Axel Thue's papers on repetitions in words: a translation

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Contents

1	Pre	liminaries	4
	1.1	Notation	4
	1.2	Codes and encodings	5
	1.3	The Thue-Morse sequence	6
	1.4	Symbolic dynamical systems	7
2	Thu	ıe's First Paper : About infinite sequences of symbols	8
		§1	8
		$\S 2$	11
3		ue's Second Paper : On the relative position of equal parts ertain sequences of symbols	17
	3.1	Introductory Remarks	17
	3.2	Sequences over two symbols	26
	3.3	Sequences over three symbols	35
	3.4	First Case : aca and bcb are missing	40
	3.5	Second Case: aba and aca are missing	43
	3.6	Third Case: aba and bab are missing	56
	3.7	Irreducible words over four letters	60
	3.8	Irreducible words over more than four letters	63
4	Not	tes	68
	4.1	Square-free morphisms	68
	4.2	Overlap-free words	71
	4.3	Avoidable patterns	73

Introduction

In a series of four papers which appeared during the period 1906–1914, Axel Thue considered several combinatorial problems which arise in the study of sequences of symbols. Two of these papers [47, 49] deal with word problems for finitely presented semigroups (these papers contain the definition of what is now called a "Thue system"). He was able to solve the word problem in special cases. It was only in 1947 that the general case was shown to be unsolvable independently by E. L. Post [31] and A. A. Markov [27].

The other two papers [46, 48] deal with repetitions in finite and infinite words. Perhaps because these papers were published in a journal with restricted availability (this is guessed by G. A. Hedlund [21]), this work of Thue was widely ignored during a long time, and consequently some of his results have been rediscovered again and again. Axel Thue's papers on sequences are now more easily accessible since they are included in the "Selected Papers" [50] which were edited in 1977.

It is the purpose of the present text to give a translation of Axel Thue's papers on repetitions in sequences, both in more recent terminology and in relation with new results and directions of research.

It appears that there is a noticeable difference, both in style and in amount of results, between the 1906 paper (22 pages) and the 1912 paper (67 pages). The first of these papers mainly contains the construction of an infinite square-free word over three letters. Thue gives also an infinite square-free word over four letters obtained by what is now called an iterated morphism, whilst the three letter word is constructed in a slightly more complicated way (a uniform tag-system, in the terminology of Cobham [13]).

The second paper attacks the more general problem of what Thue calls *irreducible* words. He devotes special attention to the case of two and three letters. In particular, he introduces what is now called the *Thue-Morse sequence*, and shows that all twosided infinite overlap-free words are derived from this sequence. There are several aspects he did not consider: first, many combinatorial properties of the Thue-Morse sequence (such as the number of factors, the recurrence index, and so on) were only investigated by M. Morse [28] or later; next,

Introduction

the characterization of all onesided infinite overlap-free words — which is much more difficult than that of twosided words — was only given later by Fife [16]. However, Thue gives a complete description of circular overlap-free words.

Axel Thue's investigation of square-free words over three letters is even more detailed. He gives, in this paper, another construction of an infinite square-free word, by iterated morphism, and then initiates, in a 30 pages development, a tentative to describe all square-free words over three letters. He observes that every infinite square-free word is an infinite product of words chosen in a set of six words, and classifies those infinite square-free words that are products of four among these six words. His classification, he observes, is similar both in statement and in proof technique to what is found in diophantine equations: the solutions are parametrized by some variables which are easier to manage.

This text is organized as follows: in the first chapter, we give some preliminary definitions and notation. We introduce the notions of square-free, overlap-free words, avoidable pattern, morphisms and codes. These are useful to present Thue's results in a somewhat more concise manner. As an example, we give some combinatorial properties of the Thue-Morse sequence.

The two following chapters contain a translation of Thue's papers. We have tried to formulate Thue's results as faithfully as possible. For the proofs, some easy parts have been simplified, and more frequently some difficult steps have been developed. In these chapters, footnotes only concern technical details. A longer chapter of notes contains more general remarks and developments both about the contents of Thue's papers and about the actual state of the art.

Chapter 1

Preliminaries

In this preliminary chapter, we first introduce some definitions and notation and then present the so-called Thue-Morse sequence and some of its properties.

1.1 Notation

An alphabet is a finite set (of symbols or letters). A word over some alphabet A is a (finite) sequence of elements in A. The length of a word w is denoted by |w|. The empty word of length 0 is denoted by ε . We denote by $\operatorname{alph}(w)$ the set of letters that occur at least once in the word w. An infinite word is a mapping from $\mathbb N$ into A, and a twosided infinite word is a mapping from $\mathbb Z$ into A. A circular word or necklace is the equivalence class of a finite word under conjugacy (or circular permutation). We shall write $u \simeq w$ if u and w define the same circular word. Sometimes, we identify a circular word with one of its representatives.

A factor of a word w is any word u that occurs in w, i. e. such that there exist words x, y with w = xuy. A square is a nonempty word of the form uu. A word is square-free if none of its factors is a square. Similarly, an overlap is a word of the form xuxux, where x is nonempty. The terminology is justified by the fact that xux has two occurrences in xuxux, one as a prefix (initial factor) one as a suffix (final factor) and that these occurrences have a common part (the central x). As before, a word is overlap-free if none of its factors is an overlap. The reversal of a word $u = a_1 \cdots a_n$, where a_1, \ldots, a_n are letters, is the word $\tilde{u} = a_n \cdots a_1$. If $u = \tilde{u}$, then u is a palindrome. The reversal of an infinite word to the right is an infinite word to the left.

The set of words over A is the free monoid generated by A and is denoted by A^* . The set of nonempty words over A is denoted by A^+ . It is the free semigroup generated by A. A function $h: A^* \to B^*$ is a morphism if h(uv) = h(u)h(v) for

all words u, v. If |h(w)| > |w| for all words w, then h is nonerasing or length increasing. It is equivalent to say that $h(w) \neq \varepsilon$ for $w \neq \varepsilon$. If there is a letter a such that h(a) starts with the letter a, then $h^n(a)$ starts with the word $h^{n-1}(a)$ for all n > 0. If the set of words $\{h^n(a) \mid n \geq 0\}$ is infinite, the morphism defines a unique infinite word say x by the requirement that all $h^n(a)$ are prefixes of \mathbf{x} . The word \mathbf{x} is said to be obtained by iterating h on a and is called a morphic word. Sometimes, **x** is also denoted by $h^{\omega}(a)$. Clearly, **x** is a fixed point of h. The Thue-Morse sequence of section 1.4 is an example of a morphic word. A morphism $h: A^* \to B^*$ easily extends to onesided infinite words. If $\mathbf{x} = a_0 a_1 \cdots a_n \cdots$ is an infinite word, then $h(\mathbf{x}) = h(a_0) h(a_1) \cdots h(a_n) \cdots$. The resulting word is infinite iff the set of indices n such that $h(a_n) \neq \varepsilon$ is infinite. This holds in particular if h is nonerasing. The extension to two-sided infinite words is similar. The only ambiguity is in the convention adopted to fix the origin of the image. We agree that any origin is convenient. In other words, we consider, insofar as homomorphic images are concerned, the equivalence class under the shift operator T that is defined by $T(\mathbf{x})(n) = \mathbf{x}(n+1)$. If u is a finite word, then the infinite periodic word $u^{\omega} = uuu \cdots$ verifies $u^{\omega} = T^{|u|}(u^{\omega})$.

1.2 Codes and encodings

A code over A is a set X of nonempty words such that each word over A admits at most one factorization as a product of words in X. In other words, for all $n, m \geq 1, x_1, \ldots, x_n, y_1, \ldots, y_m \in X$,

$$x_1 \cdots x_n = y_1 \cdots y_m, \quad \Rightarrow \quad n = m \text{ and } x_i = y_i \ (1 \le i \le n)$$
 .

It is equivalent to say that the submonoid X^* generated by X is free and that X is its base.

A set X is prefix if no word in X is a prefix of any other word in X; thus $x, xu \in X$ implies $u = \varepsilon$. Suffix sets are defined symmetrically. Prefix and suffix sets are codes. A biprefix code is a code that is both prefix and suffix.

An encoding is a morphism $h: A^* \to B^*$ that is injective. If h is an encoding, then the set X = h(A) is a code. Conversely, if X is a code over an alphabet B, then an encoding of X is obtained by taking a bijection h from an alphabet A onto X. This extends to an injective morphism from A^* into B^* . It is convenient to implicitly transfer terminology between codes and encodings. Thus, we may speak about prefix encodings, or about composition of codes.

Several special properties of codes are useful, and will be introduced when they are needed.

6 Preliminaries

1.3 The Thue-Morse sequence

In this section, we recall some basic properties concerning the Thue-Morse sequence. Other properties and proofs can be found in Lothaire [25] and Salomaa [37], and of course in Thue's second paper.

Let $A = \{a, b\}$ be a two letter alphabet. Consider the morphism μ from the free monoid A^* into itself defined by

$$\mu(a) = ab, \qquad \mu(b) = ba.$$

Setting, for $n \geq 0$,

$$u_n = \mu^n(a), \qquad v_n = \mu^n(b)$$

one gets

$$u_0 = a$$
 $v_0 = b$
 $u_1 = ab$ $v_1 = ba$
 $u_2 = abba$ $v_2 = baab$
 $u_3 = abbabaab$ $v_3 = baababba$

and more generally

$$u_{n+1} = u_n v_n, \quad v_{n+1} = v_n u_n$$

and

$$u_n = \overline{v}_n, \qquad v_n = \overline{u}_n$$

where \overline{w} is obtained from w by exchanging a and b. Words u_n and v_n are frequently called $Morse\ blocks$. It is easily seen that u_{2n} and v_{2n} are palindromes, and that $u_{2n+1} = v_{2n+1}^{\sim}$, where w^{\sim} is the reversal of w. The morphism μ can be extended to infinite words; it has two fixed points

$$\mathbf{t} = abbabaabbaabaabaabaab \cdots = \mu(\mathbf{t})$$

$$\overline{\mathbf{t}} = baababbaabbaababaababba \cdots = \mu(\overline{\mathbf{t}})$$

and u_n (resp. v_n) is the prefix of length 2^n of \mathbf{t} (resp. of $\overline{\mathbf{t}}$). It is equivalent to say that \mathbf{t} is the *limit* of the sequence $(u_n)_{n\geq 0}$ (for the usual topology on finite and infinite words), obtained by iterating the morphism μ .

The *Thue-Morse sequence* is the word \mathbf{t} . There are several other characterizations of this word. Let t_n be the n-th symbol in \mathbf{t} , starting with n=0. Then it is easily shown by induction that

$$t_n = \begin{cases} a & \text{if } d_1(n) \equiv 0 \pmod{2} \\ b & \text{if } d_1(n) \equiv 1 \pmod{2} \end{cases}$$

where $d_1(n)$ is the number of bits equal to 1 in the binary expansion bin(n) of n. For instance, bin(19) = 10011, consequently $d_1(19) = 3$, and indeed $t_{19} = a$.

As a consequence, there is a finite automaton computing the values t_n as a function of bin(n). This automaton has two states 0 and 1. It reads the string bin(n) from left to right, starting in state 0. At the end, the state reached is 0 or 1 according to $t_n = b$ or $t_n = a$. In fact, the automaton computes $d_1(n)$ modulo 2. For a general discussion along these lines, see Cobham [13] and Allouche [2]. Another description is given by Christol, Kamae, Mendes France, Rauzy in [12]. There are many generalizations of the Thue-Morse sequence, motivated by its simplicity, and by its numerous properties. One quite general definition was in fact already given by Prouhet in 1851 ! (see [32, 1].)

As we shall see, the Thue-Morse sequence is overlap-free. What Thue actually showed, is that a word w over the two letter alphabet $A = \{a, b\}$ is overlap-free iff $\mu(w)$ is overlap-free.

1.4 Symbolic dynamical systems

Although the notion of (symbolic) dynamical system is not essential for understanding the papers of Thue, it gives some insight into what Thue perhaps had in mind when he tried to "parametrize" the square-free words.

A symbolic dynamical system or subshift is a set X of infinite words over some alphabet A that is closed for the shift operator, defined by $T(\mathbf{x})(n) = \mathbf{x}(n+1)$, and that is closed for the usual topology on infinite words. The language of X is the set L(X) (or Fact(X)) of finite words that are factors of some element in X. It is not difficult to show that x is in X iff $L(x) \subset L(X)$. A dynamical system X is minimal if it does not contain strictly any other dynamical system. This means that X is equal to the dynamical system generated by any of its elements, and also that $L(\mathbf{x}) = L(X)$ for any $\mathbf{x} \in X$. It has been shown that a dynamical system is minimal iff each of its elements is uniformly recurrent in the following sense. A word \mathbf{x} is uniformly recurrent if there exists a function $\kappa: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$ such that for all $u, w \in L(\mathbf{x})$, if $|w| \geq \kappa(|u|)$, then u is a factor of w. Other people say that factors appear with "bounded gaps". M. Morse [28] says simply recurrent. The property that the dynamical system generated by the (twosided) Thue-Morse sequence is minimal was explicitly proved by Gottschalk and Hedlund [17]. Axel Thue only mentions that every factor appears infinitely often.

Chapter 2

Thue's First Paper: About infinite sequences of symbols

Let u be a word over some alphabet A, and let w be a word over some alphabet B. We consider the question whether, given u and w, there always exists a nonerasing morphism $h: A^* \to B^*$ such that h(u) is a factor of w. We shall prove that this does not hold, as a consequence of a theorem which answers the question for a large class of problems.

In the sequel, we call $irreducible^1$ a word without two adjacent equal factors.

§**1**

THEOREM 1.1. (Satz 1) There exist arbitrarily long square-free words over four letters.

In order to prove this result, we show that, given any square-free word of length k over four letters, one can always build a longer square-free word over the same alphabet.

Let p be any word over three letters — for instance a, b and c — of length at least 4, and such that p^2 contains no other square than itself. By inserting a new letter, say d, between two letters in p at four different places, we obtain four words x, y, z, t which all contain a single d, and which reduce to p when this letter is erased.

As an example, starting with

p = abacbc

¹ we shall write square-free.

we can set for instance

$$x = adbacbc$$
 $y = abdacbc$
 $z = abadcbc$ $t = abacdbc$

and define a morphism

$$h: \{a, b, c, d\}^* \to \{a, b, c, d\}^*$$

by

$$h(a) = x$$
, $h(b) = y$, $h(c) = z$, $h(d) = t$.

We shall prove that h is a square-free morphism, i.e. that h(u) is a square-free word whenever u is square-free. In order to do this, we need two lemmas.

Lemma 1.2. A word that contains an overlap also contains a square.

 $Proof^2$. Let w be a word that has two overlapping occurrences of some nonempty word u. Then

$$w = xuy = x'uy'$$

for some words x, x', y, y'. We may assume that x is shorter than x', and since the occurrences overlap, one has |x| < |x'| < |xu| < |x'u|. Thus, setting xs = x' and x'q = xu, one gets xu = x'q = xsq, whence u = sq, and

$$w = x'uy' = xssqy'$$

showing that w contains a square, namely ss.

LEMMA 1.3. Let p be a word such that p^2 contains no other square than itself. For all n > 2, if p^n contains a square u^2 , then $|u| \equiv 0 \mod |p|$.

Proof. Let u^2 be a factor of p^n . We first show that there exist prefixes x and x' of p, and words y, y' and an integer k such that

$$p^k = xuy = x'uy'$$

Indeed, assume |x| < |x'|. If xu is shorter than x', this means that the first occurrence of u is a factor of p. But then u^2 is a factor of p^2 . Thus, the two occurrences of u in p^k overlap.

Thus, setting xs = x', the (proof of the) preceding lemma shows that s^2 is a factor of p^2 . Thus s = p.

Observe that the preceding lemma also holds for any two distinct occurrences of u in a power of p, provided that $2|u| \ge |p|$.

 $^{^{2}\}mathrm{For}$ the relationship between overlaps and squares, see the introductory chapter.

³ and consequently, u is a conjugate of a power of p.

We now come back to the theorem. Let u be a square-free word., Set w = h(u), where h is the morphism defined above, and assume, arguing by contradiction, that w contains a square, say v^2 . Then

$$w = h(u) = \alpha v^2 \beta$$

for some words α , β . Let v' be obtained from v by erasing all occurrences of the letter d.

First, v contains at least one occurrence of the letter d. Indeed, otherwise v = v', and v'^2 is a factor of w, and consequently v'^2 is a proper factor of p^2 , contrary to the assumption on p. Next, by the preceding lemma, v' is the conjugate of some power of p, i. e.

$$v' = p_2 p^{\ell} p_1, \quad \ell \ge 0, \ p = p_1 p_2$$

thus v contains exactly $1 + \ell$ occurrences of the letter d. We set

$$v = sr_1 \cdots r_\ell \bar{s} = s'r'_1 \cdots r'_\ell \bar{s}'$$

where $r_1, \ldots, r_\ell, r'_1, \ldots, r'_\ell, \bar{s}s'$ are all in the set $X = \{x, y, z, t\}$. If $s \neq s'$, then it is easily seen that p^2 contains a proper square. Thus s = s', $r_i = r'_i$ for $1 \leq i \leq \ell$, and $\bar{s} = \bar{s}'$. Since $\bar{s}s'$ contains one d, either s (and s') or \bar{s} (and \bar{s}') contains the letter d. But a suffix or a prefix of a word in X containing the letter d determines the word in X. This means that u contains a square.

We observe that the argument also holds for p of length 4. Thus, we may as well consider

$$p = abcb$$

and

$$x = adbcb$$
 $y = abdcb$
 $z = abcdb$ $t = abcbd$.

The previous theorem can be generalized to the following statement:

FACT. Let X be a code of four nonempty words over a 4-letter alphabet satisfying

- (1) if $x \in X$ and $uxv \in X^*$, then $u, v \in X^{*4}$;
- (2) if $x, y, z \in X$, and $x \neq y \neq z$, then xyz is square-free;
- (3) if $\alpha\beta, \alpha\gamma, \delta\beta \in X$, then $\alpha = \delta$ or $\beta = \gamma^{5}$

and define a morphism h by assigning the four words in X to the four letters in the alphabet. Then h(u) is square-free if u is square-free. (See **Notes 4.1**.)

The proof is by contradiction: let u be a word, and assume h(u) contains a square ss. By (2), ss is not a factor of a product of three words in X. Consequently,

⁴This is the definition of a comma-free code; see the next chapter.

⁵As we shall see, this condition is superfluous.

ss contains a product xy, with $x, y \in X$. Thus one of the occurrences of s (and by (1) also the other one), contains an occurrence of a word of X. This implies, again by (1), that

$$ss = \beta x_1 \cdots x_n \alpha \beta x_1 \cdots x_n \alpha$$

with $\alpha\beta \in X$. It follows that u contains a factor avbvc, with

$$h(a) = p\beta$$
, $h(b) = \alpha\beta$, $h(c) = \alpha p'$, $h(v) = x_1 \cdots x_n$

for some p, p', whence

$$h(abc) = p\beta\alpha\beta\alpha p'$$

and by (2), a = b or b = c. But then u contains a square.⁶

THEOREM 1.4. (Satz 2) There exists an infinite square-free word over four letters. More precisely, there exists a sequence $(w_n)_{n\geq 0}$ of square-free words such that w_n is a prefix of w_{n+1} .

Indeed, it suffices to choose the morphism h such that h(a), say, starts with the letter a. Then, there is an infinite word \mathbf{x} that is a fixpoint of h, i.e. such that $\mathbf{x} = h(\mathbf{x})$. As an example, if we use the second set of words, we obtain the following infinite square-free word:

$$(adbcb)(abcbd)(abdcb)(abdcb)(abdcb)(abdcb)(abdcb)\cdots$$

In a very similar way, one may construct two sided infinite square-free words, or circular square-free words of arbitrary length.

§**2**

THEOREM 2.1. (Satz 3) There exist arbitrarily long square-free words over three letters.

We will prove the following more general result:

Theorem 2.2. (Satz 4) Over a three-letter alphabet $\{a,b,c\}$, there exist arbitrarily long square-free words without factors aca or bcb.

⁶This should be compared with Satz 17 of the next paper.

These words can be obtained from the periodic word

by inserting the letter c at well chosen places between a's and b's.

Proof. The construction is in several steps⁷. Let u be a square-free word over a, b, c without factors aca or bcb.

(1) In the first step, we replace each occurrence of c preceded by a by the word $\beta\alpha$, and each occurrence of c preceded by b by $\alpha\beta$. In other words, a factor ac is replaced by $a\beta\alpha$ and bc is replaced by $b\alpha\beta$. Denote the resulting word by u'. For instance, if u=acb, then $u'=a\beta\alpha b$. Observe that we get u back from u' by erasing all α 's and replacing each β by c.

We prove that u' is square-free and has no factor of the form $s\alpha s$ or $s\beta s$. Indeed, if u' contains a square ss, then, erasing all α 's and replacing each β by c, one obtains a square contained in u. Thus, u' is square-free. Next, assume that u' contains a factor $s\beta s$. The central β is preceded or followed by an α . Thus, e.g. $s = \alpha t$, and $s\beta \sigma = \alpha t\beta \alpha t\beta$. Thus, erasing α 's and replacing β 's by c gives a factor of the form xcxc of u. This proves the claim.

- (2) In the second step, a letter γ is inserted after any letter of the word u'. Denote the resulting word by u''. For example, if $u' = a\beta\alpha b$ then $u'' = a\gamma\beta\gamma\alpha\gamma b\gamma$. Clearly, the word u'' has no factor of the form ss (since otherwise u' would contain a square).
- (3) In the last step, we replace each a in u'' by $\alpha\beta\alpha$, and each b by $\beta\alpha\beta$. Denote the resulting word by w. Thus, for the word u'' of the example, we get $w = \alpha\beta\alpha\gamma\beta\gamma\alpha\gamma\beta\alpha\beta\gamma$.

We claim that the word w is square-free and has no factors of the form $\alpha\gamma\alpha$ and $\beta\gamma\beta$. To prove the second fact, observe that in u', letters a or α alternate with letters b or β . Thus, the factors of length 3 with a central γ in u'' are $a\gamma b$, $a\gamma \beta$, $a\gamma b$, $a\gamma \beta$ and their reversals. Consequently, the corresponding factors in w are $a\gamma\beta$ and $\beta\gamma\alpha$.

Assume next that w contains a square ss. Since, between two consecutive γ 's, the only factors are α , β , $\alpha\beta\alpha$ and $\beta\alpha\beta$, the word ss and consequently s contains at least one γ . If s contains only one γ and this letter is not, say, the last letter of s, then it is followed by α (or by β and the argument is the same). This means that ss contains the factor $\gamma\alpha\gamma\alpha$ or $\gamma\alpha\beta\alpha\gamma\alpha$, and thus w contains a factor $\alpha\gamma\alpha$, contradiction. Thus s contains at least two occurrences of the letter γ . Consequently, setting $X = \{\alpha, \beta, \alpha\beta\alpha, \beta\alpha\beta\}$, one gets

$$s = p\gamma x_1 \gamma \cdots \gamma x_m \gamma q$$

⁷The next Satz contains a more compact construction.

for some integer $m \geq 1$, where $x_1, \ldots, x_m \in X$, $qp \in X$, and p'p, $qq' \in X$ for some p', q'.

If $q=\varepsilon$, then $p\in X$, and replacing in $p\gamma x_1\gamma\cdots\gamma x_m\gamma$ each $\alpha\beta\alpha$ by a and each $\beta\alpha\beta$ by b, one gets a square contained in u''. The same conclusion holds if $p=\varepsilon$. Thus $p\neq\varepsilon$, $q\neq\varepsilon$ and $qp=\alpha\beta\alpha$ or $qp=\beta\alpha\beta$. It suffices to consider the first alternative. Then $(q,p)=(\alpha,\beta\alpha)$ or $(q,p)=(\alpha\beta,\alpha)$. These are symmetric. Consider the first case. The word w cannot start with $p\gamma=\beta\alpha\gamma$. Thus, there is at least a letter α preceding this factor, and consequently $qp\gamma x_1\gamma\cdots\gamma x_m\gamma$ is a factor of w. But then u'' contains a square. This proves the claim.

The construction shows that, starting with a square-free word u over three letters a, b and c without factors aca and bcb, we get a longer square-free word w over the three letter α , β and γ without the factors $\alpha\gamma\alpha$ and $\beta\gamma\beta$. This concludes the proof.

THEOREM 2.3. (Satz 5) There exists an infinite square-free word over three letters. More precisely, there exists a sequence $(w_n)_{n\geq 0}$ of square-free words over three letters such that w_n is a prefix of w_{n+1} .

Proof. Let u be a square-free word over the letters a, b and c with no factor aca or bcb and starting with a or b. We obtain a new word by applying to u the function σ defined by

```
\sigma: \begin{array}{l} a \mapsto abac \\ b \mapsto babc \\ c \mapsto bcac \quad \text{if $c$ is preceded by $a$} \\ c \mapsto acbc \quad \text{if $c$ is preceded by $b$} \end{array}
```

It is easily seen that the word $\sigma(u)$ is the same as the word w deduced from u in the preceding proof, when α, β, γ are replaced by a, b, c respectively. Thus $\sigma(u)$ is square-free and has no factor aca or bcb. Consequently, starting with $w_0 = a$, one gets a sequence $w_n = \sigma^n(w_0)$ of square-free words with the required property.

As an example, one gets the infinite square-free word

```
abac|babc|abac|bcac|babc|abac|babc|acbc|\dots
```

If the letters a, b and c are replaced by vertical sticks of unequal length in this infinite word, one gets an infinite palisade without two equal consecutive parts:



We now give another construction of infinite square-free words over three letters a, b and c. For this, consider three fixed words

$$p = acab, \quad r = acb, \quad q = abcb$$

and the two sets of words

$$A_1 = p\alpha r\beta q$$
 $A = prq$
 $B_1 = p\alpha' r\beta q$ $B = pcrq$
 $C_1 = p\alpha r\beta' q$ $C = prcq$
 $D_1 = p\alpha' r\beta' q$ $D = pcrcq$

Here $\alpha, \beta, \alpha', \beta'$ are new letters. The second column of words is obtained from the first by applying the morphism θ defined by:

$$\theta(\alpha) = \theta(\beta) = \varepsilon;$$

 $\theta(\alpha') = \theta(\beta') = c.$

Set $X_1 = \{A_1, B_1, C_1, D_1\}$ and $X = \{A, B, C, D\}$. It is easy to check that the product of two distinct words in X is square-free. Observe also that exchanging a and b converts A and D into their reversals.

The construction is in three steps, and starts with an infinite square-free word **s** over the letters α , α' and β' without factors $\alpha'\alpha\alpha'$ and $\beta'\alpha\beta'$. We have already seen that such a word exists. As an example, consider

$$\mathbf{s} = \alpha' \beta' \alpha' \alpha \beta' \alpha' \beta' \alpha \alpha' \cdots$$

(1) In the first step, we insert a letter β between any two consecutive occurrences of α and α' in the word s. Denote by \mathbf{u} the resulting word. In our example,

$$\mathbf{u} = \alpha' \beta' \alpha' \beta \alpha \beta' \alpha' \beta' \alpha \beta \alpha' \cdots$$

If ρ is the projection that erases β , then $\rho(\mathbf{u}) = \mathbf{s}$. Clearly, \mathbf{u} is square-free. Also, it has no factor of the form $w\beta w$, because \mathbf{s} is square-free. We also show that \mathbf{u} has no factor of the form $w\alpha w$. For this, observe that every α in \mathbf{s} is preceded or followed by a letter α' . Indeed, otherwise, there would be a $\beta'\alpha\beta'$. Thus, every α in \mathbf{u} is also preceded or followed by a β . This implies that, if we define a morphism τ by

$$\begin{array}{c}
\alpha \mapsto \varepsilon \\
\beta \mapsto \alpha \\
\alpha' \mapsto \alpha' \\
\beta' \mapsto \beta'
\end{array}$$

then $\tau(\mathbf{u}) = \mathbf{s}$. Thus, if \mathbf{u} contains a factor $w\alpha w$, then \mathbf{s} contains a square.

(2) In the second step, we replace every factor $\alpha\beta$, $\alpha'\beta$, $\alpha\beta'$, $\alpha'\beta'$ in **u** respectively by A_1 , B_1 , C_1 , D_1 , and denote the resulting word by \mathbf{w}_1 . In our example, we get

$$\mathbf{w}_1 = D_1 B_1 C_1 D_1 A_1 \cdots$$

Formally, if π denotes the projection of $\{a, b, c, \alpha, \alpha', \beta, \beta'\}^*$ onto the monoid $\{\alpha, \alpha', \beta, \beta'\}^*$, then $\pi(\mathbf{w}_1) = \mathbf{u}$. The word \mathbf{w}_1 is square-free, and contains no factor of the form $w\alpha w$ or $w\beta w$, since otherwise \mathbf{u} would contain such a factor.

(3) Finally, let \mathbf{w} be the word $\mathbf{w} = \theta(\mathbf{w}_1)$, where θ was defined above. We show that \mathbf{w} is square-free. Assume the contrary. Then \mathbf{w} contains a square, say uu. We have already seen that uu is not a factor of a product of two words in X. Consequently, uu contains as a factor at least one word in X. This implies that u itself contains one of the words p or q as a factor, and also, setting t = qp, that u contains r or t as a factor. Two consecutive occurrences of r and t in \mathbf{w} are either adjacent or separated by the letter c. Thus, u can be factorized into

$$u = w s_1 d_1 s_2 \cdots d_{m-1} s_m v$$

for some $m \geq 1$, where $s_1, \ldots s_m$ are in $\{r, t\}, d_1, \ldots, d_{m-1} \in \{\varepsilon, c\}$, and $vw \in \{\varepsilon, c\}$ or vw = dsd', with $d, d' \in \{\varepsilon, c\}$ and $s \in \{r, t\}$. There are two adjacent factors U_1 and U_2 in \mathbf{w} such that $\theta(U_1) = \theta(U_2) = u$. We may assume that U_1 does not start with α or β and U_2 does not end with α or β . This implies that

$$U_1 = w_1 s_1 \delta_1 s_2 \delta_2 \cdots \delta_{m-1} s_m v_1$$

$$U_2 = w_2 s_1 \delta_1 s_2 \delta_2 \cdots \delta_{m-1} s_m v_2$$

where δ_i is entirely determined by $s_i d_i s_{i+1}$. Now, $v_1 w_2$ is neither α nor β , since otherwise \mathbf{w}_1 would have a factor of the form $v\alpha v$ or $v\beta v$. Also, $v_1 w_2$ is neither α' nor β' , since otherwise $U_1 = U_2$. Thus $\theta(v_1 w_2) = dsd'$, with s = r or s = t. However, this determines d and d', and implies that $U_1 = U_2$. The proof is complete.

THEOREM 2.4. (Satz 6) There exists an infinite cube-free word over two letters.

As we shall see, we obtain such a cube-free word over a and b by replacing, in any infinite square-free word over the letters x, y and z, every x by a, every y by ab, and every z by abb^8 . In other terms, the cube-free infinite word is the image of a square-free infinite word under the morphism $f:\{x,y,z\}^* \to \{a,b\}^*$ defined by

$$\begin{array}{c}
x \mapsto a \\
f : y \mapsto ab \\
z \mapsto abb
\end{array}$$

Let $X = \{a, ab, abb\}$. This set is a suffix code⁹.

⁸See also the 1912 paper.

⁹As we shall see, this observation basically suffices to prove the following elementary lemmas.

Lemma 2.5. (Hülfssatz 1) If u and v are words over the letters x and y such that f(u) = f(v), then u = v.

LEMMA 2.6. (Hülfssatz 2) The morphism f is injective.

Proof. This holds because X is a code.

Let **x** be an infinite square-free word over the letters x, y and z, and set $\mathbf{y} = f(\mathbf{x})$.

Lemma 2.7. (Hülfssatz 3) If y contains a factor uuu, then u does not start with the letter a.

Proof. If u starts with the letter a, then there is a (unique) factor v of \mathbf{x} such that f(v) = u. But then \mathbf{y} contains the square vv.

LEMMA 2.8. (Hülfssatz 4) If y contains a factor uuu, then u does not start with the word bb.

Proof. If u does not begin with the word bb, then any occurrence of u is preceded by the letter a, and also u ends with an a. Thus, setting u = u'a, the word y has a factor au'au'au', contrary to the preceding lemma.

LEMMA 2.9. (Hülfssatz 5) If y contains a factor uuu, then u does not end with the letter b.

Proof. In view of the preceding lemmas, u must start with ba. Thus, assuming the contrary and setting u = bau'b, one obtains in \mathbf{y} the factor bbau'bbau'bbau'b. But then \mathbf{y} contains the factor au'bbau'bb, showing that \mathbf{x} contains a square.

We now can prove the theorem. Assume that \mathbf{y} contains a cube uuu. Then u starts with ba and ends with a. If u=ba, then \mathbf{x} contains the square yy. If u=bau'a for some word u', then uuu=bau'abau'abau'a and \mathbf{y} contains the factor abau'abau', showing that \mathbf{x} contains a square.

It is easily verified that a word $f(\mathbf{x})$, where \mathbf{x} is square-free, may have overlaps, but if xuxux is an overlap, then x is a letter.¹⁰

¹⁰Compare with square-free words of type (I) in the 1912 paper.

Chapter 3

Thue's Second Paper: On the relative position of equal parts in certain sequences of symbols

For the development of logical sciences it will be important, without consideration for possible applications, to find large domains for speculation about difficult problems. In this paper, we present some investigations in the theory of sequences of symbols, a theory that has some connections with number theory.

3.1 Introductory Remarks

1.— A word over an alphabet

$$A = \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n\}$$

of n letters (symbols) may have several meanings. For instance, a book can be viewed as a sequence of typographic symbols. The letters of the alphabet A can also be interpreted as mathematical entities or as substitutions for example. Let p be a positive integer. Then it is straightforward that any word $w \in A^*$ of length $m \geq n^p + p$ has two identical factors of length p. Observe that if w is viewed as a book, these unavoidable repetitions may not be meaningless. Without considering the meaning of words, it is of interest to investigate whether finite or infinite words can be constructed that have prescribed properties concerning the apparition of symbols. We expect that the results of such investigations have applications to usual mathematical problems. As an example, the existence of nonperiodic decimal developments proves that irrational numbers exist. The following is a general problem of this kind concerning the existence of identical factors in a word.

Let A and B be finite disjoint alphabets. A morphism $h: (A \cup B)^* \to A^*$ is called an *extension* if h(a) = a for all $a \in A$. The problem is: given n words

 w_1, \ldots, w_n over $A \cup B$, does there exist an infinite word \mathbf{x} over A such that, for any extension h, the word \mathbf{x} has no factor in the set $\{h(w_1), \ldots, h(w_n)\}$? (See also **Notes 4.3**)

In the sequel, we will consider onesided infinite words, twosided infinite words, circular words, and ordinary finite words. Finite and onesided infinite words are called *open* words, twosided infinite and circular words are said to be *closed*.

2.— We are concerned with the construction of words with the property that any two occurences of the same factor are as far as possible one from each other. In any word w of length at least n+2 over an alphabet of size n, two equal factors cannot always be separated by a word of length greater than n-2. More precisely, if $|w| \ge n+2$, then w admits a factor of the form uvu, with $u \ne \varepsilon$ and

$$|v| \leq n - 2$$
.

Indeed, assume on the contrary that there is a word $w = a_1 \cdots a_n a_{n+1} a_{n+2}$ without a factor of this kind. Then the letters a_1, \ldots, a_n are all distinct, and moreover $a_1 = a_{n+1}$ and $a_2 = a_{n+2}$. But then $w = a_1 a_2 v a_1 a_2$ with |v| = n - 2.

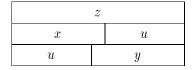
We shall see later how to construct, for n > 1, arbitrarily long closed words, and infinite words, such that any two equal factors are always separated by at least n-3 symbols.

A word over an n-letter alphabet is called *irreducible* if two occurrences of a factor are always separated by at least n-2 letters. The word is called *reducible* otherwise¹. Formally, w is irreducible if for any factor

$$z = xu = uy$$
 $(x, y, u \neq \varepsilon)$

one has

$$|z| - 2|u| = |x| - |u| \ge n - 2.$$



One reason for this terminology is the following. Say that two words are equivalent if one word is obtained from the other by deleting or replacing factors of a given form by some fixed shorter words. Then, if factors of this prescribed class are unavoidable in sufficiently long words, this implies that there exist only finitely many classes for this equivalence relation.

¹Examples: For n=3, a word w is irreducible iff it is square-free; for n=2, it is irreducible iff it is overlap-free. Observe that the definition given in the previous paper applies in this context only for a three letter alphabet.

As an example, consider words that are composed of numbers which are alternatively positive and negative. Assume now that such a word u has two factors x and y which are the same up to the signs of the numbers, and which are separated by a factor z of odd length if x and y have even length, and with z of even length if x and y have odd length. Then u has the same algebraic value after removing both x and y. Moreover, the resulting sequence is still formed of numbers with alternating signs.

Another example is the following. Consider a sequence u of parallel glass prisms arranged in such a way that a perdendicular light ray passes through all prisms. Let v be a similar sequence of prisms with the additional property that outcoming rays are always parallel to ingoing ones. If u contains v as a factor, this means that the deletion of v does not modify the angle of the lightrays.

Let us list some simple facts. We consider alphabets with n letters, assuming $n \geq 2$. Let u be a word of length r = d + n - 3, where $d \geq 2$ if n = 2 and $d \geq n - 2$ otherwise. In other terms, r + 1 = d if n = 2, and $r \geq d$ if $n \geq 3$.

FACT. Any factor of length $k \geq r + d$ in the infinite word u^{ω} is reducible.

Indeed, such a factor has the form w = u'v, where u' is some conjugate of u, and v is a prefix of u'^{ω} . If |v| > |u|, then w is an overlap. Otherwise, u' = vy for some word y, and w = vyv, with

$$|y| = |u| - |v| \le r - d = n - 3$$

FACT. If all factors of length d of u^2 are irreducible, then any reducible factor of u^3 or of u^{ω} has length at least r + d.

Proof. Let z be a reducible factor of u^3 of minimal length. If $|z| \leq d$, then $|z| \leq 1 + r$ and z is a factor of u^2 , contrary to the assumption. Thus |z| > d. Assume, arguing by contradiction, that

$$d < |z| < r + d$$
.

Since z is reducible, there are nonempty words x, y, t such that

$$z = xt = ty$$

and moreover

$$|z| - 2|t| = |x| - |t| < n - 3$$
.

We show first³ that

$$|x| - |t| = n - 3.$$

²Thue means of course the sum of the numbers composing u.

³This is not done in the original paper.

Indeed, consider first the case where $n \geq 3$. If, contrary to the claim, |x| < |t|, then xs = t for some nonempty word s. Thus z = xxs, showing that xx is a reducible factor which is shorter than z. Thus $|x| \geq |t|$, which proves the equality for n = 3. Assume now n > 3. Since $|x| \geq |t|$, we have x = ts for some word s, whence y = st and z = tst.

z						
a	t					
t		y				
t'	a	s	t'	a		

If $|s| \le n-4$, let a be the last letter of t, and let t=t'a, s'=as. Then z'=t's't' is a shorter reducible factor than z, except for the case where $t'=\varepsilon$. Thus |t|=1. This implies that $|z|=2+|s|\le n-2\le d$, again a contradiction. We thus have proved that |s|=n-3.

Consider now the (easier) case n = 2. Then |x| < |t|, and consequently xs = t = sy for some nonempty word s. Let a be the first letter of t (and of x and of s), and let x = ax'. Then z = xxs starts with ax'ax'a which is a reducible prefix. Thus this word is equal to z, showing that |s| = 1. This completes the proof.

We now come back to our initial claim. Since |x| = |t| + n - 3, and

$$|z| = 2|t| + n - 3 < r + d = 2d + n - 3$$

one has 2|t| < 2d, whence |t| < d, |x| < r. Let p be the word of length r - |t| such that pt = u' is a conjugate of u, and let s be the word of length r - |y| > 0 such that u' = ys.

	u'	u'			
p	t		y	s	
	x		ī	t	s
			h	t	ţ

Then

$$u'u' = ptpt = pzs = ptys = pxts = pxht$$

where h is some word of same the length as s. Consequently ts = ht. This word clearly is reducible, and has length r - n + 3 = d, a contradiction.

A closed word of length r over an n-letter alphabet is called *irreducible* if r > 2n - 6 and if every open factor of length r - n + 3 is irreducible. Otherwise, the word is reducible.

For n > 2 and arbitrary r, a closed word of length r is a closed irreducible word if any two disjoint occurrences of the same factor are separated by at least n-2

symbols. The word is *reducible* if it contains two disjoint occurrences of the same factor separated by fewer than n-2 symbols⁴.

3.— To each set S of words which all start with the same letter, say a, one associates a *tree* that represents the set in a simple way: the root is a vertex labelled with the common initial letter a of the words in S. Next, let $T=a^{-1}S=\{w\mid aw\in S\}$ and set

$$T = \bigcup_{b \in A} T_b, \quad T_b = T \cap bA^* .$$

For each $b \in A$ with $T_b \neq \emptyset$, the root of the tree of S is connected to the root of the tree associated with T_b . As an example, Fig. 1 shows an initial part of the tree of words over the n-letter alphabet $\{a, b, \ldots, h, k\}$ $(n \geq 8)$ starting with $abcdef \ldots h$ and which are irreducible.

Figure No. 1

4.— Let A be an alphabet with n letters. We observe the following immediate facts. In an open irreducible word w over A, any n-1 consecutive letters are distinct.

Next, if w and wa, with a a letter, are irreducible words and $|w| \ge n - 2$, then a is distinct from the n - 2 rightmost letters in w.

Let w be an irreducible word. The word wa, with a a letter, is called a right extension of w if wa is irreducible. If $|w| \ge n - 2$, then w has at most two right extensions.

Let w be an irreducible word of length $\geq n$, and assume that it has two right extensions wa and wb. Then setting w = w'cdu with |u| = n - 2, one has $\{c,d\} = \{a,b\}$.

Consider a tree containing all irreducible words starting with a given letter a, and let b be an arbitrary letter. If the path starting at the root and ending in

⁴There seems to be a third case, namely where the two occurrences are overlapping. But this also implies that the word is reducible.

a vertex labelled with b is composed of at least n-2 symbols, then the vertex labelled b has at most two sons.

FACT. An irreducible word w has at most one right extension if and only if it has a suffix of the form upu, with $u \neq \varepsilon$ and |p| = n - 2.

Proof. If w has at most one right extension, then wa is reducible for all letters a with at most one exception. Take such a letter a which is distinct from the n-2 last letters of w. Then wa = w'upuw'' for some words w', w'', u, p, with $u \neq \varepsilon$ and $|p| \leq n-3$. Since w is irreducible, the word w'' is empty and thus the last letter of u is an a. Set u = va. Then w = w'vapv. If v is not empty, then since w is irreducible, one gets $|ap| \geq n-2$, which, combined with the first inequality, gives |ap| = n-2 and the announced suffix. Assume finally that $v = \varepsilon$. Then w = w'ap, and since a was chosen in an appropriate way, $|p| \geq n-2$.

Conversely, assume that w = qupu for some word q. Then w has at most two right extensions wa and wb, and a,b are different from the last n-2 letters of pu. They are also different from the first letter of p. This shows the result if $|u| \geq n$, and also if u is a single letter. Thus the claim follows from the next fact.

FACT. Any word of the form upu with 2 < |u| < n and |p| = n - 2 is reducible.

Assuming the contrary, let c be the first letter of p and let $A - \mathrm{alph}(p) = \{a, b\}$. Then by considering the word pu, the first letter of u must be either a or b, and the second letter is either b or a; it cannot be c since otherwise up would be reducible. Thus

$$upu = abu'pabu'$$

for u' defined by u = abu', and $1 \le |u'| \le n - 3$. The last letter u' is none of the letters in alph(p), and is neither a nor b, a contradiction.

FACT. If a word qvq is a proper suffix of an irreducible word pup and |u| = |v| = n - 2, then qvq is a suffix of p.

Indeed, q is a suffix of p, and consequently qvq is a suffix of qup. But the left occurrences of q in these two words must be separated by at least n-2=|u| symbols. The claim follows.

Thus p = tqvq for some word t. This implies that u and v start with different symbols. Indeed, if u = au', v = av', then

$$pup = tqav'qau'p$$

has the reducible factor qav'qa. Observe also that any word with suffix pup cannot be extended to the right into an irreducible word. By a previous remark, we know that the n-2 last symbols of q are all different; they are also distinct from the first letter of u and from the first letter of v. Thus these letters

altogether form the alphabet. Assume now that pup can be extended by a letter c. Then c can be neither one of the n-2 last letters of q, nor the first letter of u or of v. Thus c cannot exist.

As a consequence, an irreducible word cannot have three distinct suffixes pup, qvq, rwr, with |u|=|v|=|w|. Indeed, otherwise, and assuming |r|<|q|<|p|, the first occurence of p in pup has as suffixes both qvq, rwv, and is extensible to the right.

FACT. If \mathbf{x} is an infinite irreducible word, then for each integer m, there exists an irreducible word w of length m that admits at least two right extensions.

Indeed, otherwise there is an integer m such that any extensible word has only one right extension. This would hold also for words longer than m, since each such word has a suffix of length m. However, this means that the infinite word \mathbf{x} , which then is completely characterized by its first m letters, is ultimately periodic, which is contrary to the assumption that it is irreducible.

5.— Again, we consider a fixed alphabet A with n letters; we first assume $n \geq 3$.

FACT. Let u and p be words, with |p| = n - 3, and such that up and pu are irreducible. If the (reducible) word upu has a (reducible) proper factor of the form wqw, with |q| = n - 3, then $|wqw| \le |u| + |p|$ (i.e. $|w| \le |u|/2$).

Proof. Since wqw is a proper factor of upu, there exist words x, z, with |x| + |z| > 0 such that

$$upu = xwqwz$$
.

We may assume that xw is a prefix of u (otherwise wz is a suffix of u). Let t be such that u = xwt.

In order to prove the claim, assume now, arguing by contradiction, that |wqw| > |up|. Then |xz| < |u|. Therefore, there is a nonempty word y such that u = xyz. From this, it follows that

$$wqw = yzpxy$$
.

Since |q| = |p|, one gets $|y| \le |w|$, and equality cannot hold because otherwise |xz| = 0. Thus y is a proper prefix and a proper suffix of w. Since w is a factor of the irreducible word u, there is a factorization

$$w = ysy$$

with $|s| \ge n-2$. Let t be such that wt = yz. Recall that u = xwt. Thus,

$$qys = tpx$$
.

x		w		t			
		u			p		u
x		w		q		w	z
x	y		z				·
	y	s	y	t	p	x	
				q	y	s	

If $|tp| \leq |qy|$, then $|x| \geq |s|$, and consequently x = x's for some x'. But then

$$pu = pxyz = px'swt = px'sysyt$$

is reducible. Consequently |tp| > |qy|, and tp = qyy' for some y'. But then

$$up = xyzp = xwtp = xysyqyy'$$

has the reducible factor yqy, again a contradiction.

FACT. Let w be an irreducible circular word, let p be a factor of length n-3 of w, and let u be the rest of w, i.e. such that w=up. Then upu has no proper irreducible factor. If furthermore $|u| \geq 2$, let u=ha, with a in A, and let k=ap. Then hkh is irreducible.

Indeed, if there is an irreducible factor in upu, then we may assume, by a previous remark, that it has the form vqv for some v, and some q with |q| = n - 3. But then $|vqv| \leq |up| = |w|$, and vqv is a factor of w. This proves the first part. Next

$$hkha = hapha = upu$$

and therefore hkh is an irreducible factor of upu.

FACT. Let w be a circular irreducible word, and suppose that w has a factor of the form vqv with |q| = n - 2. Suppose further that $w \simeq vqvr$ with $|r| \ge n - 2$. Then, there is a word $u \simeq w$ which has no right extension.

Indeed, let r = pas with |p| = n - 2 and $a \in A$. Then svqvqasvqv has no right extension.

Two words $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in A^{\mathbb{Z}}$ are called $congruent^5$ if there exists $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $\mathbf{x}(i) = \mathbf{y}(i+k)$ for all $i \in \mathbb{Z}$. A word $\mathbf{x} \in A^{\mathbb{Z}}$ is $simply \ recurrent$ if every factor of \mathbf{x} has infinitely many occurences in \mathbf{x} . A word has only h-bounded overlaps if for every factor of the form xuxux with $u \neq \varepsilon$, one has $|x| \leq h$. We say that the word has bounded overlaps if it has h-bounded overlaps for some h. Finally, we say that \mathbf{x} avoids a finite set $X \subset (A \cup B)^*$, where $A \cap B = \emptyset$ if there is no extension $h: (a \cup B)^* \to A^*$ such that all words $h(x), (x \in X)$ are factors of \mathbf{x} .

⁵Morse, Hedlund call them similar.

Theorem 1.1. (Satz 1) Let $\mathbf{x} \in A^{\mathbb{Z}}$ be an infinite word that satisfies the following conditions:

- (i) \mathbf{x} is simply recurrent;
- (ii) **x** has bounded overlap;
- (iii) **x** avoids a fixed set $X \subset (A \cup B)^*$.

Then there exist infinitely many twosided infinite words with the same three properties.

Proof. We construct a sequence $(u_k)_{k>0}$ of factors of **x** as follows:

- (i) u_0 is an arbitrary nonempty factor of \mathbf{x} .
- (ii) assume u_k is constructed. Then to a given occurrence of u_k , there is another occurrence of u_k , to the right or to the left. Suppose it is to the right. Thus there is a word v_k such that

$$u_k v_k u_k$$

is a factor of \mathbf{x} . Consider one occurrence of this word, and consider any factor α_k that extends the occurrence to the left, and a factor w_{k+1} that extends the occurrence to the right and that, furthermore, has the property that w_{k+1} is not a prefix of $u_k w_{k+1}^6$. We thus have obtained a factor

$$u_{k+1} = \alpha_k u_k v_k u_k w_{k+1} = w_{-(k+1)} u_k w_{k+1}$$

with $w_{-(k+1)} = \alpha_k u_k v_k$. A symmetric definition holds in the symmetric case. It is not very difficult to check that the infinite word

$$\mathbf{y} = \dots w_{-3} w_{-2} w_{-1} u_0 w_1 w_2 w_3 \dots$$

is not congruent to \mathbf{x} but has the same factors as \mathbf{x} and therefore has the properties claimed.

The construction can be used for deriving similar results on infinite words. We consider the following problem. Let $h:A^*\to A^*$ be a fixed nonerasing morphism. Does there exist a twosided infinite word $\mathbf{x}_0\in A^{\mathbb{Z}}$ such that there is a sequence

$$\mathbf{x}_1,\ldots,\mathbf{x}_m,\ldots$$

of twosided infinite words over A with

$$h(\mathbf{x}_{m+1}) = \mathbf{x}_m .$$

If this holds, and if furthermore alph(h(a)) = A for $a \in A$ then every factor of \mathbf{x}_0 appears infinitely often in \mathbf{x}_0 .

Let u_0 be a nonempty word, and assume that

$$h(u_0) = v_0 u_0 w_0$$

⁶This is possible because **x** has bounded overlaps.

for nonempty words v_0, w_0 . Then setting, for $m \geq 0$,

$$u_{m+1} = h(u_m), \ v_{m+1} = h(v_m), \ w_{m+1} = h(w_m),$$

we get

$$u_{m+1} = v_m u_m w_m = v_m v_{m-1} \cdots v_0 u_0 w_0 \cdots w_m.$$

Therefore, the two sided infinite word \mathbf{x} defined by

$$\mathbf{x} = \cdots v_2 v_1 v_0 u_0 w_0 w_1 w_2 \cdots$$

is a fixed point for h, i.e. $h(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}$.

After these introductory remarks, we will consider in more detail irreducible words for special values of n, the number of letters. As we shall see, closed or twosided infinite irreducible words have some analogy with Diophantine equations.

3.2 Sequences over two symbols

7.— We now consider a fixed alphabet $A = \{a, b\}$. A finite or infinite word w over A is irreducible if it has no overlap; in the sequel, we⁷ call it *overlap-free*. A circular word w is overlap-free iff the open word ww is overlap-free. For any finite or infinite word w, we denote by \overline{w} the word obtained by exchanging the a's and b's in w.

EXAMPLE. The circular words aa and abab have overlaps. The circular word aab is overlap-free.

It is not difficult to verify that a circular word of length r is overlap-free iff all

⁷the translator

factors of length 1+r of the open word ww are overlap-free.⁸



Figure 2 shows all overlap-free words of length at most 12 starting with the letter a. The final letters of words which cannot be extended are marked with a circle.

Through a sequence of statements we will in particular prove the existence of infinite overlap-free words. We begin with some lemmas.

LEMMA 2.1. (Satz 2) Let $X = \{ab, ba\}$. For any $x \in X^*$, one has $axa \notin X^*$ and $bxb \notin X^*$.

Proof. By induction on |x|, the case |x|=0 being trivial. Let $x\in X^*$, $x\neq \varepsilon$, and assume that u=axa is in X^* (the case $bxb\in X^*$ is similar). Then the first and the last letters of x must be b. Thus x=byb for some word, and consequently

$$u = abyba$$
.

Since $u \in X^*$, one has $y \in X^*$, and by induction u = byb is not in X^* , contrary to the assumption.

We consider the two morphisms

$$\mu: egin{array}{ll} a\mapsto ab \ b\mapsto ba \end{array} \qquad ar{\mu}: egin{array}{ll} a\mapsto ba \ b\mapsto ab \end{array}$$

⁸For, assume that ww = ycxcxcz with $c \in A$, x of minimal length, and |cxcxc| > 1 + |w|. Then either ycxc is a prefix of w or, symmetrically, cxcz is a suffix of w. In the first case, the word cxcz has another occurrence of cxc, and the length condition implies that these occurrences overlap.

Lemma 2.2. (Satz 3) If w is an overlap-free word, then $\mu(w)$ and $\bar{\mu}(w)$ are overlap-free.

Proof. Assume that $\mu(w)$ has an overlap. Then

$$\mu(w) = x c v c v c y$$

for some words x, v, y and a letter c. Since $|\mu(w)|$ is even and |cvcvc| is odd, it follows that |xy| is odd and therefore one of |x| or |y| is even and the other is odd. By symmetry, we may assume that |x| is odd and |y| is even.

Set $X = \{ab, ba\}$. Then $y \in X^*$, and furthermore |v| is odd. Indeed, since $vcvc \in X^*$, the contrary would imply that both v and cvc are in X^* , in contradiction to the previous lemma. It follows that vc is in X^* , and xc is in X^* . Thus w = rsst with $\mu(r) = xc$, $\mu(s) = vc$, $\mu(t) = y$. But r and s have the same final letter, showing that w has an overlap.

A similar proof gives the following lemma.

Lemma 2.3. (Satz 4) If w is an overlap-free circular word, then $\mu(w)$ and $\bar{\mu}(w)$ are overlap-free.

By induction, $\mu^p(w)$ is overlap-free for any overlap-free word w and for any positive integer p. Set for $n \geq 0$

$$u_n = \mu^n(a), \ v_n = \mu^n(b).$$

THEOREM 2.4. (Satz 5) There exists an overlap-free infinite word over two letters.

Proof. Let

$$\mathbf{t} = a v_0 v_1 v_2 \dots v_n \dots$$

By induction on n, $u_{n+1} = av_0v_1...v_n$ for $n \ge 0$. Thus

$$\mu(\mathbf{t}) = \mathbf{t}$$

and t is overlap-free.

COROLLARY 2.5. (Satz 6) Let \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} be infinite words with $\mathbf{x} = \mu(\mathbf{y})$. Then \mathbf{x} is overlap-free iff \mathbf{y} is overlap-free.

Proof. It is easily seen that if \mathbf{x} is overlap-free, then \mathbf{y} is overlap-free. The converse follows from Satz 3.

Observe that u_{2n} and v_{2n} are palindromes and that $\tilde{u}_{2n+1} = v_{2n+1}$ for n >= 0. Indeed, by induction,

$$u_{2n+2} = \mu^2(u_{2n}) = u_{2n}v_{2n}v_{2n}u_{2n} = \tilde{u}_{2n}\tilde{v}_{2n}\tilde{v}_{2n}\tilde{u}_{2n} = \tilde{u}_{2n+2}.$$

The other verifications are similar.

THEOREM 2.6. (Satz 7) Let $w_n = \tilde{v}_n$ for $n \geq 0$. The two sided infinite word

$$\mathbf{u} = \cdots w_n \cdots w_2 w_1 w_0 a a v_0 v_1 \cdots v_n \cdots$$

is overlap-free.

Proof. Of course, $\mathbf{u} = \tilde{\mathbf{t}} \mathbf{t}$. From the relations above, it follows that

$$w_n \cdots w_1 w_0 a a v_0 \cdots v_n = \begin{cases} v_{n+2} & n \text{ even} \\ u_{n+1} u_{n+1} & n \text{ odd.} \end{cases}$$

This holds indeed for n = 0, 1; next, if n is even, then $w_n = v_n$ and

$$w_n \cdots w_1 w_0 a a v_0 \cdots v_n = v_n u_n u_n v_n = v_{n+2} .$$

If n is odd, then $w_n = u_n$ and

$$w_n \cdots u_n = u_n v_{n+1} v_n = u_n v_n v_n u_n = u_{n+1}^2$$
.

The result follows.

Observe that

$$\mu(\tilde{\mathbf{t}})\mathbf{t} = \tilde{\bar{\mathbf{t}}}\mathbf{t}$$

is also an overlap-free twosided infinite word.

8. — Let w be an overlap-free word over A. If $|w| \ge 5$, then w has at least one factor in the set $Y = \{aa, bb\}$. Consequently, if $|w| \ge 9$, then w has at least two occurrences of factors in Y.

If w is an overlap-free word circular with at least 4 letters, then w has at least two occurrences of factors in Y.

PROPOSITION 2.7. (Satz 8) Let w be a word over A of the form

$$w = cddxeef$$

where c, d, e, f are letters and x is a word. If w is overlap-free, then w and dxe are in X^* , where $X = \{ab, ba\}$.

Proof. By induction on the length of x. Without loss of generality, we may assume that c=a, whence d=b. If $x=\varepsilon$, then $c\neq d\neq e\neq f$ and w=abbaab which is in X^* .

Assume that $x \neq \varepsilon$. Then x = ay for some $y \neq \varepsilon$, and

$$w = abbayeef.$$

⁹This means that (a, a) and (b, b) are synchronizing pairs.

If y starts with the letter a the result holds by induction. Thus assume that y=bz for some z. If $z=\varepsilon$, then w=abbabeef, whence e=a and f=b and w is in X^* . If $z\neq \varepsilon$, and z starts with b, the result again follows by induction. Finally, we assume that z=at, and thus

$$w = abbabateef$$
.

Observe that $t \neq \varepsilon$ since otherwise w contains an overlap. Thus t starts with a b. The result follows by induction.

PROPOSITION 2.8. (Satz 9) If **w** is a twosided infinite overlap-free word, then $\mathbf{w} = \mu(\mathbf{u})$ for some infinite overlap-free word **u**.

Proof. Let \mathbf{w} be a two-sided infinite overlap-free word. As observed above, any long enough factor has two distinct occurrences of a factor aa or bb. The result follows then from the previous proposition.

PROPOSITION 2.9. (Satz 9) For any overlap-free circular word w of length at least 4, there exists a unique circular word u such that $w = \mu(u)$.

PROPOSITION 2.10. (Satz 10) If \mathbf{w} is a twosided infinite overlap-free word, then for any integer $k \geq 1$, there is a unique infinite overlap-free word \mathbf{u} such that $\mathbf{w} = \mu^k(\mathbf{u})$.

In taking k sufficiently large in the previous proposition, one gets:

COROLLARY 2.11. (Satz 11) Let **w** be a twosided infinite overlap-free word. Every factor of **w** appears infinitely often in **w**.

Observe that, according to Satz 1, this shows that there exist infinitely many congruence classes of overlap-free words. (See **Notes 4.2**)

Another consequence is the following:

Theorem 2.12. (Satz 12) Let \mathbf{x} , \mathbf{y} and \mathbf{z} be (onesided) infinite words over A, and consider the twosided infinite words

$$\mathbf{u} = \tilde{\mathbf{x}}\mathbf{y}, \ \mathbf{v} = \tilde{\mathbf{x}}\mathbf{z}$$
.

Assume that \mathbf{y} and \mathbf{z} start with different letters. If \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} are both overlapfree, then $\mathbf{y} = \bar{\mathbf{z}}$ and furthermore either $\mathbf{x} = \mu(\mathbf{x})$ or $\mathbf{x} = \bar{\mu}(\mathbf{x})$ and $\mathbf{z} = \mu(\mathbf{z})$ or $\mathbf{z} = \bar{\mu}(\mathbf{z})$ and thus \mathbf{x} , \mathbf{y} and \mathbf{z} are equal to \mathbf{t} or $\bar{\mathbf{t}}$. *Proof.* It suffices to observe that for any $k \geq 0$, the infinite words \mathbf{x} , \mathbf{y} , \mathbf{z} have $\mu^k(a)$ or $\mu^k(b)$ as prefixes.

PROPOSITION 2.13. (Satz 13) Every circular overlap-free word with length at least 2 is of the form $\mu^n(aab)$, $\mu^n(bba)$, $\mu^n(ab)$ for some integer $n \ge 0$.

Proof. If w has length at least 4, then $w = \mu(u)$ for some overlap-free circular word u, and of course |w| = 2|u|. Thus, it suffices to consider the overlap-free circular words of length 2 or 3.

COROLLARY 2.14. (Satz 14) Any circular overlap-free word has length 2^n or $3 \cdot 2^n$ for some $n \ge 0$.

Let w be an overlap-free word of length at least 10. Then there exist letters x, y, z, u and words p, s, t such that

$$w = pyxxtzzus$$

with $x \neq y$, $z \neq u$, and

$$p \in \{\varepsilon, x, y, yx, xx, yyx\}, \quad s \in \{\varepsilon, z, u, zu, zz, zuu\}$$

and

$$xtz \in \{ab, ba\}^*$$
.

This observation is useful in the proof of the following theorem:

Theorem 2.15. (Satz 15) Let $n \ge 1$ and let w be an overlap-free word of length n. If there exist words u, v of length at least 8n such that uwv is overlap-free, then any overlap-free word of length at least 26n contains w as a factor.

Proof. Let uwv be overlap-free, with |w| = n and $|u|, |v| \ge 8n$. Let $k = 1 + \lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor$. We construct a decreasing sequence of words

$$s_h = u_h w_h v_h \qquad (0 \le h \le k)$$

with $u_0 = u$, $w_0 = w$, $v_0 = v$, such that $\mu(s_{h+1})$ is a factor of s_h and w_h is a factor of $\mu(w_{h+1})$:

$\mu(u_{h+1})$		$\mu(w_{h+1})$	$\mu(v_{h+1})$	
u_h		w_h	v_h	

Assume that $|w_h| > 10$. Then, according to the preceding observation, there is a factor s' of w_h of length at least $|w_h| - 6$ in $\{ab, ba\}^*$. Define $s_{h+1} =$

 $u_{h+1}w_{h+1}v_{h+1}$ in such a way that $s' = \mu(s_{h+1})$ and furthermore w_h is a factor of $\mu(w_{h+1})$. Clearly

$$2|u_{h+1}| \ge |u_h| - 3, \quad 2|v_{h+1}| \ge |v_h| - 3$$

$$|w_h| \le 2|w_{h+1}| \le |w_h| + 2$$

whence by induction

$$|u_{h+1}| > \frac{|u|}{2^{h+1}} - 3, \quad \frac{|w|}{2^{h+1}} \le |w_{h+1}| < \frac{|w|}{2^{h+1}} + 2.$$

Since $|u| \ge 8n \ge 8 \cdot 2^{k-1}$, it follows that

$$|u_{k-1}| > \frac{|u|}{2^{k-1}} - 3 > 5$$
.

Thus s_{k-1} has length greater than 10, and consequently the word s_k exists. It follows that w is a factor of $\mu^k(a)$ or of $\mu^k(b)$.

Consider now a word f of length 26n. By the observation above, if f is overlap-free, then there are words p, s, and a word g such that

$$f = p\mu(g)s$$

and $|p|, |q| \leq 2$. Thus there is a sequence of words f_0, f_1, \ldots such that f_h is a factor of $\mu(f_{h+1})$ and

$$2|f_{h+1}| \ge |f_h| - 4$$
.

This implies that

$$|f_{h+1}| > \frac{|f|}{2^{h+1}} - 4$$
.

Since $|f| \ge 26n \ge 13 \cdot 2^k$, one has

$$|f_k| > \frac{|f|}{2^k} - 4 \ge 9$$
.

Thus f_k contains also s_k . This proves the result.

Observe that since the word w of the preceding theorem is a factor of some $\mu^k(a)$ or $\mu^k(b)$, this means that w is extensible to a two-sided infinite word.

A morphism h is called *overlap-free* if h(w) is overlap-free for all overlap-free words w. The next result gives a characterisation of overlap-free morphisms. (See **Notes 4.2**)

THEOREM 2.16. (Satz 16) For any overlap-free morphism h over two letters, there is an integer $k \geq 0$ such that $h(a) = \mu^k(a)$, $h(b) = \mu^k(b)$ or $h(a) = \mu^k(b)$, $h(b) = \mu^k(a)$.

Proof. Set h(a) = u, h(b) = v. The result holds if |u| = |v| = 1.

We prove first that if |u| > 1, then |u| is even. Indeed, assume first that |u| = 3. If u = aab or u = baa, that vuuv has a factor b(aab)(aab) or (baa)(baa)b. Similarly, if u = aba, then vvuuvv or vuv have an overlap, according to the first and the last letter of v. Thus |u| > 3. If |u| > 4, then u has the form

$$u = paas$$
 or $u = pbbs$

for some nonempty words p, s. Assume the former. The word

$$vuuv = vpaaspaas$$

fulfills the requirements of Satz 8. Thus the central factor aspa has even length, showing that u has even length. This proves the claim.

Next we show that |u|=1 implies |v|=1. Indeed, if say u=a, and |v|>1, then v has even length. Moreover, since vuuv is overlap-free, v=bwb for some word w, and $w\neq \varepsilon$ because vv must be overlap-free. But then, in

$$vvuuv = bwbbwbaabwb$$

the central factor bwba has even length, again by Satz 8. Thus |v| is odd, a contradiction. This shows the second claim.

We now prove the result by induction on |u| + |v|, assuming |u| > 1, |v| > 1. We already know that u and v have even length. Without loss of generality, we may assume that u starts with the letter a.

If u = awa, then w is not empty. Thus w = bzb for some word z, since otherwise uu contains an overlap. Moreover, w contains a factor aa or bb. Indeed, otherwise $w = (ba)^n b$ for some n, which is impossible because |w| is even. Thus w has the form w = xddy for some letter d and some words x, y, and

$$uu = axddyaaxddy$$

showing that dya and axd are in X^* , with $X = \{ab, ba\}$. Thus, u also is in X^* . If u = awb, then v = bza for some z. The word

$$vuvu = awbbzaawbbza$$

is overlap-free, and as above, this shows that u is in X^* . Similarly, v is in X^* .

It follows that $u = \mu(u')$, $v = \mu(v')$ for some words u', v', and that the morphism h' defined by h'(a) = u', h'(b) = v' also is overlap-free. Since $h = \mu \circ h'$, the result follows.

10.— We now give some results about the tree of overlap-free words over two letters a and b. We set $X = \{ab, ba\}$.

LEMMA 2.17. Let ux, uy be two overlap-free words, with |x|, $|y| \ge 2$, and assume that x and y start with different letters. If u is of the form u = abbu' for some word u', then $u \in X^*$. If furthermore,

$$x = x'eef$$
$$y = y'ggh$$

where e, f, g, h are letters and x', y' are words, then $x, y \in X^*$.

Proof. Since ux and uy are overlap-free and x and y start with different letters, the word u' is not empty. Set u' = vc where c is a letter. Then either ux or uy is of the form

$$u = abbvccdw$$

for some letter d and some word w. By Satz 8, the word bvc is in X^* . Thus $u \in X^*$.

Since ux = abbu'x'eef, the same proposition shows that bu'x'e is in X^* . It follows that bu' is in X^* and finally $x \in X^*$.

LEMMA 2.18. Let u be a prefix of \mathbf{t} of length $m = |u| \ge 3$, and set $\mathbf{t} = u\mathbf{x}$. If uy is a finite overlap-free word with $|y| \ge m - 2$, and if \mathbf{x} and y start with different letters, then m is a power of 2.

Proof. If m = abb then y starts with b and uy contains a cube. Thus, $m \ge 4$. By the lemma above, u is in X^* . Furthermore, and still by the lemma, there is a prefix z of y which differs from y by at most 2 letters and which is in X^* . Consider now the words

$$u' = \mu^{-1}(u), \quad \mathbf{x}' = \mu^{-1}(\mathbf{x}), \quad z' = \mu^{-1}(z).$$

Again $u'\mathbf{x}' = \mathbf{t}$, u'z' is overlap-free, and \mathbf{x}' and z' start with different letters. Since $|z'| \geq (m-2)/2$, the lemma follows by induction.

LEMMA 2.19. Let u be a word of length at least 4 such that auuc is overlap-free, with c a letter. Then $u \in X^*$.

Proof. We first observe that u cannot end with an a, and that the first letter of u is not c. We shall see that in fact u starts with baa or abb or with babaa or with ababb.

We first show that bb is not a prefix of u. Indeed, otherwise u = bbu'b for some word u' and uu contains a cube. Clearly, aa is not a prefix of u.

Next, we show that babb is not a prefix of u. Indeed, otherwise u = babbu' for some u', and since uu is overlap-free, u' is not empty. More precisely, u' starts with a and ends with ab, thus u' = avab or u' = ab. In the first case, uu = avab

babbavabbabbavab contains the factor avabbabbava which contains an overlap. In the second case, uu = babbabbabbabbab contains an overlap.

Next, if u = abaau', then u' is not empty and u' = vb for some v. Thus uuc = abaavbabaavbb. Clearly, v is not empty, and ends neither with a nor b.

It follows from this that if the first letter of u is b, then u starts either with baa or with babaa. Similarly if u starts with a, it starts with abb or ababb. In the first case,

$$uu = baavbaav = ba(avba)av$$

showing (even if $v = \varepsilon$) that $avba \in X^*$. In the second case,

$$uu = babaavbabaav = baba(avbaba)av$$

showing that $avbaba \in X^*$.

Finally, let

$$\mathbf{x} = a_0 a_1 \cdots a_n \cdots$$

be an infinite overlap-free word. Then not every suffix $a_n a_{n+1} \cdots$ starts with a square. In other words, there exists an integer p such that, setting $\mathbf{y} = a_p a_{p+1} \cdots$, both $a\mathbf{y}$ and $b\mathbf{y}$ are overlap-free. Indeed, \mathbf{x} has infinitely many occurrences of the word ababbaab, and contains no square that starts with babbaab.

3.3 Sequences over three symbols

11.— A word w over a three-letter alphabet is irreducible if it is square-free. Clearly, if w contains an overlap, it also contains a square. A circular word w of

length r is square-free iff it contains no square of length less than r.

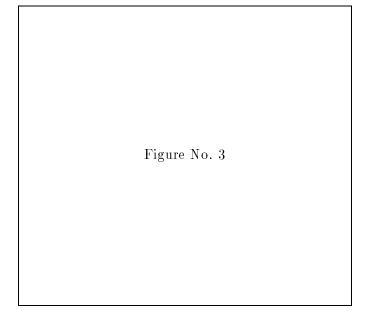


Figure 3 shows all square-free words of length at most 12. Again, a small circle around a letter means that the corresponding branch in the tree cannot be extended. A morphism h is called square-free if h(w) is a square-free word for every square-free word w.

It is convenient¹⁰ to call a morphism h over some alphabet A a factor-free morphism if, whenever h(a) is a factor of h(b) for some letters a and b, then a=b. This implies of course that h is injective, and in fact that h(A) is a biprefix code. The set X=h(A) itself will be called factor-free. Next, a set X=h(A), and by extension the morphism h, is comma-free if, whenever $x\in X$ and $uxv\in X^*$ for some words u,v, then $u,v\in X^*$. Clearly, a comma-free morphism is factor-free (the converse is false, consider $\{a,bab\}$).¹¹

THEOREM 3.1. (Satz 17) Let A be a three-letter alphabet, and let $h: A^* \to A^*$ be a nonerasing factor-free morphism. If h(w) is square-free for all square-free words of length 3, then h is a square-free morphism.

For the proof, we first give a lemma of independent interest:

¹⁰for the translator. Sometimes, such a code is called *infix*.

¹¹Observe that the two statements that follow are true for arbitrary finite alphabets.

LEMMA 3.2. Let A be a three-letter alphabet, and let $h: A^* \to A^*$ be a non-erasing factor-free morphism. If h(w) is square-free for all square-free words of length 2, then h is comma-free.

Proof. Set X = h(A). Assume that X is not comma-free. Then there is a shortest word $uxv \in X^*$ with $x \in X$ and u or v not in X^* . Since X is a biprefix code, the minimality condition implies that u is the proper prefix of some word in X and similarly for v. Moreover, h being factor-free, the word x has no factor in X. Thus uxv = yz for two elements y, z in X, and there are three letters a_1, a_2, a such that $h(a_1a_2) = uh(a)v$. Since the occurrences of x = h(a), and $z = h(a_2)$ overlap, the word xz contains a square and therefore $a_1 = a$. Similarly, $a_2 = a$. But then x is a nontrivial factor of x^2 and thus, x itself contains a square, a contradiction.

Proof of the theorem. Set X = h(A). Assume now that the conclusion of the theorem is false. Then there is a shortest square-free word $w = a_1 a_2 \cdots a_n$, where a_1, \ldots, a_n are letters, such that h(w) contains a square, say

$$h(w) = yuuz = x_1x_2\cdots x_n$$

where $x_i = h(a_i)$ for $1 \le i \le n$. By the hypotheses, $n \ge 4$, and by the minimality of w, y is a proper prefix of x_1 and z is a proper suffix of x_n . Thus, there are words $s' \ne \varepsilon$ and $p' \ne \varepsilon$ with

$$x_1 = ys', \qquad x_n = p'z.$$

Next, u is not a prefix of s', since otherwise $x_2 \cdots x_{n-1}$ is a factor of u, thus also of x_1 , contrary to the assumption that h is factor-free. Thus, there exists an index j with 1 < j < n and a factorization $x_j = ps$ such that

$$yu = x_1 \cdots x_{j-1}p, \qquad uz = sx_{j+1} \cdots x_n$$

or, also,

$$u = s'x_2 \cdots x_{j-1}p = sx_{j+1} \cdots x_{n-1}p'.$$

Since $n \ge 4$, one has $j \ge 3$ or $n - j \le 2$, i.e. at least one of the two occurrences of u contains one of the x_k 's. By symmetry, we may assume $j \ge 3$. Thus

$$puz = ps'x_2 \cdots x_{i-1}pz = x_i x_{i+1} \cdots x_n.$$

Since X is comma-free and $x_2 \cdots x_{j-1} \neq \varepsilon$, this implies that ps' is in X^* , and since no element in X is a prefix of p nor a suffix of s', in fact ps' is in X. Thus $ps' = x_j$ and s = s'. It follows that $x_2 \cdots x_{j-1}p = x_{j+1} \cdots x_{n-1}p'$, which in turn implies $x_2 \cdots x_{j-1} = x_{j+1} \cdots x_{n-1}$ and p = p'. Altogether, we have obtained that

$$x_1 = ys$$
, $x_j = ps$, $x_n = pz$,
 $a_2 \cdots a_{j-1} = a_{j+1} \cdots a_{n-1}$.

Now

$$h(a_1 a_i a_n) = yspspz$$

contains a square, and thus $a_1 = a_j$ or $a_j = a_n$. But then w contains a square, a contradiction.

Every square-free word over three letters a, b, c that starts with the letter a and ends with b or c can be factorized into a product of words A, B, C, D, E, F, where

$$A = ab,$$
 $C = abc,$ $E = abcb$
 $B = ac,$ $D = acb,$ $F = acbc$

The words AC, AE, BD, BF, CE, DF, CBa, DAa, EAa, EDa, FBa, FCa all contain squares. The same holds for the words ADB, BCA, CFD, DEC. On the contrary, the 18 words in the following diagram

$$A \stackrel{B}{\rightleftharpoons}_{F} \qquad B \stackrel{A}{\rightleftharpoons}_{E} \qquad C \stackrel{A}{\rightleftharpoons}_{F}$$

$$D \stackrel{B}{\rightleftharpoons}_{E} \qquad E \stackrel{B}{\rightleftharpoons}_{F} \qquad F \stackrel{A}{\rightleftharpoons}_{E}$$

all are square-free.

We observe also that in a twosided infinite square-free word, the words ABA and BAB do not appear as factors. Any occurrence of AFA, FAF, BEB, EBE, CDC, DCD is always an occurrence as a factor of respectively BAFAB, CFAFD, ABEBA, DEBEC, BCDCA, ADCDB.

These considerations lead to the morphisms h and g defined by

$$h(a) = CA = abcab$$

 $h(b) = BE = acabcb$
 $h(c) = FD = acbcacb$

and

$$g(a) = AD = abacb$$

 $g(b) = EB = abcbac$
 $g(c) = CF = abcacbc$

It is immediately seen ¹² that these morphisms have the properties required by the theorem. This proves that there exist arbitrarily long square-free words, and infinite square-free words over three letters.

¹²A. Thue says.

COROLLARY 3.3. (Satz 18) Let

$$\mathbf{x} = (abcab)(acabcb)(acbcacb)(abcab)(acabcb)(abcab) \cdots$$

be the infinite word over a, b, c such that $h(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}$, where h is the morphism given above. Then \mathbf{x} is square-free.

As we shall see, square-free words frequently are almost completely defined by the requirement that they do no contain factors in a certain set. We make some observations. First, every square-free word w over a, b, c of length at least 4 contains all three letters. If |w| > 13, then w contains each of the six possible two letter words ab, ac, ba, bc, ca, cb as factor. If |w| > 30, then each of the words abc, acb, bca, bac, cab and cba obtained by permuting the three letters is a factor of w.

12.— We now investigate in more detail those square-free words which contain 4 of the 6 words A, B, C, D, E, F given above in their decomposition. Thus, each square-free word should lack one pair of factors among the following 15 pairs:

$1) \ aba, aca$	$6) \ aca, abca$	$10) \ abca, acba$
$2) \ aba, abca$	$7) \ aca, acba$	$11) \ abca, abcba$
$3) \ aba, acba$	$8) \ aca, abcba$	$12) \ abca, acbca$
$4) \ aba, abcba$	$9) \ aca, acbca$	13) $acba, abcba$
$5) \ aba, acbca$		14) $acba, acbca$
		15) $abcba, acbca$

The pairs of words (6), (7), (8), (9), (13) and (14) transform into the pairs (3), (2), (5), (4), (12) and (11) respectively by exchanging b and c. Thus, we do not need to consider the first group. Next, any square-free word w of length |w| > 32 necessarily contains one of the factors abca or abcba of group (11). Indeed, the prefix of length 31 of w contains abc which is followed by a or by ba. Similarly, one of the factors abca or acbca of group (12) must appear in w.

Also, any square-free word of length at least 60^{-13} contains one of the words aba or abca of group (2) as a factor, and the same holds for the words aba and acba of group (3).

Finally, a square-free word of length more than 47 contains aba or abcba as a factor. Indeed, the prefix of length 31 contains an occurrence of abc, and the next factor of length 16 must contain aba or abcba.

Thus, our investigation is reduced to the 4 cases (1), (5), (10) and (15). Now, we reduce case (10) to case (5). If a square-free word w does not have abca or acba as a factor, then w has no factor of the form $\alpha bab\beta$ or $\gamma cac\delta$, where $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta$ are words of length at least 3^{14} . Conversely, if w contains no factor of the form bab

 $[\]overline{^{13}}$ I found 41.

¹⁴Indeed, consider for instance $\alpha bab\beta$. Then α ends with c, thus with bc, thus with abc and symmetrically, β starts with cba. But then abcbabcba contains a square.

and cac, then it contains no factor of the form $\alpha abca\beta$ nor $\gamma acba\delta$, where α , β , γ , δ are letters. This reduces case (10) to case (5).

Thus, we restrict our investigation to square-free words over three letters a, b, c, where the pair of factors

$$aca \text{ and } bcb$$
 (I)

or

$$aba$$
 and aca (II)

or

$$aba$$
 and bab (III)

is missing.

3.4 First Case: aca and bcb are missing

13.— We shall call a word over a, b, c that both is square-free and has no factor of the form aca and bcb a word of type (I). Every infinite word \mathbf{x} of type (I) is obtained from the periodic word

$$\cdots ababababa \cdots$$

by interleaving it with the letter c^{15} . Any factor of length at least 11 contains the word caba or cbab. Let p denote a or b and q denote the other letter. Then we get the following ramification starting with cpqp:

Figure No. 4

This shows that every two ided infinite word of type (I) can be factorized into a product of words

x = caba y = cbab z = cacb u = cbca

¹⁵See also Thue's first paper.

The same holds for circular words of type (I) of length at most 12. Next, the words xz, ux, yu, zy, zu, uz contain squares. Therefore, one obtains the following ramification (starting with zx):

Figure No. 5

Every two sided infinite word (or circular word of length at least 32) of type (I) is a product of the three words

$$egin{array}{ll} A=z&=cacb\ B=xuy=cabacbcacbab\ C=xy&=cabacbab \end{array}$$

Define a morphism h from $\{a, b, c\}^*$ into itself by:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} a \mapsto A \\ b \mapsto B \\ c \mapsto C \end{array}$$

PROPOSITION 4.1. If \mathbf{x} is a twosided infinite word of type (I), then $\mathbf{y} = h^{-1}(\mathbf{x})$ is also of type (I). The same holds for circular words of length at least 32.

Proof. It suffices to check that neither ACA nor BCB are factors of \mathbf{x} . Indeed, BCB = xuyxuxuy contains a square, and if ACA is a factor of \mathbf{x} , then also BACAB, and therefore yACAx = yzxyzx.

Observe that the morphism h is not factor-free because A is a factor of B. However, any occurrence of A, B or C in a word h(w) coincides with an occurrence of h(a), h(b) or h(c). Furthermore, the six words AB, AC, BC, BA, CA, CB are easily checked to be square-free.

THEOREM 4.2. (Satz 19) If \mathbf{x} is a twosided infinite word of type (I), then so is $h(\mathbf{x})$.

Proof. A simple verification shows that h(w) is square-free for all square-free words of length 3 excepted aca and bcb.

Assume that $h(\mathbf{x})$ contains a square tt. Then tt is not a factor of a word h(v), where v is a factor of length 3 of \mathbf{x} . Thus there are words $p,q,s \in \{A,B,C\}$ and $r \in \{A,B,C\}^*$ such that

$$p=\gamma\beta,\ s=\alpha\beta,\ q=\alpha\delta,\ t=\beta r\alpha,\ prsrq=\gamma tt\delta$$

and prsrq is a factor of $h(\mathbf{x})$:

p		r	.5	3	r	Q	1
γ		t			t		δ
	β	r	α	β	r	α	

Since **x** is square-free, one has $p \neq s \neq q$. Next, $psq = \gamma \beta \alpha \beta \alpha \delta$ has a square. Consequently, psq = ACA or psq = BCB. If p = A, then either r = B or r starts and ends with B, and **x** contains BCB, which is a contradiction. Similarly, $p \neq B$. This proves the proposition.

This result gives a method for constructing words of type (I). However, there is a relation between words of type (I) and overlap-free words which gives a more direct construction. For this, we consider a morphism

$$\tau: \{a,b,c\}^* \to \{\alpha,\beta\}^*$$

where α and β are two letters, defined by:

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 & a \mapsto \alpha \\
 & b \mapsto \alpha \beta \beta \\
 & c \mapsto \alpha \beta
\end{array}$$

THEOREM 4.3. (Satz 20 & 21) Let \mathbf{x} be a twosided infinite overlap-free word over the two letters α, β . Then there exists a unique infinite word \mathbf{y} over the three letters a, b, c such that $\tau(\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{x}$, and moreover \mathbf{y} is of type (I). Conversely, if \mathbf{y} is of type (I), then $\tau(\mathbf{y})$ is overlap-free.

Proof. Le **x** be an infinite overlap-free word over α and β . Clearly, there exists a unique word **y** such that $\tau(\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{x}$. Assume that **y** contains a square uu. Then $\tau(u)$ starts with the letter α , and $\tau(uu)\alpha$ is an overlapping factor of **x**. Thus, **y** is square-free.

Next, $\tau(bcb) = \alpha\beta\beta\alpha\beta\alpha\beta\beta$ contains an overlap, so bcb is not a factor of \mathbf{y} . If aca is a factor of \mathbf{y} , then so is bacab. But $\tau(bacab) = \alpha\beta\beta\alpha\alpha\beta\alpha\alpha\beta\beta$ contains an overlap, a contradiction. This proves that \mathbf{y} is of type (I).

Assume conversely that \mathbf{y} is of type (I), and set $\mathbf{x} = \tau(\mathbf{y})$. If \mathbf{x} contains some overlap s, then s cannot be of the form $\alpha v \alpha v \alpha$, because \mathbf{y} is square-free; thus $s = \beta v \beta v \beta$ for some nonempty word v. If v starts with a β , then it ends with α , and $v = \alpha w \beta$ for some w. But then αs is a factor of \mathbf{x} , and since

$$\alpha s = \alpha \beta \beta w \alpha \beta \beta w \alpha \beta$$

the word y contains a square.

We show now that similarly, v does not start with the letter α . Indeed, if $v = \alpha$, then $s = \beta \alpha \beta \alpha \beta$ and since \mathbf{y} is square-free, bcb is a factor of \mathbf{y} . Thus $v = \alpha w \gamma$ with $\gamma = \alpha$ or $\gamma = \beta$. If $\gamma = \beta$, then

$$s = \beta \alpha w \beta \beta \alpha w \beta \beta$$

and y contains the square $\tau^{-1}(\alpha w\beta\beta)^2$. Thus $\gamma=\alpha$ and $v=\alpha w\alpha$, whence

$$s = \beta \alpha w \alpha \beta \alpha w \alpha \beta$$

Neither αs nor $s\alpha$ is a factor of **x** since otherwise **y** contains a square. Thus $\beta s\beta$ and even $\alpha\beta s\beta$ is a factor of **x**. Since

$$\alpha\beta s\beta = \alpha\beta\beta\alpha w\alpha\beta\alpha w\alpha\beta\beta$$

the word **y** has a factor bzczb, with $\tau(z) = \alpha w$. Since $z \neq \varepsilon$, it starts and ends with the letter a. But then aca is a factor of **y**, again a contradiction.

3.5 Second Case: aba and aca are missing

Figure No. 6

14.— Since circular words can be treated in a way similar to twosided infinite words, it suffices to consider only words of the second kind. We shall call a word over a, b, c that both is square-free and has no factor of the form aba and aca a word of type (II).

In the present situation, we obtain the ramification:

Figure No. 7

Thus, a two-sided infinite word \mathbf{x} of type (II) is the product of words

x = abc y = acb z = abcb u = acbc

Next, x has no factor of the form

 $xyx, yxy, xux, yzx, \\ wxwz, wywu, uwxw, zwyw$

where w is in $\{x, y, z, u\}^*$. Indeed, the words

xyxu = xyxyc yxyz = yxyxb xuy = ab cy cy yzx = ac bx bx wxwz = wx wx b wywu = wy wy b uwxwa = ac bcwa bcwa zwywa = ab cbwa cbwa

all contain a square. Furthermore, xwuwy and ywzwx are not factors of **x** since

```
xwuwy = a bcwac bcwac b

ywzwx = a cbwab cbwab c
```

have squares.

Set $X = \{x, y, z, u\}$. Of course, X is a (suffix) code. Since every word in X starts with the letter a and the letter a appears nowhere else in words in X, any two sided infinite word \mathbf{x} of type (II) admits a unique factorization into words in X.

LEMMA 5.1. Let p and q be two nonempty words in X^* , with $p \neq uz$, $q \neq zu$. Then neither pxp nor qyq are factors of an infinite word \mathbf{x} of type (II). *Proof.* We prove the first claim, the second is shown in the same manner by exchanging b and c.

Assume on the contrary that pxp is a factor of a two-sided infinite word \mathbf{x} of type (II). Since neither pxpx nor pxpz are factors of \mathbf{x} , the factor pxp can only be followed by y or y. Similarly, it can only be preceded by y or y.

We first show that p = rxuz for some nonempty $r \in X^*$. The last factor in X of p is neither x nor u (because ux is not a factor of \mathbf{x}), and it is not y since every occurrence of y is followed by x, which would imply that pxpx is a factor of \mathbf{x} . Thus

$$p = p'z$$

for some $p' \in X^*$, and p' is not empty because xz is not a factor of x. Next

$$p = p'z = p''uz$$

because neither xz nor yzx are factors of \mathbf{x} . By assumption, $p'' \neq \varepsilon$. The last factor of p'' in X is not y, because yu is not a factor of \mathbf{x} . Next, the code word following pxp is u, because p ends with z and zy is not a factor of \mathbf{x} . This implies that the last code word of p'' is not z. Thus p'' = rx for some word r, and $r \neq \varepsilon$ since otherwise pxp contains the square xx.

The first word in X of p is u: indeed, it is neither x (since otherwise pxp contains the square xx) nor z (since otherwise pxp contains the factor uzxz), and it cannot be y since otherwise pxp must be preceded by z, and zy must be a factor of \mathbf{x} , which is impossible. Putting all together, we have p = usxuz for some word $s \in X^*$ which is nonempty, and consequently pxp admits the factor

But s neither starts with u nor with x (because ux is not a factor of \mathbf{x}) nor with y (because xuy is not a factor). Thus pxp contains the square $(xuz)^2$, a contradiction.

We now change slightly the notation: we consider the set $T = \{x, y, z, u\}$ as a new alphabet and we introduce a morphism f from T^* into $\{a, b, c\}^*$ defined by

$$f : \begin{array}{c} x \mapsto abc \\ y \mapsto acb \\ z \mapsto abcb \\ y \mapsto acbc \end{array}$$

Define a set of words over T by

$$\mathcal{F} = \{wxwz, wywu, zwyz, uwxw \mid w \in T^*\} \cup \{xyx, yxy, xuy, yzx\}$$

and denote by \mathcal{T} the set of two sided infinite words over T that are square-free and that have no factor in \mathcal{F} .

The discussion at the beginning of this section can be rephrased as: Every two-sided infinite word \mathbf{x} of type (II) is of the form $\mathbf{x} = f(\mathbf{y})$ for some $\mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{T}$. We now prove the converse:

THEOREM 5.2. (Satz 22) If y is a word in \mathcal{T} , then f(y) is of type (II).

Proof. Set $X = \{f(x), f(y), f(z), f(u)\}$. Clearly, neither aba nor aca is a factor of $f(\mathbf{y})$. In order to show that $\mathbf{x} = f(\mathbf{y})$ is square-free, assume the contrary, and let ww be the shortest square in \mathbf{x} . Clearly, w contains at least one a. If w contains only one a, then ww is a factor of some word in X^3 . However, it is easily checked that f preserves square-freeness of the factors of \mathbf{y} of length 3. Thus $|w|_a \geq 2$, and consequently there are words h, α, β, t, k such that

$h\alpha t\beta \alpha t\beta k$

is a factor of **x**, and further $h\alpha$, $\beta\alpha$, $\beta k \in X$, and $t \in X^*$, $t \neq \varepsilon$ and $w = \alpha t\beta$.

h	α	t	β	α	t	βk	
		w			w		

If $\beta = \varepsilon$, then $h = \varepsilon$ because X is a suffix code, and \mathbf{y} contains a square. Thus $\beta \neq \varepsilon$. Let $s = f^{-1}(t)$. We prove now the contradiction by showing that $\beta \alpha$ cannot be the image of some letter in $\{x, y, z, u\}$. Assume first $\beta \alpha = f(x) = abc$. Then there are three cases, namely $(\beta, \alpha) = (abc, \varepsilon)$, $(\beta, \alpha) = (ab, c)$ and $(\beta, \alpha) = (a, bc)$. In all cases, \mathbf{y} contains one of the words xsxs, usxs, sxsz, sxsx, but none of them appears as a factor in \mathbf{y} .

Consider now the case $\beta \alpha = f(z) = abcb$. Then, arguing as before, y contains as factor one of the words szsz, yszsx, zszs, which is impossible.

The two cases $\beta \alpha = f(y)$ and $\beta \alpha = f(u)$ are handled by exchanging b and c. The proof is complete.

We now go one step further. Consider a two-sided infinite word \mathbf{y} over the letters x, y, z, u that is in the set \mathcal{T} . The letters following some occurrence of z in \mathbf{y} give rise to the following ramification

Figure No. 8

This shows that a word $y \in \mathcal{T}$ can be factorized into a product of words

$$zuyxu = A$$

$$zu = B$$

$$zuy = C$$

$$zxu = D$$

$$zxy = E$$

Again, the set $Z = \{A, B, C, D, E\}$ is a code, and the factorization of \mathbf{y} is unique. The word \mathbf{y} has no factor in the set

$$\mathcal{G} = \{AB, AD, BA, BC, CA, CD, CE, DB, DE, EC, ED, BEB, EBE, DAC, DCBD, CBDC\}.$$

Also, y has no square of the form tt, with t in Z^* . Indeed,

```
ABz = zuyxuzuz
      ADz = zuyxuzxuz
       BA = BByxu
       BC = BBy
       CA = CCxu
       CD = zuyzxu
       CE = zuyzxy
      DBz = zxuzuz
      uDE = uzxuzxy
     ECzu = zxyzuyzu
       ED = zxyzxu
  yBEBzx = yzuzxyzuzx
   uEBEz = uzxyzuzxyz
     DAC = zxuzuyxuzuy
 BDCBDA = BDzuyBDzuyxu
ACBDCBE = zuyxuCBzxuCBzxy
```

We also observe that the word \mathbf{y} has no factor of the form tAt with $t \in Z^*$, $t \neq \varepsilon$, $t \neq E$, and no factor of the form tBt with $t \in Z^*$, $t \neq \varepsilon$. Furthermore, any factor \mathbf{y} of the form tCt or tDt, with $t \in Z^*$, $t \neq \varepsilon$, can be preceded and followed only by a E, and any factor of the form tEt can be preceded and followed only by a C.

Next, the word y has at least one occurrence of B, which implies the ramification

Figure No. 9

This shows that the word y is a product of the words

$$BDAEAC = A'$$

$$BDC = B'$$

$$BDAE = C'$$

$$BEAC = D'$$

$$BEAE = E'$$

In other words, this leads to consider a new alphabet $Y = \{A, B, C, D, E\}$ and a morphism

$$\omega: Y^* \to Y^*$$

defined by

$$A \mapsto BDAEAC$$

$$B \mapsto BDC$$

$$\omega : C \mapsto BDAE$$

$$D \mapsto BEAC$$

$$E \mapsto BEAE$$

and a second morphism $h: Y^* \to T^*$ defined by

$$\begin{array}{c} A \mapsto zuyxu \\ B \mapsto zu \\ h : C \mapsto zuy \\ D \mapsto zxu \\ E \mapsto zxy \end{array}$$

(Remember also the morphism $f: T^* \to \{a, b, c\}^*$ defined at page 45 by

$$\begin{array}{c} x \mapsto abc \\ y \mapsto acb \\ z \mapsto abcb \\ u \mapsto acbc \end{array}$$

and which is intended to give words of type (II)!)

Define a set \mathcal{Y} of two sided infinite words over the alphabet Y by the conditions that they are square-free, and that they have no factor in the set

```
\mathcal{G} = \{AB, AD, BA, BC, CA, CD, CE, DB, DE, EC, ED, BEB, EBE, DAC, DCBD, CBDC\}.
```

We can restate the observation made above by saying that any infinite word \mathbf{x} in \mathcal{T} is of the form $\mathbf{x} = h(\mathbf{y})$ for some word in \mathcal{Y} . The following statement is concerned with \mathcal{Y} :

PROPOSITION 5.3. (Satz 23) For any word \mathbf{y} in \mathcal{Y} , there is a word \mathbf{z} in \mathcal{Y} such that $\mathbf{y} = \omega(\mathbf{z})$.

Proof. We have seen already that there is an infinite word \mathbf{z} over the alphabet Y such that $\mathbf{y} = \omega(\mathbf{z})$. Clearly, \mathbf{z} is square-free. Next,

```
A'B' = BDAEACBDC
       A'D'B = BDAEACBEACB
        B'A' = BDCBDAEAC
        B'C' = BDCBDAE
        C'A' = BDAEBDAEAC
        C'D' = BDAEBEAC
        C'E' = BDAEBEAE
        D'B' = BEACBDC
       ED'E = EBEACBEAE
       CD'E' = CBEACBEAE
     E'C'BD = BEAEBDAEBD
      E'C'BE = BEAEBDAEBE
        E'D' = BEAEBEAC
 EB'E'B'BEA = EB'BEAEB'BEA
  CE'B'E'BD = CE'BDCE'BD
      D'A'C' = BEACBDAEACBDAE
 B'D'C'B'D'A' = B'D'BDAEB'D'BDAEAC
A'C'B'D'C'B'E' = BDAEACC'B'BEACC'B'BEAE
```

This proves the claim¹⁶.

The converse of the preceding proposition is more involved:

THEOREM 5.4. (Satz 24) If z is a word in \mathcal{Y} , then $y = \omega(z)$ is in \mathcal{Y} .

¹⁶A. Thue says. In fact, one must check that the words in the right column cannot appear as factors in z. For instance, the first of these words ends with CBDC which is in the forbidden set \mathcal{G} .

Proof. The proof is by contradiction. It is easily seen that \mathbf{y} has no factor in the set \mathcal{G} . It remains to prove that \mathbf{y} is square-free. Assume the contrary, and let ww be a square in \mathbf{y} . Then w contains at least one occurrence of the letter B. In fact, w contains at least two occurrences of the letter B, since otherwise ww contains only two B's, which means that ww is a factor of a word $\omega(u)$ where u is a factor of length 3 of \mathbf{z} . Now, since \mathbf{z} is in \mathcal{Y} , the factors of length 3 are ACB, AEA, AEB, BDA, BDC, BEA, CBD, CBE, DAE, DCB, EAC, EAE, EBD. It is easily checked that none of the images, by ω , of these words contain a square.

Thus w is of the form $w = \alpha t \beta$, where $t = \omega(s)$ for some nonempty factor s of \mathbf{z} , and where β and α are such that $\beta \alpha = \omega(N)$ for some letter N in Y, and furthermore there exist letters M, P in Y and words γ , δ such that $\gamma \alpha = \omega(M)$, $\beta \delta = \omega(P)$. In other words, setting

$$u = MsNsP$$

one has

$$\omega(u) = \gamma w w \delta, \quad w = \alpha \omega(s) \beta.$$

Since u is square-free, one has $M \neq N \neq P$. A last notation: we set $U = \omega(Y)$. The set U is a suffix code.

We first rule out the cases where $\beta = \varepsilon$ or $\alpha = \varepsilon$. If $\beta = \varepsilon$, then $\omega(N)$ is a suffix of $\omega(M)$. Since the code U is a suffix code, this implies M = N, a contradiction. Thus $\beta \neq \varepsilon$. If $\alpha = \varepsilon$, then N = C and P = A because only $\omega(C)$ is a prefix of $\omega(A)$. The only letter which can precede both C and A is D, and the only letter which can follow C is B. Thus s starts with B and ends with D, and the second letter of s (which is either D or E) is E since otherwise u contains the factor DCBD. Since s starts with BE, the initial letter M of u (which is either C or E) cannot be the letter E. Thus M = C, and M = N, a contradiction.

We now examine the possibilities for the letter N, and show that they all lead to a contradiction.

(i) N = A. Then $\beta \alpha = BDAEAC$. Since α is a suffix of another word in U, and α is a prefix of another word in U, the only factorizations are

$$(\beta, \alpha) = (BDA, EAC), \qquad (\beta, \alpha) = (BDAE, AC)$$

which both lead to M = D, P = C. But this implies that s starts with C and ends with D. Thus, u contains the factor DAC which is in \mathcal{G} , contradiction.

(ii) N = B. Here $\beta \alpha = BDC$, and in fact $\beta = BD$, $\alpha = C$ since DC is not a suffix of another word in U. Thus M = A or M = D (and P = A or P = C).

If M = A, then v = AsBs is a factor of **z**. The first letter of s is E, and since EBE is not a factor, the last letter of s is C. Since C is only followed by B, this implies that P = B, which is impossible.

If M = D, then v = DsBs is a factor of **z**. However, there is no letter that can follow both D and B in a factor of **z**, thus this case is impossible.

(iii) N=C. Here $\beta\alpha=BDAE$. It follows that M=E and P=A or P=B. The second case is ruled out by the fact that there is no letter preceding both B and C. Thus u=EsCsA. The first letter of s is B, and the last letter of s is D (the only letter that can precede both C and A). This shows that s has length at least 2. The second letter of s is not s, because s is not a factor, thus it is s. But this shows that s has lactor of s, and this is impossible since s is s.

(iv) N=D. Here $\beta\alpha=BEAC$. The possible factorizations are $(\beta,\alpha)=(B,EAC)$, or =(BE,AC), in which case M=A, and $(\beta,\alpha)=(BEA,C)$, in which case M=A or M=B and P=E.

Assume first that M = A, whence u = AsDsP. The first letter of s is C, and the last letter of s is B. Thus s has length at least 2. The second to last letter of s is either C or E. It cannot be C since otherwise u contains the factor CBDC. Thus s ends with EB, and this implies that P = D, because EBE is not a factor. But then u contains a square, contradiction.

Assume now u = BsDsE. This is impossible because there is no letter that can follow both a B and a D in \mathbf{z} .

(v) N=E. Since $\beta\alpha=BEAC$, the possible factorizations are $(\beta,\alpha)=(BE,AE)$ or =(BEA,E) and both lead to M=C and P=D. Thus u=CsEsD. Since D is preceded only by B, the last letter of s is B. Since C is only followed by B, the first letter of s is B. Thus u contains the factor BEB, a contradiction.

The proof is complete.

For the characterization of words of type (II), there remains to prove that if \mathbf{y} is an infinite word in \mathcal{Y} , then $h(\mathbf{y})$ is in \mathcal{T} . For this, we need a lemma.

LEMMA 5.5. (Satz 25) A word y in Y has no factor of the form wAwC, DwAw, wEwD, CwEw, wDw, wCw, wBw, with w a nonempty word.¹⁷

Proof. We argue by induction on the length of w, and show that if a word \mathbf{y} in \mathcal{Y} has a factor wAwC, then there is a word \mathbf{y}' in \mathcal{Y} that has a factor DvAv with v shorter than w. The other proofs are similar.

Assume there is a word \mathbf{y} in $\mathbf{\mathcal{Y}}$ that has a factor wAwC with $w \neq \varepsilon$. Then w ends with a D, and since AD is not a factor, $w = w_1D$ with $w_1 \neq \varepsilon$. Since DA can only be followed by the letter E, the word w_1 starts with E; thus $w_1 = Ew_2$, and $w_2 \neq \varepsilon$ because ED is not a factor. Now the letter preceding

The factor wBw is added here by the translator. It is implicit in the proof of the next Satz.

D in $wAwC = Ew_2DAEw_2DC$ is B, whence $w_2 = w_3B$. If $w_3 = \varepsilon$, then wAwC = EBDAEBDC, and there is no letter that can precede this word in \mathbf{y} . If $w_3 \neq \varepsilon$, we observe that the letter preceding the leftmost E cannot be A since this gives a square, and therefore is a B. Moreover, this initial BE can only be followed by A. Thus $w_3 = Aw_4$ for some w_4 , and we get a factor

$$BwAwC = BEAw_4BDAEAw_4BDC$$

Now, recall that $U = \omega(Y) = \{A', B', C', D', E'\}$. The decomposition shows that w_4 starts with the letter C, and since CBDC is not a factor, $w_4 \neq C$, so that

$$BwAwC = D'w'A'w'B'$$

for some w' in U^* , and $w' \neq \varepsilon$. Thus $w' = \omega(v)$ for some v, and DvAv is a factor of some word in \mathcal{Y} .

The argument is similar in the other cases, and we¹⁸ only give the basic steps. Assume that \mathbf{y} contains a factor DwAw for some nonempty word w. Then it contains also the following factors:

 $DC w_1 A C w_1$ $DC B w_2 A C B w_2$ $DC B w_3 E A C B w_3 E B$

This shows that \mathbf{y} contains a factor of the form B'w'A'w'C', for some $w' \in U^*$. Thus some word in \mathcal{Y} contains a factor of the form BvAvC, and since BA is not a factor, $v \neq \varepsilon$.

Assume now that y contains a factor

CwEw

for some nonempty word w. Then it contains also the following factors.

 $CBw_1EBw_1 \\ CBw_2AEBw_2A \\ CBw_2AEBw_2ACB$

This shows that \mathbf{y} contains a factor of the form w'E'w'D', for some $w' \in U^*$. Thus some word in \mathcal{Y} contains a factor of the form vEvD, and since ED is not a factor, $v \neq \varepsilon$.

Symmetrically, assume that y contains a factor

wEwD

¹⁸and Axel Thue

for some nonempty word w. Then it contains also the following factors:

 $w_1BEw_1BD \ Aw_2BEAw_2BD \ BDAw_2BEAw_2BD$

This shows that \mathbf{y} contains a factor of the form C'w'E'w', for some $w' \in U^*$. Thus some word in \mathcal{Y} contains a factor of the form CvEv, and since CE is not a factor, $v \neq \varepsilon$.

Assume now that y contains a factor

wDw

for some nonempty word w. Then it contains also the following factors.

 $w_1BDw_1BE \ w_2CBDw_2CBE \ Aw_3CBDAw_3CBE \ EAEw_4CBDAEw_4CBE$

This shows that \mathbf{y} contains a factor of the form E'w'C'w', for some nonempty $w' \in U^*$. Thus some word in \mathcal{Y} contains a factor of the form EvCv, for some $v \neq \varepsilon$.

Assume next that y contains a factor

wCw

for some nonempty word w. Then it contains also the following factors.

 $EBw_1CBw_1\\EBDw_2CBDw_2\\EBDw_3ACBDw_3AE$

This shows that \mathbf{y} contains a factor of the form w'D'w'E', for some nonempty $w' \in U^*$. Thus some word in \mathcal{Y} contains a factor of the form vDvE, for some $v \neq \varepsilon$.

Assume finally that y contains a factor

wBw

for some nonempty word w. Then it contains also the following factors.

 $w_1 E B w_1 E A$ $D w_2 E B D w_2 E A$

and since a letter D can only be preceded by a B, the word \mathbf{y} contains a square, contradiction. The proof is complete.

Theorem 5.6. (Satz 26) For all $y \in \mathcal{Y}$, the word h(y) is in \mathcal{T} .

Proof. Let $\mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{Y}$. It is easily seen that the word $\mathbf{t} = h(\mathbf{y})$ has no factors of the form

(the last because CE is not a factor of \mathbf{y}). It remains to show \mathbf{t} has no factors of the form

for $w \neq \varepsilon$, and that it is square-free.

Recall that the set $Z = \{zuyxu, zu, zuy, zxu, zxy\} = h(Y)$ is a suffix code, and since every word in Z starts with the letter z, it has deciphering delay 1.

Assume first that **t** contains a factor

wxwz

for some nonempty word w. Then it contains

$$w_1 y x w_1 y z$$

because the only letter in T that can precede both x and z is y. Inspection of Z shows that the factor yx appears only in zuyxu = h(A). Thus w_1 starts with u, and \mathbf{t} contains the factor

$$uw_2yxuw_2yz$$

Moreover, w_2 is nonempty because xu is only followed by z. Thus t contains

$$uw_3h(A)w_3h(C)z$$

where $w_3 = h(W)$ for some word $W \in Y^*$. If $W \neq \varepsilon$, this contradicts the preceding lemma, and if $W = \varepsilon$, the word **t** contains uh(AC), which implies that **y** contains AAC, BAC or DAC. All these cases are impossible.

Assume now that t contains a factor

wywu

for some nonempty word w. Then it contains

$$w_1 x y w_1 x u$$

with $w_1 \neq \varepsilon$, and also

$$zw_2xyzw_2xu$$

and $w \neq \varepsilon$ since otherwise **t** contains a factor h(ED). By inspecting Z, one sees that a factor xy is preceded by a z. Thus **t** contains a factor

 zw_3zxyzw_3zxu

Thus $zw_3 = h(W)$ for some nonempty word $W \in Y^*$, and WEWD is a factor of \mathbf{y} , contradiction.

Assume next that t contains a factor

$$q = zwyw$$

for some nonempty word w. Then it contains

$$zx w_1 yx w_1$$

with $w_1 \neq \varepsilon$ because xyx is not a factor. But w_1 starts with u, and zxw_1 ends with zu. Thus $w_1 = uw_2zu$ for some w_2 , and the factor q is

$$zxuw_2zuyxuw_2zu = h(DWAWN)$$

for some word $W \in Y^*$ and some letter $N \in \{A, B, C\}$. In view of the lemma, $W = \varepsilon$. But **y** is square-free and has neither AB nor DAC as a factor. Contradiction.

Assume next that t contains a factor

$$q = uwxw$$

for some nonempty word w. Then it contains

$$uyw_1xyw_1$$

and w_1 ends with a letter z. Thus

$$q = uyw_2zxyw_2z$$

showing that **t** contains a factor CWEW for some word $W \in Y^*$, which is impossible.

We now prove that \mathbf{t} is square-free, arguing by contradiction. Assume that ww is a square factor of \mathbf{t} . Clearly, w contains at least one occurrence of the letter z. In fact, it contains two occurrences of z, since otherwise ww would be a factor of a word of the form h(s), where $s \in Y^*$ has length 3. Now, the factors of length 3 of \mathbf{y} are

$$ACB, AEA, AEB, BDA, BDC, BEA, CBD, CBE, DAE, DCB, EAC, EAE, EBD$$

and their images are all easily checked to be square-free.

It follows that, as in the proof of Satz 24, there is a factorization

$$w = \alpha t \beta$$

and words γ, δ where

$$t = h(s), \ s \in Y^*, \ s \neq \varepsilon,$$
$$\beta \alpha = h(N), \ \gamma \alpha = h(M), \ \beta \delta = h(P), \ M, N, P \in Y$$

and

$$\gamma ww\delta = h(MsNsP)$$

Of course $M \neq N \neq P$. If $\beta = \varepsilon$ then as above M = N because Z is a suffix code. Next, we observe that, by the lemma, the letter N is neither B, C, nor D. If $\alpha = \varepsilon$, then h(N) is a prefix of h(P), and this would imply that N is B or C which just was ruled out. Let us consider the remaining cases.

- (i) N = A. The $\beta \alpha = zuyxu$, and the only possibility is in fact $(\beta, \gamma) = (zuy, xu)$. This implies that M = D, in contradiction with the fact that \mathbf{y} has no factor of the form DsAs.
- (ii) N = E. Either $(\beta, \alpha) = (z, uy)$ and M = E or $(\beta, \alpha) = (zu, y)$ and P = D. The first case yields a square, and the second contradicts the lemma.

3.6 Third Case : aba and bab are missing

15.— We shall call a word over a, b, c that both is square-free and has no factor of the form aba and bab a word of type (III).

In this case, we obtain the ramification:

Figure No. 10

As in the second case, we consider an alphabet $T = \{x, y, z, u\}$, a set of words \mathcal{F} over T defined by

$$\mathcal{F} = \{wxwz, wywu, zwyz, uwxw \mid w \in T^*\} \cup \{xyx, yxy, xuy, yzx\}$$

and we denote by \mathcal{T} the set of two sided infinite words over T that are square-free and that have no factor in \mathcal{F} .

Here, we introduce a morphism g from T^* into $\{a, b, c\}^*$ defined by

$$g : \begin{array}{c} x \mapsto ca \\ y \mapsto cb \\ z \mapsto cab \\ y \mapsto cba \end{array}$$

In view of the ramification given above, every word \mathbf{x} of type (III) admits a unique inverse image by g: i. e. there is a unique infinite word \mathbf{t} over T such that $g(\mathbf{t}) = \mathbf{x}$. We observe the following

FACT. If $\mathbf{x} = q(\mathbf{t})$ is of type (III), then \mathbf{t} is in \mathcal{T} .

Proof. It suffices to show that **t** is square-free (this is clear) and that it has no factor in the set \mathcal{F} . And indeed, since g(z) = g(x)b and g(u) = g(y)a, the words g(wxwz) and g(wywu) contain squares. Next,

$$g(zwyw)c = cabg(w)cbg(w)c$$

$$g(uwxw)c = cbag(w)cag(w)c$$

$$g(xyx)cb = cacbcacb$$

$$g(yxy)ca = cbcacbca$$

$$g(yzx) = cbcabca$$

$$g(xyy) = cacbacb$$

This proves the claim.

Recall that, for infinite words of type (II), we considered above (page 45) the morphism f from T^* into $\{a, b, c\}^*$ defined by

$$f : \begin{array}{c} x \mapsto abc \\ y \mapsto acb \\ z \mapsto abcb \\ u \mapsto acbc \end{array}$$

In view of Satz 22, we obtain directly:

THEOREM 6.1. (Satz 27) If \mathbf{x} is a word of type (III), then $f(g^{-1}(\mathbf{x}))$ is a word of type (II).

The converse also holds. For the proof, we give an alternative construction. Introduce a new morphism \bar{f} from T^* into $\{a,b,c\}^*$ defined by

$$\begin{array}{ccc} x \mapsto cba \\ \bar{f} \ : \ \begin{array}{c} x \mapsto cab \\ z \mapsto cbab \\ u \mapsto caba \end{array}$$

obtained from f by exchanging the letters a and c. Then for y of type (II) (i.e. without factors cbc and cac), the word

$$\mathbf{x} = g(\bar{f}^{-1}(\mathbf{y}))$$

is obtained from \mathbf{y} by deleting each letter that follows immediately an occurrence of c in \mathbf{y} .

THEOREM 6.2. (Satz 28) If \mathbf{y} is a word of type (II), (i. e. is square-free and without factors cbc and cac), then $g(\bar{f}^{-1}(\mathbf{y}))$ is a word of type (III).

Proof. Set $\mathbf{x} = g(\bar{f}^{-1}(\mathbf{y}))$. It is straighforward that \mathbf{x} has no factor of the form aba and bab. Assume that \mathbf{x} contains a square ww. Clearly, w contains at least one occurrence of the letter c. Setting $X = \{ca, cb, cab, cba\}$, we may decompose

$$w = \gamma v c \beta$$

with $v \in X^*$ and $\gamma, \beta \in \{a, b\}^*$. Then

$$ww = \gamma v c \beta \gamma v c \beta$$

and $c\beta\gamma \in X$. If $\beta \neq \varepsilon$, we may assume that β starts with the letter b. Then there is in \mathbf{y} a factor

$$\gamma u c a \beta \gamma u c a \beta$$

with u mapping on v. But this factor contains a square, contradiction. Thus $\beta = \varepsilon$. Again, we may assume that γ starts with b, so $\gamma = b$ or $\gamma = ba$. Then

$$ww = bvcbvc$$
 or $ww = bavcbavc$

Thus y contains a factor of the form

bucabuc or abaucabauc

with u mapping on v. In the second case, we obtain a square. In the first case, the initial letter is preceded, in y, by the letter a, so again there is a square. This completes the proof.

16.— Finally, we observe:

THEOREM 6.3. (Satz 29) Let

$$\mathbf{x} = x_0 x_1 x_2 \cdots$$

be an infinite square-free word over three letters. Then there exists a factorization

$$\mathbf{x} = u\mathbf{y}$$

such that y has no prefix of the form waw, where a is a letter and w is a nonempty word.

For the proof, it will be convenient to set $\mathbf{x}_i = x_i x_{i+1} \cdots$ for $i \geq 0$. We argue by contradiction, and assume that any \mathbf{x}_i admits a prefix of the form waw, with a a letter and w a nonempty word.

LEMMA 6.4. Let u be a nonempty factor of \mathbf{x}_1 , and let a be a letter such that au is not a factor of \mathbf{x} . If

$$uz = wdwy$$

is a factor of \mathbf{x} for some words $z, w \neq \varepsilon, y$ and some letter d, then d = a and |w| < |u|.

Proof. Let c be the first letter of u. Since u is a factor of \mathbf{x}_1 , there is a letter b such that bu is a factor of \mathbf{x} , and $b \neq c$, $b \neq a$. By assumption

$$buz = bwdwy$$
.

Since **x** is square-free, $d \neq b$, and since u (hence w) starts with the letter c, one has $d \neq c$. Thus d = a. Next, if $|w| \geq |u|$, then dw starts with au and au is a factor of **x**, a contradiction.

The proof of the theorem is by repeated application of the lemma. We first prove that a specific word cannot be a factor, and then, slicing the initial letters, reduce this word to a short word that must appear in \mathbf{x} .

(i) The word u = abcacbabca is not a factor of \mathbf{x}_2 .

Indeed, observe first that u = vcbv with v = abca. Thus cbu is not a factor of \mathbf{x} . This implies that bu is not a factor of \mathbf{x}_1 because bu can be preceded neither by a nor by b. Since u is a factor and bu is not, the assumptions of the theorem and the lemma show that there are words $z, w \neq \varepsilon, y$ such that

$$uz = wbwy$$

Since u has 3 occurrences of the letter b and |w| < |u|, one has w = a, w = abcac, or w = abcacba. The first and the last case are immediately ruled out. In the second case, wbw = uc = vcbvc, and since this factor is always followed by a b, this also is impossible.

(ii) Set $u_1 = cacbabca$ (i.e. $u = abu_1$). Then u_1b is not a factor of \mathbf{x}_4 . We show that bu_1b is not a factor of \mathbf{x}_3 . The result follows because any occurrence of u_1 is preceded by a b. Assume bu_1b is a factor. Since abu_1b is not a factor, we may apply the lemma. A factorization

$$bu_1bz = wawy$$

with $|w| < |bu_1b|$ implies w = bcacbabc (the two other cases are clearly impossible). But then waw contains the square abcabc.

(iii) Set $u_2 = acbabca$ (i.e. $u_1 = cu_2$). Then u_2b is not a factor of \mathbf{x}_5 . Indeed, since cu_2b is not a factor, the equation

$$u_2bz = wcwy$$

implies w = a or w = acbab, and both are impossible.

(iv) Set $u_3 = cbabca$ (i.e. $u_2 = au_3$.) Then u_3b is not a factor of \mathbf{x}_6 . Indeed, since au_3b is not a factor, we obtain the equation $u_3bz = wawy$ with $|w| < |u_3b|$ which clearly is impossible.

- (v) Set $u_4 = babca$ (i.e. $u_3 = cu_4$.) Then u_4b is not a factor of \mathbf{x}_7 . Indeed, otherwise we get the equation $u_4bz = wcwy$, whence w = bab, a contradiction.
- (vi) Set $u_5 = abca$ (i.e. $u_4 = bu_5$.) Then u_5b is not a factor of \mathbf{x}_8 . Indeed, otherwise we get the equation $u_5bz = wbwy$, whence w = a, a contradiction.
- (vii) Set $u_6 = bca$ (i.e. $u_5 = au_6$.) Then u_6b is not a factor of \mathbf{x}_9 . Indeed, otherwise we get the equation $u_6bz = wawy$, whence w = bc, a contradiction.
- (viii) Set $u_7 = ca$ (i.e. $u_6 = bu_7$.) Then u_7b is not a factor of \mathbf{x}_{10} . Indeed, otherwise we get the equation $u_7bz = wbw$ which has no solution.

Thus, we have shown that cab is not a factor of \mathbf{x}_{10} . But we have seen earlier that every square-free word of length at least 31 over three letters contains any factor of length 3 compose of the three letters. This leads to the desired contradiction and proves the theorem.

3.7 Irreducible words over four letters

17.— According to our general definition, a word w over a four letter alphabet is called irreducible if any two distinct occurrences of a same factor in w are separated by at least two letters. For simplicity, we consider here only twosided infinite words.

Let $A = \{a, b, c, d\}$ be a four-letter alphabet, and let $B = \{x, y, z, u, v, w\}$ be a six-letter alphabet. Consider a morphism $f: A^* \to B^*$ defined by

 $egin{array}{ll} x &\mapsto abcad \ y &\mapsto acbad \ z &\mapsto bacbd \ u &\mapsto bcabd \ v &\mapsto cabcd \ w &\mapsto cbacd \end{array}$

The set $X = \{f(x), f(y), f(z), f(u), f(v), f(w)\}$ is a comma-free code, because the letter d occurs only at the end of each codeword. Moreover, the code has another interesting property¹⁹. A word α is called a *characteristic* prefix of $x \in X$ if α is a prefix of x and if no other codeword in X has α as a prefix.

¹⁹See also earlier.

A symmetric definition holds for characteristic suffixes. The code X has the property that, for any $x \in X$ and any factorization $x = \alpha h \beta$, with $h \in A$, either α or β is characteristic for x.

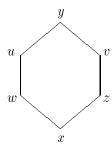
Set

$$H = \{xz, xw, yu, yv, zx, zv, uy, uw, vy, vz, wx, wu\}$$

and

$$\mathcal{H} = f(H) = \{ f(h) \mid h \in H \}$$

Write the letters of the alphabet on the vertices of a polygon as follows:



Then the set H is composed of pairs of adjacent letters. It is easily verified that all words in \mathcal{H} are irreducible.

THEOREM 7.1. (Satz 30) Let \mathbf{x} be a two-sided infinite word over B such that all its factors of length 2 are in \mathcal{H} . If \mathbf{x} is square-free, then $f(\mathbf{x})$ is irreducible.

Proof. Assume that the word $\mathbf{y} = f(\mathbf{x})$ is reducible. Then \mathbf{y} contains a factor tkt, where $|k| \leq 1$. Assume first that t has a factor that is in the code X. Then there are words α, β and $s \in X^*$, $s \neq \varepsilon$ such that $t = \beta s\alpha$, and moreover $\alpha k\beta \in X$, i.e. setting $q = \alpha k\beta$,

$$tkt = \beta s\alpha k\beta s\alpha = \beta sqs\alpha.$$

Since α or β is characteristic for q, either the prefix β of tkt is the suffix of an occurrence of q, or the suffix α of tkt is the prefix of an occurrence of q. Thus, either qsqs or sqsq is a factor if \mathbf{y} and \mathbf{x} contains a square.

Since tkt is not a factor of a word of \mathcal{H} , it remains to consider the case where tkt is a factor of some word $q_1q_2q_3$ in X^3 . As before, one has $\alpha k\beta = q_2$ for some words α and β , and $t = \beta\alpha$. Thus $q_1 = \gamma\beta$ and $q_3 = \alpha\delta$, and since α or β is characteristic for q_2 , it follows that $q_1 = q_2$ or $q_2 = q_3$. This is impossible and proves the theorem.

We now show how to construct twosided infinite words of the kind described in the theorem, i.e. that are square-free and have all their factors of length two in the set H. We shall see that even five letters are sufficient. It is immediately seen that at least five letters are required.

Assume that the letter w does not appear in a twosided infinite word $\mathbf x$ that both is square-free and has all its factors of length two in the set H. Then, in following the cycle in the picture, one sees that any two consecutive occurrences of the letter y are separated by u, v, vzv or vzxzv. Thus $\mathbf x$ is a product of the words yu, yv, yvzv and yvzxzv. In fact, $\mathbf x$ cannot contain the factor yvy, since otherwise it would also contain vyuyvyuy which is a square. Thus, $\mathbf x$ is a product of the three words yu, yvzv and yvzxzv. Define a morphism $\sigma: \{a, b, c\}^* \to \{x, y, z, u, v\}^*$ by

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & a \mapsto yu \\ \sigma & : & b \mapsto yvzv \\ & c \mapsto yvzxzv \end{array}$$

The word x has no factor of the form $\sigma(aba)$ or $\sigma(cbc)$, since

$$\sigma(cabac) = yvzxz(vyuyvz)(vyuyvz)xzv$$

and

$$\sigma(cbc) = yvzx(zvyv)(zvyv)zxzv$$

both contain squares.

THEOREM 7.2. (Satz 31) Let \mathbf{z} be a twosided infinite word over a, b, c that is square-free and has no factor aba and cbc^{20} . Then $\sigma(\mathbf{z})$ is a square-free word with all its factors of length 2 in the set H.

This of course implies that $f(\sigma(\mathbf{z}))$ is irreducible for every infinite word \mathbf{z} of type (I).

Proof. Set $\mathbf{y} = \sigma(\mathbf{z})$. By construction, the factors of length two of \mathbf{y} are all in H. It remains to show that \mathbf{y} is square-free. It is easily checked that the image, by σ , of any factor of length 3 of \mathbf{z} is square-free. Thus, if \mathbf{y} contains a square tt, then the shortest factor p of \mathbf{z} such that tt is a factor of $\sigma(p)$ has length at least 4. Thus, there are letters M, N, P in $\{a, b, c\}$, a word $s \in \{a, b, c\}^*$ and words $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta$ in $\{x, y, z, u, v\}^*$ such that

$$\sigma(M) = \gamma \beta, \ \sigma(N) = \alpha \beta, \ \sigma(P) = \alpha \delta, \ t = \beta \sigma(s) \alpha$$

and

$$\gamma tt\delta = \sigma(MsNsP)$$

	M	s	N	s	P
--	---	---	---	---	---

²⁰It is of type (I).

$\gamma \beta$	3	$\sigma(s)$	α	3	$\sigma(s)$	α	δ
		t			t		

If N=a or N=c, then either α or β is characteristic for N. Indeed, if N=a, then either α or β contains the letter u which appears nowhere else in the words $\{\sigma(a),\sigma(b),\sigma(c)\}$. In the second case, the same holds with the letter x. In these cases, N=M or N=P and \mathbf{z} contains a square. Thus N=b, whence $\alpha\beta=yvzv$. If α or β is empty, the word \mathbf{x} contains a square. If $\alpha=y$, then M=b, again impossible. In the two remaining cases, a square is avoided only if M=P=c. Thus \mathbf{x} contains the factor csbsc. This implies that s is not empty, and that it starts and ends with the letter a. But this in turn shows that aba is a factor of \mathbf{x} . This proves the claim.

Similar arguments show how to construct arbitrarily long circular words which are irreducible.

3.8 Irreducible words over more than four letters

We show here how to contruct, for any integer n > 4, arbitrarily long words over an alphabet with n letters such that any two occurrences of a same factor are separated by at least n-2 symbols.

We consider first the case where n is even, and set n = 2h. We consider an alphabet $\{a_1, a_2, \ldots a_n\}$. Our purpose is to build a morphism that maps a square-free word over three letters into an irreducible word over $\{a_1, a_2, \ldots a_n\}$. For this, we construct three sequences of words of special form. First, consider a sequence $u = u_0, u_1, \ldots, u_h$ of words of length n + 1 defined by

$$u = u_0 = a_1 a_2 \cdots a_{n-1} a_1 a_n$$

obtained by inserting the letter a_1 in $a_1 \cdots a_n$ between a_{n-1} and a_n . Next

$$u_k = \sigma(u_{k-1}) \qquad 1 \le k < h$$

where σ is the permutation defined by²¹

$$\sigma(a_i) = \begin{cases} a_i & \text{if } i \text{ is even} \\ a_{i+2 \bmod n} & \text{if } i \text{ is odd} \end{cases}$$

Thus

$$\begin{array}{lll} u_0 &= a_1 a_2 a_3 a_4 a_5 \cdots a_{n-1} a_1 a_n \\ u_1 &= a_3 a_2 a_5 a_4 a_7 \cdots a_1 a_3 a_n \\ u_2 &= a_5 a_2 a_7 a_4 a_9 \cdots a_3 a_5 a_n \\ & \cdots \\ u_{h-1} &= a_{n-1} a_2 a_1 a_4 a_3 \cdots a_{n-3} a_{n-1} a_n \\ u_h &= u \end{array}$$

²¹ We write improperly $j \mod n$ for $1 + (j - 1 \mod n)$.

We first prove that u_0u_1 is irreducible. This implies that every word u_ku_{k+1} $(0 \le k < h)$ is irreducible over $\{a_1, a_2, \dots a_n\}$. Any factor of length at least 2 has only one occurrence in u_0u_1 . Indeed, this is clear for the factors $a_{n-1}a_1$ and a_1a_3 . All other factors of length two contain a letter with even index which is preceded or followed by a different letter of index in its two occurrences. Next, two occurrences of the same letter are separated by at least n-2 letters.

Set

$$p = u_0 u_1 \cdot \cdot \cdot u_{h-1}$$

This is the first word we are looking for. The words p and pu are irreducible. Indeed, the same argument as before shows that only letters have more than one occurrence in p, and occurrences of the same factor of length greater than 1 in $pu = uu_1 \cdots u_{h-1}u$ are separated by at least (h-1)(h+1) letters.

A second sequence $v_0, v_1, \ldots, v_h, v_{h+1}$ of words of length n+1 is defined by $v_0 = u$ and

$$v_k = \tau(v_{k-1}) \qquad 1 \le k \le h$$

where τ is the permutation given by

$$\begin{split} \tau(a_1) &= a_2 \\ \tau(a_2) &= a_3 \\ \tau(a_i) &= \begin{cases} a_i & \text{if i is even, $i > 2$} \\ a_{i+2 \bmod n} & \text{if i is odd, $i > 1$} \end{cases} \end{split}$$

Thus

$$\begin{array}{lll} v_0 &= a_1 a_2 a_3 a_4 a_5 \cdots a_{n-1} a_1 a_n \\ v_1 &= a_2 a_3 a_5 a_4 a_7 \cdots a_1 a_2 a_n \\ v_2 &= a_3 a_5 a_7 a_4 a_9 \cdots a_2 a_3 a_n \\ v_3 &= a_5 a_7 a_9 a_4 a_{11} \cdots a_3 a_5 a_n \\ & & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & \\ v_{h-1} &= a_{n-3} a_{n-1} a_1 a_4 a_2 \cdots a_{n-5} a_{n-3} a_n \\ v_h &= a_{n-1} a_1 a_2 a_4 a_3 \cdots a_{n-3} a_{n-1} a_n \\ v_{h+1} &= u \end{array}$$

Observe that v_h and u_{h-1} are obtained one from each other by exchanging a_1 and a_2 . Next, v_0v_1 is irreducible. Indeed, two occurrences of the same letter are separated by at least n-2 letters, and the only two factors of length in v_0v_1 , namely a_2a_3 and a_1a_2 are separated by words of length n-2 and 2n-3. Thus v_0v_1 and consequently all v_kv_{k+1} for $0 \le k \le h$ are irreducible.

Our second word is

$$q = v_0 v_1 \cdot \cdot \cdot v_h$$

This word is also irreducible. Assume indeed that q contains two distinct occurrences of the same factor. If this factor has length greater than 3, then it contains one of the letters a_4, a_6, \ldots, a_n . But two occurrences of these letters are never followed or preceded by the same letter. Thus, the factor has length

at most 3, and contains none of a_4, a, \ldots, a_n . Two occurrences of this type are easily checked to be separated by a word of length at least n-2.

Finally, we consider the word

$$r = w_0 w_1 w_2 \cdots w_{h-1}$$

where each w_k is obtained from u_k by exchanging a_1 and a_2 . Since p is irreducible, so is r. Moreover, one has $v_h = w_{h-1}$ and $w_{h-1}u = v_hv_{h+1}$ is irreducible. It is convenient to write $v = v_h$.

Define a morphism $h: \{a, b, c\}^* \to \{a_1, \dots, a_n\}^*$ by

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 & a \mapsto p = uu_1 \cdots u_{h-1} \\
f : b \mapsto q = uv_1 \cdots v_{h-1} v \\
c \mapsto r = w_0 \cdots w_{h-2} v
\end{array}$$

Then the following result holds

THEOREM 8.1. (Satz 32) For every two sided infinite square-free word \mathbf{x} over $\{a, b, c\}$, the word $f(\mathbf{x})$ is irreducible.

Proof. We observe first that the words $u_{h-1}u_0$, $u_{h-1}w_0$, v_hu_0 , v_hw_0 are irreducible. Thus, in the word $\mathbf{y} = f(\mathbf{x})$, a reducible factor is not contained in the product of two of the u_i 's, v_i 's, w_i 's. Denote by S the set

$$S = \{u_0, \dots u_{h-1}, v_1, \dots, v_h, w_0, \dots, w_{h-1}\}\$$

This set is a uniform code. The fact that every codeword ends with the letter x_n shows that S is a comma-free code. Moreover, every codeword is *characterized* by its prefix of length 3.

Similarly, the set $X = \{p, q, r\}$ is a comma-free code. Moreover, in any factorization $\alpha\beta$ of a word in $x \in X$ either α or β is characteristic for x. We finally observe that if ss', with $s, s' \in S$ is a factor of some word xx', with $x, x' \in X$, then $s \neq s'$ and even s and s' have different suffixes of length 2. These suffixes are of the form aa_n and $a'a_n$ for two letters a, a' in $\{a_1, \ldots a_n\}$. If ss' is a factor of p, q or r, then $a \neq a'$. Otherwise $a = a_2$ or $a = a_3$ and $a' = a_{n-1}$. This proves the claim.

Assume now that \mathbf{y} is reducible. Thus \mathbf{y} contains a factor tgt with $|g| \leq n-3$. First observe that we can assume equality, i.e. that |g| = n-3. Indeed, if |g| < n-3, then t is not a letter, and thus, setting t = t'a and g' = ag, with a a letter, one gets the reducible factor t'g't' with a longer central word g'. The claim follows by induction on |g|.

We already mentioned that tgt cannot be contained in a factor of \mathbf{y} which is a product of two words in S.

If tgt is contained in a factor of \mathbf{y} which is a product $s_1s_2s_3$ of three words in S, then t contains an occurrence of the letter x_n , and consequently

$$s_1 s_2 s_3 = \gamma \beta \alpha q \beta \alpha \delta$$

with $t = \beta \alpha$, $s_1 = \gamma \beta$, $s_2 = \alpha g \beta$, $s_3 = \alpha \delta$. Note that $|\alpha \beta| = 4$. Since $s_1 \neq s_2$, one has $|\alpha| \leq 2$, whence $|\beta| \geq 2$. But we have seen that two consecutive words in S cannot have the same suffix of length 2.

If tgt is contained in a factor of \mathbf{y} which is a product $s_1s_2s_3s_4$ of 4 words in S, then there are words α , β , γ , δ , α' , β' such that $t = \beta\alpha$, $g = \beta'\alpha'$, and $s_1 = \gamma\beta$, $s_2 = \alpha\beta'$, $s_3 = \alpha'\beta$, $s_4 = \alpha\delta$.

s_1		s_2		s_3		s_4	
γ	β	α	β'	α'	β	α	δ
	t		g	7	7	t	

Since $n + 1 = |\alpha| + |\beta'| \le |\alpha| + n - 3$, one has $|\alpha| \ge 3$, which implies $s_2 = s_4$. But this is impossible in a word in X^* .

Thus tgt is contained in a factor of length greater that 4, and this means that $t = \beta s_1 \cdots s_m \alpha$ for words $s_1, \ldots, s_m \in S$. Let γ and δ be such that $\gamma \beta$, $\alpha \delta$ are in S. As before, there are two cases, namely either g is contained in some s, or g is overlapping over two $s \in S$. In the first case

$$\gamma t g t \delta = \gamma \beta s_1 \cdots s_m \alpha g \beta s_1 \cdots s_m \alpha \delta$$

with $\alpha g\beta \in S$, and in the second case,

$$\gamma tqt\delta = \gamma \beta s_1 \cdots s_m \alpha \beta' \alpha' \beta s_1 \cdots s_m \alpha \delta$$

with $\alpha \beta'$, $\alpha' \beta \in S$, and $g = \beta' \alpha'$.

Consider the first case. The word $\gamma \beta s_1 \cdots s_m \alpha g \beta s_1 \cdots s_m \alpha \delta$ is a product of words in $X = \{p, q, r\}$. The word x in X in this product containing $\alpha g \beta$ does not contain two equal words in S. Thus

$$x = s_j \cdots s_m \alpha g \beta s_1 \cdots s_i$$

with i < j. If i > 1, then $s_1 \cdots s_i$ is characteristic for x, and $\gamma \beta = \alpha g \beta$. If j < m, then $s_j \cdots s_m$ determines x and $\alpha g \beta = \alpha \delta$. In both cases, we get a square. If $i \le 1$ and $j \ge m$, then $x = s_m \alpha g \beta s_1$. This implies also that m > 1. Next, $s_m \alpha \delta$ is a suffix of a word y in X and $\gamma \beta s_1$ is a prefix of a word z in X. If y = x or z = x, we get a square. Thus the only remaining possibility is, because x and y share the same prefix $s_m = u$, and x and z share the same suffix $s_1 = v$, that z = r, x = q, and y = p. However q is formed of at least 4 words in S and x contains only 3. Contradiction.

The second case is very similar. Consider the word

$$\gamma \beta s_1 \cdots s_m \alpha \beta' \alpha' \beta s_1 \cdots s_m \alpha \delta.$$

Then $n+1=|\alpha\beta'|\leq |\alpha|+|g|=|\alpha|+n-3$, whence $|\alpha|\geq 4$. Thus $\alpha\beta'=\alpha\delta$. Setting $s_{m+1}=\alpha\delta$, this yields

$$\gamma \beta s_1 \cdots s_m s_{m+1} \alpha' \beta s_1 \cdots s_m s_{m+1}$$

The rest of the proof is as before.

THEOREM 8.2. (Satz 33) If every letter a_n is erased in a word $f(\mathbf{x})$ of the kind described in the previous theorem, the resulting word is irreducible over $\{a_1, \ldots, a_{n-1}\}.$

Proof. Denote by π the projection of $\{a_1, \ldots, a_n\}^*$ onto $\{a_1, \ldots, a_{n-1}\}^*$, and let $\mathbf{y} = f(\mathbf{x}), \mathbf{y}' = \pi(\mathbf{y})$. Let tgt be a reducible factor of \mathbf{y}' . Observe first that $|tgt| \geq n-1$. Indeed, t contains a letter different from a_n , and two occurrences of this letter are separated by at least n-3 letters. Next, by arguing like in the preceding proof, we may assume that |g| = n-4. This in fact implies that $|tgt| \geq n$.

The word t contains at least one ocurrence of the letter a_{n-2} . Indeed, two consecutive occurrences of a_{n-2} in \mathbf{y}' are always separated by exactly n-1 letters, and if the claim is wrong, then $|tgt| \leq n-1$.

Let w, ℓ and w' be words such that $w\ell w'$ is a factor of \mathbf{y} and $\pi(w\ell w') = tgt$, and $\pi(w) = \pi(w') = t$, $\pi(\ell) = g$. There may be several choices for these words, and we choose w and w' of maximal length (i.e. including bordering a_n 's). Since the letter a_{n-2} occurs always at the same place in words in S, namely at the forth position from the right, the equality $\pi(w) = \pi(w')$ implies that w = w'. Moreover, ℓ contains at most one occurrence of the letter a_n . This proves the result.

These theorems show that, as claimed above, there exist infinite irreducible words over n letters for all n > 4.

Chapter 4

Notes

In this chapter are grouped several notes and comments about theorems in Thue's papers. They mainly concern further results and later developments.

4.1 Square-free morphisms

All morphisms considered are supposed nonerasing. A morphism $h: A^* \to B^*$ is square-free if it preserves square-free words, that is if h(w) is square-free for all square-free words $w \in A^*$. As we shall see, the square-freeness of a morphism is decidable in general. Several conditions on a morphism ensure that it is square-free, and are easy to check. First, observe that one always can assume that h is injective on the alphabet, since if h(a) = h(b) for $a \neq b$, then h(ab) is a square.

We introduce some definitions on sets of words or on codes. These have a natural extension to morphisms: a morphism $h: A^* \to B^*$ is said to have a property P if the set h(A) has this property.

Let X be a set of words. A word p is a recognizing prefix for X (Thue says characteristic) if p is the prefix of one and only one word in X. Recognizing suffixes are defined symmetrically. As an example, a set X is a prefix code iff every $x \in X$ is a recognizing prefix for X.

A set X is a recognizing code (Goralčik, Vaniček) or a ps-code (Keränen) if, for all $x \in X$ and for every factorization x = ps, either p or s is recognizing. More formally, this condition can be expressed as:

$$ps, ps', p's \in X \Rightarrow p = p' \text{ or } s = s'$$

As a consequence, the following fact is easily shown.

FACT. A recognizing code is biprefix.

A pip (or $recognizing\ factor$) for X is a word p that is a factor of exactly one word x in X and that, moreover, has only one occurrence in x. A $Melničuk\ code$ is a set X such that every word x in X has at least one pip.

Fact. A Melničuk code is infix.

(A set X is infix if no word in X is a proper factor of another word in X.)

A word p is a synchronizing prefix (suffix) for X if $upv \in X^+$ implies $u \in X^*$ ($v \in X^*$). A code is synchronizing if, for all $x \in X$ and for every factorization x = ps, either p or s is synchronizing. A code X is bissective if it is both recognizing and synchronizing.

Fact. A bissective code is comma-free.

We now can state several results about morphisms that imply square-freeness. The first two are basically those of Thue. (Satz 17. Indeed, the restriction on the size of the alphabets is not relevant, see also Bean, Ehrenfeucht, McNulty.)

Let $h: A^* \to B^*$ be a morphism.

PROPOSITION 1.1. If h is infix and preserves square-free words of length 2, then h is comma-free.

PROPOSITION 1.2. If h is comma-free and preserves square-free words of length 3, then h is square-free.

An immediate corollary is:

COROLLARY 1.3. If h is a uniform morphism (i.e. |h(a)| = |h(b)| for $a, b \in A$), and if h preserves square-free words of length 3, then h is square-free.

PROPOSITION 1.4. If h is a bissective morphism that preserves square-free words of length 2, then h is square-free.

This result is due to Goralčik and Vaniček. As a (negative) example, consider the morphism $g: \{a, b, c\}^* \to \{a, b, c, d\}^*$ defined by

$$\begin{array}{c} a \mapsto ab \\ g: b \mapsto cb \\ c \mapsto cd \end{array}$$

given by Brandenburg. This morphism is uniform, thus infix. It preserves square-free words of length 2. It is also easily checked to be comma-free and to be synchronizing. However, g is not recognizing since in h(b) = cb, neither c nor b is recognizing, and g is not square-free since g(abc) contains a square.

Notes

There is a general criterion on morphisms that ensures square-freeness due to Crochemore. Define an integer K(h) as follows. Set

$$M(h) = \max\{|h(a)| \mid a \in A\}, \qquad m(h) = \min\{|h(a)| \mid a \in A\}.$$

Then

$$K(h) = \max\left(3, 1 + \left\lceil \frac{M(h) - 3}{m(h)} \right\rceil\right)$$

Then one has:

Theorem 1.5. If h preserves square-free words of length K(h), then h is square-free.

The next two observations make it possible to build square-free morphisms over arbitrary alphabets. Examples are given in Bean, Ehrenfeucht, McNulty, Crochemore and Brandenburg (who introduced the parallel composition).

FACT. The composition of two square-free morphisms is again square-free.

Sometimes, the parallel composition $h_1 \times h_2$ of morphisms may be useful. It is defined as follows. Let $h_1: A_1^* \to B_1^*$ and $h_2: A_2^* \to B_2^*$ be two morphisms, where $A_1 \cap A_2 = \emptyset$. The parallel composition $h_1 \times h_2: (A_1 \cup A_2)^* \to (B_1 \cup B_2)^*$ is defined by

$$h_1 \times h_2(a) = \begin{cases} h_1(a) & \text{if } a \in A_1 \\ h_2(a) & \text{if } a \in A_2 \end{cases}$$

FACT. If $B_1 \cap B_2 = \emptyset$ and if h_1 and h_2 are square-free, then $h_1 \times h_2$ is square-free.

The most difficult task is to find a square-free morphism from a four-letter alphabet into a three-letter alphabet. The example given by Bean, Ehrenfeucht, McNulty maps the letters into words of length greater than 200. Brandeburg gives (implicitly) an example of a uniform morphism of length 44. The following morphism is due to Crochemore and has length 20:

 $f: egin{array}{ll} a \mapsto abcbacabcacbacbacbacbacbcacbc \ c \mapsto abcbacbcacbacbacbacbc \ d \mapsto abcbacbcacbacbacbcacbacbc \end{array}$

The word abcbac is a synchronizing prefix for h, and the suffixes of length 14 of the four words are synchronizing suffixes. Thus h is synchronizing. Next, the prefixes of length 10 are recognizing, since they are distinct, and so are the suffixes of length 8. Thus h is bissective, and it "suffices" to check that the 12 words of length 40 obtained as images of square-free words of length 2 are square-free.

4.2 Overlap-free words

What Thue actually shows, is that a word w over the two letter alphabet $A = \{a, b\}$ is overlap-free iff $\mu(w)$ is overlap-free. Thue observes that the same result holds for circular words. More precisely, he gives a complete characterization of circular overlap-free words (Satz 13).

As a consequence of Satz 13, Thue characterizes overlap-free squares, a result that was discovered later also by [45]. T. Harju [20] gives a result which is similar, but different.

The property that the dynamical system generated by the (twosided) Thue-Morse sequence is minimal was explicitly proved by Gottschalk and Hedlund [17]. As a consequence, every factor appears with bounded gaps (is *recurrent*, in the terminology of M. Morse [28]). Axel Thue (Satz 11) only mentions that every factor appears infinitely many often.

Recall (Satz 16) that Thue characterizes all overlap-free morphisms by showing basically that there is only one. This result has been completed by P. Séébold [40], who shows that the Thue-Morse word is the only morphic overlap-free word. Thus, the infinite words \mathbf{t} and $\bar{\mathbf{t}}$ are the only infinite overlap-free words generated by iterated morphisms. There is now a simple proof of these results by Berstel and Séébold [?]. They prove that for a morphism h to be overlap-free, it suffices that h(abbabaab) is overlap-free..

The structure of onesided infinite overlap-free words is more complicated. An explicit description of the tree of infinite overlap-free words by means of a finite automaton was given by E. D. Fife and deserves a mention.

Fife defines three operators on words, say α , β , γ , and he shows that every overlap-free infinite words is the "value" of some infinite word \mathbf{f} in the three operators, provided the word \mathbf{f} is in some rational set he gives explicitely. To be more precise, let $X_n = \{u_n, v_n\}$ be the set of Morse blocs of index n and let $X = \bigcup_{n \geq 0} X_n$. Any word $w \in A^*X_1$ admits a canonical decomposition (z, y, \bar{y}) where y is the longest word in X such that $w = zy\bar{y}$. It is equivalent to say that (z, y, \bar{y}) is the canonical decomposition of w if $\bar{y}y$ is not a suffix of z. As an example, the canonical decomposition of aabaabbabaab is

and the decomposition of abaabbaabaabaabaab is

The three functions $\alpha, \beta, \gamma : A^*X_1 \to A^*X_1$, acting on the right, are defined as follows for a word $w \in A^*X_1$ with canonical decomposition (z, y, \overline{y}) :

$$\begin{split} w \cdot \alpha &= zy\bar{y} \cdot \alpha = zy\bar{y}yy\bar{y} = wyy\bar{y} \\ w \cdot \beta &= zy\bar{y} \cdot \beta = zy\bar{y}y\bar{y}\bar{y}y = wy\bar{y}\bar{y}y \\ w \cdot \gamma &= zy\bar{y} \cdot \gamma = zy\bar{y}\bar{y}y = w\bar{y}y \end{split}$$

2 Notes

Since w is a prefix of $w \cdot \alpha$, $w \cdot \beta$, and of $w \cdot \gamma$, it makes sense to define $w \cdot f$ by induction for all "words" f in B^* , with $B = \{\alpha, \beta, \gamma\}$. By continuity, $w \cdot \mathbf{f}$ is definde also for infinite words \mathbf{f} . Here are some examples:

```
ab \cdot \alpha = abaab

ab \cdot \beta = ababba

ab \cdot \gamma = abba

ab \cdot \gamma^{\omega} = \mathbf{t}

aab \cdot \alpha = aabaab = a(ab \cdot \alpha)

ab \cdot \alpha\beta\gamma = abaababbabaabbaabbaabbaab
```

Observe that the last word contains an overlap. Note also that, for $w \in A^*X_1$ and $f \in B^*$, one has $\mu(w \cdot f) = \mu(w) \cdot f = w \cdot \gamma f$. A description of an infinite word \mathbf{x} starting with ab or aab is an infinite word \mathbf{f} over B such that $\mathbf{x} = ab \cdot \mathbf{f}$ or $\mathbf{x} = aab \cdot \mathbf{f}$, according to \mathbf{x} starts with ab or aab.

PROPOSITION 2.1. Every infinite overlap-free word starting with the letter a admits a unique description.

Let

$$F = B^{\omega} - B^* I B^{\omega}$$

be the (rational) set of infinite words over B having no factor in the set

$$I = \{\alpha, \beta\}(\gamma^2)^* \{\beta\alpha, \gamma\beta, \alpha\gamma\}$$

and let G bet the set of words **f** such that β **f** is in F. Then:

THEOREM 2.2. (Fife's Theorem) Let \mathbf{x} be an infinite word over $A = \{a, b\}$.

- (i) if \mathbf{x} starts with ab, then \mathbf{x} is overlap-free iff its description is in F;
- (ii) if \mathbf{x} starts with aab, then \mathbf{x} is overlap-free iff its description is in G.

A direct consequence is the following

COROLLARY 2.3. An overlap-free word w is the prefix of an infinite overlap-free word iff w is a prefix of a word $ab \cdot f$ with $f \in W$ or of a word $aab \cdot f$ with $\beta f \in W$, where $W = B^* - B^*IB^*$.

This implies in particular a result of Restivo et Salemi [33], namely that it is decidable whether an overlap-free word is extensible into an infinite overlap-free word. Another consequence of Fife's description is the following

Corollary 2.4. The Thue-Morse word \mathbf{t} is the greatest infinite overlap-free word, in lexicographical order, that start with the letter a.

Indeed, the choice of the letters α , β , et γ implies that if $\mathbf{f} \leq \mathbf{f}'$, then $ab \cdot \mathbf{f} \leq ab \cdot \mathbf{f}'$. The greatest word in F is γ^{ω} , and this shows the corollary. A. Carpi [9] has developed a description for finite overlap-free words by means of a finite automaton. Unfortunately, his automaton is rather big (more than 300 states). J. Cassaigne [11], using a similar but different encoding, gets a much smaller automaton

Since overlap-free words have a strong structure, it seems natural to count them. The first result is due to Restivo and Salemi [33]. They prove that the number γ_n of overlap-free words over two letters grows polynomially in n (in fact slower than n^4). Kobayashi [24] has used Fife's theorem to derive the lower of the more precise bounds for γ_n :

Theorem 2.5. There are constants C_1 and C_2 such that

$$C_1 n^{\alpha} < \gamma_n < C_2 n^{\beta}$$

where $\alpha = 1.155 \dots$ and $\beta = 1.5866 \dots$

One might ask what is the "real" limit. In fact, a recent and surprising result by J. Cassaigne [11] shows that there is no limit. More precisely, he gets exact formulas for the number of overlap-free words, and setting

$$\alpha' = \sup\{r \mid \exists C > 0, \forall n, \gamma_n \ge C n^r\}$$

and

$$\beta' = \sup\{r \mid \exists C > 0, \forall n, \gamma_n \leq C n^r\}$$

he obtains:

THEOREM 2.6. One has $1.155 < \alpha' < 1.276 < 1.332 < \beta' < 1.587$.

This is to be compared with the situation for square-free words. Indeed, Brandenburg [6] proved that for the number c(n) of square-free words of length n over three letters, there are constants $c_1 \geq 1.032$ and $c_2 \leq 1.38$ such that $6c_1^n < c(n) < 6c_2^n$. Brandenburg also proves that the number of cube-free words over two letters grows exponentially.

4.3 Avoidable patterns

The overlap-freeness of the Thue-Morse sequence, and the square-freeness of the other words we have presented can be expressed in the more general framework of avoidable and unavoidable patterns in strings. This concept has been introduced in the context of equations defining algebras. Certain unavoidable words have

74 Notes

been used e.g. in [38] to characterize those finite semigroups S that are inherently nonfinitely based, in the sense that S is not a member of any locally finite semigroup variety definable by finitely many equations. It may be noticed that Axel Thue replaces his research on repetitions in strings in an even slightly more general context, since he considers avoiding patterns with constants. However, he has not stated results in this specific framework.

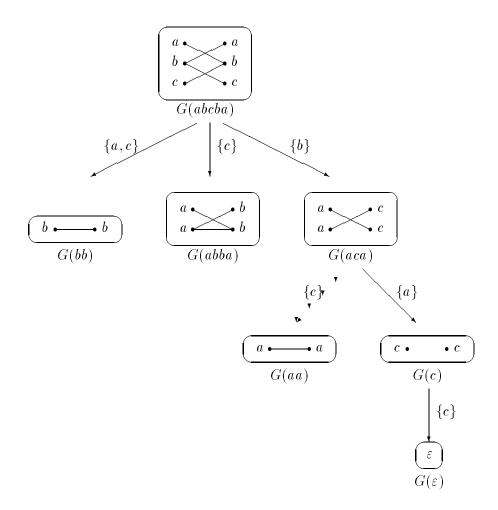
A word u is said to appear in a word v if there is a nonerasing morphism h such that h(u) is a factor of v. Clearly, if u appears in v and if v appears in w, then u appears in w. Thus, the relation of appearance is a quasi-order, and it is an order if words are considered to be equal if they are the same up to a renaming of letters.

Consider an alphabet E of "pattern symbols". A word e over E is called a pattern. A pattern e is avoidable over k letters, or is k-avoidable, if there is an infinite word \mathbf{x} over k letters such that e does not appear in \mathbf{x} . The Thue-Morse sequence shows that the patterns aaa and ababa are (simultaneously) 2-avoidable, and square-free infinite words show that aa is 3-avoidable (but not 2-avoidable). If u appears in v and if v is unavoidable, then u is unavoidable or, equivalently, if v is avoidable, then u is avoidable. Avoidable and unavoidable patterns have been studied by several people (Zimin [51], Schmidt [39], Bean, Ehrenfeucht, McNulty [5], Roth [34], Cassaigne [10], Goralcik, Vanicek [18], Baker, McNulty, Taylor [3], Crochemore, Goralcik [14]).

A first problem is to determine whether a given pattern is avoidable. There is a nice algorithm in [5], and basically the same in [51], to decide whether a pattern is avoidable. It works at follows.

Let w be a word for which one has to decide if it is avoidable, and let $A = \operatorname{alph}(w)$. One constructs a bipartite graph G(w) whose vertex set is $A_G \cup A_D$, where A_G and A_D are disjoint sets labelled with the letters in A. There is an edge from a_G to b_D iff ab is a factor of w.

EXAMPLE. For w = abcba, the graph G(w) is given below.



A subset B of A is called *free* for w if no connected component of G(w) contains both a letter of B_G and a letter of B_D . In our example, the free subsets are $\{a\}$, $\{b\}$, $\{c\}$ and $\{a,c\}$.

With these definitions, we are able to define a reduction relation as follows: $w \to w'$ iff there exists a free subset B such that $w' = \operatorname{era}_B(w)$, where era_B is the morphism that erases all letters in B and is the identity on the other letters. The following result is due to [51], and Baker, McNulty, Taylor [3]. It is contained in a slightly different form in Bean, Ehrenfeucht, McNulty [5].

Theorem 3.1. A word w is unavoidable iff $w \to^* \varepsilon$.

The complexity of this algorithm is at least exponential. P. Roth (personal communication) recently has proved that the general problem is NP-complete.

There are several easy consequences of this characterization. Call a letter a in w an isolated letter if $|w|_a = 1$, i.e. if it occurs only once in w.

Notes

COROLLARY 3.2. If w contains no isolated letter, then w is avoidable.

Indeed, if $w \to w'$ and if w' contains an isolated letter, then w contains an isolated letter.

COROLLARY 3.3. Every word w of length $|w| \ge 2^n$ over an n-letter alphabet is avoidable.

Indeed, it is not very difficult to show that such a word contains a factor without isolated letter. This bound is the best possible, because there exist unavoidable words of length $2^n - 1$ over an n-letter alphabet. This can be formulated as follows. Let $Z = \{z_1, z_2, \ldots, z_n, \ldots\}$ be a countable infinite alphabet, and define the Zimin words Z_n by

$$Z_1 = z_1, \qquad Z_n = Z_{n_1} z_n z_{n-1}, \quad n > 1$$

Thus $Z_4 = z_1 z_2 z_1 z_3 z_1 z_2 z_1 z_4 z_1 z_2 z_1 z_3 z_1 z_2 z_1$. Then

PROPOSITION 3.4. For every $n \geq 1$, the Zimin word Z_n is unavoidable. Moreover, if w is an unavoidable pattern over an n-letter alphabet, then w appears in Z_n .

The first part of the proposition has been proved by Coudrain, Schützenberger (see also Lothaire). Define a biideal sequence to be a sequence $(w_n)_{n\geq 1}$ of words such that w_1 is nonempty and, for all n>1, $w_{n+1}=w_nv_nw_n$ for some nonempty word v_n . Then Coudrain and Schützenberger state that for any fixed n, every long enough word contains an element w_n of some biideal sequence.

For an avoidable pattern e, denote by $\mu(e)$ the smallest integer k such that e is k-avoidable. We have seen that $\mu(aa)=3$. The first word that is 4-avoidable but not 3-avoidable has been given by [3]. It has the form $ab\alpha bc\beta ca\gamma ba\delta ac$. It is not known if, for every n, there exists a pattern that is n+1 avoidable but not n-avoidable. Upper bounds for μ , as a function of α are also given in [3]. Recently, Roth [34], Cassaigne [10], Goralcik, Vanicek [18] have solved the problem of determining all the 2-avoidable binary patterns. There is an unpublished result by Melničuk that states that $\mu(e) \leq \text{alph}(e) + 4$.

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80 BIBLIOGRAPH Y

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Index

biprefix, 5 symbolic dynamical system, 7 characterized, 65 tree, 21 closed, 18 uniformly recurrent, 7 comma-free, 36, 65 cube-free, 15 word, 4 word, empty, 4 deciphering delay, 54 extension, 17 factor, 4 factor-free, 36 length increasing, 5 minimal, 7 morphic word, 5 morphism, 4 Morse blocks, 6 necklace, 4 nonerasing, 5 open, 18 overlap, 4 overlap-free, 4 palindrome, 4 prefix, 4, 5 reversal, 4 right extension, 21 shift operator, 5 square, 4 square-free, 4 subshift, 7

suffix, 5