# Periodicity and Repetition in Combinatorics on Words 

by<br>Ming-wei Wang<br>A thesis<br>presented to the University of Waterloo<br>in fulfilment of the thesis requirement for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy<br>in<br>Computer Science

Waterloo, Ontario, Canada, 2004
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#### Abstract

This thesis concerns combinatorics on words. I present many results in this area, united by the common themes of periodicity and repetition. Most of these results have already appeared in journal or conference articles. Chapter 2 - Chapter 5 contain the most significant contribution of this thesis in the area of combinatorics on words. Below we give a brief synopsis of each chapter.

Chapter 1 introduces the subject area in general and some background information. Chapter 2 and Chapter 3 grew out of attempts to prove the Decreasing Length Conjecture (DLC). The DLC states that if $\varphi$ is a morphism over an alphabet of size $n$ then for any word $w$, there exists $0 \leq i<j \leq n$ such that $\left|\varphi^{i}(w)\right| \leq\left|\varphi^{j}(w)\right|$. The DLC was proved by S. Cautis and S. Yazdani in Periodicity, morphisms, and matrices in Theoret. Comput. Sci. (295) 2003, 107-121.

More specifically, Chapter 2 gives two generalizations of the classical Fine and Wilf theorem which states that if $\left(f_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0},\left(g_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ are two periodic sequences of real numbers, of period lengths $h$ and $k$ respectively, then (a) If $f_{n}=g_{n}$ for $0 \leq n<h+k-\operatorname{gcd}(h, k)$, then $f_{n}=g_{n}$ for all $n \geq 0$. (b) The conclusion in (a) would be false if $h+k-\operatorname{gcd}(h, k)$ were replaced by any smaller number.


We give similar results where equality in (a) is replaced by inequality and to where there are more than two sequences. These generalizations can be used to prove weak versions of the DLC.

Chapter 3 gives an essentially optimal bound to the following matrix problem. Let $A$ be an $n \times n$ matrix with non-negative integer entries. Let $f(n)$ be the smallest integer such that for all $A$, there exist $i<j \leq f(n)$ such that $A^{i} \leq A^{j}$, where $A \leq B$ means each entry of $A$ is less than or equal to the corresponding entry in $B$. The question is to find good upper bounds on $f(n)$. This problem has been attacked in two different ways. We give a method that proves an essentially optimal upper bound of $n+g(n)$ where $g(n)$ is the maximum order of an element of the symmetric group on $n$ objects. A second approach yields a slightly worse upper bound. But this approach has a result of independent interest concerning irreducible matrices. A non-negative $n \times n$ matrix $A$ is irreducible if $\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} A^{i}$ has all entries strictly positive. We show in Chapter 3 that if $A$ is an irreducible $n \times n$ matrix, then there exists an integer $e>0$ with $e=O(n \log n)$ such that the diagonal entries of $A^{e}$ are all strictly positive. These results improve on results in my Master's thesis and are a version of the DLC in the matrix setting. They have direct applications to the growth rate of words in a D0L system.

Chapter 4 gives a complete characterization of two-sided fixed points of morphisms. A weak version of the DLC is used to prove a non-trivial case of the characterization. This characterization completes the previous work of Head and Lando on finite and one-sided fixed points of morphisms.

Chapter 5, 6 and 7 deal with avoiding different kinds of repetitions in infinite words.
Chapter 5 deals with problems about simultaneously avoiding cubes and large squares in infinite binary words. We use morphisms and fixed points to construct an infinite binary word that simultaneously avoid cubes and squares $x x$ with $|x| \geq 4$. M. Dekking was the first to show such words exist. His construction used a non-uniform morphism. We use only uniform morphisms in Chapter 5. The construction in Chapter 5 is somewhat simpler than Dekking's.

Chapter 6 deals with problems of simultaneously avoiding several patterns at once. The patterns are generated by a simple arithmetic operation.

Chapter 7 proves a variant of a result of H. Friedman. We say a word $y$ is a subsequence of a word $z$ if $y$ can be obtained by striking out zero or more symbols from $z$. Friedman proved that over any finite alphabet, there exists a longest finite word $x=x_{1} x_{2} \cdots x_{n}$ such that $x_{i} x_{i+1} \cdots x_{2 i}$ is not a subsequence of $x_{j} x_{j+1} \cdots x_{2 j}$ for $1 \leq i<j \leq n / 2$. We call such words self-avoiding. We show that if "subsequence" is replaced by "subword" in defining self-avoiding, then there are infinite self-avoiding words over a 3-letter alphabet but not over binary or unary alphabets. This solves a question posed by Jean-Paul Allouche.

In Chapter 8 we give an application of the existence of infinitely many square-free words over a 3-letter alphabet. The duplication language generated by a word $w$ is roughly speaking the set of words that can be obtained from $w$ by repeatedly doubling the subwords of $w$. We use the existence of infinitely many square-free words over a 3-letter alphabet to prove that the duplication language generated by a word containing at least 3 distinct letters is not regular. This solves an open problem due to J. Dassow, V. Mitrana and Gh. Păun. It is known that the duplication language generated by a word over a binary alphabet is regular. It is not known whether such languages are context-free if the generator word contains at least 3 distinct letters. After the defence of my thesis I noticed that essentially the same argument was given by Ehrenfeucht and Rozenberg in Regularity of languages generated by copying systems in Discrete Appl. Math. (8) 1984, 313-317.

Chapter 9 defines a new "descriptive" measure of complexity of a word $w$ by the minimal size of a deterministic finite automaton that accepts $w$ (and possibly other words) but no other words of length $|w|$. Lower and upper bounds for various classes of words are proved in Chapter 9. Many of the proofs make essential use of repetitions in words.

## Acknowledgements

I owe many thanks to my supervisor Jeff Shallit for his patience, encouragement and expertise. This thesis would not have been written without him. The Computer Science department at Waterloo also provided me with a friendly environment to work in. I am grateful for it. I think the most important thing I acquired during my time as a graduate student is a taste for research which will remain with me long after graduation. Without Jeff I probably would not have had this opportunity. I wish to thank him for it.

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## Chapter 1

## Introduction

The basic object of this thesis is a word, that is a sequence - finite or infinite - of symbols from a finite set. We present several results on periodicity and repetition in words and their applications. These results fall loosely under the subject of combinatorics on words [Lot83, Lot02, CK97, BK03].

A fundamental notion of words is periodicity. A word $w=w_{1} w_{2} \cdots$ is said to be periodic with period $p$ if $w_{i}=w_{i+p}$ for $i=1,2, \ldots$. A fundamental and one of the oldest results about periodicity is the classical theorem of Fine and Wilf [FW65]. The Fine and Wilf theorem states that if $\left(f_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0},\left(g_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ are two periodic sequences of real numbers, of period lengths $h$ and $k$ respectively, then
(a) If $f_{n}=g_{n}$ for $0 \leq n<h+k-\operatorname{gcd}(h, k)$, then $f_{n}=g_{n}$ for all $n \geq 0$.
(b) The conclusion in (a) would be false if $h+k-\operatorname{gcd}(h, k)$ were replaced by any smaller number.

In Chapter 2 we give several non-trivial generalizations of this theorem. We give results where equality in (a) is replaced by inequality and to where there are more than two sequences.

These generalizations can be used to prove weak versions of the Decreasing Length Con-
jecture (DLC) which was proved in $\left[\mathrm{CMS}^{+} 03\right]$. We can state DLC in terms of morphisms. A morphism is a map $h$ from $\Sigma^{*} \rightarrow \Sigma^{*}$ such that $h(x y)=h(x) h(y)$ for all $x, y \in \Sigma^{*}$. The DLC states that if $\varphi$ is a morphism over an alphabet of size $n$ then for any word $w$, there exists $0 \leq i<j \leq n$ such that $\left|\varphi^{i}(w)\right| \leq\left|\varphi^{j}(w)\right|$.

There is an interesting connection between the Fine and Wilf theorem and infinite sturmian words [dLM94, Ber02]. An infinite sturmian word is an infinite binary word with exactly $n+1$ distinct subwords of length $n$ for all $n \geq 1$. We consider the set $P E R_{p, q}$ of finite words $w$ of length $p+q-2$ with coprime periods $p$ and $q$ and is not a power of a single letter. Such $w$ can be viewed as maximal common prefixes of sequences $f$ and $g$ for which the conclusion in part (a) of the Fine and Wilf theorem is false. It turns out that all such maximal common prefixes are binary words. In fact they are precisely the lenth $p+q-2$ prefixes of a subclass (characteristic sturmian words) of sturmian words. Also the set of subwords of sturmian words coincides with the set of subwords of $P E R_{p, q}$ unioned over all coprime $p$ and $q$.

Several other generalizations should be mentioned. Castelli, Mignosi and Restivo have generalized Fine and Wilf to three periods [CMR99]. They define a function $f\left(p_{1}, p_{2}, p_{3}\right) \sim$ $\frac{1}{2}\left(p_{1}+p_{2}+p_{3}\right)$ such that if three periodic functions - with periods $p_{1}, p_{2}$ and $p_{3}$ respectively - have a common prefix of length at least $f\left(p_{1}, p_{2}, p_{3}\right)$, then they equal each other. Justin [Jus00] has extended this result to an arbitrary number of periods. Tijdeman and Zamboni [TZ03] give a fast algorithm to compute for a given set of periods a maximal common prefix $w$ of periodic sequences for which the conclusion of the Fine and Wilf theorem is false. They showed that such a $w$ is uniquely determined up to isomorphism and that it is a palindrome. A palindrome is a word $w$ such that the reversal of $w$ equals $w$. Simpson and Tijdeman [ST03] also give an multi-dimensional version of the Fine and Wilf theorem. Berstel and Boasson discussed Fine and Wilf theorem in the case of partial words [BB99, BH02]. A partial words is a word where there are some positions in the word that are undefined. Finally there is a connection to problems about covering the integers by residue classes, see [Sun04a, Sun04b].

In Chapter 3 we consider DLC in the matrix setting. The problem is as follows. Let $A$ be an $n \times n$ matrix with non-negative integer entries. Let $f(n)$ be the smallest integer such that for all $A$, there exist $i<j \leq f(n)$ such that $A^{i} \leq A^{j}$, where $A \leq B$ means each entry of $A$ is less than or equal to the corresponding entry in $B$. The question is to find good upper bounds on $f(n)$. This problem has been attacked in two different ways. We give a method that proves an essentially optimal upper bound of $n+g(n)$, where $g(n)$ is the maximum order of an element of the symmetric group on $n$ objects. A second approach yields a slightly worse upper bound. But this approach has a result of independent interest concerning irreducible matrices. A non-negative $n \times n$ matrix $A$ is irreducible if $\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} A^{i}$ has all entries strictly positive. We show in Chapter 3 that if $A$ is an irreducible $n \times n$ matrix, then there exists an integer $e>0$ with $e=O(n \log n)$ such that the diagonal entries of $A^{e}$ are all strictly positive. These results improve on results in my Master's thesis [Wan99]. They have direct applications to the growth rate of words in a D0L system.

Morphisms and their fixed points are basic tools used in solving many problems on words. For example, nearly every explicit construction of an infinite word avoiding certain patterns involve the fixed point of a morphism [HM56, Lee57, Zec58, Ple70]. They are also worthy of study in their own right [CK97, HK97]. For example, define a morphism $\mu$ by $\mu(0)=01$ and $\mu(1)=10$. The Thue-Morse word

$$
\mathbf{t}=0110100110010110 \cdots
$$

is the unique one-sided infinite fixed point of $\mu$ which starts with 0 . The word $\mathbf{t}$ is overlapfree, that is, contains no subword of the form axaxa, where $a \in\{0,1\}$, and $x \in(0+1)^{*}$. The Thue-Morse word appears in many different contexts [AS99]. Morse [Mor21] introduced $\mathbf{t}$ in connection with a problem in differential geometry. It can be used to solve a problem in chess [Euw29, MH44]. It provides a solution to the Prouhet-Tarry-Escott problem in number theory [AL77, Pro51, Leh47]. It is used in solving the Burnside problem for groups:

Is every group with a finite number of generators and satisfying the identity $x^{n}=1$ finite? [Adi79, NA68]. A simple transformation of $\mathbf{t}$ can be used to solve the Burnside problem for semigroups [MH44, RR85]. t also has many interesting extremal characterizations. For example, if an overlap-free binary sequence is a fixed point of a non-trivial morphism, then it is either equal to $\mathbf{t}$ or its complement $1001011001101001 \cdots$ (1's and 0's are switched) [Séé85]. It is also the lexicographically largest overlap-free infinite binary word beginning with 0 [Ber95]. If we consider $\mathbf{t}$ as the binary expansion of a real number, then we have the following interesting extremal characterization. Let $\tau=\sum_{n \geq 1} t_{n} 2^{-n}$ where $t_{n}$ is the $(n+1)$-th digit of $\mathbf{t}$. Define a set of real numbers $\Gamma$ by

$$
\Gamma=\left\{x \in[0,1] \quad \mid \quad \forall k \geq 0,1-x \leq\left\{2^{k} x\right\} \leq x\right\}
$$

where $\{x\}$ denotes the fractional part of $x$. Then $\tau$ is the least irrational element of $\Gamma$ [AM01]. Hopefully these results convince the reader that fixed points of morphisms are interesting objects of study.

In Chapter 4 we give a complete classification of two-sided fixed points of morphisms. This classification effort led to the formulation of the Decreasing Length Conjecture. A weak version of DLC appears as Lemma 4.4.4 which is used to prove a non-trivial case of the characterization. This characterization completes the previous work of Head and Lando [Hea81, HL86] on finite and one-sided fixed points of morphisms. Foryś in [For04] studied a related problem.

The earliest systematic study of problems on words was initiated by Axel Thue at the beginning of last century. He published two long papers [Thu06, Thu12] in which he investigated among other things the structure of the set of square-free words over a three letter alphabet. A word is square-free if it does not contain two adjacent identical blocks of symbols. Thue also noted an interesting parallel between his method/results with those in diophantine equations in number theory. Chapter 5, 6 and 7 contain results on pattern avoidance which
are descendants of this line of research. Chapter 8 contains a small application of the result that squares are avoidable over a 3-letter alphabet.

A square is a nonempty word of the form $x x$, as in the English word murmur. A cube is a nonempty word of the form $x x x$, as in the English sort-of-word shshsh. Chapter 5 deals with problems about simultaneously avoiding cubes and large squares in infinite binary words. We use morphisms and fixed points to construct an infinite binary word that simultaneously avoid cubes and squares $x x$ with $|x| \geq 4$. M. Dekking was the first to show such words exist [Dek76]. His construction used a non-uniform morphism. We use only uniform morphisms in Chapter 5. The construction in Chapter 5 is somewhat simpler than Dekking's.

Chapter 6 deals with problems of simultaneously avoiding several patterns at once. Here we consider a generalization of Thue's problem. We define $\Sigma_{k}=\{0,1,2, \ldots, k-1\}$ for some integer $k \geq 2$, and we define the morphism $\sigma_{k}(a)=(a+1) \bmod k$. We omit the subscript $k$ if it is clear from the context. In this chapter, we consider avoiding patterns of the form $x \sigma^{i}(x)$. The work here is a special case of more general pattern avoidance problems [BEM79, Cur93].

Chapter 7 proves a variant of a result of Friedman [Fri01, Fri00]. We say a word $y$ is a subsequence of a word $z$ if $y$ can be obtained by striking out zero or more symbols from $z$. Friedman proved that over any finite alphabet, there exists a longest finite word $x=$ $x_{1} x_{2} \cdots x_{n}$ such that $x_{i} x_{i+1} \cdots x_{2 i}$ is not a subsequence of $x_{j} x_{j+1} \cdots x_{2 j}$ for $1 \leq i<j \leq n / 2$. We call such words self-avoiding. We show that if "subsequence" is replaced by "subword" in defining self-avoiding, then there are infinite self-avoiding words over a 3-letter alphabet but not over binary or unary alphabets. This solves a question posed by Jean-Paul Allouche.

In Chapter 8 we give an application of the existence of infinitely many square-free words over a 3 -letter alphabet. The duplication language generated by a word $w$ is roughly speaking the set of words that can be obtained from $w$ by repeatedly doubling the subwords of $w$. We used the existence of infinitely many square-free words over a 3 -letter alphabet to prove that the duplication language generated by a word containing at least 3 distinct letters is not regular. This solves an open problem due to J. Dassow, V. Mitrana and Gh. Păun. It is
known that the duplication language generated by a word over a binary alphabet is regular [DMP99]. It is not known whether such languages are context-free if the generator word contains at least 3 distinct letters. After the defence of my thesis I noticed that essentially the same argument was given by Ehrenfeucht and Rozenberg [ER84].

Descriptive complexity is an intrinsic property of words. The classical measure of KolmogorovChaitin has proved to be a rich area of study with many applications. However, the Kolmogorov-Chaitin measure is not a computable measure. In Chapter 9, we propose a computable measure similar in spirit to the Kolmogorov-Chaitin measure and study some of its basic properties. We define for a word $w$, its automatic complexity $A(w)$ to be the minimal size of a deterministic finite automaton that accepts $w$ (and possibly other words) but no other words of length $|w|$. It turns out that many aspects of this measure are closely related to repetitions in the word being measured. For example, a word $w$ is said to be $k$ th-power-free if $w$ does not contain $k$ adjacent identical blocks of symbols. Theorem 9.4.3 in Chapter 9 shows that if a word $w$ is $k$ th-power-free, then $A(w) \geq \frac{|w|+1}{k}$. These and other potential connections with combinatorics on words are the reason for Chapter 9's inclusion in this thesis.

Finally, we note that the most significant contributions to the area of combinatorics on words are in Chapter 2 through Chapter 5.

## Chapter 2

## Variations on a Theorem of Fine and

## Wilf

This chapter is based on the work of S. Cautis, S. Yazdani, F. Mignosi, J. Shallit and M.-w. Wang [MSW01, $\left.\mathrm{CMS}^{+} 03\right]$.

### 2.1 Introduction

In this chapter we explore several generalizations of a classical theorem of Fine and Wilf.
Periodicity is an important property of words that has applications in various domains. For instance, it has applications in string searching algorithms (cf. [CR94]), in formal languages (cf. for instance the pumping lemmas in Salomaa [Sal73]), and it is an important part of combinatorics on words (cf. [CK97, Ber02]).

We say a sequence $\left(f_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ is periodic with period length $h \geq 1$ if $f_{n}=f_{n+h}$ for all $n \geq 0$. The following is a classical "folk theorem":

Theorem 2.1.1 If $\left(f_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ is a sequence of real numbers which is periodic with period lengths $h$ and $k$, then it is periodic with period length $\operatorname{gcd}(h, k)$.

Proof. By the extended Euclidean algorithm, there exist integers $r, s \geq 0$ such that $r h-s k=\operatorname{gcd}(h, k)$. Then we have

$$
f_{n}=f_{n+r h}=f_{n+r h-s k}=f_{n+\operatorname{gcd}(h, k)}
$$

for all $n \geq 0$.
The 1965 theorem of Fine and Wilf [FW65] is the following:

Theorem 2.1.2 Let $\left(f_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0},\left(g_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ be two periodic sequences of real numbers, of period lengths $h$ and $k$ respectively.
(a) If $f_{n}=g_{n}$ for $0 \leq n<h+k-\operatorname{gcd}(h, k)$, then $f_{n}=g_{n}$ for all $n \geq 0$.
(b) The conclusion in (a) would be false if $h+k-\operatorname{gcd}(h, k)$ were replaced by any smaller number.

We first consider some variations on the theorem of Fine and Wilf in which equality is replaced by inequality.

### 2.2 First variation

We begin with a bit of notation and a lemma. Let $\mathbf{a}=\left(a_{i}\right)_{i \geq 0}$ be a sequence of real numbers, and let $p=\left(p_{0}, p_{1}, \ldots, p_{h-1}\right)$ be a vector of real numbers of dimension $h \geq 1$. We will frequently need the new sequence $p \circ$ a resulting from taking successive "windows" of length $h$ of a and forming their dot product with $p$. More formally, we define $p \circ \mathbf{a}:=$ $\left(\sum_{0 \leq i<h} p_{i} a_{n+i}\right)_{n \geq 0}$.

Lemma 2.2.1 Let $p=\left(p_{0}, p_{1}, \ldots, p_{h-1}\right)$ be a vector of $h \geq 1$ real numbers and $q=$ $\left(q_{0}, q_{1}, \ldots, q_{k-1}\right)$ be a vector of $k \geq 1$ real numbers. Then $q \circ(p \circ \mathbf{a})=(q p) \circ \mathbf{a}$, where
by qp we mean the vector $\left(r_{0}, r_{1}, \ldots, r_{h+k-2}\right)$ defined by

$$
r_{n}=\sum_{\substack{0 \leq i<h \\ 0 \leq j<k \\ i+j=n}} p_{i} q_{j}
$$

Proof. Define $P(z)=\sum_{0 \leq i<h} p_{i} z^{i}, Q(z)=\sum_{0 \leq i<k} q_{i} z^{i}$, and $A(z)=\sum_{i \geq 0} a_{i} z^{-i}$. If $p \circ \mathbf{a}=\left(t_{i}\right)_{i \geq 0}$ then it is easy to see that $P(z) A(z)=\left(\sum_{i \geq 0} t_{i} z^{-i}\right)+W(z)$, where $W$ is a polynomial of degree $\operatorname{deg} P$ such that $W(0)=0$. If $q \circ(p \circ \mathbf{a})=\left(u_{i}\right)_{i \geq 0}$ it follows that $Q(z) P(z) A(z)=\left(\sum_{i \geq 0} u_{i} z^{-i}\right)+S(z)$ where $S(0)=0$. Hence $q \circ(p \circ \mathbf{a})=(q p) \circ \mathbf{a}$.

For the rest of this chapter, we abuse notation slightly by writing $P \circ \mathbf{a}$ for $p \circ \mathbf{a}$, where $p=\left(p_{0}, p_{1}, \ldots, p_{h-1}\right)$ and $P(z)=\sum_{0 \leq i<h} p_{i} z^{i}$.

We are now ready to state and prove our first variation on the theorem of Fine and Wilf.

Theorem 2.2.2 Let $\mathbf{f}=\left(f_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}, \mathbf{g}=\left(g_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ be two periodic sequences of real numbers, of period lengths $h$ and $k$, respectively, such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{0 \leq i<h} f_{i} \geq 0 \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{0 \leq j<k} g_{j} \leq 0 \tag{2.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $d=\operatorname{gcd}(h, k)$. If

$$
\begin{equation*}
f_{n} \leq g_{n} \quad \text { for } 0 \leq n<h+k-d \tag{2.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

then
(i) $f_{n}=g_{n}$ for all $n \geq 0$; and
(ii) $\sum_{j \leq i<j+d} f_{i}=\sum_{j \leq i<j+d} g_{i}=0$ for all integers $j \geq 0$.

Proof. Let $d=\operatorname{gcd}(h, k)$, and define

$$
\begin{aligned}
& P(z)=1+z+\cdots+z^{h-1}=\left(z^{h}-1\right) /(z-1) ; \\
& Q(z)=1+z+\cdots+z^{k-1}=\left(z^{k}-1\right) /(z-1) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Define

$$
\begin{aligned}
& R(z)=\left(z^{k}-1\right) /\left(z^{d}-1\right) \\
& S(z)=\left(z^{h}-1\right) /\left(z^{d}-1\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Then none of $P, Q, R, S$ is identically zero, but all have non-negative coefficients. By hypothesis (2.1) we have $P \circ \mathbf{f} \geq 0$. Hence $R \circ(P \circ \mathbf{f}) \geq 0$. But by Lemma 2.2.1 this means

$$
\begin{equation*}
R P \circ \mathbf{f} \geq 0 \tag{2.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Similarly by hypothesis (2.2) we have $Q \circ(-\mathbf{g}) \geq 0$; hence

$$
\begin{equation*}
S Q \circ(-\mathbf{g})=S \circ(Q \circ(-\mathbf{g})) \geq 0 \tag{2.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note that $R P=S Q$, and $R P$ is a polynomial of degree $h+k-d-1$. Define the coefficients $e_{i}$ by $R(z) P(z)=\sum_{0 \leq i<h+k-d} e_{i} z^{i}$. By (2.4) and (2.5) we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{0 \leq i<h+k-d} e_{i}\left(f_{i}-g_{i}\right) \geq 0 \tag{2.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now we claim that all the coefficients $e_{i}$ are strictly positive. To see this, note that

$$
\begin{aligned}
R(z) P(z) & =\frac{z^{h}-1}{z^{d}-1} \cdot \frac{z^{k}-1}{z-1} \\
& =\left(1+z^{d}+z^{2 d}+\cdots+z^{h-d}\right)\left(1+z+z^{2}+\cdots+z^{k-1}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

If $i<h$, write $i=q d+r$ where $0 \leq r<d$, and choose the term $z^{q d}$ from the left factor and $z^{r}$ from the right factor to see $e_{i}>0$. If $h \leq i<h+k-d$, choose $z^{h-d}$ from the left factor and $z^{i-h+d}$ from the right factor to see $e_{i}>0$.

Since the $e_{i}$ are all strictly positive, combining the inequality (2.6) with the hypothesis (2.3) that $f_{n} \leq g_{n}$ for $0 \leq n<h+k-d$ gives $f_{n}=g_{n}$ for $0 \leq n<h+k-d$. But then, by the Fine and Wilf theorem, $f_{n}=g_{n}$ for all $n \geq 0$. This proves (a)(i).

Next we prove (a)(ii). Since $f_{n}=g_{n}$ for all $n \geq 0$, it follows that $f$ is periodic of period length $h$ and $k$, and hence by Theorem 2.1.1, of period $d$. The sum over the terms of this period must be 0 , since if it were less than 0 this would contradict hypothesis (2.1), while if it were greater than 0 this would contradict hypothesis (2.2).

Then $f_{j}+f_{j+1}+\cdots+f_{j+d-1}$ is just a cyclic permutation of $f_{0}+f_{1}+\cdots+f_{d-1}$, which equals 0 . A similar argument applies to $g$.

It is known that the bound $h+k-d$ is tight [MSW01].
Remarks. Theorem 2.2.2 is reminiscent of some classical theorems on trigonometric polynomials. For example, Fejér [Fej13] proved that a real trigonometric polynomial with 0 constant term

$$
\lambda_{1} \cos \theta+\mu_{1} \sin \theta+\lambda_{2} \cos (2 \theta)+\mu_{2} \sin (2 \theta)+\cdots+\lambda_{r} \cos (r \theta)+\mu_{r} \sin (r \theta)
$$

cannot have the same sign for all real $\theta$ unless it is identically zero. Also see Pólya and Szegö [PS76, pp. 80, 263] and Gilbert and Smyth [GS00].

### 2.3 Second variation: more than two periods

In this section we consider some variations on the Fine and Wilf theorem for more than two periods. For other generalizations of Fine and Wilf to more than two periods, see [CMR99, Jus00, TZ03, ST03].

For our first theorem, we need a little notation. For integers $p \geq 1$ let $\omega_{p}$ denote a primitive $p^{\prime}$ 'th root of unity, i.e., $\omega_{p}:=e^{2 \pi \sqrt{-1} / p}$. Define

$$
R_{p}:=\left\{\omega_{p}^{i}: 0 \leq i<p\right\}=\left\{\omega \in \mathbb{C}: \omega^{p}=1\right\} .
$$

Finally, for integers $h_{1}, h_{2}, \ldots, h_{r} \geq 1$ define

$$
\gamma\left(h_{1}, h_{2}, \ldots, h_{r}\right)=\left|R_{h_{1}} \cup R_{h_{2}} \cup \cdots \cup R_{h_{r}}\right|
$$

the number of distinct roots of unity among the $h_{1}{ }^{\prime}$ 'th, $h_{2}{ }^{\prime}$ 'th, etc., roots of unity.
By the principle of inclusion-exclusion, it follows that

$$
\gamma\left(h_{1}, h_{2}, \ldots, h_{r}\right)=\sum_{\substack{S \subseteq\left\{h_{1}, h_{2}, \ldots, h_{r}\right\} \\ S \neq \emptyset}} \operatorname{gcd}(S)(-1)^{|S|+1}
$$

where by $\operatorname{gcd}(S)$ for $S$ a nonempty set we mean the greatest common divisor of all elements of $S$. For example,

$$
\gamma(6,10,15)=6+10+15-\operatorname{gcd}(6,10)-\operatorname{gcd}(6,15)-\operatorname{gcd}(10,15)+\operatorname{gcd}(6,10,15)=22
$$

Theorem 2.3.1 Let $\left(f_{i}(n)\right)_{n \geq 0}, 1 \leq i \leq r$, be $r$ periodic complex-valued sequences with period lengths $h_{1}, h_{2}, \ldots, h_{r}$, respectively. Suppose $\sum_{1 \leq i \leq r} f_{i}(n)=0$ for $0 \leq n<\gamma\left(h_{1}, h_{2}, \ldots, h_{r}\right)$. Then $\sum_{1 \leq i \leq r} f_{i}(n)=0$ for all $n \geq 0$.

Proof. As Fine and Wilf observed [FW65], any periodic complex-valued sequence $(f(n))_{n \geq 0}$ of period length $p$ can be written in the form

$$
f(n)=\sum_{0 \leq i<p} c_{i} \omega_{p}^{i n}
$$

for some coefficients $c_{0}, c_{1}, \ldots, c_{p-1}$.

It follows that there exist coefficients $c_{i, j}, 1 \leq i \leq r$ and $0 \leq j<h_{i}$ such that

$$
f_{i}(n)=\sum_{0 \leq j<h_{i}} c_{i, j} \omega_{h_{i}}^{j n} .
$$

Define

$$
\begin{aligned}
s & =\left[s_{1}, s_{2}, \ldots, s_{m}\right] \\
& =\left[1, \omega_{h_{1}}, \omega_{h_{1}}^{2}, \ldots, \omega_{h_{1}}^{h_{1}-1}, 1, \omega_{h_{2}}, \omega_{h_{2}}^{2}, \ldots, \omega_{h_{2}}^{h_{2}-1}, \ldots, 1, \omega_{h_{r}}, \omega_{h_{r}}^{2}, \ldots, \omega_{h_{r}}^{h_{r}-1}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

where $m=h_{1}+h_{2}+\cdots+h_{r}$. Let $B:=\gamma\left(h_{1}, h_{2}, \ldots, h_{r}\right)$ and define the $B \times m$ matrix $M=\left(t_{i, j}\right)_{0 \leq i<B, 1 \leq j \leq m}$ by $t_{i, j}:=s_{j}^{i}$. Define the column vector

$$
v:=\left[c_{1,0}, c_{1,1}, \ldots, c_{1, h_{1}-1}, c_{2,0}, c_{2,1}, \ldots, c_{2, h_{2}-1}, \ldots, c_{r, 0}, c_{r, 1}, \ldots, c_{r, h_{r}-1}\right]^{T} .
$$

Then the hypothesis of the theorem is $M v=0$. Some of the columns of $M$ are identical because some of the entries in the vector $s$ coincide. We may delete the repeated columns of $M$ and sum the corresponding entries of $v$ to get $M^{\prime} v^{\prime}=0$, where $M^{\prime}$ is a $B \times B$ matrix and $v^{\prime}$ is a column vector with $B$ entries. Now $M^{\prime}$ is a Vandermonde matrix and hence invertible, so $v^{\prime}=0$. It follows that $\sum_{1 \leq i \leq r} f_{i}(n)=0$ for all $n$.

We next turn to another variation on Fine and Wilf for more than two periods. This generalization is more in the spirit of Theorem 2.2.2.

Theorem 2.3.2 Let $\mathbf{f}_{1}=\left(f_{1}(n)\right)_{n \geq 0}, \mathbf{f}_{2}=\left(f_{2}(n)\right)_{n \geq 0}, \ldots, \mathbf{f}_{r}=\left(f_{r}(n)\right)_{n \geq 0}$ be $r$ periodic realvalued sequences of periods $h_{1}, h_{2}, \ldots, h_{r}$, respectively. Suppose that for all $i$ with $1 \leq i \leq r$, we have

$$
\sum_{0 \leq n<h_{i}} f_{i}(n) \geq 0
$$

If

$$
\sum_{1 \leq i \leq r} f_{i}(n) \leq 0
$$

for $0 \leq n<h_{1}+h_{2}+\cdots+h_{r}-r+1$, then

$$
\sum_{1 \leq i \leq r} f_{i}(n)=0
$$

for all $n \geq 0$.

Proof. The proof is very similar to the proof of Theorem 2.2.2, and we indicate only what needs to be changed. First, we need the following easy generalization of Lemma 2.2.1.

Lemma 2.3.3 If $P_{1}, P_{2}, \ldots, P_{r}$ are polynomials with real coefficients and $\mathbf{a}=\left(a_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ then $P_{1} \circ\left(P_{2} \circ \cdots \circ\left(P_{r} \circ \mathbf{a}\right) \cdots\right)=\left(P_{1} \cdots P_{r}\right) \circ \mathbf{a}$.

For $1 \leq i \leq r$ define $P_{i}(z)=1+z+\cdots+z^{h_{i}-1}=\left(z^{h_{i}}-1\right) /(z-1)$. Then by hypothesis $P_{i} \circ \mathbf{f}_{i}$ is a sequence of non-negative real numbers for each $i, 1 \leq i \leq r$. It follows using Lemma 2.3.3 that if $P:=P_{1} P_{2} \cdots P_{r}$, then $P \circ \mathbf{f}_{i}$ is a sequence of non-negative real numbers for $1 \leq i \leq r$. But $P$ has degree $h_{1}+h_{2}+\cdots+h_{r}-r$ and hence has $h_{1}+h_{2}+\cdots+h_{r}-r+1$ coefficients. Furthermore, all the coefficients of $P$ are strictly positive. Hence if $\sum_{1 \leq i \leq r} f_{i}(n) \leq 0$ for $0 \leq$ $n<h_{1}+h_{2}+\cdots+h_{r}-r+1$, it follows that $\sum_{1 \leq i \leq r} f_{i}(n)=0$ for $0 \leq n<h_{1}+h_{2}+\cdots+h_{r}-r+1$. Now $h_{1}+h_{2}+\cdots+h_{r}-r+1 \geq \gamma\left(h_{1}, h_{2}, \ldots, h_{r}\right)$, since the left-hand side counts the total number of roots of unity among $R_{h_{1}}, \ldots, R_{h_{r}}$ without double-counting occurrences of 1 , while the right-hand side counts the number of distinct roots of unity. But then $\sum_{1 \leq i \leq r} f_{i}(n)=0$ for all $n \geq 0$ by Theorem 2.3.1.

We note that the bound $h_{1}+h_{2}+\cdots+h_{r}-r+1$ is not, in general, optimal, although the bound is optimal if the period lengths $h_{1}, h_{2}, \ldots, h_{r}$ are relatively prime.

One might be tempted to guess that the true bound, as in Theorem 2.3.1, is not $h_{1}+$ $h_{2}+\cdots+h_{r}-r+1$, but rather $\gamma\left(h_{1}, h_{2}, \ldots, h_{r}\right)$. This is not true, however. The following
is an example of three periodic sequences of period lengths 6,10 , and 15 , respectively, whose periods individually sum to 0 and such that $f_{1}(n)+f_{2}(n)+f_{3}(n) \leq 0$ for $0 \leq n<$ $\gamma(6,10,15)=22$, but not for $n=22$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& f_{1}=(0,0,0,-1,1,0)^{\omega} \\
& f_{2}=(0,0,0,0,0,1,-1,0,-1,1)^{\omega} \\
& f_{3}=(0,0,0,1,-1,-1,1,0,1,0,-1,0,0,0,0)^{\omega}
\end{aligned}
$$

The true bound is not known, although there is an algorithm to compute it. Theorem 2.3.2 can be used to prove a weak version of the Decreasing Length Conjecture. In the next chapter, we solve a problem similar in spirit to the Decreasing Length Conjecture.

## Chapter 3

## An Inequality for Non-Negative Matrices

This chapter is based on the work of J. Shallit and M.-w. Wang [SW99, Wan02].

### 3.1 Introduction

In [SW99, Wan99] we proved that for an $n \times n$ matrix $A$ with non-negative integer entries there exist integers $r, s$ with $0 \leq r<s \leq 2^{n}$ such that $A^{r} \leq A^{s}$. Bo improved the bound $2^{n}$ to $3^{n / 2}$ [Bo00]. We give two results in this chapter. First, we improve the bound to $n+g(n)$ where $g$ is the Landau function. Thus we are close to the known lower bound of $g(n)$ [SW99]. Second, we show that if $A$ is an irreducible matrix then there is an integer $i$ such that $A^{i} \geq I$ and $i=O(n \log n)$. We also give examples where $i=\Omega(n \log n / \log \log n)$. The second result can also be used to attack Theorem 3.2.1 below via a different method, though it gives a slightly worse bound. The results of this chapter has appeared in [Wan02].

Both Theorem 3.2.1 below and the results of Chapter 2 arose in connection with Lemma 4.4.4 of Chapter 4.

## Remarks.

1. The significance of Theorem 3.2 .1 below is that the upper bound on $r$ and $s$ depends only on $n$.
2. If $A^{r} \leq A^{s}$, then $A^{s}-A^{r} \geq 0$. Hence $A^{t}\left(A^{s}-A^{r}\right) \geq 0$ for all $t \geq 0$, and so it follows that $A^{r+t} \leq A^{s+t}$ for all $t \geq 0$.

While Theorem 3.2.1 appears to be new, there is some related work in the literature:
a. A non-negative matrix $A$ is called primitive if there exists an integer $t \geq 1$ such that $A^{t}>0$. The least such $t$ is called the exponent of $A$ and is denoted $\gamma(A)$. If $A$ is an $n \times n$ primitive matrix, then Wielandt [Wie50] asserted $\gamma(A) \leq n^{2}-2 n+2$, and this bound is best possible. Wielandt's assertion was proved by Rosenblatt [Ros57], Holladay and Varga [HV58], Perkins [Per61], Dulmage and Mendelsohn [DM64], and Heap and Lynn [HL64]. In this case, evidently $I=A^{0} \leq A^{\gamma(A)}$.
b. Rosenblatt [Ros57] studied the pattern of zero and nonzero entries in the powers of a non-negative matrix, and proved that there exist integers $i, j$ such that the pattern of zeros and nonzeros in $A^{t+i}$ is the same as that in $A^{t}$ for all $t \geq j$. Also see [Ptá58, PS58, HL66b].
c. Marcus and May [MM62] studied the maximum number of zero entries in the powers of an irreducible matrix (see definition in Section 3.3). Pullman [Pul64] studied the maximum number of positive entries in the powers of a non-negative matrix, and the least power for which this maximum is assumed. Also see Heap and Lynn [HL66a].
d. Let $A=\left(a_{i, j}\right)_{1 \leq i, j \leq n}$ be an $n \times n$ matrix with complex entries, and define $|A|=$ $\max _{1 \leq i \leq n} \sum_{1 \leq j \leq n}\left|a_{i j}\right|$. Mařík and Pták [MP60] studied the least integer $t$ such that $|A|=$ $\left|A^{2}\right|=\cdots=\left|A^{t}\right|=1$ implies $\left|A^{r}\right|=1$ for all $r$.

### 3.2 The First Theorem

First we prove the following theorem. The technique used in the proof below is adapted from $\left[\mathrm{CMS}^{+} 03\right]$ and is due to Sabin Cautis and Soroosh Yazdani.

Given matrices $A=\left[a_{i j}\right]$ and $B=\left[b_{i j}\right]$ we say $A \geq B$ iff $a_{i j} \geq b_{i j}$ for all $i, j$. We recall that $g(n)$ is the maximum order of an element of the symmetric group on $n$ objects. It is known that $g(n)=e^{O(\sqrt{n \log n})}$ [Lan03, Mil87].

Theorem 3.2.1 Let $A \geq O$ be an $n \times n$ integer matrix. Then there exist integers $r<s$ with $1 \leq r \leq n$ and $s \leq n+g(n)$ such that $A^{r} \leq A^{s}$.

Proof. Let $G=G(A)$ be the directed graph associated with $A$, i.e., we place $a_{i j}$ edges from vertex $v_{i}$ to vertex $v_{j}$ (this may create multiple edges and self-loops). Then the entry $(i, j)$ of $A^{t}$ gives the number of distinct walks of length $t$ from vertex $i$ to vertex $j$ in $G$. The length of a walk is the number of edges traversed.

Now consider some maximal set of vertices forming disjoint cycles $\left\{C_{1}, \ldots, C_{k}\right\}$ in $G$. Then the vertex set $V$ of $G$ can be written as the disjoint union

$$
V=C_{1} \cup \cdots \cup C_{k} \cup W
$$

where $W$ is the set of vertices which do not lie on any disjoint cycles. Note that $W$ may be empty. Then any directed walk in $G$ of length $|W|$ or greater must intersect some cycle $C_{i}$, for otherwise the walk would contain a cycle disjoint from $C_{1}, \ldots, C_{k}$, a contradiction. Now associate each walk of length $|W|$ or greater with the first cycle $C_{i}$ it intersects. Define $P_{i, j, l}^{t}$ to be the number of directed walks of length $t$ from vertex $i$ to vertex $j$ associated with cycle $C_{l}$. Let $A^{t}=\left[a_{i j}^{(t)}\right]$. Then for $t \geq|W|$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
a_{i j}^{(t)}=\sum_{l=1}^{k} P_{i, j, l}^{t} . \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Observe that

$$
\begin{equation*}
P_{i, j, l}^{t} \leq P_{i, j, l}^{t+\left|C_{l}\right|} \tag{3.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

because any walk of length $t$ associated with $C_{l}$ can be extended to a walk of length $t+\left|C_{l}\right|$ by traversing the cycle $C_{l}$ once. This construction is 1-1 and it maps a walk associated with $C_{l}$ to a walk associated with $C_{l}$, since $C_{l}$ is the first cycle encountered by both walks.

Combining (3.1) and (3.2) we get for $t \geq|W|$

$$
\begin{aligned}
a_{i j}^{(t)} & =\sum_{l=1}^{k} P_{i, j, l}^{t} \\
& \leq \sum_{l=1}^{k} P_{i, j, l}^{t+\operatorname{lcm}\left(\left|C_{1}\right|, \ldots,\left|C_{k}\right|\right)} \\
& =a_{i j}^{\left(t+\operatorname{lcm}\left(\left|C_{1}\right|, \ldots,\left|C_{k}\right|\right)\right)}
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence for $t \geq|W|, A^{t} \leq A^{t+\operatorname{lcm}\left(\left|C_{1}\right|, \ldots,\left|C_{k}\right|\right)}$. The theorem is proved.

### 3.3 An Alternate approach

There is a different route to approach Theorem 3.2.1 using Theorem 3.3.1 below. A slightly worse bound can be obtained this way, though Theorem 3.3.1 is of independent interest. We give it below.

Let $A \geq O$ be an $n \times n$ matrix. $A$ is irreducible if

$$
\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} A^{i}>O
$$

Theorem 3.3.1 If $A \geq O$ is an irreducible $n \times n$ matrix, then there exists an integer $e>0$ with

$$
e=O(n \log n)
$$

such that the diagonal entries of $A^{e}$ are all strictly positive.

Theorem 3.3.1 is equivalent to the following theorem about strongly connected graphs which we prove.

Theorem 3.3.2 Suppose $G$ is a strongly connected graph on $n$ vertices. Then there exists an integer $e>0$ with

$$
e=O(n \log n)
$$

such that for every vertex $v$ there is a closed walk of length $e$ containing $v$.

In the proof of Theorem 3.3.2 we will need the following fact.
A set of positive integers $S=\left\{a_{1}, \ldots, a_{m}\right\}$ is said to have the distinct subset sum property if no two distinct subsets of $S$ sum to the same number. It is known that if $a_{i} \leq n$ for $1 \leq i \leq m$, then $m=O(\log n)[$ Elk86].

Proof. We begin by picking an arbitrary vertex $v$ and a set of closed walks $\mathcal{C}=\left\{C_{1}, \ldots, C_{k}\right\}$ with the following properties.

1. Each $C_{i}$ contains $v$.
2. $\mathcal{C}$ covers $G$, i.e., every vertex of $G$ is contained in at least one of the $C_{i}$ 's.
3. $\left|C_{i}\right|<2 n$ for $1 \leq i \leq k$ where $\left|C_{i}\right|$ denotes the length of $C_{i}$.

Since $G$ is strongly connected, we can find such a set of closed walks $\mathcal{C}$. In fact we can find such a set with $k \leq n$ but we will not need this fact below.

If a set of closed walks $\mathcal{C}$ contain at least one point in common then if we traverse any subset of $\mathcal{C}$ in any order and any number of times we get another closed walk. This is the reason for property 1 . We use this fact implicitly below.

We need a bit of notation. If $\mathcal{C}$ is a set of closed walks, we denote by $\|\mathcal{C}\|$ the sum of the lengths of closed walks in $\mathcal{C}$.

Let $c_{i}=\left|C_{i}\right|$. Since each $C_{i}$ contains $v$ and $\mathcal{C}$ covers $G$, we see that every vertex of $G$ is contained in a closed walk of length $c=\|\mathcal{C}\|=c_{1}+\cdots+c_{k}$.

In general $c$ may be as large as $\Omega\left(n^{2}\right)$. To get an $O(n \log n)$ upper bound we pick a subset $\mathcal{D}=\left\{D_{1}, \ldots, D_{m}\right\}$ of $\mathcal{C}$ with the following properties.

1. Let $d_{i}=\left|D_{i}\right|$. We require the set $S=\left\{d_{1}, \ldots, d_{m}\right\}$ to have the distinct subset sum property.
2. $\mathcal{D}$ is maximal in the sense that if we add any closed walk in $\mathcal{C}-\mathcal{D}$ to $\mathcal{D}$, then the set of lengths of closed walks in $\mathcal{D}$ no longer has the distinct subset sum property.

Now let $d=\|\mathcal{D}\|=d_{1}+\cdots+d_{m}$. We claim that for every vertex $w$ there is a closed walk of length $d$ containing $w$. If the claim is true then we are done, since $m=O(\log n)$ and $d_{i}<2 n$. To see the claim, there are two cases.

Case 1: $w$ lies on one of the closed walks in $\mathcal{D}$. Then $w$ is contained in the closed walk $T$ that traverses each $D_{i}$ once and $|T|=d$.

Case 2: $w$ does not lie on any closed walk in $\mathcal{D}$. Since $\mathcal{C}$ covers $G, w$ lies on some closed walk in $\mathcal{C}$, say $C_{i}$. Since $\mathcal{D}$ is maximal, the set $S^{\prime}=\left\{d_{1}, \ldots, d_{m}, c_{i}\right\}$ does not have the distinct subset sum property. Therefore there are two distinct subsets $U=\left\{u_{1}, \ldots, u_{p}\right\}$ and $H=\left\{h_{1}, \ldots, h_{q}\right\}$ of $S^{\prime}$ such that $u_{1}+\cdots+u_{p}=h_{1}+\cdots+h_{q}$. Since $S$ has the distinct subset sum property, exactly one of $U$ or $H$ contains $c_{i}$, say $U$ contains $c_{i}$. Now we can get a closed walk $T$ of length $d$ that contains $w$ by traversing the closed walks that correspond to the $u_{i}$ 's once and then traversing the closed walks in $\mathcal{D}-\mathcal{H}$ once, where $\mathcal{H}$ consists of closed walks corresponding to the $h_{i}$ 's. $T$ contains $w$ because $T$ traverses $C_{i}$ which contains $w$. The length of $T$ is $d$ because

$$
|T|=u_{1}+\cdots+u_{p}+\|\mathcal{D}-\mathcal{H}\|=\|\mathcal{H}\|-\|\mathcal{D}-\mathcal{H}\|=\|\mathcal{D}\|=d
$$

This concludes the proof of the theorem.

### 3.4 Lower bound

Given an irreducible matrix $A \geq O$, let $e_{A}$ be the least integer for which the conclusion of Theorem 3.3.1 is true. We recall that in [SW99] we defined the function $\beta(n)$ to be the maximum of $e_{A}$ over all $n \times n$ non-negative irreducible matrix $A$. Theorem 3.3.1 shows that $\beta(n)=O(n \log n)$. There is a lower bound of $\Omega(n \log n / \log \log n)$ for $\beta(n)$ due to J. Geelen. We sketch the construction below.

The lower bound is given by the following graph $G$.


Let $b_{0}=k^{k}$ and $b_{i}=k^{k}+k^{i-1}$ for $1 \leq i \leq k$. Then we see that the length of any closed walk in $G$ is a non-negative integer combination of numbers in $B=\left\{b_{0}, \ldots, b_{k}\right\}$.

We now define the weight, $W_{B}(t)$, of a number $t$ with respect to $B$. If $t$ cannot be written as a non-negative integer combination of elements of $B$ then $W_{B}(t)=\infty$. Otherwise suppose

$$
\begin{align*}
t & =\sum_{i=0}^{k} c_{i} b_{i} \\
& =c k^{k}+\sum_{i=1}^{k} d_{i} k^{i-1} \tag{3.3}
\end{align*}
$$

where $0 \leq d_{i}<k$. In this case we let

$$
W_{B}(t)=\sum_{i=1}^{k} d_{i} .
$$

Note that

$$
\begin{equation*}
c \geq W_{B}(t) \tag{3.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $s$ be the least integer for which the conclusion of Theorem 3.3.2 is true. Since every vertex of $G$ lies on a closed walk of length $s$ we see that $W_{B}\left(s-b_{i}\right)<\infty$ for all $i$. By (3.3) and (3.4), we have

$$
s \geq k^{k}\left(1+\max _{b_{i}} W_{B}\left(s-b_{i}\right)\right)
$$

We claim

$$
\max _{b_{i}} W_{B}\left(s-b_{i}\right) \geq k-1
$$

If the claim is true then we are done because

$$
n=|G|=1+k+\cdots+k^{k} \leq 2 k^{k}
$$

while

$$
s \geq k^{k}(1+k-1)=\Omega(n \log n / \log \log n)
$$

To see the claim we write

$$
\begin{aligned}
s & =\sum_{i=0}^{k} c_{i} b_{i} \\
& =c k^{k}+\sum_{i=1}^{k} d_{i} k^{i-1}
\end{aligned}
$$

There are two cases.

Case 1: If $d_{i} \geq 1$ for $1 \leq i \leq k$, then the claim is true since $W_{B}\left(s-b_{i}\right) \geq k-1$ for all $i$.
Case 2: If $d_{i}=0$ for some $i$, then $W_{B}\left(s-b_{i}\right) \geq k-1$.
So the claim is proved and we are done.

## Chapter 4

## On Two-Sided Infinite Fixed Points of

## Morphisms

This chapter is based on the work of J. Shallit and M.-w. Wang [SW02].

### 4.1 Introduction and definitions

Let $\Sigma$ be a finite alphabet, and let $h: \Sigma^{*} \rightarrow \Sigma^{*}$ be a morphism on the free monoid, i.e., a map satisfying $h(x y)=h(x) h(y)$ for all $x, y \in \Sigma^{*}$. If a word $w$ (finite or infinite) satisfies the equation $h(w)=w$, then we call $w$ a fixed point of $h$. Both finite and infinite fixed points of morphisms have long been studied in formal languages. For example, in one of the earliest works on formal languages, Axel Thue [Thu12, Ber95] proved that the one-sided infinite word

$$
\mathbf{t}=0110100110010110 \cdots
$$

is overlap-free, that is, it contains no subword of the form axaxa, where $a \in\{0,1\}$, and $x \in(0+1)^{*}$. Define a morphism $\mu$ by $\mu(0)=01$ and $\mu(1)=10$. The word $\mathbf{t}$, now called the Thue-Morse infinite word, is the unique one-sided infinite fixed point of $\mu$ which starts with 0 . In fact, nearly every explicit construction of an infinite word avoiding certain patterns
involves the fixed point of a morphism; for example, see [HM56, Lee57, Zec58, Ple70]. Onesided infinite fixed points of uniform morphisms also play a crucial role in the theory of automatic sequences; see, for example, [All87].

Because of their importance in formal languages, it is of great interest to characterize all the fixed points, both finite and infinite, of a morphism $h$. This problem was first studied by Head [Hea81], who characterized the finite fixed points of $h$. Later, Head and Lando [HL86] characterized the one-sided infinite fixed points of $h$. (For different proofs of these characterizations, see Hamm and Shallit [HS99].) In this chapter we complete the description of all fixed points of morphisms by characterizing the two-sided infinite fixed points of $h$. Two-sided infinite words (sometimes called bi-infinite words or bi-infinite sequences) play an important role in symbolic dynamics [LM95], and have also been studied in automata theory [NP82, NP86], cellular automata [Hur90], and the theory of codes [VTSS90, DT92]. See also the recent book by D. Perrin and J.-É. Pin [PP04].

We first introduce some notation, some of which is standard and can be found in [HU79]. For single letters, that is, elements of $\Sigma$, we use the lower case letters $a, b, c, d$. For finite words, we use the lower case letters $t, u, v, w, x, y, z$. For infinite words, we use bold-face letters $\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z}$. We let $\epsilon$ denote the empty word. If $S$ is a set, then by Card $S$ we mean the number of elements of $S$. We say $x \in \Sigma^{*}$ is a subword of $y \in \Sigma^{*}$ if there exist words $w, z \in \Sigma^{*}$ such that $y=w x z$.

If there exists an integer $j \geq 1$ such that $h^{j}(a)=\epsilon$, then the letter $a$ is said to be mortal; otherwise $a$ is immortal. The set of mortal letters associated with a morphism $h$ is denoted by $M_{h}$. The mortality exponent of a morphism $h$ is defined to be the least integer $t \geq 0$ such that $h^{t}(a)=\epsilon$ for all $a \in M_{h}$. (If $M_{h}=\emptyset$, we take $t=0$.) We write the mortality exponent as $\exp (h)=t$. It is easy to prove that $\exp (h) \leq \operatorname{Card} M_{h}$. If $h(a) \neq \epsilon$ for all $a \in \Sigma$, then $h$ is non-erasing.

We let $\Sigma^{\omega}$ denote the set of all one-sided right-infinite words over the alphabet $\Sigma$. Most of the definitions above extend to $\Sigma^{\omega}$ in the obvious way. For example, if $\mathbf{w}=c_{1} c_{2} c_{3} \cdots$,
then $h(\mathbf{w})=h\left(c_{1}\right) h\left(c_{2}\right) h\left(c_{3}\right) \cdots$. If $L \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$ is a language, then we define

$$
L^{\omega}:=\left\{w_{1} w_{2} w_{3} \cdots: w_{i} \in L-\{\epsilon\} \text { for all } i \geq 1\right\} .
$$

Perhaps slightly less obviously, we can also define the word $\overrightarrow{h^{\omega}}(a)$ for a letter $a$, provided $h(a)=w a x$ and $w \in M_{h}^{*}$. In this case, there exists $t \geq 0$ such that $h^{t}(w)=\epsilon$. Then we define

$$
\overrightarrow{h^{\omega}}(a):=h^{t-1}(w) \cdots h(w) \text { waxh(x)} h^{2}(x) \cdots,
$$

which is infinite if and only if $x \notin M_{h}^{*}$. Note that the factorization of $h(a)$ as $w a x$, with $w \in M_{h}^{*}$ and $x \notin M_{h}^{*}$, if it exists, is unique.

In a similar way, we let ${ }^{\omega} \Sigma$ denote the set of all left-infinite words, which are of the form $\mathbf{w}=\cdots c_{-2} c_{-1} c_{0}$. We write $h(\mathbf{w})=\cdots h\left(c_{-2}\right) h\left(c_{-1}\right) h\left(c_{0}\right)$. We define ${ }^{\omega} L$ to be the set of left-infinite words formed by concatenating infinitely many words from $L$, that is,

$$
{ }^{\omega} L:=\left\{\cdots w_{-2} w_{-1} w_{0}: w_{i} \in L-\{\epsilon\} \text { for all } i \leq 0\right\} .
$$

If $h(a)=w a x$, and $w \notin M_{h}^{*}, x \in M_{h}^{*}$, then we define the left-infinite word

$$
\overleftarrow{h^{\omega}}(a):=\cdots h^{2}(w) h(w) \text { waxh }(x) \cdots h^{t-1}(x)
$$

where $h^{t}(x)=\epsilon$. Again, if the factorization of $h(a)$ as wax exists, with $w \notin M_{h}^{*}, x \in M_{h}^{*}$, then it is unique.

We can convert left-infinite to right-infinite words (and vice versa) using the reverse operation, which is denoted $\mathbf{w}^{R}$. For example, if $w=c_{0} c_{1} c_{2} \cdots$, then $\mathbf{w}^{R}=\cdots c_{2} c_{1} c_{0}$.

We now turn to the notation for two-sided infinite words. These have been much less studied in the literature than one-sided words, and the notation has not been standardized. Some authors consider a pair of two-sided infinite words to be identical if they agree after ap-
plying a finite shift to one of the words. Other authors do not. (This distinction is sometimes called "unpointed" vs. "pointed" [Bea85].) In this chapter, we consider both the pointed and unpointed versions of the equation $h(\mathbf{w})=\mathbf{w}$. As it turns out, the "pointed" version of this equation is quite easy to solve, based on known results, while the "unpointed" case is significantly more difficult. The latter is our main result, which appears as Theorem 4.4.1.

We let $\Sigma^{\mathbb{Z}}$ denote the set of all two-sided infinite words over the alphabet $\Sigma$, which are of the form $\cdots c_{-2} c_{-1} c_{0} \cdot c_{1} c_{2} \cdots$. In displaying an infinite word as a concatenation of words, we use a decimal point to the left of the character $c_{1}$, to indicate how the word is indexed. Of course, the decimal point is not part of the word itself. We define the shift $\sigma(\mathbf{w})$ to be the infinite word obtained by shifting $\mathbf{w}$ to the left one position, so that

$$
\sigma\left(\cdots c_{-2} c_{-1} c_{0} \cdot c_{1} c_{2} c_{3} \cdots\right)=\cdots d_{-2} d_{-1} d_{0} \cdot d_{1} d_{2} d_{3} \cdots,
$$

where $d_{i}=c_{i+1}$ for all $i \in \mathbb{Z}$. By $\sigma^{k}$ we mean the map $\sigma$ iterated $k$ times, so that

$$
\sigma^{k}\left(\cdots c_{-2} c_{-1} c_{0} \cdot c_{1} c_{2} c_{3} \cdots\right)=\cdots c_{k-1} c_{k} \cdot c_{k+1} c_{k+2} \cdots
$$

If $\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}$ are both two-sided infinite words, and there exists an integer $k$ such that $\mathbf{x}=\sigma^{k}(\mathbf{w})$, then we call $\mathbf{w}$ and $\mathbf{x}$ conjugates, and we write $\mathbf{w} \sim \mathbf{x}$. It is easy to see that $\sim$ is an equivalence relation. We extend this notation to languages as follows: if $L$ is a set of twosided infinite words, then by $\mathbf{w} \sim L$ we mean there exists $\mathbf{x} \in L$ such that $\mathbf{w} \sim \mathbf{x}$.

If $w$ is a nonempty finite word, then by $w^{\mathbb{Z}}$ we mean the two-sided infinite word $\cdots w w w . w w w \cdots$. Using concatenation, we can join a left-infinite word $\mathbf{w}=\cdots c_{-2} c_{-1} c_{0}$ with a right-infinite word $\mathbf{x}=d_{0} d_{1} d_{2} \cdots$ to form a new two-sided infinite word, as follows:

$$
\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}:=\cdots c_{-2} c_{-1} c_{0} \cdot d_{0} d_{1} d_{2} \cdots
$$

If $L \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$ is a set of words, then we define

$$
L^{\mathbb{Z}}:=\left\{\cdots w_{-2} w_{-1} w_{0} \cdot w_{1} w_{2} \cdots: w_{i} \in L-\{\epsilon\} \text { for all } i \in \mathbb{Z}\right\}
$$

If $\mathbf{w}=\cdots c_{-2} c_{-1} c_{0} \cdot c_{1} c_{2} \cdots$, and $h$ is a morphism, then we define

$$
\begin{equation*}
h(\mathbf{w}):=\cdots h\left(c_{-2}\right) h\left(c_{-1}\right) h\left(c_{0}\right) \cdot h\left(c_{1}\right) h\left(c_{2}\right) \cdots \tag{4.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Finally, if $i=|w a|, h(a)=w a x$, and $w, x \notin M_{h}^{*}$, then we define

$$
\overleftrightarrow{h^{\omega ; i}}(a):=\cdots h^{2}(w) h(w) w \cdot a x h(x) h^{2}(x) \cdots
$$

a two-sided infinite word. Note that in this case the factorization of $h(a)$ as wax is not necessarily unique, and we use the superscript $i$ to indicate which $a$ is being chosen.

We can produce one-sided infinite words from two-sided infinite words by ignoring the portion to the right or left of the decimal point. Suppose $\mathbf{w}=\cdots c_{-2} c_{-1} c_{0} \cdot c_{1} c_{2} c_{3} \cdots$. We define

$$
\mathrm{L}(\mathbf{w})=\cdots c_{-2} c_{-1} c_{0}
$$

a left-infinite word, and

$$
\mathrm{R}(\mathbf{w})=c_{1} c_{2} c_{3} \cdots,
$$

a right-infinite word.

### 4.2 Finite and one-sided infinite fixed points

In this section we recall the results of Head [Hea81] and Head and Lando [HL86].

Define

$$
A_{h}=\left\{a \in \Sigma: \exists x, y \in \Sigma^{*} \text { such that } h(a)=x a y \text { and } x y \in M_{h}^{*}\right\}
$$

and

$$
F_{h}=\left\{h^{t}(a): a \in A_{h} \text { and } t=\exp (h)\right\} .
$$

Note that there is at most one way to write $h(a)$ in the form $x a y$ with $x y \in M_{h}^{*}$.

Theorem 4.2.1 [Hea81] Let $h: \Sigma^{*} \rightarrow \Sigma^{*}$ be a morphism. Then a finite word $w \in \Sigma^{*}$ has the property that $w=h(w)$ if and only if $w \in F_{h}^{*}$.

Theorem 4.2.2 [HL86, HS99] The right-infinite word $\mathbf{w}$ is a fixed point of $h$ if and only if at least one of the following two conditions holds:
(a) $\mathbf{w} \in F_{h}^{\omega}$; or
(b) $\mathbf{w} \in F_{h}^{*} \overrightarrow{h^{\omega}}(a)$ for some $a \in \Sigma$, and there exist $x \in M_{h}^{*}$ and $y \notin M_{h}^{*}$ such that $h(a)=x a y$.

Theorem 4.2.3 [HL86, HS99] The left-infinite word $\mathbf{w}$ is a fixed point of $h$ if and only if at least one of the following two conditions holds:
(a) $\mathbf{w} \in{ }^{\omega} F_{h}$; or
(b) $\mathbf{w} \in \overleftarrow{h}^{\omega}(a) F_{h}^{*}$ for some $a \in \Sigma$, and there exist $x \notin M_{h}^{*}$ and $y \in M_{h}^{*}$ such that $h(a)=$ xay .

### 4.3 Two-sided infinite fixed points: the "pointed" case

Now we consider the equation $h(\mathbf{w})=\mathbf{w}$ for two-sided infinite words. We have the following result:

Theorem 4.3.1 The equation $h(\mathbf{w})=\mathbf{w}$ has a solution if and only if at least one of the following conditions holds:
(a) $\mathbf{w} \in F_{h}^{\mathbb{Z}}$; or
(b) $\mathbf{w} \in \overleftarrow{h^{\omega}}(a) F_{h}^{*} . F_{h}^{\omega}$ for some $a \in \Sigma$, and there exist $x \notin M_{h}^{*}, y \in M_{h}^{*}$ such that $h(a)=$ xay; or
(c) $\mathbf{w} \in{ }^{\omega} F_{h} \cdot F_{h}^{*} \quad \overrightarrow{h^{\omega}}(a)$ for some $a \in \Sigma$, and there exist $x \in M_{h}^{*}, y \notin M_{h}^{*}$ such that $h(a)=$ xay; or
(d) $\mathbf{w} \in \overleftarrow{h^{\omega}}(a) F_{h}^{*} \cdot F_{h}^{*} \overrightarrow{h^{\omega}}(b)$ for some $a, b \in \Sigma$ and there exist $x, z \notin M_{h}^{*}, y, w \in M_{h}^{*}$, such that $h(a)=x a y$ and $h(b)=w b z$.

Proof. Let $\mathbf{w}=\cdots c_{-2} c_{-1} c_{0} \cdot c_{1} c_{2} c_{3} \cdots$. By definition, we have

$$
h(\mathbf{w})=\cdots h\left(c_{-2}\right) h\left(c_{-1}\right) h\left(c_{0}\right) \cdot h\left(c_{1}\right) h\left(c_{2}\right) h\left(c_{3}\right) \cdots,
$$

so if $h(\mathbf{w})=\mathbf{w}$, then we have $h\left(c_{1} c_{2} c_{3} \cdots\right)=c_{1} c_{2} c_{3} \cdots$ and $h\left(\cdots c_{-2} c_{-1} c_{0}\right)=\cdots c_{-2} c_{-1} c_{0}$.
We may now apply Theorem 4.2.2 (resp., Theorem 4.2.3) to $\mathrm{R}(\mathbf{w})$ (resp., $\mathrm{L}(\mathbf{w})$ ). There are 2 cases to consider for each side, giving $2 \times 2=4$ total cases.

Example. Let $\mu$ be the Thue-Morse morphism, which maps $0 \rightarrow 01$, and $1 \rightarrow 10$. Define $g=\mu^{2}$. Then $g(0)=0110, g(1)=1001$. Let $\mathbf{t}=01101001 \cdots$, the one-sided Thue-Morse infinite word. Then there are exactly 4 two-sided infinite fixed points of $g$, as follows:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{t}^{R} \cdot \mathbf{t} & =\cdots 10010110.01101001 \cdots \\
\overline{\mathbf{t}}^{R} \cdot \mathbf{t} & =\cdots 01101001.01101001 \cdots \\
\overline{\mathbf{t}}^{R} \cdot \overline{\mathbf{t}} & =\cdots 01101001.10010110 \cdots \\
\mathbf{t}^{R} \cdot \overline{\mathbf{t}} & =\cdots 10010110.10010110 \cdots
\end{aligned}
$$

All of these fall under case (d) of Theorem 4.3.1. Incidentally, all four of these words are overlap-free.

### 4.4 Two-sided infinite fixed points: the "unpointed" case

In this section, we characterize the two-sided infinite fixed points of a morphism in the "unpointed" case. That is, our goal is to characterize the solutions to $h(\mathbf{w}) \sim \mathbf{w}$. The following theorem is the main result of the chapter.

Theorem 4.4.1 Let $h$ be a morphism. Then the two-sided infinite word $\mathbf{w}$ satisfies the relation $h(\mathbf{w}) \sim \mathbf{w}$ if and only if at least one of the following conditions holds:
(a) $\mathbf{w} \sim F_{h}^{\mathbb{Z}}$; or
(b) $\mathbf{w} \sim \overleftarrow{h}^{\omega}(a) . F_{h}^{\omega}$ for some $a \in \Sigma$, and there exist $x \notin M_{h}^{*}$ and $y \in M_{h}^{*}$ such that $h(a)=$ xay; or
(c) $\mathbf{w} \sim^{\omega} F_{h} . \overrightarrow{h^{\omega}}(a)$ for some $a \in \Sigma$, and there exist $x \in M_{h}^{*}$ and $y \notin M_{h}^{*}$ such that $h(a)=$ xay; or
(d) $\mathbf{w} \sim \overleftarrow{h}^{\overleftarrow{\omega}}(a) . F_{h}^{*} \overrightarrow{h^{\omega}}(b)$ for some $a, b \in \Sigma$ and there exist $x, z \notin M_{h}^{*}, y, w \in M_{h}^{*}$, such that $h(a)=x a y$ and $h(b)=w b z$; or
(e) $\mathbf{w} \sim \overleftrightarrow{h^{\omega ; i}}(a)$ for some $a \in \Sigma$, and there exist $x, y \notin M_{h}^{*}$ such that $h(a)=$ xay with $|x a|=i$ or
(f) $\mathbf{w}=(x y)^{\mathbb{Z}}$ for some $x, y \in \Sigma^{+}$such that $h(x y)=y x$.

Before we begin the proof of Theorem 4.4.1, we state and prove three useful lemmas.

Lemma 4.4.2 Suppose $\mathbf{w}$, $\mathbf{x}$ are 2 two-sided infinite words with $\mathbf{w} \sim \mathbf{x}$. Then $h(\mathbf{w}) \sim h(\mathbf{x})$.

Proof. Since $\mathbf{w} \sim \mathbf{x}$, there exists $j$ such that $\mathbf{x}=\sigma^{j}(\mathbf{w})$. Then $h(\mathbf{x})=\sigma^{k}(h(\mathbf{w}))$, where

$$
k= \begin{cases}\left|h\left(c_{1} c_{2} \cdots c_{j}\right)\right|, & \text { if } j \geq 0  \tag{4.2}\\ -\left|h\left(c_{j+1} c_{j+2} \cdots c_{-1} c_{0}\right)\right|, & \text { if } j<0\end{cases}
$$

Our second lemma concerns periodicity of infinite words. We say a two-sided infinite word

$$
\mathbf{w}=\cdots c_{-2} c_{-1} c_{0} \cdot c_{1} c_{2} \cdots
$$

is periodic if there exists a nonempty word $x$ such that $\mathbf{w}=x^{\mathbb{Z}}$, i.e., if there exists an integer $p \geq 1$ such that $c_{k}=c_{k+p}$ for all integers $k$. The integer $p$ is called a period of $\mathbf{w}$.

Lemma 4.4.3 Suppose $\mathbf{w}=\cdots c_{-2} c_{-1} c_{0} . c_{1} c_{2} \cdots$ is a two-sided infinite word such that there exists a one-sided right-infinite word $\mathbf{x}$ and infinitely many negative indices $0>i_{1}>i_{2}>\cdots$ such that

$$
\mathbf{x}=c_{i_{j}} c_{i_{j}+1} c_{i_{j}+2} \cdots
$$

for $j \geq 1$. Then $\mathbf{w}$ is periodic.
Proof. By assumption

$$
\mathbf{x}=c_{i_{j}} c_{i_{j}+1} c_{i_{j}+2} \cdots=c_{i_{j+1}} c_{i_{j+1}+1} c_{i_{j+1}+2} \cdots
$$

for $j \geq 1$. Hence $c_{i_{j}+k}=c_{i_{j+1}+k}$ for all $k \geq 0$, and so the right-infinite word $\mathbf{x}$ is periodic of period $i_{j}-i_{j+1}$. Since this is true for all $j \geq 1$, it follows that $\mathbf{x}$ is periodic of period $g=\operatorname{gcd}_{j \geq 1}\left(i_{j}-i_{j+1}\right)$, i.e., $c_{i_{j}+k}=c_{i_{j}+g+k}$ for all $j \geq 1, k \geq 0$. Since $i_{j} \rightarrow-\infty$, it follows that $c_{k}=c_{k+g}$ for all $k$, and so $\mathbf{w}$ is periodic of period $g$.

Our third lemma is an application of Theorem 3.2.1 from Chapter 3 to the growth functions of iterated morphisms.

Lemma 4.4.4 Let $h: \Sigma^{*} \rightarrow \Sigma^{*}$ be a morphism. Then
(a) there exist integers $i, j$ with $0 \leq i<j$ and $\left|h^{i}(w)\right| \leq\left|h^{j}(w)\right|$ for all $w \in \Sigma^{*}$; and
(b) there exists an integer $M$ depending only on $k=$ Card $\Sigma$ such that for all $h: \Sigma^{*} \rightarrow \Sigma^{*}$, we have $j \leq M$.

We note that part (a) was asserted without proof by Cobham [Cob68]. The proof below connecting the lemma with Theorem 3.2.1 does not give the best upper bound $M$. For the best possible upper bound $M=|\Sigma|$, see $\left[\mathrm{CMS}^{+} 03\right]$.

Proof. Let $|x|_{a}$ denote the number of occurrences of the letter $a$ in the string $x$. Given a morphism $h: \Sigma^{*} \rightarrow \Sigma^{*}$ for $\Sigma=\left\{a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{d}\right\}$, we define the incidence matrix $M=M(h)$ as follows:

$$
M=\left(m_{i, j}\right)_{1 \leq i, j \leq d}
$$

where $m_{i, j}=\left|h\left(a_{j}\right)\right|_{a_{i}}$.
Note that

$$
|h(w)|_{a_{i}}=\sum_{1 \leq j \leq d}\left|h\left(a_{j}\right)\right|_{a_{i}}|w|_{a_{j}}
$$

and so

$$
\left[\begin{array}{c}
|h(w)|_{a_{1}} \\
|h(w)|_{a_{2}} \\
\vdots \\
|h(w)|_{a_{d}}
\end{array}\right]=M(h)\left[\begin{array}{c}
|w|_{a_{1}} \\
|w|_{a_{2}} \\
\vdots \\
|w|_{a_{d}}
\end{array}\right]
$$

Hence

$$
\left[\begin{array}{c}
\left|h^{n}(w)\right|_{a_{1}} \\
\left|h^{n}(w)\right|_{a_{2}} \\
\vdots \\
\left|h^{n}(w)\right|_{a_{d}}
\end{array}\right]=(M(h))^{n}\left[\begin{array}{c}
|w|_{a_{1}} \\
|w|_{a_{2}} \\
\vdots \\
|w|_{a_{d}}
\end{array}\right]
$$

and finally

$$
\left|h^{n}(w)\right|=\left[\begin{array}{ccccc}
1 & 1 & 1 & \cdots & 1
\end{array}\right] M(h)^{n}\left[\begin{array}{c}
|w|_{a_{1}} \\
|w|_{a_{2}} \\
\vdots \\
|w|_{a_{d}}
\end{array}\right]
$$

The lemma now follows from Theorem 3.2.1.

Now we can prove Theorem 4.4.1.

Proof. $\quad(\Longleftarrow)$ : Suppose case (a) holds, and $\mathbf{w} \sim F_{h}^{\mathbb{Z}}$. Then there exists $\mathbf{x} \in F_{h}^{\mathbb{Z}}$ with $\mathbf{w} \sim \mathbf{x}$. Since $\mathbf{x} \in F_{h}^{\mathbb{Z}}$, we can write $\mathbf{x}=\cdots x_{-2} x_{-1} x_{0} \cdot x_{1} x_{2} \cdots$, where $x_{i} \in F_{h}$ for all $i \in \mathbb{Z}$. Since $x_{i} \in F_{h}$, we have $h\left(x_{i}\right)=x_{i}$ for all $i \in \mathbb{Z}$. It follows that $h(\mathbf{x})=\mathbf{x}$. Now, applying Lemma 4.4.2, we conclude that $h(\mathbf{w}) \sim h(\mathbf{x})=\mathbf{x} \sim \mathbf{w}$.

Next, suppose case (b) holds, and $\mathbf{w} \sim \overleftarrow{h^{\omega}}(a) . F_{h}^{\omega}$. Then $\mathbf{w} \sim \mathbf{x}$ for some $\mathbf{x}$ of the form

$$
\mathbf{x}=\overleftarrow{h}^{\omega}(a) \cdot x_{1} x_{2} x_{3} \cdots,
$$

where $x_{i} \in F_{h}$ for all $i \geq 1$, and $h(a)=x a y$ with $x \notin M_{h}^{*}$ and $y \in M_{h}^{*}$. Then we have $h(\mathbf{x})=\mathbf{x}$, and by Lemma 4.4.2, we conclude that $h(\mathbf{w}) \sim h(\mathbf{x})=\mathbf{x} \sim \mathbf{w}$.

Cases (c), (d), and (e) are similar to case (b).
Finally, if case (f) holds, then

$$
h(\mathbf{w})=h(\cdots x y x y \cdot x y x y \cdots)=\cdots \text { yxyx.yxyx } \cdots,
$$

and so $h(\mathbf{w})=\sigma^{k}(\mathbf{w})$ for $k=|x|$.
$(\Longrightarrow)$ : First, we introduce some notation. We define $h_{k}(\mathbf{w})=\sigma^{-k}(h(\mathbf{w}))$. More precisely, if

$$
h_{k}\left(\cdots c_{-2} c_{-1} c_{0} \cdot c_{1} c_{2} \cdots\right)=\cdots b_{-2} b_{-1} b_{0} \cdot b_{1} b_{2} \cdots,
$$

then we define

$$
b_{s(i-1)+1} \cdots b_{s(i)}=h\left(c_{i}\right)
$$

where

$$
s(i):= \begin{cases}\left|h\left(c_{1} c_{2} \cdots c_{i}\right)\right|+k, & \text { if } i \geq 0  \tag{4.3}\\ k-\left|h\left(c_{i+1} c_{i+2} \cdots c_{0}\right)\right|, & \text { if } i<0\end{cases}
$$

By hypothesis $\mathbf{w}=h_{k}(\mathbf{w})$ for some $k$. Then $h\left(c_{i}\right)=c_{s(i-1)+1} \cdots c_{s(i)}$ where $s$ is defined as in Eq. (4.3). We define the set $C$ as follows: $C=\{i \in \mathbb{Z}: s(i)=i\}$. Our argument is divided into two major cases, depending on whether or not $C$ is empty.

Case 1: $C \neq \emptyset$. In this case there are four subcases, depending on the form of $C$.

Case 1a: $\inf C=-\infty$ and $\sup C=\infty$. Then there exists a two-sided infinite sequence $\ldots, e_{-2}, e_{-1}, e_{0}, e_{1}, e_{2}, \ldots$ such that $s\left(e_{i}\right)=e_{i}$ for all $i \in \mathbb{Z}$. But $s\left(e_{i}\right)=e_{i}$ and $s\left(e_{i+1}\right)=e_{i+1}$ together imply that

$$
h\left(c_{e_{i}+1} \cdots c_{e_{i+1}}\right)=c_{s\left(e_{i}\right)+1} \cdots c_{s\left(e_{i+1}\right)}=c_{e_{i}+1} \cdots c_{e_{i+1}} .
$$

Hence, defining $x_{i}:=c_{e_{i}+1} \cdots c_{e_{i+1}}$, we have $h\left(x_{i}\right)=x_{i}$ for all $i \in \mathbb{Z}$. By Theorem 4.2.1, then, $x_{i} \in F_{h}^{*}$ for all $i \in \mathbb{Z}$. Now define $\mathbf{x}=\cdots x_{-2} x_{-1} x_{0} \cdot x_{1} x_{2} \cdots$. Since $\mathbf{w} \sim \mathbf{x}$, it follows that $\mathbf{w} \sim F_{h}^{\mathbb{Z}}$. This corresponds to case (a).

Case 1b: $\inf C=r>-\infty$ and $\sup C=\infty$. Then there exists an infinite sequence $e_{0}=r, e_{1}, e_{2}, \ldots$ such that $s\left(e_{i}\right)=e_{i}$ for all integers $i \geq 0$. Define $\mathbf{z}:=\cdots c_{r-2} c_{r-1} c_{r}$, a
left-infinite word; then $h(\mathbf{z})=\mathbf{z}$. It now follows from Theorem 4.2.3 and the form of $\mathbf{z}$ that $\mathbf{z} \in \overleftarrow{h}^{\omega}(a)$ for some $a$ with $h(a)=x a y, x \notin M_{h}^{*}, y \in M_{h}^{*}$.

For $i \geq 0$ define $y_{i}:=c_{e_{i}+1} \cdots c_{e_{i+1}}$. As in Case 1a, we have $h\left(y_{i}\right)=y_{i}$ for all $i \geq 0$. Thus, letting $\mathbf{x}=\mathbf{z} \cdot y_{0} y_{1} y_{2} \cdots$, we have $\mathbf{x} \in \overleftarrow{h^{\omega}}(a) . F_{h}^{\omega}$. Since $\mathbf{w} \sim \mathbf{x}$, it follows that $\mathbf{w} \sim \overleftarrow{h}^{\omega}(a) . F_{h}^{\omega}$. This corresponds to case (b).

Case 1c: $\inf C=-\infty$ and $\sup C=t<\infty$. This is similar to Case 1b, and by the same reasoning we find $\mathbf{w} \sim^{\omega} F_{h}$. $\vec{h}^{\omega}(a)$ for some $a$ with $h(a)=x a y$ and $x \in M_{h}^{*}, y \notin M_{h}^{*}$. This corresponds to case (c).

Case 1d: $\inf C=r>-\infty$ and $\sup C=t<\infty$. Let $\mathbf{x}=\cdots c_{r-2} c_{r-1} c_{r}$ (a left-infinite word), $v=c_{r+1} \cdots c_{t}$ (a finite word), and $\mathbf{z}=c_{t+1} c_{t+2} \cdots$ (a right-infinite word). Then we have $h(\mathbf{x})=\mathbf{x}, h(v)=v$, and $h(\mathbf{z})=\mathbf{z}$. By Theorem 4.2.3 and the form of $\mathbf{x}$, there exists $a \in \Sigma$ such that $\mathbf{x} \in \overleftarrow{h^{\omega}}(a)$ with $h(a)=x a y$, and $x \notin M_{h}^{*}, y \in M_{h}^{*}$. By Theorem 4.2.1 we know $v \in F_{h}^{*}$. By Theorem 4.2.2 and the form of $\mathbf{z}$, there exists $b \in \Sigma$ such that $\mathbf{z} \in \overrightarrow{h^{\omega}}(b)$ with $h(b)=w b z$, and $w \in M_{h}^{*}, z \notin M_{h}^{*}$. If we let $\mathbf{y}=\mathbf{x} \cdot v \mathbf{z}$, then $\mathbf{w} \sim \mathbf{y}$, and so $\mathbf{w} \sim \overleftarrow{h^{\omega}}(a) . F_{h}^{*} \overrightarrow{h^{\omega}}(b)$. Thus case (d) holds.

Case 2: $C=\emptyset$. Once again there are several cases to consider.

Case 2a: There exist integers $i, j$ with $i<j$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
s(i)>i \text { but } s(j)<j \tag{4.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now consider the set

$$
S=\left\{\left(i^{\prime}, j^{\prime}\right): i^{\prime} \geq i, j^{\prime} \leq j, s\left(i^{\prime}\right)>i^{\prime}, \text { and } s\left(j^{\prime}\right)<j^{\prime}\right\} .
$$

By hypothesis, $S$ is nonempty. Define

$$
\begin{aligned}
j_{0} & :=\min \left\{j^{\prime}: \exists i^{\prime} \text { such that }\left(i^{\prime}, j^{\prime}\right) \in S\right\} \\
i_{0} & :=\max \left\{i^{\prime}:\left(i^{\prime}, j_{0}\right) \in S\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

Suppose there exists an integer $k$ with $i_{0}<k<j_{0}$. If $s(k)<k$, then $\left(i_{0}, k\right) \in S$ and $k<j_{0}$, contradicting the definition of $j_{0}$. If $s(k)>k$, then $\left(k, j_{0}\right) \in S$ and $k>i_{0}$, contradicting the definition of $i_{0}$. Hence $s(k)=k$. But this is impossible by our assumption. It follows that $j_{0}=i_{0}+1$. Then $s\left(i_{0}\right)>i_{0}$, but $s\left(i_{0}+1\right)<i_{0}+1$, a contradiction, since $s\left(i_{0}\right) \leq s\left(i_{0}+1\right)$. Hence this case cannot occur.

Case 2b: There exists an integer $r$ such that $s(i)<i$ for all $i<r$, and $s(i)>i$ for all $i \geq r$. Then $h\left(c_{r}\right)=c_{s(r-1)+1} \cdots c_{s(r)}$, which by the inequalities contains $c_{r-1} c_{r} c_{r+1}$ as a subword. Therefore, letting $a=c_{r}$, it follows that

$$
\mathbf{w} \sim \mathbf{u} x . a y \mathbf{v}
$$

where $\mathbf{u}=\cdots c_{s(r-1)-1} c_{s(r-1)}$ is a left-infinite word, $x=c_{s(r-1)+1} \cdots c_{r-1}$ and $y=c_{r+1} \cdots c_{s(r)}$ are finite words, and $\mathbf{v}=c_{s(r)+1} c_{s(r)+2} \cdots$ is a right-infinite word. Furthermore, we have $h(\mathbf{u} x)=\mathbf{u}, h(a)=x a y$, and $h(y \mathbf{v})=\mathbf{v}$.

Now the equation $h(y \mathbf{v})=\mathbf{v}$ implies that $h(y)$ is a prefix of $\mathbf{v}$, and by an easy induction we have $h(y) h^{2}(y) h^{3}(y) \cdots$ is a prefix of $\mathbf{v}$. Suppose this prefix is finite. Then $y \in M_{h}^{*}$, and so $h(y) h^{2}(y) h^{3}(y) \cdots=h(y) h^{2}(y) \cdots h^{t}(y)$, where $t=\exp (h)$. Define $z=h(y) h^{2}(y) \cdots h^{t}(y)$. Then $s(r+|y|+|z|)=r+|y|+|z|$, a contradiction, since we have assumed $C=\emptyset$. It follows that $\mathbf{z}:=h(y) h^{2}(y) h^{3}(y) \cdots$ is right-infinite and hence $y \notin M_{h}^{*}$.

By exactly the same reasoning, we find that $\cdots h^{3}(x) h^{2}(x) h(x)$ is a left-infinite suffix of $\mathbf{u}$. We conclude that $\mathbf{w} \sim \overleftrightarrow{h^{\omega ; i}}(a)$, and hence case (e) holds.

Case 2c: $s(i)>i$ for all $i \in \mathbb{Z}$. Let $\mathbf{w}=\cdots c_{-2} c_{-1} c_{0} \cdot c_{1} c_{2} \cdots$.

Now consider the following factorization of certain conjugates of $\mathbf{w}$, as follows: for $i \leq 0$, we have $\mathbf{w} \sim \mathbf{x}_{i} y_{i}, \mathbf{z}_{i}$, where $\mathbf{x}_{i}=\cdots c_{i-2} c_{i-1}$ (a left-infinite word), $y_{i}=c_{i} \cdots c_{s(i-1)}$ (a finite word), and $\mathbf{z}_{i}=c_{s(i-1)+1} c_{s(i-1)+2} \cdots$ (a right-infinite word). Note that $i-1<s(i-1)$ by assumption, so $i \leq s(i-1)$; hence $y_{i}$ is nonempty. Evidently we have

$$
\begin{align*}
h\left(\mathbf{x}_{i}\right) & =\mathbf{x}_{i} y_{i} ; \text { and }  \tag{4.5}\\
h\left(y_{i} \mathbf{z}_{i}\right) & =\mathbf{z}_{i} .
\end{align*}
$$

Now the equation $h\left(y_{i} \mathbf{z}_{i}\right)=\mathbf{z}_{i}$ implies that $h\left(y_{i}\right)$ is a prefix of $\mathbf{z}_{i}$. Now an easy induction, as in Case $2 \mathbf{b}$, shows that $v:=h\left(y_{i}\right) h^{2}\left(y_{i}\right) h^{3}\left(y_{i}\right) \cdots$ is a prefix of $\mathbf{z}_{i}$. If $v$ were finite, then we would have $y_{i} \in M_{h}^{*}$, and so $s(j)=j$ for $j=s(i-1)+|v|$, a contradiction, since $C=\emptyset$. Hence $v$ is right-infinite, and so $y_{i} \notin M_{h}^{*}$. There are now two cases to consider: (i) $\sup _{i \leq 0}(s(i)-i)<+\infty$, and (ii) $\sup _{i \leq 0}(s(i)-i)=+\infty$.

Case 2ci: Suppose $\sup _{i \leq 0}(s(i)-i)=d<+\infty$. It then follows that $\left|y_{i}\right| \leq d$. Hence there is a finite word $u$ such that $y_{i}=u$ for infinitely many indices $i \leq 0$. From the above argument we see that the right-infinite word $h(u) h^{2}(u) h^{3}(u) \cdots$ is a suffix of $\mathbf{w}$, beginning at position $s(i-1)+1$, for infinitely many indices $i \leq 0$. We now use Lemma 4.4.3 to conclude that $\mathbf{w}$ is periodic.

Thus we can write $\mathbf{w}=\cdots c_{-2} c_{-1} c_{0} \cdot c_{1} c_{2} \cdots$, and $\mathbf{w}=\cdots v v v . v v v \cdots$, where $v=$ $c_{1} c_{2} \cdots c_{p}$ for some integer $p \geq 1$. Without loss of generality, we may assume $p$ is minimal.

We claim $|h(v)|=p$. For if not we must have $|h(v)|=q$, for $q \neq p$, and then since $h(\mathbf{w}) \sim \mathbf{w}$, we would have $\mathbf{w}$ is periodic with periods $p$ and $q$, hence periodic of period $\operatorname{gcd}(p, q)$. But since $p$ was minimal we must have $p \mid q$. Hence $q \geq 2 p$. Now let $s(p)=l$; since $s(i)>i$ for all $i$ we must have $l>0$. Then

$$
h\left(c_{1} c_{2} \cdots c_{p}\right)=c_{s(-1)+1} \cdots c_{s(p)}=c_{l-q+1} \cdots c_{l}
$$

It now follows that

$$
\begin{equation*}
s(i p)=l-q+i q \tag{4.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all integers $i$. Now $p<q$, so $p \leq q-1$, and hence $p<q-1+q / l$. Hence, multiplying by $-l$, we get $-l p>l-q l-q$. Now take $i=-l$ in Eq. (4.6), and we have

$$
s(-l p)=l-q-l q<-l p
$$

a contradiction, since $s(i)>i$ for all $i$. It follows that $|h(v)|=p$.
There exists $k$ such that $h\left(c_{1} c_{2} \cdots c_{p}\right)=c_{k+1} c_{k+2} \cdots c_{k+p}$. Using the division theorem, write $k=j p+r$, where $0 \leq r<p$. Define

$$
\begin{aligned}
& y=c_{k+1} \cdots c_{(j+1) p}=c_{r+1} \cdots c_{p} \\
& x=c_{(j+1) p+1} \cdots c_{k+p}=c_{1} \cdots c_{r}
\end{aligned}
$$

We have $h(x y)=y x$, and $v=x y$. Then $\mathbf{w}=v^{\mathbb{Z}}=(x y)^{\mathbb{Z}}$.
We know that $|v| \geq 1$, so $x y \neq \epsilon$. Suppose $y=\epsilon$. Then $h(x)=x$, and so $x \in F_{h}^{*}$. It follows that $\mathbf{w} \in F_{h}^{\mathbb{Z}}$. A similar argument applies if $x=\epsilon$. However, if $\mathbf{w} \in F_{h}^{\mathbb{Z}}$, then $C \neq \emptyset$, a contradiction. Thus $x, y \neq \epsilon$, and case (f) holds.

Case 2cii: $\sup _{i \leq 0}(s(i)-i)=+\infty$. Recall that $s(i)>i$ for all $i \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $\mathbf{w}=$ $\cdots c_{-2} c_{-1} c_{0} \cdot c_{1} c_{2} \cdots$. Define

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{x} & :=\cdots c_{-2} c_{-1} c_{0} \\
y & :=c_{1} c_{2} \cdots c_{s(0)} \\
\mathbf{z} & :=c_{s(0)+1} c_{s(0)+2} \cdots
\end{aligned}
$$

Then $\mathbf{w}=\mathbf{x} \cdot y \mathbf{z}$ and $h(\mathbf{x})=\mathbf{x} y, h(y \mathbf{z})=\mathbf{z}$.

Define $B_{j}(k)=s^{j}(k)-s^{j-1}(k)$, where $s^{j}$ denotes the $j$-fold composition of the function $s$ with itself. First we prove the following technical lemma.

Lemma 4.4.5 For all integer $r \geq 1$ there exists an integer $n \leq 0$ such that $B_{j}(n)>r$ for $1 \leq j \leq t$.

Proof. By induction on $t$. For $t=1$ the result follows since

$$
\sup _{i \leq 0} B_{1}(i)=\sup _{i \leq 0}(s(i)-i)=+\infty
$$

Now assume the result is true for $t$; we prove it for $t+1$. Define $m:=\max _{a \in \Sigma}|h(a)|$. By induction there exists an integer $n_{1}$ such that $B_{j}\left(n_{1}\right)>m r+m^{t+1}$ for $1 \leq j \leq t$. Then, by the definition of $m$ there exist an integer $n_{2}<n_{1}$ with $n_{1}-n_{2}<m$, and an integer $n_{3}$ such that $s\left(n_{3}\right)=n_{2}$.

Now $h\left(c_{n_{3}+1} \cdots c_{n_{2}}\right)=c_{s\left(n_{3}\right)+1} \cdots c_{s\left(n_{2}\right)}$, so $s\left(n_{2}\right)-s\left(n_{3}\right) \leq m\left(n_{2}-n_{3}\right)$. Similarly, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
s^{j}\left(n_{2}\right)-s^{j}\left(n_{3}\right) \leq m^{j}\left(n_{2}-n_{3}\right) \tag{4.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $j \geq 0$. By the same reasoning, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
s^{j}\left(n_{1}\right)-s^{j}\left(n_{2}\right) \leq m^{j}\left(n_{1}-n_{2}\right) \leq m^{j}(m-1) \tag{4.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $j \geq 0$. Thus we find

$$
\begin{aligned}
B_{1}\left(n_{3}\right) & =s\left(n_{3}\right)-n_{3} \\
& =n_{2}-n_{3} \\
& \geq \frac{s\left(n_{2}\right)-s\left(n_{3}\right)}{m} \quad \text { (by Eq. (4.7)) } \\
& =\frac{s\left(n_{2}\right)-n_{2}}{m} \\
& =\frac{\left(s\left(n_{1}\right)-n_{1}\right)-\left(\left(s\left(n_{1}\right)-s\left(n_{2}\right)\right)-\left(n_{1}-n_{2}\right)\right)}{m} \\
& =\frac{B_{1}\left(n_{1}\right)-\left(\left(s\left(n_{1}\right)-s\left(n_{2}\right)\right)-\left(n_{1}-n_{2}\right)\right)}{m} \\
& >\frac{m r+m^{t+1}-m(m-1)}{m} \quad \text { (by induction and Eq. (4.8)) } \\
& >r .
\end{aligned}
$$

Similarly, for $2 \leq j \leq t+1$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
B_{j}\left(n_{3}\right) & =s^{j}\left(n_{3}\right)-s^{j-1}\left(n_{3}\right) \\
& =s^{j-1}\left(n_{2}\right)-s^{j-2}\left(n_{2}\right) \\
& =\left(s^{j-1}\left(n_{1}\right)-s^{j-2}\left(n_{1}\right)\right)-\left(\left(s^{j-1}\left(n_{1}\right)-s^{j-1}\left(n_{2}\right)\right)-\left(s^{j-2}\left(n_{1}\right)-s^{j-2}\left(n_{2}\right)\right)\right) \\
& =B_{j-1}\left(n_{1}\right)-\left(\left(s^{j-1}\left(n_{1}\right)-s^{j-1}\left(n_{2}\right)\right)-\left(s^{j-2}\left(n_{1}\right)-s^{j-2}\left(n_{2}\right)\right)\right) \\
& \left.>m r+m^{t+1}-m^{j-1}(m-1) \quad \text { (by Eq. }(4.8)\right) \\
& \geq r .
\end{aligned}
$$

It thus follows that we can take $n=n_{3}$. This completes the proof of Lemma 4.4.5.

Now let $M$ be the integer specified in Lemma 4.4.4, and define $r:=\sup _{1 \leq i \leq M} B_{i}(0)$. By Lemma 4.4.5 there exists an integer $n \leq 0$ such that $B_{j}(n)>r$ for $1 \leq j \leq M$. Define
$w:=c_{n+1} \cdots c_{0}$. We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left|h^{j}(w)\right| & =s^{j}(0)-s^{j}(n) ; \quad \text { and } \\
\left|h^{j-1}(w)\right| & =s^{j-1}(0)-s^{j-1}(n) .
\end{aligned}
$$

It follows that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left|h^{j}(w)\right| & =\left(s^{j}(0)-s^{j-1}(0)\right)-\left(s^{j}(n)-s^{j-1}(n)\right)+\left|h^{j-1}(w)\right| \\
& =B_{j}(0)-B_{j}(n)+\left|h^{j-1}(w)\right| \\
& <B_{j}(0)-r+\left|h^{j-1}(w)\right| \\
& \leq\left|h^{j-1}(w)\right|
\end{aligned}
$$

for $1 \leq j \leq M$. But this contradicts Lemma 4.4.4. This contradiction shows that this case cannot occur.

Case 2d: $s(i)<i$ for all $i \in \mathbb{Z}$. This case is the mirror image of Case $2 \mathrm{c}^{1}$, and the proof is identical. The proof of Theorem 4.4.1 is complete.

### 4.5 Some examples

In this section we consider some examples of Theorem 4.4.1.

Example 1. Consider the morphism $f$ defined by $\mathrm{a} \rightarrow \mathrm{bb}, \mathrm{b} \rightarrow \epsilon, \mathrm{c} \rightarrow \mathrm{aad}, \mathrm{d} \rightarrow \mathrm{c}$. Let

$$
\mathbf{w}=\cdots \text { aadbbbbcaadbbbbc.aadbbbbcaadbbbbc } \cdots
$$

${ }^{1}$ Note that $s(i)>i$ for all $i$ implies that $s(i-1)>i-1$. Therefore $s(i-1)+1>i$, and hence Case 2d really $i s$ the mirror image of Case 2c.

Then

$$
f(\mathbf{w})=\cdots \text { bbbbcaadbbbbcaad.bbbbcaadbbbbcaad } \cdots .
$$

This falls under case (f) of Theorem 4.4.1.

Example 2. Consider the morphism $\varphi$ defined by $0 \rightarrow 201,1 \rightarrow 012$, and $2 \rightarrow 120$. Then if

$$
\mathbf{w}=\varphi^{\omega ; 2}(0)=\cdots c_{-2} c_{-1} \cdot c_{0} c_{1} c_{2} \cdots=\cdots 1202.01012 \cdots
$$

we have $\varphi(\mathbf{w}) \sim \mathbf{w}$. This falls under case (d) of Theorem 4.4.1. Incidentally, $c_{i}$ equals the sum of the digits, modulo 3 , in the balanced ternary representation of $i$.

### 4.6 The equation $h(x y)=y x$ in finite words

It is not difficult to see that it is decidable whether any of conditions (a)-(e) of Theorem 4.4.1 hold. However, this is somewhat less obvious for condition (f), which demands that the equation $h(x y)=y x$ possess a nontrivial ${ }^{2}$ solution. We conclude this chapter by discussing the solvability of this equation and give a characterization of the solution set.

To do so it is useful to extend the notation $\sim$, previously used for two-sided infinite words, to finite words. We say $w \sim z$ for $w, z \in \Sigma^{*}$ if $w$ is a cyclic shift of $z$, i.e., if there exist $x, y \in \Sigma^{*}$ such that $w=x y$ and $z=y x$. It is now easy to verify that $\sim$ is an equivalence relation. Furthermore, if $w \sim z$, and $h$ is a morphism, then $h(w) \sim h(z)$. Thus condition (f) can be restated as $h(z) \sim z$. The following theorem shows that the solvability of the equation $h(x y)=y x$ is decidable.

Theorem 4.6.1 Let $h$ be a morphism $h: \Sigma^{*} \rightarrow \Sigma^{*}$. Then $h(z) \sim z$ has a solution $z \neq \epsilon$ if and only if $F_{h^{d}}$ is nonempty for some $1 \leq d \leq \operatorname{Card} \Sigma$.

[^0]Proof. $\Longleftarrow$ : Suppose $F_{h^{d}}$ is nonempty for some $d$, say $x \in F_{h^{d}}$. Then by definition of $F_{h^{d}}$, $h^{d}(x)=x$. Let $y=h(x) \cdots h^{d-1}(x)$ and $z=x y$. Then $h(x y)=y x$ and so $h(z) \sim z$.
$\Longrightarrow$ : Suppose $h(z) \sim z$. Then $\left|h^{n}(z)\right|=|z|$ for all $n \geq 0$, and so there exist $0 \leq i<j$ such that $h^{i}(z)=h^{j}(z)$. In another word $h^{i}(z)$ is a finite fixed point of $h^{j-i}$. Hence $F_{h^{j-i}}$ is nonempty. This implies $A_{h^{d}}$ is nonempty for some $1 \leq d \leq$ Card $\Sigma$. Thus $F_{h^{d}}$ is nonempty.

## Remarks.

1. Note that Theorem 4.6 .1 does not characterize all the finite solutions of $h(z) \sim z$; it simply gives a necessary and sufficient condition for solutions to exist.
2. As we have seen in Theorem 4.2.1, the set of finite solutions to $h(z)=z$ is finitely generated, in that the solution set can be written as $S^{*}$ for some finite set $T$. However, the set of solutions to $h(z) \sim z$ need not even be context-free. For consider the morphism defined by $h(\mathrm{a})=\mathrm{b}, h(\mathrm{~b})=\mathrm{c}, h(\mathrm{c})=\mathrm{a}$, and let

$$
T:=\left\{z \in\{\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{~b}, \mathrm{c}\}^{*}: h(z) \sim z\right\} .
$$

If $T$ were context-free, then so would be $T \cap \mathrm{a}^{*} \mathrm{~b}^{*} \mathrm{c}^{*}$. But

$$
T \cap \mathrm{a}^{*} \mathrm{~b}^{*} \mathrm{c}^{*}=\left\{\mathrm{a}^{i} \mathrm{~b}^{i} \mathrm{c}^{i}: i \geq 0\right\}
$$

which is not context-free.

We finish with a discussion of the set $T$ of words $z$ for which $h(z) \sim z$. From the proof of Theorem 4.6.1, we know that there exist $i<j$ such that $h^{i}(z)$ is a fixed point of $h^{j-i}$. Since $h^{i}(z) \sim z$, we may restrict our attention to the set $S=T \cap\left(\bigcup_{i \geq 1} F_{h^{i}}^{*}\right)$. Our set $T$ then is the set of all cyclic permutations of words in $S$.

To describe $S$ we introduce an auxiliary morphism $h^{\prime}: \Sigma^{\prime} \rightarrow \Sigma^{\prime}$, where $\Sigma^{\prime} \subseteq \Sigma$. A letter $a$ is a member of $\Sigma^{\prime}$ if and only if the following three conditions hold:
(1) $a$ is an immortal letter of $h$;
(2) $h^{i}(a)$ contains exactly one immortal letter for all $i \geq 1$; and
(3) $h^{i}(a)$ contains $a$ for some $i \geq 1$.

We define the morphism $h^{\prime}$ by $h^{\prime}(a)=a^{\prime}$ where $a^{\prime}$ is the unique immortal letter in $h(a)$.
The relation of $h^{\prime}$ to $S$ is as follows. If $z \in S$, then $z \in F_{h^{i}}^{*}$ for some $i$. Hence $z=w_{1} \cdots w_{r}$ where $w_{j}=x_{j} a_{j} y_{j} \in F_{h^{i}}$, and $a_{j}$ is an immortal letter for $1 \leq j \leq r$. It follows easily that $a_{j} \in \Sigma^{\prime}$. Since $h$ cyclically permutes $z, h^{\prime}$ cyclically permutes $z^{\prime}=a_{1} \cdots a_{r}$. The words $x_{j}$ and $y_{j}$ are uniquely specified by $i$ and $a_{j}$. Therefore, we now concentrate on the set $T^{\prime}$ of words $z^{\prime}$ that are cyclically permuted by $h^{\prime}$.

Suppose $\Sigma^{\prime}=\left\{a_{1}, \ldots, a_{s}\right\}$. Since $h^{\prime}$ acts as a permutation $P$ on $\Sigma^{\prime}$, there exists a unique factorization of $P$ into disjoint cycles $\left\{\left(a_{0}^{i}, \ldots, a_{t_{i}-1}^{i}\right)\right\}_{i=1}^{m}$ where $h^{\prime}\left(a_{j}^{i}\right)=a_{(j+1) \bmod t_{i}}^{i}$. The $t_{i}$ 's are the length of the cycles. We will construct a finite set $R$ of regular languages from the set of cycles as follows.

Suppose $c=\left(b_{0}, \ldots, b_{t-1}\right)$ is a cycle appearing in the factorization of $P$. Define

$$
w_{i}=b_{i} b_{(i+1) \bmod t} \cdots b_{(i+t-1) \bmod t}
$$

for $0 \leq i<t$. Let $\varphi$ denote Euler's totient function, and let $k_{1}, \ldots, k_{\varphi(t)}$ be the integers in the range $[1, t]$ that are relatively prime to $t$. If $w_{i}=d_{0} \cdots d_{t-1}$, define $u_{i, j}=$ $d_{0} d_{k_{j}} \cdots d_{\left((t-1) k_{j}\right) \bmod t}$ for $1 \leq j \leq \varphi(t)$. Now for $1 \leq j \leq \varphi(t)$ we define

$$
L_{j}(c)=\bigcup_{0 \leq i<t} u_{i, j}^{*}
$$

Thus from cycle $c$ we constructed $\varphi(t)$ regular languages $L_{j}(c)$. We repeat this construction for each cycle and let $R^{\prime}$ be the set of the regular languages thus obtained from all cycles. Each regular language in $R$ will be the union of several regular languages of $R^{\prime}$. The union
is defined as follows. Each regular language $L_{j}(c)$ in $R^{\prime}$ is associated with a pair $\left(t, k_{j}\right)$ where $t$ is the length of $c$ and $k_{j}$ is an integer relatively prime to $t$. A set of languages $L_{j_{1}}\left(c_{1}\right), \ldots, L_{j_{n}}\left(c_{n}\right)$ in $R^{\prime}$ belong to the same language of $R$ if and only if the system of congruence equations $x k_{j_{\alpha}}=1 \bmod t_{\alpha}$ for $1 \leq \alpha \leq n$ has a solution. Note that a language in $R^{\prime}$ may be contained in several languages of $R$.

We say a word $w$ is the perfect shuffle of words $w_{1}, \ldots, w_{r}$ if $\left|w_{1}\right|=\cdots=\left|w_{r}\right|$ and the first $r$ symbols of $w$ are the first symbols of $w_{1}, \ldots, w_{r}$ in that order, the second $r$ symbols of $w$ are the second symbols of $w_{1}, \ldots, w_{r}$ in that order, and so on. We claim that $z^{\prime}$ is the perfect shuffle of words in a language in $R$ if and only if $h^{\prime}$ cyclically permutes $z^{\prime}$. We prove this below. For convenience we will refer to $z^{\prime}$ as $z$ and $h^{\prime}$ as $h$ in the remaining discussion.

Suppose $z$ is a word in a language $L$ in $R$. By our construction $z=z_{0} \cdots z_{t n-1}=$ $\left(d_{0} d_{k} \cdots d_{(t-1) k \bmod t}\right)^{n}$ for some $n$ where $d_{0} \cdots d_{t-1}$ is a representation of some cycle $c=$ $\left(b_{0}, \ldots, b_{t-1}\right)$ (i.e. $d_{0}=b_{i}, d_{1}=b_{i+1 \bmod t}$, etc.) and $k$ is relatively prime to $t$. By our definition of $c, h(z)=\left(d_{1 \bmod t} d_{k+1} \bmod t \cdots d_{(t-1) k+1 \bmod t}\right)^{n}$. And for each $1 \leq i \leq$ $t n-1$ where $i k=1 \bmod t$ we have $h(z)=\left(d_{i k \bmod t} d_{(i+1) k \bmod t} \cdots d_{(i+t-1) k \bmod t}\right)^{n}=$ $z_{i} z_{i+1 \bmod t n} \cdots z_{i-1}$. This shows, in particular that $h(z) \sim z$. Now suppose $z$ is the perfect shuffle of two words $w$ and $w^{\prime}$ in a language $L$ in $R$. The general case of an arbitrary number of words is the same except it is notationally more cumbersome. We may assume with the same convention as above that $w=\left(d_{0} d_{k} \cdots d_{(t-1) k \bmod t}\right)^{n}$ and $w^{\prime}=\left(d_{0}^{\prime} d_{k^{\prime}}^{\prime} \cdots d_{\left(t^{\prime}-1\right) k^{\prime} \bmod t^{\prime}}^{\prime}\right)^{n^{\prime}}$ and $z=z_{0} \cdots z_{t n+t^{\prime} n^{\prime}-1}=d_{0} d_{0}^{\prime} \cdots$. From the definitions we have 1) there exists $i$ such that $i k=1 \bmod t$ and $i k^{\prime}=1 \bmod t^{\prime}$, and 2) $t n=t^{\prime} n^{\prime}$. Simple calculation shows that if such $i$ exists, we may assume $1 \leq i<t n=t^{\prime} n^{\prime}$. As before we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
h(z) & =d_{1 \bmod t} d_{1 \bmod t^{\prime}}^{\prime} d_{k+1 \bmod t} d_{k^{\prime}+1 \bmod t^{\prime}}^{\prime} \cdots \\
& =d_{i k \bmod t} d_{i k^{\prime} \bmod t^{\prime}}^{\prime} d_{(i+1) k \bmod t} d_{(i+1) k^{\prime} \bmod t^{\prime}}^{\prime} \cdots \\
& =z_{2 i} z_{2 i+1 \bmod 2 t n} \cdots z_{2 i-1}
\end{aligned}
$$

This shows $h(z) \sim z$.
Now suppose $z=z_{0} \cdots z_{r}$ is cyclically permuted by $h$. Then we have the following chain of indices: $0=i_{0}, \ldots, i_{l}=0$, where $i_{s}$ are distinct for $0 \leq s<l$, and $h$ acting on $z$ as a cyclical permutation sends the index $i_{s}$ to $i_{s+1 \bmod l}$. Note that there may be more than one way to define $h$ 's action on $z$. We fix an arbitrary one. We order the indices $i_{0}, \ldots, i_{l-1}$, say $i_{0}=j_{0}<\cdots<j_{l-1}$. Let $v_{j_{s}}=z_{j_{s}} \cdots z_{j_{s+1}-1}$ for $0 \leq s<l-1$ and $v_{j_{l-1}}=z_{j_{l-1}} \cdots z_{r}$. We claim that all the $v_{j_{s}}$ are of the same length. To prove this it suffices to show $\left|v_{i_{s}}\right|=\left|v_{i_{s+1} \bmod \ell}\right|$ for $0 \leq s \leq l-1$. Suppose this is false. Then there exists $s$ such that $\left|v_{i_{s}}\right|>\left|v_{i_{s+1} \bmod l}\right|$. Since $h$ sends the index $i_{s}$ to $i_{s+1 \bmod l}$ and $i_{s}+1$ to $i_{s+1 \bmod l}+1$ and so on, the difference in length implies that there is an index $j$ with $i_{s}<j \leq i_{s}+\left|v_{i_{s}}\right|-1$ such that $h$ sends the index $j$ to $j_{\alpha+1}$ where $j_{\alpha}=i_{s+1 \bmod l}$. This is impossible by our definition of $v_{i_{s}}$. Hence all $v_{i_{s}}\left(\right.$ or $\left.v_{j_{s}}\right)$ are of the same length. It follows that $h\left(v_{i_{s}}\right)=v_{i_{s+1 \bmod l} l}$ since $h$ sends the index $i_{s}$ to $i_{s+1 \bmod l}$ and $h$ is a one to one map.

Let $n=\left|v_{j_{0}}\right|$. For $0 \leq \alpha<n$ define

$$
w_{\alpha}=z_{j_{0}+\alpha} z_{j_{1}+\alpha} \cdots z_{j_{l-1}+\alpha} .
$$

Note that $z$ is the perfect shuffle of $w_{0}, \ldots, w_{n-1}$. Suppose $w$ is one of the $w_{j_{s}}$, say $w=y_{0} \cdots y_{l-1}$. By our construction $h$ cyclically permutes $w$ and there exists a permutation $p_{0}, \ldots, p_{l-1}$ of $0, \ldots, l-1$ such that $p_{0}=0$ and $h$ acting on $w$ sends the index $p_{i}$ to $p_{i+1 \bmod l}$. It follows that the set of distinct symbols of $w$ must be the same as the set of symbols of one of the cycles, say $c=\left(b_{0}, \ldots, b_{t-1}\right)$ of $h$. Let $b_{i_{j}}=y_{j}$ for $0 \leq j \leq l-1$. We claim that for each $0 \leq j \leq l-1, k_{j}=i_{j+1} \bmod l-i_{j} \bmod t$ has the same value, and $k=k_{0}$ is relatively prime to $t$. If the claim is true then we must have $w \in L_{\gamma}(c)$ where $k_{\gamma}=k$. And since we chose $w$ to be an arbitrary $w_{\alpha}$, the same applies to all $w_{\alpha}$. First we show all the $k_{j}$ have the same value. Let $\pi(j)$ be the permutation where $h$ sends the index $j$ to $\pi(j)$. It suffices to prove $\pi(j)-j \bmod l$ is constant, say equal to $d$, for $0 \leq j \leq l-1$ because
then 1) $d$ must be relatively prime to $l$ because $0, d, \ldots,(l-1) d$ cover all residue classes $(\bmod l)$, and 2$)$ thus there exist unique $1 \leq k \leq l-1$ such that $k d=1 \bmod l$. We note that $k_{j}=k \bmod t$ for $0 \leq j \leq l-1$. Now suppose not all $d_{j}=\pi(j)-j \bmod l$ have the same value. Then there must be a $j$ such that $d_{j}>d_{j+1 \bmod l}$. Since $h$ sends the index $j$ to $\pi(j)$ and $j+1 \bmod l$ to $\pi(j)+1 \bmod l$ and so on, $d_{j}>d_{j+1 \bmod l}$ implies that there is a index $\beta$ in the range $j+1 \bmod l \cdots \pi(j)-1 \bmod l$ such that $h$ sends $\beta$ to $\pi(\pi(j))$. But this is impossible because $h$ permutes the indices and by definition $h$ already sends $\pi(j)$ to $\pi(\pi(j))$. It remains to show that $k=k_{0}$ is relatively prime to $t$. Observe that $w=b_{i_{0}} \cdots b_{i_{l-1}}=b_{i_{0}} b_{i_{0}+k \bmod t} \cdots b_{i_{0}+(l-1) k \bmod t}$. Since $w$ contains all distinct symbols in $c$, $0, k, \ldots,(l-1) k$ cover all residue classes $(\bmod t)$. Hence $k$ is relatively prime to $t$.

We have shown above that $w_{\alpha} \in L_{\alpha}\left(c_{\alpha}\right)$ for $0 \leq \alpha<n$ where $c_{\alpha}$ is of length $t_{\alpha}$ and $k_{\alpha}$ is relatively prime to $t_{\alpha}$. Suppose $c_{\alpha}=\left(b_{0}^{\alpha}, \cdots, b_{t_{\alpha}-1}^{\alpha}\right)$ for $0 \leq \alpha<n$. Since $L_{\alpha}\left(c_{\alpha}\right)$ contains all representations of $c_{\alpha}$ (i.e. $L_{\alpha}\left(c_{\alpha}\right)$ contains $b_{i}^{\alpha} \cdots b_{i+t_{\alpha}-1 \bmod t_{\alpha}}^{\alpha}$ for all $0 \leq i \leq t_{\alpha}-1$, etc.) we may assume $w_{\alpha}=b_{0}^{\alpha} \cdots b_{k_{\alpha}(l-1) \bmod t_{\alpha}}^{\alpha}$ for $0 \leq \alpha<n$. We know $h\left(v_{i_{s}}\right)=v_{i_{s+1 \bmod l}}$. In particular we have $h\left(v_{0}\right)=h\left(v_{i_{0}}\right)=v_{i_{1}}$. Since $z$ is a perfect shuffle of $w_{0}, \ldots, w_{n-1}$ we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
h\left(v_{0}\right) & =h\left(b_{0}^{0} \cdots b_{0}^{n-1}\right) \\
& =b_{1}^{0} \cdots b_{1}^{n-1} \\
& =b_{x k_{0} \bmod t_{0}}^{0} \cdots b_{x k_{n-1} \bmod t_{n-1}}^{n-1} \\
& =v_{i_{1}}
\end{aligned}
$$

for some $1 \leq x \leq l-1$. Thus the system of congruence equations $x k_{\alpha}=1 \bmod t_{\alpha}$ for $0 \leq \alpha<n$ has a solution. Hence by the construction of $R, w_{0}, \ldots, w_{n-1}$ belong to a language in $R$. This concludes our discussion.

## Chapter 5

## Avoiding Large Squares in Infinite Binary Words

This chapter is based on the work of N. Rampersad, J. Shallit and M.-w. Wang [RSW03].

### 5.1 Introduction

A square is a nonempty word of the form $x x$, as in the English word murmur. It is easy to see that every word of length $\geq 4$ constructed from the symbols 0 and 1 contains a square, so it is impossible to avoid squares in infinite binary words. However, in 1974, Entringer, Jackson, and Schatz [EJS74] proved the surprising fact that there exists an infinite binary word containing no squares $x x$ with $|x| \geq 3$. Further, the bound 3 is best possible.

A cube is a nonempty word of the form $x x x$, as in the English sort-of-word shshsh. Dekking [Dek76] showed that there exists an infinite binary word that contains no cubes $x x x$ and no squares $y y$ with $|y| \geq 4$. Furthermore, the bound 4 is best possible.

Dekking's construction used iterated morphisms. If $h: \Sigma^{*} \rightarrow \Sigma^{*}$ and $h(a)=a x$ for some letter $a \in \Sigma$, then we say that $h$ is prolongable on $a$, and we can then iterate $h$ infinitely often to get the fixed point $h^{\omega}(a):=a x h(x) h^{2}(x) h^{3}(x) \cdots$.

A morphism is $k$-uniform if $|h(a)|=k$ for all $a \in \Sigma$; it is uniform if it is $k$-uniform for some $k$. Uniform morphisms have particularly nice properties. For example, the class of words generated by applying a coding to infinite iteration of $k$-uniform morphisms coincides with the class of $k$-automatic sequences, generated by finite automata [AS03].

Dekking's construction used a non-uniform morphism. In this chapter we show how to obtain, using the image of a uniform morphism, an infinite binary word that is cubefree and avoids squares $y y$ with $|y| \geq 4$. Our construction is somewhat simpler than Dekking's.

### 5.2 A cubefree word without arbitrarily long squares

In this section we construct an infinite cubefree binary word avoiding squares $y y$ with $|y| \geq 4$.
We introduce the following notation for alphabets: $\Sigma_{k}:=\{0,1, \ldots, k-1\}$.

Theorem 5.2.1 There is a squarefree infinite word over $\Sigma_{4}$ with no occurrences of the subwords 12, 13, 21, 32, 231, or 10302.

Proof. Let the morphism $h$ be defined by

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 0 \rightarrow 0310201023 \\
& 1 \rightarrow 0310230102 \\
& 2 \rightarrow 0201031023 \\
& 3 \rightarrow 0203010201
\end{aligned}
$$

Then we claim the fixed point $h^{\omega}(0)$ has the desired properties.
First, we claim that if $w \in \Sigma_{4}^{*}$ then $h(w)$ has no occurrences of $12,13,21,32,231$, or 10302. For if any of these words occur as subwords of $h(w)$, they must occur within some $h(a)$ or straddling the boundary between $h(a)$ and $h(b)$, for some single letters $a, b$. They do not; this easy verification is left to the reader.

Next, we prove that if $w$ is any squarefree word over $\Sigma_{4}$ having no occurrences of 12,13 , 21 , or 32 , then $h(w)$ is squarefree.

We argue by contradiction. Let $w=a_{1} a_{2} \cdots a_{n}$ be a squarefree string such that $h(w)$ contains a square, i.e., $h(w)=x y y z$ for some $x, z \in \Sigma_{4}^{*}, y \in \Sigma_{4}^{+}$. Without loss of generality, assume that $w$ is a shortest such string, so that $0 \leq|x|,|z|<10$.

Case 1: $|y| \leq 20$. In this case we can take $|w| \leq 5$. To verify that $h(w)$ is squarefree, it therefore suffices to check each of the 49 possible words $w \in \Sigma_{4}^{5}$ to ensure that $h(w)$ is squarefree in each case.

Case 2: $|y|>20$. First, we establish the following result.

Lemma 5.2.2 (a) Suppose $h(a b)=t h(c) u$ for some letters $a, b, c \in \Sigma_{4}$ and strings $t, u \in$ $\Sigma_{4}^{*}$. Then this inclusion is trivial (that is, $t=\epsilon$ or $u=\epsilon$ ) or $u$ is not a prefix of $h(d)$ for any $d \in \Sigma_{4}$.
(b) Suppose there exist letters $a, b, c$ and strings $s, t, u, v$ such that $h(a)=s t, h(b)=u v$, and $h(c)=s v$. Then either $a=c$ or $b=c$.

## Proof.

(a) This can be verified with a short computation. In fact, the only $a, b, c$ for which the equality $h(a b)=t h(c) u$ holds nontrivially is $h(31)=t h(2) u$, and in this case $t=020301, u=0102$, so $u$ is not a prefix of any $h(d)$.
(b) This can also be verified with a short computation. If $|s| \geq 6$, then no two distinct letters have images under $h$ that share a prefix of length 6 . If $|s| \leq 5$, then $|t| \geq 5$, and no two distinct letters have images under $h$ that share a suffix of length 5 .

Once Lemma 5.2.2 is established, the rest of the argument is fairly standard. It can be found, for example, in [KS03]; we omit the details here.

Theorem 5.2.3 Let $\mathbf{w}$ be any infinite word satisfying the conditions of Theorem 5.2.1. Define a morphism $g$ by

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 0 \rightarrow 010011 \\
& 1 \rightarrow 010110 \\
& 2 \rightarrow 011001 \\
& 3 \rightarrow 011010
\end{aligned}
$$

Then $g(\mathbf{w})$ is a cubefree word containing no squares $x x$ with $|x| \geq 4$.

Before we begin the proof, we remark that all the words $12,13,21,32,231,10302$ must indeed be avoided, because

$$
\begin{aligned}
g(12) & \text { contains the squares }(0110)^{2},(1100)^{2},(1001)^{2} \\
g(13) & \text { contains the square }(0110)^{2} \\
g(21) & \text { contains the cube }(01)^{3} \\
g(32) & \text { contains the square }(1001)^{2} \\
g(231) & \text { contains the square }(10010110)^{2} \\
g(10302) & \text { contains the square }(100100110110)^{2} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Proof. The proof parallels the proof of Theorem 5.2.1. Let $w=a_{1} a_{2} \cdots a_{n}$ be a squarefree string, with no occurrences of $12,13,21,32,231$, or 10302 . We first establish that if $g(w)=x y y z$ for some $x, z \in \Sigma_{4}^{*}, y \in \Sigma_{4}^{+}$, then $|y| \leq 3$. Without loss of generality, assume $w$ is a shortest such string, so $0 \leq|x|,|z|<6$.

Case 1: $|y| \leq 12$. In this case we can take $|w| \leq 5$. To verify that $g(w)$ contains no squares $y y$ with $|y| \geq 4$, it suffices to check each of the 41 possible words $w \in \Sigma_{4}^{5}$.

Case 2: $|y|>12$. First, we establish the analogue of Lemma 5.2.2.

Lemma 5.2.4 (a) Suppose $g(a b)=\operatorname{tg}(c) u$ for some letters $a, b, c \in \Sigma_{4}$ and strings $t, u \in$ $\Sigma_{4}^{*}$. Then this inclusion is trivial (that is, $t=\epsilon$ or $u=\epsilon$ ) or $u$ is not a prefix of $g(d)$ for any $d \in \Sigma_{4}$.
(b) Suppose there exist letters $a, b, c$ and strings $s, t, u, v$ such that $g(a)=s t, g(b)=u v$, and $g(c)=s v$. Then either $a=c$ or $b=c$, or $a=2, b=1, c=3, s=0110, t=01$, $u=0101, v=10$.

## Proof.

(a) This can be verified with a short computation. The only $a, b, c$ for which $g(a b)=\operatorname{tg}(c) u$ holds nontrivially are

$$
\begin{aligned}
& g(01)=010 g(3) 110 \\
& g(10)=01 g(2) 0011 \\
& g(23)=0110 g(1) 10
\end{aligned}
$$

But none of $110,0011,10$ are prefixes of any $g(d)$.
(b) If $|s| \geq 5$ then no two distinct letters have images under $g$ that share a prefix of length 5. If $|s| \leq 3$ then $|t| \geq 3$, and no two distinct letters have images under $g$ that share a suffix of length 3. Hence $|s|=4,|t|=2$. But only $g(2)$ and $g(3)$ share a prefix of length 4 , and only $g(1)$ and $g(3)$ share a suffix of length 2 .

The rest of the proof is exactly parallel to the proof of Theorem 5.2.1, with the following exception. When we get to the final case, where $|y|$ is divisible by 6 , we can use Lemma 5.2.4 to rule out every case except where $x=0101, z=01, a_{1}=1, a_{j}=3$, and $a_{n}=2$. Thus $w=1 \alpha 3 \alpha 2$ for some string $\alpha \in \Sigma_{4}^{*}$. This special case is ruled out by the following lemma:

Lemma 5.2.5 Suppose $\alpha \in \Sigma_{4}^{*}$, and let $w=1 \alpha 3 \alpha 2$. Then either $w$ contains a square, or $w$ contains an occurrence of one of the subwords 12, 13, 21, 32, 231, or 10302.

Proof. This can be verified by checking (a) all strings $w$ with $|w| \leq 4$, and (b) all strings of the form $w=a b c w^{\prime} d e$, where $a, b, c, d, e \in \Sigma_{4}$ and $w^{\prime} \in \Sigma_{4}^{*}$. (Here $w^{\prime}$ may be treated as an indeterminate.)

It now remains to show that if $w$ is squarefree and contains no occurrence of $12,13,21$, 32, 231, or 10302 , then $g(w)$ is cubefree. If $g(w)$ contains a cube $y y y$, then it contains a square $y y$, and from what precedes we know $|y| \leq 3$. It therefore suffices to show that $g(w)$ contains no occurrence of $0^{3}, 1^{3},(01)^{3},(10)^{3},(001)^{3},(010)^{3},(011)^{3},(100)^{3},(101)^{3},(110)^{3}$. The longest such string is of length 9 , so it suffices to examine the 16 possibilities for $g(w)$ where $|w|=3$. This is left to the reader.

The proof of Theorem 5.2.3 is now complete.

Corollary 5.2.6 If $g$ and $h$ are defined as above, then

$$
g\left(h^{\omega}(0)\right)=010011011010010110010011011001010011010110010011011001011010 \cdots
$$

is cubefree, and avoids all squares $x x$ with $|x| \geq 4$.

## Chapter 6

## New Problems of Pattern Avoidance

This chapter is based on the work of J. Loftus, J. Shallit and M.-w. Wang [LSW99].

### 6.1 Introduction

Pattern avoidance problems have long been studied in formal language theory, and have interesting applications to group theory, universal algebra, and other areas. For example, Axel Thue constructed an infinite squarefree word over $\{0,1,2\}$; i.e., a word that contains no subword of the form $x x$, where $x$ is a nonempty word [Thu12, Ber95].

Eventually, generalizations of Thue's problem were considered. Erdős, for example, suggested trying to find infinite words containing no subword of the form $x y$, where $y$ is a permutation of the letters of $x$. Such words are now sometimes called "abelian squarefree" [Bro71]. The reader can read other interesting papers on pattern avoidance [BEM79, Cur93, Cas93].

In this chapter, we consider some new generalizations of Thue's problem. We start with some notation. Let $\Sigma, \Gamma$ be finite alphabets. We let $\Sigma^{\omega}$ denote the set of all one-sided infinite words over $\Sigma$, and we let $\Sigma^{\infty}=\Sigma^{*} \cup \Sigma^{\omega}$. If $x \in \Sigma^{+}$, then by $x^{\omega}$ we mean the one-sided infinite word $x x x \cdots$.

If there exist words $x, y \in \Sigma^{*}, w, z \in \Sigma^{\infty}$ such that $w=x y z$, then we say $y$ is a finite
subword of $w$. Suppose we are given a finite or infinite subset $P \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$. Then we say a word $w \in \Sigma^{\infty}$ avoids $P$ if we cannot write $w=x y z$ such that $y \in P$. We say $P$ is avoidable over $\Sigma$ if it is possible to construct an infinite word $\mathbf{w} \in \Sigma^{\omega}$ which avoids $P$.

Sometimes we employ a common abuse of notation. For example, instead of saying that the infinite word $\mathbf{w}$ avoids $\left\{x x: x \in \Sigma^{+}\right\}$, we will instead simply say that $\mathbf{w}$ avoids the pattern $x x$. When we use this formulation, we always assume the strings in the pattern are nonempty.

We define $\Sigma_{k}=\{0,1,2, \ldots, k-1\}$ for some integer $k \geq 2$, and we define the morphism $\sigma_{k}(a)=(a+1) \bmod k$. If the subscript $k$ is clear from the context, we omit it. In this chapter, we consider avoiding patterns of the form $x \sigma^{i}(x)$.

We use two notational conventions that may be somewhat confusing. First, we think of the elements of $\Sigma_{k}$ as residue class representatives so that, for example, -1 and 2 denote the same element of $\Sigma_{3}$. Second, since we allow negative numbers in words, we sometimes use the notation $\left(a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)$ to denote the word $a_{1} a_{2} a_{3} \cdots a_{n}$. Thus, for example, 012 and $(0,-2,-1)$ denote the same element of $\Sigma_{3}^{*}$.

Some of the infinite words we construct arise from iterated morphisms. Call a morphism $h: \Gamma^{*} \rightarrow \Sigma^{*}$ non-erasing if $h(a) \neq \epsilon$ for all $a \in \Gamma$.

### 6.2 Avoiding $x \sigma(x)$

It is clear that over $\Sigma_{2}=\{0,1\}$, there are only two infinite words avoiding the pattern $x \sigma(x)$, namely $0^{\omega}$ and $1^{\omega}$. However, we have the following result:

Theorem 6.2.1 Over $\Sigma_{k}$ for $k \geq 3$, there are uncountably many infinite words avoiding $x \sigma(x)$.

Proof. Define $a_{1}=1$, and set $a_{i+1}=a_{i}+1$ or $a_{i}+2$, according to choice. Then

$$
\mathbf{w}=\prod_{i \geq 1}((-i) \bmod 3)^{a_{i}}=2^{a_{1}} 1^{a_{2}} 0^{a_{3}} 2^{a_{4}} 1^{a_{5}} 0^{a_{6}} \ldots
$$

avoids the pattern $x \sigma(x)$, and there are uncountably many such words.

### 6.3 Avoiding $x x, x \sigma(x), \ldots, x \sigma^{j}(x)$ simultaneously

The following theorem constitutes our main result. It characterizes, for each integer $j \geq 0$, the smallest integer $k$ for which we can avoid the $j+1$ patterns $x x, x \sigma(x), \ldots, x \sigma^{j}(x)$ simultaneously over $\Sigma_{k}=\{0,1, \ldots, k-1\}$.

Theorem 6.3.1 (a) One can avoid the pattern $x x$ over $\Sigma_{3}$, and 3 is best possible.
(b) One can avoid the patterns $x x$ and $x \sigma(x)$ simultaneously over $\Sigma_{5}$, and 5 is best possible.
(c) One can avoid the patterns $x x, x \sigma(x), x \sigma^{2}(x)$ simultaneously over $\Sigma_{5}$, and 5 is best possible.
(d) One can avoid the patterns $x x, x \sigma(x), x \sigma^{2}(x), x \sigma^{3}(x)$ simultaneously over $\Sigma_{6}$, and 6 is best possible.
(e) For $j \geq 4$, one can avoid the $j+1$ patterns $x x$, $x \sigma(x), \ldots, x \sigma^{j}(x)$ simultaneously over $\Sigma_{j+4}$, and $j+4$ is best possible.

Remark. Our proofs of these facts are of two different types. First, in order to show that it is possible to avoid a certain set of patterns over $\Sigma_{k}$, we explicitly construct an infinite word over $\Sigma_{k}$ having the desired property. Second, to show that $k$ is optimal for a certain set of patterns, we use a classical breadth-first tree traversal technique, as follows:

Suppose we wish to avoid a given set of words $P$ over $\Sigma_{k}$. We maintain a queue, $Q$, and initialize it with the empty word $\epsilon$. If the queue is empty, we are done. Otherwise, we take the next element $w$ from the queue, and form $k$ new words by appending $0,1, \ldots, k-1$ to it. For each new word $w a$, we check to see whether some suffix of $w a$ occurs in $P$. If it does, we discard it; otherwise we add it to the queue.

If this algorithm terminates, we have proved that it is not possible to avoid $P$ over $\Sigma_{k}$. The resulting proof may be represented in the form of a tree, with the leaves representing minimal length prefixes that contain an occurrence of one of the patterns as a suffix.

In the particular case of the patterns we discuss in this section, two additional efficiencies are possible. First, since a word $w$ simultaneously avoids the patterns $x x, x \sigma(x), \ldots, x \sigma^{j}(x)$ iff $\sigma(w)$ does, we may without loss of generality consider only the words that begin with the letter 0 . Second, if the last letter was $a$, then the next letter must be contained in the set $\{a+j+1, \ldots, a+k-1\}$, for otherwise our word would contain a length-2 subword of the form $x \sigma^{i}(x)$ for $0 \leq i \leq j$. This observation significantly cuts down on the branching factor of the trees we generate.

Proof of Theorem 6.3.1. Let us start with assertion (a). As already noted, a classical result due to Thue shows that one can avoid the pattern $x x$ over $\Sigma_{3}=\{0,1,2\}[$ Thu12, Ber95]. Furthermore, it is an old and easy observation that any word of length $\geq 4$ over $\Sigma_{2}=\{0,1\}$ contains an occurrence of the pattern $x x$. More generally, we have

Proposition 6.3.2 Let $k \geq 2$ be an integer, and let $r$ be an integer with $1 \leq r<k$. Then any word of length $\geq 4$ over $\Sigma_{k}$ contains an occurrence of the pattern $x \sigma^{a}(x)$ for some $a \not \equiv r$ $(\bmod k)$.

Proof. We use the tree traversal algorithm. Assume the first letter is 0 ; then if the next letter is $a \neq r$, we are done. Hence assume the next letter is $r$. Then, by a similar argument, the next letter must be $2 r$, and the next $3 r$. However, the word $(0, r, 2 r, 3 r)$ contains the pattern $x \sigma^{2 r}(x)$ for $x=(0, r)$. Since $r \neq 0$, we have $2 r \not \equiv r(\bmod k)$.

Now let us prove assertion (b) of Theorem 6.3.1. By Proposition 6.3.2 with $r=2$, one cannot avoid the patterns $x x$ and $x \sigma(x)$ simultaneously over $\Sigma_{3}$. We also have Proposition 6.3.3 Every word of length $\geq 24$ over $\Sigma_{4}$ contains an occurrence of either $x x$ or $x \sigma(x)$.

Proof. We use the tree traversal algorithm. The resulting tree has depth 24 and contains 233 leaves. Figure 1 below lists these leaves in breadth-first order.

| 0202 | 0203210202 | 10310 | 02102032021031 | 21020320210322 | ${ }^{0313213103132103131 ~}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ${ }^{213}$ | ${ }^{0210203203}$ | 031321031320 | 021020320210310 | 02102032021032021 | 0313213103132103132 |
| ${ }^{031}$ | 0210313210 | 031321031321 | 021020320210321 | 02103132131031320 | 0320210203302103203 |
| 02031 | 0210320213 | 032021032020 | 021031321310310 | 02103132131032132 | 0321310313213103302 |
| 03131 | 0313213 | 032021032021 | 0313213110321313 | 02103202102032020 | ${ }^{03213103132213103203}$ |
| 3 | 03132102 | 0321310313 | 2131 | 02103202102032131 | ${ }^{0321310313213103210}$ |
| ${ }^{021021}$ | ${ }^{03132102}$ | 032131032 | 032021020320 | 22021023 | 32102032021 |
| 031320 | 03132103 | 032131032132 | 0322210203210 | 02103202102032103 | 2032102032021032 |
| 032020 | ${ }^{0320210202}$ | 032102032220 | 0321310313213 | 32131031321020 | 32102032021032 |
| 032132 | ${ }^{0320210313}$ | 032102032102 | 032131031321020 | 03132131031321021 | 021031321310313210 |
| ${ }^{032103}$ | 032211310 | 032102032103 | 31131321021 | 2131031321032 | 11021 |
| 20323 | 032 | 0203202 | 032131031321032 | ${ }^{31}$ | 02103132131031321032 |
| 0210202 | 0321310310 | O320210 | 2102332 | 213103132103131 | 03202102332021032020 |
| 0210310 | O3213 | 0203210203203 | 02032021020320 | 03213103132103132 | 220210203202103 |
| 021 | 020320210 | 0210203210 | 02032021020320 | 03210233202102 | 213103132131 |
| ${ }^{0320213}$ | 02032102031 | 0210203210203 | 0203202102032131 | 03210203202103203 | 210203202102032 |
| ${ }^{0321313}$ | 02102032020 | 0210313213102 | 0203202102032132 | 020320210203211202 | 03210203202102332132 |
| ${ }^{0321021}$ | 02102332131 | 0210320210202 | 0203202102032103 | ${ }^{020320210203210203 ~}$ | 210233202102 |
| 02032220 | 02102332132 | 31031 | 021020320210203 | ${ }^{020321020320210202 ~}$ | 1310313 |
| 0321 | 02102032103 | 0313213103202 | 0210233202102032 | 020321020320210313 | 1032021020320210313 |
| ${ }^{02032103}$ | 02103132132 | 0313213103203 | 0210233202103203 | 020321020320210310 | 021032021020320210310 |
| 02102031 | 031321031 | 0313213103210 | 0210313213103131 | ${ }^{020321020320210321 ~}$ | 21032021020320210321 |
| 02103131 | 03202102031 | 0320210203 | 021031321310320 | 021031321310313213 | 032131031321310321313 |
| ${ }^{02103203}$ | ${ }^{03202103}$ | 0321020 | 0210313213103203 | 021031321310321313 | 1310313213103 |
| 03132132 | 03213103 | 02032021032202 | 0210313213103210 | 021031321310321310 | 2102032021020321021 |
| 032131 | 032131032 | 02032021032 | 02103202102032 | 021032021020320213 | 321020320210203 |
| 032 | 03210233 | 02032102032 | 0313213103132 | 021032021020321021 | 1032 |
| 020322213 | 03210232 | 02102032211 | 0313213103132 | 031321310313210310 | 032 |
| 020321313 | 020320210202 | 02103202102031 | 0320210233202102 | 032021020320210313 | 0210313213103132103131 |
| 020321021 | 020320210313 | ${ }^{03132131131320}$ | 0320210203210202 | ${ }^{032021020320210310 ~}$ | 0313 |
| 021031320 | 020320210310 | ${ }^{031321311032132}$ | 0320210233210203 | 032021020320210321 | 0210320210203202 |
| 02103220 | 020320210321 | 03202102032020 | 0321310313213102 | 032102032021020320 | 0321020320210203210202 |
| 031321313 | 020321020321 | 03202102032131 | 0321310313210310 | 032102332021032020 | 03210203202102032102 |
| 031 | 02102 | 03202102032132 | 0321020320210202 | 2 | 0203210233021020321021 |
| 031321032 | 021020321021 | 03202102032103 | 0321023320210313 | 0203210203202102031 | 02103202102032021032020 |
| 032021021 | 021031321313 | 03213103132132 | 0321023320210310 | 0203210203202103203 | 103202102032021032 |
| 032102031 | 021032021021 | 020320210203203 | 0321020320210321 | 02103202102032202102 | 0203210203202102032102 |
| ${ }^{203213102}$ | 021032021031 | 020321020320213 | 02032021020321021 | 0210320210203210202 | 032102032021020 |
| ${ }^{0203213103}$ | 021032021032 | 021020320210 | 02032102032021021 | 021032021023 |  |

Figure 1: Leaves of the tree giving a proof of Proposition 6.3.3.

Thus we cannot avoid the patterns $x x$ and $x \sigma(x)$ simultaneously over $\Sigma_{4}$. However, we can avoid the patterns $x x$ and $x \sigma(x)$ simultaneously over $\Sigma_{5}$. This will follow from Theorem 6.3.4 below.

Next, let us prove assertion (c). As we have seen in Proposition 6.3.2 above, every word of length $\geq 4$ over $\Sigma_{4}$ contains an occurrence of one of the patterns $x x, x \sigma(x)$, or $x \sigma^{2}(x)$.

We now show
Theorem 6.3.4 It is possible to simultaneously avoid the patterns $x x, x \sigma(x)$, and $x \sigma^{2}(x)$ over $\Sigma_{5}$.

Before starting the proof, we introduce some notation. If $\mathbf{w}=a_{1} a_{2} a_{3} \cdots$ is a word over $\Sigma_{k}$, then

$$
\Delta(\mathbf{w}):=\left(a_{2}-a_{1}, a_{3}-a_{2}, a_{4}-a_{3}, \ldots\right),
$$

where the differences are, of course, taken $\bmod k$. Similarly, we write

$$
S(\mathbf{w})=\left(0, a_{1}, a_{1}+a_{2}, a_{1}+a_{2}+a_{3}, \ldots\right),
$$

where the sums are, of course, taken $\bmod k$. Note that $\Delta(S(\mathbf{w}))=\mathbf{w}$, and if $a_{1}=0$, then $S(\Delta(\mathbf{w}))=\mathbf{w}$. Finally, if $x=a_{1} \cdots a_{m} \in \Sigma_{k}^{*}$, we define $s_{k}(x)=\left(\Sigma_{1 \leq i \leq m} a_{i}\right) \bmod k$.

The following lemma relates occurrences of patterns of the form $x \sigma^{a}(x)$ in $\mathbf{w}$ to other, easier-to-study patterns in $\Delta(\mathbf{w})$.

Lemma 6.3.5 Let $w \in \Sigma_{k}^{\infty}$, and let $a \in \Sigma_{k}$. Then $w$ avoids the pattern $x \sigma^{a}(x)$ iff $\Delta(w)$ avoids $\left\{y c y: y \in \Sigma_{k}^{*}, c \in \Sigma_{k}\right.$, and $\left.s_{k}(y c)=a\right\}$.

Proof. Suppose $w$ contains an occurrence of the pattern $x \sigma^{a}(x)$. Write $x=b_{1} b_{2} \cdots b_{i}$. Then

$$
w=w^{\prime} b_{1} b_{2} \cdots b_{i} \sigma^{a}\left(b_{1}\right) \cdots \sigma^{a}\left(b_{i}\right) \cdots
$$

Thus

$$
\Delta(w)=\Delta\left(w^{\prime} b_{1}\right),\left(b_{2}-b_{1}, \ldots, b_{i}-b_{i-1}, \sigma^{a}\left(b_{1}\right)-b_{i}, b_{2}-b_{1}, \ldots, b_{i}-b_{i-1}, \ldots\right)
$$

and hence contains $y c y$ with

$$
y=\left(b_{2}-b_{1}, \ldots, b_{i}-b_{i-1}\right), \quad c=\sigma^{a}\left(b_{1}\right)-b_{i} .
$$

Also

$$
\begin{aligned}
s_{k}(y c) & =\left(b_{2}-b_{1}\right)+\cdots+\left(b_{i}-b_{i-1}\right)+\sigma^{a}\left(b_{1}\right)-b_{i} \\
& =\left(b_{i}-b_{1}\right)+\left(a+b_{1}-b_{i}\right) \\
& =a .
\end{aligned}
$$

Now suppose $\Delta(w)$ contains a subword $y c y$ with $y \in \Sigma_{k}^{*}, c \in \Sigma_{k}$, and $s_{k}(y c)=a$. Then $\Delta(w)=x y c y z$ for some $x=b_{1} b_{2} \cdots b_{j}$ and $y=d_{1} d_{2} \cdots d_{i}$. Then

$$
\Delta(w)=b_{1} b_{2} \cdots b_{j} d_{1} d_{2} \cdots d_{i} c d_{1} d_{2} \cdots d_{i} \cdots
$$

Then if $e$ is the first letter of $w$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
w= & \left(e, e+b_{1}, e+b_{1}+b_{2}, \ldots, e+b_{1}+b_{2}+\cdots+b_{j}, e+f+d_{1}, e+f+d_{1}+d_{2}, \ldots,\right. \\
& e+f+d_{1}+d_{2}+\cdots+d_{i}, e+f+g+c, e+f+g+c+d_{1}, e+f+g+c+d_{1}+d_{2}, \ldots, \\
& \left.e+f+g+c+d_{1}+d_{2}+\cdots+d_{i}, \ldots\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

where $f:=b_{1}+b_{2}+\cdots+b_{j}$ and $g:=d_{1}+d_{2}+\cdots+d_{i}$. It follows that $w$ contains an occurrence of $x \sigma^{a}(x)$, where $x=\left(e+f, e+f+d_{1}, \ldots, e+f+d_{1}+d_{2}+\cdots+d_{i}\right)$ and $a=g+c$. But $g+c=s_{k}\left(d_{1} d_{2} \cdots d_{i} c\right)=s_{k}(y c)$.

Now to prove Theorem 6.3.4, it suffices to construct an infinite word $\mathbf{v}$ where $\mathbf{v}$ avoids

$$
P_{2}:=\left\{y c y: y \in \Sigma_{5}^{*}, c \in \Sigma_{5}, \text { and } s_{5}(y c) \in\{0,1,2\}\right\} .
$$

For then we could set $\mathbf{w}=S(\mathbf{v})$, and by Lemma 6.3.5, $\mathbf{w}$ avoids the patterns $x x, x \sigma(x)$, and $x \sigma^{2}(x)$ over $\Sigma_{5}$. We construct such a $\mathbf{v}$ using the following theorem.

Theorem 6.3.6 Let $h$ be the morphism over $\{3,4\}$ defined by $h(4)=4433$ and $h(3)=$
44433. Let $w$ be a finite word. If $w$ avoids $P_{2}$, then $h(w)$ avoids $P_{2}$.

Proof. We prove the contrapositive.
Suppose $h(w)$ contains an occurrence of the pattern ycy with $y \in \Sigma_{5}^{*}, c \in \Sigma_{5}$, and $s_{5}(y c) \in\{0,1,2\}$. Write $h(w)=z_{1} y c y z_{2}$. Without loss of generality, we may assume that $\left|z_{1}\right|$ is as small as possible, or, in other words, that the occurrence of $y c y$ we are dealing with lies as far to the left as possible within $h(w)$.

Also note that $s_{5}(i)=s_{5}(h(i))$ for $i \in\{3,4\}$, and so it follows that $s_{5}(w)=s_{5}(h(w))$ for all finite strings $w \in\{3,4\}^{*}$.

We claim that if $y c y$ is a subword of $h(w)$ for some $w$ such that $y, c$ obey the given conditions, then $|y| \geq 5$. Table 1 below suffices to prove this.

The explanation of the table is as follows. We examine all possible subwords $y c$ of length $\leq 5$ that occur in $\{4433,44433\}^{*}$. For each such subword, it suffices to show that either $s_{5}(y c) \notin\{0,1,2\}$, or $y c y$ cannot occur as a subword of $h(w)$ for any $w \in\{3,4\}^{*}$. For this last check, it suffices to observe that if $y c y$ contains any of the subwords $434,343,333$, or 4444 , then it cannot occur as a subword of $h(w)$.

| $\|y\|$ | $y c$ | $s_{5}(y c)$ | $y c y$ | $y c y$ contains forbidden subword | if so, which one |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 3 | 3 | 3 | no |  |
|  | 4 | 4 | 4 | no |  |
| 1 | 33 | 1 | 333 | yes | 333 |
|  | 34 | 2 | 343 | yes | 343 |
|  | 43 | 2 | 434 | yes | 434 |
|  | 44 | 3 | 444 | no |  |
| 2 | 334 | 0 | 33433 | yes | 343 |
|  | 344 | 1 | 34434 | yes | 434 |
|  | 433 | 0 | 43343 | yes | 343 |
|  | 443 | 1 | 44344 | yes | 434 |
|  | 444 | 2 | 44444 | yes | 4444 |
| 3 | 3344 | 4 | 3344334 | no |  |
|  | 3443 | 4 | 3443344 | no |  |
|  | 3444 | 0 | 3444344 | yes | 434 |
|  | 4334 | 4 | 4334433 | no |  |
|  | 4433 | 4 | 4433443 | no |  |
|  | 4443 | 0 | 4443444 | yes | 434 |
| 4 | 33443 | 2 | 334433344 | yes | 333 |
|  | 33444 | 3 | 334443344 | no |  |
|  | 34433 | 2 | 344333443 | yes | 333 |
|  | 34443 | 3 | 344433444 | no |  |
|  | 43344 | 3 | 433444334 | no |  |
|  | 44334 | 3 | 443344433 | no |  |
|  | 44433 | 3 | 444334443 | no |  |

Table 1: Proof that $|y| \geq 5$.

It follows that $|y| \geq 5$. There are now several cases to consider.
Case 1: $y$ starts with 33. Then $y c y=33 \cdots c 33 \cdots$. Since $h(w) \in\{4433,44433\}^{*}$, we must have $c=4$. Also, $y$ must end with 4 , and furthermore the letter immediately preceding the occurrence of $y c y$ in $h(w)$ must be 4 . We can therefore write $y=33 t 4$ for some string $t$, and observe that $433 t 4433 t 4=4 y 4 y$ is a subword of $h(w)$. Now let $y^{\prime}=433 t$, and note that $y^{\prime} 4 y^{\prime}$ is a subword of $h(w)$. But $s_{5}\left(y^{\prime} 4\right)=s_{5}(433 t 4)=s_{5}(33 t 44)=s_{5}(y 4) \in\{0,1,2\}$, so $y^{\prime} 4 y^{\prime} \in P_{2}$, contradicting our assumption that $y c y$ was the leftmost such occurrence in $h(w)$.

Case 2: $y$ starts with 34. Then $y c y=34 \cdots c 34 \cdots$, so $c=3$. Thus $y c y=34 \cdots 334 \cdots$, so $y$ must end in 4, and further the letter immediately preceding the occurrence of $y c y$ in $h(w)$ must be 3. We can therefore write $y=34 t 3$ for some string $t$, and observe that $334 t 3334 t 3=3 y 3 y$ is a subword of $h(w)$. Now let $y^{\prime}=334 t$ and note that $y^{\prime} 3 y^{\prime}$ is a subword of $h(w)$. But $s_{5}\left(y^{\prime} 3\right)=s_{5}(334 t 3)=s_{5}(34 t 33)=s_{5}(y 3) \in\{0,1,2\}$, so $y^{\prime} 3 y^{\prime} \in P_{2}$, contradicting our assumption that ycy was the leftmost such occurrence in $h(w)$.

Case 3: $y$ starts with 43. Then $y c y=43 \cdots c 43 \cdots$, so $c=4$, and further the letter immediately preceding the occurrence of $y c y$ in $h(w)$ must be 4 . Thus $y=43 t$. Write $t=t^{\prime} b$, where $|b|=1$. Then $y=43 t^{\prime} b$. Then $4 y c y=443 t^{\prime} b 443 t^{\prime} b$ is a subword of $h(w)$. Let $y^{\prime}=443 t^{\prime}$. Then $y^{\prime} b y^{\prime}$ is a subword of $h(w)$, and $s_{5}\left(y^{\prime} b\right)=s_{5}\left(443 t^{\prime} b\right)=s_{5}\left(43 t^{\prime} b 4\right)=$ $s_{5}(y 4) \in\{0,1,2\}$, so $y^{\prime} b y^{\prime} \in P_{2}$, contradicting our assumption that $y c y$ was the leftmost such occurrence in $h(w)$.

Case 4: $y$ starts with 444. Then $y c y=444 \cdots c 444 \cdots$, so $c=3$, and further, $y$ ends with 3 . Since $|y| \geq 5$, we can write $y=444 t 3$ for some string $t$. It follows that $y 3 y 3=444 t 33444 t 33$ is a subword of $h(w)$. Hence there exists a string $u$ such that $h(3 u)=y 3$, and $3 u 3 u$ is a subword of $w$. We have $s_{5}(u 3)=s_{5}(3 u)=s_{5}(y 3) \in\{0,1,2\}$, so $u 3 u$ is an occurrence of a string of $P_{2}$ in $w$, as desired.

Case 5: $y$ starts with 443. There are two subcases to consider:

Case 5a: $c=3$. Then the last two characters of $y$ must be 43 . We have $y c y=443 \cdots 433443 \cdots 43$. Then $y 3 y 3$ is a subword of $h(w)$, and there must exist $u$ such that $h(4 u)=y 3$ and $u 4 u$ is a subword of $w$. Then $s_{5}(u 4)=s_{5}(4 u)=$ $s_{5}(y 3) \in\{0,1,2\}$, so $u 4 u$ is an occurrence of a string of $P_{2}$ in $w$, as desired.

Case 5b: $c=4$. Then $y c y=443 \cdots 4443 \cdots$, so the last three characters of $y$ must be 433. Since $|y| \geq 5$, we must have $y=4433 \cdots 433$. Write $y=4433 y^{\prime}$. Then $y c y=4433 y^{\prime} 44433 y^{\prime}$ is a subword of $h(w)$ and there exists $u$ such that $h(u)=y^{\prime}$. Then $h(u 3 u)=y^{\prime} 44433 y^{\prime}$. Now $s_{5}(u 3)=s_{5}(h(u 3))=s_{5}\left(y^{\prime} 44433\right)=$ $s_{5}\left(4433 y^{\prime} 4\right)=s_{5}(y 4)$, so $u 3 u$ is an occurrence of a string of $P_{2}$ in $w$, as desired.

This completes the proof of Theorem 6.3.6.

## Proof of Theorem 6.3.4. Define

$$
\mathbf{v}=h^{\omega}(4)=443344334443344433 \cdots
$$

We claim $\mathbf{v}$ avoids $P_{2}$. This follows because the word 4 avoids $P_{2}$, and by Theorem 6.3.6, if $w$ avoids $P_{2}$ then so does $h(w)$. Now consider $S(\mathbf{v})=0431432032103104314 \cdots$. From Lemma 6.3.5, it follows that $S(\mathbf{v})$ avoids the patterns $x x, x \sigma(x)$, and $x \sigma^{2}(x)$.

This completes the proof of Theorem 6.3.4, and hence assertion (c) of Theorem 6.3.1.

We now turn to assertion (d) of Theorem 6.3.1. From Proposition 6.3.3 with $r=4$ we know any word of length $\geq 4$ over $\Sigma_{5}$ contains an occurrence of one of the patterns $x x, x \sigma(x)$, $x \sigma^{2}(x)$, or $x \sigma^{3}(x)$. The methods of Theorem 6.3.6 and Lemma 6.3.5 lead immediately to

Theorem 6.3.7 It is possible to simultaneously avoid the patterns $x x, x \sigma(x), x \sigma^{2}(x)$, and $x \sigma^{3}(x)$ over $\Sigma_{6}$.

Proof. We construct an infinite word $\mathbf{w}$ over $\Sigma_{6}$ such that $\mathbf{w}$ simultaneously avoids the patterns $x x, x \sigma(x), x \sigma^{2}(x)$, and $x \sigma^{3}(x)$. Let $g$ be the morphism over $\{4,5\}$ defined by
$g(5)=55544$ and $g(4)=555544$. We claim that $\mathbf{w}=S\left(g^{\omega}(5)\right)$ simultaneously avoids the patterns $x x, x \sigma(x), x \sigma^{2}(x)$, and $x \sigma^{3}(x)$. The proof follows exactly the same plan as that of Theorem 6.3.6. We omit it here.

Remark. We note that the morphisms used in the proof of Theorem 6.3.6 and Theorem 6.3.7 do not generalize to any other $j$. For example, if we were to define $h$ analogously for $j=4$, we would have $h(6)=666655$ and $h(5)=6666655$. By inspection, we see that $h(6)=6666655$ contains $y c y$ where $y=66$ and $c=6$. Hence $s_{7}(y c)=4=j$ and so $S(h(6))$ does not avoid the pattern $x \sigma^{4}(x)$.

Finally, we turn to assertion (e). First, we show it is not possible to avoid the patterns $x x, x \sigma(x), \ldots, x \sigma^{4}(x)$ on 7 letters. Here the corresponding tree has 215 leaves, and the longest leaf has length 36. See Figure 2 below.

| 0531 | 0543205432 | 0653106542065432 | 06542065431654320543210 | 065431654320543216432105321065 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0542 | 0543216431 | 0654206543165431 | 06543165432054321643216 | 0532106421065310654206543165431 |
| 0643 | 0642106420 | 0654316543205431 | 053210642106531065420653 | 0543216432105321064210653106543 |
| 05320 | 0642106421 | 05321064210653105 | 054321643210532106421064 | 0642106531065420654316543205431 |
| 06420 | 0642106532 | 05432164321053216 | 064210653106542065431653 | 0653106542065431654320543216431 |
| 06532 | 0653106531 | 06421065310654205 | 065310654206543165432053 | 0654206543165432054321643210531 |
| 054310 | 0653106532 | 06531065420654310 | 065420654316543205432165 | 0654316543205432164321053210643 |
| 064216 | 0653106543 | 06542065431654321 | 065431654320543216432106 | 05321064210653106542065431654321 |
| 065316 | 0654206542 | 06543165432054320 | 0532106421065310654206542 | 05432164321053210642106531065421 |
| 065421 | 0654316542 | 053210642106531064 | 0543216432105321064210654 | 06421065310654206543165432054320 |
| 065432 | 05321064216 | 054321643210532105 | 0642106531065420654316542 | 06531065420654316543205432164320 |
| 0532165 | 05432164320 | 064210653106542064 | 0653106542065431654320542 | 06542065431654320543216432105320 |
| 0543164 | 06421065316 | 065310654206543164 | 0654206543165432054321642 | 06543165432054321643210532106420 |
| 0543206 | 06531065421 | 065420654316543206 | 0654316543205432164321054 | 053210642106531065420654316543206 |
| 0543210 | 06542065432 | 065431654320543210 | 05321064210653106542065432 | 054321643210532106421065310654205 |
| 0653105 | 06543165431 | 0532106421065310653 | 05432164321053210642106532 | 064210653106542065431654320543210 |
| 0654205 | 053210642105 | 0543216432105321065 | 06421065310654206543165431 | 065310654206543165432054321643216 |
| 0654310 | 054321643216 | 0642106531065420653 | 06531065420654316543205431 | 065420654316543205432164321053216 |
| 05321642 | 064210653105 | 0653106542065431653 | 06542065431654320543216431 | 065431654320543216432105321064216 |
| 05321643 | 065310654205 | 0654206543165432053 | 06543165432054321643210531 | 0532106421065310654206543165432053 |
| 05321054 | 065420654310 | 0654316543205432165 | 053210642106531065420654310 | 0543216432105321064210653106542064 |
| 05321065 | 065431654321 | 05321064210653106543 | 054321643210532106421065316 | 0642106531065420654316543205432165 |
| 05431653 | 0532106421064 | 05432164321053210643 | 064210653106542065431654321 | 0653106542065431654320543216432106 |
| 05431654 | 0543216432106 | 06421065310654206542 | 065310654206543165432054320 | 0654206543165432054321643210532105 |
| 05432053 | 0642106531064 | 06531065420654316542 | 065420654316543205432164320 | 0654316543205432164321053210642105 |
| 05432165 | 0653106542064 | 06542065431654320542 | 065431654320543216432105320 | 05321064210653106542065431654320542 |
| 06421053 | 0654206543164 | 06543165432054321642 | 0532106421065310654206543164 | 05432164321053210642106531065420653 |
| 06421054 | 0654316543206 | 053210642106531065421 | 0543216432105321064210653105 | 06421065310654206543165432054321642 |
| 06531064 | 05321064210654 | 054321643210532106420 | 0642106531065420654316543206 | 06531065420654316543205432164321054 |
| 06542064 | 05432164321054 | 064210653106542065432 | 0653106542065431654320543210 | 06542065431654320543216432105321065 |
| 06543164 | 06421065310653 | 065310654206543165431 | 0654206543165432054321643216 | 06543165432054321643210532106421064 |
| 053210531 | 06531065420653 | 065420654316543205431 | 0654316543205432164321053216 | 053210642106531065420654316543205431 |
| 053210643 | 06542065431653 | 065431654320543216431 | 05321064210653106542065431653 | 053210642106531065420654316543205432 |
| 054320542 | 06543165432053 | 0532106421065310654205 | 05432164321053210642106531064 | 054321643210532106421065310654206542 |
| 054321642 | 053210642106532 | 0543216432105321064216 | 06421065310654206543165432053 | 054321643210532106421065310654206543 |
| 064210643 | 054321643210531 | 0642106531065420654310 | 06531065420654316543205432165 | 064210653106542065431654320543216431 |
| 064210654 | 064210653106543 | 0653106542065431654321 | 06542065431654320543216432106 | 064210653106542065431654320543216432 |
| 065420653 | 065310654206542 | 0654206543165432054320 | 06543165432054321643210532105 | 065310654206543165432054321643210531 |
| 065431653 | 065420654316542 | 0654316543205432164320 | 053210642106531065420654316542 | 065310654206543165432054321643210532 |
| 0532105320 | 065431654320542 | 05321064210653106542064 | 054321643210532106421065310653 | 065420654316543205432164321053210642 |
| 0532105321 | 0532106421065316 | 05432164321053210642105 | 064210653106542065431654320542 | 065420654316543205432164321053210643 |
| 0532106420 | 0543216432105320 | 06421065310654206543164 | 065310654206543165432054321642 | 065431654320543216432105321064210653 |
| 0543205431 | 0642106531065421 | 06531065420654316543206 | 065420654316543205432164321054 | 065431654320543216432105321064210654 |

Figure 2: Leaves of the tree giving the proof of assertion (e)

Using the tree traversal algorithm, we can prove

Theorem 6.3.8 One cannot avoid the patterns $x x, x \sigma(x), \ldots, x \sigma^{j}(x)$ on $j+3$ letters, for
$j \geq 5$.

Proof. Consider trying to generate an infinite word $\mathbf{w}$ over $\mathbb{Z}$ starting with 0 , subject to two conditions: (1) avoiding the pattern $x \sigma^{i}(x)$ for all $i$, where $|x| \geq 2$, and (2) avoiding all subwords of length 2 that are not of the form $(n, n-1)$ or $(n, n-2)$ for $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Let us now apply the tree traversal algorithm to this avoidance problem. The tree $T$ so produced has 71 leaves and the longest leaf has length 12 . All the occurrences of $x \sigma^{i}(x)$ found at the leaves of $T$, for $|x| \geq 2$, satisfy $i \in X=\{-3,-4,-6,-7,-8\}$.

Now consider the labels of this tree reduced modulo $j+3$. The patterns at the leaves are still of the form $x \sigma^{i}(x)$, except now $i$ is reduced modulo $j+3$. In order for $T$ to correctly represent a proof that the pattern $x \sigma^{i}(x)$ cannot be avoided for $0 \leq i \leq j$ we must check that $i \bmod (j+3) \in\{0,1, \ldots, j\}$ for all $i \in X$. But this is clearly true for $j \geq 5$.

Figure 3 lists the leaves of $T$ in coded form. We use the letters $A, B, C, D, E, F, G$ to represent $10,11,12,13,14,15,16$ respectively, and the word $a_{1} a_{2} \cdots a_{j}$ represents the leaf $\left(-a_{1},-a_{2}, \ldots,-a_{j}\right)$.

| 0246 | 024568 AC | 01356789 A | 0234568 ABCE |
| ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| 0235 | 024568 AB | 01235789 B | 01356789 BDF |
| 0134 | 0245679 A | 01234689 B | 01246789 ACD |
| 02457 | 02456789 | 0245679 BCE | 01235789 ABC |
| 01357 | 0234689 B | 0245679 BCD | 01234689 ABD |
| 01245 | 0234689 A | 0245678 ACE | 0245678 ACDEG |
| 023467 | 0234579 B | 0234579 ABD | 0245678 ACDEF |
| 013568 | 02345689 | 0234579 ABC | 0234568 ABCDF |
| 012468 | 0135679 B | 0234568 ABD | 0234568 ABCDE |
| 012356 | 0135679 A | 0135678 ACE | 01356789 BDEG |
| 012345 | 0124678 A | 0135678 ACD | 01356789 BDEF |
| 0245689 | 0123578 A | 01356789 BC | 01246789 ACEG |


| 023468 A | 0123468 A | 01246789 BD | 01246789 ACEF |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | :--- |
| 0234578 | 0245679 BD | 01246789 BC | 01235789 ABDF |
| 0234567 | 0245678 AB | 01246789 AB | 01235789 ABDE |
| 0124679 | 0234579 AC | 01235789 AC | 01234689 ABCE |
| 0123579 | 0234568 AC | 01234689 AC | 01234689 ABCD |
| 0123467 | 0135678 AB | 0245678 ACDF |  |

Figure 3: Leaves of the tree giving the proof of Theorem 6.3.8.

We now show it is possible to simultaneously avoid the patterns $x x, x \sigma(x), \ldots, x \sigma^{j}(x)$ on $\Sigma_{j+4}$ for $j \geq 4$. Actually, we prove a more general result from which this result will follow.

Theorem 6.3.9 Let $k \geq 4$ be an integer, and let $A \subset \Sigma_{k}$ such that $\operatorname{Card} A \leq k-3$. Then it is possible to simultaneously avoid the patterns $\left\{x \sigma^{a}(x): a \in A\right\}$ over $\Sigma_{k}$.

Proof. Once again, the idea is to consider the first differences of words, modulo $k$. Suppose we can construct a word $\mathbf{w}$ over $\Sigma_{k}$ such that $\mathbf{w}$ avoids both (i) the pattern $y c y$, where $|y| \geq 1$ and $|c|=1$, and (ii) the letters $a \in A$. Then it follows from Lemma 6.3.5 that $S(\mathbf{w})$ avoids the pattern $x \sigma^{a}(x)$.

Lemma 6.3.10 Let $\mathbf{w}=a_{1} a_{2} a_{3} \cdots$ be any squarefree word over $\Sigma_{3}$. Then the word $a_{1} a_{1} a_{2} a_{2} a_{3} a_{3} \cdots$ avoids the pattern ycy for $y \in \Sigma_{3}^{+}$and $c \in \Sigma_{3}$.

Remark. This lemma is due to J. Loftus.

Proof. Suppose $y=b_{1} b_{2} \cdots b_{k}$, and the pattern $y c y$ occurs in $\mathbf{z}=a_{1} a_{1} a_{2} a_{2} a_{3} a_{3} \cdots$. There are three cases to consider, depending on $|y|$ and where $y$ starts in $\mathbf{z}$.

Case 1: $|y|$ is even and $y$ starts with $a_{i} a_{i}$. Let $k=2 j$. Then we have

$$
\begin{array}{ccccccccc}
b_{1} & b_{2} & \cdots & b_{2 j} & c & b_{1} & b_{2} & \cdots & b_{2 j} \\
& & & & \\
& & & \\
a_{i} & a_{i} & \cdots & a_{i+j-1} & a_{i+j} & a_{i+j} & a_{i+j+1} & \cdots & a_{i+2 j}
\end{array}
$$

and so $a_{i+j}=b_{1}=a_{i}=b_{2}=a_{i+j+1}$. It follows that $\mathbf{w}$ contains the square $a_{i+j} a_{i+j+1}$, a contradiction.

Case 2: $|y|$ is even and $y$ starts with $a_{i} a_{i+1}$. Let $k=2 j$. Then we have

\[

\]

and so $a_{i}=b_{1}=a_{i+j+1}=b_{2}=a_{i+1}$. It follows that $\mathbf{w}$ contains the square $a_{i} a_{i+1}$, a contradiction.

Case 3: $|y|$ is odd. Let $k=2 j+1$. Then either

$$
\begin{array}{ccccccccccc}
b_{1} & b_{2} & \cdots & b_{2 j} & b_{2 j+1} & c & b_{1} & b_{2} & \cdots & b_{2 j} & b_{2 j+1} \\
& & & \\
& & \\
a_{i} & a_{i} & \cdots & a_{i+j-1} & a_{i+j} & a_{i+j} & a_{i+j+1} & a_{i+j+1} & \cdots & a_{i+2 j} & a_{i+2 j+1}
\end{array}
$$

or

$$
\begin{array}{ccccccccccc}
b_{1} & b_{2} & \cdots & b_{2 j} & b_{2 j+1} & c & b_{1} & b_{2} & \cdots & b_{2 j} & b_{2 j+1} \\
& & \\
& \\
a_{i} & a_{i+1} & \cdots & a_{i+j} & a_{i+j} & a_{i+j+1} & a_{i+j+1} & a_{i+j+2} & \cdots & a_{i+2 j+1} & a_{i+2 j+1}
\end{array}
$$

In either case we find

$$
\begin{array}{cc}
a_{i}= & b_{1}=a_{i+j+1} \\
a_{i+1}= & b_{3}=a_{i+j+2} \\
\vdots & \\
a_{i+j}= & b_{2 j+1}
\end{array}=a_{i+2 j+1}
$$

It follows that $a_{i} a_{i+1} \cdots a_{i+j}=a_{i+j+1} a_{i+j+2} \cdots a_{i+2 j+1}$ and so $\mathbf{w}$ contains the square $a_{i} a_{i+1} \cdots a_{i+2 j+1}$, a contradiction. The proof of the Lemma is complete.

Remark. One cannot avoid the pattern $y c y$, with $|y| \geq 1$ and $|c|=1$, over an alphabet of 2 letters. As the tree traversal algorithm shows, any word of length $\geq 7$ over $\{0,1\}$ contains an occurrence of $y c y$.

Now we can complete the proof of Theorem 6.3.9. Let $\mathbf{x}$ be any squarefree word over $\{0,1,2\}$. Since Card $A=k-3$, we have $\Sigma_{k}-A=\{d, e, f\}$ for some distinct integers $0 \leq d, e, f<k$.

Consider the morphism $\varphi: \Sigma_{j+4}^{*} \rightarrow \Sigma_{j+4}^{*}$ defined as follows:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 0 \rightarrow d d \\
& 1 \rightarrow e e \\
& 2 \rightarrow f f
\end{aligned}
$$

We claim $S(\varphi(\mathbf{x}))$ avoids the patterns $x x, x \sigma(x), \ldots, x \sigma^{j}(x)$.
Let $\mathbf{v}=S(\varphi(\mathbf{x}))$. Then $\Delta(\mathbf{v})=\varphi(\mathbf{x})$ clearly avoids $y c y$ by Lemma 6.3.10, and it also avoids all the letters in $A$ by construction. Then by Lemma 6.3.5, $\mathbf{v}$ avoids the patterns $x \sigma^{a}(x)$ for $a \in A$.

As a consequence we get

Corollary 6.3.11 It is possible to simultaneously avoid the patterns $x x, x \sigma(x), \ldots, x \sigma^{j}(x)$ on $\Sigma_{j+4}$ for $j \geq 4$.

The proof of Theorem 6.3.1 is now complete.

### 6.4 Even more results

One may also consider the problem of avoiding other sets of patterns of the form $x \sigma^{a}(x)$. In this section, we let $j \geq 1$ be an integer, and consider avoiding the $2 j+1$ patterns $x \sigma^{-j}(x)$, $\ldots, x \sigma^{-1}(x), x x, x \sigma(x), \ldots, x \sigma^{j}(x)$ simultaneously over the alphabet $\Sigma_{k}$.

Theorem 6.4.1 For $j \geq 1$, one can simultaneously avoid the patterns $x \sigma^{-j}(x), \ldots, x \sigma^{-1}(x)$, $x x, x \sigma(x), \ldots, x \sigma^{j}(x)$ over $\Sigma_{2 j+4}$, and this is best possible.

## Proof.

By Theorem 6.3.9 with $A=\{-j, 1-j, \ldots,-1,0,1,2, \ldots j\}$, we see that we can simultaneously avoid the patterns $x \sigma^{-j}(x), \ldots, x \sigma^{-1}(x), x x, x \sigma(x), \ldots, x \sigma^{j}(x)$ over $\Sigma_{2 j+4}$.

It follows from Proposition 6.3.2 that one cannot avoid $x \sigma^{-j}(x), \ldots, x \sigma^{-1}(x), x x, x \sigma(x)$, $\ldots, x \sigma^{j}(x)$ over $\Sigma_{2 j+2}$ or smaller alphabet.

To prove that one cannot simultaneously avoid the patterns $x \sigma^{-j}(x), \ldots, x \sigma^{-1}(x), x x$, $x \sigma(x), \ldots, x \sigma^{j}(x)$ over $\Sigma_{2 j+3}$, we use the tree traversal algorithm. Then every word of length $\geq 8$ over $\Sigma_{2 j+3}$ contains an occurrence of $x \sigma^{l}(x)$ for some $l$ with $-j \leq l \leq j$. Figure 4 below gives the output of the tree traversal algorithm, showing that there are 24 leaves. Here $t=j+1$.

```
(0, -t, -2t, -3t)
(0, -t, -2t, -t, 0, t)
(0, -t, -2t, -t, 0, -t, -2t, -3t)
(0, -t, 0, -t)
(0, -t, 0, t, 0, t)
(0, -t, -2t, -t, 0, -t, -2t, -t)
(0, t, 0, t)
(0, t, 0, -t, 0, -t)
(0, -t, 0, t, 0, -t, 0, -t)
```

(0, t, 2t, 3t)
( $0, \mathrm{t}, 2 \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{O},-\mathrm{t}$ )
(0, -t, 0, t, 0, -t, $0, \mathrm{t}$ )
( $0,-t,-2 t,-t,-2 t$ )
( $0,-t,-2 t,-t, 0,-t, 0)$
( $0, \mathrm{t}, 0,-\mathrm{t}, \mathrm{O}, \mathrm{t}, 0,-\mathrm{t}$ )
( $0,-t, 0, t, 2 t$ )
( $0,-t, 0, t, 0,-t,-2 t$ )
( $0, t, 0,-t, 0, t, 0, t)$
( $0, t, 0,-t,-2 t$ )
( $0, t, 0,-t, 0, t, 2 t)$
( $0, ~ t, 2 t, t, 0, t, 2 t, ~ t)$
(0, t, 2t, t, 2t)
( $0, \mathrm{t}, 2 \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{t}, 0, \mathrm{t}, 0$ )
( $0, ~ t, 2 t, t, 0, t, 2 t, 3 t)$

Figure 4: Leaves of the tree giving a proof of Theorem 6.4.1.

### 6.5 Avoiding $x \sigma^{i}(x)$ for all $i$

Generalizing the results of the previous section, we may ask if it is possible to avoid the patterns $x \sigma^{i}(x)$ for all $i$. Unfortunately, this is clearly impossible, for if a word $z$ begins with $i j$, then it contains a subword of the form $i \sigma^{j-i}(i)$.

However, we can relax our conditions for avoidance, as follows: we say an infinite word weakly avoids the patterns $x \sigma^{i}(x)$ if it contains no subwords of the form $x \sigma^{i}(x)$ with $|x| \geq 2$. (In contrast, our previous notion of avoidability we will call strong.)

Proposition 6.5.1 Over $\Sigma_{2}$, every word of length $\geq 8$ contains a subword of the form $x \sigma^{i}(x)$ for some $i \geq 0$, with $|x| \geq 2$.

Proof. Our simple tree traversal algorithm proves this. The tree generated has 24 leaves, and the leaves are given in Figure 5.

| 0000 | 000101 | 00010000 |
| ---: | ---: | ---: |
| 0011 | 001001 | 00010001 |
| 0101 | 010000 | 00100010 |
| 0110 | 011100 | 00100011 |
| 00011 | 0001001 | 01000100 |


| 00101 | 0010000 | 01000101 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 01001 | 0100011 | 01110110 |
| 01111 | 0111010 | 01110111 |

Figure 5: Leaves of the tree giving a proof of Proposition 6.5.1.

However, it is possible to weakly avoid the patterns $x \sigma^{i}(x)$ for all $i \geq 0$ over $\Sigma_{3}$. Let $\mathbf{w}$ be any squarefree word over $\{0,1,2\}$, and consider the morphism $f$ which maps

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 0 \rightarrow 00 \\
& 1 \rightarrow 10 \\
& 2 \rightarrow 20 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Theorem 6.5.2 The infinite word $f(\mathbf{w})$ weakly avoids the patterns $x \sigma^{i}(x)$ for all $i \geq 0$.

Proof. Let $\mathbf{w}=c_{1} c_{2} c_{3} \cdots$, and $f(\mathbf{w})$ contains a subword of the form $z=x \sigma^{i}(x)$ for some $i$ and $|x| \geq 2$. There are two cases, depending on $|x| \bmod 2$.

Case 1: $|x| \equiv 0(\bmod 2)$. In this case, there are two possibilities, depending where $x$ starts in $f(\mathbf{w})$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& z=\overbrace{d_{1} 0 d_{2} 0 \cdots d_{j} 0}^{x} \mid \overbrace{d_{j+1} 0 \cdots d_{2 j} 0}^{\sigma^{i}(x)} \\
& z=0 d_{1} 0 d_{2} \cdots 0 d_{j} \mid 0 d_{j+1} \cdots 0 d_{2 j}
\end{aligned}
$$

where $d_{t}=c_{t+k}$ for some integer $k \geq 0$. Comparing the second symbol in the first case, or the first symbol in the second case, we see that if $z=x \sigma^{i}(x)$, then $i=0$. Hence $d_{t}=d_{j+t}$ for $1 \leq t \leq j$, and so $c_{k+t}=c_{k+j+t}$ for $1 \leq t \leq j$, contradicting the assumption that $\mathbf{w}$ was squarefree.

Case $2:|x| \equiv 1(\bmod 2)$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& z=\overbrace{d_{1} 0 d_{2} \cdots}^{x} \mid \overbrace{0 d_{j} 0 \cdots}^{\sigma^{i}(x)} \\
& z=0 d_{1} 0 \cdots \quad \mid d_{j} 0 d_{j+1} \cdots
\end{aligned}
$$

If $z=x \sigma^{i}(x)$, then, in the first case, we must have $d_{1}=d_{2}$, and in the second $d_{j}=d_{j+1}$. Both correspond to a square in $\mathbf{w}$, a contradiction.

We might also try weakly avoiding $x \sigma^{i}(x)$ for $0<i<k$ over $\Sigma_{k}$, while simultaneously (strongly) avoiding $x x$.

Theorem 6.5.3 If $k=4$, one can, over $\Sigma_{k}$, simultaneously weakly avoid x $\sigma^{i}(x)$ for $0<i<$ $k$ and strongly avoid $x x$. Here $k$ is best possible.

Proof. We can weakly avoid $x \sigma^{i}(x)$ for $0<i<k$ and strongly avoid $x x$ over $\Sigma_{4}$ as follows: let $\mathbf{w}$ be any squarefree word over $\{1,2,3\}$, and consider the morphism $f$ which maps

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 1 \rightarrow 10 \\
& 2 \rightarrow 20 \\
& 3 \rightarrow 30
\end{aligned}
$$

Then it follows from the same method of the proof of Theorem 6.5.2 that $f(\mathbf{w})$ weakly avoids $x \sigma^{i}(x)$ for all $i$. However, it is clear from the construction that $f(\mathbf{w})$ has no subword of the form $c c$ for $c \in \Sigma_{4}$, so $f(\mathbf{w})$ also strongly avoids $x x$.

On the other hand, the tree traversal algorithm shows that over $\Sigma_{3}$, any word of length $\geq 8$ has a (weak) occurrence of $x \sigma^{i}(x)$ with $0<i<3$, or a strong occurrence of $x x$. The tree generated has 24 leaves, and the leaves are given in Figure 6.

| 0120 | 012102 | 01020102 |
| :--- | ---: | :--- |
| 0202 | 020101 | 01210120 |
| 0210 | 021201 | 01210121 |
| 01021 | 0102012 | 02010201 |
| 01212 | 0121010 | 02010202 |
| 02012 | 0201021 | 02120210 |
| 02121 | 0212020 | 02120212 |

Figure 6: Leaves of the tree giving a proof of Theorem 6.5.3.

## Chapter 7

## Weakly Self-Avoiding Words and a Construction of Friedman

This chapter is based on the work of J. Shallit and M.-w. Wang [SW01b].

### 7.1 Introduction

We say a word $y$ is a subsequence of a word $z$ if $y$ can be obtained by striking out 0 or more symbols from $z$. For example, "iron" is a subsequence of "introduction". We say a word $y$ is a subword of a word $z$ if there exist words $w, x$ such that $z=w y x$. For example, "duct" is a subword of "introduction".

We use the notation $x[k]$ to denote the $k$ 'th letter chosen from the string $x$. (The first letter of a string is $x[1]$.) We write $x[a . . b]$ to denote the subword of $x$ of length $b-a+1$ starting at position $a$ and ending at position $b$.

Recently H. Friedman has found a remarkable construction that generates extremely large numbers [Fri01, Fri00]. Namely, consider words over a finite alphabet $\Sigma$ of cardinality $k$. If an infinite word $\mathbf{x}$ has the property that for all $i, j$ with $0<i<j$ the subword $\mathbf{x}[i . .2 i]$ is not a subsequence of $\mathbf{x}[j . .2 j]$, we call it self-avoiding. We apply the same definition for a
finite word $x$ of length $n$, imposing the additional restriction that $j \leq n / 2$.
Friedman shows there are no infinite self-avoiding words over a finite alphabet. Furthermore, he shows that for each $k$ there exists a longest finite self-avoiding word $x$ over an alphabet of size $k$. Call $n(k)$ the length of such a word. Then clearly $n(1)=3$ and a simple argument shows that $n(2)=11$. Friedman shows that $n(3)$ is greater than the incomprehensibly large number $A_{7198}(158386)$, where $A$ is the Ackermann function.

Jean-Paul Allouche asked what happens when "subsequence" is replaced by "subword". A priori we do not expect results as strange as Friedman's, since there are no infinite antichains for the partial order defined by " $x$ is a subsequence of $y$ ", while there are infinite anti-chains for the partial order defined by " $x$ is a subword of $y$ ".

### 7.2 Main Results

If an infinite word $\mathbf{x}$ has the property that for all $i, j$ with $0 \leq i<j$ the subword $\mathbf{x}[i . .2 i]$ is not a subword of $\mathbf{x}[j . .2 j]$, we call it weakly self-avoiding. If $x$ is a finite word of length $n$, we apply the same definition with the additional restriction that $j \leq n / 2$.

Theorem 7.2.1 Let $\Sigma=\{0,1, \ldots, k-1\}$.
(a) If $k=1$, the longest weakly self-avoiding word is of length 3 , namely 000.
(b) If $k=2$, there are no weakly self-avoiding words of length $>13$. There are 8 longest weakly self-avoiding words, namely 0010111111010, 0010111111011, 0011110101010, 0011110101011 and the four words obtained by changing 0 to 1 and 1 to 0 .
(c) If $k \geq 3$, there exists an infinite weakly self-avoiding word.

## Proof.

(a) If a word $x$ over $\Sigma=\{0\}$ is of length $\geq 4$, then it must contain 0000 as a prefix. Then $x[1 . .2]=00$ is a subword of $x[2 . .4]=000$.
(b) To prove this result, we create a tree whose root is labeled with $\epsilon$, the empty word. If a node's label $x$ is weakly self-avoiding, then it has two children labeled $x 0$ and $x 1$. This tree is finite if and only if there is a longest weakly self-avoiding word. In this case, the leaves of the tree represent non-weakly-self-avoiding words that are minimal in the sense that any proper prefix is weakly self-avoiding.

Now we use the breadth-first tree traversal technique of Section 6.3 in the previous chapter.

If this algorithm terminates, we have proved that there is a longest weakly self-avoiding word. The proof may be concisely represented by listing the leaves in breadth-first order. We may shorten the tree by assuming, without loss of generality, that the root is labeled 0 .

When we perform this procedure, we obtain a tree with 92 leaves, whose longest label is of length 14. The following list describes this tree:

| 0000 | 00111100 | 0011010101 | 001011111011 |
| ---: | ---: | ---: | :--- |
| 0001 | 00111110 | 0011010110 | 001011111100 |
| 0101 | 00111111 | 0011010111 | 001011111110 |
| 001000 | 01000000 | 0011101000 | 001011111111 |
| 001001 | 01000001 | 0011101001 | 001110101000 |
| 001010 | 01000010 | 0011101011 | 001110101001 |
| 001100 | 01000011 | 0011110100 | 001110101010 |
| 010001 | 01100001 | 0011110110 | 001110101011 |
| 010010 | 01100010 | 0011110111 | 001111010100 |
| 010011 | 01100011 | 0110000000 | 001111010110 |
| 011001 | 01110001 | 0110000001 | 001111010111 |
| 011010 | 01110010 | 0110000010 | 011100000000 |
| 011011 | 01110011 | 0110000011 | 011100000001 |
| 011101 | 0010110100 | 0111000001 | 011100000010 |
| 011110 | 0010110101 | 0111000010 | 011100000011 |


| 011111 | 0010110110 | 0111000011 | 00101111110100 |
| ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| 00101100 | 0010110111 | 001011110100 | 00101111110101 |
| 00110100 | 0010111000 | 001011110101 | 00101111110110 |
| 00110110 | 0010111001 | 001011110110 | 00101111110111 |
| 00110111 | 0010111010 | 001011110111 | 00111101010100 |
| 00111000 | 0010111011 | 001011111000 | 00111101010101 |
| 00111001 | 0010111100 | 001011111001 | 00111101010110 |
| 00111011 | 0011010100 | 001011111010 | 00111101010111 |

Figure 1: Leaves of the tree giving a proof of Theorem 7.2.1 (b)
(c) Consider the word

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{x} & =22010110111011111011111110111111111110 \cdots \\
& =220101^{2} 01^{3} 01^{5} 01^{7} 01^{11} 01^{15} 01^{23} 01^{31} 01^{47} 0 \cdots
\end{aligned}
$$

where there are 0 's in positions $3,5,8,12,18,26,38,54,78,110,158, \ldots$ More precisely, define $f_{2 n+1}=5 \cdot 2^{n}-2$ for $n \geq 0$, and $f_{2 n}=7 \cdot 2^{n-1}-2$ for $n \geq 1$. Then $\mathbf{x}$ has 0 's only in the positions given by $f_{i}$ for $i \geq 1$.

First we claim that if $i \geq 3$, then any subword of the form $\mathbf{x}[i . .2 i]$ contains exactly two 0 's. This is easily verified for $i=3$. If $5 \cdot 2^{n}-1 \leq i<7 \cdot 2^{n}-1$ and $n \geq 0$, then there are 0 's at positions $7 \cdot 2^{n}-2$ and $5 \cdot 2^{n+1}-2$. (The next 0 is at position $7 \cdot 2^{n+1}-2$, which is $>2\left(7 \cdot 2^{n}-2\right)$.) On the other hand, if $7 \cdot 2^{n-1}-1 \leq i<5 \cdot 2^{n}-1$ for $n \geq 1$, then there are 0 's at positions $5 \cdot 2^{n}-2$ and $7 \cdot 2^{n}-2$. (The next 0 is at position $5 \cdot 2^{n+1}-2$, which is $\left.>2 \cdot\left(5 \cdot 2^{n}-2\right).\right)$

Now we prove that $\mathbf{x}$ is weakly self-avoiding. Clearly $\mathbf{x}[1 . .2]=22$ is not a subword of any subword of the form $\mathbf{x}[j . .2 j]$ for any $j \geq 2$. Similarly, $\mathbf{x}[2 . .4]=201$ is not a subword of any subword of the form $\mathbf{x}[j . .2 j]$ for any $j \geq 3$. Now consider subwords of the form
$t:=\mathbf{x}[i . .2 i]$ and $t^{\prime}:=\mathbf{x}[j .2 j]$ for $i, j \geq 3$ and $i<j$. From above we know $t=1^{u} 01^{v} 01^{w}$, and $t^{\prime}=1^{u^{\prime}} 01^{v^{\prime}} 01^{w^{\prime}}$. For $t$ to be a subword of $t^{\prime}$ we must have $u \leq u^{\prime}, v=v^{\prime}$, and $w \leq w^{\prime}$. But since the blocks of 1's in $\mathbf{x}$ are distinct in size, this means that the middle block of 1 's in $t$ and $t^{\prime}$ must occur in the same positions of $\mathbf{x}$. Then $u \leq u^{\prime}$ implies $i \geq j$, a contradiction.

### 7.3 Another construction

Friedman has also considered variations on his construction, such as the following: let $M_{2}(n)$ denote the length of the longest finite word $\mathbf{x}$ over $\{0,1\}$ such that $\mathbf{x}[i . .2 i]$ is not a subsequence of $\mathbf{x}[j .2 j]$ for $n \leq i<j$. We can again consider this where "subsequence" is replaced by "subword".

Theorem 7.3.1 There exists an infinite word $\mathbf{x}$ over $\{0,1\}$ such that $\mathbf{x}[i . .2 i]$ is not a subword of $\mathbf{x}[j . .2 j]$ for all $i, j$ with $2 \leq i<j$.

Proof. Let

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{x} & =001001^{3} 01^{2} 01^{7} 01^{5} 01^{15} 01^{11} 01^{31} 01^{23} \cdots \\
& =001001^{g_{1}} 01^{g_{2}} 01^{g_{3}} 0 \cdots
\end{aligned}
$$

where $g_{1}=3, g_{2}=2$, and $g_{n}=2 g_{n-2}+1$ for $n \geq 3$. Then a proof similar to that above shows that every subword of the form $\mathbf{x}[i . .2 i]$ contains exactly two 0 's, and hence, since the $g_{i}$ are all distinct, we have $\mathbf{x}[i . .2 i]$ is not a subword of $\mathbf{x}[j . .2 j]$ for $j>i>1$.

## Chapter 8

## On the irregularity of the duplication closure

This chapter is based on [Wan00]. After the defence of my thesis I noticed that essentially the same argument was given by Ehrenfeucht and Rozenberg [ER84].

In this chapter we solve a problem proposed in "On the regularity of the duplication closure" by J. Dassow, V. Mitrana and Gh. Păun [DMP99].

First we need some notation. Let $w \in \Sigma^{*}$ be a word. Define $D(w)$ to be the set of words $u$ for which there exists $x, y, z \in \Sigma^{*}$ with $w=x y z$ and $u=x y y z$. We extend the definition of $D$ to set of words in the natural way. We also define $D^{2}=D(D)$. So powers of $D$ correspond to compositions. Finally let $D^{*}=\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} D^{i}$.

We prove the following.

Theorem 8.0.2 Suppose $w$ is a word containing at least 3 distinct letters. Then $D^{*}(w)$ is not regular.

We assume $w=a b c$ below. The general case follows easily from this. Let $\Sigma$ be an alphabet.

Lemma 8.0.3 Suppose $u=a b c u^{\prime}$ where $u^{\prime} \in \Sigma^{*}$, then there exists $v \in \Sigma^{*}$ such that $u v \in$ $D^{*}(w)$.

Proof: We show how to construct $z=u v$ iteratively. Initially we set $z=a b c$. Suppose $u=a_{1} a_{2} \ldots a_{k}$ and $z=b_{1} b_{2} \ldots b_{l}$. Initially we have that $a_{i}=b_{i}$ for $1 \leq i \leq 3$. Then for each $4 \leq i \leq k$, we do the following: we find the largest index $j<i$ such that $b_{j}=a_{i}$. Then we perform a subword copy on $z$ using indices $j \ldots i-1$. This means that now $z=$ $b_{1} b_{2} \ldots b_{j} \ldots b_{i-1} b_{j} \ldots b_{i-1} b_{i} \ldots b_{l}$. The effect of this is to make the prefixes of $u$ and $z$ agree on all indices up to and including $i$. For example, suppose $u=a b c b a c c a$. We construct $z$ iteratively as follows, where the underlined portion displays the subword to be repeated:

$$
a \underline{b c} \rightarrow \underline{a b c b c} \rightarrow a b \underline{c b a b c b c} \rightarrow a b c b a \underline{c} b a b c b c \rightarrow a b c b \underline{a c c b a b c b c} \rightarrow a b c b a c c a c c b a b c b c .
$$

Now observe that each word $x \in D^{*}(w)$ is obtained from the word $w$ by a sequence of subword doubling operations. Let $t(x)$ be the minimal number of doubling operations to obtain $x$ from $w$. We have

## Lemma 8.0.4

$$
t(x) \geq \log _{2}(|x| / 3)
$$

Proof: Each doubling operation at most doubles the length of the previous word and the starting word $w=a b c$ is of length 3 . The lower bound follows.

Lemma 8.0.5 Suppose $u=a b c u^{\prime} \in \Sigma^{*}$ is square free. Let $v$ be a shortest word such that $u v \in D^{*}(w)$. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
|v| \geq \log _{2}(|u| / 3) \tag{8.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof: By the definition of $t, u v$ is obtained from $w$ by a sequence of at least $t(u v)$ subword doubling operations. Since $u$ is square free, each of these doubling operations must result in at least one additional letter outside $u$, i.e., in $v$. It follows that

$$
|v| \geq t(u v) \geq \log _{2}(|u v| / 3) \geq \log _{2}(|u| / 3)
$$

Now we are ready to prove the theorem using Myhill-Nerode's characterization of regular languages. We construct an infinite sequence of pairwise inequivalent words as follows.

We start by defining $W_{1}=a b c$. For $i \geq 1$, we define $W_{i+1}$ inductively as follows: let $V_{i}$ be such that $W_{i} V_{i} \in D^{*}(w)$. Then we choose $W_{i+1}$ to be a square free word, starting with $a b c$, such that $\log _{2}\left(\left|W_{i+1}\right| / 3\right)>\left|V_{i}\right|$. Such a word exists because there are infinitely many square free words over a 3 letter alphabet. This length condition ensures (by Lemma 8.0.5) that $W_{i+1} V_{j} \notin D^{*}(w)$ for all $j \leq i$. It follows that the $W_{i}$ are pairwise inequivalent. Since there are infinitely many $W_{i}$, by Myhill-Nerode $D^{*}(w)$ is not regular.

### 8.1 Open Problem

The most obvious question is still open. Is $D^{*}(w)$ context-free?

## Chapter 9

## Automatic Complexity of Strings

This chapter is based on the work of J. Shallit and M.-w. Wang [SW01a].

### 9.1 Introduction

We are interested in a computable measure of complexity for finite strings $x$ over a finite alphabet, typically $\{0,1\}$. Any such measure should reflect, in some sense, how "complicated" the string $x$ is.

Of course, any such discussion must start with Kolmogorov-Chaitin complexity [LV97] $C(x)$, which (roughly speaking) measures the complexity of a string $x$ as the size of the shortest pair

$$
(T, y)=(\text { Turing machine description, input })
$$

such that $T$ on input $y$ outputs $x$. Not only does $C(x)$ measure the complexity of $x$, but also the pair $(T, y)$ can be viewed as the optimal way to compress the string $x$.

However it has three major deficiencies (the first two are equivalent):

1. It is uncomputable! It is known that " $C(x)<n$ " is computably enumerable, but " $C(x) \geq n$ " is not computably enumerable.
2. There is no effective procedure for finding a compression pair $(T, y)$.
3. $K$ depends somewhat on the particular model of universal Turing machine chosen, and is defined in a machine-independent way only up to an additive constant.

One consequence of deficiency (3) above is that since $C(x x)=C(x)+O(1)$, with the constant depending on the particular model of universal Turing machine chosen, it doesn't make sense to ask if $C(x x)>C(x)$ for any, most, or all strings $x$. We will see below, however, that in the measure of complexity proposed in this chapter, we have $A(x x) \geq A(x)$ for all strings $x$, and in fact there are infinitely many strings $x$ for which this inequality is strict; see Theorems 9.2.3 and 9.5.4.

It would be nice to find a measure without these deficiencies. Turing machines are extremely powerful, and this suggests that we could replace the Turing machine with a less powerful model and hope to find a computable measure.

For example, we could consider replacing the Turing machine with a context-free grammar (CFG). We choose, perhaps arbitrarily, some measure of the complexity of a context-free grammar, and then ask for the smallest grammar $G$ such that $L(G)=\{x\}$.

If we demand that the context-free grammar be in Chomsky normal form (i.e., all productions are of the form $A \rightarrow B C$ or $A \rightarrow a$ where $A, B, C$ are variables and $a$ is a terminal), and use the number of variables as the measure of a grammar's size, then then we get a wellknown measure of complexity associated with "word chains". Diwan [Diw86] was apparently the first to study this measure; for other papers see [BB88, Rot89, AB89, Alt90, Bou92].

In this chapter we consider replacing the Turing machine with a deterministic finite automaton, or DFA.

Given a string $x$, in analogy with the word chain problem mentioned above, we might seek to find a smallest DFA $M$ such that $L(M)=\{x\}$. But this is clearly uninteresting, since if $|x|=n$, a smallest such DFA always has exactly $n+2$ states. Hence we consider relaxing the requirement somewhat.

If a DFA $M$ has the property that it accepts a string $x$, but no other strings of length $|x|$, we say $M$ accepts $x$ uniquely. In this chapter, we examine the consequences of the following definition. We define $A(x)$, the automatic complexity of $x$, to be the smallest number of states in any DFA $M$ that accepts $x$ uniquely. Of course, there may be many such DFA's with the smallest number of states. We do not care how $M$ behaves on strings that are shorter or longer than $x$. More formally,

Definition 9.1.1 Let $\Sigma=\{0,1\}$ and $x \in \Sigma^{*}$ with $|x|=n$. Define $A(x)$ to be the smallest number of states in any DFA $M$ such that $L(M) \cap \Sigma^{n}=\{x\}$.
J. Shallit and Y. Breitbart [SB96] explored a similar notion of descriptional complexity for languages. However, that measure turns out to be uninteresting for the case of a single string.

There is a connection between the measure studied in this chapter and the so-called "separating words" problem, which, given two strings $w$ and $x$, both of length $\leq n$, asks for the number $B(w, x)$ of states in the smallest DFA $M$ such that $M$ separates $w$ from $x$, i.e., $M$ accepts exactly one of $\{w, x\}$. It is known that $B(w, x)=O(\log n)$ if $|w| \neq|x|$, and $B(w, x)=O\left(n^{2 / 5}(\log n)^{3 / 5}\right)$ if $|w|=|x|$; see, for example, [GK86, Rob89, Rob96]. Given $w$, the function $A(w)$ can be viewed as measuring the size of the smallest DFA $M$ such that $M$ separates $w$ from $\Sigma^{|w|}-\{w\}$.

### 9.2 Basic results

Clearly $A(x) \leq|x|+1$, since we can uniquely accept any string of length $|x|$ with a chain of $|x|$ states that loops back to the start state, plus one additional "dead" state. It follows that $A$ is computable, since we can simply examine all finite automata with $|x|+1$ or fewer states, and test each DFA by brute force to see if $x$ is accepted uniquely. As we will see below, it is possible to improve this algorithm somewhat, but we still do not know if $A(x)$ is computable in time polynomial in $|x|$.

It is possible, however, that $A(x)$ is significantly smaller than $|x|+1$. Roughly speaking, there are two ways to save states. The first is to use a loop. For example, the DFA in Figure 9.1 shows that $A\left(0^{9} 1^{8}\right) \leq 8$. (Unspecified transitions go to a "dead state" which is not shown.)


1

Figure 9.1: Automaton uniquely accepting $0^{9} 1^{8}$.

The second way to save states is through reuse. For example, you can reuse states, if the string is of the form $x y z \bar{y}^{R} w$, as shown in Figure 9.2. (By $\bar{y}$ we mean the string obtained by changing 0 to 1 and vice versa.)


Figure 9.2: Automaton uniquely accepting 010112200101

Hopefully the reader is already convinced that this definition is somewhat natural and worthy of study. ${ }^{1}$ Let us first see if the definition is useful; for example, can we use the measure as a data compression technique?

The answer is yes, in the following sense.

[^1]Theorem 9.2.1 Given a description of a DFA $M$ which uniquely accepts $x$, and the length $n=|x|$, we can efficiently recover $x$.

Proof. By "efficiently", we mean polynomial in the description size of $M$ and $n$, the length of $x$.

Let $M=\left(Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_{1}, F\right)$ be a DFA uniquely accepting $x$. Let $Q=\left\{q_{1}, q_{2}, \ldots, q_{r}\right\}$, with $r=|Q|$. Create a directed graph $G=(V, E)$ with vertex set $V$ defined as follows:

$$
V=\left\{p_{i, j}: 1 \leq i \leq r, 0 \leq j \leq n\right\}
$$

Create a directed edge $\left(p_{i, j}, p_{k, l}\right)$ labeled $a$ if $\delta\left(q_{i}, a\right)=q_{k}$ and $l=j+1$. Note that $G$ is acyclic.

Since $M$ uniquely accepts $x$, there exists a single index $t$ with $q_{t} \in F$ such that there is exactly one path from $p_{1,0}$ to $p_{t, n+1}$, and for all $u \neq t$, there is no path from $p_{1,0}$ to $p_{u, n+1}$. We can now find this path using, for example, depth-first search, in $O(|V|+|E|)=$ $O((n+1)|Q||\Sigma|)$ time.

Given a DFA, we can also efficiently decide if it uniquely accepts a given $x$.

Theorem 9.2.2 Given a DFA $M$ with $r$ states and a string $x$ of length $n \geq 1$, we can determine in $O\left(n+r^{3} \log n\right)$ steps whether $M$ uniquely accepts $x$.

Proof. Let $M=\left(Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_{1}, F\right)$, where $Q=\left\{q_{1}, q_{2}, \ldots, q_{r}\right\}$. We can determine if $M$ accepts $x$ by simply simulating it on $x$, which can be done in $O(n)$ time.

Now create a matrix $M=\left(a_{i, j}\right)_{1 \leq i, j \leq n}$ where $a_{i, j}=\operatorname{Card}\left\{b \in \Sigma: \delta\left(q_{i}, b\right)=q_{j}\right\}$. Then an easy induction gives that if $M^{k}=\left(c_{i, j, k}\right)_{1 \leq i, j \leq n}$, then $c_{i, j, k}=\operatorname{Card}\left\{x \in \Sigma^{k}: \delta\left(q_{i}, x\right)=q_{j}\right\}$. Now compute $\sum_{j: q_{j} \in F} c_{1, j,|x|}$. This sum is 1 iff $M$ uniquely accepts $x$.

Thus it suffices to compute $M^{k}$ efficiently. To do so we can use the familiar "binary method" of exponentiation; see, for example, [BS96]. Furthermore, during the computation of $M^{k}$, we can always reduce an entry that is $\geq 2$ to 2 . The result is a matrix $M^{\prime}$ with
entries in $\{0,1,2\}$ with the property that if an entry of $M^{k}$ is 0 or 1 , so is the corresponding entry of $M^{\prime}$, and if an entry of $M^{k}$ is 2 or more, the corresponding entry in $M^{\prime}$ is 2 . Since the sizes of the entries of $M^{\prime}$ are bounded by 2 , it follows that this computation can be done in $O\left(r^{3} \log n\right)$ bit operations.

Our last theorem of this section is the following:

Theorem 9.2.3 We have $A(x x) \geq A(x)$ for all strings $x$.

The following simple proof was shown to us at the DCAGRS 2000 workshop in London, Ontario, by Kai Salomaa:

Proof. Consider the DFA $M=\left(Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_{0}, F\right)$ minimizing $A(x x)$. Then we know there is only one path of length $|x x|$ from $q_{0}$ to a state of $F$, and this path is labeled $x x$. Let $q=\delta\left(q_{0}, x\right)$. Construct a new DFA $M^{\prime}=\left(Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_{0},\{q\}\right)$. Then we claim $M^{\prime}$ uniquely accepts $x$. For if not, there exists another string $w \neq x,|w|=|x|$, such that $\delta\left(q_{0}, w\right)=q$. Then $\delta\left(q_{0}, w x\right) \in F$, and so $M$ accepts $w x$, another string of length $|x x|$, and $w x \neq x x$. This contradiction proves that $A(x) \leq A(x x)$, as desired.

In Theorem 9.5 .4 below we show that in fact $A(x x)>A(x)$ for infinitely many strings $x$.

### 9.3 Upper bounds

In this section we prove some upper bounds on $A(x)$.

Theorem 9.3.1 Let $x \in \Sigma^{*}$ with $|\Sigma|=k \geq 2$ and $|x|=n$. Suppose $n>k^{t}+t-1$. Then $A(x) \leq n+2-t$.

Proof. If $n>k^{t}+t-1$, then $x=a_{1} a_{2} \cdots a_{n}$ has at least $k^{t}+1$ subwords of length $t$. Hence some subword of length $t$ appears at least twice in $x$. Let $y$ be a longest repeated subword, and let the first two occurrences of $y$ be denoted $y^{\prime}$ and $y^{\prime \prime}$ (they may overlap).

Then we have the two factorizations shown in Figure 9.3.

$x=$| $u$ | $y^{\prime}$ | $v$ |  | $w$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $u$ | $v^{\prime}$ |  | $y^{\prime \prime}$ | $w$ |

Figure 9.3: Two factorizations of $x$.
where $y=y^{\prime}=y^{\prime \prime}$. Furthermore, since $y$ is a longest repeated subword, we know that either $w=\epsilon$ or the first letter of $v$ differs from the first letter of $w$.

By a classic theorem of Lyndon \& Schützenberger [LS62], the equality $y v=v^{\prime} y$ implies that there exist strings $r, s$ and an integer $e \geq 0$ such that

$$
\begin{aligned}
y & =(r s)^{e} r \\
v & =s r \\
v^{\prime} & =r s
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus $x=u(r s)^{e+1} r w$. It follows that the first letter of $s$ differs from the first letter of $w$, so we can accept $x$ uniquely with a DFA as in Figure 9.4.


Figure 9.4: DFA uniquely accepting $x=u(r s)^{e+1} r w$.

The total number of states is $|u r s w|+2=n+2-|y|$.

Theorem 9.3.2 Let $x \in\{0,1\}^{n}$. Then

$$
A(x) \leq \frac{3}{4} n+(\log n) \sqrt{\frac{n}{8}}
$$

for almost all strings $x$.

Proof. (Sketch.) The idea is to write $x=x^{\prime} a x^{\prime \prime}$ where $\left|x^{\prime}\right|=\left|x^{\prime \prime}\right|=\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor$ and $a \in$ $\{\epsilon, 0,1\}$. Then the expected number of mismatches between $x^{\prime}$ and $x^{\prime \prime R}$ is $\frac{n}{4}+O(1)$, with standard deviation $\sqrt{\frac{n}{8}}+O(1)$. We can now build a DFA for $x^{\prime}$, and attempt to reuse states corresponding to the mismatches between $x^{\prime}$ and $x^{\prime \prime R}$, as in Figure 9.2.

### 9.4 Lower bounds

First, we show by a simple counting argument the existence of a constant $C$ such that almost all strings $x$ of length $n$ satisfy $A(x)>C \frac{n}{\log n}$.

More precisely, we prove

Theorem 9.4.1 Suppose $|\Sigma|=k \geq 2$, and let $0<\varepsilon, \delta<1$ be fixed. If $n$ is sufficiently large, then

$$
A(x) \geq(1-\delta) \varepsilon \frac{\log k}{k} \frac{n}{\log n}
$$

for all strings $x \in \Sigma^{n}$, with at most $k^{\varepsilon n}$ exceptions.

Proof. It is easy to see there are at most $q^{q k+1}$ essentially distinct automata with $\leq q$ states and exactly one final state. (The factor $q^{q k}$ comes from the transition function, and the factor $q$ comes from the assignment of final states. Note we can simulate a DFA with $\leq q$ states by one with exactly $q$ states, by simply adding non-connected states, if necessary.) Each of these automata uniquely accepts at most one string of length $n$. Thus if

$$
\begin{equation*}
q^{q k+1}<k^{\varepsilon n} \tag{9.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

then at most $k^{\varepsilon n}$ different strings of length $n$ can be represented. Now a routine calculation shows that if $q<(1-\delta) \varepsilon \frac{\log k}{k} \frac{n}{\log n}$, then the inequality (9.1) holds.

It is possible to improve this bound as follows:

Theorem 9.4.2 We have $A(x) \geq n / 13$ for almost all strings $x \in\{0,1\}^{n}$.
Proof. Suppose $M$ is a DFA with $A(x)$ states that uniquely accepts $x$. Let $n=|x|$. Consider the transition diagram $D$ of $M$, which is a labeled directed graph whose vertices are the states of $M$ and whose (labeled) edges correspond to transitions. We define the accepting path $P$ for $x$ to be the sequence of $n+1$ edges traversed in this graph. Note that the first element of $P$ is an edge labeled $\epsilon$ that enters the initial state $q_{0}$ of $M$. We define the abbreviated accepting path $P^{\prime}$ to be the sequence of edges obtained from $P$ by considering each edge in order and deleting it if it has previously been traversed. The idea is to encode $P^{\prime}$ in a space-efficient manner so that $x$ can be recovered.

The outdegree of each vertex encountered along $P^{\prime}$ is at most 2 , since $M$ is a DFA. We claim the indegree of each vertex is at most 2 . If not, then let $v$ be a vertex with indegree at least 3 . Then there are at least three distinct edges entering $v$, say $g_{1}, g_{2}, g_{3}$. Let $x_{1}$ be a prefix of $x$ such that the edge $g_{1}$ is used in the last transition when the DFA processes $x_{1}$. (If $v=q_{0}$, the initial state, we may have $x_{1}=\epsilon$.) Let $x_{1} x_{2}$ be a prefix of $x$ such that $g_{2}$ is used in the last transition when processing $x_{1} x_{2}, x_{2} \neq \epsilon$. Let $x_{1} x_{2} x_{3}$ be a prefix of $x$ such that $g_{3}$ is used in the last transition when processing $x_{1} x_{2} x_{3}, x_{3} \neq \epsilon$. Finally, let $x_{4}$ be such that $x=x_{1} x_{2} x_{3} x_{4}$. Then $x^{\prime}:=x_{1} x_{3} x_{2} x_{4}$ is also accepted by $M$, and $|x|=\left|x^{\prime}\right|$. If $x=x^{\prime}$, then $x_{2} x_{3}=x_{3} x_{2}$. Then, by a theorem of Lyndon \& Schützenberger [LS62], there exist a string $z \neq \epsilon$ and integers $i, j \geq 1$ such that $x_{2}=z^{i}, x_{3}=z^{j}$. Now if there is a path labeled $z^{i}$ going from $v$ to $v$, and a path labeled $z^{j}$ from $v$ to $v$, then there is a path labeled $z^{\operatorname{gcd}(i, j)}$ from $v$ to $v$. But then $g_{2}=g_{3}$, a contradiction. Hence $x \neq x^{\prime}$, contradicting the hypothesis that $x$ is accepted uniquely.

Now consider the vertices visited by $P^{\prime}=\left(e_{0}, e_{1}, \ldots, e_{t}\right)$, the abbreviated accepting path for $x$. Each vertex $v$ is of exactly one of the following types:

Type 1. There is exactly one edge $e_{i}$ of $P^{\prime}$ entering $v$ and there is exactly one edge $e_{i+1}$ leaving $v$.

Type 2. There are exactly two edges, $e_{i}$ and $e_{j}, i<j$, entering $v$, and exactly one edge
$e_{i+1}$ leaving $v$.
Type 3. There is one edge, $e_{i}$, entering $v$, and exactly two edges, $e_{i+1}$ and $e_{j}, i<j$, leaving $v$.

Type 4. There are exactly two edges, $e_{i}$ and $e_{j}$, entering $v$, with $i<j$, and there are exactly two edges, $e_{i+1}$ and $e_{j+1}$, leaving $v$.

We now describe a space-efficient encoding $E$ of $P^{\prime}$ which will avoid recording the state numbers. Instead, we record the labels of the edges along with some additional information that tells us what type each vertex is, and allows us to recover how these vertices are connected.

If $P^{\prime}=\left(e_{0}, e_{1}, \ldots, e_{t}\right)$, then we define $E(i, n)$ to be a certain encoding, over the alphabet $\left.\left\{0,1,[,]_{0},\right]_{1}, *,+\right\}$ of the edges $\left(e_{i}, \ldots, e_{n}\right)$. We also define $a_{i}$ to be the label of the edge $e_{i}$ corresponding to the symbol causing the transition. The meaning of the symbols is as follows: 0 and 1 represent the labels on the edges of $P^{\prime}$. A left bracket [ represents a vertex that is the target of a backedge. A right bracket (]$_{0}$ or $\left.]_{1}\right)$ represents a backedge labeled with its subscript. The symbol + represents a vertex of outdegree 2 , and the symbol $*$ (introduced later) represents a final state.

The base case is when $i>n$, in which case we define $E(i, n)=\epsilon$. For the inductive definition there are four cases, depending on the type of the vertex reached by the directed edge $e_{i}$, given in Figures 9.5-9.8.


Figure 9.5: Vertex of type 1: $E(i, n):=a_{i} E(i+1, n)$


Figure 9.6: Vertex of type 2: $E(i, n)=a_{i}[E(i+1, j-1)]_{a_{j}} E(j+1, n)$


Figure 9.7: Vertex of type 3: $E(i, n)=a_{i}+E(i+1, n)$


Figure 9.8: Vertex of type 4: $E(i, n)=a_{i}[+E(i+1, j-1)]_{a_{j}} E(j+1, n)$

Finally, if $P^{\prime}=\left(e_{0}, e_{1}, \ldots, e_{t}\right)$, we define $E(x)$ to be $E(0, t)$ with a symbol $*$ inserted after the symbol leading to the (unique) accepting state, followed by the symbol $\#$, followed by the base- 2 representation of $n=|x|$, followed by $\# \#$. Thus $E(x)$ is a self-delimiting encoding of $x$ over the 8 -symbol alphabet $\left.\left\{0,1,+, *,[,]_{0},\right]_{1}, \#\right\}$. We consider some examples of this encoding.

| Figure | String | Encoding |
| :---: | :---: | :--- |
| Figure 9.1 | $0^{9} 1^{8}$ | $[+00]_{0} 1[111 *]_{1} \# 10001 \# \#$ |
| Figure 9.10 | 0110100110 | $\left[+0\left[+1[+10]_{1}\right]_{0}\right]_{0} 110 * \# 1010 \# \#$ |
| Figure 9.11 | 01101001100101 | $0\left[1 * 101[001+]_{1}\right]_{0} \# 1110 \# \#$ |

We leave it to the reader to verify that $P^{\prime}$ can be reconstructed from $E(0, t)$ and $x$ can be reconstructed from $E(x)$. It is easy to prove by induction that $|E(a, b)| \leq 2(b-a+1)$. Now $P^{\prime}$ has at most $2 A(x)$ edges with nonempty labels, so we find $|E(0, t)| \leq 4 A(x)+2$. It follows that $|E(x)| \leq 4 A(x)+6+\log _{2}|x|$. Since $E$ is over an 8-letter alphabet, it can be recoded over $\{0,1\}$ using three bits for each symbol. It follows that $C(x) \leq 12 A(x)+18+3 \log _{2}|x|$. On the other hand, it is known that $C(x) \geq|x|-\log _{2}|x|$ for almost all $x$. Hence $A(x) \geq|x| / 13$ for almost all $x$.

Remark. We have not tried to optimize the constant 13 in Theorem 9.4.2. H. Petersen informs us (personal communication) that 13 can be reduced to 7 .

We can improve the lower bound for certain kinds of strings, as follows:

Theorem 9.4.3 Suppose $w \in \Sigma^{*}$ is $k$ th-power-free for some integer $k \geq 2$, i.e., $w$ contains no subword of the form $x^{k}$ with $x \neq \epsilon$. Then $A(w) \geq \frac{|w|+1}{k}$.

Proof. Let $w=a_{1} a_{2} \cdots a_{n}$ be uniquely accepted by some DFA $M=\left(Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_{0}, A\right)$, and define $p_{i}:=\delta\left(q_{0}, a_{1} a_{2} \cdots a_{i}\right)$ for $0 \leq i \leq n$.

Suppose some state is visited at least $k+1$ times on the acceptance path for $w$. Then there exist indices $i_{1}, i_{2}, \ldots, i_{k+1}$ such that

$$
p_{i_{1}}=p_{i_{2}}=\cdots=p_{i_{k+1}}
$$

Define

$$
\begin{aligned}
w_{0} & =a_{1} a_{2} \cdots a_{i_{1}} \\
w_{1} & =a_{i_{1}+1} \cdots a_{i_{2}} \\
w_{2} & =a_{i_{2}+1} \cdots a_{i_{3}} \\
& \vdots \\
w_{k} & =a_{i_{k}+1} \cdots a_{i_{k+1}} \\
w_{k+1} & =a_{i_{k+1}} \cdots a_{n}
\end{aligned}
$$

Then $M$ uniquely accepts $w=w_{0} w_{1} w_{2} w_{3} \cdots w_{k+1}$. However, it also accepts, for example, $w^{\prime}=w_{0} w_{2} w_{1} w_{3} \cdots w_{k+1}$. But $\left|w^{\prime}\right|=|w|$. If $w_{1} \neq w_{2}$, this gives a contradiction. Hence $w_{1}=w_{2}$. By a similar argument we find $w_{i}=w_{j}$ for $1 \leq i, j \leq k$. It follows that $w=w_{0} w_{1}^{k} w_{k+1}$, and so $w$ contains a $k^{\prime}$ th power, a contradiction.

Thus we have shown that no state can be visited $k+1$ times on the acceptance path for $w$. Now for $0 \leq i<|Q|$ let $b_{i}$ be the number of times state $q_{i}$ is visited on the acceptance path for $w$. Then we have

$$
\sum_{0 \leq i<|Q|} b_{i} q_{i}=n+1
$$

But by the argument above $0 \leq b_{i} \leq k$. Thus

$$
n+1=\sum_{0 \leq i<|Q|} b_{i} q_{i} \leq \sum_{0 \leq i<|Q|} k q_{i}=k|Q| .
$$

It follows that $|Q| \geq(n+1) / k$, and so $A(w)=|Q| \geq(n+1) / k$, as desired.

### 9.5 Some specific examples

In this section we determine the automatic complexity for some particular examples. There are interesting connections to number theory.

Theorem 9.5.1 We have $A\left(0^{n} 1^{n}\right)=O(\sqrt{n})$.

Proof. Assume $n \geq 1$. Let $r=\lfloor\sqrt{n}\rfloor$, so $r^{2} \leq n<(r+1)^{2}$. Write $n=r^{2}+a$. Then $0 \leq a \leq 2 r$ and $r \geq 1$. Then we can accept $0^{n} 1^{n}$ with a DFA of the form given in Figure 9.9. (Unspecified transitions go to a "dead state" which is not shown.)


Figure 9.9: Automaton uniquely accepting $0^{n} 1^{n}$, where $n=r^{2}+a$.

This DFA does indeed accept $0^{n} 1^{n}$ because

1. We go from state $q_{0}$ to state $q_{a}$ on $0^{a}$;
2. We then go around the loop at $q_{a} r$ times;
3. Next on $1^{a}$ we go from $q_{a}$ to $p_{a+1}$;
4. Finally, we go around the loop at $p_{a+1} r-1$ times.

This path accepts $0^{a}\left(0^{r}\right)^{r} 11^{a}\left(1^{r+1}\right)^{r-1}=0^{r^{2}+a} 1^{r^{2}+a}$.
On the other hand, we claim that this DFA accepts no other string of length $2 n$. Suppose it did. Then any accepting path must go around the loop on $q_{a} b$ times and the loop on $p_{a+1}$ $c$ times. Then

$$
2 n=a+b r+a+1+c(r+1)
$$

Since $n=r^{2}+a$, it follows that $2 r^{2}-1=b r+c(r+1)$. Reducing modulo $r$, we get $c \equiv-1(\bmod r)$. Thus $c \in\{r-1,2 r-1, \ldots\}$. But if $c \geq 2 r-1$ then the string would be of length $\geq(2 r-1)(r+1)+2 a+1=2 r^{2}+r-1+2 a+1 \geq 2 n+r>2 n$, a contradiction.

Finally, our DFA uses $a+1+r-1+a+1+r=2 r+2 a+1 \leq 6 r+1 \leq 6 \sqrt{n}+1$ states.

We now show that the bound of $O(\sqrt{n})$ is tight. First we state the following lemma:

Lemma 9.5.2 Let $c, d$ be integers $\geq 1$. Suppose the linear diophantine equation $N=x c+y d$ is solvable in integers, i.e., suppose $\operatorname{gcd}(c, d) \mid N$. If $N>2 c d-c-d$, then the linear diophantine equation $N=x c+y d$ has at least two solutions in non-negative integers $x, y$.

The proof is easy and left to the reader. This result (in a more general form) has recently been proved independently by Beck \& Robins [BR00].

We now prove

Theorem 9.5.3 Any DFA that uniquely accepts $0^{n} 1^{n}$ must have at least $\sqrt{n}-1$ states.

Proof. Suppose $M$ is a DFA with $<\sqrt{n}-1$ states that uniquely accepts $0^{n} 1^{n}$. Define $p_{i}=\delta\left(q_{0}, 0^{i}\right)$ for $0 \leq i \leq n$. Since $M$ has $<n$ states, some state must be repeated, and thus there must be a "loop" of $r \geq 1$ states that is repeated $j$ times, for some integer $j \geq 0$. There may also be a "tail" at the beginning, and at the end we may not go around the "loop" an integral number of times. Let $s=n-r j$. Then $r, s<\sqrt{n}-1$.

Similarly, define $r_{i}=\delta\left(p_{n}, 1^{i}\right)$ for $0 \leq i \leq n$. By the same argument there must be a "loop" of $u \geq 1$ states that is repeated $k$ times, for some integer $k \geq 0$. Let $t=n-k u$. Then $t, u<\sqrt{n}-1$.

Since $M$ accepts $0^{n} 1^{n}$ uniquely, it must be the case that the equation $r a+u b=2 n-s-t$ has exactly one solution $(a, b)=(j, k)$. Then, by Lemma 9.5.2, we have $2 n-s-t \leq 2 r u-r-u$. Thus $2 n-2(\sqrt{n}-1) \leq 2 n-s-t \leq 2 r u-r-u \leq 2(\sqrt{n}-1)(\sqrt{n}-1)-2$. But then $2 \sqrt{n}+2 \leq 0$, a contradiction.

We can now exhibit infinitely many strings for which $A(x x)>A(x)$.

Theorem 9.5.4 Let $x=0^{n} 1$. Then $A(x x)=\Omega(\sqrt{n})$, but $A(x)=O(1)$.

Proof. It is clear that $A(x)=O(1)$, since we can accept $0^{n} 1$ uniquely with a 3 -state DFA. However, mimicking the lower bound proof of Theorem 9.5.3 above, it is easy to see that $A\left(0^{n} 10^{n} 1\right)=\Omega(\sqrt{n})$.

It is possible to generalize Theorem 9.5.1. We need some technical lemmas. The first concerns solvability of certain linear diophantine equations.

Lemma 9.5.5 Let $k \geq 1$, and let $n_{1}, n_{2}, \ldots, n_{k}$ be positive integers, relatively prime in pairs. Let $r \geq 0$ be an integer. Define $P:=n_{1} n_{2} \cdots n_{k}$. If $r=0$, the linear diophantine equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
a_{1} \frac{P}{n_{1}}+a_{2} \frac{P}{n_{2}}+\cdots+a_{k} \frac{P}{n_{k}}=\left(n_{1}-1\right) \frac{P}{n_{1}}+\left(n_{2}-1\right) \frac{P}{n_{2}}+\cdots+\left(n_{k}-1\right) \frac{P}{n_{k}}-r P \tag{9.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

has a unique solution

$$
\left(a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{k}\right)=\left(n_{1}-1, n_{2}-1, \ldots, n_{k}-1\right)
$$

in non-negative integers. If $r \geq 1$, then (9.2) has no solutions in non-negative integers.

Proof. By induction on $k$. If $k=1$ Eq. (9.2) becomes $a_{1}=n_{1}-1-r n_{1}$. If $r=0$ this equation has the unique solution $a_{1}=n_{1}-1$, but if $r \geq 1$ then clearly there are no solutions in non-negative integers.

Now assume the result is true for $1,2, \ldots, k-1$. We prove it for $k$. Consider Eq. (9.2) $\bmod n_{k}$. We get

$$
a_{k} \frac{P}{n_{k}} \equiv-\frac{P}{n_{k}}\left(\bmod n_{k}\right) .
$$

Since the $n_{i}$ are pairwise relatively prime, it follows that $a_{k} \equiv-1\left(\bmod n_{k}\right)$. Since $a_{k}$ is a non-negative integer, we can therefore write $a_{k}=j n_{k}-1$ for some integer $j \geq 1$.

Now substitute $a_{k}=j n_{k}-1$ in Eq. (9.2). After a little easy algebra, we get

$$
\begin{align*}
& a_{1} \frac{P}{n_{1}}+a_{2} \frac{P}{n_{2}}+\cdots+a_{k-1} \frac{P}{n_{k-1}}= \\
& \quad\left(n_{1}-1\right) \frac{P}{n_{1}}+\left(n_{2}-1\right) \frac{P}{n_{2}}+\cdots+\left(n_{k-1}-1\right) \frac{P}{n_{k-1}}-(j+r-1) P \tag{9.3}
\end{align*}
$$

By induction Eq. (9.3) has a solution iff $j+r-1=0$. But $j \geq 1$. Hence $j=1$ and $a_{k}=n_{k}-1$, and hence Eq. (9.3) has a solution iff $r=0$. If $r=0$, by induction the solution is $\left(a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{k-1}\right)=\left(n_{1}-1, n_{2}-1, \ldots, n_{k-1}-1\right)$.

Lemma 9.5.6 (a) If $M^{1 / k}>2 B$, then

$$
\frac{M}{M^{1 / k}-B}<M^{\frac{k-1}{k}}+2 B M^{\frac{k-2}{k}}
$$

(b) If $0<B<A$ and $k \geq 1$, then

$$
(A-B)^{k} \geq A^{k}-k A^{k-1} B
$$

Proof.
(a) We have

$$
\left(M^{1 / k}-B\right)\left(M^{\frac{k-1}{k}}+2 B M^{\frac{k-2}{k}}\right)=M+B M^{\frac{k-2}{k}}\left(M^{1 / k}-2 B\right)>M
$$

(b) An easy induction on $k$ proves that if $0<x<1$ and $k \geq 1$ then $(1-x)^{k} \geq 1-k x$. Now let $x=B / A$ and multiply by $A^{k}$.

For our last lemma, we will need a certain number-theoretic function. For $t \geq 1$, define $f(t)$ to be the least integer $n$ such that every set of $n$ consecutive positive integers contains a subset of size $t$ that is pairwise relatively prime. Then, for example, $f(4)=6$, since the set $\{2,3,4,5,6\}$ contains no subset of 4 relatively prime integers, while it is easy to check that every set of 6 consecutive positive integers does.

It seems quite difficult to estimate $f$ precisely. However, the following lemma follows easily from results of Erdős and Selfridge [ES71]:

Lemma 9.5.7 For all $\delta>0$ and $t$ sufficiently large we have $f(t)<t^{2+\delta}$.

Proof. Erdős and Selfridge defined $F(n, k)$ to be the largest subset of pairwise relatively prime integers in $\{n+1, n+2, \ldots, n+k\}$, and proved that $\min _{n \geq 0} F(n, k)>k^{1 / 2-\epsilon}$. Now let $k=t^{2+5 \epsilon}$ for some $\epsilon<1 / 10$. We find

$$
\min _{n \geq 0} F\left(n, t^{2+5 \epsilon}\right)>\left(t^{2+5 \epsilon}\right)^{1 / 2-\epsilon}>t^{1+\epsilon / 2-5 \epsilon^{2}}>t
$$

since $\epsilon<1 / 10$. Hence for all $0<\epsilon<1 / 10$ and all $t$ sufficiently large, any $t^{2+5 \epsilon}$ consecutive integers contains a pairwise relatively prime subset of cardinality $>t$. In other words, $f(t)<t^{2+\delta}$ where $\delta=5 \epsilon$.

We are now ready to prove
Theorem 9.5.8 Let $a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{k}$ be $k$ distinct symbols. Then $A\left(a_{1}^{n} a_{2}^{n} \cdots a_{k}^{n}\right)=O\left(n^{1-1 / k}\right)$, where the constant in the big-O may depend on $k$.

Proof. The idea is as follows: we choose $k$ pairwise relatively prime integers, each $\leq n^{1 / k}$, say $n_{1}, n_{2}, \ldots, n_{k}$. Let $P=n_{1} n_{2} \cdots n_{k}$. We then form a DFA similar to that in Figure 9.9, with $k$ loops, one on each $a_{i}, 1 \leq i \leq k$, of size $P / n_{i}$. Each loop is preceded by a "tail" of length $n-\left(P / n_{i}\right)\left(n_{i}-1\right)=n-P+P / n_{i}$. By Lemma 9.5.5, this DFA uniquely accepts $a_{1}^{n} a_{2}^{n} \cdots a_{k}^{n}$.

The total number of states is $\leq N$, where

$$
\begin{equation*}
N:=1+k(n-P)+2 \sum_{1 \leq i \leq k} \frac{P}{n_{i}} . \tag{9.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

By Lemma 9.5 we can choose the pairwise relatively prime numbers $n_{i}$ such that $n^{1 / k}-k^{2+\delta}<$ $n_{i}<n^{1 / k}$. Setting $A=n^{1 / k}$ and $B=k^{2+\delta}$ in Lemma 9.5.6 (b) we obtain

$$
P=n_{1} n_{2} \cdots n_{k} \geq n-k^{3+\delta} n^{\frac{k-1}{k}} .
$$

Hence

$$
\begin{equation*}
k(n-P)<k^{4+\delta} n^{\frac{k-1}{k}} . \tag{9.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

On the other hand, setting $M=P$ and $B=k^{2+\delta}$ in Lemma 9.5.6 (a) we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{P}{n_{i}}<P^{\frac{k-1}{k}}+2 k^{2+\delta} P^{\frac{k-2}{k}} \tag{9.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $n$ sufficiently large. Combining Eqs. (9.4)-(9.6), we obtain $N=O\left(k^{4+\delta} n^{\frac{k-1}{k}}\right)$, as desired.

### 9.6 Infinite words

Up to now we have been dealing with finite words. However, it is also interesting to consider the case of infinite words. In this chapter, by an infinite word we will mean a one-sided,
right-infinite word, i.e., a map from $\mathbb{N}$ to $\Sigma$. For an infinite word $\mathbf{x}$ we are interested in computing

$$
I(\mathbf{x})=\liminf _{x \text { is a prefix of } \mathbf{x}} \frac{A(x)}{|x|}
$$

and

$$
S(\mathbf{x})=\limsup _{x \text { is a prefix of } \mathbf{x}} \frac{A(x)}{|x|} .
$$

for "interesting" infinite words $\mathbf{x}$.
We start with the Thue-Morse word $\mathbf{t}$. Let $\mu$ be a morphism defined by $\mu(0)=01$, $\mu(1)=10$. Then $\mathbf{t}=t_{0} t_{1} t_{2} \cdots=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \mu^{n}(0)$. We define $T(r)=t_{0} t_{1} \cdots t_{r-1}$, the prefix of t of length $r$.

Theorem 9.6.1 We have

$$
I(\mathbf{t}) \geq \frac{1}{3}
$$

and

$$
S(\mathbf{t}) \leq \frac{2}{3}
$$

Proof. The lower bound for $I(\mathbf{t})$ follows immediately from Theorem 9.4.3, since, as is well-known, the Thue-Morse word is cube-free.

For the upper bound, we break the argument up as follows. We claim that we can accept $T(m)$ using $h(m)$ states, where $h$ is given in the table below.

| $m$ | $h(m)$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| $2 \cdot 2^{2 n} \leq m \leq 3 \cdot 2^{2 n}$ | $m+3-2^{2 n}$ |
| $3 \cdot 2^{2 n}<m<4 \cdot 2^{2 n}$ | $2 \cdot 2^{2 n}+2$ |
| $4 \cdot 2^{2 n} \leq m<5 \cdot 2^{2 n}$ | $m+2-2 \cdot 2^{2 n}$ |
| $5 \cdot 2^{2 n} \leq m \leq 6 \cdot 2^{2 n}$ | $m+1-2 \cdot 2^{2 n}$ |
| $6 \cdot 2^{2 n}<m<8 \cdot 2^{2 n}$ | $4 \cdot 2^{2 n}+2$ |

For $2 \cdot 2^{2 n} \leq m \leq 3 \cdot 2^{2 n}$, we use the fact that $T\left(2 \cdot 2^{2 n}\right)=T\left(2^{2 n}\right) \overline{T\left(2^{2 n}\right)^{R}}$, which allows us to reuse $2^{2 n}-1$ states, as illustrated in Figure 9.10.

For $3 \cdot 2^{2 n} \leq m<4 \cdot 2^{2 n}$, we use the fact that $T\left(4 \cdot 2^{2 n}\right)=T\left(2^{2 n}\right)\left(\overline{\left(T\left(2^{2 n}\right)\right.}\right)^{2} T\left(2^{2 n}\right)$, which allows us to reuse $2^{2 n}$ states in an inner loop and $m-3 \cdot 2^{2 n}$ states in an outer loop, as illustrated in Figure 9.11.

For $4 \cdot 2^{2 n} \leq m<5 \cdot 2^{2 n}$, it is easiest to give the encoding of the corresponding machine, as introduced in Section 9.4:

$$
t_{0}\left[t_{1} \cdots t_{m-3 \cdot 2^{2 n}-1} * t_{m-3 \cdot 2^{2 n}}\left[t_{m-3 \cdot 2^{2 n}+1} \cdots t_{2^{2 n+1}-1}+t_{2^{2 n+1}} \cdots t_{m-2^{2 n+1}-1}\right]_{t_{m-2^{2 n+1}}}\right]_{t_{3 \cdot 2^{2 n}}}
$$

This is illustrated in Figure 9.12.
For $5 \cdot 2^{2 n} \leq m \leq 6 \cdot 2^{2 n}$, we use the fact that $T\left(5 \cdot 2^{2 n}\right)=\left(T\left(2^{2 n}\right) \overline{T\left(2^{2 n}\right) T\left(2^{2 n}\right)}\right)^{5 / 3}$, as illustrated in Figure 9.13.

For $6 \cdot 2^{2 n} \leq m \leq 8 \cdot 2^{2 n}$, we use the fact that $T(m)=T\left(2^{2 n+3}-m\right) x \bar{x}^{R}$, where $x=t_{2^{2 n+3}-m} \cdots t_{2^{2 n+2}}$, as illustrated in Figure 9.14.

In the figures that follow, unspecified transitions go to a "dead state" which is not shown.


Figure 9.10: Automaton uniquely accepting $t_{10}$


0
Figure 9.11: Automaton uniquely accepting $t_{14}$


Figure 9.12: Automaton uniquely accepting $t_{18}$


Figure 9.13: Automaton uniquely accepting $t_{22}$


Figure 9.14: Automaton uniquely accepting $t_{26}$

If we consider the Thue-Morse word on three symbols [Ber79], we can get a sharper result.

Theorem 9.6.2 Let $\mathbf{u}=102120102012 \cdots$ be the infinite Thue-Morse word on three symbols, generated by $1 \rightarrow 102,0 \rightarrow 12,2 \rightarrow 0$. Then

$$
I(\mathbf{u})=\frac{1}{2}
$$

Proof. The lower bound comes from Theorem 9.4.3. For the upper bound, we claim that if we let $r s$ be a prefix of $\mathbf{u}$ with $|r|=|s|=2^{2 k}$ for some $k \geq 0$, then $r$ differs in every single position from $s^{R}$. Hence we may reuse states in analogy with Figure 9.2.

To prove the claim, let $\mathbf{u}=u_{0} u_{1} u_{2} \cdots$. Let $r=u_{0} u_{1} \cdots u_{2^{2 k-1}}$ and $s=u_{2^{2 k}} \cdots u_{2^{2 k+1}-1}$. It is known that $u_{i}=\left(2 t_{i}+t_{i+1}\right) \bmod 3$, where $\mathbf{t}=t_{0} t_{1} t_{2} \cdots$ is the Thue-Morse word. For $0 \leq i<2^{2 k+1}$ we have $t_{i}=1-t_{2^{2 k+1}-i-1}$. Now $\mathbf{t}$ is cube-free, so $t_{i-1} t_{i} t_{i+1} \notin\{000,111\}$. Hence $t_{i}+t_{i+1} \neq 2 t_{i-1}$, and $t_{j} \in\{0,1\}$ for $j \geq 0$, so $t_{i}+t_{i+1} \not \equiv 2 t_{i-1}(\bmod 3)$. Adding $t_{i}$ to this last incongruence, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
u_{i} & \equiv 2 t_{i}+t_{i+1} \not \equiv t_{i}+2 t_{i-1} \\
& \equiv 2\left(1-t_{i}\right)+\left(1-t_{i-1}\right) \\
& \equiv 2 t_{2^{2 k+1}-i-1}+t_{2^{2 k+1}-i} \\
& \equiv u_{2^{2 k+1}-i-1}(\bmod 3) .
\end{aligned}
$$

This proves that $r$ differs in every position from $s^{R}$.

One might wonder if $S(\mathbf{x})=0$ implies that $\mathbf{x}$ is ultimately periodic. The answer is no, as the following example shows:

Theorem 9.6.3 Let $\mathbf{v}=0^{2} 10^{4} 10^{16} 10^{256} 10^{65536} 1 \cdots$. Then $S(\mathbf{v})=0$.

Proof. First, we need the following lemma.

Lemma 9.6.4 Let $y \in\{0,1\}^{*}$. Then for all $r, s \geq 1$ we have $A\left(y 10^{r} 10^{s}\right) \leq|y|+6 \sqrt{m}$, where $m=\max (r, s)$.

Proof. Suppose $r \geq s$. (The proof for $r<s$ is similar and is left to the reader.) Define $t:=\lfloor\sqrt{r}\rfloor$ and $u=\min (\lfloor s / t\rfloor, t)$. Now construct the following DFA:


Figure 9.15: DFA uniquely accepting $y 10^{r} 10^{s}$

We claim this DFA uniquely accepts $y 10^{r} 10^{s}$. It clearly accepts this string, by going around the first loop $t-1$ times and the second loop $u$ times. To see that acceptance is unique, consider going around the first loop $k \geq 0$ times and the second loop $j \geq 0$ times. This gives a string of length $|y|+1+r-t^{2}+1+k(t+1)+1+s-t u+j t$. Setting this equal to the desired length of $|y|+1+r+1+s$, we get the linear diophantine equation

$$
r-t^{2}+1+k(t+1)+s-t u+j t=r+s
$$

in other words, $k(t+1)+j t=t^{2}-1+t u$. Now consider this equation modulo $t$. We find $k \equiv-1(\bmod t)$. Suppose $k \geq 2 t-1$. Then $t^{2}-1+t u=k(t+1)+j t \geq(2 t-1)(t+1)+j t$. Simplifying, we obtain $u \geq t+1+j$. But $j \geq 0$, so $u \geq t+1$, contradicting the definition of $u$. It follows that $k=t-1$, and hence $j=u$, as desired.

Our DFA has $N:=|y|+1+r-t^{2}+1+t+1+s-t u+t-1+1$ states. Since $\sqrt{r}-1 \leq t \leq \sqrt{r}$, it follows that $r-t^{2} \leq 2 \sqrt{r}-1$ and

$$
\begin{aligned}
s-t u & \leq s-t \min (\lfloor s / t\rfloor, t)=\max \left(s-t\lfloor s / t\rfloor, s-t^{2}\right)=\max \left(s \bmod t, s-t^{2}\right) \\
& \leq \max \left(t, r-t^{2}\right) \leq \max (\sqrt{r}, 2 \sqrt{r}-1) \leq 2 \sqrt{r}-1
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence $N<|y|+6 \sqrt{r}$.
Now we can complete the proof of Theorem 9.6.3. Every sufficiently long prefix of $\mathbf{v}$ is
of the form

$$
x=0^{2} 10^{2^{2}} 10^{2^{2^{2}}} 10^{0^{2^{3}}} 1 \cdots 10^{0^{2^{n}}} 10^{a}
$$

where $0 \leq a \leq 2^{2^{n+1}}$. Let $y=0^{2} 10^{2^{2}} 10^{2^{2^{2}}} 10^{2^{2^{3}}} 1 \cdots 10^{2^{2^{n-1}}}, r=2^{2^{n}}$, and $s=a$. Then $|x|=2^{2^{n}}+a+O\left(2^{2^{n-1}}\right)$, while Lemma 9.6.4 states that $A(x) \leq 6 \sqrt{2^{2^{n}}+a}+O\left(2^{2^{n-1}}\right)$. It follows that $A(x) /|x|=O(1 / \sqrt{x})$, and so $S(\mathbf{v})=0$.

### 9.7 Open Problems

There are many open problems related to this work. For example, is $A(x)$ computable in polynomial time? Does the inequality $A(x)<A(x x)$ hold for almost all $x$ ?

## Chapter 10

## Conclusion

In this thesis, we presented several results on periodicity and repetition in words. The most significant contributions are the results in Chapter 2 - Chapter 5.

In Chapter 2 we gave several non-trivial generalizations of the Fine and Wilf theorem. In particular, we generalize the Fine and Wilf theorem to inequalities and to more than two periodic sequences.

In Chapter 3 we gave two results on non-negative matrices that have direct applications to the growth rate of words in a D0L system.

In Chapter 4 we gave a complete classification of two-sided fixed points of morphisms. This characterization completes the previous work of Head and Lando [Hea81, HL86] on finite and one-sided fixed points of morphisms. It also led to the formulation of the Decreasing Length Conjecture.

In Chapter 5 we gave a method (following Thue) to construct an infinite binary word that simultaneously avoid cubes and squares $x x$ with $|x| \geq 4$. This method can be applied to other pattern avoidance problems.

There are many potential areas for further research. We list some of them below.

1. There is a version of the Fine and Wilf theorem for continuous functions. It is as follows. Let $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ be continuous periodic real functions of periods $\alpha, \beta$, respectively.
(a) $\alpha / \beta=p / q$ where $p, q$ are coprime positive integers. Then if $f(x)=g(x)$ on an interval of length $\alpha+\beta-\beta / q$, then $f(x)=g(x)$ everywhere. Furthermore, the result would be false if $\alpha+\beta-\beta / q$ were replaced by anything smaller.
(b) $\alpha / \beta$ is irrational. Then if $f(x)=g(x)$ on an interval of length $\alpha+\beta$, then $f(x)=g(x)$ everywhere. Furthermore, the result would be false if $\alpha+\beta$ were replaced by anything smaller.

None of the generalizations mentioned in this thesis have been proved/adapted for continuous functions. It would be interesting to extend these results to continuous functions. The proof of the upper bounds in both cases above can probably be adapted to these generalizations. To prove matching lower bounds seems to require something new.
2. Let $A$ be a non-negative $n \times n$ irreducible matrix. In Chapter 3 we showed that there is an integer $e=O(n \log n)$ such that $A^{e}$ has strictly positive diagonal entries. We also showed a lower bound of $\Omega(n \log n / \log \log n)$ on $e$. It would be nice to have matching upper and lower bounds here.
3. L. Ilie, P. Ochem and J. Shallit [IOS04] considered the following type of pattern avoidance problem.

Let $\alpha>1$ be a rational number, and let $\ell \geq 1$ be an integer. A word $w$ is a repetition of order $\alpha$ and length $\ell$ if we can write it as $w=x^{n} x^{\prime}$ where $x^{\prime}$ is a prefix of $x,|x|=l$, and $|w|=\alpha|x|$. For brevity, we also call $w$ a $(\alpha, \ell)$-repetition. Notice that an $\alpha$-power is an $(\alpha, \ell)$-repetition for some $\ell$. We say a word is $(\alpha, \ell)$-free if it contains no factor that is a $\left(\alpha^{\prime}, \ell^{\prime}\right)$-repetition for $\alpha^{\prime} \geq \alpha$ and $\ell^{\prime} \geq \ell$. We say a word is $\left(\alpha^{+}, \ell\right)$-free if it is $\left(\alpha^{\prime}, \ell\right)$-free for all $\alpha^{\prime}>\alpha$.

For integers $k \geq 2$ and $\ell \geq 1$, we define the generalized repetition threshold $R(k, \ell)$ as the real number $\alpha$ such that either
(a) over $\Sigma_{k}$ there exists an $\left(\alpha^{+}, \ell\right)$-free infinite word, but all $(\alpha, \ell)$-free words are finite; or
(b) over $\Sigma_{k}$ there exists a $(\alpha, \ell)$-free infinite word, but for all $\epsilon>0$, all $(\alpha-\epsilon, \ell)$-free words are finite.
$R(k, \ell)$ generalizes the repetition threshold of Brandenburg [Bra83]. Apparently Pansiot also suggested looking at this generalization at the end of his paper [Pan84]. [IOS04] gives several results on $R(k, \ell)$ and contains many open problems. We mention two below.

Conjecture 10.0.1 $R(3, \ell)=1+\frac{1}{\ell}$ for $\ell \geq 2$.

Conjecture 10.0.2 $R(4, \ell)=1+\frac{1}{\ell+2}$ for $\ell \geq 2$.

These conjectures are weakly supported by numeric evidence. A lot of related problems could be investigated.
4. Is the language $D^{*}(w)$ defined in Chapter 8 context-free?
5. Is the automatic complexity function $A(x)$ defined in Chapter 9 computable in polynomial time?
6. Does the inequality $A(x x)>A(x)$ hold for almost all $x$ ?
7. In Chapter 9, we showed that given an integer $k \geq 1$ and a "large" $N$, there exists $k$ positive integers $c_{1}, \ldots, c_{k}$ each approximately $N^{(k-1) / k}$ and a positive integer $C$ with the following two properties:

1. $C$ can be written as a unique positive linear combination of $c_{i}$.
2. Let $C=\sum_{i} x_{i} c_{i}$. Then $x_{i} c_{i} \sim N$.

Is it possible to find $c_{i}$ 's approximately $\sqrt{N}$ ? This would improve the bound in Theorem 9.5.8 and is of some independent interest.

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[^0]:    ${ }^{2}$ By nontrivial we mean $x y \neq \epsilon$.

[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ But if not, there are some alternatives that also may be of interest. For example, we could define $B(x)$ to be the smallest number of states in any DFA $M$ such that $x$ is the lexicographically least string of length $|x|$ accepted by $M$.

