Duplication-Correcting Codes for Data Storage in the DNA of Living Organisms

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Abstract

The ability to store data in the DNA of a living organism has applications in a variety of areas including synthetic biology and watermarking of patented genetically-modified organisms. Data stored in this medium is subject to errors arising from various mutations, such as point mutations, indels, and tandem duplication, which need to be corrected to maintain data integrity. In this paper, we provide error-correcting codes for errors caused by tandem duplications, which create a copy of a block of the sequence and insert it in a tandem manner, i.e., next to the original. In particular, we present two families of codes for correcting errors due to tandem-duplications of a fixed length; the first family can correct any number of errors while the second corrects a bounded number of errors. We also study codes for correcting tandem duplications of length up to a given constant $k$, where we are primarily focused on the cases of $k = 2, 3$. Finally, we provide a full classification of the sets of lengths allowed in tandem duplication that result in a unique root for all sequences.

Index Terms

Error-correcting codes, DNA, string-duplication systems

I. INTRODUCTION

DATA storage in the DNA of living organisms (henceforth live DNA) has a multitude of applications. It can enable in-vivo synthetic-biology methods and algorithms that need “memory,” e.g., to store information about their state or record changes in the environment. Embedding data in live DNA also allows watermarking genetically-modified organisms (GMOs) to verify authenticity and to track unauthorized use [11, 9, 18], as well as labeling organisms in biological studies [22]. DNA watermarking can also be used to tag infectious agents used in research laboratories to identify sources of potential malicious use or accidental release [12]. Furthermore, live DNA can serve as a protected medium for storing large amounts of data in a compact format for long periods of time [2, 22]. An additional advantage of using DNA as a medium is that data can be disguised as part of the organisms original DNA, thus providing a layer of secrecy [3].

While the host organism provides a level of protection to the data-carrying DNA molecules as well as a method for replication, the integrity of the stored information suffers from mutations such as tandem duplications, point mutations, insertions, and deletions. Furthermore, since each DNA replication may introduce new mutations, the number of such deleterious events increases with the number of generations. As a result, to ensure decodability of the stored information, the coding/decoding scheme must be capable of a level of error correction. Motivated by this problem, we study designing codes that can correct errors arising from tandem duplications. In addition to improving the reliability of data storage in live DNA, studying such codes may help to acquire a better understanding of how DNA stores and protects biological information in nature.

Tandem duplication is the process of inserting a copy of a segment of the DNA adjacent to its original position, resulting in a tandem repeat. A process that may lead to a tandem duplication is slipped-strand mispairings [19] during DNA replication, where one strand in a DNA duplex is displaced and misaligned with the other. Tandem repeats constitute about 3% of the human genome [14] and may cause important phenomena such as chromosome fragility, expansion diseases, silencing genes [21], and rapid morphological variation [7].

Different approaches to the problem of error-control for data stored in live DNA have been proposed in the literature. In the work of Arita and Ohashi [11], each group of five bits of information is followed by one parity bit for error detection. Heider and Barnekow [9] use the extended [8, 4, 4] binary Hamming code or repetition coding to protect the data. Yachie et al. [23] propose to enhance reliability by inserting multiple copies of the data into multiple regions of the genome of the host organism. Finally, Haughton and Balado [8] present an encoding method satisfying certain biological constraints, which is studied in a substitution-mutation model. None of the aforementioned encodings, with the possible exception of repetition...
We normally index the letters of a word starting with a copy of itself next to itself. More precisely, we define the tandem-duplication rules, i.e., if a sequence $x$ is a tandem duplication of a fixed length $k$, then we can generate $x$ from a sequence $y$ by doing a tandem duplication of the suffix $y$.

In this work, we ignore the potential biological effects of embedding data into the DNA. Furthermore, constructing codes that, in addition to tandem-duplication errors, can combat other types of errors, such as substitutions, are postponed to a future work.

We also note that tandem duplication, as well as other duplication mechanisms, were studied in the context of information theory [5], [6], [11]. However, these works used duplications as a generative process, and attempted to measure its capacity and diversity. In contrast, we consider duplications as a noise source, and design error-correcting codes to combat it.

We will first consider the tandem-duplication channel with duplications of a fixed length $k$. For example with $k = 3$, after a tandem duplication, the sequence $ACGT$ may become $ACAGCAGT$, which may further become $ACAACACACAT$ where the copy is underlined. In our analysis, we provide a mapping in which tandem duplications of length $k$ are equivalent to insertion of $k$ zeros. Using this mapping, we demonstrate the strong connection between codes that correct duplications of a fixed length and Run-Length Limited (RLL) systems. We present constructions for codes that can correct an unbounded number of tandem duplications of a fixed length and show that our construction is optimal, i.e., of largest size. A similar idea was used in [4], where codes were constructed for duplication-error correction with the number of tandem duplications restricted to a given size $r$ and a duplication length of 1 only. In this paper, we generalize their result by constructing optimal (i.e., maximum size) error-correcting codes for arbitrary duplication length $k$ and with no restriction on the number of tandem duplications.

We then turn our attention to codes that correct $t$ tandem duplications (as opposed to an unbounded number of duplications), and show that these codes are closely related to constant-weight codes in the $\ell_1$ metric.

Finally, when a sequence has been corrupted by a tandem-duplication channel, the challenge arises in finding the root sequence from which the corrupted sequence could be generated. A root sequence cannot be the result of tandem-duplication mutation on some other sequence. For example, for the sequence $ACGTGT$, with $GTGT$ as a tandem-duplication error, a root sequence would be $ACGT$ since $ACGTGT$ can be generated from $ACGT$ by doing a tandem duplication of length 2 on $GT$. But there can be sequences that have more than one root. For example, the sequence $ACGCACGCG$ can be generated from $ACG$ by doing a tandem duplication of length 2 first, followed by a tandem duplication of $ACG$. Alternatively, it can also be generated from $ACGCACG$ by doing a tandem duplication of the suffix $CG$. Hence, $ACGCACGCG$ has two roots. However, if we restrict the length of duplication to 2 in the previous example, then $ACGCACGCG$ has only one root i.e., $ACGCACG$. This means that the number of roots that a sequence can have depends on the set of duplication lengths that are allowed, and the size of the alphabet. We provide in Section VI a complete classification of the parameters required for the unique-root property. This unique-root property for fixed length, 2-bounded and 3-bounded tandem-duplication channels allows us to construct error-correcting codes for them.

The paper is organized as follows. The preliminaries and notation are described in Section II. In Sections III and IV, we present the results concerning duplications of a fixed length $k$ and duplications of length at most $k$, respectively. In Section VI, we fully classify tandem-duplication channels which have a unique root. We conclude with some open questions in Section VII.

II. PRELIMINARIES

We let $\Sigma$ denote some finite alphabet, and $\Sigma^*$ denote the set of all finite strings (words) over $\Sigma$. The unique empty word is denoted by $\epsilon$. The set of finite non-empty words is denoted by $\Sigma^+ = \Sigma^* \setminus \{\epsilon\}$. Given two words $x, y \in \Sigma^*$, their concatenation is denoted by $xy$, and $x^t$ denotes the concatenation of $t$ copies of $x$, where $t$ is some positive integer. By convention, $x^0 = \epsilon$. We normally index the letters of a word starting with 1, i.e., $x = x_1x_2\ldots x_n$, with $x_i \in \Sigma$. With this notation, the $t$-prefix and $t$-suffix of $x$ are defined by

$$
\text{Pref}_t(x) = x_1x_2\ldots x_t,
$$
$$
\text{Suf}_t(x) = x_{n-t+1}x_{n-t+2}\ldots x_n.
$$

Given a string $x \in \Sigma^*$, a tandem duplication of length $k$ is a process by which a contiguous substring of $x$ of length $k$ is copied next to itself. More precisely, we define the tandem-duplication rules, $T_{i,k} : \Sigma^* \rightarrow \Sigma^*$, as

$$
T_{i,k}(x) = \begin{cases} \nu v w w \text{ if } x = \nu v w, |\nu| = i, |w| = k \\
\text{x} \text{ otherwise.} \end{cases}
$$
Two specific sets of duplication rules would be of interest to us throughout the paper.

\[ T_k = \{ T_{i,k} \mid i \geq 0 \}, \]
\[ T_{\leq k} = \{ T_{i,k'} \mid i \geq 0, 1 \leq k' \leq k \}. \]

Given \( x, y \in \Sigma^* \), if there exist \( i \) and \( k \) such that

\[ y = T_{i,k}(x), \]

then we say \( y \) is a direct descendant of \( x \), and denote it by

\[ x \xrightarrow{k} y. \]

If a sequence of \( t \) tandem duplications of length \( k \) is employed to reach \( y \) from \( x \) we say \( y \) is a \( t \)-descendant of \( x \) and denote it by

\[ x \xrightarrow{t,k} y. \]

More precisely, we require the existence of \( t \) non-negative integers \( i_1, i_2, \ldots, i_t \), such that

\[ y = T_{i_t,k}(T_{i_{t-1},k}(\ldots T_{i_1,k}(x)\ldots)). \]

Finally, if there exists a finite sequence of tandem duplications of length \( k \) transforming \( x \) into \( y \), we say \( y \) is a descendant of \( x \) and denote it by

\[ x \xrightarrow{\ast,k} y. \]

We note that \( x \) is its own descendant via an empty sequence of tandem duplications.

**Example 1.** Let \( \Sigma = \{0,1,2,3\} \) and \( x = 02123 \). Since, \( T_{1,2}(x) = 0212123 \) and \( T_{0,2}(0212123) = 020212123 \), the following hold

\[ 02123 \xrightarrow{\frac{1}{2}} 0212123, \quad 02123 \xrightarrow{\frac{2}{k}} 020212123, \]

where in both expressions, the relation could be replaced with \( \xrightarrow{y} \).

We define the **descendant cone** of \( x \) as

\[ D_k^x(x) = \left\{ y \in \Sigma^* \mid x \xrightarrow{\ast,k} y \right\}. \]

In a similar fashion we define the **\( t \)-descendant cone** \( D_{i,k}^t(x) \) by replacing \( \xrightarrow{\ast,k} \) with \( \xrightarrow{t,k} \) in the definition of \( D_k^x(x) \).

The set of definitions given thus far was focused on tandem-duplication rules of substrings of length exactly \( k \), i.e., for rules from \( T_k \). These definitions as well as others in this section are extended in the natural way for tandem-duplication rules of length up to \( k \), i.e., \( T_{\leq k} \). We denote these extensions by replacing the \( k \) subscript with the \( \leq k \) subscript. Thus, we also have \( D_{\leq k}^x(x) \) and \( D_{\leq k}^{t,k}(x) \).

**Example 2.** Consider \( \Sigma = \{0,1\} \) and \( x = 01 \). It is not difficult to see that

\[ D_1^2(x) = \{0001,0011,0111\}, \]
\[ D_1^1(x) = \\{0^i1^j \mid i, j \in \mathbb{N} \}, \]
\[ D_2^1(x) = \{(01)^i \mid i \in \mathbb{N} \}, \]
\[ D_{\leq 2}^1(x) = \{0s1 \mid s \in \Sigma^* \}. \]

Using the notation \( D_k^x \), we restate the definition of the **tandem string-duplication system** given in [6]. Given a finite alphabet \( \Sigma \), a seed string \( s \in \Sigma^* \), the tandem string-duplication system is given by

\[ S_k = S(\Sigma, s, T_k) = D_k^x(s), \]

i.e., it is the set of all the descendants of \( s \) under tandem duplication of length \( k \).

The process of tandem duplication can be naturally reversed. Given a string \( y \in \Sigma^* \), for any positive integer, \( t > 0 \), we define the **\( t \)-ancestor cone** as

\[ D_{\leq k}^{-t}(y) = \left\{ x \in \Sigma^* \mid x \xrightarrow{t,k} y \right\}, \]

or in other words, the set of all words for which \( y \) is a \( t \)-descendant.
Yet another way of viewing the \( t \)-ancestor cone is by defining the \textit{tandem-deduplication rules}, \( T_{i,k}^{-1} : \Sigma^* \to \Sigma^* \), as
\[
T_{i,k}^{-1}(y) = \begin{cases} 
\nu \nu w & \text{if } y = \nu \nu w, |\nu| = i, |w| = k \\
\epsilon & \text{otherwise,}
\end{cases}
\]
where we recall \( \epsilon \) denotes the empty word. This operation takes an adjacent-repeated substring of length \( k \), and removes one of its copies. Thus, a string \( x \) is in the \( t \)-ancestor cone of \( y \) (where we assume \( x, y \neq \epsilon \) to avoid trivialities) iff there is a sequence of \( t \) non-negative integers \( i_1, i_2, \ldots, i_t \), such that
\[
x = T_{i_t,k}^{-1}(T_{i_{t-1},k}^{-1}(\cdots T_{i_1,k}^{-1}(y) \cdots)).
\]
In a similar fashion we define the \textit{ancestor cone} of \( y \) as
\[
D_k^{-*}(y) = \left\{ x \in \Sigma^* \mid x \xRightarrow{k} y \right\}.
\]
By flipping the direction of the derivation arrow, we let \( \Leftarrow \) denote deduplication. Thus, if \( y \) may be deduplicated to obtain \( x \) in a single step we write
\[
y \xLeftarrow{k} x.
\]
For multiple steps we add \( \ast \) in superscript.

\textbf{Example 3.} We have
\[
0212123 \xLeftarrow{2} 02123, \quad 020212123 \xLeftarrow{2} 02123,
\]
and
\[
D_2^{-\ast}(020212123) = \{020212123, 0212123, 0202123, 02123\}.
\]

A word \( y \in \Sigma^* \) is said to be \textit{irreducible} if there is nothing to deduplicate in it, i.e., \( y \) is its only ancestor, meaning
\[
D_k^{-\ast}(y) = \{y\}.
\]
The set of irreducible words is denoted by \( \text{Irr}_k \). We will find it useful to denote the set of irreducible words of length \( n \) by
\[
\text{Irr}_k(n) = \text{Irr}_k \cap \Sigma^n.
\]
The ancestors of \( y \in \Sigma^* \) that cannot be further deduplicated, are called the \textit{roots} of \( y \), and are denoted by
\[
R_k(y) = D_k^{-\ast}(y) \cap \text{Irr}_k.
\]

Note that since the aforementioned definitions extend to tandem-duplication rules of length up to \( k \), we also have \( S_{\leq k}, D_{\leq k}^{-1}(y), \text{Irr}_{\leq k}(n), \text{Irr}_{\leq k}(y) \). In some previous works (e.g. \cite{[16]}), \( S_k \) is called the \textit{uniform-bounded-duplication system}, whereas \( S_{\leq k} \) is called the \textit{bounded-duplication system}.

\textbf{Example 4.} For the binary alphabet \( \Sigma = \{0, 1\} \),
\[
\text{Irr}_{\leq 2} = \{0, 1, 01, 10, 010, 101\},
\]
and for any alphabet that contains \( \{0, 1, 2, 3\} \),
\[
R_2(020212123) = \{02123\}, \quad R_{\leq 4}(012101212) = \{012, 0121012\}.
\]

Inspired by the DNA-storage scenario, we now define error-correcting codes for tandem string-duplication systems.

\textbf{Definition 5.} An \((n, M; t)\) code \( C \) for the \( k \)-tandem-duplication channel is a subset \( C \subseteq \Sigma^n \) of size \(|C| = M\), such that for each \( x, y \in C \), \( x \neq y \).
\[
D_k^+(x) \cap D_k^-(y) = \emptyset.
\]
Here \( t \) stands for either a non-negative integer, or \( \ast \). In the former case we say the code can correct \( t \) errors, whereas in the latter case we say the code can correct all errors. In a similar fashion, we define an \((n, M; t)_{\leq k}\) by replacing all \( k\) subscripts by \( \leq k\).

Assume the size of the finite alphabet is \(|\Sigma| = q\). We then denote the size of the largest \((n, M; t)_{\leq k}\) code over \( \Sigma \) by \( A_q(n; t)_{\leq k} \). The capacity of the channel is then defined as
\[
\text{cap}_q(t)_{\leq k} = \limsup_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} \log_q A_q(n; t)_{\leq k}.
\]
Analogous definitions are obtained by replacing \( k \) with \( \leq k \) or by replacing \( t \) with \( \ast \).
III. $k$-TANDEM-DUPLICATION CODES

In this section we consider tandem string-duplication systems where the substring being duplicated is of a constant length $k$. Such systems were studied in the context of formal languages [16] (also called uniform-bounded-duplication systems), and also in the context of coding and information theory [6].

In [16] it was shown that for any finite alphabet $\Sigma$, and any word $x \in \Sigma^*$, under $k$-tandem duplication $x$ has a unique root, i.e.,

$$|R_k(x)| = 1.$$  

Additionally, finding the unique root may be done efficiently, even by a greedy algorithm which searches for occurrences of $uw$ as substrings of $x$, with $|w| = k$, removing one copy of $w$, and repeating the process. This was later extended in [15], where it was shown that the roots of a regular languages also form a regular language. In what follows we give an alternative elementary proof to the uniqueness of the root. This proof will enable us to easily construct codes for $k$-tandem-duplication systems, as well as to state bounds on their parameters. The proof technique may be seen as an extension of the string-derivative technique used in [4], which was applied only for $k = 1$ over a binary alphabet.

We also mention [6], in which $S_k$ was studied from a coding and information-theoretic perspective. It was shown there that the capacity of all such systems is $0$. This fact will turn out to be extremely beneficial when devising error-correcting codes for $k$-tandem-duplication systems.

Throughout this section, without loss of generality, we assume $\Sigma = Z_q$. We also use $Z_q^+$ to denote the set of all finite strings of $Z_q$ (not to be confused with the non-zero elements of $Z_q$), and $Z_q^{k\geq k}$ to denote the set of all finite strings over $Z_q$ of length $k$ or more.

We shall require the following mapping, $\phi_k : Z_q^{\geq k} \to Z_q^k \times Z_q^+$. The mapping is defined by,

$$\phi_k(x) = (\text{Pref}_k(x), \text{Suff}_{|x|-k}(x) - \text{Pref}_{|x|-k}(x)),$$

where subtraction is performed entry-wise over $Z_q$. We easily observe that $\phi_k$ is a bijection between $Z_q^{n}$ and $Z_q^k \times Z_q^{n-k}$ by noting that we can recover $x$ from $\phi_k(x)$ in the following manner: first set $x_i = \phi_k(x)_i$, for all $1 \leq i \leq k$, and for $i = k+1, k+2, \ldots,$ set $x_i = x_{i-k} + \phi_k(x)_i$, where $\phi_k(x)_i$ denotes the $i$th symbol of $\phi_k(x)$. Thus, $\phi_k^{-1}$ is well defined.

Another mapping we define is one that injects $k$ consecutive zeros into a string. More precisely, we define $\zeta_{i,k} : Z_q^k \times Z_q^* \to Z_q^k \times Z_q^+$, where

$$\zeta_{i,k}(x,y) = \begin{cases} (x,u0^{|y|}w) & \text{if } y = uw, |u| = i \\ (x,y) & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

The following lemma will form the basis for the proofs to follow.

**Lemma 6.** The following diagram commutes:

$$
\begin{array}{ccc}
Z_q^{\geq k} & \xrightarrow{T_{i,k}} & Z_q^{\geq k} \\
| & \phi_k & | \\
Z_q^k \times Z_q^+ & \xrightarrow{\zeta_{i,k}} & Z_q^k \times Z_q^+
\end{array}
$$

i.e., for every string $x \in Z_q^{\geq k}$,

$$\phi_k(T_{i,k}(x)) = \zeta_{i,k}(\phi_k(x)).$$

Before presenting the proof, we provide an example for the diagram of the lemma.

**Example 7.** Assume $\Sigma = Z_4$. Starting with $02123$ and letting $i = 1$ and $k = 2$ leads to

$$
\begin{array}{cccc}
02123 & \xrightarrow{T_{1,2}} & 02123 & \xrightarrow{T_{2} \downarrow} \\
| & \phi_2 & | & \phi_2 \\
(02, 102) & \xrightarrow{\zeta_{1,2}} & (02, 10002)
\end{array}
$$

where the inserted elements are underlined.

**Proof:** Let $x \in Z_q^{\geq k}$ be some string, $x = x_1x_2 \ldots x_n$. Additionally, let $\phi_k(x) = (y,z)$ with $y = y_1 \ldots y_k$, and $z = z_1 \ldots z_{n-k}$. We first consider the degenerate case, where $i \geq n-k + 1$. In that case, $T_{i,k}(x) = x$, and then by definition $\zeta_{i,k}(y,z) = (y,z)$ since $z$ does not have a prefix of length at least $n-k+1$. Thus, for $i \geq n-k + 1$ we indeed have

$$\phi_k(T_{i,k}(x)) = \phi_k(x) = (y,z) = \zeta_{i,k}(y,z) = \zeta_{i,k}(\phi_k(x)).$$

\hfill $\square$
We are left with the case of $0 \leq i \leq n - k$. We now write

$$T_{i,k}(x) = x_1x_2 \ldots x_{i+k}x_{i+1}x_{i+2} \ldots x_n.$$ 

Thus, if we denote $\phi_k(T_{i,k}(x)) = (y,z)$, then

$$y = x_1 \ldots x_k = \text{Pref}_k(x),$$

$$z = x_{k+1} - x_1, \ldots, x_{k+i} - x_i, 0^k,$$

$$x_{i+k+1} - x_{i+1}, \ldots, x_n - x_{n-k}.$$ 

This is exactly an insertion of $0^k$ after $i$ symbols in the second part of $\phi_k(x)$. It therefore follows that

$$\phi_k(T_{i,k}(x)) = (y,z) = \zeta_{i,k}(\phi_k(x)),$$

as claimed.

Recalling that $\phi_k$ is a bijection between $\mathbb{Z}^n_q$ and $\mathbb{Z}^k_q \times \mathbb{Z}^{n-k}_q$, together with Lemma 6 gives us the following corollary.

**Corollary 8.** For any $x \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n$, and for any sequence of non-negative integers $i_1, \ldots, i_t$,

$$T_{i_1,k}(\ldots T_{i_t,k}(x) \ldots) = \phi_k^{-1}(\zeta_{i_t,k}(\ldots \zeta_{i_1,k}(\phi_k(x)) \ldots)).$$

**Example 9.** Continuing Example 7, let $x = 02123, k = t = 2, i_1 = 1, i_2 = 0$. Then

$$T_{0,2}(T_{1,2}(02123)) = T_{0,2}(02123) = 02123 = \phi_k^{-1}((02,0010002)) = \phi_k^{-1}(\zeta_{0,2}(02,10022)) = \phi_k^{-1}(\zeta_{1,2}(02,102)) = \phi_k^{-1}(\zeta_{1,2}(\phi_k(02123))).$$

Corollary 3 paved the way to working in the $\phi_k$-transform domain. In this domain, a tandem-duplication operation of length $k$ translates into an insertion of a block of $k$ consecutive zeros. Conversely, a tandem-deduplication operation of length $k$ becomes a removal of a block of $k$ consecutive zeros.

The uniqueness of the root, proved in [16], now comes for free. In the $\phi_k$-transform domain, given $(x,y) \in \mathbb{Z}^k_q \times \mathbb{Z}_q^n$, as long as $y$ contains a substring of $k$ consecutive zeros, we may perform another deduplication. The process stops at the unique outcome in which the length of every run of zeros in $y$ is reduced modulo $k$.

This last observation motivates us to define the following operation on a string in $\mathbb{Z}_q^n$. We define $\mu_k : \mathbb{Z}_q^n \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_q^n$ which reduces the lengths of runs of zeros modulo $k$ in the following way. Consider a string $x \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n$, where

$$x = 0^{m_0}w_10^{m_1}w_2 \ldots w_t0^{m_t},$$

where $m_i$ are non-negative integers, and $w_1, \ldots, w_t \in \mathbb{Z}_q \setminus \{0\}$, i.e., $w_1, \ldots, w_t$ are single non-zero symbols. We then define

$$\mu_k(x) = 0^{m_0 \mod k}w_10^{m_1 \mod k}w_2 \ldots w_t0^{m_t \mod k}.$$ 

For example, for $z = 0010002$,

$$\mu_2(z) = 102.$$ 

Additionally, we define

$$\sigma_k(x) = \left(\left\lfloor \frac{m_0}{k} \right\rfloor, \left\lfloor \frac{m_1}{k} \right\rfloor, \ldots, \left\lfloor \frac{m_t}{k} \right\rfloor \right) \in (\mathbb{N} \cup \{0\})^t$$

and call $\sigma(x)$ the zero signature of $x$. For $z$ given above,

$$\sigma_2(z) = (1,1,0).$$

We note that $\mu_k(x)$ and $\sigma(x)$ together uniquely determine $x$.

We also observe some simple properties. First, the Hamming weight of a vector, denoted $\text{wt}_H$, counts the number of non-zero elements in a vector. By definition we have for every $x \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n$:

$$\text{wt}_H(x) = \text{wt}_H(\mu_k(x)).$$

...
Additionally, the length of the vector $\sigma_k(x)$, denoted $|\sigma_k(x)|$, is given by

$$|\sigma_k(x)| = \text{wt}_H(x) + 1 = \text{wt}_H(\mu_k(x)) + 1. \quad (1)$$

Note that for $z = 0010002$ as above, we have

$$|\sigma_2(z)| = 3 = \text{wt}_H(z) + 1 = \text{wt}_H(102) + 1.$$

Thus, our previous discussion implies the following corollary.

**Corollary 10.** For any string $x \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{> k}$,

$$R_k(x) = \left\{ \phi_k^{-1}(y, \mu_k(z)) \mid \phi_k(x) = (y, z) \right\}.$$

We recall the definition of the $(0, k - 1)$-RLL system over $\mathbb{Z}_q$ (for example, see [10], [17]). It is defined as the set of all finite strings over $\mathbb{Z}_q$ that do not contain $k$ consecutive zeros. We denote this set as $C_{\text{RLL}_q(0,k-1)}$. In our notation,

$$C_{\text{RLL}_q(0,k-1)} = \left\{ x \in \mathbb{Z}_q^* \mid \sigma_k(x) \in 0^* \right\}.$$

By convention, $C_{\text{RLL}_q(0,k-1)} \cap \mathbb{Z}_q^n = \{ \epsilon \}$. The following is another immediate corollary.

**Corollary 11.** For all $n \geq k$,

$$\text{Irr}_k(n) = \left\{ \phi_k^{-1}(y, z) \mid y \in \mathbb{Z}_q^k, z \in C_{\text{RLL}_q(0,k-1)} \cap \mathbb{Z}_q^{n-k} \right\}.$$

**Proof:** The proof is immediate since $x$ is irreducible iff no deduplication action may be applied to it. This happens iff for $\phi_k(x) = (y, z)$, $z$ does not contain $k$ consecutive zeros, i.e., $z \in C_{\text{RLL}_q(0,k-1)} \cap \mathbb{Z}_q^{n-k}$.

Given two strings, $x, x' \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{> k}$, we say $x$ and $x'$ are $k$-congruent, denoted $x \sim_k x'$, if $R_k(x) = R_k(x')$. It is easily seen that $\sim_k$ is an equivalence relation.

**Corollary 12.** Let $x, x' \in \mathbb{Z}_q^*$ be two strings, and denote $\phi_k(x) = (y, z)$ and $\phi_k(x') = (y', z')$. Then $x \sim_k x'$ iff $y = y'$ and $\mu_k(z) = \mu_k(z')$.

**Proof:** This is immediate when using Corollary 10 to express the roots of $x$ and $x'$.

**Example 13.** For instance, 02123, 0212323, 0212123, and 020212123 are all 2-congruent, since they have the unique root 02123.

In the $\phi_2$-transform domain, for each sequence $x$ in the preceding list, if we let $\phi_2(x) = (y, z)$, then $y = 02$ and $\mu_2(z) = 102$. \[\square\]

The following lemma appeared in [16] Proposition 2. We restate it and give an alternative proof.

**Lemma 14.** For all $x, x' \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{> k}$, we have

$$D_k^*(x) \cap D_k^*(x') \neq \emptyset$$

if and only if $x \sim_k x'$.

**Proof:** In the first direction, assume $x \not\sim_k x'$. By the uniqueness of the root, let us denote $R_k(x) = \{ u \}$ and $R_k(x') = \{ u' \}$, with $u \neq u'$. If there exists $w \in D_k^*(x) \cap D_k^*(x')$, then $w$ is a descendant of both $u$ and $u'$, therefore $u, u' \in R_k(w)$, which is a contradiction. Hence, no such $w$ exists, i.e., $D_k^*(x) \cap D_k^*(x') = \emptyset$.

In the other direction, assume $x \sim_k x'$. We construct a word $w \in D_k^*(x) \cap D_k^*(x')$. Denote $\phi_k(x) = (y, z)$ and $\phi_k(x') = (y', z')$. By Corollary 12 we have

$$y = y', \quad \mu_k(z) = \mu_k(z').$$

Let us then denote

$$z = 0^{m_0} v_1 0^{m_1} v_2 \ldots v_l 0^{m_l},$$

$$z' = 0^{m_0'} v_1 0^{m_1'} v_2 \ldots v_l 0^{m_l'},$$

with $v_i$ a non-zero symbol, and

$$m_i \equiv m_i' \pmod{k},$$

for all $i$. We now define

$$z'' = 0^{\max(m_0,m_0')} v_1 0^{\max(m_1,m_1')} v_2 \ldots v_l 0^{\max(m_l,m_l')}.$$

Since $z''$ differs from $z$ and $z'$ by insertion of blocks of $k$ consecutive zeros, it follows that

$$w = \phi_k^{-1}(y, z'') \in D_k^*(x) \cap D_k^*(x').$$
which completes the proof.

We now turn to constructing error-correcting codes. The first construction is for a code capable of correcting all errors.

**Construction A.** Fix $\Sigma = Z_q$ and $k \geq 1$. For any $n \geq k$ we construct

$$C = \bigcup_{i=0}^{\lfloor n/k \rfloor - 1} \left\{ \phi_k^{-1}(y, z^{0ki}) \mid \phi_k^{-1}(y, z) \in \text{Irr}_k(n - ik) \right\}.$$  

**Theorem 15.** The code $C$ from Construction [A] is an $(n, M; \ast)_k$ code, with

$$M = \sum_{i=0}^{\lfloor n/k \rfloor - 1} q^k M_{RLL_q(0,k-1)}(n - (i+1)k).$$

Here $M_{RLL_q(0,k-1)}(m)$ denotes the number of strings of length $m$ which are $(0, k-1)$-RLL over $Z_q$, i.e.,

$$M_{RLL_q(0,k-1)}(m) = \left| C_{RLL_q(0,k-1)} \cap Z_q^m \right|.$$  

**Proof:** The size of the code is immediate, by Corollary [11] and a minor computation. Additionally, the roots of distinct codewords are distinct as well, since we constructed the code from irreducible words with blocks of $k$ consecutive zeros appended to their end. Thus, by Lemma [14] the descendant cones of distinct codewords are disjoint.

We can say more about the size of the code we constructed.

**Theorem 16.** The code $C$ from Construction [A] is optimal, i.e., it has the largest cardinality of any $(n; \ast)_k$ code.

**Proof:** By Lemma [14] any two distinct codewords of an $(n; \ast)_k$ code must belong to different equivalence classes of $\sim_k$. The code $C$ of Construction [A] contains exactly one codeword from each equivalence class of $\sim_k$, and thus, it is optimal.

The code $C$ from Construction [A] also allows a simple decoding procedure, whose correctness follows from Corollary [10]. Assume a word $x' \in Z_q^{n-k}$ is received, and let $\phi_k(x') = (y', z')$. The decoded word is simply

$$\hat{x} = \phi_k^{-1}(y', \mu_k(z'))^{0^{n-k} - |\mu_k(z')|},$$

where $n$ is the length of the code $C$. In other words, the decoding procedure recovers the unique root of the received $x'$, and in the $\phi_k$-transform domain, pads it with enough zeros.

**Example 17.** Let $n = 4$, $q = 2$, and $k = 1$. By inspection, the code $C$ of Construction [A] can be shown to equal

$$C = \{0000, 0111, 0100, 0101, 1111, 1000, 1011, 1010\},$$

where in each codeword the $k$-irreducible part is underlined. As an example of decoding, both $01100$ and $01000$ decode to $0100$. Specifically for the former case, $x' = 01100$, we have $\phi_k(x') = (y', z') = (0, 1010)$. So $\mu_k(z') = 11$ and

$$\hat{x} = \phi_k^{-1}(0, 110) = 0100.$$

Encoding may be done in any of the many various ways for encoding RLL-constrained systems. The reader is referred to [10], [17] for further reading. After encoding the RLL-constrained string $z$, a string $y \in Z_q^n$ is added, and $\phi_k^{-1}$ employed, to obtain a codeword.

Finally, the asymptotic rate of the code family may also be obtained, thus, obtaining the capacity of the channel.

**Corollary 18.** For all $q \geq 2$ and $k \geq 1$,

$$\text{cap}_q(\ast)_k = \text{cap}(RLL_q(0,k-1)),$$

where $\text{cap}(RLL_q(0,k-1))$ is the capacity of the $q$-ary $(0, k-1)$-RLL constrained system.

**Proof:** We use $C_n$ to denote the code from Construction [A] where the subscript $n$ is used to denote the length of the code. It is easy to see that for $n \geq k$,

$$q^k M_{RLL_q(0,k-1)}(n-k) \leq |C_n| \leq nq^k M_{RLL_q(0,k-1)}(n-k).$$

Then by standard techniques [17] for constrained coding,

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} \log_2 |C_n| = \text{cap}(RLL_q(0,k-1)) = \log_2 \lambda(A_q(k-1)).$$
where \( \lambda(A_q(k - 1)) \) is the largest eigenvalue of the \( k \times k \) matrix \( A_q(k - 1) \) defined as

\[
A_q(k - 1) = \begin{pmatrix}
q - 1 & 1 \\
q - 1 & 1 \\
& & \ddots & \ddots \\
q - 1 & & & 1 \\
q - 1 & & & & 1
\end{pmatrix}.
\] (3)

As a side note, we comment that an asymptotic (in \( k \)) expression for the capacity may be given by

\[
\text{cap}(\text{RLL}_q(0,k)) = \log_2 q - \frac{(q - 1) \log q}{q^{k+2}} (1 + o(1)).
\] (4)

This expression agrees with the expression for the binary case \( q = 2 \) mentioned in [13] without proof or reference. For completeness, we bring a short proof of this claim in the appendix.

Having considered \( (n, M; *)_k \) codes, we now turn to study \( (n, M; t)_k \) codes for \( t \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\} \). We note that \( \mathbb{Z}_q^n \) is an optimal \( (n, q^n; 0)_k \) code. Additionally, any \( (n, M; *)_k \) code is trivially also an \( (n, M; t)_k \) code, though not necessarily optimal.

We know by Lemma 14 that the descendant cones of two words overlap if and only if they are \( k \)-congruent. Thus, the strategy for constructing \( (n, M; *)_k \) codes was to pick single representatives of the equivalence classes of \( \sim_k \) as codewords. However, the overlap that is guaranteed by Lemma 14 may require a large amount of duplication operations. If we are interested in a small enough value of \( t \), then an \( (n, M; t)_k \) code may contain several codewords from the same equivalence class. This observation will be formalized in the following, by introducing a metric on \( k \)-congruent words, and applying this metric to pick \( k \)-congruent codewords.

Fix a length \( n \geq 1 \), and let \( x, x' \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n \), \( x \sim_k x' \), be two \( k \)-congruent words of length \( n \). We define the distance between \( x \) and \( x' \) as

\[
d_k(x, x') = \min \left\{ t \geq 0 \mid D_k^i(x) \cap D_k^i(x') \neq \emptyset \right\}.
\]

Since \( x \) and \( x' \) are \( k \)-congruent, Lemma 14 ensures that \( d_k \) is well defined.

**Lemma 19.** Let \( x, x' \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n \), \( x \sim_k x' \), be two \( k \)-congruent strings. Denote \( \phi_k(x) = (y, z) \) and \( \phi_k(x') = (y, z') \). Additionally, let

\[
s_k(z) = (s_0, s_1, \ldots, s_r),
\]

\[
s_k(z') = (s'_0, s'_1, \ldots, s'_r).
\]

Then

\[
d_k(x, x') = \sum_{i=0}^{r} |s_i - s'_i| = d_{\ell_1}(\sigma_k(z), \sigma_k(z')),
\]

where \( d_{\ell_1} \) stands for the \( \ell_1 \)-distance function.

**Proof:** Let \( x \) and \( x' \) be two strings as required. By Corollary 12 we indeed have \( y = y' \), and \( \mu_k(z) = \mu_k(z') \). In particular, the length of the vectors of the zero signatures of \( z \) and \( z' \) are the same,

\[
|\sigma_k(z)| = |\sigma_k(z')| = r + 1.
\]

We now observe that the action of a \( k \)-tandem duplication on \( x \) corresponds to the addition of a standard unit vector \( e_i \) (an all-zero vector except for the \( i \)th coordinate which equals 1) to \( \sigma_k(z) \).

Let \( \bar{x} \) denote a vector that is a descendant both of \( x \) and \( x' \), and that requires the least number of \( k \)-tandem duplications to reach from \( x \) and \( x' \). If we denote \( \phi_k(\bar{x}) = (\bar{y}, \bar{z}) \), then we have

\[
\bar{y} = y = y',
\]

\[
\mu_k(\bar{z}) = \mu_k(z) = \mu_k(z'),
\]

\[
\sigma_k(\bar{z}) = (\max(s_0, s'_0), \ldots, \max(s_r, s'_r)).
\]

Thus,

\[
d_k(x, x') = \sum_{i=0}^{r} (\max(s_i, s'_i) - s_i)
\]

\[
= \sum_{i=0}^{r} (\max(s_i, s'_i) - s'_i)
\]

\[
= \sum_{i=0}^{r} |s_i - s'_i| = d_{\ell_1}(\sigma_k(z), \sigma_k(z')).
\]
From Lemma [19] we also deduce that $d_k$ is a metric over any set of $k$-congruent words of length $n$.

The following theorem shows that a code is $(n; t)_k$ if and only if the zero signatures of the $z$-part of $k$-congruent codewords in the $\phi_k$-transform domain, form a constant-weight code in the $\ell_1$-metric with distance at least $t + 1$. We recall that the $\ell_1$-metric weight of a vector $s = s_1s_2 \ldots s_n \in \mathbb{Z}^n$ is defined as the $\ell_1$-distance to the zero vector, i.e.,

$$\text{wt}_{\ell_1}(s) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} |s_i|.$$  

**Theorem 20.** Let $C \subseteq \mathbb{Z}_q^n$, $n \geq k$, be a subset of size $M$. Then $C$ is an $(n; M; t)_k$ code if and only if for each $y \in \mathbb{Z}_q^k$, $z \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n-k}$, the following sets

$$C(y, z) = \left\{ \sigma_k(z') \mid z' \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n-k}, \mu_k(z') = \mu_k(z), \right\}$$

are constant-weight $(n(y, z), M(y, z), t + 1)$ codes in the $\ell_1$-metric, with constant weight

$$\text{wt}_{\ell_1}(\sigma(z)) = \frac{n - k - |\mu_k(z)|}{k},$$

and length

$$n(y, z) = \text{wt}_H(z) + 1 = \text{wt}_H(\mu_k(z)) + 1,$$

where $\text{wt}_H$ denotes the Hamming weight.

**Proof:** In the first direction, let $C$ be an $(n; M; t)_k$ code. Fix $y$ and $z$, and consider the set $C(y, z)$. Assume to the contrary that there exist distinct $\sigma_k(z'), \sigma_k(z'') \in C(y, z)$, $z', z'' \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n-k}$, such that $d_{\ell_1}(\sigma_k(z'), \sigma_k(z'')) \leq t$.

The length of the code, $n(y, z)$, is obvious given (1). We note that $\sigma_k(z') \neq \sigma_k(z'')$ implies $z' \neq z''$. By definition, we have

$$\mu_k(z) = \mu_k(z').$$

Thus,

$$\text{wt}_{\ell_1}(\sigma(z)) = \text{wt}_{\ell_1}(\sigma(z')) = \text{wt}_{\ell_1}(\sigma(z'')) = \frac{n - k - |\mu_k(z)|}{k},$$

where $|\mu_k(z)|$ denotes the length of the vector $\mu_k(z)$. Additionally, the two codewords

$c' = \phi_k^{-1}(y, z') \in C$ and $c'' = \phi_k^{-1}(y, z'') \in C$

are $k$-congruent and distinct. By Lemma [19]

$$d_k(c', c'') = d_{\ell_1}(\sigma_k(z'), \sigma_k(z'')) \leq t.$$  

However, that contradicts the code parameters since we have (5) imply $D_k(c') \cap D_k(c'') \neq \emptyset$, whereas in an $(n, M; t)_k$ code, the $t$-descendant cones of distinct codewords have an empty intersection.

In the other direction, assume that for every choice of $y$ and $z$, the corresponding $C(y, z)$ is a constant-weight code with minimum $\ell_1$-distance of $t + 1$. Assume to the contrary $C$ is not an $(n, M; t)_k$ code. Therefore, there exist two distinct codewords, $c', c'' \in C$ such that $d_k(c', c'') \leq t$.

By Lemma [14] we conclude that $c'$ and $c''$ are $k$-congruent. Thus, there exist $y \in \mathbb{Z}_q^k$ and $z \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n-k}$ (z is not necessarily unique) such that,

$$\phi_k(c') = (y, z')$$

$$\phi_k(c'') = (y, z'')$$

$$\mu_k(z) = \mu_k(z') = \mu_k(z'').$$

We can now use Lemma [19] and obtain

$$d_{\ell_1}(\sigma_k(z'), \sigma_k(z'')) = d_k(c', c'') \leq t,$$

which contradicts the minimal distance of $C(y, z)$.

With the insight given by Theorem [20] we now give a construction for $(n, M; t)_k$ codes.
Construction B. Fix $\Sigma = \mathbb{Z}_q$, $k \geq 1$, $n \geq k$, and $t \geq 0$. Furthermore, for all
\[ 1 \leq m \leq n - k + 1, \]
\[ 0 \leq w \leq \left\lfloor \frac{n - k}{k} \right\rfloor, \]
fix $\ell_1$-metric codes over $\mathbb{Z}_q$, denoted $C_1(m,w)$, which are of length $m$, constant $\ell_1$-weight $w$, and minimum $\ell_1$-distance $t + 1$. We construct
\[ C = \left\{ \phi^{-1}_k(y,z) \mid y \in \mathbb{Z}_q^k, z \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n-k}, \sigma_k(z) \in C_1 \left( \operatorname{wt}_H(\mu_k(z)) + 1, \frac{n - k - |\mu_k(z)|}{k} \right) \right\}. \]

Corollary 21. The code $C$ from Construction B is an $(n,M;t)_k$ code.

Proof: Let $c,c' \in C$ be two $k$-congruent codewords, i.e., $\phi_k(c) = (y,z)$, $\phi_k(c') = (y,z')$, and $\mu_k(z) = \mu_k(z')$. It follows, by construction, that $\sigma_k(z)$ and $\sigma_k(z')$ belong to the same $\ell_1$-metric code with minimum $\ell_1$-distance at least $t + 1$.

By Theorem 20, $C$ is an $(n,M;t)_k$ code.

Due to Theorem 20 a choice of optimal $\ell_1$-metric codes in Construction B will result in optimal $(n,M;t)_k$ codes. We are unfortunately unaware of explicit constructions for such codes. However, we may deduce such a construction from codes for the similar Lee metric (e.g., [20]), while applying a standard averaging argument for inferring the existence of a constant-weight code. We leave the construction of such codes for a future work.

IV. $\leq k$-Tandem-Duplication Codes

In this Section, we consider error-correcting codes that correct duplications of length at most $k$, which correspond to $S_{\leq k}$. In particular, we present constructions for codes that can correct any number of duplications of length $\leq 3$ as well as a lower bound on the capacity of the corresponding channel. In the case of duplications of length $\leq 2$ we give optimal codes, and obtain the exact capacity of the channel.

It is worth noting that the systems $S_{\leq k}$ were studied in the context of formal languages [16] and also in the context of coding and information theory [11]. In [16], it was shown that $S_{\leq k}$, with $k \geq 4$, is not a regular language for alphabet size $|\Sigma| \geq 3$.

However, it was proved in [11] that $S_{\leq 3}$ is indeed a regular language irrespective of the starting string and the alphabet size.

In this paper, we will show that strings that can be generated by bounded tandem string-duplication systems with maximum duplication length $3$ have a unique duplication root, a fact that will be useful for our code construction. Theorem 24 formalizes this statement. We begin with the following definition.

Definition 22. Let two squares $y_1 = \alpha\alpha \in \Sigma^+$ and $y_2 = \beta\beta \in \Sigma^+$ appear as substrings of some string $u \in \Sigma^*$, i.e.,
\[ u = x_1y_1z_1 = x_2y_2z_2, \]
with $|x_1| = i, |x_2| = j$. We say $y_1$ and $y_2$ are overlapping squares in $u$ if the following conditions both hold:
1) $i \leq j \leq i + 2|\alpha| - 1$ or $j \leq i \leq j + 2|\beta| - 1$.
2) If $i = j$, then $\alpha \neq \beta$.

Example 23. Consider the sequence $u$,
\[ u = 012323452452345245245624567, \]
where $\alpha\alpha$ and $\beta_1\beta_1$ for each $i \in \{1,2,3\}$ are overlapping squares.

The following theorem shows that every word has a unique root under tandem deduplication of length up to $3$.

Theorem 24. For any $z \in \Sigma^*$ we have $|R_{\leq 3}(z)| = 1$.

Proof: Fix some $z \in \Sigma^*$, and assume $z$ has exactly $m$ distinct roots, $R_{\leq 3}(z) = \{y_1, y_2, \ldots, y_m\}$. Let us assume to the contrary that $m \geq 2$.

Let us follow a deduplication sequence starting at $x_0 = z$. At each step, we deduplicate $x_i \Leftarrow x_{i+1}$, and we must have $|R_{\leq 3}(x_i)| \geq |R_{\leq 3}(x_{i+1})|$. At each step, out of the possible immediate ancestors of $x_i$, we choose $x_{i+1}$ to be one with $|R_{\leq 3}(x_{i+1})| \geq 2$ if possible. Since the end-point of a deduplication process is an irreducible sequence, we must reach a sequence $x$ in the deduplication process with the following properties:
1) $z \Leftarrow x$
2) $|R_{\leq 3}(x)| \geq 2$
3) For each $x' \in \Sigma^*$ such that $x \Leftarrow x'$, $|R_{\leq 3}(x')| = 1$.
4) There exist $v, w \in \Sigma^*$ such that $x \Leftarrow x \Leftarrow w$ with $|R_{\leq 3}(v)| = |R_{\leq 3}(w)| = 1$. 

The following theorem shows that every word has a unique root under tandem deduplication of length up to $3$.
5) $R_{\leq 3}(v) = \{y_j\} \neq \{y_j\} = R_{\leq 3}(w)$.

Intuitively, in the deduplication process starting from $z$, we reach a sequence $x$ with more than one root, but any following single deduplication moves us into a single descendant cone of one of the roots of $z$. We note that all ancestors of $v$ must have a single root $y_j$, and all ancestors of $w$ must have a single root $y_j$.

Thus, $x$ must contain a square $u_{v}u_{w}$ whose deduplication results in $v$, and a square $u_{w}u_{w}$ whose deduplication results in $w$. We contend that the squares $u_{v}u_{v}$ and $u_{w}u_{w}$ overlap. Otherwise, if $u_{v}u_{v}$ and $u_{w}u_{w}$ do not overlap in $x$, we may deduplicate them in any order to obtain the same result. Hence, there exists $t \in \Sigma^*$ such that $v \leftrightarrow t$ and $w \leftrightarrow t$. But then, since $t$ is an ancestor both of $v$ and $w$,

$$\{y_j\} = R_{\leq 3}(v) = R_{\leq 3}(t) = R_{\leq 3}(w) = \{y_j\},$$

a contradiction.

We now know that $u_{v}u_{v}$ and $u_{w}u_{w}$ must overlap. We also note $|u_{v}|, |u_{w}| \leq 3$. Let $a, b, c \in \Sigma$ be three distinct symbols. If the alphabet is smaller, then some of the cases below may be ignored, and the proof remains the same. We use brute force to enumerate the following cases: (each string describes the shortest subsequence that contains the overlapping squares)

1) $|u_{v}| = 1, |u_{w}| = 1 : \text{aaa}$.
2) $|u_{v}| = 1, |u_{w}| = 2 : \text{aaaaa, aabab}$.
3) $|u_{v}| = 1, |u_{w}| = 3 : \text{aaaaaaa, aaaaaaa, aabaaba, ababa, abcabc}$. 
4) $|u_{v}| = 2, |u_{w}| = 2 : \text{aaaa, ababab, ababbb, ababa, bcabaca}$. 
5) $|u_{v}| = 2, |u_{w}| = 3 : \text{aaaaaa, aaaaaaa, aaaaaaaa, aaaaaaa, aabaabaaaa, aababaaba, ababacaaca, abababcbac, ababacbac, ababaraba, abababa, abababa, abacabacaaca, abacabcbcb, abacabcbcc, abacabccca, abacabccbc, abacabccba, abacabcaca, abacabcabc, abacabcabc, abacabcabc, abacabcabc, abacabcabc}$. 
6) $|u_{v}| = 3, |u_{w}| = 3 : \text{aaaaaa, aaaaaaa, aaaaaaaa, aaaaaaa, aabaabaaaa, aababaaba, ababacaaca, abababcbac, ababacbac, ababaraba, abababa, abababa, abacabacaaca, abacabcbcb, abacabcbcc, abacabccca, abacabccbc, abacabccba, abacabcaca, abacabcabc, abacabcabc, abacabcabc}$. 

All other cases left are symmetric (by relabeling the alphabet symbols) to one of the above listed case. For example, if $u_{v} = abc$ and $u_{w} = cbc$, the corresponding string appears in case 6) as $abcabcbcc$. It is tedious, yet easy, to check that each of the above listed cases has a unique root if deduplication of maximum length 3 is allowed. In the above example, indeed, the only possible root is $abc$.

$$abcabcbcbcc <_{3} abc, abcbccbc <_{3} abc, ababcbccbc <_{3} abc.$$ 

Let $x = a\beta\gamma \in \Sigma^*$, where $\beta$ covers exactly the overlapping squares, and is one of the above listed cases. Then, by deduplication of $u_{v}u_{v}$ from $\beta$ in $x$, we get $v$, and by deduplication of $u_{w}u_{w}$ from $\beta$ in $x$, we get $w$. However, since $\beta$ has a unique root, we may deduplicate $v$ and $w$ to the same word $t = a\beta'\gamma \in \Sigma^*$, where $R(\beta') = \{\beta'\}$, i.e., $\beta'$ is the unique root of $\beta$. Thus, $t$ is an ancestor of both $v$ and $w$. Again,

$$\{y_j\} = R_{\leq 3}(v) = R_{\leq 3}(t) = R_{\leq 3}(w) = \{y_j\},$$

which is a contradiction.

\textbf{Corollary 25.} For any $z \in \Sigma^*$ we also have $|R_{\leq k}(z)| = 1$ for $k = 1, 2$.

In a similar fashion to the previous section, we define the following relation. We say $x, x' \in \Sigma^*$ are $\leq 3$-congruent, denoted $x \sim_{\leq 3} x'$, if $R_{\leq 3}(x) = R_{\leq 3}(x')$. Clearly, $\sim_{\leq 3}$ is an equivalence relation. Having shown any sequence has a unique root when duplicating up to length 3, we obtain the following corollary.

\textbf{Corollary 26.} For any two words $x, x' \in \Sigma^*$, if

$$D_{\leq 3}^+(x) \cap D_{\leq 3}^+(x') \neq \emptyset$$

then $x \sim_{\leq 3} x'$.

We note that unlike Lemma 14 we do not have $x \sim_{\leq 3} x'$ necessarily imply that their descendant cones intersect. Here is a simple example illustrating this case. Fix $q = 3$, and let $x = 012012$ and $x' = 001122$. We note that $x \sim_{\leq 3} x'$, since

$$R_{\leq 3}(x) = R_{\leq 3}(x') = \{012\}.$$ 

However, $D_{\leq 3}^+(x) \cap D_{\leq 3}^+(x') = \emptyset$ since all the descendants of $x$ have a 0 to the right of a 2, whereas all the descendants of $x'$ do not.

We are missing a simple operator which is required to define an error-correcting code. For any sequence $x \in \Sigma^+$, we define its $k$-suffix-extension to be

$$\zeta_k(x) = x(Suff_1(x))^k,$$
i.e., the sequence \( x \) with its last finite alphabet. The constructed code is

\[
C = \bigcup_{i=1}^{n} \{ z_{n-i}(x) \mid x \in \text{Irr}_{3}(i) \}.
\]

**Theorem 27.** The code \( C \) from Construction C is an \((n, M; *)_{\leq 3}\) code, where

\[
M = \sum_{i=1}^{n} |\text{Irr}_{3}(i)|.
\]

**Proof:** The parameters of the code are obvious. Since the last letter duplication induced by the suffix extension may be deduplicated, we clearly have exactly one codeword from each equivalence class of \( \sim_{\leq 3} \). By Corollary 26, the descendant cones of the codewords do not intersect and the code can indeed correct all errors.

For the remainder of the section we denote by \( \text{Irr}_{q; \leq 3} \) the set of irreducible words with respect to \( \leq_{\leq 3} \) over \( \mathbb{Z}_q \), in order to make explicit the dependence on the size of the alphabet. We also assume \( q \geq 3 \), since \( q = 2 \) is a trivial case with

\[
\text{Irr}_{2; \leq 3} = \{0,1,01,10,010,101\}.
\]

We observe that \( \text{Irr}_{q; \leq 3} \) is a regular language. Indeed, it is defined by a finite set of subsequences we would like to avoid. This set is exactly

\[
F_q = \left\{ uu \in \mathbb{Z}_q^* \mid 1 \leq |u| \leq 3 \right\}.
\]

We can easily construct a finite directed graph with labeled edges such that paths in the graph generate exactly \( \text{Irr}_{q; \leq 3} \). This graph is obtained by taking the De Bruijn graph \( G_q = (V_q, E_q) \) of order 5 over \( \mathbb{Z}_q \), i.e., \( V_q = \mathbb{Z}_q^5 \), and edges of the form \((a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4, a_5) \rightarrow (a_2, a_3, a_4, a_5, a_6)\), for all \( a_i \in \mathbb{Z}_q \). Thus, each edge is labeled with a word \( w = (a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4, a_5, a_6) \in \mathbb{Z}_q^6 \). We then remove all edges labeled by words \( a \beta \gamma \in \mathbb{Z}_q^6 \) such that \( \beta \in F_q \). We call the resulting graph \( G_q' \). It is easy verify that each path in \( G_q' \) generates a sequence of sliding windows of length 6. Reducing each window to its first letter we get exactly \( \text{Irr}_{q; \leq 3} \). An example showing \( G_3 \) is given in Figure 1. Finally, it follows that using known techniques [17], we can calculate \( \text{cap}(\text{Irr}_{q; \leq 3}) \).

**Corollary 28.** For all \( q \geq 3 \),

\[
\text{cap}_q(*)_{\leq 3} \geq \text{cap}(\text{Irr}_{q; \leq 3}).
\]

**Proof:** Let \( M_n \) denote the size of the length \( n \) code over \( \mathbb{Z}_q \) from Construction C By definition, \( A_q(n; *)_{\leq 3} \geq M_n \). We note that trivially

\[
M_n = \sum_{i=1}^{n} |\text{Irr}_{q; \leq 3}(i)| \geq |\text{Irr}_{q; \leq 3}(n)|.
\]

Plugging this into the definition of the capacity gives us the desired claim. \( \blacksquare \)

**Example 29.** Using the constrained system presented in Figure 1 that generates \( \text{Irr}_{3; \leq 3} \), we can calculate

\[
\text{cap}_3(*)_{\leq 3} \geq 0.347934.
\]

Stronger statements may be given when the duplication length is upper bounded by 2 instead of 3.

**Lemma 30.** For all \( x, x' \in \Sigma^* \), we have

\[
D^*_2(x) \cap D^*_2(x') \neq \emptyset
\]

if and only if \( x \sim_{\leq 2} x' \).

**Proof:** In the first direction, assume \( x \sim_{\leq 2} x' \). By the uniqueness of the root from Corollary 25 let us denote \( R_{\leq 2}(x) = \{ u \} \) and \( R_{\leq 2}(x') = \{ u' \} \), with \( u \neq u' \). If there exists \( w \in D^*_2(x) \cap D^*_2(x') \), then \( w \) is a descendant of both \( u \) and \( u' \), therefore \( u \) and \( u' \in R_{\leq 2}(w) \), which is a contradiction. Hence, no such \( w \) exists, i.e., \( D^*_2(x) \cap D^*_2(x') = \emptyset \).

In the other direction, assume \( x \sim_{\leq 2} x' \). We construct a word \( w \in D^*_2(x) \cap D^*_2(x') \). Let \( R_{\leq 2}(x) = R_{\leq 2}(x') = \{ v \} \), and denote \( v = a_1a_2\ldots a_m \), where \( a_i \in \Sigma \). Consider a tandem-duplication string system \( S_{\leq 2} = (\Sigma, v, T_{\leq 2}) \). Using [11], the regular expression for the language generated by \( S_{\leq 2} \) is given by

\[
a_1^+ a_2^+ (a_1^+ a_2^+)^* a_3^+ (a_2^+ a_3^+)^* \ldots a_m^+ (a_{m-1}^+ a_m^+)^*.
\]
Figure 1. The graph $G_3'$ producing the set of ternary irreducible words $\text{Irr}_{3,3}$. Vertices without edges were removed as well.

Since $x, x' \in S$, we have

$$x = \prod_{i=1}^{a_1} (a_1^{p_{1i}} a_2^{q_{1i}}) a_3^{\beta_1} \prod_{i=2}^{a_2} (a_2^{p_{2i}} a_3^{q_{2i}}) \\ldots \prod_{i=m-1}^{a_{m-1}} (a_{m-1}^{p_{(m-1)i}} a_m^{q_{(m-1)i}}),$$

and

$$x' = \prod_{i=1}^{b_1} (a_1^{e_{1i}} a_2^{f_{1i}}) a_3^{\gamma_1} \prod_{i=2}^{b_2} (a_2^{e_{2i}} a_3^{f_{2i}}) \\ldots \prod_{i=m-1}^{b_{m-1}} (a_{m-1}^{e_{(m-1)i}} a_m^{f_{(m-1)i}}),$$

where $\prod$ represents concatenation and $p_{ji}, q_{ji}, e_{ji}, f_{ji}, \alpha_{ji}, \beta_j \geq 1$. Now, it is easy to observe that we can obtain

$$w = \prod_{i=1}^{\gamma_1} (a_1^{\alpha_{1i}} a_2^{\beta_{1i}}) a_3^{\gamma_1} \prod_{i=2}^{\gamma_2} (a_2^{\alpha_{2i}} a_3^{\beta_{2i}}) \cdots \prod_{i=m-1}^{\gamma_{m-1}} (a_{m-1}^{\alpha_{(m-1)i}} a_m^{\beta_{(m-1)i}}).$$
by doing tandem duplication of length up to 2 on x and \( x' \), and choosing \( \gamma_j = \max \{ \alpha_j, \beta_j \} \), \( g_j = \max \{ p_{ji}, \varepsilon_{ji} \} \), and \( h_j = \max \{ q_{ji}, f_{ji} \} \). Note, \( p_{ji} \) and \( q_{ji} \) are assumed to be 0 for \( i > \alpha_j \) and \( \varepsilon_{ji} \) and \( f_{ji} \) are assumed to be 0 for \( i > \beta_j \). Thus, \( w \in D_{\leq 2}(x) \cap D_{\leq 2}(x') \).

### Construction D

Let \( \Sigma \) be some finite alphabet. The constructed code is

\[
C = \bigcup_{i=1}^{n} \{ \xi_{n-i}(x) \mid x \in \text{Irr}_{\leq 2}(i) \}.
\]

**Theorem 31.** The code \( C \) from Construction \( \square \) is an optimal \((n, M; *)_{\leq 2}\) code, where

\[
M = \sum_{i=1}^{n} |\text{Irr}_{\leq 2}(i)|.
\]

**Proof:** The correctness of the parameters follows the same reasoning as the proof of Theorem \( \square \). By Lemma \( \square \), any two distinct codewords of an \((n; *)_{\leq 2}\) code must belong to different equivalence classes of \( \sim_{\leq 2} \). The code \( C \) of Construction \( \square \) contains exactly one codeword from each equivalence class of \( \sim_{\leq 2} \), and thus, it is optimal.

**Corollary 32.** For all \( q \geq 3 \),

\[
\text{cap}_{q}(*_{\leq 2}) = \text{cap}(\text{Irr}_{q; \leq 2}).
\]

**Proof:** Let \( M_n \) denote the size of the length \( n \) code over \( \mathbb{Z}_q \) from Construction \( \square \). By definition, \( A_q(n; *)_{\leq 2} \geq M_n \). We note that trivially

\[
M_n = \sum_{i=1}^{n} |\text{Irr}_{q; \leq 2}(i)| \geq |\text{Irr}_{q; \leq 2}(n)|.
\]

Additionally, \( |\text{Irr}_{q; \leq 2}(n)| \) is monotone increasing in \( n \) since any irreducible length-\( n \) word \( x \) may be extended to an irreducible word of length \( n + 1 \) by adding a letter that is not one of the last two letters appearing in \( x \). Thus,

\[
M_n = \sum_{i=1}^{n} |\text{Irr}_{q; \leq 2}(i)| \leq n |\text{Irr}_{q; \leq 2}(n)|.
\]

Plugging this into the definition of the capacity gives us the desired claim.

## V. Duplication Roots

In Section \( \square \), we stated that if the duplication length is uniform (i.e., a constant \( k \)), then every sequence has a unique root. Further in Section \( \square \), we proved in Theorem \( \square \) that if the duplication length is bounded by 3 (i.e. \( \leq 3 \)), then again every sequence will have a unique root. In fact, the two cases proved in the paper are the only cases of tandem-duplication channels that have a unique root given a sequence, namely, in all other cases, the duplication root is not necessarily unique. The characterization is stated in Theorem \( \square \). Before moving to Theorem \( \square \), consider the following example:

**Example 33.** Let \( U = \{2, 3, 4\} \) be a set of duplication lengths and \( \Sigma = \{1, 2, 3\} \). Consider

\[
z = \overbrace{1 2 3 2 1 2 3 2 3}^{\alpha \xi} \overbrace{2}^{\beta \xi}.
\]

The sequence \( z \) has two tandem repeats \( \alpha \xi \) and \( \beta \xi \) with \( |\alpha| = 4 \) and \( |\beta| = 2 \). If we deduplicate \( \alpha \xi \) first from \( z \), we get

\[
123212323 \iff 123212323 \iff 1232123.
\]

However, if we deduplicate \( \beta \xi \) first from \( z \) we get

\[
123212323 \iff 1232123.
\]

**Theorem 39** generalizes the statement presented in the example above to any set of duplication lengths. We naturally extend all previous notation to allow duplication and deduplication of several lengths by replacing the usual \( k \) subscript with a set \( U \), where \( U \subseteq \mathbb{N} \). For example, \( R_U(z) \) denotes the set of roots obtained via a sequence of deduplications of lengths from \( U \), starting with the string \( z \). The property we would like to study is formally defined next.

**Definition 34.** Let \( \Sigma \neq \emptyset \) be an alphabet, and \( U \subseteq \mathbb{N} \), \( U \neq \emptyset \), a set of tandem-duplication lengths. We say \((\Sigma, U)\) is a unique-root pair, iff for all \( z \in \Sigma^* \) we have \( |R_U(z)| = 1 \). Otherwise, we call \((\Sigma, U)\) a non-unique-root pair.
We observe that the actual identity of the letters in the alphabet is immaterial, and only the size of $\Sigma$ matters. Additionally, simple monotonicity is evident: If $(\Sigma, U)$ is a unique-root pair, then so is $(\Sigma', U)$, for all $\Sigma' \subseteq \Sigma$. Similarly, if $(\Sigma, U)$ is a non-unique-root pair, then so is $(\Sigma', U)$, for all $\Sigma \subseteq \Sigma'$.

The following sequence of lemmas will provide the basis for a full classification of unique-root pairs.

**Lemma 35.** Let $\Sigma = \{a\}$ be an alphabet with only a single letter. Let $U \subseteq \mathbb{N}$, and denote $k = \min(U)$. Then $(\Sigma, U)$ is a unique-root pair if and only if $k|n$ for all $n \in U$.

**Proof:** If $k|n$ for all $m \in U$, then any sequence $a^n$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$ has a unique root

$$a^n \equiv a^{n \mod k},$$

where in the expression above $n \mod k$ denotes the unique integer from $\{1, 2, \ldots, k\}$ with the same residue modulo $k$ as $n$.

In the other direction, if there exists $m \in U$ such that $k \nmid m$, let us consider the sequence $a^{k+2m}$. By first deduplicating a length $m$ sequence, and then as many deduplications of length $k$ we obtain

$$a^{k+2m} \equiv a^{k+m} \equiv a^{m \mod k} = x.$$

However, by only deduplicating length $k$ sequences, we also get

$$a^{k+2m} \equiv a^{m \mod k} = y.$$

Both $x$ and $y$ are irreducible since $1 \leq |x|, |y| \leq k$. However, since $m \neq 0 \pmod{k}$, we have

$$m \neq 2m \pmod{k},$$

and therefore $x \neq y$, and $a^{k+2m}$ has two distinct roots. 

**Lemma 36.** Let $\Sigma$ be an alphabet, $|\Sigma| \geq 2$, $km > 1$, and $U = \{k, k + m\} \cup V$, where $V \subseteq \mathbb{N} \setminus \{1, 2, \ldots, k + m\}$. Then $(\Sigma, U)$ is a non-unique-root pair.

**Proof:** By Lemma 35 and monotonicity, if $k \nmid m$, then $(\Sigma, U)$ is already a non-unique-root pair, and we are done. Thus, for the rest of the proof we assume $m = \ell k$, for some $\ell \in \mathbb{N}$.

Let $a, b \in \Sigma$ be two distinct letters, and let $v_1v_2 \ldots v_{k+m} \in \Sigma^{k+m}$ be a sequence defined as follows:

$$v_i = \begin{cases} 
  a & i < k + m \text{ and } [i/k] \text{ is odd}, \\
  b & i < k + m \text{ and } [i/k] \text{ is even}, \\
  v_m & i = k + m.
\end{cases}$$

Consider now the sequence

$$z = v_1v_2 \ldots v_{k+m}v_1v_2 \ldots v_{k+m}v_{m+1} \ldots v_{k+m-1}.$$

We can write $z$ as

$$z = (v_1v_2 \ldots v_{k+m-1}v_m)^2v_{m+1} \ldots v_{k+m-1} = v_1v_2 \ldots v_{k+m-1}v_1v_2 \ldots v_{m-1}(v_mv_{m+1} \ldots v_{k+m-1})^2.$$

As is evident, there are two squares in $z$, one of which is of length $2k + 2m$ and the other is of length $2k$. Deduplicating the square of length $2k + 2m$ in $z$ first gives

$$z \equiv v_1v_2 \ldots v_{k+m-1}v_mv_{m+1} \ldots v_{k+m-1} \equiv v_1v_2 \ldots v_{k+m-1} = y.$$

Deduplicating the square of length $2k$ first gives

$$z \equiv v_1v_2 \ldots v_{k+m-1}v_mv_1v_2 \ldots v_{k+m-1} = x.$$

We note that $|x| = 2k + 2m - 1$ and $|y| = k + m - 1$. Thus, if further deduplications are possible, they must be deduplications of length $k$, since both $x$ and $y$ are too short to allow deduplications of other allowed lengths from $U$. We observe that $y$ is certainly irreducible, since it is made up of alternating blocks of $a$’s and $b$’s of length $k$. However, it is conceivable that $x$ may be further deduplicated to obtain $y$.

We recall $m = \ell k$. Depending on the parity of $\ell$, we have two cases. If $\ell$ is even, we can write explicitly

$$y = (a^kb^k)^{\ell/2}a^{k-1},$$

$$x = (a^kb^k)^{\ell/2}b(a^kb^k)^{\ell/2}a^{k-1}.$$
The sequence \( x \) may be further deduplicated, by noting the square \( ba^{k-1}ba^{k-1} \), to obtain
\[
x \leftrightarrow (a^k b^k)^{2k} a^{k-1} = x'.
\]

We easily observe that \( x' \) is irreducible, and \( x' \neq y \) since their lengths differ, \( |y| = (\ell + 1)k - 1 \), \( |x| = (2\ell + 1)k - 1 \), and \( \ell \geq 1 \).

If \( \ell \) is odd, we explicitly write
\[
y = (a^k b^k)^{(\ell - 1)/2} a^{k} b^{k - 1},
x = (a^k b^k)^{(\ell - 1)/2} a^2 (a^k b^k)^{(\ell - 1)/2} a^{k - 1} a = x'.
\]

We recall our requirement that \( km > 1 \), which translates to \( k \geq 1 \), \( \ell \geq 1 \) and odd, but not \( k = \ell = 1 \). If \( k \geq 2 \) and \( \ell \geq 3 \), we easily see that \( x \) is irreducible, \( x \neq y \). If \( \ell = 1 \) and \( k \geq 2 \), we have \( x = a^k b^{k-1} a b^{k-1} \) which is again irreducible, and \( x \neq y \). The final case is \( k = 1 \) and \( \ell \geq 3 \), in which
\[
x = (ab)^{(\ell - 1)/2} a^2 (ab)^{(\ell - 1)/2} a \leftrightarrow (ab)^{\ell - 1} a = x'
\]
by twice deduplicating the square \( a^2 \). However, \( y = (ab)^{(\ell - 1)/2} a \), and \( y \neq x \) since \(|y| = 1 + (\ell - 1)/2 \) and \(|x| = \ell \), while \( \ell \geq 3 \).

**Lemma 37.** For any alphabet \( \Sigma \), \( |\Sigma| \geq 3 \), and for any \( V \subseteq \mathbb{N} \setminus \{1, 2, 3\} \), \( V \neq \emptyset \), if \( U = \{1, 2\} \cup V \), then \((\Sigma, U)\) is a non-unique-root pair.

*Proof:* Let \( a, b, c \in \Sigma \) be distinct symbols, and let \( m = \min(V) \). Consider the sequence
\[
z = ab^{m-3}caab^{m-3}ca.
\]
We now have the following two distinct roots,
\[
z \leftrightarrow ab^{m-3}ca \leftarrow abca,
z \leftrightarrow ab^{m-3}cab^{m-3}ca \leftarrow abcabca.
\]

**Lemma 38.** For any alphabet \( \Sigma \), \( |\Sigma| \geq 3 \), and for any \( V \subseteq \mathbb{N} \setminus \{1, 2, 3\} \), \( V \neq \emptyset \), if \( U = \{1, 2, 3\} \cup V \), then \((\Sigma, U)\) is a non-unique-root pair.

*Proof:* Let \( a, b, c \in \Sigma \) be 3 distinct symbols. Consider the sequence
\[
z = ab^{m-3}cbab^{m-3}cb,
\]
where \( m = \min(V) \). We now have the following two distinct roots,
\[
z \leftrightarrow ab^{m-3}cb \leftarrow abc\leftarrow abc,
z \leftrightarrow ab^{m-3}cbab^{m-3}c \leftarrow abcabc.
\]

We are now in a position to provide a full classification of unique-root pairs.

**Theorem 39.** Let \( \Sigma \neq \emptyset \) be an alphabet, and \( U \subseteq \mathbb{N} \), \( U \neq \emptyset \), a set of tandem-duplication lengths. Denote \( k = \min(U) \). Then \((\Sigma, U)\) is a unique-root pair if and only if it matches one of the following cases:

| \( |\Sigma| \) | \( U \subseteq k \mathbb{N} \) | \( U = \{k\} \) | \( \mathbb{U} \geq \{1, 2\} \) | \( \{1, 2\} \subseteq U \) | \( U = \{1, 2, 3\} \) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | \( U \subseteq k \mathbb{N} \) | \( U = \{k\} \) | \( \mathbb{U} \geq \{1, 2\} \) | \( \{1, 2\} \subseteq U \) | \( U = \{1, 2, 3\} \) |
| 2 | \( U = \{k\} \) | \( \mathbb{U} \geq \{1, 2\} \) | \( \{1, 2\} \subseteq U \) | \( U = \{1, 2, 3\} \) |
| \( \geq 3 \) | \( \{1, 2\} \subseteq U \) | \( U = \{1, 2\} \) | \( U = \{1, 2, 3\} \) |

*Proof:* The case of \( |\Sigma| = 1 \) is given by Lemma 35. The case of \( |U| = 1 \) was proved in 16, with an alternative proof we provided in Section 11. The case of \( |\Sigma| = 2 \) and \( \{1, 2\} \subseteq U \), was proved in Lemma 36. It is also folklore that having \( |\Sigma| = 2 \) and \( \{1, 2\} \subseteq U \) gives a unique-root pair, since we can always deduplicate runs of symbols to single letters, and then deduplicate pairs, to obtain one of only six possible roots: \( a, b, ab, ba, aba, bab \). The choice of root depends only on the first letter of the word, its last letter, and when they’re the same, on the existence of a different letter inside. All deduplication actions do not change those, regardless of the length of the deduplication.

When \( |\Sigma| \geq 3 \), the unique-root property for \( U = \{1, 2\} \) and \( U = \{1, 2, 3\} \) was established in Corollary 25 and Theorem 24 respectively. The non-unique-root property for the other cases was proved in Lemma 36 Lemma 37 and Lemma 38. □
VI. Conclusion

We provided error-correcting codes, and in some cases, exact capacity, for the tandem-duplication channel. These codes mostly rely on unique-root pairs of alphabets and duplication lengths. Several interesting questions remain open. In particular, we do not know yet how to construct general $(n, M; \ast)_U$ over $\Sigma$, especially when we do not necessarily have unique roots. We also mention the interesting combinatorial problem of counting the number of distinct roots of a string, and finding strings of a given length with as many roots as possible.

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APPENDIX

We provide a short proof of (4). We need to estimate the largest eigenvalue of $A_q(k)$ from (5), i.e., to estimate the largest root $\lambda$ of its characteristic polynomial

$$\chi_{A_q}(\lambda) = \frac{x^{k+2} - qx^{k+1} + q - 1}{x - 1}.$$ 

Since this largest root is strictly greater than 1, we can alternatively find the largest root of the polynomial

$$f(x) = x^{k+2} - qx^{k+1} + q - 1.$$ 

We shall require the following simple bounds. Taking the first term in the Taylor expansion of $e^x$, and the error term, we have for all $x > 0$,

$$e^x = 1 + xe^x'$$

for some $x' \in [0, x]$. Since $x > 0$ and $e^x$ is increasing, we have

$$e^x = 1 + xe^{x'} \leq 1 + xe^x,$$

or alternatively,

$$1 - e^x \geq -xe^x.$$ 

(7)
Similarly, taking the first two terms of the Taylor expansion, for all \( x > 0 \), we get the well known
\[
e^x > 1 + x. \tag{8}
\]

We return to the main proof. In the first direction, let us first examine what happens when we set
\[x = qe^{-\frac{q-1}{q^{k+2}}}.\]

Then
\[
f(x) = q^{k+2}e^{-\frac{q-1}{q^{k+2}}(k+2)} - q^{k+2}e^{-\frac{q-1}{q^{k+2}}(k+1)} + q - 1
\]

\[
= q^{k+2}e^{-\frac{q-1}{q^{k+2}}(k+2)} \left(1 - e^{\frac{q-1}{q^{k+2}}}\right) + q - 1
\]

\[\geq (q - 1) \left(1 - e^{\frac{q-1}{q^{k+2}}(k+1)}\right) > 0,
\]

where (a) follows by an application of (7).

In the other direction, we examine the value of \( f(x) \) when we set
\[x = qe^{-\frac{q-1}{q^{k+2}} \alpha},\]

where \( \alpha \) is a constant depending on \( q \) and \( k \). To specify \( \alpha \) we recall \( W(z) \), \( z \geq -\frac{1}{e} \), denotes the Lambert W-function, defined by
\[W(z)e^{W(z)} = z.\]

We define
\[
\alpha = W\left(-\frac{q-1}{q^{k+2}}(k+2)\right) = e^{-W\left(-\frac{q-1}{q^{k+2}}(k+2)\right)},
\]

Except for \( k = 1 \) and \( q = 2 \), for all other values of the parameters we have
\[-\frac{q-1}{q^{k+2}}(k+2) \geq -\frac{1}{e},
\]

rendering the use of the \( W \) function valid. We also note that for these parameters we have \( \alpha \geq 1 \).

Let us calculate \( f(x) \),
\[
f(x) = q^{k+2}e^{-\frac{q-1}{q^{k+2}}(k+2) \alpha} - q^{k+2}e^{-\frac{q-1}{q^{k+2}}(k+1) \alpha} + q - 1
\]

\[
= q^{k+2}e^{-\frac{q-1}{q^{k+2}}(k+2) \alpha} \left(1 - e^{\frac{q-1}{q^{k+2}}}\right) + q - 1
\]

\[
\geq (q - 1) \left(1 - qe^{\frac{q-1}{q^{k+2}}(k+2) \alpha}\right)
\]

\[\leq (q - 1) \left(1 - 1\right) = 0,
\]

where (a) follows by an application of (8), and (b) follows by substituting the value of \( \alpha \).

In summary, \( f(x) \) is easily seen to be decreasing in the range \([1, (k+1)q/(k+2)]\), and increasing in the range \([(k+1)q/(k+2), \infty)\), and therefore, its unique largest root \( \lambda \) is in the range\n\[
qe^{-\frac{q-1}{q^{k+2}} \alpha} \leq \lambda \leq qe^{-\frac{q-1}{q^{k+2}}},
\]

It is easy to verify that \( \alpha = 1 + o(1) \), where \( o(1) \) denotes a function decaying to 0 as \( k \to \infty \). Hence,
\[
\lambda = qe^{-\frac{q-1}{q^{k+2}}(1+o(1))},
\]

and therefore
\[
\text{cap}(\text{RLL}_q(0,k)) = \log_2 \lambda
\]

\[
= \log_2 q - \frac{(q - 1) \log_2 e}{q^{k+2}}(1 + o(1)).
\]