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# THE LOCAL CATENATIVITY OF DOL-SEOUENCES IN FREE COMMUTATIVE MONOIDS IS DECIDABLE IN THE BINARY CASE (*) 

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Communicated by C. Choffrut


#### Abstract

Given a matrix $A \in \mathbb{Z}^{2 \times 2}$ and a vector $V_{0} \in \mathbb{Z}_{m-1}^{2}$ we determine if there exists an integer $m$ and $m$ positive integers $a_{m-1} \ldots a_{0}$ such that $A^{m} V_{0}=\sum_{i=0} a_{1} A^{i} V_{0}$. When such an $m$ exists, we compute the smallest one and $m$ positive integers $a_{m-1} \ldots a_{0}$ that satisfy the relation.

Keywords : DOL-Sequences; Commutative monoids. Résumé. - Étant donnés une matrice $A \in \mathbb{Z}^{2 \times 2}$ et un vecteur $V_{0} \in \mathbb{Z}^{2}$ on détermine l'existence d'un entier $m$ et de $m$ autres entiers positifs $a_{m-1} \ldots a_{0}$ tels que $A^{m} V_{0}=\sum_{i=0} a_{i} A^{i} V_{0}$. Quand un tel $m$ existe, on calcule le plus petit ainsi que les entiers $a_{m-1} \ldots a_{0}$ qui satisfont la relation.


## INTRODUCTION

The DOL sequences were introduced by Lindenmayer [3]. They are defined in a free monoid $\Sigma^{*}$ ( $\Sigma$ being a finite alphabet) by a morphism $h: \Sigma^{*} \rightarrow \Sigma^{*}$ and an axiom $w \in \Sigma^{*}$; the DOL sequences is then the sequence $w, h(w)$, $h^{2}(w), \ldots h^{n}(w), \ldots$ Such a sequence in $\Sigma^{*}$ is said locally catenative if there exists an integer $m$ and some positive integers $i_{0} \ldots i_{r}$ smaller than $m$ such that:

$$
h^{m}(w)=h^{m-i_{0}}(w) \ldots h^{m-i_{r}}(w)
$$

[^0]C. Choffrut proved in [1] that when $\operatorname{card}(\Sigma)=2$, then the local catenativity of DOL sequences is decidable since it is equivalent to $h^{3}(w) \in\left\{w, h(w), h^{2}(w)\right\}^{*}$. The problem of deciding if a given DOL sequence is catenative or not is still open.

In a free commutative monoid, the definition is easily extended. The morphism is given by a matrix $A \in \mathbb{N}^{n \times n}$ and the axiom is a vector $x \in \mathbb{N}^{n}$. The problem is then to determine if there exist an $m \in \mathbb{N}$ and $m$ positive integers $a_{m-1}, \ldots, a_{0}$ such that

$$
A^{m} x=\sum_{i=0}^{m-1} a_{i} A^{i} x
$$

The problem is then a decidability result concerning matrices with entries in $\mathbb{N}([4])$.

In this article we will prove the decidability of this property when $n=2$ (the binary case). We will actually solve the more general problem:

Problem 1:
Instance: $V_{0} \in \mathbb{Z}^{2}, A \in \mathbb{Z}^{2 \times 2}$
Question: Do there exist an integer $m \in \mathbb{N}$ and $m$ positive integers $a_{m-1}, \ldots, a_{0}$ such that

$$
A^{m} V_{0}=\sum_{i=0}^{m-1} a_{i} A^{i} V_{0}
$$

We will prove that this problem is decidable and will compute the smallest $m$ for which some integers $a_{m-1}, \ldots, a_{0}$ satisfying the property exist.

## 1. TURNING THE PROBLEM INTO A PROBLEM CONCERNING POLYNOMIALS

In this section, we will express our initial problem 1 into a more suitable form and study it in any dimension. It is first clear that we can rewrite and
generalize the problem under the following form:

## Problem 2:

Instance: $V_{0} \in \mathbb{Z}^{n}, A \in \mathbb{Z}^{n \times n}$
Question: Does there exist a polynomial $\mathrm{P} \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$ of degree $m$ such that $P=X^{m}-\sum_{i=0}^{m-1} a_{i} X^{i}$ where $a_{i} \in \mathbb{N}$ for $0 \leqq i \leqq m-1$ and $P(A) V_{0}=0$ ?
We just recall that for a polynomial $P(X)=\sum_{i=0}^{m} a_{i} X^{i}$ and a matrix $A, P(A)$ is the matrix given by:

$$
P(A)=\sum_{i=0}^{m} a_{i} A^{i}
$$

A polynomial $P$ of degree $m$ such that $a_{m}=1$ is said monic. We will denote by $\mathbb{Z}_{1}[X]$ the set of monic polynomials with coefficients in $\mathbb{Z}$.

We prove here that the monic polynomials of $\mathbb{Z}[X]$ that satisfy $P(A) V_{0}=0$ are the multiples of a computable monic polynomial $P_{0}$ of degree at most $n$. This property is a consequence of the classical Gauss' lemma on integer polynomials and Hamilton-Cayley theorem ([2]).

Lemma 1 (Gauss' Lemma): Let $P$ and $Q$ be two polynomials in $\mathbb{Z}[X]$ and denote by $C(P)$ the GCD of the coefficients of $P$ then

$$
C(P \cdot Q)=C(P) \cdot C(Q)
$$

Lemma 2 (Hamilton-Cayley Theorem): Let $A \in \mathbb{Z}^{n \times n}$ and let $K_{A}(X)$ be the characteristic polynomial of $A$ :

$$
K_{A}(X)=\operatorname{Det}(A-X I)
$$

then $K_{A}(A)=0$.
We will use Gauss' lemma under the following more convenient form:
Lemma 3: Let $P \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$ a monic polynomial. Then if $P=Q \cdot R$ where $Q$ and $R$ are monic polynomials of $\mathbb{Q}[X]$ then $Q \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$ and $R \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$.

Proof. - Let $Q^{\prime}=\lambda Q$ and $R^{\prime}=\mu R$ where $\lambda$ and $\mu$ are the least positive integers such that $Q^{\prime}$ and $R^{\prime}$ have integer coefficients. Then since $Q$ is monic, $C\left(Q^{\prime}\right)$ divides $\lambda\left(\lambda\right.$ is the highest degree coefficient of $\left.Q^{\prime}\right)$ and then $C\left(Q^{\prime}\right)=1$
since $\lambda$ is minimal. Similarly, $C\left(R^{\prime}\right)=1$. Now

$$
C(\lambda \mu P)=\lambda \mu=C\left(Q^{\prime}\right) C\left(R^{\prime}\right)=1
$$

Thus $\lambda=\mu=1$ and $Q=Q^{\prime}, R=R^{\prime}$.
We are in position to prove the first proposition:
Proposition 1: Let $V_{0} \in \mathbb{Z}^{n}, A \in \mathbb{Z}^{n \times n}$. Define the set

$$
I=\left\{P \in \mathbb{Z}_{1}[X] / P(A) V_{0}=0\right\}
$$

Then we can compute a monic polynomial of degree at most $n: P_{0} \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$. Such that:

$$
I=P_{0} \cdot \mathbb{Z}_{1}[X]
$$

Proof: - Let $I^{\prime}=\left\{P \in \mathbb{Q}[X] / P(A) V_{0}=0\right\}$. Then $I^{\prime}$ is an ideal over $\mathbb{Q}[X]$ which is a principal ring then there exists a monic polynomial $P_{0} \in \mathbb{Q}[X]$ such that $I^{\prime}=P_{0} \mathbb{Q}[X]$.

By lemma 2, the monic polynomial $(-1)^{n} K_{A}(X)$ is in $I^{\prime}$ thus

$$
(-1)^{n} K_{A}(X)=P_{0} Q
$$

which implies by lemma 3 that $P_{0} \in \mathbb{Z}_{1}[X]$. Since $P_{0}$ is a divisor of $K_{A}(X)$, it is clear its degree is at most $n$ and that there exist only a finite set of values for $P_{0}$ which can easily be computed.

Finally, Let $P \in I$, since $I \subset I$ :

$$
P=P_{0} Q
$$

but since $P$ is monic, $Q \in \mathbb{Z}_{1}[X]$ and $I=P_{0} \mathbb{Z}_{1}[X]$.
With the help of proposition 1 , one can see that problem 2 is decidable if the following one is:

Problem 3:
Instance: A polynomial $P_{0} \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$ of degree at most $n$
Question: Does there exist a polynomial $Q \in \mathbb{Z}_{1}[X]$ such that

$$
P_{0} \cdot Q=X^{m}-\sum_{i=0}^{m-1} a_{i} X^{i} \quad \text { where } \quad a_{i} \in \mathbb{N}
$$

We now solve problem 3 in the case $n=2$.

## 2. SOLVING PROBLEM 3 FOR $n=2$, THE EASY CASES

Except in one case which is the most interesting one, problem 3 when $n=2$ is easy to solve. In this case the polynomial $P_{0}$ of proposition 3 has degree 1 or:

$$
P_{0}(X)=X^{2}-\operatorname{Tr}(A) X+\operatorname{Det}(A)
$$

In this latter case the discussion will concern the signs of $\operatorname{Tr}(A)$ and $\operatorname{Det}(A)$.
In the remainder of the paper $a$ and $b$ are positive integers.
1 st case: $P_{0}$ has degree 1 :
This means that $V_{0}$ is an eigenvalue of $A$.
If $P_{0}=X-a$, let $Q=1$ else if $P_{0}=X+a$, then $Q=X-a$ works.
2nd case: $P_{0}=X^{2}-a X-b$ :
$Q=1$ is clearly suitable
$3 r d$ case: $P_{0}=X^{2}+a X+b, a \neq 0$ :
Then for any large enough $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$ :

$$
(X-\lambda) P_{0}=X^{3}+(a-\lambda) X^{2}+(b-a \lambda) X-b \lambda
$$

has the convenient form. Thus $Q=X-\lambda$ is suitable.
4th case: $P_{0}=X^{2}+a X-b, a \neq 0, b \neq 0$ :
Proposition 2: Let $P_{0}=X^{2}+a X-b$ where $(a, b) \in(\mathbb{N}-\{0\})^{2}$. Then there exists no polynomial $Q \in \mathbb{Z}_{1}[X]$ such that

$$
P_{0} \cdot Q=X^{n}-\sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \lambda_{i} X^{i} \quad \text { where } \quad \lambda_{i} \in \mathbb{N}
$$

Proof. - Let $Q=X^{n}+a_{n-1} X^{n-1}+\ldots+a_{0}$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& P_{0} \cdot Q=\left(X^{2}+a X-b\right)\left(X^{n}+a_{n-1} X^{n-1}+\ldots+a_{0}\right) \\
& \begin{aligned}
&=X^{n+2}+\left(a+a_{n-1}\right) X^{n+1}+\left(a_{n-2}+a a_{n-1}-b\right) X^{n}+\sum_{i=0}^{n-3}\left(a_{i}+a a_{i+1}-b a_{i+2}\right) X^{i+2} \\
&+\left(a a_{0}-b a_{1}\right) X-b a_{0}
\end{aligned}
\end{aligned}
$$

Now we want

$$
\begin{gathered}
-b a_{0} \leqq 0 \\
a a_{0}-b a_{1} \leqq 0 \\
a_{i}+a a_{i+1}-b a_{i+2} \leqq 0 \quad \text { for } i=0, \ldots, n-3
\end{gathered}
$$

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This implies directly that $a_{0} \geqq 0$ (since $b>0$ ) and then $a_{1} \geqq 0$. By induction one has:

$$
a_{i} \geqq 0 \text { and } a_{i+1} \geqq 0 \Rightarrow a_{i+2} \geqq 0
$$

and thus $a_{n-1} \geqq 0$ which gives $a+a_{n-1} \geqq a>0$. A contradiction.
We now deal with the interesting case $P_{0}=X^{2}-a X+b$.

## 3. PROBLEM 3: THE CASE $P_{0}=X^{2}-a X+b, b \neq 0$

### 3.1. The main result

Proposition 3: Let $P_{0}=X^{2}-a X+b, a \in \mathbb{N}, b \in \mathbb{N}-\{0\}$. Then there exists $Q \in \mathbb{Z}_{1}[X]$ such that

$$
P_{0} \cdot Q=X^{n}-\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \lambda_{i} X^{i}
$$

with $\lambda_{i} \in \mathbb{N}$ iff $P_{0}$ has no root in $\mathbb{R}$.

Proof. - We first prove that the problem is equivalent to the existence of a non fully negative solution to a certain regular system of inequations. To check this existence, we use an easy criteria concerning the signs of the coefficients of a matrix. We compute that matrix and show that those coefficients are given by a linear recursion formula which the discussion is based on.

Let us look at a polynomial $Q=X^{n}+a_{n-1} X^{n-1}+\ldots+a_{0}$ then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& P_{0} \cdot Q=\left(X^{2}-a X+b\right)\left(X^{n}+a_{n-1} X^{n-1}+\ldots+a_{0}\right. \\
& \begin{aligned}
&=X^{n+2}+\left(a_{n-1}-a\right) X^{n+1}+\left(a_{n-2}-a a_{n-1}+b\right)+\sum_{i=0}^{n-3}\left(a_{j}-a a_{i+1}+b a_{i+2}\right) X^{i+2} \\
&+\left(b a_{1}-a a_{0}\right) X+b a_{0}
\end{aligned}
\end{aligned}
$$

We have to determine if there exists an integer $n$ such that the system of inequation (I):

$$
\begin{aligned}
& b a_{0} \leqq 0 \\
& -a a_{0}+b a_{1} \leqq 0 \\
& a_{0}-a a_{1}+b a_{2} \leqq 0
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{gather*}
a_{i}-a a_{i+1}+b a_{i+2} \leqq 0  \tag{I}\\
\ddots \\
a_{n-2}-a a_{n-1}+b \leqq 0 \\
a_{n-1}-a \leqq 0
\end{gather*}
$$

has a solution $a_{0}, \ldots, a_{n-1}$ in $\mathbb{Z}$.
We claim that this is equivalent to the existence of an integer $n$ such that the system of equation (II):

$$
\begin{aligned}
& b x_{0} \leqq 0 \\
& -a x_{0}+b x_{1} \leqq 0 \\
& x_{0}-a x_{1}+b x_{2} \leqq 0
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{gather*}
x_{i}-a x_{i+1}+b x_{i+2} \leqq 0  \tag{II}\\
\cdot \\
x_{n-2}-a x_{n-1}+b x_{n} \leqq 0
\end{gather*}
$$

has a solution $\left(x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}\right) \in \mathbb{Z}^{n+1}$ satisfying:

$$
\exists i / x_{i}>0 .
$$

First it is clear that if $\left(a_{0}, \ldots, a_{n-1}\right)$ is a solution of (I), then $x=\left(a_{0}, \ldots, a_{n-1}, 1\right)$ is a solution of (II) with $x_{n}>1$.

Conversely, let $\left(x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)$ be a solution of system (II) that satisfies $x_{i}>0$. Since $b x_{0} \leqq 0$ and $b>0$ one has $x_{0} \leqq 0$. Let $x_{n_{0}}$ be the first $x_{i}$ such that $x_{n_{0}}>0$. By the previous remark, $n_{0}>0$.

Now we just have to check that $a_{0}=x_{0}, \ldots a_{n_{0}-1}=x_{n_{0}-1}$ is a solution of system (I). The $n_{0}-1$ first inequations are satisfied and since

$$
a_{n_{0}-2}-a a_{n_{0}-1}+b \leqq x_{n_{0}-2}-a x_{n_{0}-1}+b x_{n_{0}} \leqq 0
$$

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and

$$
a_{n_{0}-1}-a \leqq x_{n_{0}-1} \leqq 0
$$

all inequations of (I) are satisfied. This states the claim.
We will thus solve the latter problem. Let us define

$$
A_{n}=\left(\begin{array}{lll}
b & & \\
-a b & & \\
1-a b & & \\
& \ddots & \\
& & 1-a b
\end{array}\right) \in \mathbb{Z}^{(n+1) \times(n+1)}
$$

and for two vectors $x, y$ in $\mathbb{Z}^{n+1}$ :

$$
x \leqq y \Leftrightarrow \forall i, \quad 0 \leqq i \leqq n, \quad x_{i} \leqq y_{i}
$$

We have to determine if

$$
\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{Z}^{n+1}, \quad A_{n} x \leqq 0 \Rightarrow x \leqq 0
$$

But this is clearly equivalent to

$$
\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, A_{n}^{-1} \text { is positive }
$$

Now we easily compute that

$$
A_{n}^{-1}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\frac{\alpha_{0}}{b} & \\
\frac{\alpha_{1}}{b^{2}} \frac{\alpha_{0}}{b} & \\
& \ddots \\
\frac{\alpha_{n}}{b^{n+1}} \ldots & \frac{\alpha_{1}}{b^{2}} \frac{\alpha_{0}}{b}
\end{array}\right)
$$

where $\alpha_{0}, \ldots, \alpha_{n}$ is an integer sequence given by $\alpha_{0}=1, \alpha_{1}=a$ and the recursion formula:

$$
\alpha_{n}=a \alpha_{n-1}-b \alpha_{n-2}
$$

The characteristic equation of the recursion is $P_{0}(X)=0$.
We now have three cases.

1st case: $P_{0}$ has two distinct real roots. Let $\lambda_{1}>\lambda_{2}>0$ be these roots. An elementary computation leads to the formula:

$$
\alpha_{n}=\frac{\left(\lambda_{1}\right)^{n+1}-\left(\lambda_{2}\right)^{n+1}}{\sqrt{\Delta}} \quad\left(\Delta=a^{2}-4 b\right)
$$

and $\alpha_{n}>0$ for every $n$, the problem has no solution.
2 nd case: $P_{0}$ has an unique double root $\lambda=a / 2$. The new formula is

$$
\alpha_{n}=(n+1)(a / 2)^{n}
$$

then $\alpha_{n}>0$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, there is no solution either.
3rd case: $P_{0}$ has no root in $\mathbb{R}$ then $P_{0}$ has two roots in $\mathbb{C}: \lambda$ and $\bar{\lambda}$, we get the new formula:

$$
\alpha_{n}=\frac{(\lambda)^{n+1}-(\bar{\lambda})^{n+1}}{i \sqrt{-\Delta}}
$$

Let $\lambda=\rho e^{i \theta}$ then $\rho=\sqrt{b}$ and $\theta=\operatorname{Arctan}\left(\sqrt{\left(4 b / a^{2}\right)-1}\right)$ (if $a=0$ then $\left.\theta=\pi / 2\right)$ and

$$
\alpha_{n}=\frac{2 \sqrt{b^{n+1}}}{\sqrt{-\Delta}} \sin (n+1) \theta
$$

and $\alpha_{n}<0$ as soon as $(n+1) \theta>\pi$ then for $n=\left[\pi / \operatorname{Arctan}\left(\sqrt{\left(4 b / a^{2}\right)-1}\right)\right]$ (where $[x]$ is the integer part of $x$ ) the problem has a solution of degree $n$.

### 3.2. Some examples

Let A be $a \times 2$ integer matrix such that $\operatorname{Det}(A)>0$ and $\operatorname{Tr}(A)>0$. When the matrix is positive, there is no solution since the characteristic equation has real roots. If we do not restrict the matrix $A$ to be positive it is notable that even for matrices with coefficients of small size then the polynomial $Q$ of proposition 3 can have a relatively high degree and surprisingly large size coefficients.

Before introducing some explicit examples, we note that it is easy to compute a polynomial $Q$ satisfying the conclusion of proposition 3. Let $X$
be such that:

$$
A_{n} X=\left(\begin{array}{c}
-b^{n+1} \\
0 \\
\vdots \\
0
\end{array}\right)
$$

since one has

$$
A_{n}^{-1}=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
\frac{\alpha_{0}}{b} & \\
\frac{\alpha_{1}}{b^{2}} \frac{\alpha_{0}}{b} & \\
& \ddots \\
\frac{\alpha_{n}}{b^{n+1}} \cdots & \frac{\alpha_{1}}{b^{2}} \frac{\alpha_{0}}{b}
\end{array}\right)
$$

we get

$$
X=\left(\begin{array}{c}
-\alpha_{0} b^{n} \\
-\alpha_{1} b^{n-1} \\
\vdots \\
-\alpha_{i} b^{n-i} \\
\vdots \\
-\alpha_{n}
\end{array}\right) \in \mathbb{N}^{n} \times(-\mathbb{N})
$$

Now following the argument of proposition 3, the vector:

is a solution of system ( I ), the coefficients of $P_{0} \cdot Q$ are then given by:

$$
A_{n} X^{\prime}=\left(\begin{array}{c}
-b^{n+1} \\
0 \\
\vdots \\
0 \\
\left(1+\alpha_{n}\right) b
\end{array}\right)
$$

and $a_{n-1}-a=-\alpha_{n-1} b-a$. Thus we get:

$$
P_{0} \cdot Q=X^{n+2}-\left(a+b \alpha_{n-1}\right) X^{n+1}+\left(1+\alpha_{n}\right) b X^{n}-b^{n+1}
$$

Note that the computation of that polynomial is reduced to the computation of $\alpha_{n}$ and $\alpha_{n-1}$ by a simple linear recursion formula!

Now we can give some examples. We note that for matrices of the form:

$$
A=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
a & -1 \\
1 & a
\end{array}\right)
$$

The characteristic polynomial is $X^{2}-2 a X+a^{2}+1$ which discriminant is $\Delta=-4$. Thus the degree of the polynomial $Q$ of lowest degree is:

$$
n=\left[\frac{\pi}{\operatorname{Arctan}\left(\sqrt{1 / a^{2}}\right)}\right] \geqq[\pi a]
$$

For example, if $a=1$, the degree of $Q$ is 4 since:

$$
\alpha_{0}=1, \alpha_{1}=2, \alpha_{2}=2, \alpha_{3}=0, \alpha_{4}=-4
$$

The polynomial $Q=X^{4}-8 X^{2}-16 X-16$ and

$$
\left(X^{4}-8 X^{2}-16 X-16\right)\left(X^{2}-2 X+2\right)=X^{6}-2 X^{5}-6 X^{4}-32
$$

The size of the polynomial grows rapidly with $a$. For $a=3$ for example, the formula gives $n \geqq 9$. In fact $n=9$ is the lowest degree as one can see by computing the sequence:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \alpha_{0}=1 \\
& \alpha_{1}=6 \\
& \alpha_{2}=26 \\
& \alpha_{3}=96 \\
& \alpha_{4}=316 \\
& \alpha_{5}=936 \\
& \alpha_{6}=2456 \\
& \alpha_{7}=5376 \\
& \alpha_{8}=7696 \\
& \alpha_{9}=-7584
\end{aligned}
$$

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$Q$ is then a polynomial of surprisingly large size while $P_{0}=X^{2}-6 X+10$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
Q=X^{9}-76960 & X^{8}-537600 X^{7}-2456000 X^{6}-9360000 X^{5}-31600000 X^{4} \\
& -96000000 X^{3}-260000000 X^{2}-600000000 X-1000000000
\end{aligned}
$$

and we get by the proved formula:

$$
\left(X^{2}-6 X+10\right) \cdot Q=X^{11}-76966 X^{10}-75830 X^{9}-10000000000
$$

The size of the obtained polynomials is the most surprising fact. If $a=5$ then the degree of the polynomial is at least 15 with very big coefficients, for the following polynomial

$$
X^{2}-200 X+10001(a=100)
$$

We must search for a polynomial of degree at least 314 !

## 4. CONCLUSIONS

We now easily express the results of section 3 in terms of problem 1.
Theorem 1: Problem 1 has a solution except if $V_{0}$ is not an eigenvector of $A$ and
i) $\operatorname{Tr}(A)<0, \operatorname{Det}(A)>0$
or
ii) $\operatorname{Tr}(A)>0, \operatorname{Det}(A)>0$ and $A$ has eigenvalues in $\mathbb{R}$.

Moreover the smallest value $m$ satisfying the property can be determined in each case. If $V_{0}$ is an eigenvector of $A$ then it is 1 if the eigenvalue is positive, 2 otherwise. If $V_{0}$ is not an eigenvector then the results are summed up in the following tableau:

|  | Det $(A)>0$ | Det $(A)<0$ | Det $(A)=0$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\operatorname{Tr}(A)>0$ | $n$ or 1mp. | 2 | 2 |
| $\operatorname{Tr}(A)<0$ | 3 | imp. | 3 |
| $\operatorname{Tr}(A)=0$ | 4 | 2 | 2 |

$$
\text { where } n=\left[\frac{\pi}{\operatorname{Arctan}\left(\sqrt{\left(4 \operatorname{det}(A) / \operatorname{Tr}(A)^{2}\right)-1}\right)}\right]+2
$$

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In the case where $A$ and $V_{0}$ are positive, the result is greatly simplified:
Theorem 2: In a commutative free monoid, a Dol sequence given by a matrix $A$ and an axiom $V_{0}$ is locally contenative iff $V_{0}$ is an eigenvector of $A$ or $\operatorname{Det}(A) \leqq 0$. In both cases one has:

$$
A^{2} V_{0} \in\left\{A V_{0}, V_{0}\right\}^{*}
$$

## CONCLUSION

The technique involved to solve the problem in the binary case can be in part generalized to solve the other cases. But the analysis of the sequence $\alpha_{n}$ will not be possible in the same way (but perhaps the decidability will remain true) and principally the particularity of sign that permits to deduce from a suitable non monic polynomial another monic polynomial with the same quality will not remain valid. The generalization is then not so clear.

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