# NON-PRIMITIVE WORDS OF THE FORM $\mathrm{pq}^{\mathrm{m}}$ 

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#### Abstract

Let $p, q$ be two distinct primitive words. According to Lentin-Schützenberger [9], the language $p^{+} q^{+}$contains at most one non-primitive word and if $p q^{m}$ is not primitive, then $m \leq \frac{2|p|}{|q|}+3$. In this paper we give a sharper upper bound, namely, $m \leq\left\lfloor\frac{|p|-2}{|q|}+2\right\rfloor$, where $\lfloor x\rfloor$ stands for the floor of $x$.


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## 1. Introduction

An alphabet is a nonempty finite set $\Sigma$. Its elements are called symbols (or letters). A (finite) word is a (finite) sequence of symbols from $\Sigma$. The length of a word $u=a_{1} \ldots a_{n}$, denoted by $|u|$ is the number $n$ of its letters.

Two words $w_{1}=a_{1} \ldots a_{n}$ and $w_{2}=b_{1} \ldots b_{m}$ are equal if $n=m$ and $a_{i}=b_{i}$, for every $i$.
We denote by $\Sigma^{*}, \Sigma^{+}$the sets of all finite, finite nonempty words, respectively. The concatenation or product of words is defined as follows

$$
\text { If } w_{1}=a_{1} \ldots a_{n} \text { and } w_{2}=b_{1} \ldots b_{m} \text {, then } w_{1} w_{2}=a_{1} \ldots a_{n} b_{1} \ldots b_{m} \text {. }
$$

Clearly, this operation is associative and the empty word is the unit element.
Consequently, $\Sigma^{*}=\left(\Sigma^{*},.\right)$ is a free monoid and $\Sigma^{+}=\left(\Sigma^{+},.\right)$is a free semigroup.
When $k \in \mathbb{N} \backslash\{0,1\}$, we say that $u^{k}$ is a proper power of $u$.
A word is called primitive if it is not empty and not a proper power of another word. The concept of primitive words plays a crucial role in algebraic coding theory and combinatorial theory of words (see [10,11]).

It is also worth noting that primitive words can be linked with the prime spectra of rings; endowed with the Zariski topology (see [7]).

Let $u \in \Sigma^{+}$; then there exist a unique primitive word $\sqrt{u}$ (called the primitive root of $u$ ) and a unique integer $\mathfrak{e} \geq 1$ (called the exponent of $u$ ) such that $u=\sqrt{u}^{\mathfrak{e}}$ (see [12]).

[^0]Let $p \neq q$ be two distinct primitive words; then following a result due to Lyndon-Schützenberger [12], the words $p^{n} q^{m}$ are primitive for all integers $m, n \geq 2$. If $m=1$ or $n=1$, then $p^{n} q^{m}$ is not necessarily primitive; for example if $p=a, q=b a b$, then $p q=(a b)^{2}$ is not primitive. According to Lentin-Schützenberger [9] the language $p^{+} q^{+}$contains at most one non-primitive word; which is of the form $p q^{m}$ or $p^{n} q$. Twenty five years later, Shyr-Yu rediscovered the same result in [13].

Moreover, if $p q^{m}$ is not primitive, then $m \leq \frac{2|p|}{|q|}+3$ [9]. In this paper we give a sharper upper bound, namely, $m \leq\left\lfloor\frac{|p|-2}{|q|}+2\right\rfloor$, where $\lfloor x\rfloor$ stands for the floor of $x$.

## 2. Preliminaries

In this section we will review some well known results from literature.
If $\Sigma$ is an alphabet, then we denote by $\mathbf{Q}(\Sigma)$ the set of all primitive words. The symbol $\mathbf{Q}^{(k)}(\Sigma)$ stands for the set of all elements of $\Sigma^{+}$with exponent $k$.

Proposition 2.1 [12]. Let $u, v \in \Sigma^{+}$; then $u v=v u$ if and only if $u, v$ are powers of a common word.
Proposition 2.2 [12]. Let $u \in \Sigma^{+}$; then there exist a unique primitive word $\sqrt{u}$ (called the primitive root of $u$ ) and a unique positive integer $\mathfrak{e}$ (called the exponent of $u$ ) such that $u=\sqrt{u}^{e}$.

Proposition $2.3[9,13]$. Let $p, q$ be distinct primitive words over $\Sigma$, then the language $p^{+} q^{+}$contains at most one non-primitive word.

Proposition 2.4 [13]. Let $p \neq q \in \mathbf{Q}(\Sigma)$. If $p q^{m}=g^{k}$ for some $m, k \geq 2$ and $g \in \mathbf{Q}(\Sigma)$, then one of the following two statements hold:
(1) $p=\left(x q^{m}\right)^{k-1} x$, for some $x \in \Sigma^{+}$.
(2) $p=\left(y x\left(x(y x)^{j+1}\right)^{m-1}\right)^{k-2} y x\left(x(y x)^{j+1}\right)^{m-2} x y$ and $q=x(y x)^{j+1}$, for some $x \neq y \in \Sigma^{+}, j \geq 0$.

We close this section by a theorem due to Fine-Wilf [8] which is the main ingredient to solve most problems on primitivity.

Theorem 2.5 (Fine-Wilf Theorem). Let $u, v \in \Sigma^{+}$. Then the following statements are equivalent.
(i) $u$ and $v$ are powers of the same word.
(ii) there exist $i, j>0$ so that $u^{i}$ and $v^{j}$ have a common prefix (suffix) of length $|u|+|v|-\operatorname{gcd}(|u|,|v|)$.

## 3. Non-Primitive Words of the form $p q^{m}$

The following Lemma is inspired from Proposition 2.4, but here we are assuming that $m \geq 1$ instead of $m \geq 2$. Let us first recall a lemma from [9] that appeared also in [13].

Lemma 3.1 ([9], Corollary 4 and [13]). If $u q^{m}=g^{k}$ for some $m, k \geq 1, u \in \Sigma^{+}$, and $g, q \in \mathbf{Q}(\Sigma)$, with $u \notin q^{+}$, then $g \neq q$ and $|g|>\left|q^{m-1}\right|$.

Lemma 3.2. Let $p, q$ be distinct primitive words on an alphabet $\Sigma$, and $k \geq 2, m \geq 1$ be integers. Then the following statements are equivalent.
(i) $p q^{m} \in \mathbf{Q}^{(k)}(\Sigma)$.
(ii) One of the following properties hold.
(1) there exists $x \in \Sigma^{+}$such that $p=\left(x q^{m}\right)^{k-1} x$ and $x q^{m} \in \mathbf{Q}(\Sigma)$.
(2) there exist $x, y \in \Sigma^{+}$such that $q=y x, p y=\left(x(y x)^{m-1}\right)^{k-1}$ and $x(y x)^{m-1} \in \mathbf{Q}(\Sigma)$.

Proof. (i) $\Longrightarrow$ (ii). Assume $p q^{m}=\rho^{k}$, for some $\rho \in \mathbf{Q}(\Sigma)$.
We claim that $|\rho| \neq\left|q^{m}\right|$, otherwise $\rho=q^{m}$ as suffixes with the same length of the same word; so $m=1$ and $q=\rho$. Hence $p=q^{k-1}$; thus $k=1$. We deduce that $p=\rho$; this leads to the equality $p=q$, which is contrary to our assumption. Therefore $|\rho| \neq q^{m}$.

Two cases have to be considered.
Case 1. Assume $|\rho|>\left|q^{m}\right|$. In this case, as $p q^{m}=\rho^{k}$, we deduce that $\rho=x q^{m}$, for some $x \in \Sigma^{+}$. Hence

$$
p q^{m}=\rho^{k}=\rho^{k-1}\left(x q^{m}\right)
$$

Thus

$$
p=\rho^{k-1} x=\left(x q^{m}\right)^{k-1} x
$$

Case 2. Assume $|\rho|<\left|q^{m}\right|$.
By ([13], Lem. 2.1), we have $|\rho|>\left|q^{m-1}\right|$. Now, since $p q^{m}=p q q^{m-1}=\rho^{k-1} \rho$, we conclude that $\rho=x q^{m-1}$, for some $x \in \Sigma^{+}$; so

$$
p q=\rho^{k-1} x=\left(x q^{m-1}\right) x
$$

Now, as $|\rho|<\left|q^{m}\right|$ and $p q^{m}=\rho^{k-1} \rho$, there exists $y \in \Sigma^{+}$such that $q^{m}=y \rho$. We conclude that $p q^{m}=p y \rho=\rho^{k}$. This yields

$$
p y=\rho^{k-1}=\left(x q^{m-1}\right)^{k-1}
$$

Thus

$$
p q=\rho^{k-1} x=p y x
$$

so $q=y x$.
We conclude that

$$
q=y x, p y=\left(x(y x)^{m-1}\right)^{k-1} \text { and } x(y x)^{m-1} \in \mathbf{Q}(\Sigma)
$$

(ii) $\Longrightarrow$ (i).

- Suppose that $p=\left(x q^{m}\right)^{k-1} x$ and $x q^{m} \in \mathbf{Q}(\Sigma)$, for some $x \in \Sigma^{+}$; then

$$
\begin{aligned}
p q^{m} & =\left(x q^{m}\right)^{k-1} x q^{m} \\
& =\left(x q^{m}\right)^{k} \in \mathbf{Q}^{(k)}(\Sigma)
\end{aligned}
$$

Now, assume $q=y x, p y=\left(x(y x)^{m-1}\right)^{k-1}$ and $x(y x)^{m-1} \in \mathbf{Q}(\Sigma)$, for some $x, y \in \Sigma^{+}$; then we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
p q^{m} & =p(y x)^{m} \\
& (p y) x(y x)^{m-1} \\
& =\left(x(y x)^{m-1}\right)^{k-1} k x(y x)^{m-1} \\
& =\left(x(y x)^{m-1}\right)^{k} \in \mathbf{Q}^{(k)}(\Sigma)
\end{aligned}
$$

From the paper of Lentin-Schützenberger [9], one may see that if $p q^{m}$ is not a primitive word, then $m \leq$ $\frac{2|p|}{|q|}+3$. Lemma 3.2 enables us giving an upper bound shaper than that of [9].
Theorem 3.1. Let $p, q$ be distinct primitive words on an alphabet $\Sigma$ and $m$ be a positive integer. If pq is not primitive, then

$$
m \leq\left\lfloor\frac{|p|-2}{|q|}+2\right\rfloor
$$

where $\lfloor x\rfloor$ stands for the floor of $x$.

Proof. By the previous theorem, we consider two cases.
Case 1. Assume $p=\left(x q^{m}\right)^{k-1} x$, for some $x \in \Sigma^{+}$and $k \geq 2$, then

$$
|p|=(k-1)(|x|+m|q|)+|x|=k|x|+(k-1) m|q| .
$$

In this case, we get

$$
|p| \geq 2+m|q|
$$

consequently $m<\frac{|p|-1}{|q|}$.
Case 2. Assume $q=y x, p y=\left(x(y x)^{m-1}\right)^{k-1}$, for some $x, y \in \Sigma^{+}$. Hence

$$
|p|+|y|=(k-1)[|x|+(m-1)|q|] .
$$

So

$$
|p|+|q|=k|x|+(m-1)(k-1)|q|
$$

This gives

$$
\begin{aligned}
|p| & =k|x|+((m-1)(k-1)-1)|q| \\
& =k|x|+(k(m-1)-m)|q|
\end{aligned}
$$

yielding the following inequalities:

$$
\begin{aligned}
|p| & \geq 2+(k(m-1)-m)|q| \\
& \geq 2+(2 m-2-m)|q| \\
& =2+(m-2)|q|
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore, $m \leq \frac{|p|-2}{|q|}+2$.

## Remark 3.3.

(1) Clearly, our upper bound is sharper than that provided in [9]; indeed

$$
\left(\frac{2|p|}{|q|}+3\right)-\left(\frac{|p|-2}{|q|}+2\right)=\frac{|p|+2}{|q|}+1
$$

(2) Our upper bound may be reached: it suffices to consider $p=a, q=b a b$; then for $m=\left\lfloor\frac{|p|-2}{|q|}+2\right\rfloor=1$; and $p q^{m}=(a b)^{2}$ is non-primitive.
Lemma 3.4. Let $p, q$ be distinct primitive words on $\Sigma$ such that $|q|$ divides $|p|$. Then $q p^{2} \in \mathbf{Q}(\Sigma)$.
Proof. We let $|p|=m|q|$, with $m \geq 1$. Assume $q p^{2} \notin \mathbf{Q}(\Sigma)$; then $q p^{2}=r^{n}$, for some $n \geq 2$. By $3.1, r \neq p$ and $|r|>|p|$; this yields $n=2$. Now, Considering the length of $q p^{2}=r^{2}$ we have $2|r|=(1+2 m)|q|$. Thus $|q|$ is even and $|r|=(1+2 m) \frac{|q|}{2}$. This implies, in particular, that $\operatorname{gcd}(|p|,|r|) \geq \frac{|q|}{2}$.

It follows that $p^{2}$ is a common suffix of $p^{2}$ and $r^{2}$ with length

$$
\left|p^{2}\right|=2|p|=|p|+|r|-\frac{|q|}{2} \geq|p|+|r|-\operatorname{gcd}(|p|,|r|)
$$

Therefore, according to Theorem 2.5, $p$ and $r$ are powers of the same word, leading to $p=r$, a contradiction.

Now, combining Lemma 3.2, Lemma 3.4 and Theorem 3.1, one may easily obtain the following result.
Corollary 3.5 [1]. Let $p, q$ be distinct primitive words on $\Sigma$ such that $|q|$ divides $|p|$. Then for all positive integers $(m, n) \neq(1,1)$ and $m \geq \frac{|p|}{|q|}$, the word $p^{n} q^{m}$ is primitive.

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