

About the p -paperfolding words

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Abstract

Let p be an integer greater than or equal to 2. The aim of this paper is to study the language associated to a p -paperfolding sequence. It is known that the number of factors of length n of a 2-paperfolding sequence (i.e. its complexity function) is $P(n) = 4n$ for $n \geq 7$. It is also known that the language of all the factors of all 2-paperfolding sequences is not context-free and that its generating function is transcendental.

We show that the complexity function of a p -paperfolding sequence is either strictly subaffine or ultimately linear. The first case never happens if $p = 2$ or 3. In the second case, the complexity function is either $P(n) = 2n$ or $P(n) = 4n$ for n large enough. We give a simple necessary and sufficient condition for the number of special factors to be p -automatic. We finally show that, for any given p , the language of all factors of all p -paperfolding sequences is not context-free, and that the associated generating series is not algebraic.

0. Introduction

Let u be a sequence taking its values in a finite alphabet. How “complicated” is it? One possible answer to this question is the following definition.

Definition 1. The complexity (or factor-complexity) of a sequence is the function $n \mapsto P(n)$ where $P(n)$ is the number of factors (blocks) of length n of the sequence.

For a survey on the complexity of sequences one can read [3]. A family of sequences for which the complexity function has been computed consists of the *paperfolding sequences*. These sequences are obtained by repeatedly folding a piece of paper onto itself. At each step, one can fold the paper in two different ways, thus generating uncountably many sequences.

It is known that *all* the paperfolding sequences have the same complexity $P(n)$. Furthermore, one has $P(n) = 4n$ for $n \geq 7$ (see [1, 4]).

In [4], the authors also study the language \mathcal{E} of all the factors of all paperfolding sequences. They compute the *complexity function* of this language (i.e. the number of words of given length in \mathcal{E}) and they show that \mathcal{E} is not context-free and has a transcendental generating function.

In this work we study the p -paperfolding sequences which are constructed by folding a piece of paper onto itself in p parts and iterating this process, ([11], see also [14] for related sequences). These sequences are Toeplitz sequences (see [3] for a survey) and some of their complexity functions are in $O(n)$ (see [8]). We prove here the following results:

- The complexity function of a 3-paperfolding sequence is either $P(n) = 2n$ for $n \geq 1$ or $P(n) = 4n$ for n large enough.
- If $p \geq 4$, the complexity function of a p -paperfolding sequence is either strictly subaffine or linear. In the first case we give a necessary and sufficient condition for the number of special factors to be p -automatic. In the second case we show that, for n large enough, $P(n) = 2n$ or $P(n) = 4n$.
- For any given p the language of all factors of all p -paperfolding sequences is not context-free and its generating function is transcendental.

1. p -paperfolding sequences

1.1. Construction

Fold a piece of paper in p parts, (there are 2^{p-1} possibilities, each of them is called a *folding instruction*). Repeat this operation an infinite number of times, then unfold the paper. One obtains on its edge a sequence of “mountains” and “valleys” which is by definition a p -paperfolding sequence.

If at each step one chooses the same folding instruction, then the sequence is called a *regular* p -paperfolding sequence. Otherwise it is called a *generalized* p -paperfolding sequence.

For instance, one obtains a regular 3-paperfolding sequence by choosing at each step the folding instruction $\vee \wedge$ (this means that the paper is folded in three parts, the left side being folded towards up, and the right side being folded towards down):

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1  ∨ ∧
2  ∨ ∧ ∨ ∨ ∧ ∧ ∨ ∧
3  ∨ ∧ ∨ ∨ ∧ ∧ ∨ ∧ ∨ ∨ ∧ ∨ ∨ ∧ ∧ ∨ ∧ ∨ ∨ ∧ ∧ ∨ ∧
4  ∨ ∧ ∨ ∨ ∧ ∧ ∨ ∧ ∨ ∨ ∧ ∨ ∨ ∧ ∧ ∨ ∧ ∧ ∨ ∧ ∨ ∨ ∧ ∧ ∨ ∧ ...

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One can also obtain a *generalized* 3-paperfolding sequence, choosing to fold randomly at each step the paper according to the folding instructions $\vee \vee$, $\vee \wedge$, $\wedge \vee$ or $\wedge \wedge$. Take for instance for the *last* three folding instructions equal to $\vee \wedge$, $\vee \vee$

and $\wedge \wedge$. This gives:

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1  ∨ ∧
2  ∨ ∧ ∨ ∨ ∧ ∨ ∨ ∧
3  ∨ ∧ ∨ ∨ ∧ ∨ ∨ ∧ ∧ ∨ ∧ ∧ ∨ ∧ ∧ ∨ ∧ ∨ ∨ ∧ ∨ ∨ ∧
4  ∨ ∧ ∨ ∨ ∧ ∨ ∨ ∧ ∧ ∨ ∧ ∧ ∨ ∧ ∧ ∨ ∧ ∧ ∨ ∧ ∨ ∨ ∧ ∨ ∨ ∧ ...
    
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A first algorithm to construct a p -paperfolding sequence is the following. Suppose that we have folded the paper $n + 1$ times, if we unfold it n times, we have a sequence obtained after n folds and, to obtain the sequence issued from our $n + 1$ folds, we have to unfold it a last time. Let w_n be the word on the alphabet $\{\vee, \wedge\}$, obtained after folding n times, but following the last n folding instructions. Let $\alpha_1 \dots \alpha_{p-1}$ be the first folding instruction. One has

$$w_{n+1} = w_n \alpha_1 f(w_n) \alpha_2 f^2(w_n) \dots \alpha_{p-1} f^{p-1}(w_n),$$

where $f(w_n)$ is obtained by reading w_n backwards and interchanging the symbols \vee and \wedge , (of course $f^2(w_n) = w_n$). (From now on, the word $f(w)$ will be denoted by \hat{w}).

Taking again the generalized 3-paperfolding example: (the symbol \downarrow denotes the place of the third, second and first folding instructions)

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1  ∨ ∧ ↓           ↓
2  {∨ ∧} {∨} {∨ ∧} {∨} {∨ ∧} ↓           ↓
3  {∨ ∧ ∨ ∨ ∧ ∨ ∨ ∧} {∨ ∧} {∨ ∧} {∨ ∧} {∨ ∧} {∨ ∧} {∨ ∧} {∨ ∧} {∨ ∧} {∨ ∧} ↓ ...
4  {∨ ∧ ∨ ∨ ∧ ∨ ∨ ∧} {∨ ∧} {∨ ∧} {∨ ∧} {∨ ∧} {∨ ∧} {∨ ∧} {∨ ∧} {∨ ∧} {∨ ∧} ...
    
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A particular case is the 2-paperfolding.

Example (general 2-paperfolding sequences). One can obtain all 2-paperfolding sequences by randomly folding a paper in two (at each step the left side on or under the right one). The preceding algorithm gives, (denoting \vee by 0 and \wedge by 1), choosing 0 at the first step, 1 at the second, 1 at the third, and 0 at the fourth: (\downarrow denotes again the place of the third, the second and the first folding instructions)

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1  0 ↓
2  0̂ 1̂ 1̂ ↓
3  {0 1} {1 1} {0 0} {1} ↓
4  {0 1 1 1 0 0 1} {0 0 1 1 0 0 0 1}
    
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It has been shown in [1] that for any 2-paperfolding sequence, the complexity function is $P(n) = 4n$ for $n \geq 7$.

1.2. *p*-paperfolding sequences defined as Toeplitz sequences

Definitions. Let us consider the alphabet $\mathcal{A} = \{0, 1\}$. Let a_n ($n \geq 0$) be a sequence of words of length $p - 1$ over \mathcal{A} , ($a_n = a_n[1] \dots a_n[p - 1]$).

One defines $'0 = 1$, $'1 = 0$, and $'a_n = 'a_n[1]'a_n[2] \dots 'a_n[p - 1]$. One also defines $\bar{a}_n = a^n[p - 1] \dots a_n[1]$, and denotes by \hat{a}_n the word $'\bar{a}_n$.

Let \bullet be a new symbol. A periodic word over $\mathcal{A} \cup \{\bullet\}$ ($\zeta_1 \dots \zeta_T \zeta_1 \dots \zeta_T \zeta_1 \dots \zeta_T \dots$) will be denoted $(\zeta_1 \zeta_2 \dots \zeta_T)^\infty$.

Let B_n the sequence defined over $\mathcal{A} \cup \{\bullet\}$ by

$$B_n = (a_n \bullet \hat{a}_n \bullet)^\infty.$$

Let $A_0^1 = B_0$ and for $n \in \mathbb{N}$, define the periodic sequence A_{n+1}^1 by replacing the letters \bullet of A_n^1 by the letters of B_{n+1} . When n goes to infinity, the sequence A_n^1 tends to a limit over \mathcal{A} . This limit, denoted by A^1 is called the *p*-paperfolding sequence according to the sequence of instructions $(B_n)_{n \geq 1}$.

From now on, A^1 will denote a sequence obtained as above. One writes $A^1 = A^1[k]_{k \in \mathbb{N}^*}$.

In the same way, for $i \geq 1$, let $A_0^i = B_{i-1}$ and for $n \in \mathbb{N}$ define the periodic sequence A_{n+1}^i obtained by replacing the letters \bullet in A_n^i by the letters of B_{n-1+i} . This sequence also tends to a limit A^i . From now on, A^i will denote such a *p*-paperfolding sequence.

A finite word occurring at least one time in a *p*-paperfolding sequence will be called a *p*-paperfolding word.

Finally a finite word $m = m[1] \dots m[n]$ is said to be 2-periodic if $\forall j, 1 \leq j \leq n - 2, m[j] = m[j + 2]$.

Proposition 2. *This construction yields exactly the p-paperfolding sequences.*

The proof is left to the reader.

1.3. Example

With $p = 2$, a_n is reduced to a single symbol: $\forall n, a_n = 0$ or $a_n = 1$. Let us construct a prefix of such a Toeplitz sequence, with $a_0 = 0, a_1 = 1, a_2 = 1$ and $a_3 = 0$:

$$B_0 = (0 \bullet 1 \bullet 0 \bullet 1 \bullet 0 \bullet 1 \bullet 0 \bullet 1 \bullet 0 \bullet 1 \bullet \dots),$$

$$B_1 = (1 \bullet 0 \bullet 1 \bullet 0 \bullet 1 \bullet 0 \bullet 1 \bullet 0 \bullet 1 \bullet 0 \bullet \dots),$$

$$B_2 = (1 \bullet 0 \bullet 1 \bullet 0 \bullet 1 \bullet 0 \bullet 1 \bullet 0 \bullet 1 \bullet 0 \bullet \dots),$$

$$B_3 = (0 \bullet 1 \bullet 0 \bullet 1 \bullet 0 \bullet 1 \bullet 0 \bullet 1 \bullet 0 \bullet 1 \bullet \dots).$$

This gives us, for the A_n^0 sequences ($0 \leq n \leq 3$):

$$A_0^0 = 0 \bullet 1 \bullet 0 \bullet 1 \bullet 0 \bullet 1 \bullet 0 \bullet 1 \bullet 0 \bullet 1 \bullet \dots,$$

then:

$$\begin{aligned}
 B_1 &= 1 \quad \bullet \quad 0 \quad \bullet \quad 1 \quad \bullet \quad 0 \quad \bullet \quad 1 \quad \bullet \quad \dots \\
 A_0^1 &= 0 \bullet 1 \bullet 0 \bullet 1 \bullet 0 \bullet 1 \bullet 0 \bullet 1 \bullet 0 \bullet 1 \bullet 0 \bullet 1 \bullet \dots \\
 A_1^1 &= 0 \ 1 \ 1 \bullet 0 \ 0 \ 1 \bullet 0 \ 1 \ 1 \bullet 0 \ 0 \ 1 \bullet 0 \ 1 \ 1 \bullet \dots
 \end{aligned}$$

hence

$$\begin{aligned}
 B_2 &= \quad 1 \quad \quad \bullet \quad \quad 0 \quad \quad \bullet \quad \quad 1 \quad \dots \\
 A_1^1 &= 0 \ 1 \ 1 \bullet 0 \ 0 \ 1 \bullet 0 \ 1 \ 1 \bullet 0 \ 0 \ 1 \bullet 0 \ 1 \ 1 \bullet \dots \\
 A_2^1 &= 0 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1 \bullet 0 \ 1 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1 \bullet 0 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1 \bullet \dots
 \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}
 B_3 &= \quad \quad \quad 0 \quad \quad \quad \bullet \\
 A_2^1 &= 0 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1 \bullet 0 \ 1 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1 \bullet 0 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1 \bullet \dots \\
 A_3^1 &= 0 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1 \bullet 0 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1 \bullet \dots
 \end{aligned}$$

We recognize here the beginning of the example given in the preceding paragraph.

2. Induction formulas satisfied by the complexity of p -paperfolding sequences

2.1. v -factors

Let $v \in [0, p - 1]$ be an integer, and $i \geq 1$. A v -factor of A^i is a factor of A^i beginning at least once at an index $j \equiv v \pmod{p}$. We define $\varphi_v^i(m)$ as being the number of v -factors of A^i of length m .

We also define

$$\varphi^i(m) = \sum_{v=0}^{v=p-1} \varphi_v^i(m).$$

We finally define $P_{\text{even}}^i(m)$ (resp. $P_{\text{odd}}^i(m)$) as being the number of factors of A^i of length m beginning at least once at an even (resp. odd) index $P^i(m)$ as being the number of factors of A^i of length m . In general,

$$P^i(m) \leq P_{\text{even}}^i(m) + P_{\text{odd}}^i(m)$$

and

$$P^i(m) \leq \varphi^i(m).$$

Lemma 3. *No factor of length greater than or equal to $p + 2$ of a p -paperfolding sequence M is 2-periodic.*

Proof. From the construction of these Toeplitz sequences, it is clear that any letter of index $(kp - 1)$ is different from the letter of index $kp + 1$. Indeed, $A'_0 = (m \bullet \hat{m} \bullet m \bullet \hat{m} \bullet \dots)$ and the last letter of m is different from the first letter of \hat{m} . As any factor of M of length greater than or equal to $p + 2$ contains a letter of index multiple of p which is neither its first nor its last letter, the result holds. \square

Lemma 4. *Let k be an integer not multiple of p . Then no factor of length greater than or equal to $p + 2k$ of a p -paperfolding sequence is $2k$ -periodic.*

The proof is exactly as above.

We now give a first lemma which will allow us to compute the factors of a p -paperfolding sequence by counting separately the factors which begin at a given index modulo p .

Synchronization lemma. *For any distinct numbers v and $v' \in [0, p - 1]$, any factor M of length greater than or equal to $p(p + 2) - 1$ of a p -paperfolding sequence cannot be simultaneously v -factor and v' -factor.*

Proof. Let u be a factor of M of length $n \geq p(p + 2) - 1$ occurring simultaneously at an index i_1 and an index i_2 , with $i_1 \not\equiv i_2 \pmod{p}$.

As $n \geq p(p + 2) - 1$ and $i_1 \not\equiv i_2 \pmod{p}$, there are at least $p + 2$ letters of index multiple of p in the first or in the second occurrence of u (possibly in both). Let us suppose they are in the first one. These letters form a word w of length greater than or equal to $p + 2$, which is a factor of the p -paperfolding sequence obtained by “forgetting” the first folding instruction.

This word w is also the subword of the second occurrence of u formed with the letters congruent to $i_2 - i_1 \pmod{p}$. As $i_1 - i_2 \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$, the word w is 2-period. But $|w| \geq p + 2$. This contradicts the Lemma 3. \square

We now give two induction lemmas which will help us to compute the complexity functions of the p -paperfolding sequences.

Lemma 5. *If $\hat{a}_1 = a_1$, then $\forall i, 0 \leq i \leq p - 1, \forall j \geq p$, one has*

$$\varphi_i^1(j) = P^2(l_{i,j}),$$

where $l_{i,j}$ is the number of integers multiple of p in $[i, i + j - 1]$.

Lemma 6. *One has*

$$l_{i,j} = \left\lfloor \frac{j}{p} \right\rfloor + \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } \left\{ \begin{array}{l} r_i \neq 0 \text{ and } r_i + r_j - 1 \leq p, \\ r_i = r_j = 0, \end{array} \right. \\ 1 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

with r_i, r_j the remainders of the euclidian division of i and j by p .

Proof. Define

$$k_{i,j} = \left\lfloor \frac{j}{p} \right\rfloor + \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } \left\{ \begin{array}{l} r_i \neq 0 \text{ and } r_i + r_j - 1 \leq p, \\ \text{or} \\ r_i = r_j = 0, \end{array} \right. \\ 1 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

By definition,

$$l_{i,j} = \left\lfloor \frac{i+j-1}{p} \right\rfloor - \left\lfloor \frac{i-1}{p} \right\rfloor.$$

Case 1: If $i \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$:

$$\left\lfloor \frac{i-1}{p} \right\rfloor = \left\lfloor \frac{i}{p} \right\rfloor - 1,$$

$$\left\lfloor \frac{i+j-1}{p} \right\rfloor = \left\lfloor \frac{i}{p} \right\rfloor + \left\lfloor \frac{j}{p} \right\rfloor + \left\lfloor \frac{r_j-1}{p} \right\rfloor.$$

If $j \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ then $\left\lfloor \frac{i+j-1}{p} \right\rfloor = \left\lfloor \frac{i}{p} \right\rfloor + \left\lfloor \frac{j}{p} \right\rfloor - 1$ and $l_{i,j} = \left\lfloor \frac{j}{p} \right\rfloor = k_{i,j}$.

If $j \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ then $\left\lfloor \frac{i+j-1}{p} \right\rfloor = \left\lfloor \frac{i}{p} \right\rfloor + \left\lfloor \frac{j}{p} \right\rfloor$ and $l_{i,j} = \left\lfloor \frac{j}{p} \right\rfloor + 1 = k_{i,j}$.

Case 2: If $i \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$:

$$\left\lfloor \frac{i-1}{p} \right\rfloor = \left\lfloor \frac{i}{p} \right\rfloor,$$

$$\left\lfloor \frac{i+j-1}{p} \right\rfloor = \left\lfloor \frac{i}{p} \right\rfloor + \left\lfloor \frac{j}{p} \right\rfloor + \left\lfloor \frac{r_i+r_j-1}{p} \right\rfloor;$$

hence

$$\left\lfloor \frac{i+j-1}{p} \right\rfloor = \left\lfloor \frac{i}{p} \right\rfloor + \left\lfloor \frac{j}{p} \right\rfloor \text{ if } r_i + r_j \leq p,$$

which may be written:

$$l_{i,j} = \left\lfloor \frac{j}{p} \right\rfloor = k_{i,j}$$

and

$$\left\lfloor \frac{i+j-1}{p} \right\rfloor = \left\lfloor \frac{i}{p} \right\rfloor + \left\lfloor \frac{j}{p} \right\rfloor + 1 \text{ if } r_i + r_j \geq p + 1$$

and then

$$l_{i,j} = \left\lfloor \frac{j}{p} \right\rfloor + 1 = k_{i,j}. \quad \square$$

Proof of Lemma 5. Let

$$Z = \{\text{factors of } A^1 \text{ of length } j \text{ beginning at an index } \equiv i \pmod{p}\}.$$

Let $Y = \{\text{factors of } A^2 \text{ of length } l_{i,j}\}$. The map which associates to a word m of Z the subword m' of Y which is composed with the letters of m of indices multiple of p is clearly bijective, hence the result holds. \square

We now give the second induction lemma.

Lemma 7. *If $\hat{a}_1 \neq a_1$, then $\forall j \geq p$*

$$\varphi_j^1(j) = P_{\text{even}}^2(l_{i,j}) + P_{\text{odd}}^2(l_{i,j}),$$

with

$$l_{i,j} = \left\lfloor \frac{j}{p} \right\rfloor + \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } \left\{ \begin{array}{l} r_i \neq 0 \text{ and } r_i + r_j - 1 \leq p, \\ r_i = r_j = 0, \end{array} \right. \\ 1 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Proof. we recall that $l_{i,j}$ is the number of integers multiple of p in $[i, i + j - 1]$. Let $\Gamma = \{\text{factors of } A^1 \text{ of length } j \text{ beginning at least once at an index } \equiv i \pmod{p}\}$. Define Θ_0 and Θ_1 by

$$\Theta_0 = \{\text{factors of } A^2 \text{ of length } l_{i,j} \text{ beginning at least once at an even index}\},$$

and

$$\Theta_1 = \{\text{factors of } A^2 \text{ of length } l_{i,j} \text{ beginning at least once at an odd index}\}.$$

Let

$$\Theta = (\Theta_0 \times \{0\}) \cup (\Theta_1 \times \{1\}).$$

Define the map Φ as follows:

$$\Phi \rightarrow \Theta,$$

$$m \mapsto \left(m_{(p)}, \left\lfloor \frac{i}{p} \right\rfloor + 1 \pmod{2} \right),$$

where $m_{(p)}$ is the subword of m formed of the letters of m of indices multiple of p .

This map is clearly bijective, hence the result. \square

We now give a general induction lemma.

General induction lemma. (i) If $\hat{a}_1 \neq a_1$ then $\forall j \geq p$,

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi^1(j) &= (p - r_j) \left(P_{\text{even}}^2 \left(\left\lfloor \frac{j}{p} \right\rfloor \right) + P_{\text{odd}}^2 \left(\left\lfloor \frac{j}{p} \right\rfloor \right) \right) \\ &\quad + r_j \left(P_{\text{even}}^2 \left(\left\lfloor \frac{j}{p} \right\rfloor + 1 \right) + P_{\text{odd}}^2 \left(\left\lfloor \frac{j}{p} \right\rfloor + 1 \right) \right), \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi^1(j+1) - \varphi^1(j) &= \left(P_{\text{even}}^2 \left(\left\lfloor \frac{j}{p} \right\rfloor + 1 \right) - P_{\text{even}}^2 \left(\left\lfloor \frac{j}{p} \right\rfloor \right) \right) \\ &\quad + \left(P_{\text{odd}}^2 \left(\left\lfloor \frac{j}{p} \right\rfloor + 1 \right) - P_{\text{odd}}^2 \left(\left\lfloor \frac{j}{p} \right\rfloor \right) \right), \end{aligned}$$

r_j being the remainder in the euclidian division of j by p .

(ii) If $\hat{a}_1 = a_1$ then

$$\forall j \geq p, \varphi^1(j) = (p - r_j) P^2 \left(\left\lfloor \frac{j}{p} \right\rfloor \right) + r_j P^2 \left(\left\lfloor \frac{j}{p} \right\rfloor + 1 \right)$$

and

$$\varphi^1(j+1) - \varphi^1(j) = P^2 \left(\left\lfloor \frac{j}{p} \right\rfloor + 1 \right) - P^2 \left(\left\lfloor \frac{j}{p} \right\rfloor \right),$$

where r_j is the remainder in the euclidian division of j by p .

(iii) If p is odd then $\forall a_1 \in A^{p-1}$, one has $\forall j \geq p$:

$$\begin{aligned} &P_{\text{odd}}^1(j+1) + P_{\text{even}}^1(j+1) - P_{\text{odd}}^1(j) - P_{\text{even}}^1(j) \\ &= \left(P_{\text{odd}}^2 \left(\left\lfloor \frac{j}{p} \right\rfloor + 1 \right) - P_{\text{odd}}^2 \left(\left\lfloor \frac{j}{p} \right\rfloor \right) \right) + \left(P_{\text{even}}^2 \left(\left\lfloor \frac{j}{p} \right\rfloor + 1 \right) - P_{\text{even}}^2 \left(\left\lfloor \frac{j}{p} \right\rfloor \right) \right). \end{aligned}$$

Proof. (i) Using Lemma 7, the proof is the same as for the following point.

(ii) One has, using Lemma 5, $\varphi^1(j) = \sum_{i=1}^{i=p} \varphi_i^2(l_{i,j})$. By counting separately the values of i giving the same number $l_{i,j}$, one has:

$$\varphi^1(j) = (p - r_j) \varphi^2 \left(\left\lfloor \frac{j}{p} \right\rfloor \right) + r_j \varphi^2 \left(\left\lfloor \frac{j}{p} \right\rfloor + 1 \right).$$

This last equality implies the result.

(iii) One has, for odd p and for $j \geq p$, the following.

If $j \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ and $j \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$, then

$$\begin{aligned} P_{\text{odd}}^1(j) + P_{\text{even}}^1(j) &= (p - r_j + 3) \left(P_{\text{odd}}^2 \left(\left\lfloor \frac{j}{p} \right\rfloor \right) + P_{\text{even}}^2 \left(\left\lfloor \frac{j}{p} \right\rfloor \right) \right) \\ &\quad + (r_j - 3) \left(P_{\text{odd}}^2 \left(\left\lfloor \frac{j}{p} \right\rfloor + 1 \right) + P_{\text{even}}^2 \left(\left\lfloor \frac{j}{p} \right\rfloor + 1 \right) \right). \end{aligned}$$

If $j \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ and $j \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$, then

$$P_{\text{odd}}^1(j) + P_{\text{even}}^1(j) = (p - r_j + 2) \left(P_{\text{odd}}^2 \left(\left\lfloor \frac{j}{p} \right\rfloor \right) + P_{\text{even}}^2 \left(\left\lfloor \frac{j}{p} \right\rfloor \right) \right) \\ + (r_j - 2) \left(P_{\text{odd}}^2 \left(\left\lfloor \frac{j}{p} \right\rfloor + 1 \right) + P_{\text{even}}^2 \left(\left\lfloor \frac{j}{p} \right\rfloor + 1 \right) \right).$$

If $j \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ and $j \not\equiv 0 \pmod{2}$, then

$$P_{\text{odd}}^1(j) + P_{\text{even}}^1(j) = (p - r_j + 4) \left(P_{\text{odd}}^2 \left(\left\lfloor \frac{j}{p} \right\rfloor \right) + P_{\text{even}}^2 \left(\left\lfloor \frac{j}{p} \right\rfloor \right) \right) \\ + (r_j - 4) \left(P_{\text{odd}}^2 \left(\left\lfloor \frac{j}{p} \right\rfloor + 1 \right) + P_{\text{even}}^2 \left(\left\lfloor \frac{j}{p} \right\rfloor + 1 \right) \right).$$

If $j \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ and $j \not\equiv 0 \pmod{2}$, then

$$P_{\text{odd}}^1(j) + P_{\text{even}}^1(j) = (p - r_j + 3) \left(P_{\text{odd}}^2 \left(\left\lfloor \frac{j}{p} \right\rfloor \right) + P_{\text{even}}^2 \left(\left\lfloor \frac{j}{p} \right\rfloor \right) \right) \\ + (r_j - 3) \left(P_{\text{odd}}^2 \left(\left\lfloor \frac{j}{p} \right\rfloor + 1 \right) + P_{\text{even}}^2 \left(\left\lfloor \frac{j}{p} \right\rfloor + 1 \right) \right).$$

In each case the point (iii) holds. This concludes the proof of the lemma. \square

3. A necessary and sufficient condition for the number of special factors of a p -paperfolding sequence to be automatic

In this part we study the number of *special factors*: a factor w of a p -paperfolding sequence is called special if and only if w_0 and w_1 are both factors of this sequence. The number of special factors of length n is given by $P(n+1) - P(n)$, if P is the complexity function of this paperfolding sequence (this holds for any binary sequence).

Proposition 8. *If there exists an integer j_0 such that $\hat{a}_{j_0} \neq a_{j_0}$, then for any $i \geq j_0$ and for any $j \geq p^i$ one has*

$$P^1(j+1) - P^1(j) = P_{\text{odd}}^{i+1} \left(\left\lfloor \frac{j}{p^i} \right\rfloor + 1 \right) - P_{\text{odd}}^{i+1} \left(\left\lfloor \frac{j}{p^i} \right\rfloor \right) \\ + P_{\text{even}}^{i+1} \left(\left\lfloor \frac{j}{p^i} \right\rfloor + 1 \right) - P_{\text{even}}^{i+1} \left(\left\lfloor \frac{j}{p^i} \right\rfloor \right).$$

If $\forall j_0 \in \mathbb{N}^$, $\hat{a}_{j_0} = a_{j_0}$, then for any integer i and any integer j such that $j \geq p^i$ one has*

$$P^1(j+1) - P^1(j) = P^{i+1} \left(\left\lfloor \frac{j}{p^i} \right\rfloor + 1 \right) - P^{i+1} \left(\left\lfloor \frac{j}{p^i} \right\rfloor \right).$$

Proof. This proposition is an easy consequence of the Synchronization Lemma and of the General Induction Lemma. \square

Theorem 9. Let m be a word of length $p - 1$. Let C_m^1 be the complexity function of the word: $(m0\hat{m}0m1\hat{m}1)^\infty$, C_m^2 be the sum $P_{\text{odd}} + P_{\text{even}}$ of the same word. Let $\zeta^1(m) = (C_m^1(2) - C_m^1(1), \dots, C_m^1(p) - C_m^1(p - 1))$ and $\zeta^2(m) = (C_m^2(2) - C_m^2(1), \dots, C_m^2(p) - C_m^2(p - 1))$.

Let a_n be a sequence of folding instructions. Let $n_0 \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{+\infty\}$, such that $\forall j \geq n_0$, $a_i = \hat{a}_i$. Let ζ be the map $\zeta(n) = \zeta^1(a_n)$ if $n < n_0$ and $\zeta(n) = \zeta^2(n)$ otherwise. Then the sequence $(P^1(n + 1) - P^1(n))$ is p -automatic if and only if the sequence (ζ_n) is ultimately periodic.

Proof. The complexity function P of any p -paperfolding sequence verifies $P(1) = 2$ and $P(2) = 4$, $P_{\text{even}}(1) = 2$, $P_{\text{odd}}(1) = 2$, $P_{\text{even}}(2) = 4$ and $P_{\text{odd}}(2) = 4$. Hence the sequence (A^n) and $(a_n0\hat{a}_n0a_n1\hat{a}_n1)^\infty$ have the same complexity function for arguments smaller than or equal to p .

The p -kernel of a sequence $u = u[n]_{n \in \mathbb{N}^*}$ is the set of sequences of the form $u[p^k n + r]_{n \in \mathbb{N}^*}$ with $k \in \mathbb{N}^*$ and $0 \leq r \leq p^k - 1$ (this terminology has been introduced by Salon in the multi-index case in [12, 13]). A sequence u is p -automatic if and only if its p -kernel is finite (see [6]). Proposition 8 helps us to compute easily the p -kernel of this sequence and to realize that it is finite if and only if the sequence ζ_n is ultimately periodic. \square

4. Computation of the complexity function

Theorem 10. If the complexity function of a p -paperfolding sequence is ultimately affine, then it is ultimately linear.

Proof. If the complexity function P^1 is ultimately affine, then the functions $P^i (i \geq 1)$ are all ultimately affine, say $P^i(n) = a_i n + b_i$. Furthermore, the a_i 's are eventually equal.

Let $N_0 \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{\infty\}$ such that for any $n \geq N_0$ $\hat{a}_n = a_n$.

If $N_0 = +\infty$ then all the a_i 's are the number 4. One has $\varphi^1(n + 1) - \varphi^1(n) = (P_{\text{odd}}^i + P_{\text{even}}^i)(\lfloor n/p^i \rfloor + 1) - (P_{\text{odd}}^i + P_{\text{even}}^i)(\lfloor n/p^i \rfloor)$ for i as large as we wish and $n \geq p^i$. (i is such that $\hat{a}_i \neq a_i$). For $n = p^i$ one has $\varphi^1(n + 1) - \varphi^1(n) = (P_{\text{odd}}^i + P_{\text{even}}^i)(2) - (P_{\text{odd}}^i + P_{\text{even}}^i)(1)$ (General Induction Lemma). Hence $\varphi^1(n + 1) - \varphi^1(n) = 4$. But $\varphi(n) = P^1(n)$ if $n \geq p(p + 2) - 1$, and $P^1(n) = a_1 n + b_1$ if n is large enough. So $P^1(n) = 4n + b_1$ for n large enough. We have then $\varphi^1(n) - \varphi(p^i) = 4(n - p^i)$. But $\varphi^1(p^i) = 4p^i$. (Lemma 7). Hence $P^1(n) = 4n$.

If $N_0 < +\infty$ then let $i \geq N_0$ be an integer. We have $a_i = 2$. One has (General Induction Lemma) $\varphi^i(n + 1) - \varphi^i(n) = p^{i+j}(\lfloor n/p^j \rfloor + 1) - P^{i+j}(\lfloor n/p^j \rfloor)$ for $j \geq 0$. Taking $n = p^j$ with j large enough, we have $\varphi^i(n + 1) - \varphi^i(n) = 2$ for n large enough.

But we have $\varphi^i(n) = P^i(n)$ for $n \geq p(p+2) - 1$ (Synchronization Lemma) and $P^i(n) = a_i n + b_i$ for n large enough. We conclude that $a_i = 2$. In this case $\varphi^1(n) - \varphi^1(p^j) = 2(n - p^j)$ and $\varphi^1(p^j) = 2p^j$ (Lemma 5). \square

Theorem 11. *There exist words a in \mathcal{A}^{p-1} such that $\zeta^1(a) = (2, 2, \dots, 2)$ and $\zeta^2(a) = (4, 4, \dots, 4)$. The complexity function of A^1 is ultimately affine (hence ultimately linear) if and only if $\zeta(a_n) = (2, 2, \dots, 2)$ for n large enough or $\zeta(a_n) = (4, 4, \dots, 4)$ for n large enough.*

Proof. For any number p and any sequence a_n of folding instructions, ($n \in \mathbb{N}^*$), the complexity function verifies $P^1(1) = 2$, $P^1(2) = 4$, $P^1_{\text{odd}}(1) = 2$, $P^1_{\text{even}}(2) = 4$, $P^1_{\text{even}}(1) = 2$ and $P^2_{\text{even}}(2) = 4$. The word $a = 0^{p-1}$ verifies $\zeta^1(a) = (2, 2, \dots, 2)$ and $\zeta^2(a) = (4, 4, \dots, 4)$. The complexity function of A^1 is ultimately affine if and only if $(P^1(n+1) - P^1(n))$ is constant for n large enough. If one wants this sequence to be ultimately constant, one must have $\zeta(a_n) = (2, 2, \dots, 2)$ for n large enough or, $\zeta(a_n) = (4, 4, \dots, 4)$ for n large enough (Proposition 8). On the other hand, this condition is sufficient using the same proposition. \square

Theorem 12. *If $p = 2$, then $P^1(n) = 4n$ for n large enough.*

If $p = 3$ and if $\forall i \in \mathbb{N}^ \hat{a}_i = a_i$, then $P^1(n) = 2n$ for $n \geq 1$.*

If $p = 3$ and if there exists i such that $\hat{a}_i \neq a_i$, then $P^1(n) = 4n$ for n large enough.

If $p \geq 4$, then there exist folding instructions sequences leading to strictly sub-affine complexity functions, and others leading to affine (hence linear) complexity functions. In this last case, if $\forall i \in \mathbb{N}^ \hat{a}_i = a_i$, then $P^1(n) = 2n$ for n large enough, and if there exists i such that $\hat{a}_i \neq a_i$, then $P^1(n) = 4n$ for n large enough.*

Proof. If $p = 2$ (resp. $p = 3$) then $\forall a \in \mathcal{A}^{p-1}$, $\zeta(a) = (2)$ (resp. $(2, 2)$). Hence the generalized 2-paperfolding and the generalized 3-paperfolding sequences have ultimately linear complexities (Theorem 11).

If $p = 2$, $\forall a \in \mathcal{A}^{p-1}$, $\hat{a} \neq a$, $P^1_{\text{odd}}(1) = 2$, $P^1_{\text{even}}(1) = 2$, $P^1_{\text{odd}}(2) = 4$, $P^1_{\text{even}}(2) = 4$ and hence $P^1(n+1) - P^1(n) = 4$ for n large enough, which implies $P^1(n) = 4n$ for n large enough (Proposition 8 and Theorem 10).

If $p = 3$ and $\forall i \in \mathbb{N}^* \hat{a}_i = a_i$, since $P^1(1) = 2$, $P^1(2) = 4$ and $P^1(3) = 6$ one has $P^1(n) = 2n$ for n large enough, (Proposition 8 and Theorem 10). If there exists i such that $\hat{a}_i \neq a_i$, since $P^1_{\text{odd}}(1) = 2$, $P^1_{\text{even}}(1) = 2$, $P^1_{\text{odd}}(2) = 4$, $P^1_{\text{even}}(2) = 4$, $P^1_{\text{odd}}(3) = 6$, $P^1_{\text{even}}(3) = 6$, one has $P^1(n) = 4n$ for n large enough (Proposition 8 and Theorem 10).

If $p \geq 4$, the cardinality of the image of ζ is strictly greater than 1, and there are folding instructions sequences leading to strictly subaffine complexity functions, (because for instance $a = 0^{p-1}$ and $a = 01^{p-2}$ have distinct images by ζ . Indeed, $(0^p 1^{p-1} 0^p 1^{p+1})^\infty$ verifies $P(1) = 2$, $P(2) = 4$, $P(3) = 6$, hence its image by ζ begins by the numbers 2, 2 while $(01^{p-2} 0^{p-1} 1001^{p-1} 0^{p-2} 11)^\infty$ verifies $P(1) = 2$, $P(2) = 4$, $P(3) = 8$, and its image by ζ begins with the numbers 2, 4).

The complexity function is ultimately affine if and only if

$$\zeta(a_n) = (2, 2, \dots, 2)$$

for n large enough or

$$\zeta(a_n) = (4, 4, \dots, 4)$$

for n large enough. In this case, we conclude as in the case $p = 3$. \square

5. The language generated by the p -paperfolding sequences for a fixed p is not context-free

In [4], the authors considered the language of all factors of all 2-paperfolding sequences. We will consider in the same way the language of all the p -paperfolding sequences for a fixed p .

Lemma 13. *Let w be a factor of A^1 . Then w^n is not a factor of A^1 as soon as $n \geq p(p + 2)$.*

Lemma 14. *If w^n is a factor of A^1 with $n \geq p(p + 2)$ then the length of w , denoted by $|w|$, is a power of p .*

Proof. Let

$$w^n = A^1[j] \dots A^1[j + n|w| - 1].$$

One has

$$w_1 = A^1[j] \dots A^1[j + (n - 1)|w| - 1],$$

which is equal to the factor

$$w_2 = A^1[j + |w|] \dots A^1[j + n|w| - 1],$$

these two factors being equal to w^{n-1} . But $|w^{n-1}| \geq p(p + 2) - 1$. These two factors must hence begin at a same index modulo p , (Synchronization Lemma), hence $|w|$ is multiple of p .

Now the subword w_2 formed with the letters of w of index multiple of p is a factor of (the p -paperfolding sequence) A^2 , so is w_2^2 . If w_2 is not the empty word, its length is a multiple of p , and the length of w is a multiple of p^2 . By an immediate induction, one shows that $|w|$ is a power of p .

Proof of Lemma 13. Let us suppose that $|w| = p^k$. The word w^n is a factor of A^1 . Let w_1^n be the subword formed of the letters of w appearing at an index multiple of p . This word w_1^n is a factor of A^2 . Repeating this operation $k - 1$ times, we finally find a factor of A^{k+1} of the form α^n , α belonging to \mathcal{A} , and $n \geq p(p + 2)$. This is in contradiction with the synchronization lemma. \square

Theorem 15. For any p , the language \mathcal{L} of all factors of all p -paperfolding sequences is not context-free.

Proof. we will use here the same idea as in [4, 5] (see also [9]). The pumping lemma for context-free languages (see [7]) easily implies that in any infinite context-free language, there are arbitrarily large powers. Lemma 13 hence implies that the language \mathcal{L} of all factors of all p -paperfolding sequences is not context-free. \square

Theorem 16. The generating series of the language \mathcal{L} is transcendental.

Remark 17. This last proposition implies that, if the complementary language $\{0, 1\}^* \setminus \mathcal{L}$ were context-free, then it would be ambiguously context-free (Chomsky–Schützenberger’s Theorem).

To prove this theorem, we need the following lemma.

Lemma 18. The number $\mathcal{N}_p(j)$ of factors of length j appearing in at least one p -paperfolding sequence verifies:

$$\mathcal{N}_p(j) = 2^j \quad \text{if } j \leq p + 1;$$

$$\mathcal{N}_p(j) = 2^{p-1} \left((p - r_j) \mathcal{N}_p \left(\left\lfloor \frac{j}{p} \right\rfloor \right) + r_j \mathcal{N}_p \left(\left\lfloor \frac{j}{p} \right\rfloor + 1 \right) \right) \text{ for } j \geq p(p + 2) - 1.$$

Proof. A factor $u[1]u[2] \dots u[j]$ is a p -paperfolding word if and only if there exists $j_0 \in [1, p]$, such that

- (a) the words $m(k) = u[j_0 + kp + 1]u[j_0 + kp + 2] \dots u[\alpha_k]$ (with $j_0 + kp + 1 \leq j$ and $\alpha_k = \inf(j_0 + kp + p - 1, j)$) verify $m(k) = \hat{m}(k + 1)$,
- (b) the word $u[j_0]u[j_0 + p] \dots u[j_0 + \beta p]$ is a p -paperfolding factor with β the largest integer such that $j_0 + \beta p \leq j$.

If $j \leq p + 1$ it is then clear that any factor of length j is a p -paperfolding factor.

If $j \geq p(p + 2) - 1$ then the synchronization lemma remains true for all factors of all p -paperfolding sequences and $\mathcal{N}_p(j)$ may be obtained by summing $\mathcal{N}_p^v(j)$ on the p -paperfolding factors beginning at indices congruent to v modulo p , for $1 \leq v \leq p$.

But, $\mathcal{N}_p^v(j) = 2^{p-1} \mathcal{N}_p(l_{v,j})$ (same proof as for the generalized induction lemma). The multiplicative factor comes from the choice that we have at each step for the folding instruction. Summing on v , one finds the result. \square

Let us prove now Theorem 16. Let $\mathcal{F}(X) = \sum_{k=0}^{+\infty} \mathcal{N}_p(k) X^k$ the generating series of the language \mathcal{L} . Let us consider the following polynomials:

$$P_1(X) = \sum_{k=0}^{k=p^2+2p-2} \mathcal{N}_p(k) X^k,$$

$$P_2(X) = \sum_{k=0}^{k=p+1} \mathcal{N}_p(k) X^k,$$

and

$$P_3(X) = \sum_{k=0}^{k=p+2} \mathcal{N}_p(k) X^k.$$

One has

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{F}(X) &= P_1(X) + \sum_{r=0}^{r=p-1} \sum_{k=p+2}^{k=+\infty} 2^{p-1} ((p-r)\mathcal{N}_p(k) + r\mathcal{N}_p(k+1)) X^r (X^p)^k \\ &\quad + 2^{p-1} (\mathcal{N}_p(p+1) + (p-1)\mathcal{N}_p(p+2)) X^{p-1} (X^p)^{p+1}. \end{aligned}$$

Let us consider

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{F}(X) &= P_1(X) + \sum_{r=0}^{r=p+1} 2^{p-1} ((p-r)X^r(\mathcal{F}(X^p) - P_2(X^p))) \\ &\quad + \frac{r2^{p-1}X^r}{X^p} (\mathcal{F}(X^p) - P_3(X^p)). \end{aligned}$$

The degree of the polynomial

$$\begin{aligned} P_1(X) - 2^{p-1} \sum_{r=1}^{r=p-1} (p-r)X^r P_2(X^p) - 2^{p-1} \frac{rX^r}{X^p} P_3(X^p) \\ + 2^{p-1} (\mathcal{N}_p(p+1) + (p-1)\mathcal{N}_p(p+2)) X^{p-1} (X^p)^{p+1} \end{aligned}$$

is smaller than or equal to $p(p+2) - 1$. Let us compute its leading coefficient. The polynomial P_1 does not contribute to this coefficient because its degree is exactly $p^2 + 2p - 2$. The coefficient of the term of degree $p^2 + 2p - 1$ is hence

$$\begin{aligned} -2^{p-1} \mathcal{N}_p(p+1) - 2^{p-1} (p-1) \mathcal{N}_p(p+2) + 2^{p-1} (\mathcal{N}_p(p+1) \\ + (p-1) \mathcal{N}_p(p+2)) = 0. \end{aligned}$$

Hence the degree of the polynomial

$$\begin{aligned} P_1(X) - 2^{p-1} \sum_{r=1}^{r=p-1} (p-r)X^r P_2(X^p) - 2^{p-1} \frac{rX^r}{X^p} P_3(X^p) \\ + 2^{p-1} (\mathcal{N}_p(p+1) + (p-1) \mathcal{N}_p(p+2)) X^{p-1} (X^p)^{p+1} \end{aligned}$$

is smaller than or equal to $p(p+2) - 2$.

Let us suppose firstly that this degree is greater than or equal to $p(p+1)$. Let us suppose moreover that \mathcal{F} is a rational function of degree α . Since $d \not\equiv -1 \pmod{p}$, $(p(p+1) \leq d \leq p(p+2) - 2)$, it is impossible to have equality $\alpha p + p - 1 = d$, and one has hence $\alpha = \max(\alpha p + p - 1, d)$.

If $d > \alpha p + p - 1$, then $\alpha = d$, which means that $\alpha > p\alpha + p - 1$, which is impossible.

Hence, $\alpha p + p - 1 > d$ and $\alpha = \alpha p + p - 1$, which means that $\alpha = -1$ and $\alpha > d$, which is clearly impossible.

Finally, if $d \geq p(p+1)$ then \mathcal{F} cannot be a rational function.

Let us prove now that the degree of the polynomial

$$P_1(X) - 2^{p-1} \sum_{r=1}^{r=p-1} (p-r)X^r P_2(X^p) - 2^{p-1} \frac{rX^r}{X^p} P_3(X^p) + 2^{p-1}(\mathcal{N}_p(p+1) + (p-1)\mathcal{N}_p(p+2))X^{p-1}(X^p)^{p+1}$$

is actually greater than or equal to $p(p+1)$.

For that, it is sufficient to exhibit a p -paperfolding factor beginning at two different (modulo p) indices (not necessarily in the same p -paperfolding sequence).

We can do that the following way.

- If p is even: let u be the factor

$$u = \underbrace{0^p 1^p \dots 0^p}_{p+1 \text{ paquets}}$$

It can be obtained either as

$$\underbrace{m_1 0 \hat{m}_1 1 \dots m_1 0}_{m_1 \text{ repeated } \lfloor p/2 \rfloor + 1 \text{ times}}$$

or as

$$\underbrace{0 m_1 1 \hat{m}_1 \dots 0 m_1}_{m_1 \text{ repeated } \lfloor p/2 \rfloor + 1 \text{ times}}$$

with $m_1 = 0^{p-1}$.

- If p is odd: let u be the factor

$$u = \underbrace{010101 \dots 01}_{p(p+1) \text{ letters}}$$

It can be obtained either as

$$\underbrace{m_2 0 m_2 0 \dots m_2 0}_{m_2 \text{ repeated } p+1 \text{ times}}$$

with

$$m_2 = \underbrace{0101 \dots 01}_{p-1 \text{ letters}} \quad (m_2 = \hat{m}_2)$$

or as

$$\underbrace{0 m_3 0 m_3 \dots 0 m_3}_{m_3 \text{ repeated } p+1 \text{ times}}$$

with

$$m_3 = \underbrace{1010\dots 10}_{p-1 \text{ letters}}$$

Finally, $\mathcal{F}(X)$ is not a rational function.

Now \mathcal{F} is an entire power series with convergence radius 1 and integer coefficients. The theorem of Polya–Carlson (see [10]) asserts that \mathcal{F} is either a rational function or a transcendental function.

Since it is not rational, it is transcendental.

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