

# Closed, palindromic, rich, privileged, trapezoidal, and balanced words in automatic sequences

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## Abstract

We prove that the property of being closed (resp., palindromic, rich, privileged, trapezoidal, balanced) is expressible in first-order logic for automatic (and some related) sequences. It therefore follows that the characteristic function of those  $n$  for which an automatic sequence  $\mathbf{x}$  has a closed (resp., palindromic, privileged, rich, trapezoidal, balanced) factor of length  $n$  is itself automatic. For privileged words this requires a new characterization of the privileged property. We compute the corresponding characteristic functions for various famous sequences, such as the Thue-Morse sequence, the Rudin-Shapiro sequence, the ordinary paperfolding sequence, the period-doubling sequence, and the Fibonacci sequence. Finally, we also show that the function counting the total number of palindromic factors in the prefix of length  $n$  of a  $k$ -automatic sequence is not  $k$ -synchronized.

**Keywords:** decision procedure, closed word, palindrome, rich word, privileged word, trapezoidal word, balanced word, Thue-Morse sequence, Rudin-Shapiro sequence, period-doubling sequence, paperfolding sequence, Fibonacci word.

## 1 Introduction

Recently a wide variety of different kinds of words have been studied in the combinatorics on words literature, including the six flavors of the title: closed, palindromic, rich, privileged, trapezoidal, and balanced words. In this paper we show that, for  $k$ -automatic sequences  $\mathbf{x}$  (and some analogs, such as the so-called “Fibonacci-automatic” sequences [19]), the property of a factor belonging to each class is expressible in first-order logic; more precisely, in the theory  $\text{Th}(\mathbb{N}, +, n \rightarrow \mathbf{x}[n])$ . Previously we did this for unbordered factors [22].

As a consequence of our results, and the pioneering work of Büchi [9] and Hodgson [24], we get that (for example) the characteristic sequence of those lengths for which a factor of that length belongs to each class is  $k$ -automatic, and the number of such factors of each length forms a  $k$ -regular sequence. (For more about the connection to logic, see the excellent survey [5]. For definitions of  $k$ -automatic and  $k$ -regular, see, for example, [2].)

Using an implementation of a decision procedure for first-order expressible properties, we can give explicit expressions for the lengths of factors in each class for some famous sequences, such as the Thue-Morse sequence, the Rudin-Shapiro sequence, the period-doubling sequence, and the ordinary paperfolding sequence. For some of the properties, these expressions are surprisingly complicated.

## 2 Notation and definitions

As usual, if  $w = xyz$ , we say that  $x$  is a prefix of  $w$ , that  $z$  is a suffix of  $w$ , and  $y$  is a factor of  $w$ . By  $|x|_w$  we mean the number of (possibly overlapping) occurrences of  $w$  as a factor of  $x$ . For example,  $|\text{confrontation}|_{\text{on}} = 3$ . By  $x^R$  we mean the reversal (sometimes called mirror image) of the word  $x$ . Thus, for example,  $(\text{drawer})^R = \text{reward}$ . By  $\Sigma_k$  we mean the alphabet  $\{0, 1, \dots, k-1\}$  of cardinality  $k$ .

A factor  $w$  of  $x$  is said to be *right-special* if both  $wa$  and  $wb$  are factors of  $x$ , for two distinct letters  $a$  and  $b$ .

A word  $x$  is a *palindrome* if  $x = x^R$ . Examples of palindromes in English include **radar** and **redivider**. Droubay, Justin, and Pirillo [18] proved that every word of length  $n$  contains at most  $n+1$  distinct palindromic factors (including the empty word). A word is called *rich* if it contains exactly this many. For example, the English words **logology** and **Mississippi** are both rich. For example, **Mississippi** has the following distinct nonempty palindromic factors:

M, i, s, p, ss, pp, sis, issi, ippi, ssiss, ississi.

For more about rich words, see [21, 17, 6, 7].

A nonempty word  $w$  is a *border* of a word  $x$  if  $w$  is both a prefix and a suffix of  $x$ . A word  $x$  is called *closed* (aka “complete first return”) if it is of length  $\leq 1$ , or if it has a border  $w$  with  $|x|_w = 2$ . For example, **abracadabra** is closed because of the border **abra**, while **alfalfa** is closed because of the border **alfa**. The latter example shows that, in the definition, the prefix and suffix are allowed to overlap. For more about closed words, see [3].

A word  $x$  is called *privileged* if it is of length  $\leq 1$ , or it has a border  $w$  with  $|x|_w = 2$  that is itself privileged. Clearly every privileged word is closed, but **mama** is an example of an English word that is closed but not privileged. For more about privileged words, see [26, 28, 29, 20].

A word  $x$  is called *trapezoidal* if it has, for each  $n \geq 0$ , at most  $n+1$  distinct factors of length  $n$ . Since for  $n = 1$  the definition requires at most 2 distinct factors, this means

that every trapezoidal word can be defined over an alphabet of at most 2 letters. An example in English is the word **deeded**. See, for example, [16, 15, 17, 8].

A word  $x$  is called *balanced* if, for all factors  $y, z$  of the same length of  $x$  and all letters  $a$  of the alphabet, the inequality  $||y|_a - |z|_a| \leq 1$  holds. Otherwise it is *unbalanced*. An example of a balanced word in English is **banana**.

We use the terms “infinite sequence” and “infinite word” as synonyms. In this paper, names of infinite words are given in the **bold** font. All infinite words are indexed starting at position 0. If  $\mathbf{x} = x_0x_1x_2\cdots$  is an infinite word, with each  $x_i$  a single letter, then by  $\mathbf{x}[i..j]$  for  $j \geq i - 1$  we mean the finite word  $x_ix_{i+1}\cdots x_j$ . By  $[i..j]$  we mean the set  $\{i, i + 1, \dots, j\}$ .

### 3 Sequences

In this section we define the five sequences we will study. For more information about these sequences, see, for example, [2].

The *Thue-Morse sequence*  $\mathbf{t} = t_0t_1t_2\cdots = 01101001\cdots$  is defined by the relations  $t_0 = 0$ ,  $t_{2n} = t_n$ , and  $t_{2n+1} = 1 - t_n$  for  $n \geq 0$ . It is also expressible as the fixed point, starting with 0, of the morphism  $\mu : 0 \rightarrow 01, 1 \rightarrow 10$ .

The *Rudin-Shapiro sequence*  $\mathbf{r} = r_0r_1r_2\cdots = 00010010\cdots$  is defined by the relations  $r_0 = 0$ ,  $r_3 = 1$ ,  $r_{2n} = r_n$ ,  $r_{4n+1} = r_n$ ,  $r_{8n+7} = r_{2n+1}$ ,  $r_{16n+3} = r_{8n+3}$ ,  $r_{16n+11} = r_{4n+3}$  for  $n \geq 0$ . It is also expressible as the image, under the coding  $\tau : n \rightarrow \lfloor n/2 \rfloor$ , of the fixed point, starting with 0, of the morphism  $\rho : 0 \rightarrow 01, 1 \rightarrow 02, 2 \rightarrow 31, 3 \rightarrow 32$ .

The *ordinary paperfolding sequence*  $\mathbf{p} = p_0p_1p_2\cdots = 00100110\cdots$  is defined by the relations  $p_{2n+1} = p_n$ ,  $p_{4n} = 0$ ,  $p_{4n+2} = 1$  for  $n \geq 0$ . It is also expressible as the image, under the coding  $\tau$  above, of the fixed point, starting with 0, of the morphism  $\rho : 0 \rightarrow 01, 1 \rightarrow 21, 2 \rightarrow 03, 3 \rightarrow 23$ .

The *period-doubling sequence*  $\mathbf{d} = d_0d_1d_2\cdots = 10111010\cdots$  is defined by the relations  $d_{2n} = 1$ ,  $d_{4n+1} = 0$ , and  $d_{4n+3} = d_n$  for  $n \geq 0$ . It is also expressible as the fixed point, starting with 1, of the morphism  $\delta : 1 \rightarrow 10, 0 \rightarrow 11$ .

The *Fibonacci sequence*  $\mathbf{f} = f_0f_1f_2\cdots = 01001010\cdots$  is the fixed point, starting with 0, of the morphism  $\varphi : 0 \rightarrow 01, 1 \rightarrow 0$ .

### 4 Common predicates

Before we see how rich words, privileged words, closed words, etc. can be phrased as first-order predicates, let us define a few basic predicates.

First, we have the two basic predicates  $\text{IN}(i, r, s)$ , which is true if and only if  $i \in [r..s]$ :

$$\text{IN}(i, r, s) := (i \geq r) \wedge (i \leq s),$$

and  $\text{SUBS}(i, j, m, n)$ , which is true if and only if  $[i..i + m - 1] \subseteq [j..j + n - 1]$ :

$$\text{SUBS}(i, j, m, n) := (j \leq i) \wedge (i + m \leq j + n).$$

Next, we have the predicate

$$\text{FACTOREQ}(i, j, n) := \forall k (k < n) \implies (\mathbf{x}[i + k] = \mathbf{x}[j + k]),$$

which checks whether  $\mathbf{x}[i..i + n - 1]$  and  $\mathbf{x}[j..j + n - 1]$  are equal by comparing them at corresponding positions,  $\mathbf{x}[i + k]$  and  $\mathbf{x}[j + k]$ , for  $k = 0, \dots, n - 1$ . By a similar principle, we can compare  $\mathbf{x}[i..i + n - 1]$  with  $\mathbf{x}[j..j + n - 1]^R$ , but in this paper we only need the special case  $i = j$ , i.e., palindromes:

$$\text{PAL}(i, n) := \forall k (k < n) \implies (\mathbf{x}[i + k] = \mathbf{x}[i + n - 1 - k]).$$

From FACTOREQ, we derive other useful predicates. For instance, the predicate

$$\text{OCCURS}(i, j, m, n) := (m \leq n) \wedge (\exists k (k + m \leq n) \wedge \text{FACTOREQ}(i, j + k, m))$$

tests whether  $\mathbf{x}[i..i + m - 1]$  is a factor of  $\mathbf{x}[j..j + n - 1]$ . We also define

$$\text{BORDER}(i, m, n) := \text{IN}(m, 1, n) \wedge \text{FACTOREQ}(i, i + n - m, m),$$

which is true if and only if  $\mathbf{x}[i..i + m - 1]$  is a border of  $\mathbf{x}[i..i + n - 1]$ .

In the next five sections, we obtain our results using the implementation of a decision procedure for the corresponding properties, written by Hamoon Mousavi, and called **Walnut**, to prove theorems by machine computation. The software is available for download at

<https://cs.uwaterloo.ca/~shallit/papers.html> .

All of the predicates in this paper can easily be translated into Hamoon Mousavi's **Walnut** program. Files for the examples in this paper are available at the same URL as above, so the reader can easily run and verify the results.

## 5 Closed words

We can create a predicate  $\text{CLOSED}(i, n)$  that asserts that  $\mathbf{x}[i..i + n - 1]$  is closed as follows:

$$(n \leq 1) \vee (\exists j (j < n) \wedge \text{BORDER}(i, j, n) \wedge \neg \text{OCCURS}(i, i + 1, j, n - 2))$$

**Theorem 1.** (a) *There is a closed factor of Thue-Morse of every length.*

(b) *There is a 15-state automaton accepting the base-2 representation of those  $n$  for which there is a closed factor of Rudin-Shapiro of length  $n$ .*

(c) *There is an 11-state automaton accepting the base-2 representation of those  $n$  for which there is a closed factor of the paperfolding sequence of length  $n$ . It is depicted below in Figure 1.*

(d) *There is a closed factor of the period-doubling sequence of every length.*

(e) *There is a closed factor of the Fibonacci sequence of every length.*

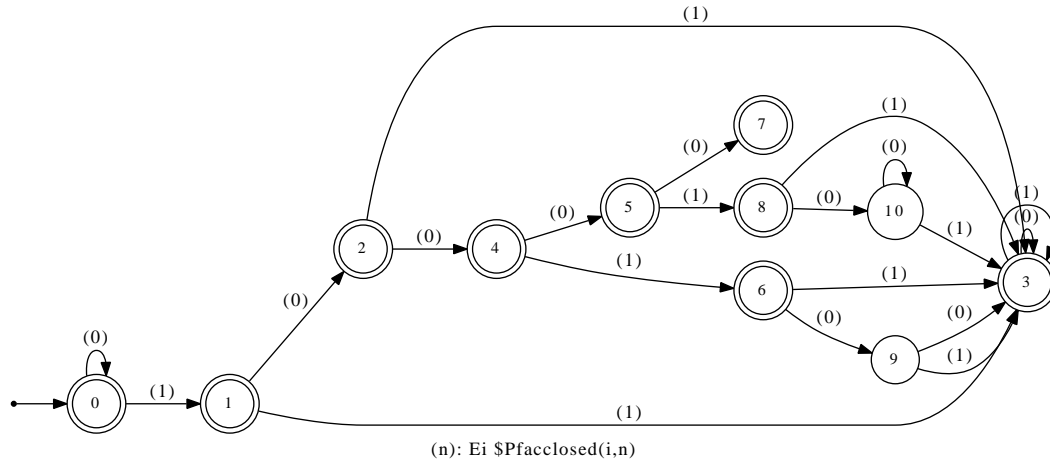


Figure 1: Automaton for lengths of closed factors of the paperfolding sequence

As we have seen above, the Thue-Morse sequence contains a closed factor of every length. We now turn to enumerating  $f(n)$ , the number of such factors of length  $n$ . Here are the first few values of  $f(n)$ :

$n$	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
$f(n)$	1	2	2	2	4	4	6	4	8	8	10	8	12	8	8	8

The first step is to create a predicate  $\text{UCF}(i, n)$  which is true if  $\mathbf{t}[i..i + n - 1]$  is a closed factor of  $\mathbf{t}$  of length  $n$ , and is also the first occurrence of that factor:

$$\text{UCF}(i, n) := \text{CLOSED}(i, n) \wedge \neg \text{OCCURS}(i, 0, n, i + n - 1).$$

The associated DFA then gives us (as in [22]) a linear representation for  $f(n)$ : vectors  $v, w$  and a matrix-valued homomorphism  $\mu : \{0, 1\} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}^{k \times k}$  such that  $f(n) = v\mu(x)w^T$  for all  $x$  that are valid base-2 representations of  $n$ .

They are as follows (with  $\mu(i) = M_i$ ):



This linear representation can be minimized, using the algorithm in [4], obtaining

$$M'_0 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 1 & 1 & 1/2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -2 & 2 & 0 & -3 & 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 & 4 & -4 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1/2 & 11/4 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$M'_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 & -2 & -1 & 4 & -2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 4 & -4 & 0 & 10 & -8 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 & -1/2 & 7/2 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$v' = [ 1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 ]$$

$$w' = [ 1 \ 2 \ 2 \ 2 \ 4 \ 4 \ 6 \ 4 \ 8 \ 8 ]$$

From this, using the technique in [22], we can obtain the following relations

$$\begin{aligned} f(8n) &= -2f(2n+1) + f(4n) + 2f(4n+1) \\ f(8n+1) &= -2f(2n+1) + 3f(4n+1) \\ f(8n+3) &= -2f(2n+1) + 2f(4n+1) + f(4n+3) \\ f(8n+4) &= 2f(2n+1) - \frac{5}{2}f(4n+1) + f(4n+2) + \frac{1}{2}f(4n+3) + f(8n+2) \\ f(8n+5) &= 2f(4n+3) \\ f(8n+7) &= -4f(2n+1) + 2f(4n+1) - 2f(4n+3) + 2f(8n+6) \\ f(16n+2) &= -6f(2n+1) + \frac{13}{2}f(4n+1) + \frac{1}{2}f(4n+3) \\ f(16n+6) &= -\frac{1}{2}f(4n+1) + f(4n+2) + \frac{3}{2}f(4n+3) + f(8n+2) \\ f(16n+10) &= 2f(4n+3) + f(8n+6) \\ f(32n+14) &= -2f(2n+1) - \frac{7}{2}f(4n+1) + 3f(4n+2) + \frac{7}{2}f(4n+3) + 3f(8n+2) \\ f(32n+30) &= 24f(2n+1) - 6f(4n+1) + 14f(4n+3) - 4f(8n+2) \\ &\quad -12f(8n+6) + 5f(16n+14). \end{aligned}$$

From these we can verify the following theorem by a tedious induction on  $n$ :

**Theorem 2.** *Let  $n \geq 8$  and let  $k \geq -1$  be an integer. Then*

$$f(n) = \begin{cases} 2^{k+4}, & \text{if } 15 \cdot 2^k < n \leq 18 \cdot 2^k; \\ 2n - 20 \cdot 2^k - 2, & \text{if } 18 \cdot 2^k < n \leq 19 \cdot 2^k; \\ 56 \cdot 2^k - 2n + 2, & \text{if } 19 \cdot 2^k < n \leq 20 \cdot 2^k; \\ 4n - 64 \cdot 2^k - 4, & \text{if } 20 \cdot 2^k < n \leq 22 \cdot 2^k; \\ 112 \cdot 2^k - 4n + 4, & \text{if } 22 \cdot 2^k < n \leq 24 \cdot 2^k; \\ 2^{k+4}, & \text{if } 24 \cdot 2^k < n \leq 28 \cdot 2^k; \\ 8n - 208 \cdot 2^k - 8, & \text{if } 28 \cdot 2^k < n \leq 30 \cdot 2^k. \end{cases}$$

## 6 Palindromic words

Palindromes in words have a long history of being studied; for example, see [1].

It is already known that many aspects of palindromes in  $k$ -automatic sequences are expressible in first-order logic; see, for example, [13].

In this section, we turn to a variation on palindromic words, the so-called “maximal palindromes”. For us, a factor  $x$  of an infinite word  $\mathbf{w}$  is a *maximal palindrome* if  $x$  is a palindrome, while no factor of the form  $axa$  for  $a$  a single letter occurs in  $\mathbf{w}$ . This differs slightly from the existing definitions, which deal with the maximality of *occurrences* [25].

The property of being a maximal palindrome is easily expressible in terms of predicates defined above:

$$\text{MAXPAL}(i, n) := \text{PAL}(i, n) \wedge (\forall j ((j \geq 1) \wedge \text{FACTOREQ}(i, j, n)) \implies \mathbf{x}[j-1] \neq \mathbf{x}[j+n])$$

Using this, and our program, we can easily prove the following result:

**Theorem 3.** (a) *The Thue-Morse sequence contains maximal palindromes of length  $3 \cdot 4^n$  for each  $n \geq 0$ , and no others. These palindromes are of the form  $\mu^{2^n}(010)$  and  $\mu^{2^n}(101)$  for  $n \geq 0$ .*

(b) *The Rudin-Shapiro sequence contains exactly 8 maximal palindromes. They are*

$$0100010, 0001000, 1110111, 1011101, 0010000100, 1101111011, \\ 1110110111, 10000100100001.$$

(c) *The ordinary paperfolding sequence contains exactly 6 maximal palindromes. They are*

$$001100, 110011, 011000110, 100111001, 1000110110001, 0111001001110.$$

(d) *The period-doubling sequence contains maximal palindromes of lengths  $3 \cdot 2^n - 1$  for all  $n \geq 0$ , and no others.*

(e) *The Fibonacci sequence contains no maximal palindromes at all.*



We now turn to a result about counting palindromes in automatic sequences. To state it, we first need to describe representations of integers in base  $k$ . By  $(n)_k$  we mean the string over the alphabet  $\Sigma_k := \{0, 1, \dots, k-1\}$  representing  $n$  in base  $k$ , and having no leading zeroes. This is generalized to representing  $r$ -tuples of integers by changing the alphabet to  $\Sigma_k^r$ , and padding shorter representations on the left, if necessary, with leading zeroes. Thus, for example,  $(6, 3)_2 = [1, 0][1, 1][0, 1]$ . By  $[w]_k$ , for a word  $w$ , we mean the value of  $w$  when interpreted as an integer in base  $k$ .

Next, we need the concept of  $k$ -synchronization [12, 10, 11, 23]. We say a function  $f(n)$  is  $k$ -synchronized if there is a finite automaton accepting the language  $\{(n, f(n))_k : n \geq 0\}$ .

The following is a useful lemma:

**Lemma 4.** *If  $(f(n))_{n \geq 0}$  is a  $k$ -synchronized sequence, and  $f$  is unbounded, then there exists a constant  $c > 0$  such that  $f(n) \geq cn$  infinitely often.*

*Proof.* Since  $f$  is unbounded, there exists  $n > 0$  such that  $f(n) > k^N$ , where  $N$  is the number of states in the minimal automaton accepting  $L^R$ , where  $L = \{(n, f(n))_k : n \geq 0\}$ . Apply the pumping lemma to the string  $z = (n, f(n))_k^R$ . It says that we can write  $z = uvw$ , where  $|uv| \leq n$  and  $w$  has nonzero elements in both components. Then, letting  $(n_i, f(n_i)) = [(uv^i w)^R]_k$  we see that this subsequence has the desired property.  $\square$

**Theorem 5.** *The function counting the number of distinct palindromes in the prefix of length  $n$  of a  $k$ -automatic sequence is not necessarily  $k$ -synchronized.*

*Proof.* Our proof is based on two infinite words,  $\mathbf{a} = (a_i)_{i \geq 0}$  and  $\mathbf{b} = (b_i)_{i \geq 0}$ .

The word  $\mathbf{a}$  is defined as follows:

$$a_i = \begin{cases} (k \bmod 2) + 1, & \text{if there exists } k \text{ such that } 4^{k+1} - 4^k \leq i \leq 4^{k+1} + 4^k; \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

The word  $\mathbf{b}$  is defined as follows:

$$b_i = \begin{cases} (k \bmod 2) + 1, & \text{if there exists } k \text{ such that } 4^{k+1} - 4^k < i < 4^{k+1} + 4^k; \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

We leave the easy proof that  $\mathbf{a}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$  are 4-automatic to the reader.

We now compare the palindromes in  $\mathbf{a}$  to those in  $\mathbf{b}$ . From the definition, every palindrome in either sequence is clearly in

$$0^* + 1^* + 2^* + 0^*1^*0^* + 0^*2^*0^*.$$

Since  $\mathbf{a}$  has longer blocks of 1's and 2s than  $\mathbf{b}$  does, there may be some palindromes of the form  $1^i$  or  $2^i$  that occur in a prefix of  $\mathbf{a}$ , but not the corresponding prefix of  $\mathbf{b}$ . Conversely,  $\mathbf{b}$  may contain palindromes of the form  $0^i$  that do not occur in the corresponding prefix of  $\mathbf{a}$ . The net difference, if any, is at most a constant.

Call an occurrence of a factor in a word *novel* if it is the first occurrence in the word. The palindromes not of the form  $a^i$ , where  $a \in \{0, 1, 2\}$ , are of the form  $0^i 1^j 0^i$  or  $0^i 2^j 0^i$ , and must be centered at a position that is a power of 4. It is not hard to see that if  $\mathbf{a}[i..i + n - 1]$  is a novel palindrome occurrence of this form in  $\mathbf{a}$ , then  $\mathbf{b}[\mathbf{i}..\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{n} - \mathbf{1}]$  is also a novel palindrome occurrence of this form.

On the other hand, for each  $k \geq 1$ , there are two palindromes that occur in  $\mathbf{b}$  but not  $\mathbf{a}$ . The first is of the form  $01^j0$  or  $02^j0$ , since the corresponding factor of  $\mathbf{a}$  is either  $1 \cdots 1$  or  $2 \cdots 2$ , and hence has been previously accounted for (as a palindrome of the form  $1^*$  or  $2^*$ ). Second, there is a factor of the form  $0^* 1^* 0^*$  or  $0^* 2^* 0^*$  in  $\mathbf{b}$  which appears as  $20^* 1^* 0^*$  or  $10^* 2^* 0^*$  in  $\mathbf{a}$  because the neighbouring block of 1's or 2's is slightly wider in  $\mathbf{a}$  and therefore slightly closer. We conclude that the length- $n$  prefix of  $\mathbf{b}$  has  $2 \log_4 n + O(1)$  more palindromes than the length- $n$  prefix of  $\mathbf{a}$ .

Now suppose, contrary to what we want to prove, that the number of palindromes in the prefix of length  $n$  of a  $k$ -automatic sequence is  $k$ -synchronized. In particular, the sequence  $\mathbf{a}$  (resp.,  $\mathbf{b}$ ) is 4-automatic, so the number of palindromes in  $\mathbf{a}[0..n - 1]$  (resp.,  $\mathbf{b}[0..n - 1]$ ) is 4-synchronized. Now, using a result of Carpi and Maggi [12, Prop. 2.1], the number of palindromes in  $\mathbf{b}[1..n]$  minus the number of palindromes in  $\mathbf{a}[1..n]$  is 4-synchronized. But from above this difference is  $2 \log_4 n + O(1)$ , which by Lemma 4 cannot be 4-synchronized. This is a contradiction.  $\square$

## 7 Rich words

As we have seen, a word  $x$  is rich if and only if it has  $|x| + 1$  distinct palindromic subwords. As stated, it does not seem easy to phrase this in first-order logic. Luckily, there is an alternative characterization of rich words, which can be found in [18, Prop. 3]: a word is rich if every prefix  $p$  of  $w$  has a palindromic suffix  $s$  that occurs only once in  $p$ . This property can be stated as follows:

$$\text{RICH}(i, n) := \forall m \text{ IN}(m, 1, n) \implies (\exists j \text{ SUBS}(j, i, 1, m) \wedge \text{PAL}(j, i + m - j) \wedge \neg \text{OCCURS}(j, i, i + m - j, m - 1)).$$

Finally, we can express the property that  $\mathbf{x}$  has a rich factor of length  $n$  as follows:

$$\exists i \text{ RICH}(i, n).$$

**Theorem 6.** (a) *The Thue-Morse sequence contains exactly 161 distinct rich factors, the longest being of length 16.*

(b) *The Rudin-Shapiro sequence contains exactly 975 distinct rich factors, the longest being of length 30.*

(c) *The ordinary paperfolding sequence contains exactly 494 distinct rich factors, the longest being of length 23.*

(d) *The period-doubling sequence has a rich factor of every length. In fact, every factor of the period-doubling sequence is rich.*

(e) Every factor of the Fibonacci sequence is rich.

Of course, (e) was already well known, in much greater generality: Droubay, Justin, and Pirillo [18] proved that every factor of every episturmian word is rich.

## 8 Privileged words

The recursive definition for privileged words given above in Section 2 is not obviously expressible in first-order logic. However, we can prove a new, alternative characterization of these words, as follows:

Let us say a word  $w$  has property  $P$  if for all  $n$ ,  $1 \leq n \leq |w|$ , there exists a word  $x$  such that  $1 \leq |x| \leq n$ , and  $x$  occurs exactly once in the first  $n$  symbols of  $w$ , as a prefix, and  $x$  also occurs exactly once in the last  $n$  symbols of  $w$ , as a suffix.

**Lemma 7.** *If  $w$  is a bordered word with property  $P$ , then every border also has property  $P$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $z$  be a border of  $w$ . Given any  $1 \leq n \leq |z|$ , property  $P$  for  $w$  says that there exists a border  $x$  of  $w$  such that  $1 \leq |x| \leq n$ , and  $x$  occurs exactly once in the first (resp., last)  $n$  symbols in  $w$ . Then observe that the first (resp., last)  $n$  symbols of  $w$  are precisely the first (resp., last)  $n$  symbols of  $z$ . Since  $x$  is also a border of  $z$ , it follows that  $z$  has property  $P$ .  $\square$

**Theorem 8.** *A word  $w$  is privileged if and only if it has property  $P$ .*

*Proof.* If  $w$  is privileged, then, by definition, there is a sequence of privileged words  $w = w_0, w_1, \dots, w_{k-1}, w_k$  such that  $|w_k| = 1$  and for all  $i$ ,  $w_{i+1}$  is a prefix and suffix of  $w_i$  and occurs nowhere else in  $w_i$ . Given an integer  $n$ , let  $x$  be the largest  $w_i$  such that  $|w_i| \leq n$ . Either  $i = 0$  because  $n = |w|$  and everything works out, or  $|w_{i-1}| > n$ . Then  $w_i$  is a prefix of  $w_{i-1}$  (and therefore a prefix of  $w$ ), and there is no other occurrence of  $w_i$  in  $w_{i-1}$  (which includes the first  $n$  symbols of  $w$ ). Similarly,  $w_i$  is a suffix of  $w$ , but does not occur again in the last  $n$  symbols of  $w$ .

For the other direction, we assume the word has property  $P$  and use induction on the length of  $w$ . If  $|w| = 1$  then the word is privileged immediately. Otherwise, take  $n = |w| - 1$  and find the corresponding  $x$  promised by property  $P$ . Then  $x$  is both a prefix and a suffix of  $w$ , so it has property  $P$ . It is also shorter than  $w$ , so by induction,  $x$  is privileged. Then  $x$  is a privileged prefix and suffix of  $w$  which does not occur anywhere else in  $w$  (by property  $P$ ), so  $w$  is privileged.  $\square$

This property can be represented as a predicate in two different ways. First, let us write a predicate that is true if and only if the prefix  $\mathbf{x}[i..i + m - 1]$  occurs exactly once in  $\mathbf{x}[i..i + n - 1]$ :

$$\text{UNIQUEPREF}(i, m, n) := \forall j \text{ IN}(j, 1, n - m - 1) \implies \neg \text{FACTOREQ}(i, i + j, m).$$

There is a similar expression for whether the suffix  $\mathbf{x}[i+n-m..i+n-1]$  occurs exactly once in  $\mathbf{x}[i..i+n-1]$ :

$$\text{UNIQUE\_SUFF}(i, m, n) := \forall j \text{ IN}(j, 1, n-m-1) \implies \neg \text{FACTOR\_EQ}(i+n-m, i+n-m-j, m).$$

And finally, our first characterization of privileged words is

$$\begin{aligned} \text{PRIV}(i, n) := & (n \leq 1) \vee (\forall m \text{ IN}(m, 1, n) \implies \\ & (\exists p \text{ IN}(p, 1, m) \wedge \text{BORDER}(i, p, n) \wedge \text{UNIQUE\_PREF}(i, p, m) \wedge \text{UNIQUE\_SUFF}(i+n-m, p, m))). \end{aligned}$$

Alternatively, we can write

$$\begin{aligned} \text{PRIV}'(i, n) := & (n \leq 1) \vee (\forall m \text{ IN}(m, 1, n) \implies \\ & (\exists p \text{ IN}(p, 1, m) \wedge \text{BORDER}(i, p, n) \wedge \\ & \neg \text{OCCURS}(i, i+1, p, m-1) \wedge \neg \text{OCCURS}(i, i+n-m, p, m-1))). \end{aligned}$$

**Theorem 9.** (a) *There is a 46-state automaton accepting the base-2 expansions of those  $n$  for which the Thue-Morse sequence has a privileged factor of length  $n$ .*

(b) *There is an 84-state automaton accepting the base-2 expansions of those  $n$  for which the Rudin-Shapiro sequence has a privileged factor of length  $n$ .*

(c) *There is a 47-state automaton accepting the base-2 expansions of those  $n$  for which the paperfolding sequence has a privileged factor of length  $n$ .*

(d) *The set of  $n$  for which the period-doubling sequence has a privileged factor of length  $n$  is*

$$\{0, 2\} \cup \{2n+1 : n \geq 0\}.$$

*There is a 4-state automaton accepting the base-2 expansions of those  $n$  for which the period-doubling sequence has a privileged factor of length  $n$ . It is illustrated below in Figure 2.*

(e) *There is a 20-state automaton accepting the Zeckendorf representations of those pairs  $(i, n)$  for which  $\mathbf{f}[i..i+n-1]$  is privileged. It is illustrated below in Figure 3. The Fibonacci word has privileged factors of every length. If  $n$  is even there is exactly one privileged factor. If  $n$  is odd there are exactly two privileged factors.*

*Remark 10.* For (a)–(d) we used  $\text{PRIV}$  and for (e) we used  $\text{PRIV}'$ .

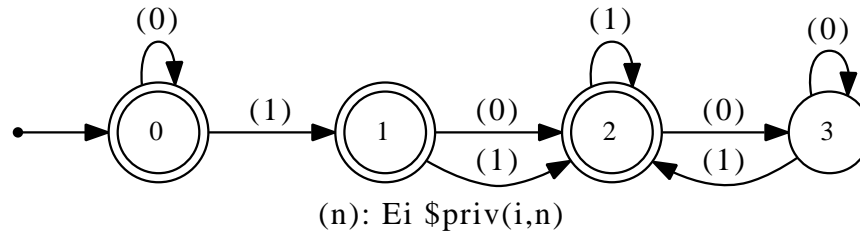


Figure 2: Automaton for lengths of privileged factors of the period-doubling word

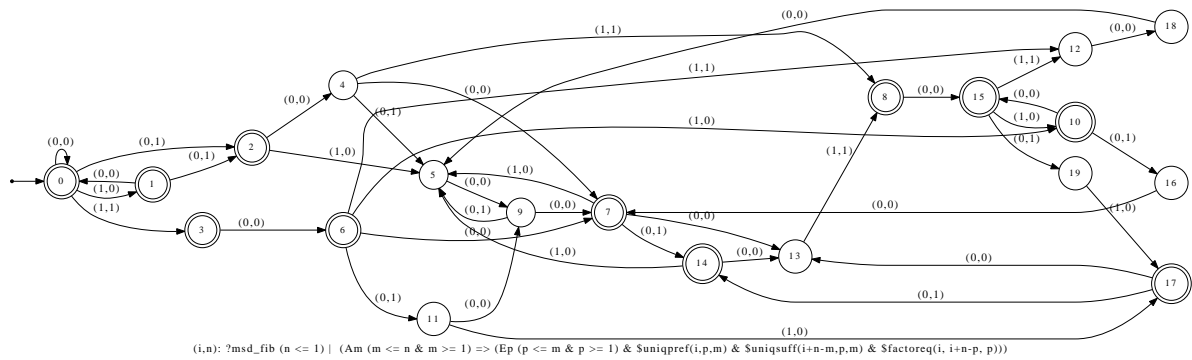


Figure 3: Automaton for privileged factors of the Fibonacci word

We now turn to recovering some of the results of [29] on the number  $a(n)$  of privileged factors of the Thue-Morse sequence. Here are the first few values of this sequence

$n$	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
$a(n)$	1	2	2	2	2	0	4	0	8	0	8	0	4	0	0	0	0

As we did above for closed words, we first make an automaton for the first occurrences of each privileged factor of length  $n$ . We then convert this to a linear representation  $(v, \mu, w)$ , obtaining

[illegible]

$$w = [1 \ 0 \ 1 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1 \ 1]$$

We can then obtain relations for the sequence  $(a(n))_{\geq 0}$ :

$$\begin{aligned}
a(4n+3) &= a(4n+1) \\
a(8n+1) &= a(4n+1) \\
a(8n+5) &= 0 \\
a(16n+6) &= a(4n+1) + a(4n+2) - \frac{1}{2}a(16n+2) + \frac{1}{2}a(16n+4) \\
a(16n+8) &= 3a(4n+1) + 3a(4n+2) - \frac{1}{2}a(16n+2) - \frac{3}{2}a(16n+4) \\
a(16n+10) &= 3a(4n+1) + 3a(4n+2) - \frac{1}{2}a(16n+2) - \frac{3}{2}a(16n+4) \\
a(16n+12) &= a(4n+1) + a(4n+2) - \frac{1}{2}a(16n+2) + \frac{1}{2}a(16n+4) \\
a(32n) &= a(2n+1) - \frac{1}{2}a(4n+1) + 3a(8n+2) - 3a(8n+4) \\
a(32n+2) &= -a(2n+1) + a(4n+1) + 3a(8n+2) - 2a(8n+4) \\
a(32n+4) &= -a(2n+1) + a(4n+1) + a(8n+2) \\
a(32n+14) &= -a(2n+1) + a(8n+4) \\
a(32n+16) &= -a(2n+1) + a(8n+4) \\
a(32n+20) &= a(32n+18) \\
a(32n+30) &= 2a(2n+1) + a(8n+2) - 3a(8n+4) + 2a(8n+6) - a(32n+18) \\
a(64n+18) &= a(4n+1) \\
a(64n+50) &= 0
\end{aligned}$$

We can also do the same thing for the number of privileged palindromes  $(b(n))_{n \geq 0}$  in the Thue-Morse sequence. Here are the first few values:

$n$	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
$b(n)$	1	2	2	2	2	0	4	0	4	0	4	0	4	0	0	0	0

We omit the details and just present the computed relations:

$$\begin{aligned}
b(4n+3) &= b(4n+1) \\
b(8n+1) &= b(4n+1) \\
b(8n+4) &= b(8n+2) \\
b(8n+5) &= 0 \\
b(16n+6) &= b(4n+1) + b(4n+2) \\
b(16n+8) &= b(4n+1) + b(4n+2) \\
b(16n+10) &= b(4n+1) + b(4n+2) \\
b(16n+14) &= -b(4n+1) + b(16n+2) \\
b(32n) &= b(2n+1) - \frac{1}{2}b(4n+1) \\
b(32n+2) &= -b(2n+1) + b(4n+1) + b(8n+2) \\
b(32n+16) &= -b(2n+1) + b(8n+2) \\
b(64n+18) &= b(4n+1) \\
b(64n+50) &= 0
\end{aligned}$$

## 9 Trapezoidal words

Trapezoidal words have many different characterizations. The characterization that proves useful to us is the following [8, Prop. 2.8]: a word  $w$  is trapezoidal if and only if  $|w| = R_w + K_w$ . Here  $R_w$  is the minimal length  $\ell$  for which  $w$  contains no right-special factor of length  $\ell$ , and  $K_w$  is the minimal length  $\ell$  for which there is a length- $\ell$  suffix of  $w$  that appears nowhere else in  $w$ .

This can be translated into  $\text{Th}(\mathbb{N}, +, n \rightarrow \mathbf{x}[n])$  as follows:  $\text{RTSP}(j, n, p)$  is true if and only if  $\mathbf{x}[j..j+n-1]$  has a right special factor of length  $p$ , and false otherwise:

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{RTSP}(j, n, p) &:= \exists r \exists s (\text{SUBS}(r, j, p+1, n) \wedge \text{SUBS}(s, j, p+1, n) \wedge \\
&\quad \text{FACTOREQ}(r, s, p) \wedge \mathbf{x}[s+p] \neq \mathbf{x}[r+p]).
\end{aligned}$$

$\text{MINRT}(j, n, p)$  is true if and only if  $p$  is the smallest integer such that  $\mathbf{x}[j..j+n-1]$  has no right special factor of length  $p$ :

$$\text{MINRT}(j, n, p) := (\neg \text{RTSP}(j, n, p)) \wedge (\forall c (\neg \text{RTSP}(j, n, c)) \implies (c \geq p)).$$

$\text{UNREPSUF}(j, n, q)$  is true if and only if the suffix of length  $q$  of  $\mathbf{x}[j..j+n-1]$  is unrepeated in  $\mathbf{x}[j..j+n-1]$ :

$$\text{UNREPSUF}(j, n, q) := \neg \text{OCCURS}(j+n-q, j, q, n-1).$$

$\text{MINUNREPSUF}(j, n, p)$  is true if and only if  $p$  is the length of the shortest unrepeated suffix of  $\mathbf{x}[j..j+n-1]$ :

$$\text{MINUNREPSUF}(j, n, p) := \text{UNREPSUF}(j, n, p) \wedge (\forall c (\text{UNREPSUF}(j, n, c) \implies (c \geq p))).$$



$\text{TRAP}(j, n)$  is true if and only if  $\mathbf{x}[j..j + n - 1]$  is trapezoidal:

$$\text{TRAP}(j, n) := \exists p \exists q (n = p + q) \wedge \text{MINUNREPSUF}(j, n, p) \wedge \text{MINRT}(j, n, q).$$

Finally, we can determine those  $n$  for which  $\mathbf{x}$  has a trapezoidal factor of length  $n$  as follows:

$$\exists j \text{ TRAP}(j, n).$$

**Theorem 11.** (a) *There are exactly 43 trapezoidal factors of the Thue-Morse sequence. The longest is of length 8.*

(b) *There are exactly 185 trapezoidal factors of the Rudin-Shapiro sequence. The longest is of length 12.*

(c) *There are exactly 57 trapezoidal factors of the ordinary paperfolding sequence. The longest is of length 8.*

(d) *There are exactly 77 trapezoidal factors of the period-doubling sequence. The longest is of length 15.*

(e) *Every factor of the Fibonacci word is trapezoidal.*

For parts (b) and (c) above, we used the least-significant-digit first representation in order to have the computation terminate.

## 10 Balanced words

Our definition of balanced word above does not obviously lend itself to a definition in first-order arithmetic. However, for binary words, there is an alternative characterization (due to Coven and Hedlund [14]) that we can use: a binary word  $w$  is unbalanced if and only if there exists a palindrome  $v$  such that both  $0v0$  and  $1v1$  are factors of  $w$ .

Thus we can write define  $\text{UNBAL}(i, n)$ , a predicate which is true if and only if  $\mathbf{x}[i..i + n - 1]$  is unbalanced, as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \exists m (m \geq 2) \wedge (\exists j \exists k (\text{SUBS}(j, i, m, n) \wedge \text{SUBS}(k, i, m, n) \wedge \text{PAL}(j, m) \\ \wedge \text{PAL}(k, m) \wedge \text{FACTOREQ}(j + 1, k + 1, m - 2) \wedge \mathbf{x}[j] \neq \mathbf{x}[k])) \end{aligned}$$

**Theorem 12.** (a) *The Thue-Morse word has exactly 41 balanced factors. The longest is of length 8. The Thue-Morse word has unbalanced factors of length  $n$  exactly when  $n \geq 4$ .*

(b) *The Rudin-Shapiro word has exactly 157 balanced factors. The longest is of length 12. The Rudin-Shapiro word has unbalanced factors of length  $n$  exactly when  $n \geq 4$ .*

(c) *The ordinary paperfolding word has exactly 51 balanced factors. The longest is of length 8. The ordinary paperfolding word has unbalanced factors of length  $n$  exactly when  $n \geq 4$ .*

- (d) *The period-doubling word has exactly 69 balanced factors. The longest is of length 15. The period-doubling word has unbalanced factors of length  $n$  exactly when  $n \geq 6$ .*
- (e) *All factors of the Fibonacci word are balanced.*

Of course, (e) was already well known, in much greater generality: every factor of every Sturmian word is balanced [27].

## 11 Consequences

As a consequence we get

**Theorem 13.** *Suppose  $\mathbf{x}$  is a  $k$ -automatic sequence. Then*

- (a) *The characteristic sequence of those  $n$  for which  $\mathbf{x}$  has a closed (resp., palindromic, maximal palindromic, privileged, rich, trapezoidal, balanced) factor of length  $n$  is  $k$ -automatic.*
- (b) *The sequence counting the number of closed (resp., palindromic, maximal palindromic, privileged, rich, trapezoidal, balanced) factors of length  $n$  is  $k$ -regular.*
- (c) *It is decidable, given a  $k$ -automatic sequence, whether it contains arbitrarily long closed (resp., palindromic, maximal palindromic, privileged, rich, trapezoidal, balanced) factors.*
- (d) *There exists a function  $g(k, \ell, n)$  such that if a  $k$ -automatic sequence  $\mathbf{w}$  taking values over an alphabet of size  $\ell$ , generated by an  $n$ -state automaton, has at least one closed (resp., palindromic, maximal palindromic, privileged, rich, trapezoidal, balanced) factor, then it has a factor of length  $\leq g(k, \ell, n)$ . The function  $g$  does not depend on  $\mathbf{w}$ .*
- (e) *There exists a function  $h(k, \ell, n)$  such that if a  $k$ -automatic sequence  $\mathbf{w}$  taking values over an alphabet of size  $\ell$ , generated by an  $n$ -state automaton, has a closed (resp., palindromic, maximal palindromic, privileged, rich, trapezoidal, balanced) factor of length  $\geq h(k, \ell, n)$ , then it has arbitrarily large such factors. The function  $h$  does not depend on  $\mathbf{w}$ .*

*Proof.* Parts (a) and (c) follow from, for example, [30, Theorem 1]. For part (b) see [13]. Parts (d) and (e) follow from the construction converting the logical predicate for the property to an automaton.  $\square$

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