

Vesa Halava | Tero Harju | Tomi Kärki


TUCS Technical Report
No 786, October 2006

# The theorem of Fine and Wilf for relational periods 

Vesa Halava<br>Department of Mathematics and<br>TUCS - Turku Centre for Computer Science<br>University of Turku FIN-20014 Turku, Finland<br>Supported by the Academy of Finland under grant 208414.<br>vehalava@utu.fi<br>Tero Harju<br>Department of Mathematics and<br>TUCS - Turku Centre for Computer Science<br>University of Turku FIN-20014 Turku, Finland<br>harju@utu.fi<br>Tomi Kärki<br>Department of Mathematics and<br>TUCS - Turku Centre for Computer Science<br>University of Turku FIN-20014 Turku, Finland<br>topeka@utu.fi


#### Abstract

We consider relational periods, where the relation is a compatibility relation on words induced by a relation on letters. We prove a variant of the theorem of Fine and Wilf for a (pure) period and a relational period.


Keywords: period, compatibility relation, partial word, Fine, Wilf

## 1 Introduction

In 1999 J. Berstel and L. Boasson introduced the notion of a partial word. In their paper [1] they studied periodicity properties of partial words and presented a variant of the theorem of Fine and Wilf for partial words with one hole. Further results with more holes and on periodicity properties of partial words in general can be found in $[2,3,5-7,12,13]$. The motivation for this research comes partly from the study of biological sequences such as DNA, RNA and proteins $[4,11]$.

In the article [9] we introduced word relations as compatibility relations of words induced by a relation on letters. We showed that partial words can be seen as words with a special word relation. The study of relational codes and relationally free monoids continued in [10]. In this article we will consider relational periods of words. We shall prove a variant of the theorem of Fine and Wilf as an example of an interaction property between a (pure) period and a relational period.

## 2 Word relations

For a relation $R \subseteq X \times X$ we often write $x R y$ instead of $(x, y) \in R$. A relation $R$ is a compatibility relations on letters if it is both reflexive and symmetric, i.e., (i) $\forall x \in X: x R x$, and (ii) $\forall x, y \in X: x R y \Longrightarrow y R x$. The identity relation on a set $X$ is defined by $\iota_{X}=\{(x, x) \mid x \in X\}$ and the universal relation on $X$ is defined by $\Omega_{X}=\{(x, y) \mid x, y \in X\}$. Subscripts are often omitted when they are clear from the context. Clearly, both $\iota_{X}$ and $\Omega_{X}$ are compatibility relations on $X$.

A compatibility relation $R \subseteq A^{+} \times A^{+}$on the set of all nonempty words over an alphabet $A$ will be called a word relation if it is induced by its restriction on the letters, i.e.,

$$
a_{1} \cdots a_{m} R b_{1} \cdots b_{n} \quad \Longleftrightarrow \quad m=n \text { and } a_{i} R b_{i} \text { for all } i=1,2, \ldots, m
$$

whenever $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{m}, b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n} \in A$. Let $R$ be a relation on $A$. By $\langle R\rangle$ we denote the compatibility relation generated by $R$, i.e., $\langle R\rangle$ is the reflexive and symmetric closure of the relation $R$. Words $u$ and $v$ satisfying $u R v$ are said to be compatible or, more precisely, $R$-compatible. If the words are not compatible, they are said to be incompatible.

Example 1. In the binary alphabet $A=\{a, b\}$ the compatibility relation

$$
R=\langle\{(a, b)\}\rangle=\{(a, a),(b, b),(a, b),(b, a)\}
$$

makes all words with equal length compatible with each other. In the ternary alphabet $\{a, b, c\}$, where

$$
S=\langle\{(a, b)\}\rangle=\{(a, a),(b, b),(a, b),(b, a),(c, c)\},
$$

we have $a b b a S$ baab but, for instance, words $a b c$ and $c a c$ are not $S$-compatible.

Partial words can be interpreted as words with a word relation. The next example will express this in more detail.

Example 2. A partial word of length $n$ over an alphabet $A$ is a partial function

$$
w:\{1,2, \ldots, n\} \rightarrow A
$$

The domain $D(w)$ of $w$ is the set of positions $p \in\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$ such that $w(p)$ is defined. The set $H(w)=\{1,2, \ldots, n\} \backslash D(w)$ is the set of holes of $w$. To each partial word we may associate a total word $w_{\diamond}$ over the extended alphabet $A_{\diamond}=A \cup\{\diamond\}$. This companion of $w$ is defined by

$$
w_{\diamond}(p)= \begin{cases}w(p) & \text { if } p \in D(w) \\ \diamond & \text { if } p \in H(w)\end{cases}
$$

Thus, the holes are marked with the "do not know" symbol $\diamond$. Clearly, partial words are in one-to-one correspondence with words over $A_{\diamond}$.

The compatibility relation of partial words is defined as follows. Let $x$ and $y$ be two partial words of equal length. The word $y$ is said to contain the word $x$ if $D(x) \subseteq D(y)$ and $x(k)=y(k)$ for all $k$ in $D(x)$. Two partial words $x$ and $y$ are said to be compatible if there exists a partial word $z$ such that $z$ contains both $x$ and $y$. Then we write $x \uparrow y$.

From another viewpoint partial words with compatibility relation $\uparrow$ can be seen as words over the alphabet $A_{\diamond}$ with the relation

$$
R_{\uparrow}=\langle\{(\diamond, a) \mid a \in A\}\rangle .
$$

Namely, consider two compatible partial words $x$ and $y$. Let $z$ be a partial word which contains both $x$ and $y$. Suppose that their companions are $x_{\diamond}=a_{1} \cdots a_{n}$, $y_{\diamond}=b_{1} \cdots b_{n}$ and $z_{\diamond}=c_{1} \cdots c_{n}$. According to the definition of compatible partial words, we have four possibilities for each position $i \in\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$ :

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { (i) } & c_{i}=\diamond, a_{i}=b_{i}=\diamond \\
\text { (ii) } & c_{i} \neq \diamond, a_{i}=\diamond, b_{i}=c_{i} \\
\text { (iii) } & c_{i} \neq \diamond, b_{i}=\diamond, a_{i}=c_{i} \\
\text { (iv) } & c_{i} \neq \diamond, a_{i}=b_{i}=c_{i} .
\end{array}
$$

We see that in each case $a_{i} R_{\uparrow} b_{i}$, and thus $x_{\diamond} R_{\uparrow} y_{\diamond}$. On the other hand, for $R_{\uparrow}$-compatible words $x_{\diamond}=a_{1} \cdots a_{n}$ and $y_{\diamond}=b_{1} \cdots b_{n}$ we may find a word $z_{\diamond}=c_{1} \cdots c_{n}$ such that the corresponding partial word $z$ contains the partial words $x$ and $y$ and therefore $x \uparrow y$. We simply choose the letter $c_{i}$ in such a way that it corresponds to one of the cases $(i)-(i v)$ above. Thus, partial words are equivalent to words on alphabet $A_{\diamond}$ with a specific relation $R_{\uparrow}$ and all results concerning word relations can be applied also for the compatibility relation of partial words.

## 3 Relational period

Let $x=x_{1} \cdots x_{n}$ be a word over the alphabet $A$. An integer $p \geq 1$ is a (pure) period of $x$ if for all $i, j \in\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$ we have

$$
i \equiv j \quad(\bmod p) \Longrightarrow x_{i}=x_{j}
$$

In this case, the word $x$ is called (purely) $p$-periodic. The smallest integer which is a period of $x$ is called the (minimal) period of $x$. Here we denote it by $\pi(x)$, or shortly, $\pi$ if the word $x$ is clear from the context.

For words with compatibility relation $R$ on letters, we will now define relational periods.

Definition 1. Let $R$ be a compatibility relation on an alphabet $A$. For a word $x=x_{1} \cdots x_{n} \in A^{+}$, an integer $p \geq 1$ is a (relational) $R$-period of $x$ if, for all $i, j \in\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$, we have

$$
i \equiv j \quad(\bmod p) \Longrightarrow x_{i} R x_{j}
$$

For a word $x$ the minimal (relational) $R$-period is denoted by $\pi_{R}(x)$, or shortly, $\pi_{R}$ if the word $x$ is clear from the context. Note that a (pure) period is a relational $R$-period with $R=\iota$. Note also that for the universal relation $\Omega$, we clearly have $\pi_{\Omega}(x)=1$ for any word $x$.

Example 3. Define the following compatibility relations on the alphabet $A=\{a, b, c\}$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
R & =\langle\{(b, c)\}\rangle \\
S & =\langle\{(a, b)\}\rangle \\
T & =\langle\{(a, c)\}\rangle
\end{aligned}
$$

Consider the word $x=a b c b a$. We clearly have

$$
\pi=\pi_{R}=4>\pi_{S}=3>\pi_{T}=2>\pi_{\Omega}=1 .
$$

Note that in this example the universal relation on $A$ is the only relation such that the minimal relational period of $x$ is one.

The following theorem is an easy consequence of the definition of a relational period.

Theorem 1. Let $R$ and $S$ be compatibility relations on $A$ such that $R \subseteq S$. Then every $R$-period of a word $x$ is an $S$-period of $x$. Moreover, $\pi_{R} \geq \pi_{S}$.

Since $\iota \subseteq R$ by the reflexivity of a compatibility relations $R$, we have the following corollary.

Corollary 1. Every pure period of a word $x$ is a relational $R$-period for any compatibility relation $R$. Thus, for a word $x$ and for a compatibility relation $R$, we always have $\pi \geq \pi_{R}$.

As an example of the use of relational periods we will consider periods of partial words.

Example 4. In [1] a partial word $w$ is said to have a (partial) period $p$ if, for all $i, j \in D(w)$,

$$
i \equiv j \quad(\bmod p) \Longrightarrow w(i)=w(j)
$$

Consider now the companion of a partial word over the alphabet $A_{\diamond}$. Recall that

$$
R_{\uparrow}=\langle\{(\diamond, a) \mid a \in A\}\rangle
$$

The number $i$ belongs to $D(w)$ if and only if $w_{\diamond}(i) \neq \diamond$. Thus

$$
i, j \in D(w) \Longleftrightarrow w_{\diamond}(i), w_{\diamond}(j) \in A_{\diamond} \backslash\{\diamond\}=A
$$

If a partial word $w$ has a period $p$, then for all $i, j \in D(w)$, we have

$$
i \equiv j \quad(\bmod p) \Longrightarrow w_{\diamond}(i) R_{\uparrow} w_{\diamond}(j)
$$

since $R_{\uparrow} \cap(A \times A)=\iota$. If $i$ and $j$ do not both belong to $D(w)$, then $w_{\diamond}(i)$ or $w_{\diamond}(j)$ is $\diamond$ and $w(i) R_{\uparrow} w(j)$ is clear by the definition of the relation $R_{\uparrow}$. Thus, $p$ is a relational $R_{\uparrow}$-period of $w_{\diamond}$. On the other hand, if $p$ is a relational $R_{\uparrow}$-period of $w_{\diamond}$, then it is a partial period of $w$, since we have to consider only positions without holes and $R_{\uparrow} \cap(A \times A)=\iota$. In other words, we have showed that these two definitions of periods are equivalent.

Note that there exists also a weaker period of partial words. A partial word $w$ is said to have a local period $p$ if

$$
i, i+p \in D(w) \Longrightarrow w(i)=w(i+p)
$$

This can be expressed using compatibility relation $R_{\uparrow}$ similarly to the example above.

## 4 Fine and Wilf's theorem

The theorem of Fine and Wilf [8] is well-know in combinatorics on words:
Theorem 2. If a word $x$ has periods $p$ and $q$, and the length of $x$ is at least $p+q-\operatorname{gcd}(p, q)$, then also $\operatorname{gcd}(p, q)$ is a period of $x$.
J. Berstel and L. Boasson gave the following variant of this theorem for partial words with one hole in [1].

Theorem 3. Let $w$ be a partial word of length $n$ with local periods $p$ and $q$. If $H(w)$ is a singleton and if $n \geq p+q$, then $\operatorname{gcd}(p, q)$ is a (partial) period of $w$.

Furthermore, they showed that the bound $p+q$ on the length is sharp. For partial words with more holes, the theorem of Fine and Wilf was considered, for example, in [7] and [3]. There it is shown that local periods $p$ and $q$ make a sufficiently long word to have also the period $\operatorname{gcd}(p, q)$ when certain unavoidable cases (special words) are excluded. The bound on the length depends on the number of holes in the word. Another result of periods' interaction property of partial words was given in [12, 13]. A.M. Shur and Yu.V. Gamzova found bounds for the length of a word with $k$ holes such that partial periods $p$ and $q$ imply the partial period $\operatorname{gcd}(p, q)$. These latter results of partial words with several holes show that finding good formulations for periods' interaction in the case of arbitrary relational periods is not possible in general. Namely, any non-transitive compatibility relation R must have letter relations $\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right),\left(x_{2}, x_{3}\right) \in R$, but $\left(x_{1}, x_{3}\right) \notin R$ for some letters $x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}$. Then the role of the letter $x_{2}$ in $R$ is exactly the same as the role of $\diamond$ in $R_{\uparrow}$ and all counter examples of Fine and Wilf's theorem for binary partial words apply for words with compatibility relation $R$ over the alphabet $\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}\right\}$.

Example 5. Let $R=\langle\{(a, b)(b, c)\}\rangle$. There exists an infinite (not necessarily ultimately periodic) word

$$
w=w_{1} w_{2} w_{3} \cdots=a c b^{6 i_{1}-2} a c b^{6 i_{2}-2} \cdots,
$$

where the numbers $i_{j} \geq 1$ are chosen freely. Now $w$ has $R$-periods 2 and 3 . Namely,

$$
w_{1} w_{3} w_{5} \cdots \in\{a, b\}^{*}, \quad w_{2} w_{4} w_{6} \cdots \in\{b, c\}^{*}
$$

and

$$
w_{1} w_{4} w_{7} \cdots \in\{a, b\}^{*} \quad w_{2} w_{5} w_{8} \cdots \in\{b, c\}^{*}, \quad w_{3} w_{6} w_{9} \cdots \in\{b\}^{*}
$$

However, 1 is not a relational $R$-period of the word $w$. For example, $\left(w_{1}, w_{2}\right)=$ $(a, c) \notin R$. Furthermore, all numbers $2,3,4, \ldots$ are $R$-periods of the ultimately periodic word $w^{\prime}=a c b b b \cdots$, but 1 is not an $R$-period of $w^{\prime}$.

Nonetheless, some periods' interaction results can be obtained. If the relation $R$ is an equivalence relation, we have the following theorem.

Theorem 4. Let $R$ be an equivalence relation. If a word $x$ has $R$-periods $p$ and $q$ and the length of the word is at least $p+q-\operatorname{gcd}(p, q)$, then $\operatorname{gcd}(p, q)$ is an $R$-period of $x$. The bound on the length is strict.

Proof. Let $R$ be an equivalence relation on the alphabet $A$ and let $x$ be a word over the alphabet with $R$-periods $p$ and $q$ and of length $n \geq p+q-\operatorname{gcd}(p, q)$. Suppose that $A$ has $m$ equivalence classes and let their set of representatives be
$\left\{a_{1}, \ldots, a_{m}\right\}$. Let $B=\left\{b_{1}, \ldots, b_{m}\right\}$ be another alphabet. Consider now a letter-to-letter morphism $\varphi: A^{*} \rightarrow B^{*}$, where for every $i \in\{1,2, \ldots, m\}$, each letter belonging to an equivalence class of $a_{i}$ is mapped to $b_{i}$. This mapping is clearly well defined. Then $w=\varphi(x)=w_{1} \cdots w_{n}$ is a word over $B^{*}$. Let $i, j \in\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$ satisfy $i \equiv j(\bmod p)$. Since $x_{i} R x_{j}$ by the assumption, we have $w_{i}=\varphi\left(x_{i}\right)=\varphi\left(x_{j}\right)=w_{j}$ by the definition of the morphism $\varphi$. Thus, also $w$ has the period $p$. Similarly, the word $w$ is $q$-periodic. By the theorem of Fine and Wilf (Theorem 2), we therefore conclude that $w$ is also $\operatorname{gcd}(p, q)$-periodic. Let now $i, j \in\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$ satisfy $i \equiv j(\bmod \operatorname{gcd}(p, q))$. Then $w_{i}=w_{j}$. By the definition of $\varphi$ this means that $x_{i}=\varphi^{-1}\left(w_{i}\right)$ and $x_{j}=\varphi^{-1}\left(w_{j}\right)$ belong to the same equivalence class. Hence, $x_{i} R x_{j}$. This means that $\operatorname{gcd}(p, q)$ is a relational $R$-period of the word $x$. Of course, the bound $p+q-\operatorname{gcd}(p, q)$ is the best possible, since there are counter examples of the original theorem of Fine and Wilf with length $p+q-\operatorname{gcd}(p, q)-1$ and our statement coincides with Theorem 2 by choosing $R=\iota$.

As was mentioned above, the theorem of Fine and Wilf cannot be generalized for relational periods (neither to local periods) of a non-transitive compatibility relation unless some restrictions on the number of relations (holes) and exclusions of some special cases are given. On the other hand, it might be possible to get new variations of the theorem by assuming some restrictions on compatibility relations. For example, by assuming that one of the periods is pure and only the other one is relational by the relation $R \neq \iota$ we get a theorem similar to that of Fine and Wilf. The sufficient and necessary lower bounds on the length of the word $w$ considered in the theorem are given in Table 1.

| $B(p, q)$ | $p<q$ | $p>q$ |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| $p, q$ odd | $\frac{p+1}{2} q$ | $q+\frac{q-1}{2} p$ |
| $p$ odd, $q$ even | $\frac{p+1}{2} q$ | $\frac{p+1}{2} q$ |
| $p$ even, $q$ odd | $q+\frac{q-1}{2} p$ | $q+\frac{q-1}{2} p$ |

Table 1: Table of lower bounds $B(p, q)$

We now state our main theorem.
Theorem 5. Let $P$ and $Q$ be positive integers with $\operatorname{gcd}(P, Q)=d$. Denote $P=p d$ and $Q=q d$. Suppose that a word $w$ has a (pure) period $Q$ and a relational $R$-period $P$. Let $B=B(p, q)$ be defined by Table 1. If $|w| \geq B d$, then also $\operatorname{gcd}(P, Q)=d$ is an $R$-period of the word $w$. This bound on the length is sharp.

In order to make the proof of this theorem more readable, we first prove two propositions concerning the case $d=1$. The first one says that our lower bounds $B(p, q)$ are sufficient.

Proposition 1. Let $p$ and $q$ be positive integers and let $\operatorname{gcd}(p, q)=1$. Suppose that a word $w$ has a (pure) period $q$ and a relational $R$-period $p$. Let $B=B(p, q)$ be defined as in Table 1. If $|w|=B$, then 1 is a relational $R$-period of $w$.

Proof. The word $w$ is a rational power of a word of length $q$. Thus in $w$ there are at most $q$ different letters. We show that a letter in arbitrary position $s \in\{1,2, \ldots, q\}$ is $R$-compatible with all the other letters of the word $w$.

We make the following definitions. Let $b$ be an integer in $\{1,2, \ldots, q\}$ such that $b \equiv B(\bmod q)$ and define

$$
s^{\prime}= \begin{cases}B-b+s & \text { if } s \in\{1,2, \ldots, b\}, \\ B-q-b+s & \text { if } s \in\{b+1, b+2, \ldots, q\} .\end{cases}
$$

By the definition, $s^{\prime}$ is the last position in $w$ such that $s^{\prime} \equiv s(\bmod q)$. Note that since $B \geq q \geq b$, we have

$$
0<s \leq B-b+s \leq B,
$$

if $s \in\{1,2, \ldots, b\}$ and

$$
0<s-b \leq B-q-b+s \leq B-b<B,
$$

if $s \in\{b+1, b+2, \ldots, q\}$. Let us now define two sets

$$
\begin{aligned}
& S_{1}=\left\{s+i p \mid i=1,2, \ldots,\left\lfloor\frac{B-s}{p}\right\rfloor\right\} \\
& S_{2}=\left\{s^{\prime}-j p \mid j=0,1, \ldots, q-\left\lfloor\frac{B-s}{p}\right\rfloor-1\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Note that $0<B-s<p q$, which implies that

$$
1 \leq\left\lfloor\frac{B-s}{p}\right\rfloor \leq q-1 \quad \text { and } \quad q>q-\left\lfloor\frac{B-s}{p}\right\rfloor-1 \geq q-(q-1)-1=0
$$

Now we prove that all elements of $S_{1}$ and $S_{2}$ belong to the set $\{1,2, \ldots, B\}$. For the set $S_{1}$ this is clear, since

$$
\max \left(S_{1}\right)=s+\left(\left\lfloor\frac{B-s}{p}\right\rfloor\right) p \leq s+\frac{B-s}{p} p=s+B-s=B .
$$

In order to prove that the minimal element of $S_{2}$ is always positive, we have to consider two different cases.

Case 1. Let us first assume that $B=\frac{p+1}{2} q$. Then $b=q$ and $s^{\prime}=B-q+s$ for all $s \in\{1,2, \ldots, q\}$. We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\min \left(S_{2}\right) & =s^{\prime}-\left(q-\left\lfloor\frac{B-s}{p}\right\rfloor-1\right) p>s^{\prime}-\left(q-1-\left(\frac{B-s}{p}-1\right)\right) p \\
& =B-q+s-q p+B-s=2 B-(p+1) q \\
& =(p+1) q-(p+1) q=0
\end{aligned}
$$

Case 2. Let us then assume that $B=q+\frac{q-1}{2} p=\frac{p+2}{2} q-\frac{p}{2}$. Now

$$
\left\lfloor\frac{B-s}{p}\right\rfloor=\frac{q-1}{2}+\left\lfloor\frac{q-s}{p}\right\rfloor \geq \frac{q-1}{2},
$$

since $q$ is odd and $q \geq s$. If $s \in\{1,2, \ldots, b\}$, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\min \left(S_{2}\right) & =s^{\prime}-\left(q-\left\lfloor\frac{B-s}{p}\right\rfloor-1\right) p \geq s^{\prime}-\left(q-\frac{q-1}{2}-1\right) p \\
& =q+\frac{q-1}{2} p-b+s-q p+\frac{q-1}{2} p+p \\
& =q-b+s \geq s>0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

If $s \in\{b+1, b+2, \ldots, q\}$, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\min \left(S_{2}\right) & \geq s^{\prime}-\left(q-\frac{q-1}{2}-1\right) p \\
& =q+\frac{q-1}{2} p-q-b+s-q p+\frac{q-1}{2} p+p \\
& =s-b>0
\end{aligned}
$$

Next we show that the set $S_{1} \cup S_{2}$ is a complete residue system modulo $q$ for every chosen $s \in\{1,2, \ldots, q\}$. The elements of $S_{1}$ are pairwise incongruent modulo $q$, since $\operatorname{gcd}(p, q)=1$ and $\left\lfloor\frac{B-s}{p}\right\rfloor \leq q$. The same holds for $S_{2}$. Assume now that for some $i \in\left\{1,2, \ldots,\left\lfloor\frac{B-s}{p}\right\rfloor\right\}$ and for some $j \in\left\{0,1, \ldots, q-\left\lfloor\frac{B-s}{p}\right\rfloor-1\right\}$ we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
s+i p \equiv s^{\prime}-j p \quad(\bmod q) \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

This is true if and only if $(i+j) p+s-s^{\prime} \equiv 0(\bmod q)$. Since $B \equiv b(\bmod q)$, we have $s^{\prime} \equiv s(\bmod q)$ by the definition of $s^{\prime}$. In other words, $(i+j) p+$ $s-s^{\prime} \equiv(i+j) p(\bmod q)$. Since $\operatorname{gcd}(p, q)=1$, Eq. (1) is true if and only if $(i+j) \equiv 0(\bmod q)$. But this is not possible, since

$$
0<(i+j) \leq\left\lfloor\frac{B-s}{p}\right\rfloor+q-\left\lfloor\frac{B-s}{p}\right\rfloor-1=q-1<q .
$$

Hence, in $S_{1} \cup S_{2}$ we have

$$
\left|S_{1} \cup S_{2}\right|=\left\lfloor\frac{B-s}{p}\right\rfloor+q-\left\lfloor\frac{B-s}{p}\right\rfloor=q
$$

pairwise incongruent elements modulo $q$. Let $b$ be a letter in position $t$ and let $a$ be the letter in position $s$ (and $s^{\prime}$ ). Now either an element in $S_{1}$ or in $S_{2}$ is congruent to $t$ modulo $q$. Hence $a R b$.

Next we will prove that our lower bounds are necessary.
Proposition 2. Let $p$ and $q$ be positive integers such that $\operatorname{gcd}(p, q)=1$. Let $B=B(p, q)$ be defined as in Table 1. There exists a word $w$ and a compatibility relation $R$ such that $|w|=B-1$, whas a (pure) period $q$ and an $R$-period $p$ but 1 is not an $R$-period of $w$.

Proof. Like in the proof of Proposition 1, let $b \in\{1,2, \ldots, q\}$ satisfy $b \equiv B(\bmod q)$. In addition, we define so called critical positions $a(p, q)$ according to Table 2. We show that it is possible to construct a word $w$ of length $|w|=B-1$ with a pure period $q$ and an $R$-period $p$ such that the letter in the critical position is not related to the letter in the position $b$. Note that all these critical positions are positive integers less than or equal to $q$. In the sequel we denote critical positions shortly by $a$.

| $a(p, q)$ | $p<q$ | $p>q$ |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| $p, q$ odd | $\frac{q-p}{2}$ | $q$ |
| $p$ odd, $q$ even | $\frac{q}{2}$ | $\frac{q}{2}$ |
| $p$ even, $q$ odd | $q$ | $q$ |

Table 2: Table of critical positions $a(p, q)$
Consider now the minimal solution $(i, j)$ for the equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
a+i q \equiv b+j q \quad(\bmod p) \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

such that $i$ and $j$ are nonnegative integers. By the minimal solution we mean a solution where $\max (a+i q, b+j q)$ is as small as possible. Note that if $i>j$ for some solution, then $a+(i-j) \equiv b(\bmod p)$ is a smaller solution. Similarly, if $j>i$, then $a \equiv b+(j-i) q(\bmod p)$ is a smaller solution. Thus the minimal solution is of the form where either $i=0$ or $j=0$.

Since $\operatorname{gcd}(p, q)=1$, we know that $\{a+i q \mid i=0,1, \ldots, p-1\}$ and $\{b+j q \mid j=0,1, \ldots, p-1\}$ are complete residue systems modulo $p$. Hence there exists exactly one $j \in\{0,1, \ldots, p-1\}$ satisfying $a \equiv b+j q(\bmod p)$ and exactly one $i \in\{0,1, \ldots, p-1\}$ satisfying $a+i q \equiv b(\bmod p)$. Furthermore, for $j \in\{1,2, \ldots, p-1\}$, we have

$$
a \equiv b+j q \quad(\bmod p) \Longrightarrow a+(p-j) q=a+p q-j q \equiv b \quad(\bmod p)
$$

and $p-j \in\{1,2, \ldots p-1\}$. Hence, the minimal solution of (2) is either of the form $(0, j)$ or $(p-j, 0)$.

Now we prove that in all the cases of Table 1 and Table 2 the minimal solution is

$$
i=0 \quad \text { and } \quad j=\frac{B-b}{q} .
$$

Note that, since $B<p q$, we have $\frac{B-b}{q} \in\{1,2, \ldots, p-1\}$ in all cases.
Consider first those cases where $B=\frac{p+1}{2} q$ and consequently $b=q$. Let $j=\frac{B-b}{q}$.

Case 1. Let $p$ and $q$ be both odd and $p<q$. By Table 2, we have $a=\frac{q-p}{2}$. Now $b+j q=B$ and, since $q$ is odd, it follows that

$$
(b+j q)-a=\frac{p+1}{2} q-\frac{q-p}{2}=\frac{q+1}{2} p \equiv 0 \quad(\bmod p) .
$$

Hence, $\left(0, \frac{B-b}{q}\right)$ is a solution. Furthermore,

$$
j q=B-b=\frac{p+1}{2} q-q=\frac{p-1}{2} q
$$

and

$$
a+(p-j) q=a+p q-\frac{p-1}{2} q=a+\frac{p+1}{2} q=a+B>B .
$$

Hence, in the solution $\left(p-\frac{B-b}{q}, 0\right)$, we have $\max (a+i q, b+j q)>B$ whereas in the solution $\left(0, \frac{B-b}{q}\right)$, we have $\max (a+i q, b+j q)=B$. Thus, $\left(0, \frac{B-b}{q}\right)$ is the minimal solution.

Case 2. Suppose that $p$ is odd and $q$ is even. By the parity of $q, a=\frac{q}{2}$ is an integer and

$$
(b+j q)-a=\frac{p+1}{2} q-\frac{q}{2}=\frac{q}{2} p \equiv 0 \quad(\bmod p) .
$$

Hence, $\left(0, \frac{B-b}{q}\right)$ is a solution. Like in Case 1, we have

$$
a+(p-j) q=a+B>B
$$

and therefore $\left(0, \frac{B-b}{q}\right)$ is the minimal solution also in this case.
Consider next those cases where $B=q+\frac{q-1}{2} p$. According to Table 1 and Table 2 we have $a=q$ and $q$ is odd. Clearly, $(i, j)=\left(0, \frac{B-b}{2}\right)$ is a solution, since

$$
(b+j q)-a=q+\frac{q-1}{2} p-q=\frac{q-1}{2} p \equiv 0 \quad(\bmod p) .
$$

Like above $a+(p-j) q=a+p q-B+b$. By substituting $a$ and $B$ we get $a+(p-j) q=q+\left(\frac{q-1}{2} p+\frac{q-1}{2} p+p\right)-\left(q+\frac{q-1}{2} p\right)+b=B+(p-q)+b$.

Case 3. Assume that $p>q$. Then $p-q$ is positive and $a+(p-j) q>B$. Thus the smallest solution is not $(p-j, 0)$.

Case 4. Assume that $p$ is even, $q$ is odd and $p<q$. Then $b=q-\frac{p}{2}$. Moreover,

$$
a+(p-j) q=B+(p-q)+q-\frac{p}{2}=B+\frac{p}{2}>B
$$

and we conclude that $\left(0, \frac{B-b}{q}\right)$ is the smallest solution also in this final case.
Define now a word $w$ in three letter alphabet $\{\alpha, \beta, \gamma\}$ by the rule

$$
w= \begin{cases}\left(\gamma^{a-1} \alpha \gamma^{q-a-1} \beta \frac{p+1}{2}\right. & \text { if } B=\frac{p+1}{2} q,  \tag{3}\\ \left(\gamma^{b-1} \beta \gamma^{q-b-1} \alpha\right)^{\frac{B-b}{q}} \gamma^{b-1} \beta & \text { if } B=q+\frac{q-1}{2} p,\end{cases}
$$

where $a=a(p, q)$ is given by Table 2. Define further that $w^{\prime}=w \beta^{-1}$. If $w$ has a relational $R$-period $p$, then by Proposition 1, it has also a relational $R$-period 1 . However, by the considerations above, the word $w^{\prime}$ does not have an $R$-period 1 if $\alpha$ and $\beta$ are unrelated by the compatibility relation $R$. Namely, the first occasion where the distance between letter $\alpha$ and letter $\beta$ in $w$ is a multiple of $p$ is the case where $\alpha$ is in the position $a$ and $\beta$ is in the position $B$.

Now we are ready to prove our main theorem.
Proof of Theorem 5. Suppose that a word $w$ has a pure period $Q$ and a relational $R$-period $P$ such that $\operatorname{gcd}(P, Q)=d$. Let $P=p d, Q=q d$ and $B=B(p, q)$. It suffices to prove the theorem for $|w|=B d$. Namely, if $|w|>B d$, then the theorem holds for any factor of $w$, and therefore also for $w$ itself. Let us consider words

$$
w^{(i)}=w_{i} w_{i+d} \cdots w_{i+(B-1) d}
$$

where $i=1,2, \ldots, d$. Now $\operatorname{gcd}(q, p)=1$ and each of the words $w^{(i)}$ has a pure period $q$ and a relational $R$-period $p$. Since $\left|w^{(i)}\right|=B$ for every $i=1,2, \ldots, d$, Proposition 1 implies that 1 is a relational $R$-period for all the words $w^{(i)}$. Consequently, $d$ is a relational $R$-period of $w$.

In order to prove that the bound $B d$ on the length of $w$ is necessary, we give an example of a word $w^{\prime}$ of length $B d-1$ such that it has a period $Q$ and an $R$ period $P$ but no $R$-period $d$. Suppose that $w^{(d)}$ is given by Eq. (3) and $w^{(i)}=\gamma^{B}$ for $i=1,2, \ldots, d-1$. Let $w$ be a perfect shuffle of these $d$ sequences, i.e.,

$$
w=w_{1}^{(1)} w_{1}^{(2)} \cdots w_{1}^{(d)} w_{2}^{(1)} w_{2}^{(2)} \cdots w_{2}^{(d)} \cdots w_{B}^{(1)} w_{B}^{(2)} \cdots w_{B}^{(d)}
$$

Define further that

$$
w^{\prime}=w \beta^{-1} .
$$

Now $w^{\prime}$ clearly satisfies our conditions, but by the proof of Proposition 2, $\operatorname{gcd}(P, Q)=d$ is not an $R$-period of $w^{\prime}$, if $\alpha$ and $\beta$ are unrelated by the compatibility relation $R$.

## References

[1] J. Berstel, L. Boasson, Partial words and a theorem of Fine and Wilf, Theoret. Comput. Sci. 218 (1999) 135-141.
[2] F. Blanchet-Sadri, A periodicity result of partial words with one hole, Comput. Math. Appl. 46 (2003) 813-820.
[3] F. Blanchet-Sadri, Periodicity on partial words, Comput. Math. Appl. 47 (2004) 71-82.
[4] F. Blanchet-Sadri, Codes, orderings, and partial words, Theoret. Comput. Sci. 329 (2004) 177-202.
[5] F. Blanchet-Sadri, A. Chriscoe, Local periods and binary partial words: an algorithm, Theoret. Comput. Sci. 314 (2004) 189-216.
[6] F. Blanchet-Sadri, S. Duncan, Partial words and the critical factorization theorem, J. Combin. Theory Ser. A 109 (2005) 221-245.
[7] F. Blanchet-Sadri, R. A. Hegstrom, Partial words and a theorem of Fine and Wilf revisited, Theoret. Comput. Sci. 270 (2002) 401-419.
[8] N. J. Fine, H. S. Wilf, Uniqueness theorem for periodic functions, Proc. Amer. Math. Soc. 16 (1965) 109-114.
[9] V. Halava, T. Harju and T. Kärki, Relational codes of words, TUCS Tech. Rep. 767, Turku Centre for Computer Science, Finland, April 2006.
[10] V. Halava, T. Harju and T. Kärki, Defect theorems with compatibility relation, TUCS Tech. Rep. 778, Turku Centre for Computer Science, Finland, August 2006.
[11] P. Leupold, Partial words for DNA coding, Lecture Notes in Comput. Sci. 3384 (2005) 224-234.
[12] A. M. Shur, Y. V. Gamzova, Periods' interaction property for partial words, in: T. Harju, J. Karhumäki (Eds.), Proceedings of Words'03, TUCS General Publication 27, Turku, 2003, pp. 75-82.
[13] A. M. Shur, Yu. V. Gamzova, Partial words and the interaction property of periods, Izv. Math. 68 (2) (2004) 405-428.


## University of Turku

- Department of Information Technology
- Department of Mathematics



## Åbo Akademi University

- Department of Computer Science
- Institute for Advanced Management Systems Research



## Turku School of Economics and Business Administration

- Institute of Information Systems Sciences

