# Two results on words 

by

Shuo Tan

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I hereby declare that I am the sole author of this thesis. This is a true copy of the thesis, including any required final revisions, as accepted by my examiners.

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#### Abstract

The study of combinatorial patterns of words has raised great interest since the early 20th century. In this thesis we primarily study two combinatorial patterns. The first pattern is "abelian $k$-th power free" and the second one is "representability of a set of words of equal length".

In Chapter 1 we give a brief introduction to these two combinatorial patterns. In Section 2.1 we present a proof that the language of non-abelian squares is not context-free using Odgen's Lemma. In Section 2.2 we present a more elegant proof for this quadratic case by applying a characterization theorem for the bounded context-free languages. Strengthening the technique applied in Section 2.2, we prove in Section 2.3 that the language of nonabelian cubes is not context-free.

In Chapter 3 we study the representability of a set of words of a fixed length. A set $S$ of words of length $n$ is representable if there exists some word $w$ such that the set of length- $n$ factors of $w$ equals $S$. In Section 3.1 we give a lower bound and an upper bound for the number of representable sets of words of fixed length. In Section 3.2 we give a lower bound $l(n)$ such that if a set $S$ of words of length $n$ is representable, then there exists a word $w$, with $|w|<l(n)$, such that the set of factors of $w$ equals $S$. We study a variation of these problems in Section 3.3: we fix a length $t$, and try to evaluate the number of sets of words of length $n$ such that there exists some word $w$ of length $t$ such that the set of length- $n$ factors of $w$ equals $S$. We give a closed-form formula in the case where $n \leq t<2 n$.

Finally in Chapter 4, we present some open problems which are related to these two combinatorial patterns.


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## Dedication

I would like to dedicate this thesis to my family.

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## Chapter 1

## Introduction

### 1.1 Combinatorial patterns

This thesis focuses primarily on combinatorial patterns. The study of combinatorial patterns has raised a lot of interest for quite some time. For instance, in the 20th century, much research has been done on the existence of infinite words over a given alphabet avoiding certain patterns. Thue [21] gave the first example of an infinite word avoiding square over an alphabet of size 3. Later, various results avoiding $k$-th powers were achieved. Most of the $k$-th power-free words are generated by iterating a particular morphism which preserves $k$-th power-freeness.

In 1961, Erdős [7] introduced the notion of abelian square (see Section 1.2). Erdős asked if there exists an infinite word over a given alphabet containing no abelian square as a factor. It is easy to check that there exists no such infinite word over an alphabet of size 3. Keränen [13] constructed a morphism on an alphabet of 4 symbols which preserves abelian square-freeness. Using this morphism, Keränen proved that abelian squares are avoidable with an alphabet size of 4 .

Richmond and Shallit [17] gave an asymptotic estimate for the number of abelian squares of a fixed length over a given alphabet size. They showed that the number of abelian squares of length $2 n$ over an alphabet of size $k$ is asymptotically $k^{2 n+\frac{k}{2}}(4 \pi n)^{\frac{1-k}{2}}$. Blanchet-Sadri and Fox [1] considered abelian primitive partial words. They counted the number of abelian primitive words of a fixed length over a given alphabet size.

We study the context-freeness of the language of non-abelian squares, non-abelian
cubes, etc. We show in Section 2.1 that the language of non-abelian squares is not contextfree. We present a much more elegant proof in Section 2.2 for the quadratic case by applying characterizations of bounded context-free languages (defined in Section 1.3). Finally, we consider the cubic case in Section 2.3, and prove that the language of non-abelian cubes is not context-free. We conjecture that the language of non-abelian $k$-th powers is not context-free.

Another combinatorial pattern we study is the representable sets of words of equal length. Representable sets have been studied in both algorithmic aspects and combinatorial aspects. Algorithmic aspects of related problems have been discussed under the name "shortest common superstring" and "representing words". A common superstring of a set of words $S$ is a word containing each word in $S$ as a factor. For example, the word 001100 is a common superstring of the set of words $\{0011,110,100\}$. An instance of the "shortest common superstring" problem is a given set $S$ of words. The object of the problem is to find a shortest common superstring of $S$. Discussions on this topic include complexity class membership of variants of related problems (e.g., $\mathcal{P}$ and $\mathcal{N} \mathcal{P}$ ) and approximation algorithms. For example, Gallant, Maier, and Storer [9] proved that the decision version of the "shortest common superstring" problem is $\mathcal{N} \mathcal{P}$-complete; namely, given a set $S$ of words and an integer $K$, deciding if there exists a common superstring $w$ of $S$ with $|w|<K$ is $\mathcal{N} \mathcal{P}$-complete. After this complexity result had been achieved, researchers turned their attention to approximation algorithms. The first known approximation algorithm was given by Li [14], which achieved an approximation ratio of $\log n$. The first constant-bound algorithm, in terms of the approximation ratio, was found in 1991 [3]; while the best known algorithm was presented by Sweedyk [18], with an approximation ratio of 2.5.

Recently, Blanchet-Sadri and Simmons [2] studied the representability of sets by finite partial words, which are sequences containing holes that match all symbols. Formally, given an alphabet $\Sigma$, a partial word is a set of symbols in $\Sigma \cup\{\square\}$, where $\square \notin \Sigma$. A full word, in contrast, is an ordinary word which contains no $\square$. A full word $f$ is compatible with a partial word $p$ if $f[i]=p[i]$ for every position $i$ such that $p[i] \neq \square$. For example, the full word 'elephant' is compatible with the partial word 'ele $\square h a \square \mathrm{t}$ '. The set of length- $n$ factors of $w$ is defined to be the set of full words of length $n$ that are compatible with $w$. Blanchet-Sadri and Simmons showed that whether a given set of words of equal length equals the set of length- $n$ factors of some partial word can be decided in polynomial time. In particular, they gave an upper bound for the length of representing (partial) word for a given set of words.

Our contribution on this topic basically lies in the combinatorial aspect of the problem. We consider the following problems respectively in Chapter 3: for how many different sets
$S$ of words of length $n$ can we find a word $w_{S}$ such that the set of length- $n$ factors of $w_{S}$ equals $S$ ? For any set $S$ of words of length $n$, if such a $w_{S}$ exists, how long a word do we need to represent it? For how many sets $S$ of words of length $n$ can we find a word $w$ of length $t$ such that the set of length- $n$ factors of $w$ equals $S$ ? For the first problem, we give a lower and upper bound in the binary case. For the second problem, we give a weaker upper bound and some experimental data. For the third problem, we give a closed-form formula in the case where $n \leq t<2 n$; in particular, we give a characterization of those distinct words having the same subset of length- $n$ factors.

Finally, in Chapter 4 we give some open problems that are related to the two combinatorial patterns we study.

### 1.2 Words

An alphabet $\Sigma$ is a non-empty finite set of symbols. The elements of $\Sigma$ are referred to as symbols or letters. We let $\Sigma^{*}$ denote the set of all finite words over the alphabet $\Sigma$. A finite word over an alphabet $\Sigma$ is a sequence of symbols in $\Sigma$. The length of a finite word $w$ is the number of symbols in $w$. The empty word, of which the length equals 0 , is denoted by $\epsilon$.

A (right-)infinite word over an alphabet $\Sigma$ is usually defined as a map from $\mathbb{N}^{+}$to $\Sigma$. The set of all infinite words over the alphabet $\Sigma$ is denoted by $\Sigma^{\omega}$.

Let $w, x, y, z$ be finite words (possibly empty). If $w=x y z$, then we say that $y$ is a factor of $w$. Let $F_{n}(w)$ denote the set of length- $n$ factors of an ordinary (non-circular) word $w$, and let $C_{n}(w)$ denote the set of length- $n$ factors of $w$ where $w$ is interpreted circularly. For example, if $w=0001$, then $F_{2}(w)=\{00,01\}$; while if the word $w=0001$ is interpreted circularly, then $C_{2}(w)=\{00,01,10\}$.

A factor of an infinite word $\mathbf{w}$ is a finite word $y$ such that there exists a finite word $x$ and an infinite word $\mathbf{z}$ such that $\mathbf{w}=x y \mathbf{z}$. We let $F_{n}(\mathbf{w})$ denote the set of length- $n$ factors of $\mathbf{w}$.

For convenience, we let $w[i]$ denote the $i$ 'th letter of a finite word $w$ and $w[i . . j]$ denote the factor of $w$ with length $j-i+1$ that starts with the $i$ 'th letter of $w$. Thus $w=w[1 . . n]$ where $n=|w|$.

A finite word $w$ is a square if it is of the form $x x$ for some non-empty word $x$. A word is square-free if it contains no square as factor. For example, the word abcdabcd is a square; while the word abcdcdba is not a square, but it is not square-free since it contains the square cdcd as a factor. It is quite easy to check that any word contains at least 4 symbols constructed from a binary alphabet contains a square.

In general, we say that a finite word $w$ is a $k$-th power if it is of the form $x^{k}$ for some non-empty word $x$. A word is $k$-th power-free if it contains no $k$-th power as a factor. A word is primitive if it is not a $k$-th power for any $k>1$. For example, the set of words $\left\{a^{n} b^{n}: n \geq 1\right\}$ are all primitive.

A word $w$ is an abelian square if it is of the form $w_{1} w_{2}$ where $w_{2}$ is a permutation of $w_{1}$. For example, the English word reappear is an abelian square as it can be factorized as two parts reap and pear, the second part being a permutation of the first part. It is quite obvious that a square word $w$ is also an abelian square.

In general, a word $w$ is an abelian $k$-th power if there exists a partition $w=w_{1} w_{2} \cdots w_{k}$ such that each $w_{i}$ is a permutation of $w_{1}$ for $2 \leq i \leq k$. An instance of an abelian 4 -th power is the word $a_{4}=010001100100$, where $a_{4}$ can be decomposed into four factors of length 3 , each containing two 0 's and one 1 . If a word is not an abelian $k$-th power, we say that $w$ is a non-abelian $k$-th power. A word $w$ is an abelian primitive word if it is a non-abelian $k$-th power for all $k>1$. For instance, the words $0^{n} 1^{n}$ for $n \geq 1$ are abelian primitive words. The word $0011(01)^{n-2}$ is an abelian primitive word if and only if $n$ is prime; we will give a proof for this in Lemma 2.0.1. By applying this lemma, Domaratzki and Rampersad [6] proved that the language of abelian primitive words is not context-free. They also gave a linear-time algorithm deciding whether a word is abelian primitive.

### 1.3 Context-free languages

A context-free language is a language accepted by some pushdown automata or generated by some context-free grammar. The set of context-free languages is closed under union, reversal, concatenation, Kleene star, as well as morphism and inverse morphism. These closure properties are widely used to prove certain languages are context-free or noncontextfree. The closure properties we use intensively in this thesis are stated as follows:

Proposition 1.3.1. If $L$ is context-free and $R$ is regular, then $L \cap R$ is context-free.

Proposition 1.3.2. If $L$ is context-free and $T$ is a finite-state transducer then $T(L)$ is context-free.

These two closure properties are widely used to prove that certain languages are not context-free. For example, we consider the language

$$
L=\{w: w \text { contains the same number of } 0 \text { 's and } 1 \text { 's }\} .
$$

We let $R=0^{*} 1^{*}$ be a regular language. The intersection $L \cap R=\left\{0^{n} 1^{n}: n \geq 0\right\}$ is known to be noncontext-free. Thus we conclude that the language $L$ is also noncontext-free by applying Lemma 1.3.1.

Ogden's lemma [16] is an extension of the pumping lemma. It states that
Theorem 1.3.3. If a language $L$ is context-free, then there exists a positive integer $n$, such that for all $z \in L$ with $|z|>n$, if $n$ or more symbols of $z$ are marked arbitrarily, there exists a decomposition $z=$ uvwxy such that

1. $v x$ has at least one marked symbol;
2. vwx has at most $n$ marked symbols;
3. $u v^{i} w x^{i} y \in L$ for all $i \geq 0$.

Applying Ogden's lemma, we show in Chapter 2 that the language of non-abelian squares is not context-free. A few months after we found the first proof, we simplified the proof by using characterization theorems on the class of bounded context-free languages.

In general, a language $L$ is bounded if there exists non-empty words $w_{1}, w_{2}, \ldots, w_{m}$ such that $L \subseteq w_{1}^{*} w_{2}^{*} \cdots w_{m}^{*}$. The words $w_{1}, w_{2}, \ldots, w_{m}$ are said to be the corresponding words of a bounded language $L$.

A nice characterization of the class of bounded context-free languages was given by Ginsburg [10]. Unlike the pumping lemma and Ogden's lemma, which give necessary conditions for a language to be regular or context-free, Ginsburg's characterization theorem gives a necessary and sufficient condition for the class of bounded context-free languages. Before presenting this beautiful theorem, we first introduce some definitions.

Let $\Sigma=\left\{a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{m}\right\}$ be an ordered alphabet. The Parikh map is a function $\psi$ : $\Sigma^{*} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}^{m}$ such that $\psi(w)=\left(c_{1}, c_{2}, \ldots, c_{m}\right)$, where $c_{i}$ is the number of occurrences of $a_{i}$ in
$w$. For example, suppose $\Sigma=\{0,1,2\}$. We have $\psi(02121)=(1,2,2)$. For a language $L$, we let $\psi(L)=\{\psi(w): w \in L\}$.

We say that two vectors $x=\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{m}\right)$ and $y=\left(y_{1}, y_{2}, \ldots, y_{m}\right) \in \mathbb{N}^{m}$ are interleaved if there exist indices $1 \leq i_{x}<j_{x}<i_{y}<j_{y} \leq k$ such that $x_{i_{x}}, x_{j_{x}}, y_{i_{y}}, y_{j_{y}}$ are all positive. For example, the two vectors $(1,0,1,0)$ and $(0,1,0,1)$ are interleaved since we can take such $i_{x}=1, i_{y}=2, j_{x}=3$ and $j_{y}=4$.

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}^{m}$ be a set of vectors. We say that $S$ is stratified if every vector in $S$ has at most two nonzero coordinates, and no pair of vectors in $S$ is interleaved.

Let $X=\left\{v+A u: u \in \mathbb{N}^{m}\right\} \subseteq \mathbb{N}^{k}$ be a linear set with $m \geq 0, v \in \mathbb{N}^{k}$ and $A \in \mathbb{N}^{k \times m}$. We say that $X$ has stratified periods or $X$ is stratified if the column set of $A$ is stratified.

For example, the linear set $X_{1}=\left\{v_{1}+A_{1} u_{1}: u_{1} \in \mathbb{N}^{2}\right\}$ where $A_{1}=\left(\begin{array}{ll}1 & 0 \\ 3 & 0 \\ 2 & 1\end{array}\right)$ is not stratified since the first column $(1,3,2)$ contains 3 nonzero entries. The linear set $X_{2}=\left\{v_{2}+A_{2} u_{2}: u_{2} \in \mathbb{N}^{2}\right\}$ where $A_{1}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1\end{array}\right)$ is not stratified as well, since the two columns of $A_{2}$ are interleaved, as explained in a previous example.

With these definitions, the characterization theorem is stated as follows [10]:
Theorem 1.3.4. A bounded language $L$ is context-free if and only if the set

$$
E(L)=\left\{\left(e_{1}, e_{2}, \ldots, e_{m}\right) \in \mathbb{N}^{m}: w_{1}^{e_{1}} w_{2}^{e_{2}} \cdots w_{m}^{e_{m}} \in L\right\}
$$

where $w_{1}, w_{2} \cdots w_{m}$ are the corresponding words of $L$, is a finite union of linear sets with stratified periods.

We use this theorem in our proof for the non-context-freeness of the language of nonabelian cubes. Another useful theorem [12] characterizes the class of DLI (defined by linear inequality) context-free languages.

Let $\underline{m}$ denote the cyclical ordered set $\{1,2, \ldots, m\}$. Then the set

$$
E(\Theta, \delta, \epsilon)=\bigcap_{I \in \Theta}\left\{\left(e_{1}, e_{2}, \ldots, e_{m}\right) \in \mathbb{N}^{m}: \epsilon(I) \sum_{i \in I} \delta_{i} e_{i} \geq 0\right\}
$$

is a DLI-set where

1. $\Theta$ is a set of subsets of $\underline{m}$. $\Theta$ is considered as a multi-set.
2. For any $1 \leq i \leq m, \delta_{i} \in\{-1,0,1\}$.
3. For any $I \in \Theta, \epsilon(I) \in\{-1,1\}$.

A bounded language is a DLI language if the set

$$
E(L)=\left\{\left(e_{1}, e_{2}, \ldots, e_{l}\right) \in \mathbb{N}: w_{1}^{e_{1}} w_{2}^{e_{2}} \cdots w_{m}^{e_{m}} \in L\right\}
$$

is a DLI-set.
DLI languages are often used as examples or counterexamples for context-free languages. In such a case we have to decide whether a given DLI language is context-free. The following theorem [12] gives a necessary and sufficient condition for a DLI-set to be stratified semilinear.

Theorem 1.3.5. The DLI-set

$$
E(\Theta, \delta, \epsilon)=\bigcap_{I \in \Theta}\left\{\left(e_{1}, e_{2}, \ldots, e_{m}\right) \in \mathbb{N}^{m}: \epsilon(I) \sum_{i \in I} \delta_{i} e_{i} \geq 0\right\}
$$

is stratified semilinear if and only if for every $e \in E$ there is a hypergraph $H$, having the following properties:

1. The vertices of $H$ are the vertices of a convex m-polygon, indexed by the numbers $1,2, \ldots, m$ according to their cyclical order.
2. The edges of $H$ are one- or two-element subsets of the vertex set $V(H)$ of $H$.
3. If $\{i, j\}$ is a two-element edge of $H$, then $\delta_{i}=-\delta_{j}$.
4. The edge $f$ is forbidden if there exists $I \in \Theta$ such that $f \cap I=\{i\}$ and $\epsilon(I)=-\delta_{i}$. Hypergraph $H$ does not contain any forbidden edge.
5. The edges of $H$ are non-crossing.
6. The degree of each vertex $i$ is $e_{i}$.

As an example, Kászonyi proved the language $\left\{0^{a} 1^{b} 2^{c}: a \leq b \leq c\right\}$ is not context-free by applying Theorem 1.3.5. Here we do not go into details explaining this theorem. The reader is referred to Kászonyi's paper [12] if details are needed. Theorem 10 in his paper is the original statement of this theorem. The example provided is from Example 1 in his paper.

### 1.4 Representable sets

Let $\Sigma$ denote the alphabet. We say that a finite word $w$ witnesses (resp., circularly witnesses) a subset $S$ of $\Sigma^{n}$ if $F_{n}(w)=S$ (resp., $C_{n}(w)=S$ ). A subset $S$ of $\Sigma^{n}$ is representable (resp., circularly representable) if there exists a non-empty finite word (resp., circular word) that witnesses $S$. For example, the set $\{0,1\}^{2}$ is a representable set of order 2 since the set of all length- 2 factors of $w=00110$ (interpreted non-circularly) equals $\{0,1\}^{2}$. The set $\{00,11\}$ is not representable since any word $w$ containing both 0 and 1 must contain either 01 or 10 as a length- 2 factor. Let $R_{n}$ denote the set of all non-empty representable subsets of $\Sigma^{n}$, and let $\stackrel{\circ}{R}_{n}$ denote the set of all non-empty circularly representable subsets of $\Sigma^{n}$.

Let $\operatorname{sw}(S)$ (resp., $\operatorname{scw}(S)$ ) denote the length of the shortest non-circular witness (resp., circular witness) for $S$. For example, we consider the set $S=\{010,101\}$. We have $\operatorname{sw}(S)=4$ since the shortest non-circular witness is 0101 , of which the length equals 4 ; $\operatorname{scw}(S)=3$ since 010 circularly witnesses $S$. Let $\mu_{n}$ (resp., $\nu_{n}$ ) denote the maximum length of the shortest non-circular (resp., circular) witness over all representable subsets of $\Sigma^{n}$.

A de Bruijn word $b_{n}$ of order $n$ over the alphabet $\Sigma$ is a shortest circular witness for the set $\Sigma^{n}$. It is known [5] that the length of a de Bruijn word of order $n$ over $\Sigma$ is $2^{n}$. For example, one instance of $b_{2}$ is 0011 and two instances of $b_{3}$ are 00010111 and 11101000 .

## Chapter 2

## Non-abelian $k$-th Powers

At the DLT conference in Milan, Italy, Maxime Crochemore asked if the language of nonabelian squares is context-free. We answered his question in an arxiv note [19].

We study the context-freeness of the language of non-abelian $k$-th power words in this chapter. Given an alphabet $\Sigma$, let $L_{A P}$ denote the set of abelian primitive words over $\Sigma$; let $L_{N A S}$ denote the set of non-abelian squares over $\Sigma$; and let $L_{N A C}$ denote the set of non-abelian cubes over $\Sigma$.

By Lemma 1.3.1, we see that if $L_{A P} \cap\{0,1\}^{*}$ (respectively, $L_{N A S} \cap\{0,1\}^{*}$ and $L_{N A C} \cap$ $\{0,1\}^{*}$ ) is not context-free, then $L_{A P}$ (respectively, $L_{N A S}$ and $L_{N A C}$ ) is not context-free. Thus, without loss of generality, we let the alphabet $\Sigma=\{0,1\}$ in this chapter.

We start with the simplest one, i.e., the language $L_{A P}$. In order to prove that $L_{A P}$ is not context-free, Domaratzki and Rampersad [6] defined the regular language $R_{A P}=$ 0011(01)*.

Lemma 2.0.1. Let $n>1$ be an integer and $x_{n}=0011(01)^{n-2}$. Then $x_{n} \in L_{A P}$ iff $n$ is prime.

Proof. The length of $x$ is $2 n$. The word $x$ has exactly $n 0$ 's and $n 1$ 's. We first consider the case where $n<5$. We have $x_{2}=0011 \in L_{A P}, x_{3}=001101 \in L_{A P}$, and $x_{4}=00110101$ is an abelian square. Now it suffices to consider the case where $n \geq 5$.

If $x_{n} \notin L_{A P}$, then there exists $k \geq 2$ such that $x_{n}$ is an abelian $k$-th power. If $k=2$, then $n$ is even; otherwise the first half or the second half of $w$ contain a different number
of 0 's or 1 's. It follows that $p$ is not a prime number. If $k>2$, then the length of $x_{n}$ is divisible by $k$, which implies that $n$ is not a prime number.

If $n \geq 5$ is not a prime number, then there exist $p, q \geq 2$ such that $n=p q$. Note that $x_{n}=0011(01)^{q-2}\left((01)^{q}\right)^{p-1}$. Thus it is easy to see that $x_{n}$ is an abelian $q$-th power. Thus $x_{n} \notin L_{A P}$.

Theorem 2.0.2. The set $L_{A P}$ is not context-free.
Proof. Let $M=L_{A P} \cap R_{A P}$. By Lemma 2.0.1, we obtain that $M=\left\{0011(01)^{p-2}\right.$ : $p$ is prime $\}$. The language $M$ is easily seen to be not context-free by applying the pumping lemma. Hence $L_{A P}$ is not context-free since the intersection of $L_{A P}$ and $R_{A P}$ is not contextfree.

### 2.1 Binary case: A first proof

The binary case, in which we consider the set of non-abelian squares, however, is not that simple. Our proof in the binary case basically uses the same idea as applied in the proof for the primitive case, i.e., construct a certain regular language $R$ and prove that the intersection $L_{N A S} \cap R$ is not context-free. Much of the content of this section comes from my arxiv note [19].

Let $w_{i}=10^{i-1}$ for all $i>1$. We define $R_{N A S}=w_{4}^{*} w_{3} w_{2}^{*} w_{3} w_{3}^{*}$. We begin with a few lemmas.

Lemma 2.1.1. The word $w_{4}^{n} w_{3} w_{2}^{n!+n} w_{3} w_{3}^{2(n!+n)} \in L_{N A S} \cap\left(\Sigma^{2}\right)^{*} \cap R_{N A S}$.
Proof. Suppose $z=w_{4}^{n} w_{3} w_{2}^{n!+n} w_{3} w_{3}^{2(n!+n)}$. Clearly $z \in\left(\Sigma^{2}\right)^{*} \cap R_{N A S}$. Suppose $m$ is the total number of 1 's in $z$. Then $m=3 n!+4 n+2$. However, the number of 1 's in the second half of $z$ is $\frac{4 n!}{3}+2 n+1$, which is not equal to $\frac{m}{2}$. Hence $z$ is not an abelian square. Thus $z \in L_{N A S}$.

Let $w=0^{s_{0}} 10^{s_{1}} \cdots 10^{s_{k}}$ be a word over $\Sigma$. We let alt $(w)$ denote the number of occurrences of two consecutive blocks of 0's in $w$ containing a different number of symbols. Formally, we define

$$
\operatorname{alt}(w)=\left|\left\{1 \leq i<k: s_{i} \neq s_{i+1}\right\}\right| .
$$

We define $\operatorname{alt}(\cdot)$ over a language $K$ as follows: $\operatorname{alt}(K)=\max _{w \in K} \operatorname{alt}(w)$.

For example, we consider the regular language $K=0^{*} 1^{*} 0^{*} 1^{*}$. We see that alt $(K) \leq 4$ since there are at most 4 blocks of consecutive 0's and 1's. Also, we have $k=0110001111 \in$ $K$ and $\operatorname{alt}(k)=4$. It follows that $\operatorname{alt}(K)=4$.

We say that a sequence of non-negative integers $\left(a_{k}\right)_{k=1}^{n}$ is uneven if $n>1$ and there exists $i \in[1, n]$ such that $a_{i} \neq a_{i+1}$. Here $a_{n+1}=a_{1}$. Otherwise, it is even.

Suppose $w$ is a word that contains a 1 . Then $w$ is called uneven if the sequence $\left(s_{1}+s_{k+1}, s_{2}, \ldots, s_{k}\right)$ is uneven, where $w=0^{s_{1}} 10^{s_{2}} 1 \cdots 0^{s_{k}} 10^{s_{k+1}}$. Otherwise, it is called even.

Suppose $w$ is an even word and of the form $0^{s_{1}} 10^{s_{2}} 1 \cdots 0^{s_{k}} 10^{s_{k+1}}$. Now we consider what $w$ looks like. Since $w$ is even, we get that $s_{1}+s_{k+1}=s_{2}=\cdots=s_{k}$. Then $w=0^{s} 1\left(0^{s+t} 1\right)^{k} 0^{t}$ for some $s, t, k \geq 0$. We have the following lemmas:

Lemma 2.1.2. If $w$ is an uneven word, then $\operatorname{alt}\left(w^{k}\right) \geq k-1$.
Proof. Suppose $w=0^{s_{1}} 10^{s_{2}} 1 \cdots 0^{s_{k}} 10^{s_{k+1}}$. Then

$$
w^{k}=0^{s_{1}}\left(10^{s_{2}} \cdots 10^{s_{k}} 10^{s_{k+1}+s_{1}}\right)^{k-1} 10^{s_{2}} \cdots 10^{s_{k}} 10^{s_{k+1}}
$$

Since $w$ is uneven, we get $\operatorname{alt}\left(10^{s_{2}} \cdots 10^{s_{k}} 10^{s_{k+1}+s_{1}}\right) \geq 1$. It follows that $\operatorname{alt}\left(w^{k}\right) \geq k-1$.
Theorem 2.1.3. The intersection $L_{N A S} \cap\left(\Sigma^{2}\right)^{*} \cap R_{N A S}$ is not context-free.
Proof. (By Ogden's Lemma) Let $T$ denote the language $L_{N A S} \cap\left(\Sigma^{2}\right)^{*} \cap R_{N A S}$. For any $n>4$, let $z=w_{4}^{n} w_{3} w_{2}^{n!+n} w_{3} w_{3}^{2(n!+n)}$. By Lemma 2.1.1 we see that $z \in T$. Mark the first $4 n$ bits of $z$, that is, the bits corresponding to $w_{4}^{n}$. Let $m(s)$ denote the number of bits marked in $s$. Now we show by contradiction that no decomposition $z=u_{0} v_{0} w_{0} x_{0} y_{0}$ satisfies all the following three conditions:

1. condition A: $m\left(v_{0} x_{0}\right)>0$;
2. condition B: $m\left(v_{0} w_{0} x_{0}\right) \leq n$;
3. condition $\mathrm{C}: \forall i \geq 0, u_{0} v_{0}^{i} w_{0} x_{0}^{i} y_{0} \in T$.

We first mark $z$ with different colors. Mark the bits corresponding to $w_{4}^{n}$ red. Mark the next 3 bits corresponding to $w_{3}$ blue. Mark the bits corresponding to $w_{2}^{n!+n}$ green. Mark the bits corresponding to $w_{3} w_{3}^{2(n!+n)}$ black. Define a new function $m$ (color, $x$ ) as the number
of bits in $x$ colored color. Note that $m(x)$ in our former definition is the same as $m($ red, $x)$. Here is a picture of how $z$ is colored:


Now we list all possible cases.
(i) Either $v$ or $x$ is the empty word. Without loss of generality, suppose $x$ is empty.
(1) $v \in 0^{+}$.
(2) $v$ contains a 1 and $v$ is uneven.
(3) $v$ contains a 1 and $v$ is even.
(ii) Both $v$ and $x$ are non-empty words.
(1) $v \in 0^{+}$or $x \in 0^{+}$.
(2) Both $v$ and $x$ contain a $1 ; v$ is uneven or $x$ is uneven.
(3) Both $v$ and $x$ contain a 1 and are even.
(a) $m($ red $v)=0$, which means that $w_{4}^{n}$ precedes $v$ in $z$.
(b) $m($ red, $v)>0$.
(i) $m(\mathrm{red}, x)>0$.
(ii) $m($ red, $x)=0$ and $m($ green, $x)>0$

- $m($ blue,$x)=3$.
- $m($ blue,$x)=2$.
- $m($ blue,$x)=1$.
- $m($ blue, $x)=0$ and $m$ (green, $x)>1$.
- $m($ blue,$x)=0$ and $m($ green, $x)=1$.
(iii) $m($ red, $x)=m($ green, $x)=0$ and $m($ black, $x)>0$

Suppose there exists a decomposition $z=u v w x y$ satisfying the above three conditions simultaneously.

Case i: First we consider the case when either $v$ or $x$ is empty. Without loss of generality, suppose $x$ is empty. Then $v$ cannot be empty, since $v x$ is non-empty.

Case i.1: Suppose $v=0^{k}$ for some $k \in \mathbb{N}^{+}$. Then we select $i=4$. Since there are more than 3 successive 0 's in $v^{4}$, this is also true for $u v^{4} w x^{4} y$. However, no word in $T$ contains more than 3 successive 0's. Hence we get a contradiction.

Case i.2: Suppose $v$ contains a 1 and is uneven. We pick $i=6$. Then $\operatorname{alt}\left(v^{6}\right) \geq 5>$ $\operatorname{alt}(R)=4$ by Lemma 2.1.2. So $u v^{6} w x^{6} y \notin T$, which violates condition C.

Case i.3: Now we consider when $v$ is even. In this case $v$ can be written in the form $0^{k} 1\left(0^{k+s} 1\right)^{p} 0^{s}$ for some $k, s, p \in \mathbb{N}$. Then it follows that $m$ (green, $\left.v\right)=0$ and $k+s=3$ by the following argument. Suppose $m$ (green, $v)>0$. Then $m($ blue, $v)=3$. That is to say, the $w_{3}$ between the occurrences of $w_{4}$ 's and $w_{2}$ 's lies in $v$. Then $v$ must be of the form $r_{1} 01001 r_{2}$ for some words $r_{1}$ and $r_{2}$. It follows that $k+s=2$, since $v$ is even. Now we select $i=2$. Then $u v^{2} w x^{2} y=w_{4}^{n} w_{3}^{l} w_{2}^{n!+n} w_{3} w_{3}^{2(n!+n)}$ for some $l>1$, which violates condition C. Now suppose $k+s \neq 3$. Then we pick $i=2$. It follows that $u v^{2} w x^{2} y$ is of the form $w_{4}^{l} w_{k+s+1}^{2+2 p} w_{4}^{j} w_{3} w_{2}^{n!+n} w_{3} w_{3}^{2(n!+n)} \notin T$, which violates condition $C$ again. Now let $i=\frac{n!}{1+p}$. It follows that $z_{i}=u v^{i} w x^{i} y=w_{4}^{n!+n} w_{3} w_{2}^{n!+n} w_{3} w_{3}^{2(n!+n)}=\left(w_{4}^{n!+n} w_{3} w_{2}^{n!+n}\right)\left(w_{3} w_{3}^{2(n!+n)}\right)$ is an abelian square, a contradiction.

Case ii: Both $v$ and $x$ are non-empty. In this case, we first show that both $v$ and $x$ contain a 1 . Then, we show $v$ and $x$ are even. Finally we rule out all subcases under the condition $v$ and $x$ are even.

Case ii.1: Suppose $v=0^{k}$ or $x=0^{l}$ for some $k, l \in \mathbb{N}^{+}$. By a similar analysis in Case i.i, we get that this case violates condition C .

Case ii.2: Suppose $v$ is uneven. By a similar analysis in Case i.ii, we see that this case violates condition C. The same applies to the case when $x$ is uneven.

Case ii.3: Now it remains to consider when $v$ and $x$ are even. Suppose $v=0^{k} 1\left(0^{k+s} 1\right)^{p} 0^{s}$ for some $k, s, p \in \mathbb{N}$, and $x=0^{c} 1\left(0^{c+d} 1\right)^{e} 0^{d}$ for some $c, d, e \in \mathbb{N}$.

Case ii.3.a: First of all we consider the case when $m($ red, $v)=0$. Then $m($ red, $x)=0$ since $x$ precedes $v$ in $z$. It follows that $m($ red, $v x)=0$, which violates condition A .

Case ii.3.b: Now we turn to the case when $m($ red, $v)>0$. By the same argument in Case i.iii, we get that $m$ (green, $v)=0$ and $k+s=3$. Note that $p<n$, for otherwise the condition $m$ (green, $v)=0$ cannot be satisfied. Now we consider the following subcases:

Case ii.3.b.i: If $m(\operatorname{red}, x)>0$, then $m(\operatorname{green}, x)=0$ and $c+d=3$. After selecting $i=$ $\frac{n!}{2+p+e}$, we get that $z_{i}=u v^{i} w x^{i} y=w_{4}^{n!+n} w_{3} w_{2}^{n!+n} w_{3} w_{3}^{2(n!+n)}=\left(w_{4}^{n!+n} w_{3} w_{2}^{n!+n}\right)\left(w_{3} w_{3}^{2(n!+n)}\right)$ is an abelian square, which violates condition C again.

Case ii.3.b.ii: If $m(\operatorname{red}, x)=0$ and $m($ green, $x)>0$, then $m($ blue, $x)<3$, for otherwise $x$ cannot be even. There are again four subcases here.

1. The first subcase is $m$ (blue, $x)=2$. Then $x$ is in the form $001 r_{1}$, where $r_{1}$ is any word. We see that (a) $r_{1}=\epsilon$ or (b) $r_{1}=0$, for otherwise $x$ cannot be even. (a) If $r_{1}=\epsilon$, then $x=001$. We pick $i=2$. It follows that $u v^{2} w x^{2} y=w_{4}^{n+2 p+2} w_{3}^{2} w_{2}^{n!+n} w_{3} w_{3}^{2(n!+n)} \notin T$, which violates condition C. (b) If $r_{1}=0$, then $x=0010$. We pick $i=2$. It follows that $u v^{2} w x^{2} y=w_{4}^{n+2 p+2} w_{3} w_{4} w_{2}^{n!+n} w_{3} w_{3}^{2(n!+n)} \notin T$, which also violates condition C.
2. The second case is $m($ blue, $x)=1$. Here is a picture.

$$
z=w_{4} w_{4} \cdots w_{4} 10 \underbrace{0 w_{2} \cdots}_{x} \cdots w_{2} w_{3} \cdots w_{3}
$$

Thus (a) $x=010$ or (b) $x=(01)^{l}$ for some $l>0$. (a) If $x=010$, then we pick $i=2$. It follows that $u v^{2} w x^{2} y=w_{4}^{n+2 p+2} w_{3}^{2} w_{2}^{n!+n} w_{3} w_{3}^{2(n!+n)} \notin T$. (b) Otherwise $x=(01)^{l}$ for some $l>0$. After picking $i=\frac{n!}{1+p}$, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
z_{i} & =w_{4}^{n!+n} w_{3} w_{2}^{n!+n+\frac{l n!}{1+p}} w_{3} w_{3}^{2(n!+n)} \\
& =\left(w_{4}^{n!+n} w_{3} w_{2}^{n!+n}\right) w_{2}^{\frac{l n!}{1+p}}\left(w_{3} w_{3}^{2(n!+n)}\right) \\
& =\left(w_{4}^{n!+n} w_{3} w_{2}^{n!+n} w_{2}^{\frac{l n!}{2(1+p)}}\right)\left(w_{2}^{\frac{l n!}{2(1+p)}} w_{3} w_{3}^{2(n!+n)}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Note that $\frac{l n!}{2(1+p)}$ is an integer since $n>4$. Therefore $z_{i}$ is an abelian square. Hence $z_{i} \notin T$, a contradiction.
3. The third case is $m$ (blue, $x)=0$ and $m$ (green, $x)>1$. Similarly $x$ must be of the form $(01)^{l}$ or $(10)^{l}$ for some $l \in \mathbb{N}^{+}$, since $x$ is even. We pick $i=\frac{n!}{1+p}$ and find the same result as in the second case.
4. The last case is exactly when $m($ blue,$x)=0$ and $m($ green, $x)=1$. Then $x$ has to be the first or the last letter of the substring $w_{2}^{n!+n}$ of $z$, since $x$ cannot be a single 0 or 1 (there are no successive 1's in elements of $R$ ). Moreover, we find that $x$ cannot be the first letter of $w_{2}^{n!+n}$, since $m$ (blue, $\left.x\right)=0$. It follows that $x$ is the trailing 0 of $w_{2}^{n!+n}$. Under this circumstance, we find that $x=0(100)^{e} 10$, since $x$ is even. Now
we select $i=\frac{n!}{1+p}$. It follows that

$$
\begin{aligned}
z_{i} & =u v^{i} w x^{i} y \\
& =w_{4}^{n!+n} w_{3} w_{2}^{n!+n} w_{3} w_{3}^{2(n!+n)+\frac{(1+e) n!}{1+p}} \\
& =\left(w_{4}^{n!+n} w_{3} w_{2}^{n!+n}\right) w_{3}^{\frac{(1+e) n!}{1+p}}\left(w_{3} w_{3}^{2(n!+n)}\right) \\
& =\left(w_{4}^{n!+n} w_{3} w_{2}^{n!+n} w_{3}^{\frac{(1+e) n!}{2(1+p)}}\right)\left(w_{3}^{\frac{(1+e n!}{2(+p)}} w_{3} w_{3}^{2(n!+n)}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Note that $\frac{(1+e) n!}{2(1+p)}$ is an integer since $n>4$. Thus $z_{i}$ is an abelian square. Therefore $z_{i} \notin T$, a contradiction.

Case ii.3.b.iii: The last possible subcase is when $m(\operatorname{red}, x)=0$ and $m$ (green, $x)=0$ and $m$ (black, $x)>0$. In this case, we get that $c+d=2$. Now we pick $i=\frac{n!}{1+p}$. It follows that

$$
\begin{aligned}
z_{i} & =u v^{i} w x^{i} y \\
& =w_{4}^{n!+n} w_{3} w_{2}^{n!+n} w_{3} w_{3}^{2(n!+n)+\frac{(1+e) n!}{1+p}} \\
& =\left(w_{4}^{n!+n} w_{3} w_{2}^{n!+n}\right) w_{3}^{\frac{(1+e) n!}{1+p}}\left(w_{3} w_{3}^{2(n!+n)}\right) \\
& =\left(w_{4}^{n!+n} w_{3} w_{2}^{n!+n} w_{3}^{\frac{(1+e) n!}{2(1+p)}}\right)\left(w_{3}^{\frac{(1+e) n!}{2(1+p)}} w_{3} w_{3}^{2(n!+n)}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Note that $\frac{(1+e) n!}{2(1+p)}$ is an integer since $n>4$. Thus $z_{i}$ is an abelian square. Therefore $z_{i} \notin T$, a contradiction again.

With the above discussion, we claim that no decomposition of $z$ can satisfy all three conditions simultaneously. Thus $T$ is not context-free.

With Theorem 2.1.3, it follows that
Corollary. The language $L_{N A S}$ is not context-free.
As the readers may notice, Theorem 2.1.3 contains quite a lot of case analysis. Also, the regular language $R_{N A S}$ is not easily extended to a proof of the general case, i.e., there is no trivial way to construct a similar regular language to show that the language of nonabelian $k$-th powers is not context-free. In the next section, we construct another regular language $R_{2}$ and prove that $L_{N A S} \cap R_{2}$ in not context-free.

### 2.2 Binary case: A more elegant proof

In our effort to generalize the proof in Section 2.1, we tried many regular languages. One of these regular languages which seems promising is

$$
R_{2}=(00)^{*}(11)^{*}(00)^{*}(11)^{*} .
$$

We have the following lemma:
Lemma 2.2.1. The word $w=0^{2 a} 1^{2 b} 0^{2 c} 1^{2 d}$ is an abelian square if and only if $((a=c) \wedge(b \geq$ d) $) \vee((a \leq c) \wedge(b=d))$.

Proof. If $w$ is an abelian square, two possible factorizations for $w$ are $w=w_{1} w_{2}$ and $w=w_{3} w_{4}$ where $w_{1}=0^{2 a} 1^{b_{1}}$ and $w_{2}=1^{b_{2}} 0^{2 c} 1^{2 d} ; w_{3}=0^{2 a} 1^{2 b} 0^{c_{1}}$ and $w_{4}=0^{c_{2}} 1^{2 d}$. For the first case we have $a=c$ and $b_{1}=b_{2}+2 d$. Thus $2 b \geq 2 b_{2}+2 d \geq 2 d$; it follows that $b \geq d$ and $a=c$. By symmetry, we have $b=d$ and $a \leq c$ for the second case. The result follows immediately.

Luke Schaeffer (Personal communication, July 2012) showed that the language

$$
P=\left\{0^{a} 1^{b} 2^{c} 3^{d}: a>c \text { or } b>d \text { or }(a<c \text { and } b<d)\right\}
$$

is not context-free. He applied the fundamental characterization theorem on the class of bounded context-free languages. Here we use Schaeffer's technique to prove that $L_{N A S} \cap R_{2}$ is not context-free. We begin with a definition of dimension of discrete sets.

Given a set $X \subseteq \mathbb{N}^{k}$, we define a point counting function $\phi_{X}(R): \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ where

$$
\phi_{X}(R)=\left|\left\{x \in X:\|x\|_{1} \leq R\right\}\right| .
$$

Here $\|.\|_{1}$ is the $L_{1}$ norm.
We say that $X$ has dimension $d(\operatorname{dim} X=d)$ if $\phi_{X}(R) \in \Theta\left(R^{d}\right)$. Note that this dimension is not well defined for all subsets of $\mathbb{N}^{k}$.

Proposition 2.2.2. The dimension of $\mathbb{N}^{k}$ is $k$.

Proof. Let

$$
\begin{gathered}
A=\left\{\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{k}\right): \sum_{i=1}^{k} x_{i} \leq R\right\}, \\
B=\left\{\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{k}\right): x_{i} \leq R \text { for } 1 \leq i \leq k\right\}, \\
C= \\
\left\{\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{k}\right): x_{i} \leq \frac{R}{k} \text { for } 1 \leq i \leq k\right\} .
\end{gathered}
$$

Clearly $C \subseteq A \subseteq B$. Thus we have

$$
\phi_{\mathbb{N}^{k}}(R)=|A| \leq|B|=R^{k}
$$

and

$$
\phi_{\mathbb{N}^{k}}(R)=|A| \geq|C|=R^{k} \frac{1}{k^{k}} .
$$

It follows that $\operatorname{dim}\left(\mathbb{N}^{k}\right)=k$.
Proposition 2.2.3. Let $X, Y$ be subsets of $\mathbb{N}^{k}$ such that $\operatorname{dim} X$ and $\operatorname{dim} Y$ exist. Then

1. If $X \subseteq Y$, then $\operatorname{dim} X \leq \operatorname{dim} Y$;
2. $\operatorname{dim} X \cup Y=\max \{\operatorname{dim} X, \operatorname{dim} Y\}$.
3. $\operatorname{dim} \bigcup_{i} X_{i}=\max _{i}\left\{\operatorname{dim} X_{i}\right\}$.

Proof. If $X \subseteq Y$, then for any $R>0$, we have $\phi_{X}(R) \leq \phi_{Y}(R)$. Thus $\operatorname{dim} X \leq \operatorname{dim} Y$.
For the union, we have $\phi_{X \cup Y}(R) \leq \phi_{X}(R)+\phi_{Y}(R) \leq 2 \max \left\{\phi_{X}(R), \phi_{Y}(R)\right\}$. Thus $\operatorname{dim} X \cup Y \leq \max \{\operatorname{dim} X, \operatorname{dim} Y\}$. Also, we have $\operatorname{dim} X \leq \operatorname{dim} X \cup Y$ since $X \subseteq X \cup Y$. Similarly, $\operatorname{dim} Y \leq \operatorname{dim} X \cup Y$. Thus $\operatorname{dim} X \cup Y=\max \{\operatorname{dim} X, \operatorname{dim} Y\}$.

The third statement follows immediately from the second one.
Lemma 2.2.4. Let $X=\left\{v+A u: u \in \mathbb{N}^{m}\right\}$ be a linear set with $m \geq 0, v \in \mathbb{N}^{k}$ and $A \in \mathbb{N}^{k \times m}$. If $A$ has rank $m$, then $\operatorname{dim} X=m$.

Proof. Since $A$ has full rank, then the map $u \rightarrow A u$ is injective. It follows that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\phi_{X}(R) & =\mid\left\{v+A u: u \in \mathbb{N}^{m} \text { such that }\|v+A u\|_{1} \leq R\right\} \mid \\
& =\left|\left\{u \in \mathbb{N}^{m}:\|v+A u\|_{1} \leq R\right\}\right| .
\end{aligned}
$$

The triangle inequality gives us

$$
\|A u\|_{1}-\|v\|_{1} \leq\|v+A u\|_{1} \leq\|A u\|_{1}+\|v\|_{1}
$$

Let $X^{\prime}$ denote the set $\left\{A u: u \in \mathbb{N}^{m}\right\}$. We have

$$
\phi_{X^{\prime}}\left(R-\|v\|_{1}\right) \leq \phi_{X}(R) \leq \phi_{X^{\prime}}\left(R+\|v\|_{1}\right) .
$$

The matrix norm inequality gives us

$$
\|A u\|_{1} \leq\|A\|_{1}\|u\|_{1} .
$$

On the other hand, let $a_{i j}$ denote the element of $A$ located in the $i$-th row and $j$-th column. Every column of $A$ is nonzero; thus

$$
\|A u\|_{1}=\sum_{i=1}^{m} u_{i} \sum_{j=1}^{k} a_{j i} \geq \sum_{i=1}^{m} u_{i}=\|u\|_{1} .
$$

This gives us

$$
\begin{aligned}
\phi_{\mathbb{N}^{m}}\left(\frac{R}{\|A\|_{1}}\right) & =\left|\left\{u:\left|\left|A \|_{1}\right| u\right|_{1} \leq R\right\}\right| \\
& \leq\left|\left\{u:| | A u \|_{1} \leq R\right\}\right|=\phi_{X^{\prime}}(R) \\
& \leq\left|\left\{u:|u|_{1} \leq R\right\}\right|=\phi_{\mathbb{N}^{m}}(R) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus we have

$$
\frac{R^{m}}{\|A\|_{1}^{m}} \leq \phi_{X^{\prime}}(R) \leq R^{m}
$$

Thus

$$
\frac{\left(R-\|v\|_{1}\right)^{m}}{\|A\|_{1}^{m}} \leq \phi_{X}(R) \leq\left(R+\|v\|_{1}\right)^{m} .
$$

It follows immediately that $\operatorname{dim} X=m$.
Lemma 2.2.5. Let $A \in \mathbb{N}^{n \times n}$ be a square, nonsingular matrix. There exists a permutation $\sigma \in S_{n}$ such that $A_{1 \sigma(1)}, A_{2 \sigma(2)}, \ldots, A_{n \sigma(n)}$ are all nonzero.

Proof. The square matrix $A$ is nonsingular; thus $\operatorname{det}(A)=\Sigma_{\sigma \in S_{n}} \prod_{i=1}^{n} A_{i \sigma_{i}} \neq 0$. Thus $\prod_{i=1}^{n} A_{i \sigma_{i}}$ is nonzero for some $\sigma \in S_{n}$. It follows that $A_{i \sigma_{i}}$ are all nonzero for $1 \leq i \leq n$.

Lemma 2.2.6. Let $l$ be an even number. Let $Y$ denote the set

$$
\left\{(2 a, 2 b, 2 c, 2 d) \in \mathbb{N}^{4}: a<c \text { and } d<b\right\}
$$

Then $Y \cap(l \mathbb{N})^{4}$ has dimension 4 .
Proof. We can show that $Y \cap(l \mathbb{N})^{4}=\left\{v+A u: u \in \mathbb{N}^{4}\right\}$, where

$$
A=l\left(\begin{array}{cccc}
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\
1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 0
\end{array}\right)
$$

and

$$
v=\left(\begin{array}{l}
0 \\
2 \\
2 \\
0
\end{array}\right)
$$

Since $A$ is non-singular, $Y \cap(l \mathbb{N})^{4}$ has dimension 4.
Theorem 2.2.7. The intersection $L_{N A S} \cap R_{2}$ is not context-free.
Proof. We let $M$ denote the intersection $L_{N A S} \cap R_{2}$. Lemma 2.2 .1 says that the word $0^{2 a} 1^{2 b} 0^{2 c} 1^{2 d}$ is an abelian square if and only if the condition $C=((a=c) \wedge(b \geq d)) \vee((a \leq$ c) $\wedge(b=d))$ holds. Thus, we have $M=\left\{0^{2 a} 1^{2 b} 0^{2 c} 1^{2 d}: \bar{C}\right.$ holds $\}$, where $\bar{C}$ is the negation of $C$.

Suppose $M$ is context-free. By Theorem 1.3.4, $\varphi(M)=\{(2 a, 2 b, 2 c, 2 d): \bar{C}$ holds $\}$ is a finite union of linear sets with stratified periods, say $\bigcup_{i} X_{i}$, where $X_{i}=\left\{v_{i}+A_{i} u: u \in\right.$ $\left.\mathbb{N}^{m_{i}}\right\}$. Let $Y$ denote the set $\left\{(2 a, 2 b, 2 c, 2 d) \in \mathbb{N}^{4}: a<c\right.$ and $\left.d<b\right\}$. Let $T: \mathbb{N}^{4} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}^{2}$ be a map such that $T((a, b, c, d))=(a-c, d-b)$. Choose $l$ a natural number such that $l$ is divisible by both entries of $T(w)$ for each column $w$ of $A_{i}$, for all $i$.

Clearly $Y \subseteq \varphi(M)$. Thus $Y \cap(l \mathbb{N})^{4} \subseteq \varphi(M)$. By Lemma 2.2.6, $Y \cap(l \mathbb{N})^{4}$ has dimension 4. We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
Y \cap(l \mathbb{N})^{4} & =Y \cap(l \mathbb{N})^{4} \cap \varphi(M) \\
& =Y \cap(l \mathbb{N})^{4} \cap \bigcup_{i} X_{i} \\
& =\bigcup_{i}\left((l \mathbb{N})^{4} \cap X_{i}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Following Proposition 2.2.3, we see that there exists some $X_{i}$ such that $Y \cap(l \mathbb{N})^{4} \cap X_{i}$ has dimension 4. For convenience, we denote this $X_{i}$ by $X$, and the corresponding $A_{i}$ (resp., $v_{i}$ ) by $A$ (resp., $v$ ).

By Lemma 2.2.5, there are four columns $w_{1}, w_{2}, w_{3}, w_{4}$ of $A$ such that the $i$ th entry of $w_{i}$ is positive, for all $i$. For convenience, suppose $w_{i}=\left(a_{i}, b_{i}, c_{i}, d_{i}\right)$ and $T\left(w_{i}\right)=\left(x_{i}, y_{i}\right)$.

We claim that $x_{1}>0$ or $y_{4}>0$; otherwise, we have $x_{1}=a_{1}-c_{1} \leq 0$ and $y_{4}=d_{4}-b_{4} \leq 0$. It follows that $0<a_{1} \leq c$ and $0<b_{4} \leq d_{4}$. Thus, $w_{1}$ and $w_{4}$ are interleaved, contradicting the fact that the periods of $A$ form a stratified set. Thus, $x_{1}>0$ or $y_{4}>0$. Since the two cases are very similar, we assume $x_{1}>0$ and omit the other case.

Let $z=(a, b, c, d)$ be any element of $Y \cap(l \mathbb{N})^{4} \cap \varphi(M)$ and let $T(z)=(x, y)$. We have two cases, depending on whether $y_{1}>0$.

1. If $y_{1} \leq 0$ then let $z_{1}=z+\lambda_{1} w_{1}$, where $\lambda_{1}=-\frac{x}{x_{1}}$. We claim that $\lambda_{1}>0$ since $x=a-c<0$ and $x_{1}>0$. Also, $\lambda_{1} \in Z$ since $x=a-c$ is divisible by $l$ and $l$ is divisible by $x_{1}$. Thus we have $z_{1} \in X$ since $z \in X$ and we add $\lambda_{1} \in N$ copies of $w_{1}$, a period of $X$. On the other hand, we have

$$
T\left(z_{1}\right)=\left(x+\lambda_{1} x_{1}, y+\lambda_{1} y_{1}\right)=(0, \hat{y})
$$

where $\hat{y}=y+\lambda_{1} y_{1}<0$. Hence, $z_{1} \notin \varphi(M)$, and thus $z_{1} \notin X$, which leads to a contradiction.
2. If $y_{1}>0$, we define $z_{1}$ as in the previous case. We also define $z_{2}=z+\lambda_{2} w_{1}$, where $\lambda_{2}=-\frac{y}{y_{1}}$. Similarly, we can prove that $\lambda_{2} \in \mathbb{N}^{+}$. Thus we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& T\left(z_{1}\right)=\left(x+\lambda_{1} x_{1}, y+\lambda_{1} y_{1}\right)=(0, \hat{y}), \\
& T\left(z_{2}\right)=\left(x+\lambda_{2} x_{2}, y+\lambda_{2} y_{1}\right)=(\hat{x}, 0),
\end{aligned}
$$

where $\hat{x}=x+\lambda_{2} x_{1}=\frac{x y_{1}-y x_{1}}{y_{1}}$ and $\hat{y}=y+\lambda_{1} y_{1}=\frac{y x_{1}-x y_{1}}{x_{1}}$. It follows that $\hat{x} \hat{y}=$ $-\frac{\left(y x_{1}-x y_{1}\right)^{2}}{x_{1} y_{1}} \leq 0$, and thus $\hat{x} \leq 0$ or $\hat{y} \leq 0$; thus $z_{1} \notin X$ or $z_{2} \notin X$. This is a contradiction.

In both cases, we reach a contradiction. So $M$ is not context-free.

It follows immediately that

Corollary. The language $L_{N A S}$ is not context-free.
We achieved this elegant proof for the noncontext-freeness of $L_{N A S}$ by applying Schaeffer's idea. Unfortunately, we are still not able to generalize this proof to show that the language of non-abelian $k$-th powers is not context-free. However, by strengthening Schaeffer's idea, we obtain some lemmas and prove that the language of non-abelian cubes is not context-free.

### 2.3 Cubic case: A generalization

In this section we strengthen Schaeffer's technique and prove that the language of nonabelian cubes is not context-free. We begin with the definition of plane.

Let $p \in \mathbb{N}^{3}$. Let $n \in \mathbb{Z}^{3}$ be a nonzero vector. A plane $P(p, n)$ is a set of points $s \in \mathbb{N}^{3}$, such that every point $s \in P(p, n)$ satisfies the condition $(s-p) \cdot n=0$. For example, $P(\{0,0,0\},\{0,0,1\})$ gives the set of points satisfying the equation $z=0$. Let $P^{+}(p, n)=\left\{s \in \mathbb{N}^{k}:(s-p) \cdot n>0\right\}$. That is, $P^{+}$is the set of points above the plane $P$.

Proposition 2.3.1. Let $n \in \mathbb{Z}^{3}$ such that exactly one entry of $n$ is negative. Let $p \in \mathbb{N}^{3}$. Then $\operatorname{dim}(P(p, n))=2$.

Proof. For one direction, we prove that $\operatorname{dim}(P) \geq 2$. Let $p=\left(p_{1}, p_{2}, \ldots, p_{k}\right)$ and $n=$ $\left(n_{1}, n_{2}, \ldots, n_{k}\right)$. Without loss of generality, suppose $n_{1}<0$ and $n_{2}, n_{3} \geq 0$. Fix any $R>2\left(p_{1}+p_{2}+p_{3}\right)$. Let $L=2 n_{2} n_{3}-n_{1} n_{2}-n_{1} n_{3}$. Clearly $L>0$. Let $B$ denote the set $\left\{x \in \mathbb{N}^{3}:(x-p) \cdot n=0\right.$ and $\left.\|x\|_{1} \leq R\right\}$.

We claim that for any $x_{2} \in\left\{p_{2}-a n_{1} n_{3}: a \in\left[1, \frac{R}{2 L}\right]\right\}, x_{3} \in\left\{p_{3}-a n_{1} n_{2}: a \in\left[1, \frac{R}{2 L}\right]\right\}$, there exists a $x_{1} \in \mathbb{N}$, such that $\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}\right) \in B$. For any such $x_{2}, x_{3}$, i.e., $x_{2}=p_{2}-$ $a_{2} n_{1} n_{3}, x_{3}=p_{3}-a_{3} n_{1} n_{2}$, where $a_{2}, a_{3} \in\left[1, \frac{R}{2 L}\right]$, we let $x_{1}=p_{1}+\left(a_{2}+a_{3}\right) n_{2} n_{3}$. It is easy to verify that $\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}\right) \in B$. Thus, we have $\phi_{P}(R)=|B| \geq \frac{R^{2}}{4 L^{2}}$. Thus $\operatorname{dim}(P) \geq 2$.

For the other direction we prove $\operatorname{dim}(P) \leq 2$. We fix any $x_{1}, x_{2} \in \mathbb{N}^{3}$ such that $x_{1}+x_{2} \leq R$. There exists at most one $x_{3}$ such that $\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}\right) \in B$. Thus, we have $\phi_{P}(R)=|B| \leq \phi_{\mathbb{N}^{2}}(R)$. Thus $\operatorname{dim}(P) \leq 2$.

Finally we conclude from these two directions that $\operatorname{dim}(P)=2$.

Lemma 2.3.2. Let $P_{1}=P\left(v_{1}, n_{1}\right)$ and $P_{2}=P\left(v_{2}, n_{2}\right)$ be two planes. Let $X=\bigcup_{i} X_{i}$ where $X_{1}, X_{2}, \ldots, X_{k}$ are linear sets such that

1. The set $P_{1}^{+} \cap P_{2}^{+} \subseteq X$.
2. The plane $P_{1} \cap X=\emptyset$.
3. The plane $P_{2} \cap X=\emptyset$.

Let $T_{1}$ be a set of points $p$ such that $\left(p-v_{1}\right) \cdot n_{1}$ is divisible by $w \cdot n_{1}$ for every column of $X_{i}$, for all $i$. Similarly, let $T_{2}$ be a set of points $p$ such that $\left(p-v_{2}\right) \cdot n_{2}$ is divisible by $w \cdot n_{2}$ for every column of $X_{i}$, for all $i$.

Then for any $X_{i}=\left\{v_{i}+A_{i} u: u \in \mathbb{N}^{m_{i}}\right\}$ with $X_{i} \cap P_{1}^{+} \cap P_{2}^{+} \cap T_{1} \cap T_{2} \neq \emptyset$, every column $w$ of $A_{i}$ satisfies the conditions $w \cdot n_{1} \geq 0$ and $w \cdot n_{2} \geq 0$.

Proof. We give a proof for the first condition, i.e., for any $X_{i}=\left\{v_{i}+A_{i} u: u \in \mathbb{N}^{m_{i}}\right\}$ with $X_{i} \cap S \cap T \neq \emptyset$, every column $w$ of $A_{i}$ satisfies the condition $w \cdot n_{1} \geq 0$. The proof for the second condition is omitted since it is quite similar to the first one. For convenience, we let $T=T_{1} \cap T_{2}$ and $S=P_{1}^{+} \cap P_{2}^{+}$.

Suppose there exists some $X_{i}$ with $X_{i} \cap S \cap T \neq \emptyset$ such that some column $w$ of $A_{i}$ satisfies the condition $w \cdot n_{1}<0$. We pick any $z \in X_{i} \cap S \cap T$. Let $z^{\prime}=z+\lambda w$, where $\lambda=-\frac{\left(z-v_{1}\right) \cdot n_{1}}{w \cdot n_{1}}$. We first claim that $\lambda>0$. This is because $w \cdot n_{1}<0$ and $\left(z-v_{1}\right) \cdot n_{1}>0$ since $z \in P_{1}^{+}$. We also observe that $\left(z-v_{1}\right) \cdot n_{1}$ is divisible by $w \cdot n_{1} \operatorname{since} z \in T_{1}$. Thus $z \in \mathbb{N}^{+}$. It follows that $z^{\prime} \in X_{i}$. However, we can show that $\left(z^{\prime}-v_{1}\right) \cdot n_{1}=0$, which implies that $z^{\prime} \in P_{1}$. This leads to a contradiction since $P_{1} \cap X_{i}=\emptyset$. Thus, we conclude that for every $X_{i}$ with $X_{i} \cap S \cap T \neq \emptyset$, every column $w$ of $A_{i}$ satisfies the condition $w \cdot n_{1} \geq 0$.

Let $R_{3}=0^{*} 1^{*} 0^{*} 1^{*} 0^{*}$ be a regular language. Again, we try to prove that $L_{N A C} \cap R_{3}$ is not context-free. Since $R_{3}$ is a bounded language, we will show that the Parikh set of $L_{N A C} \cap R_{3}$ is not a finite union of linear sets with stratified periods. For convenience, let $M=L_{N A C} \cap R_{3}$.
Lemma 2.3.3. The word $w=0^{a} 1^{b} 0^{c} 1^{d} 0^{e}$ is an abelian cube if and only if one of the conditions $C_{1}, C_{2}, C_{3}$ is satisfied, where

$$
\begin{aligned}
& C_{1}:(a=c=e) \wedge(b \leq 2 d) \wedge(d \leq 2 b) \\
& C_{2}:(a \leq c) \wedge(2 a=c+e) \wedge(b=2 d) \\
& C_{3}:(e \leq c) \wedge(a+c=2 e) \wedge(d=2 b)
\end{aligned}
$$

Here we omit the proof and just list the three possible factorizations of $w$ as an abelian cube. The three possible factorizations (which correspond to the above three conditions respectively) are:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 0^{a} 1^{b_{1}} \cdot 1^{b_{2}} 0^{c} 1^{d_{1}} \cdot 1^{d_{2}} 0^{e} \\
& 0^{{ }^{b_{1}}} \cdot 1^{b_{2}} 0^{c_{1}} \cdot 1^{c_{2}} 1^{d} 0^{e} \\
& 0^{a} 1^{b} 0^{c_{1}} \cdot 0^{c_{2}} 1^{d_{1}} \cdot 1^{d_{2}} 0^{e}
\end{aligned}
$$

Let $M^{\prime}$ denote the language $\left\{0^{a} 1^{c} 2^{e}: \overline{C^{\prime}}\right.$ holds. $\}$, where $C^{\prime}$ is the condition $(a=c=$ e) $\vee((a \leq c) \wedge(2 a=c+e)) \vee((e \leq c) \wedge(a+c=2 e))$ and $\overline{C^{\prime}}$ is the negation of $C^{\prime}$.

Lemma 2.3.4. If $L_{N A C}$ is context-free, then $M^{\prime}$ is context-free.
Proof. If $L_{N A C}$ is context-free, so is $M$ by Proposition 1.3.1. Then, we construct a finitestate transducer converting $M$ to $M^{\prime}$. This transducer removes all 1's in the input, and converts each 0 to 1 (resp., 2) in the second (resp., third) block of 0 . By Proposition 1.3.2, $M^{\prime}$ is context-free.

With Lemma 2.3.4, it suffices to show that $M^{\prime}$ is not context-free. We tried to apply Schaeffer's idea to prove $M^{\prime}$ is not context-free; however, it doesn't thoroughly solve the problem. Schaeffer's technique finds certain linear set ( $X$ as in Theorem 2.2.7) and on the other hand shows this set is not linear, which leads to a contradiction. We alter Schaeffer's technique by showing directly that $M^{\prime}$ cannot be a finite union of linear sets with stratified periods.

Theorem 2.3.5. The language $M^{\prime}$ is not context-free.
Proof. Suppose $M^{\prime}$ is context-free. By Theorem 1.3.4, $\varphi\left(M^{\prime}\right)$ is a finite union of linear sets with stratified periods, say $\bigcup_{i} X_{i}$, where $X_{i}=\left\{v_{i}+A_{i} u: u \in \mathbb{N}^{m_{i}}\right\}$. Let $P_{1}=P\left(\mathbf{0}, n_{1}\right)$ and $P_{2}=P\left(\mathbf{0}, n_{2}\right)$ be two planes, where $\mathbf{0}$ denotes $\{0,0,0\}, n_{1}=\{1,1,-2\}$ and $n_{2}=\{-2,1,1\}$. Let $S^{+}=P_{1}^{+} \cap P_{2}^{+}$. It is easy to verify that the following three conditions hold:

1. $S^{+} \subseteq \varphi\left(M^{\prime}\right)$.
2. $P_{1} \cap \varphi\left(M^{\prime}\right)=\emptyset$.
3. $P_{2} \cap \varphi\left(M^{\prime}\right)=\emptyset$.

Choose $l$ a natural number such that if $w$ is a column of $A_{i}$ (for any $i$ ) then both $w \cdot n_{1}$ and $w \cdot n_{2}$ divides $l$. Let $T=(l \mathbb{N})^{3}$. By Lemma 2.3.2, for any $X_{i}$ with $X_{i} \cap S^{+} \cap T \neq \emptyset$, every column $w$ of $X_{i}$ satisfies the condition $w \cdot n_{1} \geq 0$ and $w \cdot n_{2} \geq 0$.

Choose any $v \in S^{+}$which minimizes $v \cdot n_{1}$. We name this $v$ by $\hat{v}$. Note that $\hat{v}$ exists since every $v \in P_{1}$ satisfies that $v \cdot n_{1}>0$.

Let $P^{\prime}=P\left(\hat{v}, n_{1}\right)$ be a plane. Let $W=P^{\prime} \cap P_{2}^{+} \cap T$. Clearly $W \subseteq S^{+}$. By slightly altering Proposition 2.3.1, we can see that $\operatorname{dim}(W)=2$. We also observe that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{dim}\left(W \cap \varphi\left(M^{\prime}\right)\right) & =\operatorname{dim}\left(W \cap \bigcup_{i} X_{i}\right) \\
& =\operatorname{dim}\left(\bigcup_{i}\left(W \cap X_{i}\right)\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

By Proposition 2.2.3, there exists some $X_{i}$ such that $\operatorname{dim}\left(W \cap X_{i}\right)=\operatorname{dim}(W)=2$. Then $\operatorname{dim}\left(P^{\prime} \cap X_{i}\right)=2$. Let $x \in P^{\prime} \cap X_{i}$. We have $(x-\hat{v}) \cdot n_{1}=0$ and there exists $u \in \mathbb{N}^{3}$ such that $x=A_{i} u+v_{i}$. Hence, $\left(A_{i} u+v_{i}-\hat{v}\right) \cdot n_{1}=0$, which implies $\left(A_{i} u\right) \cdot n_{1}=\hat{v} \cdot n-v_{1} \cdot n$. By the definition of $\hat{v}$ we immediately get that $\hat{v} \cdot n-v_{1} \cdot n \leq 0$; thus

$$
\left(A_{i} u\right) \cdot n_{1} \leq 0
$$

On the other hand, let $a_{1}, a_{2}, \cdots, a_{k}$ be the column vectors of $A_{i}$. Then $\left(A_{i} u\right) \cdot n_{1}=$ $\sum_{j=1}^{k} u_{j} a_{j} \cdot n_{1}$. Since every column $a$ of $X_{i}$ satisfies the condition $a \cdot n_{1} \geq 0$, we obtain the inequality

$$
\left(A_{i} u\right) \cdot n_{1} \geq 0
$$

Thus we have $\sum_{j=1}^{k} u_{j} a_{j} \cdot n_{1}=0$. It follows that for any $1 \leq j \leq k$ if $a_{j} \cdot n_{1} \neq 0$, then $u_{j}=0$.

Let $I$ denote the set of columns vectors $a_{j}$ of $A_{i}$ such that $a_{j} \cdot n_{1}=0$. Let $a=(b, c, d)$ be any element in $I$. Then $b+c=2 d$. Since the column vectors of $A_{i}$ form a stratified linear set, at least one of $b, c, d$ is zero. If $b=0$, then $c=2 d$ and $a=s(0,2,1)$ for some $s>0$. If $c=0$, then $b=2 d$; thus $a \cdot n_{2}=-2 b+c+d<0$, which leads to a contradiction. The element $d$ cannot vanish since otherwise $a$ vanishes. Thus, for any $j \in I$ we have $a_{j}=s_{j}(0,2,1)$ for some $s_{j}>0$.

Now we consider $\operatorname{dim}\left(P^{\prime} \cap X_{i}\right)$. It is easy to see that

$$
P^{\prime} \cap X_{i}=\left\{A u+v_{i}: u_{j}=0 \text { for } j \notin I\right\} .
$$

Thus, we can show that any $x \in P^{\prime} \cap X_{i}$ can be written in the form $v_{i}+s(0,2,1)$ for some $s>0$. It follows immediately that $\operatorname{dim}\left(P^{\prime} \cap X_{i}\right) \leq 1$ which contradicts the fact that $\operatorname{dim}\left(P^{\prime} \cap X_{i}\right)=2$.

Finally, we obtain that $M^{\prime}$ is not context-free.
By Theorem 2.3.5, $M^{\prime}$ is not context-free. So $L_{N A C} \cap R_{3}$ is not context-free. Thus, Corollary. $L_{N A C}$ is not context-free.

## Chapter 3

## Representable sets of words of equal length

This chapter primarily discusses representability of set of words of equal length. We focus on the binary alphabet in this chapter. Let $\Sigma=\{0,1\}$. Recall that $\stackrel{\circ}{R}_{n}$ is the number of circularly representable subsets of $\Sigma^{n}$. Much of the content of this chapter is taken verbatim from our paper [20]

### 3.1 Bounds on the size of $\stackrel{\circ}{R}$

In this section, we give lower and upper bounds on the size of $\stackrel{R}{R}_{n}$, both of which are of the form $\alpha^{2^{n}}$. Our lower bound has $\alpha=\sqrt{2}$ while our upper bound has $\alpha=\sqrt[4]{10}$. Note that our lower bound also works for the size of $R_{n}$, since every circularly representable subset is also representable.

### 3.1.1 Lower bound

Our argument for the lower bound derives from constructing a set of circularly representable subsets.

Proposition 3.1.1. Let $b_{n}$ be any de Bruijn word of order $n$. Then $\left|C_{n+1}\left(b_{n}\right)\right|=2^{n}$.
Proof. Every de Bruijn word of order $n$ is of length $2^{n}$; thus there are $2^{n}$ length- $(n+1)$ factors of $b_{n}$ (considered circularly). These length- $(n+1)$ factors are pairwise distinct, for
if $w \in \Sigma^{n+1}$ appears more than once as a factor of $b_{n}$, then $w[1 . . n]$ appears more than once as a factor of $b_{n}$. However, every length- $n$ factor appears only once in $b_{n}$, a contradiction. Hence $\left|C_{n+1}\left(b_{n}\right)\right|=2^{n}$.

Lemma 3.1.2. Given a de Bruijn word $b_{n}$, let $Y$ denote the set $\Sigma^{n+1} \backslash C_{n+1}\left(b_{n}\right)$. For any $y \in Y$, the set $\{y\} \cup C_{n+1}\left(b_{n}\right)$ is circularly witnessed by a word $w$ for which both the length $-2^{n}$ prefix and the length $-2^{n}$ suffix equal $b_{n}$.

Proof. We construct such a witness for $\{y\} \cup C_{n+1}\left(b_{n}\right)$.
Let $w=b_{n} b_{n} b_{n} b_{n}$. Let $y_{1}=y[1 . . n]$ and $y_{2}=y[2 . . n+1]$. Let $i_{1}$ denote the index of the first occurrence of $y_{1}$ in $w$; namely, the index $i_{1}$ is the minimal integer such that $y_{1}=w\left[i_{1} . . i_{1}+n-1\right]$. Let $i_{2}$ denote the index of the last occurrence of $y_{2}$ in $w$; namely, the index $i_{2}$ is the maximal integer such that $y_{2}=w\left[i_{2} . . i_{2}+n-1\right]$.

We argue that the first occurrence of $y_{1}$ does not overlap the last occurrence of $y_{2}$. We have $i_{1} \leq 2^{n}$, since every possible factor of length $n$ appears in the circular word $b_{n}$. Similarly, we obtain $i_{2}>3 \cdot 2^{n}-n$. Thus we have

$$
i_{1}+n-1-i_{2}<-2 \cdot 2^{n}+2 n-1<0
$$

and hence the first occurrence of $y_{1}$ does not overlap the last occurrence of $y_{2}$.
Now consider the circular word

$$
w_{y}=b_{n} b_{n} w\left[1 . . i_{1}-1\right] w\left[i_{1} . . i_{1}+n-1\right] w\left[i_{2}+n-1\right] w\left[i_{2}+n . .2^{n+2}\right] b_{n} b_{n} .
$$

We argue that $w_{y}$ is a witness for $\{y\} \cup C_{n+1}\left(b_{n}\right)$. For one direction, every element of $\{y\} \cup C_{n+1}\left(b_{n}\right)$ appears as a length- $(n+1)$ factor of $w_{y}$. This is a consequence of the following two facts:

1. $b_{n} b_{n}$ witnesses $C_{n+1}\left(b_{n}\right)$.
2. $w\left[i_{1} . . i_{1}+n-1\right] w\left[i_{2}+n-1\right]=y[1 . . n] y[n+1]=y$.

For the other direction, we can see that all factors of length $n+1$ in $w_{y}$ are elements of $\{y\} \cup C_{n+1}\left(b_{n}\right)$ by inspection. Note that the length- $2^{n}$ prefix and the length- $2^{n}$ suffix of $w_{y}$ both equal $b_{n}$. Hence we conclude that there exists a word for which the prefix and the suffix equal $b_{n}$ and this circular word circularly witnesses $\{y\} \cup C_{n+1}\left(b_{n}\right)$.

As an example, we let $n=2$. One of the de Bruijn words of order 2 is $b_{2}=0011$. We have $C_{3}\left(b_{2}\right)=\{001,011,110,100\}$. Thus $Y=\{000,010,101,111\}$. Let $y=010$. The following circular word demonstrates that the set $\{y\} \cup C_{n+1}\left(b_{n}\right)$ is representable:

$$
w_{010}=(\underbrace{00110011}_{b_{2} b_{2}})(\underbrace{0}_{w\left[1 . . i_{1}-1\right]})(\underbrace{01}_{w\left[i_{1} . . i_{1}+n-1\right]=y_{1}})(\underbrace{0}_{w\left[i_{2}+n-1\right]})(\underbrace{011}_{w\left[i_{2}+n . .2^{n+2}\right]})(\underbrace{00110011}_{b_{2} b_{2}}) .
$$

Proposition 3.1.3. Given a de Bruijn word $b_{n}$, let $Y$ denote the set $\Sigma^{n+1} \backslash C_{n+1}\left(b_{n}\right)$. For any subset $S \subseteq Y$, the set $S \cup C_{n+1}\left(b_{n}\right)$ is a circularly representable subset of $\Sigma^{n+1}$.

Proof. We have proved this proposition for the case where $|S|=1$ by Lemma 3.1.2. Now we turn to the general case. Let $S=\left\{s_{1}, s_{2}, \ldots, s_{m}\right\}$. By Lemma 3.1.2, for each $1 \leq i \leq m$, there exists a circular word $w_{i}$ that witnesses $\left\{s_{i}\right\} \cup C_{n+1}\left(b_{n}\right)$ and both the prefix and the suffix of $w_{i}$ equal $b_{n}$. We argue that the circular word $w_{S}=w_{1} w_{2} \cdots w_{m}$ witnesses $S \cup C_{n+1}\left(b_{n}\right)$.

First, for any $1 \leq i \leq m, s_{i}$ appears in $w_{i}$ and thus in $w_{S}$. Moreover, every element of $C_{n+1}\left(b_{n}\right)$ appears in the prefix of $w_{S}: b_{n} b_{n}$. Thus, it suffices to show that every length$(n+1)$ factor of $w_{S}$ is a member of $S \cup C_{n+1}\left(b_{n}\right)$. This is shown by the fact that for any $1 \leq i<m$, both the suffix of $w_{i}$ and the prefix of $w_{i+1}$ equal $b_{n}$, which implies that the concatenation of $t_{i}$ and $t_{i+1}$ does not produce any new factor of length $n+1$ in $w_{S}$.

Thus, we conclude that for any subset $S$ of $Y$, there exists a witness for the set $S \cup$ $C_{n+1}\left(b_{n}\right)$.
Corollary. A lower bound for the size of $\stackrel{\circ}{R}_{n+1}$ is $2^{2^{n}}=\sqrt{2}^{2^{n+1}}$.

### 3.1.2 Upper bound

An obvious upper bound for $\left|\mathscr{R}_{n}\right|$ is $2^{2^{n}}$, since $\stackrel{\circ}{R}_{n} \subseteq 2^{\Sigma^{n}}$, where $\left|2^{\Sigma^{n}}\right|=2^{2^{n}}$. In this section, we will show that a tighter upper bound is $\alpha^{2^{n}}$, where $\alpha=\sqrt[4]{10}$.

Let $S \subseteq \Sigma^{n+1}$ and $T \subseteq \Sigma^{n}$. We say that $S$ is incident on $T$ if there exists a circular word $w$ such that $w$ witnesses both $S$ and $T$. For example, we fix $n=3$. Let $w=0110$. Then $w$ is a witness for the set $S=\{0110,1100,1001,0011\} \in \stackrel{\circ}{R}_{4}$ and $T=\{011,110,100,001\} \in \stackrel{\circ}{R}_{3}$. It follows that $S$ is incident on $T$. Note that $w^{\prime}=01100110$ is also a witness for $S$, and a witness for $T$ as well.

In fact we can argue that if $S$ is incident on $T$, then every word that witnesses $S$ also witnesses $T$.

Proposition 3.1.4. Every set $S \in \stackrel{\circ}{R}_{n+1}$ is incident on exactly one set in $\stackrel{\circ}{R}_{n}$.
Proof. Let

$$
T=\left\{t \in \Sigma^{n}: \exists w \in S \text { such that } t \text { is a length- } n \text { prefix or suffix of } w\right\}
$$

Then a word $w$ which witnesses $S$ also witnesses $T$. Thus $S$ is incident on $T$. Moreover, if $S$ is incident on $T$ and $T^{\prime}$, then every witness of $S$ must also witness $T$ and $T^{\prime}$. Thus we have $T=T^{\prime}$. So we conclude that every set $S \in \stackrel{R}{R}_{n+1}$ is incident on exactly one set in $\stackrel{\circ}{R}_{n}$.

Now we give a partition of $\stackrel{\circ}{R}_{n+1}$. Let

$$
\stackrel{\circ}{R}_{n+1}[T]=\left\{S \in \stackrel{\circ}{R}_{n+1}: S \text { is incident on } T\right\} .
$$

Proposition 3.1.4 implies that $\left\{\stackrel{\circ}{R}_{n+1}[T]\right\}_{T \subseteq \Sigma^{n}}$ is a pairwise disjoint partition of the set $\stackrel{\circ}{R}_{n+1}$. Namely, (1) for every $T_{1} \neq T_{2}$, we have $\stackrel{\circ}{R}_{n+1}\left[T_{1}\right] \cap \stackrel{\circ}{R}_{n+1}\left[T_{2}\right]=\emptyset$ and (2) $\bigcup_{T \in \dot{R}_{n}} \stackrel{\circ}{R}_{n+1}[T]=$ $\stackrel{\circ}{R}_{n+1}$.

Thus we have $\left|\stackrel{\circ}{R}_{n+1}\right|=\sum_{T \subseteq \Sigma^{n}}\left|\stackrel{\circ}{R}_{n+1}[T]\right|$. So to give an upper bound for $\left|\stackrel{\circ}{R}_{n+1}\right|$, it suffices to give a upper bound for the size of $\stackrel{\circ}{R}_{n+1}[T]$.

Let $x$ be a word of length $n$. We say that $P_{x}=\{0 x, 1 x\}$ is a pair of order $n$ w.r.t. $x$, that $S_{x}=\{0 x, 1 x, x 0, x 1\}$ is a skeleton of order $n$ w.r.t. $x$, and $N_{x}=\{0 x 0,0 x 1,1 x 0,1 x 1\}$ is a net of order $n$ w.r.t. $x$. We also say that a set $S$ contains $P_{x}$ (resp., $S_{x}$ and $N_{x}$ ) if $P_{x} \subseteq S$ (resp., $S_{x} \subseteq S$ and $N_{x} \subseteq S$ ).

For any $T \subseteq \Sigma^{n}$, let $\sigma(T)$ denote the number of skeletons of order $n-1$ in $T$ and let $\rho(T)$ denote the number of pairs of order $n-1$ in $T$. We have the following proposition:
Proposition 3.1.5. For any $T \subseteq \Sigma^{n}$, we have $\left|\AA_{n+1}[T]\right| \leq 7^{\sigma(T)}$.
Before giving the proof for Proposition 3.1.5, we introduce another definition.
We say that a set $R$ is feasible for a set $T \subseteq \Sigma^{n}$ if there exists $S \in \stackrel{\circ}{R}_{n+1}[T]$ such that $R \subseteq S$.

We observe that $\Sigma^{n+1}=\bigcup_{x \in \Sigma^{n-1}} N_{x}$ and thus any subset $S \subseteq \Sigma^{n+1}$ is a disjoint union of subsets of nets of order $n-1$. Formally, for any subset $S \subseteq \Sigma^{n+1}$, we have $S=\bigcup_{x \in \Sigma^{n-1}} R_{x}$, where $R_{x} \subseteq N_{x}$.

Proof of Proposition 3.1.5. Let $F_{x}$ denote the set of feasible subsets (for $T$ ) of the net $N_{x}$. If $S \in R_{n+1}[T]$, then $S$ is a disjoint union of feasible subsets (for $T$ ) of nets. Thus we have $\left|R_{n+1}[T]\right| \leq \prod_{x \in \Sigma^{n}}\left|F_{x}\right|$. In order to prove this proposition, it now suffices to show that for any $x \in \Sigma^{n-1}$, the following condition holds.

- if $S_{x} \subseteq T$, then $\left|F_{x}\right| \leq 7$;
- otherwise $\left|F_{x}\right| \leq 1$.

For any $x \in \Sigma^{n-1}$, we consider all the possible feasible subsets of $N_{x}$. Let $F$ denote any feasible subset of $N_{x}$.

- For the first case where $S_{x} \subseteq T$, we have the following properties:

1. Either $0 x 0 \in F$ or $0 x 1 \in F$ since $0 x \in T$;
2. Either $1 x 0 \in F$ or $1 x 1 \in F$ since $1 x \in T$;
3. Either $0 x 0 \in F$ or $1 x 0 \in F$ since $x 0 \in T$;
4. Either $0 x 1 \in F$ or $1 x 1 \in F$ since $x 1 \in T$.

Hence we have at most 7 possible feasible subsets of $N_{x}$ which are listed as follows: $\{0 x 0,1 x 1\},\{0 x 0,0 x 1,1 x 1\},\{0 x 0,1 x 0,1 x 1\},\{0 x 0,0 x 1,1 x 0,1 x 1\},\{0 x 0,0 x 1,1 x 0\}$, $\{0 x 1,1 x 0\},\{0 x 1,1 x 0,1 x 1\}$. Thus $\left|F_{x}\right| \leq 7$.

- For the second case where $S_{x} \nsubseteq T$, we argue that $\left|F_{x}\right| \leq 1$. Without loss of generality, suppose $0 x \notin T$. It follows that:

1. $0 x 0$ and $0 x 1$ cannot occur in $F$ since $0 x \notin T$;
2. $1 x 0 \in F$ if and only if $x 0 \in T$;
3. $1 x 1 \in F$ if and only if $x 1 \in T$;

Hence, $F$ is fixed. It follows that $\left|F_{x}\right| \leq 1$.
By finishing the argument on the above two cases, we conclude that $\left|\stackrel{\circ}{R}_{n+1}[T]\right| \leq 7^{\sigma(T)}$.

Now, we are close to the core part. Instead of computing the number of skeletons, which is quite complex, we consider the number of pairs.

Proposition 3.1.6. The size of the set $\left|\AA_{n+1}\right|$ is bounded by $10^{2^{n-1}}$.
Proof. Let $L_{k, i}$ denote the number of subsets $T \in \stackrel{\circ}{R}_{n}$, such that $|T|=k$ and $\rho(T)=i$. There are in total $2^{n-1}$ pairs in $\Sigma^{n}$, and we first choose $i$ pairs from them. Then, we choose the other $k-2 i$ elements which do not form any pair from the remaining $2^{n}-2 i$ elements (which forms $2^{n-1}-i$ pairs); it is equivalent to pick $k-2 i$ pairs from the remaining $2^{n-1}-i$ pairs and randomly choose one element from each selected pair. Thus, we have

$$
L_{k, i}=\binom{2^{n-1}}{i}\binom{2^{n-1}-i}{k-2 i} 2^{k-2 i}
$$

Note that $k \geq 2 i$ since a set of $k$ elements can contain at most $\left\lfloor\frac{k}{2}\right\rfloor$ pairs and the term $L_{k, i}$ vanishes when $k-2 i>2^{n-1}-i$. Thus we have

$$
\left|\stackrel{\circ}{R}_{n+1}\right|=\sum_{T \subseteq \Sigma^{n}}\left|\stackrel{\circ}{R}_{n+1}[T]\right| \leq \sum_{k=0}^{2^{n}} \sum_{i=0}^{\left\lfloor\frac{k}{2}\right\rfloor} L_{k, i} 7^{i} .
$$

The inequality holds since we count the number of pairs instead of the number of skeletons and the number of pairs is always greater than or equal to the number of skeletons. Then we can see that

$$
\left|\stackrel{\circ}{R}_{n+1}\right| \leq \sum_{k=0}^{2^{n}} \sum_{i=0}^{\left\lfloor\frac{k}{2}\right\rfloor}\binom{2^{n-1}}{i}\binom{2^{n-1}-i}{k-2 i} 2^{k-2 i} 7^{i} \leq \sum_{i=0}^{2^{n-1}}\binom{2^{n-1}}{i} 7^{i} \sum_{k=2 i}^{2^{n}}\binom{2^{n-1}-i}{k-2 i} 2^{k-2 i}
$$

by writing $L_{k, i}$ in closed form. Note that

$$
\sum_{k=2 i}^{2^{n}}\binom{2^{n-1}-i}{k-2 i} 2^{k-2 i}=\sum_{k=0}^{2^{n}-2 i}\binom{2^{n-1}-i}{k} 2^{k}=\sum_{k=0}^{2^{n-1}-i}\binom{2^{n-1}-i}{k} 2^{k}=3^{2^{n-1}-i}
$$

So we have

$$
\left|\stackrel{\circ}{R}_{n+1}\right| \leq \sum_{i=0}^{2^{n-1}}\binom{2^{n-1}}{i} 7^{i} 3^{2^{n-1}-i}=10^{2^{n-1}}
$$

Proposition 3.1.6 directly implies the upper bound we claimed in the beginning of this section.

### 3.2 Shortest witness

Recall that $\mu_{n}$ (resp., $\nu_{n}$ ) is the maximum length of the shortest non-circular witness (resp., circular witness) over all subsets of $\Sigma^{n}$. The quantities of $\mu_{n}$ and $\nu_{n}$ are of interest since we can enumerate all sequences of length less than or equal to $\mu_{n}$ (resp., $\nu_{n}$ ) in order to list all the representable (resp., circularly representable) subsets of $\Sigma^{n}$. In this section we obtain an upper bound on $\mu_{n}$ and $\nu_{n}$.

We need the following result of Hamidoune [11, Prop. 2.1]. Since the result is littleknown and has apparently not appeared in English, we give the proof here. By a Hamiltonian walk we mean a closed walk, possibly repeating vertices and edges, that visits every vertex.
Proposition 3.2.1. Let $G=(V, E)$ be a directed graph on $n$ vertices. If $G$ is strongly connected (that is, if there is a directed path from every vertex to every vertex), then there is a Hamiltonian walk of length at most $\left\lfloor(n+1)^{2} / 4\right\rfloor$. Furthermore, this bound is best possible.

Proof. Let $L$ be a longest simple path in $G$. (A simple path does not repeat edges or vertices.) Let $V-L=\left\{v_{i}: 1 \leq i \leq k\right\}$. Let $v_{0}$ be the last vertex in $L$ and $v_{k+1}$ be the first vertex in $L$. Let $L_{i}$ be a simple path from $v_{i}$ to $v_{i+1}$. Then a Hamiltonian walk $W$ is obtained by following the edges in $L_{0}, L_{1}, \ldots, L_{k}$, and then those in $L$. So the number of edges in $W$ is at most $(k+2)|L|=|L|(n+1-|L|)$. But it is easy to see that $r(n+1-r)$ is maximized when $r=\lceil n / 2\rceil$, so $r(n+1-r)=\left\lfloor(n+1)^{2} / 4\right\rfloor$, as claimed.

To see that this bound is best possible, consider a graph where there is a directed chain of $\lfloor n / 2\rfloor$ vertices, where the last vertex has a directed edge to $\lceil n / 2\rceil$ other vertices, and each of those vertices have a single directed edge back to the start of the chain. The shortest walk covering all the vertices traverses the chain, then an edge to one of the other vertices, then a single edge back, and repeats this $\lceil n / 2\rceil$ times. The total length is then $(\lfloor n / 2\rfloor+1)\lceil n / 2\rceil=\left\lfloor(n+1)^{2} / 4\right\rfloor$. So the bound is tight.

From this we immediately get
Proposition 3.2.2. An upper bound for $\mu_{n}$ and $\nu_{n}$ is $2^{2 n-2}+2^{n-1}$.

### 3.3 Fixed-length witnesses

Restriction on the length of a witness leads us to another interesting problem. Let $T(t, n)$ denote the number of subsets of $\{0,1\}^{n}$ witnessed by some word of length $t \geq n$. Is there
any characterization of $T(t, n)$ ? We focus on ordinary (non-circular) words for this question and derive a closed-form formula for $T(t, n)$ in the case where $n \leq t<2 n$.

In order to compute $T(t, n)$, we consider the number of words that witness the same subset of $\Sigma^{n}$. Suppose $S \subseteq \Sigma^{n}$. Let $C_{t}(S)$ denote the number of words of length $t$ that witness $S$. Then we have

$$
T(t, n)=2^{t}-\sum_{\substack{S \subseteq \Sigma^{n} \\ C_{t}(S)>1}}\left(C_{t}(S)-1\right)
$$

It suffices to characterize what subsets $S$ satisfy $C_{t}(S)>1$ and to determine $C_{t}(S)$.
For $t<2 n$, we have such a characterization by Theorem 3.3.1 below. Before stating the theorem, we first introduce some notation.

Let $w$ be a word. Let $\operatorname{Pref}(w)$ denote the set of prefixes of $w$. A period $p$ of $w$ is a positive integer such that $w$ can be factorized as

$$
w=s^{k} s^{\prime}, \text { with }|s|=p, s^{\prime} \in \operatorname{Pref}(s), \text { and } k \geq 1
$$

Let $\pi(w)$ denote the minimal period of $w$.
The root of a word $w$ is the prefix of $w$ with length $\pi(w)$. Let $r(w)$ denote the root of $w$. Two words $w$ and $w^{\prime}$ are conjugate if there exist $u, v \in \Sigma^{*}$ such that $w=u v$ and $w^{\prime}=v u ; w$ and $w^{\prime}$ are root-conjugate if their roots $r(w)$ and $r\left(w^{\prime}\right)$ are conjugate.

The following theorem is crucial for our work and of independent interest.
Theorem 3.3.1. Let $t, n, k$ be such that $t=n+k, n \geq k+1$, and $k \geq 0$. Let $w$ and $w^{\prime}$ be distinct words of length $t$ over an arbitrary alphabet. Then $F_{n}(w)=F_{n}\left(w^{\prime}\right)$ iff $\pi(w)=\pi\left(w^{\prime}\right) \leq k+1$ and $w, w^{\prime}$ are root-conjugate.

One direction is easy: if $w$ and $w^{\prime}$ are root-conjugate with period $p \leq k+1$, then there are $p$ places to begin, and considering consecutive factors of length $n+p-1$ gives exactly $p$ distinct length- $n$ factors.

For the other direction, we need three lemmas.
Lemma 3.3.2. (Fine-Wilf theorem [8, Theorem 1]) Let $w_{1}, w_{2}$ be two words. If $w_{1}$ and $w_{2}$ have a common prefix of length $\pi\left(w_{1}\right)+\pi\left(w_{2}\right)-1$, then $r\left(w_{1}\right)=r\left(w_{2}\right)$.

Lemma 3.3.3. For any $w \in \Sigma^{+}$, if there exists a factorization $w=x y z$ such that $x y=y z$ and $x, y, z \in \Sigma^{+}$, then $w$ is periodic with $\pi(w) \leq|x|$.

Proof. By the Lyndon-Schützenberger theorem [15, Lemma 2], there exist $u \in \Sigma^{+}, v \in \Sigma^{*}$ and an integer $e \geq 0$ such that $x=u v, y=(u v)^{e} u, z=v u$. Thus $w=(u v)^{e+2} u$. Thus $w$ is periodic with $\pi(w) \leq|x|$.

Lemma 3.3.4. Let $t, n, k$ be integers such that $t=n+k, n \geq k+1$, and $k \geq 0$. Let $w$ be a word of length $t$ with $\pi(w) \leq k+1$. If $w^{\prime}$ is any word such that $F_{n}(w)=F_{n}\left(w^{\prime}\right)$, then $w$ and $w^{\prime}$ are root-conjugate.

Carpi and de Luca proved a stronger proposition [4, Proposition 6.2] which directly implies this lemma. We first introduce some relevant notation from that paper.

A factor $s$ of a word $w$ is said to be right-special in $w$ if there exist two distinct symbols $a$ and $b$ such that $s a$ and $s b$ are factors of $w$. Let $R_{w}$ denote the minimal length $m$ such that there exists no factor of length $m$ that is right-special.

A factor $s$ of a word $w$ is said to be right-extendable (resp., left-extendable) in $w$ if there exists a symbol $a$ such that $s a$ is a factor of $w$ (resp., as is a factor of $w$ ). Let $K_{w}$ and $H_{w}$ denote the length of the shortest factor which is not right-extendable (resp., left-extendable).

A word is semiperiodic if $R_{w}<H_{w}$.
proof of Lemma 3.3.4. Carpi and de Luca proved [4, Lemma 3.2] that $\pi(w)>R_{w}$. Also, we have $H_{w} \geq \pi(w)$ since the length- $(\pi(w)-1)$ prefix of $w$ is left-extendable. Thus $w$ is semiperiodic. Moreover we have $F_{n}(w)=F_{n}\left(w^{\prime}\right)$ where $n \geq k+1 \geq \pi(w) \geq 1+R_{w}$. Then we can apply [4, Proposition 6.2] to prove this lemma.
proof of Theorem 3.3.1. We give a proof for Theorem 3.3.1 by induction on $k$.
The base case is when $k=0$. In this case $t=n$ and thus $F_{n}(w)=\{w\}$ and $F_{n}\left(w^{\prime}\right)=$ $\left\{w^{\prime}\right\}$. Thus $w=w^{\prime}$, contradicting the fact that $w$ and $w^{\prime}$ are distinct.

Now we deal with the induction step. We assume the result holds for $k-1$ and we prove it for $k$. For convenience, we let $p_{i}(w)$ denote the length- $i$ prefix of the word $w$; let $s_{i}(w)$ denote the length- $i$ suffix of the word $w$.

We first consider the case where $H_{w}<n$. We have $p_{n}(w) \in F_{n}(w)=F_{n}\left(w^{\prime}\right)$. If $p_{n}(w) \neq p_{n}\left(w^{\prime}\right)$, then there exists $a \in \Sigma$ such that $a p_{n-1}(w) \in F_{n}\left(w^{\prime}\right)$. Thus we have $a p_{n-1}(w) \in F_{n}(w)$ which leads to the contradiction that $H_{w} \geq\left|a p_{n-1}(w)\right|=n$. Hence $p_{n}(w)=p_{n}\left(w^{\prime}\right)$.

Now let $s=w[2 . . t]$ and $s^{\prime}=w^{\prime}[2 . . t]$. Clearly $|s|=\left|s^{\prime}\right|=t-1$. The prefix $p_{n}(w)$ appears only once as a factor of $w$, otherwise $p_{n-1}(w)$ is left-extendable in $w$ which contradicts the
fact that $H_{w}<n$. Thus we have $F_{n}(s)=F_{n}(w) \backslash\left\{p_{n}(w)\right\}$. Similarly we have $F_{n}\left(s^{\prime}\right)=$ $F_{n}\left(w^{\prime}\right) \backslash\left\{p_{n}(w)\right\}$. Thus $F_{n}(s)=F_{n}\left(s^{\prime}\right)$. Let $k^{\prime}=k-1$. We have $t-1=n+k-1=n+k^{\prime}$ and $n \geq k+1>k^{\prime}+1$. By induction, we have either

Case 1: $s=s^{\prime}$; or
Case 2: $s$ and $s^{\prime}$ are root-conjugate and $\pi(s)=\pi\left(s^{\prime}\right)=\rho$, where $\rho \leq k^{\prime}+1=k$.
In Case 1, it follows that $w=w^{\prime}$, contradicting the fact that $w, w^{\prime}$ are distinct. In Case 2 , we prove that $s=s^{\prime}$ by showing that their roots are identical. Suppose $s$ and $s^{\prime}$ have a common prefix of length $d$. We have $d \geq n-1$, since $w$ and $w^{\prime}$ have a common prefix of length at least $n$. If $d \geq \rho$, then the root of $s$ is identical to the root of $s^{\prime}$. Otherwise, we have the chain of inequalities $k \geq \rho \geq d+1 \geq n \geq k+1$, which is trivially a contradiction. Thus neither Case 1 nor Case 2 can occur and we are done with the case where $H_{w}<n$.

Similarly we can prove the induction step when $K_{w}<n$. Thus it suffices to consider the case where $H_{w} \geq n$ and $K_{w} \geq n$. We first claim $\pi(w) \leq k+1$. There are several cases to settle:

- The first case is when $p_{n-1}(w)=s_{n-1}(w)$ and the occurrence of $p_{n-1}(w)$ and $s_{n-1}(w)$ do not overlap; namely we have $w=p_{n-1}(w) L p_{n-1}(w)$, where $L \in \Sigma^{*}$. We have the inequality $n+k=t=|w|=2\left|p_{n-1}(w)\right|+|L|=2(n-1)+|L|$. Thus $|L|=k+2-n$. Hence $\pi(w) \leq\left|p_{n-1}(w) L\right|=n-1+k+2-n=k+1$.
- The second case is when $p_{n-1}(w)=s_{n-1}(w)$ and these occurrences overlap. Formally we put it as follows: there exist $x, y, z \in \Sigma^{+}$, such that $p_{n-1}(w)=x y=y z$ and $w=x y z$. It follows that $\pi(w) \leq|x| \leq k+1$ by Lemma 3.3.3.
- The last case is when $p_{n-1}(w) \neq s_{n-1}(w)$. Let $i_{p}$ denote the index of the last occurrence of $p_{n-1}(w)$; namely $i_{p}=\sup \left\{i \geq 1: p_{n-1}(w)=w[i . . i+n-2]\right\}$. Note that $i_{p}$ exists since $p_{n-1}(w)$ is left-extendable and $i_{p} \leq t-n+2$ since $p_{n-1}(w) \neq s_{n-1}(w)$. We argue that $w_{1}=w\left[1 . . i_{p}+n-2\right]$ is periodic with $\pi\left(w_{1}\right) \leq i_{p}-1 \leq k$. If the first occurrence of $p_{n-1}(w)$ (the prefix of $w$ ) overlaps the last occurrence of $p_{n-1}(w)$, then by Lemma 3.3.3, we see that $w_{1}$ is periodic with $\pi\left(w_{1}\right) \leq i_{p}-1 \leq k$. Otherwise, we have $2(n-1) \leq\left|w_{1}\right| \leq t-1$; thus $k=n-1$ and $\left|w_{1}\right|=2(n-1)$. Then we have $w_{1}=p_{n-1}(w) p_{n-1}(w)$, where $w_{1}$ is periodic with $\pi\left(w_{1}\right) \leq n-1=i_{p}-1=k$. For both cases, we have $w_{1}$ is periodic with $\pi\left(w_{1}\right) \leq i_{p}-1 \leq k$.

Similarly we let $i_{q}$ denote the index of the first occurrence of $s_{n-1}(w)$ and $w_{2}=w\left[i_{q} . t\right]$. We have $1<i_{q} \leq t-n+2$ and $\pi\left(w_{2}\right) \leq t-n+2-i_{q}$. The factors $w_{1}$ and $w_{2}$ overlap
for at least $\left|w_{1}\right|+\left|w_{2}\right|-t \geq \pi\left(w_{1}\right)+\pi\left(w_{2}\right)-1$ symbols. Let $D$ denote the overlap of $w_{1}$ and $w_{2}$. We have $|D| \geq \pi\left(w_{1}\right)+\pi\left(w_{2}\right)-1$. Also $\pi\left(w_{1}\right)$ is a period of $D$ since $|D| \geq \pi\left(w_{1}\right)$ and $D$ can be factorized as
$D=d^{l} d^{\prime}$, where $d$ is conjugate to the root of $w_{1}, d^{\prime} \in \operatorname{Pref}(d)$, and $l \geq 1$.
By Lemma 3.3.2, the overlap $D$ has the same root as $w_{2}$. Since root-conjugacy is an equivalence relation, we have $w_{1}$ and $w_{2}$ are root-conjugate. Let $l_{1}$ denote the length of the root of $w_{1}$. We argue that $w$ is periodic with $\pi(w) \leq l_{1} \leq k+1$ by the fact that $l_{1}$ is also a period of $w$. It suffices to show that $w\left[l_{1}+i\right]=w[i]$ for $1 \leq i \leq t-l_{1}$. For the case where $1 \leq i \leq\left|w_{1}\right|-l_{1}$, we have $w\left[i+l_{1}\right]=w_{1}\left[i+l_{1}\right]=w_{1}[i]=w[i]$; for the other case where $\left|w_{1}\right|-l_{1}<i \leq t-l_{1}$, we have $w\left[i+l_{1}\right]=w_{2}\left[i+l_{1}-i_{q}+1\right]=$ $w_{2}\left[i-i_{q}+1\right]=w[i]$. Thus, we see that $w$ is periodic with $\pi(w) \leq k+1$.

Finally by Lemma 3.3.4, we get that $w$ and $w^{\prime}$ are root-conjugate and their periods $\pi(w)=\pi\left(w^{\prime}\right) \leq k+1$. By all cases, we finish the induction and complete the proof of Theorem 3.3.1.

The following corollary gives $T(t, n)$ when $t<2 n$.
Corollary. For $n \leq t<2 n$, we have $T(t, n)=2^{t}-\sum_{k=1}^{t-n+1} \frac{k-1}{k} \sum_{d \mid k} \mu\left(\frac{k}{d}\right) 2^{d}$, where $\mu(\cdot)$ is the Möbius function.

Proof. Let $k=t-n$. We have $n \geq t-n+1=k+1$. By Theorem 3.3.1, we know that for any set $S \subseteq \Sigma^{n}, C_{t}(S)>1$ if and only if there exists a word $w$ that witnesses $S$ with $\pi(w) \leq k+1$. In this case we have $C_{t}(S)=\pi(w)$; that is, the set of words that witness $S$ is the same as the set of the words that are root-conjugate to $w$. Thus each $S$ such that $C_{t}(S)>1$ corresponds to a set of root-conjugate words, which can be represented by their lexicographically least roots (the Lyndon words).

Thus we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
T(t, n) & =2^{t}-\sum_{\substack{S \subseteq \Sigma^{n} \\
C_{t}(S)>1}}\left(C_{t}(S)-1\right)=2^{t}-\sum_{\substack{w \text { is a Lyndon word } \\
\pi(w) \leq k+1}}(\pi(w)-1) \\
& =2^{t}-\sum_{i=1}^{k+1}(i-1) \cdot L(i)
\end{aligned}
$$

where $k=t-n$ and $L(i)=\frac{1}{i} \sum_{d \mid i} \mu\left(\frac{i}{d}\right) 2^{d}$ is the number of Lyndon words of length $i$.

### 3.4 Numerical results

To finish this chapter, we give some tables listing several numerical results.
It is not feasible to enumerate every single word to verify whether a subset is circularly representable (or non-circularly representable). For this reason, we exploit ideas from graph theory.

Formally, we define $G_{n}=\left(V_{n}, E_{n}\right)$, where

$$
\begin{aligned}
& V_{n}=\left\{(S, u, v): S \subseteq \Sigma^{n} \text { and } u, v \in \Sigma^{n}\right\} \text { and } \\
& E_{n}=\left\{((S, u, v),(S \cup\{x\}, u, x)): S \subseteq \Sigma^{n}, u, v, x \in \Sigma^{n}, \text { and } v[2 . . n]=x[1 . . n-1]\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

We say that a node $(S, u, v)$ is valid if $S$ is witnessed by a non-circular word $w$ for which the length- $n$ prefix is $u$ and the length- $n$ suffix is $v$.

We use a breadth-first search strategy to compute all the possible valid nodes in $G_{n}$. Let $I$ denote a subset of nodes $\left\{(\{u\}, u, u): u \in \Sigma^{n}\right\}$ in $G_{n}$. Nodes in $G_{n}$ that are connected to any node in $I$ can be proven valid by induction. Thus, a breadth-first search begins with the subset $I$ and enumerates all nodes that are connected to nodes in $I$.

The relation between valid nodes in $G_{n}$ and non-empty representable subsets of $\Sigma^{n}$ is that any subset $S \subseteq \Sigma^{n}$ is representable if and only if there exist $u, v \in \Sigma^{n}$ such that $(S, u, v)$ is valid. This relation can be proved by induction. Similarly, any subset $S \subseteq \Sigma^{n}$ is circularly representable if and only if there exists $u \in \Sigma^{n}$ such that $(S, u, u)$ is valid and the minimum distance $d$ between $(S, u, u)$ and nodes in $I$ satisfies the inequality $d \geq n-1$.

With the above properties, we can enumerate all the possible non-empty representable (or circularly representable) subsets of order $n$. Our results are shown in the Table 3.1. The last two columns give words $w$ of length $\nu_{n}$ (resp., $\mu_{n}$ ) for which no shorter word witnesses $C_{n}(w)\left(\right.$ resp., $\left.F_{n}(w)\right)$.

We present some numerical results for $T(t, n)$ in Table 3.2 and Table 3.3. The numbers in bold follow from Corollary 3.3.

| $n$ | $\left\|\check{R}_{n}\right\|$ | $\left\|R_{n}\right\|$ | $\nu_{n}$ | $\mu_{n}$ | longest circ. witness | longest witness |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 01 | 01 |
| 2 | 6 | 14 | 4 | 5 | 0011 | 00110 |
| 3 | 27 | 121 | 9 | 10 | 000100111 | 0001011100 |
| 4 | 973 | 5921 | 24 | 24 | 000010001011100011101111 | 000010010101100101101111 |
| 5 | 2466131 | 20020315 | 82 | 77 | - | - |

Table 3.1: Numerical results on representable subsets

| $n$ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| :---: | :--- | :--- | :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| 1 | $\mathbf{2}$ | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| 2 |  | $\mathbf{4}$ | $\mathbf{7}$ | 11 | 12 | 12 | 12 | 12 |
| 3 |  |  | $\mathbf{8}$ | $\mathbf{1 5}$ | $\mathbf{2 7}$ | 48 | 72 | 94 |
| 4 |  |  |  | $\mathbf{1 6}$ | $\mathbf{3 1}$ | $\mathbf{5 9}$ | $\mathbf{1 1 4}$ | 216 |
| 5 |  |  |  |  | $\mathbf{3 2}$ | $\mathbf{6 3}$ | $\mathbf{1 2 3}$ | $\mathbf{2 4 2}$ |
| 6 |  |  |  |  |  | $\mathbf{6 4}$ | $\mathbf{1 2 7}$ | $\mathbf{2 5 1}$ |
| 7 |  |  |  |  |  |  | $\mathbf{1 2 8}$ | $\mathbf{2 5 5}$ |
| 8 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | $\mathbf{2 5 6}$ |

Table 3.2: Numerical results on $T(t, n)$

|  | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| 2 | 12 | 12 | 12 | 12 | 12 | 12 | 12 | 12 |
| 3 | 100 | 103 | 101 | 103 | 101 | 103 | 101 | 103 |
| 4 | 391 | 677 | 1087 | 1621 | 2246 | 2928 | 3595 | 4235 |
| 5 | 474 | 933 | 1795 | 3421 | 6399 | 11682 | 20704 | 35914 |
| 6 | 498 | 986 | 1965 | 3899 | 7709 | 15171 | 29710 | 57726 |
| 7 | 507 | 1010 | 2010 | 4013 | 8001 | 15969 | 31789 | 63256 |
| 8 | 511 | 1019 | 2034 | 4058 | 8109 | 16193 | 32367 | 64671 |

Table 3.3: Numerical results on $T(t, n)$

## Chapter 4

## Open problems

We present some open problems that are related to these two combinatorial patterns in this chapter.

1. Is the language of non-abelian $k$-th powers context-free?

In this thesis, we prove that the language of non-abelian squares and non-abelian cubes are not context-free. It remains to consider the case where $k \geq 4$.
Theorems about bounded context-free languages may help solve this problem. To be more precise, a promising method is to construct a bounded regular language $R$, and prove that the intersection of $R$ with the target language is not bounded contextfree. Some really interesting constructions of $R$ are: $w_{2}^{*} w_{4}^{*} w_{1}^{*} w_{3}^{*}$ and $w_{2}^{*} w_{1}^{*} w_{4}^{*} w_{3}^{*}$, where $w_{i}=10^{i-1}$.
2. Does the limit $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty}\left|\AA_{n}\right|^{\frac{1}{2^{n}}}$ exist?
3. Find better bounds for $\mu_{n}$ and $\nu_{n}$.
4. Derive a formula for $T(t, n)$ where $t=2 n$.

It is easy to see that Theorem 3.3.1 fails for $n<k+1$. Indeed, it is possible to have $F_{n}(x)=F_{n}(y)$ in this case, and yet $\pi(x) \neq \pi(y)$. For example, take $n=k-1$ so that $t=2 k-1$, and consider $x=0^{k} 10^{k-2}$ and $y=0^{k-1} 10^{k-1}$. Then $F_{n}(x)=F_{n}(y)$ but $\pi(x)=k+1$ and $\pi(y)=k$.
The remaining case is $n=k$, so that $t=2 k$. We conjecture that if $x$ and $y$ are distinct binary words of length $2 n$ with $F_{n}(x)=F_{n}(y)$ then $\pi(x)=\pi(y)$ and furthermore
$x$ and $y$ are root-conjugate. However, it is possible in this case that $\pi(x)>n+1$. Furthermore it seems that if $\pi(x)>n+1$, then $x=u v 01 v u$ and $y=u v 10 v^{R} u$ (or vice versa) for some nonempty words $u, v$ where $u$ is the longest palindrome prefix of $u v$ and $\pi(x)=t-|v|$.

As an example, consider $x=010110, y=011010$. Then

$$
F_{3}(x)=F_{3}(y)=\{010,011,101,110\}
$$

but $\pi(x)=\pi(y)=5$. Here $u=0, v=1$.

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