}^{\mathbf{2}} \mathbf{0 1} 1^{2} 01^{2} 010$ |
| 7 | $(8,9)$ | 40/71 | $\mathbf{1}^{\mathbf{4}} \mathbf{0}^{\mathbf{3}} \mathbf{1} 1^{4} 0^{3} 10 \mathbf{1}^{\mathbf{3}} \mathbf{0}^{\mathbf{3}} \mathbf{1}^{\mathbf{2}} 1^{3} 0^{3} 1^{2} 0 \mathbf{1}^{\mathbf{2}} \mathbf{0}^{\mathbf{3}} \mathbf{1}^{\mathbf{3}} 1^{2} 0^{3} 1^{3} 0 \mathbf{1 0}^{\mathbf{3}} \mathbf{1}^{\mathbf{4}} 10^{3} 1^{4} 0^{4}$ |
|  |  |  | $\mathbf{1}^{\mathbf{2}} \mathbf{0}^{\mathbf{2}} \mathbf{1}^{\mathbf{2}} \mathbf{0} 11^{2} 0^{2} 1^{2} 010 \mathbf{1 0}^{\mathbf{2}} \mathbf{1}^{\mathbf{2}} \mathbf{0} \mathbf{1}^{\mathbf{2}} 10^{2} 1^{2} 01^{2} 0^{3} \mathbf{1}^{\mathbf{2}} \mathbf{0} \mathbf{1}^{\mathbf{2}} \mathbf{0}^{\mathbf{2}} \mathbf{1} 1^{2} 01^{2} 0^{2} 10 \ldots$ |
|  |  |  | $\mathbf{1 0 1}^{\mathbf{3}} \mathbf{0}^{\mathbf{2}} \mathbf{1} 101^{3} 0^{2} 10^{2} \mathbf{1}^{\mathbf{3}} \mathbf{0}^{\mathbf{2}} \mathbf{1 0 1} 1^{3} 0^{2} 1010 \mathbf{1}^{\mathbf{2}} \mathbf{0}^{\mathbf{2}} \mathbf{1 0 1}^{\mathbf{2}} 1^{2} 0^{2} 101^{2} 0 \ldots$ |
|  |  |  | 101 ${ }^{\mathbf{2}} \mathbf{0 1 0 1} 101^{2} 01010^{2} \mathbf{1}^{\mathbf{2}} \mathbf{0 1 0 1 0 1} 1^{2} 0101010 \mathbf{1 0 1 0 1 0 1}^{\mathbf{2}} 1010101^{2} 0^{2}$ |

Table 1

## 3 A Conjecture for $g(d, k)$

We have observed that all optimal sequences that we have computed can be obtained by applying a uniform construction rule.

Let $U$ be the set of finite binary sequences starting and ending with a 1 . For $\mathbf{u} \in U$ with $\mathbf{u}=10^{a} \mathbf{v}$ for some $\mathbf{v} \in U$, the shift operation $s$ applied to $\mathbf{u}$ results in $s(\mathbf{u})=\mathbf{v} 0^{a} 1$, i.e. it removes all entries of $\mathbf{u}$ before the second 1 and appends them at the end in reverse order. For $\mathbf{u}=11101$, for example, we obtain

$$
s(\mathbf{u})=11011, s^{2}(\mathbf{u})=s(s(\mathbf{u}))=10111, \text { and } s^{3}(\mathbf{u})=11101=\mathbf{u}
$$

For $d, k \in \mathbb{N}$ with $d+1 \leq k \leq 2 d$ and $k$ odd, let $U_{k}^{d}$ be the set of those sequences in $U$ with length $d$ and exactly $l=\frac{k+1}{2}$ many 1 -entries.

Note that for $\mathbf{u} \in U_{k}^{d}$, we have $s^{l-1}(\mathbf{u})=\mathbf{u}$.
The shifted sequence for $\mathbf{u}$ is the concatenation

$$
X(\mathbf{u})=\mathbf{u u} 0^{a_{1}+1} s(\mathbf{u}) s(\mathbf{u}) 0^{a_{2}+1} \ldots 0^{a_{l-2}+1} s^{l-2}(\mathbf{u}) s^{l-2}(\mathbf{u}) 0^{a_{l-1}+1}
$$

where $a_{i}$ is the number of 0 s between the $i$-th and $(i+1)$-st 1 -entry of $\mathbf{u}$, i.e. $\mathbf{u}=$ $10^{a_{1}} 10^{a_{2}} 1 \ldots 10^{a_{l-1}} 1$. For $\mathbf{u}=11011 \in U_{7}^{5}$, we have

$$
X(\mathbf{u})=1101111011010111101110011101111010
$$

which is a cyclic shift of the sequence for $(5,7)$ in Table 1.
A subsequence of consecutive entries of a cyclic binary sequence is called an interval.
Lemma 3 Let $d, k \in \mathbb{N}$ be such that $d+1 \leq k \leq 2 d$ and $k$ is odd. Let $\mathbf{u} \in U_{k}^{d}$.
(i) $X(\mathbf{u})$ has length $d k-1$,
(ii) $\mu(X(\mathbf{u}))=\frac{k^{2}-1}{2(d k-1)}$,
(iii) $\delta(X(\mathbf{u}))=k$, and
(iv) $g(d, k) \leq \mu(X(\mathbf{u}))$.

Proof: Let $\mathbf{u}=10^{a_{1}} 10^{a_{2}} 1 \ldots 10^{a_{l-1}} 1$. The length of $X(\mathbf{u})$ equals

$$
(l-1) 2 d+\sum_{i=1}^{l-1}\left(a_{i}+1\right)=(k-1) d+(d-1)=d k-1 .
$$

Furthermore, $X(\mathbf{u})$ contains $(l-1) 2 l=\frac{k^{2}-1}{2}$ many 1-entries. This implies (i) and (ii).
Note that the shifted sequences for $\mathbf{u}$ and for $s(\mathbf{u})$ are cyclic translates of each other. Furthermore, note that the reverse of a shifted sequence is also the cyclic translate of a shifted sequence. Therefore, in order to prove (iii), it suffices to consider the 1-entries within the first copy of $s(\mathbf{u})$ in $X(\mathbf{u})$.

By definition, the interval of $X(\mathbf{u})$ of length $2 d+1$ centered at the first 1-entry of the first copy of $s(\mathbf{u})$ within $X(\mathbf{u})$ equals (the central entry is highlighted)

$$
10^{a_{2}} 1 \ldots 10^{a_{l-2}} 10^{a_{l-1}} 10^{a_{1}+1} 10^{a_{2}} 10^{a_{3}} 1 \ldots 10^{a_{l-1}} 10^{a_{1}} 11 .
$$

Hence this 1 -entry sees $(l-1) 1$-entries to the left and $l 1$-entries to the right, i.e. it sees $2 l-1=k 1$-entries.

For $2 \leq i \leq l-2$, the interval of $X(\mathbf{u})$ of length $2 d+1$ centered at the $i$-th 1-entry of the first copy of $s(\mathbf{u})$ within $X(\mathbf{u})$ equals

$$
10^{a_{i+1}} 1 \ldots 10^{a_{l-1}} 10^{a_{1}+1} 10^{a_{2}} 1 \ldots 10^{a_{i}} 10^{a_{i+1}} 1 \ldots 10^{a_{l-1}} 10^{a_{1}} 110^{a_{2}} 1 \ldots 10^{a_{i}} 1 .
$$

Again this 1 -entry sees $2 l-1=k$ 1-entries.
The interval of $X(\mathbf{u})$ of length $2 d+1$ centered at the $(l-1)$-th 1-entry of the first copy of $s(\mathbf{u})$ within $X(\mathbf{u})$ equals $10^{a_{1}+1} 10^{a_{2}} 1 \ldots 10^{a_{l-1}} 10^{a_{1}} 110^{a_{2}} 1 \ldots 10^{a_{l-1}} 1$. Again this 1-entry sees $2 l-1=k$ 1-entries.

The interval of $X(\mathbf{u})$ of length $2 d+1$ centered at the $l$-th 1-entry of the first copy of $s(\mathbf{u})$ within $X(\mathbf{u})$ equals $010^{a_{2}} 1 \ldots 10^{a_{l-1}} 10^{a_{1}} \mathbf{1} s(\mathbf{u})$. Again this 1-entry sees $2 l-1=k$ 1-entries.
(iv) follows immediately from (ii) and (iii).

We pose the following conjecture.
Conjecture 4 If $d \in \mathbb{N}$ and $d+1 \leq k \leq 2 d$ are such that $k$ is odd, then

$$
g(d, k)=\frac{k^{2}-1}{2(d k-1)}
$$

Furthermore, a cyclic binary sequence $X$ with $\delta(X) \geq k$ has density $g(d, k)$ if and only if $X$ is the concatenation of copies of a shifted sequence $X(\mathbf{u})$ for some $\mathbf{u} \in U_{k}^{d}$.

The case $k=2 d-1$ of Conjecture 4 follows from the results and arguments in [1]. In this case $U_{2 d-1}^{d}$ contains only the element $\mathbf{u}=1^{d}$ and $X(\mathbf{u})=1^{2 d} 01^{2 d} 0 \ldots 1^{2 d} 0$.

Since we will prove Conjecture 4 for $k=2 d-3$, it is useful to consider the structure of $X(\mathbf{u})$ for $\mathbf{u} \in U_{2 d-3}^{d}$. In this case, $\mathbf{u}$ is a sequence of length $d$ containing $(d-1) 1$-entries. If $\mathbf{u}^{*}=10^{a_{1}} 10^{a_{2}} 1 \ldots 10^{a_{l-1}} 1$ with $a_{1}=\ldots=a_{l-2}=0$ and $a_{l-1}=1$, then $\mathbf{u}^{*}=1^{d-2} 01$ and

$$
\begin{aligned}
X\left(\mathbf{u}^{*}\right) & =1^{d-2} 011^{d-2} 0101^{d-3} 01^{2} 1^{d-3} 01^{2} 0 \ldots 101^{d-2} 101^{d-2} 0^{2} \\
& =1^{d-2} 01^{d-1} 0101^{d-3} 01^{d-1} 01^{2} 01^{d-4} 01^{d-1} 01^{3} 0 \ldots 101^{d-1} 01^{d-2} 0^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

Since for every $\mathbf{u} \in U_{2 d-3}^{d}$, there is some $i$ with $s^{i}\left(\mathbf{u}^{*}\right)=\mathbf{u}$, every shifted sequence $X(\mathbf{u})$ for $\mathbf{u} \in U_{2 d-3}^{d}$ arises from $X\left(\mathbf{u}^{*}\right)$ by a cyclic shift. In this sense, the conjectured extremal sequences are unique.

## 4 The Value of $g(d, 2 d-3)$

Throughout this section let $d \geq 4$ and let $\mathcal{X}$ be the set of cyclic binary sequences $X$ with $\delta(X) \geq 2 d-3$. This section is devoted to the proof of Conjecture 4 for $k=2 d-3$, i.e. we will prove the following result.

Theorem 5 Every $X \in \mathcal{X}$ satisfies $\mu(X) \geq \frac{(2 d-3)^{2}-1}{2((2 d-3) d-1)}$. Equality holds if and only if $X$ is the concatenation of shifted sequences $X\left(\mathbf{u}^{*}\right)$ with $\mathbf{u}^{*}=1^{d-2} 01$.

Before proving Theorem 5, we investigate structural properties of sequences in $\mathcal{X}$. Let

$$
X=\left(x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n-1}\right)=x_{0} x_{1} \ldots x_{n-1} \in \mathcal{X} \text { with } n \geq 2 d+1
$$

Recall that an entry $x_{i}$ of $X$ sees another entry $x_{j}$ of $X$, if $x_{j}$ is in one of the intervals $x_{i-d} x_{i-d+1} \ldots x_{i-1}$ or $x_{i+1} x_{i+2} \ldots x_{i+d}$. We call $x_{i}$ regular if it sees exactly $(2 d-3) 1$-entries and hence exactly three 0 -entries. We first show that all irregular entries see more than $(2 d-3) 1$-entries and describe the local structure around regular 0-entries.

## Lemma 6

(i) All entries of $X$ see at most three 0 -entries.
(ii) For every regular 0-entry $x_{i}$, either $x_{i+1}=x_{i+d}=0$, or $x_{i-1}=x_{i-d}=0$, or $x_{i-d}=$ $x_{i+d}=0$.

Proof: (i): By assumption, all 1-entries of $X$ see at most three 0-entries. For contradiction, we assume that some 0 -entry of $X$ sees more than three 0 -entries. This implies that $X$ has an interval $X^{\prime}=10^{a} 1$ such that some 0 -entry of $X^{\prime}$ sees at least four 0 -entries. Since $d \geq 4$ and each of the two 1 -entries of $X^{\prime}$ see at most three 0 -entries, we obtain $a \leq 3$. Moreover, the two 1 -entries of $X^{\prime}$ together see at most $(6-a)$ distinct 0 -entries. If $a \geq 2$, then every 0 -entry of $X^{\prime}$ sees at most three 0 -entries, a contradiction. Hence $a=1$. If $x_{i}$
is the 0-entry in $X^{\prime}$, then each 1-entry of $X^{\prime}$ sees all but one entry seen by $x_{i}$. Thus it sees at least three 0 -entries seen by $x_{i}$ and the 0 -entry $x_{i}$ which is the final contradiction.
(ii): Again, the interval $X^{\prime}$ of the form $10^{a} 1$ of $X$ containing the regular 0-entry $x_{i}$ satisfies $a \leq 3$. If $a=3$, then one of the two 1 -entries of $X^{\prime}$ sees $x_{i}$ and all three 0 -entries seen by $x_{i}$ which is a contradiction. If $a=2$, then, by symmetry, we may assume that $x_{i}$ is the first 0 -entry of $X^{\prime}$. Since the 1 -entry $x_{i-1}$ does not see one of the 0 -entries seen by $x_{i}$, we have $x_{i+1}=x_{i+d}=0$. Finally, if $a=1$, then each of the 1 -entries $x_{i-1}$ and $x_{i+1}$ does not see one of the 0 -entries seen by $x_{i}$ which implies $x_{i+d}=x_{i-d}=0$ and completes the proof of (ii).

Let $n_{1}$ denote the number of 1 -entries of $X$. Moreover, let $n^{+}$denote the number of irregular entries of $X$.

We can relate the density of $X$ to the number of irregular entries of $X$.

## Lemma 7

$$
\mu(X)=\frac{n_{1}}{n} \geq \frac{2 d-3}{2 d}+\frac{n^{+}}{2 d n} .
$$

Proof: By Lemma 6 (i), double-counting the pairs $\left(x_{i}, x_{j}\right)$ where $x_{i}=1$ and $x_{i}$ sees $x_{j}$ yields $(2 d-3)\left(n-n^{+}\right)+(2 d-2) n^{+} \leq 2 d n_{1}$ which implies $\mu(X)=\frac{n_{1}}{n} \geq \frac{2 d-3}{2 d}+\frac{n^{+}}{2 d}$.


Figure 2: A chain of length 4 for $d=5$.
A chain of $X$ is a maximal subsequence

$$
C=\left(x_{i}, x_{i+d}, \ldots, x_{i+k d}\right)
$$

of distinct 0 -entries of $X$ such that $k \geq 1$. A chain may be cyclic in which case $i \equiv i+(k+1) d$ $(\bmod n)$. Otherwise $C$ has two distinct ends $x_{i}$ and $x_{i+k d}$ where $x_{i-d}=1=x_{i+(k+1) d}$. Associated with the chain $C$ are the interior entries of $C$, which are those entries that belong to one of the intervals $x_{i+j d+1} x_{i+j d+2} \ldots x_{i+j d+d-1}, 0 \leq j \leq k-1$, between consecutive chain entries $x_{i+j d}$ and $x_{i+(j+1) d}$ of $C$. We say that two chains overlap, if a chain entry of one chain is an interior entry of the second chain. Clearly, in this case, also a chain entry of the second chain is an interior entry of the first chain. Note that a chain may overlap itself.


Figure 3: The example $X^{\prime}\left(\mathbf{u}^{*}\right)$ for $d=5$, i.e. with $\mathbf{u}^{*}=11101$.

For example, the sequence $X^{\prime}\left(\mathbf{u}^{*}\right)=x_{0}^{\prime} x_{1}^{\prime} \ldots x_{n-1}^{\prime}$ which arises from the shifted sequence $X\left(\mathbf{u}^{*}\right)$ for $\mathbf{u}^{*}=1^{d-2} 01$ by moving the final 0 -entry to the beginning

$$
\begin{align*}
X^{\prime}\left(\mathbf{u}^{*}\right) & =x_{0}^{\prime} x_{1}^{\prime} \ldots x_{n-1}^{\prime} \\
& =\mathbf{0} 1^{d-2} \mathbf{0} 1^{d-1} \mathbf{0} 0101^{d-3} \mathbf{0} 1^{d-1} \mathbf{0} 1^{2} 01^{d-4} \mathbf{0} 1^{d-1} \mathbf{0} 1^{3} 0 \ldots 101^{d-1} \mathbf{0} 1^{d-2} \mathbf{0} \tag{2}
\end{align*}
$$

has the single chain $C=\left(x_{n-1}^{\prime}, x_{d-1}^{\prime}, x_{2 d-1}^{\prime}, \ldots, x_{n-d}^{\prime}, x_{0}^{\prime}\right)$ whose ends $x_{n-1}^{\prime}$ and $x_{0}^{\prime}$ are both interior entries as well as chain entries of $C$. See Figures 2 and 3 for an illustration.

We will show that chains may overlap only in their respective ends. More precisely, in Lemma 8 (ii) below we show that if $x_{i}$ is a chain entry of $C$ which is an interior entry of chain $C^{\prime}$ and $x_{i-d}$ is another chain entry of $C$, then $x_{i}$ is an end of $C$ and $x_{i-1}$ is an end of $C^{\prime}=\left(x_{i-1}, x_{i+d-1}, \ldots\right)$. If this occurs, we call the interval $x_{i-1} x_{i}=0^{2}$ a pair of overlapping chain ends.

## Lemma 8

(i) Every regular 0-entry of $X$ belongs to some chain of $X$.
(ii) If a chain entry of $C$ is an interior entry of the (not necessarily distinct) chain $C^{\prime}$, then it belongs to a pair of overlapping chain ends.
(iii) Let $x_{i-1} x_{i}$ be a pair of overlapping chain ends. The intervals of length $2 d$ ending and starting in $x_{i-1} x_{i}=0^{2}$ have the form $1^{d-1} 01^{d-2} 0^{2}$ and $0^{2} 1^{d-2} 01^{d-1}$, respectively.
(iv) An end of a chain is regular in $X$ if and only if it belongs to a pair of overlapping chain ends.

Proof: (i): This follows immediately from Lemma 6 (ii).
(ii): Let $x_{i}$ be a chain entry of $C$ which is an interior entry of $C^{\prime}$. Then there must be chain entries $x_{j}, x_{j+d}$ with $i-d<j<i$ of $C^{\prime}$. By symmetry, we may assume that $x_{i-d}$ is another chain entry of $C$. If $j<i-1$, then $x_{i-1}$ sees at least four 0 -entries, a contradiction. So $j=i-1$. Moreover, $x_{j-d}=1=x_{i+d}$, otherwise $x_{i-2}$ or $x_{i+1}$ sees four 0 -entries. So $x_{i}$ is an end of $C$ and $x_{i-1}$ is an end of $C^{\prime}$.
(iii): Since both $x_{i-1}$ and $x_{i}$ already see three of the four 0 -entries $x_{i-d}, x_{i-1}, x_{i}, x_{i+d-1}$, we obtain that $x_{i-d+1}=1=x_{i+d-2}$. Since each of these two entries sees three of the four 0 -entries, too, all other entries seen by them must be 1 , and the two intervals of $X$ ending and starting in $x_{i-1} x_{i}$ have the required form.
(iv): It follows from (iii) that overlapping ends of chains are regular. Conversely, we assume that $x_{i}$ is an end of a chain which is not an interior entry of any chain. By symmetry, we may assume that $x_{i-d}=0$ and $x_{i+d}=1$. If $x_{i}$ is regular, then $x_{i-1}=0$, otherwise $x_{i-1}$ sees $x_{i}$ and all the three 0 -entries seen by $x_{i}$, a contradiction to Lemma 6 (i). But since $x_{i-1}$ does not belong to a chain, it must be irregular by (i) and thus $x_{i-1}$ sees only the two 0 -entries $x_{i}$ and $x_{i-d}$. So $x_{i}$ must be irregular as well.

Lemma 9 Let $I=x_{j-d} x_{j-d+1} \ldots x_{j+d}$ be an interval of $2 d+1$ entries of $X$.
(i) If I contains no irregular entry, then I contains a regular end of a chain.
(ii) If I does not contain a regular chain end but contains an irregular chain end, then it contains at least two irregular entries.

Proof: (i): Since the center $x_{j}$ of $I$ is regular, it sees exactly three 0-entries, all of which are regular. By the length of $I$, only two of them can belong to the same chain. So, by Lemma 8 (iv), the third must be a regular chain end belonging to a pair of overlapping chain ends.
(ii): For contradiction, we assume that $I$ contains exactly one irregular entry, an irregular chain end. If the center $x_{j}$ is not the irregular chain end itself, then it is regular. So it sees two further 0-entries apart from the irregular chain end. Since these are regular, they all belong to chains. Hence, by Lemma 8 (ii), one of them is a regular chain end, a contradiction. So let $x_{j}$ be the irregular chain end. We may assume that $x_{j-d}=0$. If $x_{j}$ sees another 0-entry apart from $x_{j-d}$, then, by Lemma 8 (i) and (iv), this 0 -entry is irregular. Otherwise, $x_{j+1}$ is irregular, a contradiction.

Lemma 10 If $X$ has a single chain whose ends overlap, then $X$ has at least d-3 irregular entries.

Proof: Let $\left(x_{0}, x_{d}, x_{2 d}, \ldots, x_{n-d+1}, x_{1}\right)$ be the chain and let $2 \leq r \leq d-2$. We prove that there is some irregular entry $x_{j}$ with $2 \leq j \leq n-2$ and $j \equiv r \bmod d$.

If an entry at such a position satisfies $x_{j}=0$, then, by Lemma 8 (i) and (ii), $x_{j}$ is irregular. Hence, we may assume that $x_{j}=1$ for all $2 \leq j \leq n-2$ with $j \equiv r \bmod d$. We choose a largest $s<r$ such that $X$ has an entry $x_{k}=0$ with $k \equiv s \bmod d$. Note that $x_{1}=0$ implies that $s$ is well-defined and that $1 \leq s<r$. We claim that $x_{k-s+d+r}$ is irregular.

Note that every 1-entry in the interval $x_{k-s} x_{k-s+1} \ldots x_{k-s+d}$ sees the three 0-entries $x_{k-s}, x_{k}, x_{k-s+d}$. Hence $x_{k-s+d-1}=1$ and $k-s+d+r<n-d$. Moreover, all further entries seen by $x_{k-s+d-1}$ satisfy $x_{k-s+d+1}=x_{k-s+d+2}=\ldots=x_{k-s+2 d-1}=1$. Furthermore, since $x_{k+d}$ sees three 0 entries, $x_{k-s+2 d+1}=\ldots=x_{k+2 d}=1$. By the definition of $s$, $x_{k+2 d+1}=\ldots=x_{k+2 d+r-s-1}=1$. So, indeed, $x_{k-s+d+r}$ sees only the two 0-entries $x_{k-s+d}$ and $x_{k-s+2 d}$ and is irregular.

We are now prepared to prove Theorem 5.

## Proof of Theorem 5:

Let $X^{*}=X^{\prime}\left(\mathbf{u}^{*}\right)$ be as in (2). For contradiction, we assume that $X=\left(x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n-1}\right)$ is a cyclic binary sequence in $\mathcal{X}$ of smallest order $n$ having minimum density $\mu(X)=$ $g(d, 2 d-3)$, and that $X$ is not the concatenation of copies of $X^{*}$. Clearly, $\mu(X) \leq$ $\mu\left(X^{*}\right)=\frac{(2 d-3)^{2}-1}{2((2 d-3) d-1)}$. Since a 1-entry of $X$ must see at least $2 d-3$ other 1 -entries, we get for $n \leq 2 d$ that $\mu(X)=\frac{n_{1}}{n} \geq \frac{2 d-2}{n} \geq 1-\frac{1}{d}>\mu\left(X^{*}\right)$, a contradiction. So we may assume that $n \geq 2 d+1$.

If $X$ contains no pair of overlapping chain ends, then, by Lemma 9 (i), every interval $I$ of length $2 d+1$ of $X$ contains an irregular entry. Since every irregular entry contributes to $2 d+1$ such intervals, we get by double-counting

$$
\begin{equation*}
n \leq(2 d+1) n^{+} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

thus, by Lemma $7, \mu(X) \geq \frac{2 d-3}{2 d}+\frac{1}{2 d(2 d+1)}>\mu\left(X^{*}\right)$ which is a contradiction.
Hence we may assume that $X$ contains a pair of overlapping ends of chains.
First we assume that $X$ contains more than one such pair. By cyclicity, we may assume that $x_{n-1} x_{0}$ and $x_{k-1} x_{k}$ are pairs of overlapping chain ends of $X$. Let

$$
X^{\prime}=x_{0} x_{1} \ldots x_{k-1}
$$

and

$$
X^{\prime \prime}=x_{k} x_{k+1} x_{k+2} \ldots x_{n-1} .
$$

By Lemma 8 (iii), $X^{\prime}$ and $X^{\prime \prime}$, considered as cyclic sequences, are both in $\mathcal{X}$, because each entry sees the same entries as in $X$. Since $X$ has minimum density $\mu(X)$ and $\mu(X)$ is a weighted average of the densities $\mu\left(X^{\prime}\right)$ and $\mu\left(X^{\prime \prime}\right)$, we obtain $\mu\left(X^{\prime}\right)=\mu\left(X^{\prime \prime}\right)=\mu(X)$. Since $X^{\prime}$ and $X^{\prime \prime}$ have smaller lengths than $X$, by our initial assumption, each of $X^{\prime}$ and $X^{\prime \prime}$ are the concatenation of copies of $X^{*}$. Hence $X$ is the concatenation of copies of $X^{*}$ which is a contradiction.

Therefore, $X$ has exactly one pair of overlapping chain ends, say $x_{n-1} x_{0}$. Let $\mathcal{J}$ be the set of intervals of length $2 d+1$ of $X$. Let $\mathcal{J}_{0} \subseteq \mathcal{J}$ denote the set of those intervals
containing a regular chain end and let $\mathcal{J}_{2} \subseteq \mathcal{J}$ denote the set of those intervals containing an irregular chain end. By Lemma 9 , each interval in $\mathcal{J}_{2} \backslash \mathcal{J}_{0}$ contains at least two irregular entries, while only the intervals in $\mathcal{J}_{0} \backslash \mathcal{J}_{2}$ can contain no irregular entry. If $X$ contains more than one chain, then $X$ contains two different irregular chain ends, hence $\left|\mathcal{J}_{2}\right| \geq 2 d+2$ while $\left|\mathcal{J}_{0}\right| \leq 2 d+2$. Double-counting the incidences interval/irregular entry we obtain

$$
n \leq n+\left|\mathcal{J}_{2}\right|-\left|\mathcal{J}_{0}\right|=n+\left|\mathcal{J}_{2} \backslash \mathcal{J}_{0}\right|-\left|\mathcal{J}_{0} \backslash \mathcal{J}_{2}\right| \leq(2 d+1) n^{+}
$$

as in (3), which again contradicts $\mu(X) \leq \mu\left(X^{*}\right)$.
So $X$ has a single chain both ends of which overlap. By Lemma 10, $X$ contains at least $d-3$ irregular entries. Hence, by Lemma $7, \mu(X) \geq \frac{2 d-3}{2 d}+\frac{d-3}{2 d n}$. Since $\mu(X) \leq \mu\left(X^{*}\right)=$ $\frac{(2 d-3)^{2}-1}{2(d(2 d-3)-1)}$, this implies that

$$
n \geq d(2 d-3)-1,
$$

i.e. the length of $X$ is at least the length of $X^{*}$. By Lemma 8 (iv), each of the $n-(2 d+2)$ intervals of length $2 d+1$ in $\mathcal{J} \backslash \mathcal{J}_{0}$ contains at least one irregular entry. Hence $n^{+} \geq \frac{n-(2 d+2)}{2 d+1}$ and, by Lemma 7,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mu(X) & \geq \frac{2 d-3}{2 d}+\frac{n-(2 d+2)}{2 d(2 d+1) n}=\frac{2 d-3}{2 d}+\frac{1}{2 d(2 d+1)}-\frac{2 d+2}{2 d(2 d+1) n} \\
& \geq \frac{(2 d-3)^{2}-1}{2(d(2 d-3)-1)}=\mu\left(X^{*}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $\mu(X) \leq \mu\left(X^{*}\right)$, we obtain $\mu(X)=\mu\left(X^{*}\right)$. Therefore, $n=d(2 d-3)-1$, each irregular entry sees exactly $(2 d-2)$ 1-entries, and each of the $2 d+2$ intervals in $\mathcal{J}_{0}$ contains no irregular entry while all intervals in $\mathcal{J} \backslash \mathcal{J}_{0}$ contain exactly one irregular entry. Hence the irregular entries must be exactly $x_{2 d+1}, x_{4 d+2}, \ldots, x_{(2 d+1)(d-3)}$.

So the irregular entries of $X$ and $X^{*}$, with the notation of (2), are located at the same positions and, by Lemma 8 (iii), the intervals $x_{n-2 d+1} \ldots x_{n-1} x_{0} \ldots x_{2 d-2}$ of $X$ and $x_{n-2 d+1}^{\prime} \ldots x_{n-1}^{\prime} x_{0}^{\prime} \ldots x_{2 d-2}^{\prime}$ of $X^{*}$ are equal.

We assume that for some $i \geq 2 d-2$, the intervals $x_{i-2 d+1} \ldots x_{i}$ of $X$ and $x_{i-2 d+1}^{\prime} \ldots x_{i}^{\prime}$ of $X^{*}$ are equal. Now we show that $x_{i+1}=x_{i+1}^{\prime}$. Indeed, since $x_{i-d+1}=x_{i-d+1}^{\prime}$ has the same regularity status within $X$ and $X^{*}$ and sees the same entries in $X$ and $X^{*}$, respectively, except possibly at position $i+1$, it follows that $x_{i+1}=x_{i+1}^{\prime}$. Therefore, $X=X^{*}$ contradicting the assumption that $X$ is a counterexample. This completes the proof.

If we define the quantity $\tilde{\delta}(X)$ for a cyclic binary sequence $X=\left(x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n-1}\right)$ as

$$
\tilde{\delta}(X)=\min \left\{\sum_{j=1}^{d}\left(x_{i+j}+x_{i-j}\right) \mid 0 \leq i \leq n-1\right\}
$$

and $\tilde{g}(d, k)$ for $d, k \in \mathbb{N}$ with $k \leq 2 d$ as the infimum density of a cyclic binary sequence $X$ with $\tilde{\delta}(X) \geq k$, then $g(d, k) \leq \tilde{g}(d, k)$. A simple double-counting implies $\tilde{g}(d, k) \leq \frac{k}{2 d}$.

The example described after (1) implies $g(d, k)=\tilde{g}(d, k)$ for $k \geq d+1$ with $k$ even. Furthermore, the comment after Conjecture 4 concerning $k=2 d-1$ and Lemma 6 (i) imply $g(d, 2 d-1)=\tilde{g}(d, 2 d-1)$ and $g(d, 2 d-3)=\tilde{g}(d, 2 d-3)$, respectively. Finally, it is easy to check that $\tilde{\delta}(X(\mathbf{u})) \geq k$ for every shifted sequence $X(\mathbf{u})$ for every $\mathbf{u} \in U_{k}^{d}$ which does not contain two consecutive 0 -entries.

Therefore, Conjecture 4 would - if true - imply that $g(d, k)=\tilde{g}(d, k)$ for all $d+1 \leq$ $k \leq 2 d$.

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