# Another Generalization of Abelian Equivalence: Binomial Complexity of Infinite Words 

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#### Abstract

The binomial coefficient of two words $u$ and $v$ is the number of times $v$ occurs as a subsequence of $u$. Based on this classical notion, we introduce the $m$-binomial equivalence of two words refining the abelian equivalence. The $m$-binomial complexity of an infinite word $x$ maps an integer $n$ to the number of $m$-binomial equivalence classes of factors of length $n$ occurring in $x$. We study the first properties of $m$-binomial equivalence. We compute the $m$-binomial complexity of the Sturmian words and of the Thue-Morse word. We also mention the possible avoidance of 2-binomial squares.


## 1 Introduction

In the literature, many measures of complexity of infinite words have been introduced. One of the most studied is the factor complexity $p_{x}$ counting the number of distinct blocks of $n$ consecutive letters occurring in an infinite word $x \in A^{\mathbb{N}}$. In particular, Morse-Hedlund theorem gives a characterization of ultimately periodic words in terms of bounded factor complexity. Sturmian words have a null topological entropy and are characterized by the relation $p_{x}(n)=n+1$ for all $n \geqslant 0$. Abelian complexity counts the number of distinct Parikh vectors for blocks of $n$ consecutive letters occurring in an infinite word, i.e., factors of length $n$ are counted up to abelian equivalence. Already in 1961, Erdős opened the way to a new research direction by raising the question of avoiding abelian squares in arbitrarily long words [6]. Related to Van der Waerden theorem, we can also mention the arithmetic complexity [1] mapping $n \geqslant 0$ to the number of distinct subwords $x_{i} x_{i+p} \cdots x_{i+(n-1) p}$ built from $n$ letters arranged in arithmetic progressions in the infinite word $x, i \geqslant 0, p \geqslant 1$. In the same direction, one can also consider maximal pattern complexity [7].

As a generalization of abelian complexity, the $k$-abelian complexity was recently introduced through a hierarchy of equivalence relations, the coarsest being abelian equivalence and refining up to equality. We recall these notions.

[^0]Let $k \in \mathbb{N} \cup\{+\infty\}$ and $A$ be a finite alphabet. As usual, $|u|$ denotes the length of $u$ and $|u|_{x}$ denotes the number of occurrences of the word $x$ as a factor of the word $u$. Karhumäki et al. [8] introduce the notion of $k$-abelian equivalence of finite words as follows. Let $u, v$ be two words over $A$. We write $u \sim_{\mathrm{ab}, k} v$ if and only if $|u|_{x}=|v|_{x}$ for all words $x$ of length $|x| \leqslant k$. In particular, $u \sim_{\text {ab, } 1} v$ means that $u$ and $v$ are abelian equivalent, i.e., $u$ is obtained by permuting the letters in $v$.

The aim of this paper is to introduce and study the first properties of a different family of equivalence relations over $A^{*}$, called $k$-binomial equivalence, where the coarsest relation coincide with the abelian equivalence.

Let $u=u_{0} \cdots u_{n-1}$ be a word of length $n$ over $A$. Let $\ell \leqslant n$. Let $t: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ be an increasing map such that $t(\ell-1)<n$. Then the word $u_{t(0)} \cdots u_{t(\ell-1)}$ is a subword of length $\ell$ of $u$. Note that what we call subword is also called scattered subword in the literature. The notion of binomial coefficient of two finite words $u$ and $v$ is well-known, $\binom{u}{v}$ is defined as the number of times $v$ occurs as a subword of $u$. In other words, the binomial coefficient of $u$ and $v$ is the number of times $v$ appears as a subsequence of $u$. Properties of these coefficients are presented in the chapter of Lothaire's book written by Sakarovitch and Simon [12, Section 6.3]. Let $a, b \in A, u, v \in A^{*}$ and $p, q$ be integers. We set $\delta_{a, b}=1$ if $a=b$, and $\delta_{a, b}=0$ otherwise. We just recall that

$$
\binom{a^{p}}{a^{q}}=\binom{p}{q},\binom{u}{\varepsilon}=1,|u|<|v| \Rightarrow\binom{u}{v}=0,\binom{u a}{v b}=\binom{u}{v b}+\delta_{a, b}\binom{u}{v}
$$

and the last three relations completely determine the binomial coefficient $\binom{u}{v}$ for all $u, v \in A^{*}$.

Remark 1. Note that we have to make a distinction between subwords and factors. A factor is a particular subword made of consecutive letters. Factors of $u$ are denoted either by $u_{i} \cdots u_{j}$ or $u[i, j], 0 \leqslant i \leqslant j<|u|$.

Definition 1. Let $m \in \mathbb{N} \cup\{+\infty\}$ and $u, v$ be two words over $A$. We say that $u$ and $v$ are $m$-binomially equivalent if

$$
\binom{u}{x}=\binom{v}{x}, \forall x \in A^{\leqslant m} .
$$

Since the main relation studied in this paper is the m-binomial equivalence, we simply write in that case: $u \sim_{m} v$.

Since $\binom{u}{a}=|u|_{a}$ for all $a \in A$, it is clear that two words $u$ and $v$ are abelian equivalent if and only if $u \sim_{1} v$. As for abelian equivalence, we have a family of refined relations: for all $u, v \in A^{*}, m \geqslant 0, u \sim_{m+1} v \Rightarrow u \sim_{m} v$.
Example 1. For instance, the four words ababbba, abbabab, baabbab and babaabb are 2-binomially equivalent. For any $w$ amongst these words, we have the following coefficients

$$
\binom{w}{a}=3,\binom{w}{b}=4,\binom{w}{a a}=3,\binom{w}{a b}=7,\binom{w}{b a}=5,\binom{w}{b b}=6 .
$$

But one can check that they are not 3-binomially equivalent, as an example,

$$
\binom{a b a b b b a}{a a b}=3 \text { but }\binom{a b b a b a b}{a a b}=4
$$

indeed, for this last binomial coefficient, $a a b$ appears as subwords $w_{0} w_{3} w_{4}$, $w_{0} w_{3} w_{6}, w_{0} w_{5} w_{6}$ and $w_{3} w_{5} w_{6}$. Considering again the first two words, we find $|a b a b b b a|_{a b}=2$ and $|a b b a b a b|_{a b}=3$, showing that these two words are not 2abelian equivalent. Conversely, the words $a b b a b a$ and $a b a b b a$ are 2-abelian equivalent but are not 2-binomially equivalent:

$$
\binom{a b b a b a}{a b}=4 \text { but }\binom{a b a b b a}{a b}=5 .
$$

This paper is organized as follows. In the next section, we present some straightforward properties of binomial coefficients and $m$-binomial equivalence. In Section 3, we give upper bounds on the number of $m$-binomial equivalence classes partitioning $A^{n}$. Section 3 ends with the introduction of the $m$-binomial complexity $\mathbf{b}_{x}^{(m)}$ of an infinite word $x$. In Section 4, we prove that if $x$ is a Sturmian word then, for any $m \geqslant 2, \mathbf{b}_{x}^{(m)}(n)=n+1$ for all $n \geqslant 0$. In Section 5 we consider the Thue-Morse word $t$ and show that, for all $m \geqslant 1$, there exists a constant $C_{m}$ such that $\mathbf{b}_{t}^{(m)}(n) \leqslant C_{m}$ for all $n \geqslant 0$. For instance, binomial coefficients of $t$ were considered in [3]. Due to space limitations, we only give details for the cases $m=2,3$. In the last section, we evoke the problem of avoiding 2 -binomial squares.

## 2 First Properties

We denote by $\mathbf{B}^{(m)}(v)$ the equivalence class of words $m$-binomially equivalent to $v$. Binomial coefficients have a nice behavior with respect to the concatenation of words.

Proposition 1. Let $p, s$ and $e=e_{0} e_{1} \cdots e_{n-1}$ be finite words. We have

$$
\binom{p s}{e}=\sum_{i=0}^{n}\binom{p}{e_{0} e_{1} \cdots e_{i-1}}\binom{s}{e_{i} e_{i+1} \cdots e_{n-1}} .
$$

We can also mention some other basic facts on $m$-binomial equivalence.
Lemma 1. Let $u, u^{\prime}, v, v^{\prime}$ be finite words and $m \geqslant 1$.

- If $u \sim_{m} v$, then $u \sim_{\ell} v$ for all $\ell \leqslant m$.
- If $u \sim_{m} v$ and $u^{\prime} \sim_{m} v^{\prime}$, then $u u^{\prime} \sim_{m} v v^{\prime}$.

Proof. Simply note for the second point that, for all $x=x_{0} \cdots x_{\ell-1}$ of length $\ell \leqslant m,\binom{u u^{\prime}}{x}$ is equal to

$$
\sum_{i=0}^{\ell}\binom{u}{x[0, i-1]}\binom{u^{\prime}}{x[i, \ell-1]}=\sum_{i=0}^{\ell}\binom{v}{x[0, i-1]}\binom{v^{\prime}}{x[i, \ell-1]}=\binom{v v^{\prime}}{x} .
$$

Remark 2. Thanks to the above lemma, we can endow the quotient set $A^{*} / \sim_{m}$ with a monoid structure using an operation $\circ: A^{*} / \sim_{m} \times A^{*} / \sim_{m} \rightarrow A^{*} / \sim_{m}$ defined by $\mathbf{B}^{(m)}(p) \circ \mathbf{B}^{(m)}(q)=\mathbf{B}^{(m)}(r)$ if the concatenation $\mathbf{B}^{(m)}(p) . \mathbf{B}^{(m)}(q)$ is a subset of $\mathbf{B}^{(m)}(r)$. In particular, one can take $r=p q$. If a word $v$ is factorized as $v=p u s$, then the $m$-equivalence class $\mathbf{B}^{(m)}(v)$ is completely determined by $p, s$ and $\mathbf{B}^{(m)}(u)$.

## 3 On the Number of $k$-Binomial Equivalence Classes

For 2- and 3-abelian equivalence, the number of equivalence classes for words of length $n$ over a binary alphabet are respectively $n^{2}-n+2$ and $\Theta\left(n^{4}\right)$. In general, for $k$-abelian equivalence, the number of equivalence classes for words of length $n$ over a $\ell$-letter alphabet is $\Theta\left(n^{(\ell-1) \ell^{k-1}}\right)$ [8]. We consider similar results for $m$-binomial equivalence (proofs can be found in [15]).

Lemma 2. Let $u \in A^{*}, a \in A$ and $\ell \geqslant 0$. We have

$$
\binom{u}{a^{\ell}}=\binom{|u|_{a}}{\ell} \quad \text { and } \quad \sum_{|v|=\ell}\binom{u}{v}=\binom{|u|}{\ell} .
$$

Lemma 3. Let $A$ be a binary alphabet, we have

$$
\#\left(A^{n} / \sim_{2}\right)=\sum_{j=0}^{n}((n-j) j+1)=\frac{n^{3}+5 n+6}{6}
$$

Proposition 2. Let $m \geqslant 2$. Let $A$ be a binary alphabet, we have

$$
\#\left(A^{n} / \sim_{m}\right) \in \mathcal{O}\left(n^{2\left((m-1) 2^{m}+1\right)}\right)
$$

We denote by $\operatorname{Fac}_{x}(n)$ the set of factors of length $n$ occurring in $x$.
Definition 2. Let $m \geqslant 1$. The $m$-binomial complexity of an infinite word $x$ counts the number of m-binomial equivalence classes of factors of length $n$ occurring in $x$,

$$
\mathbf{b}_{x}^{(m)}: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}, n \mapsto \#\left(\operatorname{Fac}_{x}(n) / \sim_{m}\right)
$$

Note that $\mathbf{b}_{x}^{(1)}$ corresponds to the usual abelian complexity denoted by $\rho_{x}^{a b}$.
If $p_{x}$ denotes the usual factor complexity, then for all $m \geqslant 1$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{b}_{x}^{(m)}(n) \leqslant \mathbf{b}_{x}^{(m+1)}(n) \quad \text { and } \quad \rho_{x}^{\mathrm{ab}}(n) \leqslant \mathbf{b}_{x}^{(m)}(n) \leqslant p_{x}(n) . \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

## 4 The $m$-Binomial Complexity of Sturmian Words

Recall that a Sturmian word $x$ is a non-periodic word of minimal (factor) complexity, that is, $p_{x}(n)=n+1$ for all $n \geqslant 0$. The following characterization is also useful.

Theorem 1. [13, Theorem 2.1.5] An infinite word $x \in\{0,1\}^{\omega}$ is Sturmian if and only if it is aperiodic and balanced, i.e., for all factors $u, v$ of the same length occurring in $x$, we have $\left||u|_{1}-|v|_{1}\right| \leqslant 1$.

The aim of this section is to compute the $m$-binomial complexity of a Sturmian word as expressed by Theorem 2 . We show that any two distinct factors of length $n$ occurring in a Sturmian words are never $m$-binomially equivalent. First note that Sturmian words have a constant abelian complexity. Hence, if $x$ is a Sturmian word, then $\mathbf{b}_{x}^{(1)}(n)=2$ for all $n \geqslant 1$.

Theorem 2. Let $m \geqslant 2$. If $x$ is a Sturmian word, then $\mathbf{b}_{x}^{(m)}(n)=n+1$ for all $n \geqslant 0$.

Remark 3. If $x$ is a right-infinite word such that $\mathbf{b}_{x}^{(1)}(n)=2$ for all $n \geqslant 1$, then $x$ is clearly balanced. If $\mathbf{b}_{x}^{(2)}(n)=n+1$, for all $n \geqslant 0$, then the factor complexity function $p_{x}$ is unbounded and $x$ is aperiodic. As a consequence of Theorem 2 , an infinite word $x$ is Sturmian if and only if, for all $n \geqslant 1$ and all $m \geqslant 2, \mathbf{b}_{x}^{(1)}(n)=2$ and $\mathbf{b}_{x}^{(m)}(n)=n+1$.

Before proceeding to the proof of Theorem 2, we first recall some well-known fact about Sturmian words. One of the two symbols occurring in a Sturmian word $x$ over $\{0,1\}$ is always isolated, for instance, 1 is always followed by 0 . In that latter case, there exists a unique $k \geqslant 1$ such that each occurrence of 1 is always followed by either $0^{k} 1$ or $0^{k+1} 1$ and $x$ is said to be of type 0 . See for instance [14, Chapter 6]. More precisely, we have the following remarkable fact showing that the recoding of a Sturmian sequence corresponds to another Sturmian sequence. Note that $\sigma: A^{\omega} \rightarrow A^{\omega}$ is the shift operator mapping $\left(x_{n}\right)_{n \geqslant 0}$ to $\left(x_{n+1}\right)_{n \geqslant 0}$.

Theorem 3. Let $x \in\{0,1\}^{\omega}$ be a Sturmian word of type 0. There exists a unique integer $k \geqslant 1$ and a Sturmian word $y \in\{0,1\}^{\omega}$ such that $x=\sigma^{c}(\mu(y))$ for some $c \leqslant k+1$ and where the morphism $\mu:\{0,1\}^{*} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{*}$ is defined by $\mu(0)=0^{k} 1$ and $\mu(1)=0^{k+1} 1$.

Corollary 1. Let $x \in\{0,1\}^{\omega}$ be a Sturmian word of type 0. There exists a unique integer $k \geqslant 1$ such that any factor occurring in $x$ is of the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
0^{r} 10^{k+\epsilon_{0}} 10^{k+\epsilon_{1}} 1 \cdots 0^{k+\epsilon_{n-1}} 10^{s} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $r, s \leqslant k+1$ and $\epsilon_{0} \epsilon_{1} \cdots \epsilon_{n-1} \in\{0,1\}^{*}$ is a factor of the Sturmian word $y$ introduced in the above theorem.

Let $\epsilon=\epsilon_{0} \cdots \epsilon_{n-1}$ be a word over $\{0,1\}$. For $m \leqslant n-1$, we define

$$
\begin{equation*}
S(\epsilon, m):=\sum_{j=0}^{m}(n-j) \epsilon_{j} \quad \text { and } \quad S(\epsilon):=S(\epsilon, n-1) \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Remark 4. Let $v=0^{r} 10^{k+\epsilon_{0}} 10^{k+\epsilon_{1}} 1 \cdots 0^{k+\epsilon_{n-1}} 10^{s}$ of the form (2), we have

$$
\binom{v}{01}=r(n+1)+\sum_{j=0}^{n-1}\left(k+\epsilon_{j}\right)(n-j)=r(n+1)+S\left(\epsilon_{0} \cdots \epsilon_{n-1}\right)+k \frac{n(n+1)}{2} .
$$

We need a technical lemma on the factors of a Sturmian word.
Lemma 4. Let $n \geqslant 1$. If $u$ and $v$ are two distinct factors of length $n$ occurring in a Sturmian word over $\{0,1\}$, then $S(u) \not \equiv S(v)(\bmod n+1)$.

Proof. Consider two distinct factors $u, v$ of length $n$ occurring in a Sturmian word $y$. For $m<n$, we define $\Delta(m):=\left|u_{0} u_{1} \cdots u_{m}\right|_{1}-\left|v_{0} v_{1} \cdots v_{m}\right|_{1}$. Due to Theorem 3, we have $|\Delta(m)| \leqslant 1$. Note that, if there exists $i$ such that $\Delta(i)=1$ then, for all $j>i$, we have $\Delta(j) \geqslant 0$. Otherwise, we would have $|v[i+1, j]|_{1}-$ $|u[i+1, j]|_{1}>1$ contradicting the fact that $y$ is balanced. Similarly, for all $j<i$, we also have $\Delta(j) \geqslant 0$.

Since $u$ and $v$ are distinct, replacing $u$ with $v$ if needed, we may assume that there exists a minimal $i \in\{0, \ldots, n-1\}$ such that $\Delta(i)=1$. From the above discussion and the minimality of $i, \Delta(j)=0$ for $j<i$ and $\Delta(j) \in\{0,1\}$ for $j>i$.

From (3), for any $j<n$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \Delta(j+1)>\Delta(j) \Rightarrow S(u, j+1)-S(v, j+1)=S(u, j)-S(v, j)+(n-j) \\
& \Delta(j+1)=\Delta(j) \Rightarrow S(u, j+1)-S(v, j+1)=S(u, j)-S(v, j) \\
& \Delta(j+1)<\Delta(j) \Rightarrow S(u, j+1)-S(v, j+1)=S(u, j)-S(v, j)-(n-j)
\end{aligned}
$$

In view of these observations, the knowledge of $\Delta(0), \Delta(1), \ldots$ permits to compute $(S(u, j)-S(v, j))_{0 \leqslant j<n}$ and we deduce that $0<S(u)-S(v)<n+1$ concluding the proof.

Proof (Proof of Theorem 2). Let $x$ be a Sturmian word of type 0 and $m \geqslant 2$. From (1), we have, for all $\ell \geqslant 0$,

$$
\mathbf{b}_{x}^{(2)}(\ell) \leqslant \mathbf{b}_{x}^{(m)}(\ell) \leqslant p_{x}(\ell)=\ell+1
$$

We just need to show that any two distinct factors of length $\ell$ in $x$ are not 2 -binomially equivalent, i.e., $\ell+1 \leqslant \mathbf{b}_{x}^{(2)}(\ell)$.

Proceed by contradiction. Assume that $x$ contains two distinct factors $u$ and $v$ that are 2-binomially equivalent. In particular, $\binom{u}{00}=\binom{v}{00}$ and $\binom{u}{11}=\binom{v}{11}$. Hence we get $|u|=|v|$ and $|u|_{1}=|v|_{1}=n$. From Corollary 1, there exist $k \geqslant 1$ and a Sturmian word $y$ such that

$$
u=0^{r} 10^{k+\epsilon_{0}} 10^{k+\epsilon_{1}} 1 \cdots 0^{k+\epsilon_{n-1}} 10^{s}, \quad v=0^{r^{\prime}} 10^{k+\epsilon_{0}^{\prime}} 10^{k+\epsilon_{1}^{\prime}} 1 \cdots 0^{k+\epsilon_{n-1}^{\prime}} 10^{s^{\prime}}
$$

where $\epsilon=\epsilon_{0} \epsilon_{1} \cdots \epsilon_{n-1}$ and $\epsilon^{\prime}=\epsilon_{0}^{\prime} \epsilon_{1}^{\prime} \cdots \epsilon_{n-1}^{\prime}$ are both factors of $y$.
Since $u \sim_{2} v$, it follows $\binom{u}{01}=\binom{v}{01}$. From Remark 4, we get

$$
r(n+1)+S(\epsilon)+k \frac{n(n+1)}{2}=r^{\prime}(n+1)+S\left(\epsilon^{\prime}\right)+k \frac{n(n+1)}{2}
$$

Otherwise stated, we get $S(\epsilon)-S\left(\epsilon^{\prime}\right)=\left(r^{\prime}-r\right)(n+1)$ contradicting the previous lemma.

## 5 The Case of the Thue-Morse Word

The Thue-Morse word $t=01101001100101101001011001101001 \cdots$ is the infinite word $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \varphi^{n}(a)$ where $\varphi: 0 \mapsto 01,1 \mapsto 10$. The factor complexity of the Thue-Morse word is well-known $[2,5]: p_{t}(0)=1, p_{t}(1)=2, p_{t}(2)=4$ and

$$
p_{t}(n)=\left\{\begin{array}{l}
4 n-2 \cdot 2^{m}-4 \text { if } 2 \cdot 2^{m}<n \leqslant 3 \cdot 2^{m} \\
2 n+4 \cdot 2^{m}-2 \text { if } 3 \cdot 2^{m}<n \leqslant 4 \cdot 2^{m}
\end{array}\right.
$$

and the abelian complexity of $t$ is obvious.
Lemma 5. We have $\mathbf{b}_{t}^{(1)}(2 n)=3$ and $\mathbf{b}_{t}^{(1)}(2 n+1)=2$ for all $n \geqslant 1$.
The main result of this section is the following one. It is quite in contrast with the Sturmian case because here, the Thue-Morse word exhibits a bounded $m$-binomial complexity.

Theorem 4. Let $m \geqslant 2$. There exists $C_{m}>0$ such that the $m$-binomial complexity of the Thue-Morse word satisfies $\mathbf{b}_{t}^{(m)}(n) \leqslant C_{m}$ for all $n \geqslant 0$.

For the sake of presentation, we first show that the 2-binomial complexity of the Thue-Morse word is bounded by a constant.

Theorem 5. There exists $C_{2}>0$ such that the 2-binomial complexity of the Thue-Morse word satisfies $\mathbf{b}_{t}^{(2)}(n) \leqslant C_{2}$ for all $n \geqslant 0$.

Proof. Any factor $v$ of $t$ admits a factorization of the kind $p \varphi(u) s$ with $p, s \in$ $\{0,1, \varepsilon\}$ and where $u$ is a factor of $t$. Using Remark 2, it is therefore enough to prove that, for all $n$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\#\left\{\mathbf{B}^{(2)}(v) \mid \exists u \in \operatorname{Fac}_{t}(n): v=\varphi(u)\right\} \leqslant 9 . \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Recall from the proof of Lemma 3 that the 2-binomial equivalence class of a word $v$ of length $2 n$ over a binary alphabet $\{0,1\}$ is completely determined by its length, $|v|_{0}$ and $\binom{v}{01}$, i.e.,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \#\left\{\mathbf{B}^{(2)}(v) \mid \exists u \in \operatorname{Fac}_{t}(n): v=\varphi(u)\right\} \\
= & \#\left\{\left.\left(\binom{v}{0},\binom{v}{1},\binom{v}{00},\binom{v}{01},\binom{v}{10},\binom{v}{11}\right) \right\rvert\, \exists u \in \operatorname{Fac}_{t}(n): v=\varphi(u)\right\} \\
= & \#\left\{\left.\left(|v|_{0},\binom{v}{01}\right) \right\rvert\, \exists u \in \operatorname{Fac}_{t}(n): v=\varphi(u)\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Fix $n \geqslant 1$. Consider an arbitrary factor $u=u_{0} \cdots u_{n-1} \in \operatorname{Fac}_{t}(n)$ and the corresponding factor $v=\varphi(u)=v_{0} \cdots v_{2 n-1}$ of $t$ of length $2 n$. From Lemma 5, $|v|_{0}$ takes at most three values (depending on $n$ ).

Let us compute the possible values taken by the coefficient $\binom{v}{01}$. Consider an occurrence of 01 as a subword of $v$, i.e., a pair $(i, j), i<j \leqslant n-1$, such that $v_{i} v_{j}=01$. There are two possible cases:

- If $i=2 m$ and $j=2 m+1$, for some $m \geqslant 0$, then $u_{m}=0$ because $v_{2 m} v_{2 m+1}=$ $\varphi\left(u_{m}\right)$. There are $|u|_{0}$ such occurrences.
- Otherwise, we have $i \in\{2 m, 2 m+1\}, j \in\left\{2 m^{\prime}, 2 m^{\prime}+1\right\}$ with $m^{\prime}>m$. For all $m$ (resp. $m^{\prime}$ ), exactly one letter of the factor $v_{2 m} v_{2 m+1}=\varphi\left(u_{m}\right)$ (resp. $v_{2 m^{\prime}} v_{2 m^{\prime}+1}=\varphi\left(u_{m}^{\prime}\right)$ ) is 0 and the other one is 1 . Hence, for any $i \in\{0, \ldots, n-2\}, j$ can take a value of the $n-1-i$ values in $\{i+1, \ldots, n-1\}$.

Summarizing these two cases, we have

$$
\binom{v}{01}=|u|_{0}+\sum_{i=0}^{n-2}(n-1-i)=|u|_{0}+\frac{n(n-1)}{2} .
$$

From Lemma 5, $|u|_{0}$ takes at most three values (depending on $n$ ) and therefore the same holds for $\binom{v}{01}$. Hence, the conclusion follows.

We now extend the proof of Theorem 5 . The first part is to generalize (4).
Lemma 6. Let $m, k \geqslant 1$. Assume that there exists $D$ such that, for all $n$,

$$
\#\left\{\mathbf{B}^{(m)}(v) \mid \exists u \in \operatorname{Fac}_{t}(n): v=\varphi^{k}(u)\right\} \leqslant D
$$

Then the m-binomial complexity of the Thue-Morse word $\mathbf{b}_{t}^{(m)}$ is bounded by a constant.

Proof. Let $\ell \geqslant 1$. Let $f$ be a factor of $t$ of length $\ell$. This factor is of the form ${ }^{3}$ $p v s$ where $p$ (resp. $s$ ) is a proper suffix (resp. prefix) of some $\varphi^{k}(a)\left(\right.$ resp. $\left.\varphi^{k}(b)\right)$ where $a, b$ are letters and $v=\varphi^{k}(u)$ for some factor $u$ of $t$ of length $n$. In particular, we have $|p|,|q| \leqslant 2^{k}-1$. Note that $\ell$ is of the form $n \cdot 2^{k}+r$ with $0 \leqslant r \leqslant 2\left(2^{k}-1\right)$. Hence, for a given $f$ of length $\ell$, the corresponding integer $n$ can take at most 2 values which are $\left\lfloor\ell / 2^{k}\right\rfloor-1$ and $\left\lfloor\ell / 2^{k}\right\rfloor$. From the assumption, we get

$$
\#\left\{\mathbf{B}^{(m)}(v) \mid \exists u \in \operatorname{Fac}_{t}\left(\left\lfloor\ell / 2^{k}\right\rfloor-1\right) \cup \operatorname{Fac}_{t}\left(\left\lfloor\ell / 2^{k}\right\rfloor\right): v=\varphi^{k}(u)\right\} \leqslant 2 D
$$

Finally, using Remark 2, we have $\mathbf{B}^{(m)}(f)=\mathbf{B}^{(m)}(p) \circ \mathbf{B}^{(m)}(v) \circ \mathbf{B}^{(m)}(s)$. Since $p$ and $s$ have bounded length, $\mathbf{B}^{(m)}(p)$ and $\mathbf{B}^{(m)}(s)$ take a bounded number of values. Moreover, $\mathbf{B}^{(m)}(v)$ takes at most $2 D$ values, hence $\mathbf{b}_{t}^{(m)}$ is bounded by constant.

From now on, intervals $[r, s]$ (resp. $[r, s)$ ) will be considered as intervals of integers, i.e., one should understand $[r, s] \cap \mathbb{Z}($ resp. $[r, s) \cap \mathbb{Z})$.

Aside from the idea of dealing with words of a convenient form, the second key idea of the proof of Theorem 5 is to split the set of occurrences of the subword 01 into two disjoint subsets facilitating the counting. We shall now generalize this idea for $m$-binomial complexity but some terminology is required. Let $v$ be a word. A subset $T=\left\{t_{1}<t_{2}<\ldots<t_{n}\right\} \subseteq[0,|v|)$ defines a subword denoted by $v_{T}=v_{t_{1}} v_{t_{2}} \cdots v_{t_{n}}$.

[^1]Definition 3. If $\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{m}$ are non-empty and pairwise disjoint subsets of a set $X$ such that $\cup_{i} \alpha_{i}=X$, then $\alpha=\left\{\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{m}\right\}$ is a partition of $X$. Any partition $\alpha$ of a set $X$ is a refinement of a partition $\beta$ of $X$ if every element of $\alpha$ is a subset of some element of $\beta$. In that case, $\alpha$ is said to be finer than $\beta$ (equivalently $\beta$ is coarser than $\alpha$ ) and we write $\alpha \preceq \beta$. Since $\preceq$ is a partial order, we define $a$ chain as a subset of partitions $\beta^{(1)}, \beta^{(2)}, \ldots$ of $X$ satisfying

$$
\beta^{(1)} \preceq \beta^{(2)} \preceq \cdots .
$$

A $k$-partition $\alpha=\left\{\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{m}\right\}$ of the set $[0, m k)$ is a partition into subsets $\alpha_{i}=[(i-1) k, i k)$ of size $k$. In particular, a $2^{i}$-partition is a refinement of a $2^{j}$-partition of $\left[0,2^{k}\right), i<j \leqslant k$.

Definition 4. Let $X$ be a set and $T=\left\{t_{1}<t_{2}<\ldots<t_{n}\right\}$ be a subset of $X$. A partition $\alpha=\left\{\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{m}\right\}$ of $X$ induces a partition $\alpha_{T}=\left\{\gamma_{1}, \ldots, \gamma_{r}\right\}$ of $[1, n]$ defined by

$$
i, j \in \gamma_{t} \Leftrightarrow \exists s: t_{i}, t_{j} \in \alpha_{s}
$$

Note that for two partitions $\alpha, \beta$ of $X$, if $\alpha \preceq \beta$, then $\alpha_{T} \preceq \beta_{T}$.
Example 2. Take $X=[0,7]$ and $T=\{0,2,3,5\}$. Consider the following two partitions of $X: \alpha=\{\{0,1\},\{2,3,4\},\{5,6,7\}\}$ and $\beta=\{\{0,1,2\},\{3,4,5\},\{6,7\}\}$. We get $\alpha_{T}=\{\{1\},\{2,3\},\{4\}\}$ and $\beta_{T}=\{\{1,2\},\{3,4\}\}$.

Definition 5. Let $T=\left\{t_{1}<t_{2}<\ldots<t_{n}\right\}$ and $U=\left\{u_{1}<u_{2}<\ldots<u_{n}\right\}$ be subsets of $X$. These subsets are equidistributed with respect to a partition $\alpha$ of $X$ if $\alpha_{T}=\alpha_{U}$. These subsets are equidistributed with respect to a chain $\mathfrak{C}$ of partitions of $X$ if $\alpha_{T}=\alpha_{U}$ for all $\alpha \in \mathfrak{C}$. We also say that the subsets are $\mathfrak{C}$-equidistributed.

Example 3. Consider the chain $\mathfrak{C}$ consisting of the 4 -partition $\beta=\{[0,3],[4,7]\}$ and the 2-partition $\alpha=\{[0,1],[2,3],[4,5],[6,7]\}$ of the set $[0,7]$. The subsets $T=\{0,5\}, U=\{1,2\}$ and $V=\{3,4\}$ are equidistributed with respect to the 2-partition $\left(\alpha_{T}=\alpha_{U}=\alpha_{V}=\{\{1\},\{2\}\}\right)$, but $U$ is not $\mathfrak{C}$-equidistributed to $T$ (resp. $V$ ) because $\beta_{T}=\beta_{V}=\{\{1\},\{2\}\}$ and $\beta_{U}=\{\{1,2\}\}$.

Example 4. In the last part of the proof of Theorem 5, we have considered the two possible cases for an occurrence of the subword 01 in $v$. If $T=\{i, j\}$ is a subset of $[0,|v|)$ and $\alpha$ is the 2-partition of $[0,|v|)$, then these cases correspond exactly to the two possible values $\alpha_{T}=\{1,2\}$ or $\alpha_{T}=\{\{1\},\{2\}\}$.

Let $\mathfrak{C}$ be a chain $\beta^{(1)} \preceq \beta^{(2)} \preceq \cdots$ of partitions of $X$ and $T=\left\{t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n}\right\}$ be a subset of $X$. We use nested brackets to represent the induced chain $\beta_{T}^{(1)} \preceq \beta_{T}^{(2)} \preceq$ $\cdots$ of partitions of $[1, n]$. The outer (resp. inner) brackets represent the coarsest (resp. finest) partition of $[1, n]$. As an example $\left[\left[t_{1} t_{2}\right]\right]\left[\left[t_{3}\right]\left[t_{4}\right]\right]$ represents the partition $\{\{1,2\},\{3\},\{4\}\}$ and the coarser partition $\{\{1,2\},\{3,4\}\}$. To get used to these new definitions, we consider another particular statement. (A precise and formal definition of the bracket notation is given in [15].)

Remark 5. Two subsets $T$ and $U$ of size $n$ of $X$ are equidistributed with respect to a chain $\mathfrak{C}$ of partitions of $X$ if and only if they give rise to the same notation of nested brackets. We call it the type of $T$ with respect to $\mathfrak{C}$.

Example 5 (continuing Example 3). Consider the subsets $R=\{0,1,4,7\}$ and $S=\{2,3,4,6\}$ of $[0,7]$. We have $\alpha_{R}=\alpha_{S}=\{\{1,2\},\{3\},\{4\}\}$ and $\beta_{R}=\beta_{S}=$ $\{\{1,2\},\{3,4\}\}$. Hence $R$ and $S$ are $\mathfrak{C}$-equidistributed and give both rise to the notation $\left[\left[t_{1} t_{2}\right]\right]\left[\left[t_{3}\right]\left[t_{4}\right]\right]$.

We prove the case of the 3-binomial complexity. The proof of the general case has been treated in [15].

Theorem 6. There exists $C_{3}>0$ such that the 3 -binomial complexity of the Thue-Morse word satisfies $\mathbf{b}_{t}^{(3)}(n) \leqslant C_{3}$ for all $n \geqslant 0$.

Proof. In view of Lemma 6, it is enough to show that there exists a constant $D$ such that, for all $n$, we have $\#\left\{\mathbf{B}^{(3)}(v) \mid \exists u \in \operatorname{Fac}_{t}(n): v=\varphi^{2}(u)\right\} \leqslant D$.

Let $n \geqslant 1$. Let $v=\varphi^{2}(u)$ with $u \in \operatorname{Fac}_{t}(n)$. In particular, $|v|=4 n$. Consider the chain $\mathfrak{C}$ consisting of the 2 -partition and the 4 -partition of $[0,4 n)$. Any subset $T=\left\{t_{1}<t_{2}<t_{3}\right\}$ of $[0,4 n)$ is $\mathfrak{C}$-equidistributed to a subset of one the following types:
$-\left[t_{1}\right]\left[t_{2}\right]\left[t_{3}\right]$, i.e., the union of the types $\left[\left[t_{1}\right]\right]\left[\left[t_{2}\right]\right]\left[\left[t_{3}\right]\right]$, $\left[\left[t_{1}\right]\left[t_{2}\right]\right]\left[\left[t_{3}\right]\right]$ and $\left.\left[\left[t_{1}\right]\right]\left[t_{2}\right]\left[t_{3}\right]\right]$ : the 3 elements of $T$ belong to pairwise distinct subsets of the 2-partition of $[0,4 n)$

- $\left[\left[t_{1} t_{2}\right]\left[t_{3}\right]\right]$ or $\left[\left[t_{1}\right]\left[t_{2} t_{3}\right]\right]$ : two elements belong to the same subset of the $2-$ partition of $[0,4 n)$ and the 3 elements of $T$ belong to the same subset of the 4 -partition of $[0,4 n)$.
$-\left[\left[t_{1} t_{2}\right]\right]\left[\left[t_{3}\right]\right]$ or $\left[\left[t_{1}\right]\right]\left[\left[t_{2} t_{3}\right]\right]$ : two elements belong to the same subset of the 2 -partition and to the same subset of the 4 -partition of $[0,4 n)$.

Let $e=e_{0} e_{1} e_{2}$ be a word of length 3 . We will count the number of occurrences of the subword $e=v_{t_{1}} v_{t_{2}} v_{t_{3}}$ in $v$ depending on the type of $T=\left\{t_{1}, t_{2}, t_{3}\right\}$ with respect to $\mathfrak{C}$.

Assume that the type of $T$ is $\left[t_{1}\right]\left[t_{2}\right]\left[t_{3}\right]$. Each subset $S$ of the 2 -partition of $[0,4 n)$ corresponds to a factor $v_{S}=01$ or $v_{S}=10$ and $v$ contains $2 n$ such factors. Hence the number of subwords $e$ occurring in $v$ for this type takes, for a given $n$, a unique value which is $\binom{2 n}{3}$.

Now assume that the type of $T$ is $\left[\left[t_{1} t_{2}\right]\left[t_{3}\right]\right]$ (similar arguments apply to $\left.\left[\left[t_{1}\right]\left[t_{2} t_{3}\right]\right]\right)$. Each subset $S$ of the 4-partition of $[0,4 n)$ corresponds to a factor $v_{S}$ which is either $\varphi^{2}(0)=0110$ or $\varphi^{2}(1)=1001$. Then the number of subwords $e$ occurring in $v$ of this type is

$$
\underbrace{\binom{01}{e_{0} e_{1}}}_{0 \text { or } 1} \underbrace{\binom{10}{e_{2}}}_{1}|u|_{0}+\underbrace{\binom{10}{e_{0} e_{1}}}_{0 \text { or } 1} \underbrace{\binom{01}{e_{2}}}_{1}|u|_{1} \in\left\{0,|u|_{0},|u|_{1}\right\} .
$$

Recall that, for a given $n=|u|$, the pair $\left(|u|_{0},|u|_{1}\right)$ can take at most three values (see Lemma 5). The number of subwords $e$ occurring in $v$ of this type takes, for a given $n$, takes at most 4 values $^{4}$.

Now assume that the type of $T$ is $\left[\left[t_{1} t_{2}\right]\right]\left[\left[t_{3}\right]\right]$ (similar arguments apply to $\left.\left[\left[t_{1}\right]\right]\left[\left[t_{2} t_{3}\right]\right]\right)$. Each subset $S$ of the 4 -partition of $[0,4 n)$ is a union of two sets $S^{\prime}, S^{\prime \prime}$ of the 2-partition of $[0,4 n)$ and we have either $v_{S^{\prime}}=01, v_{S^{\prime \prime}}=10$ or $v_{S^{\prime}}=10, v_{S^{\prime \prime}}=01$. They are $n$ subsets of size 4 in the 4 -partition of $[0,4 n)$ and we have to pick 2 of them. Hence, the number of subwords $e$ occurring in $v$ for this type is

$$
(\underbrace{\binom{01}{e_{0} e_{1}}+\binom{10}{e_{0} e_{1}}}_{0 \text { or } 1})(\underbrace{\binom{01}{e_{2}}+\binom{10}{e_{2}}}_{2})\binom{n}{2}
$$

and this quantity, for a given $n$, takes at most 2 values.
We have proved that, for all $|e|=3$ and $v=\varphi^{2}(u)$ with $u \in \operatorname{Fac}_{t}(n),\binom{v}{e}$ takes at most $1+2 \cdot 4+2 \cdot 2=13$ values (these values depend on $n$, but the number of values is bounded without any dependence to $n$ ). Note that $\mathbf{B}^{(3)}(v)$ is determined from $\mathbf{B}^{(2)}(v)$ and by the values of $\binom{v}{e}$ for the words $e$ of length 3 . To conclude the proof, note that $\#\left\{\mathbf{B}^{(2)}(v) \mid \exists u \in \operatorname{Fac}_{t}(n): v=\varphi^{2}(u)\right\}$ is bounded by $\#\left\{\mathbf{B}^{(2)}(v) \mid \exists z \in \operatorname{Fac}_{t}(2 n): v=\varphi(z)\right\} \leqslant 9$ using (4). Consequently, we have shown that $\#\left\{\mathbf{B}^{(3)}(v) \mid \exists u \in \operatorname{Fac}_{t}(n): v=\varphi^{2}(u)\right\} \leqslant 9 \cdot 13^{8}$ for all $n \geqslant 1$.

Remark 6. By computer experiments, $\mathbf{b}_{t}^{(2)}(n)$ is equal to 9 if $n \equiv 0(\bmod 4)$ and to 8 otherwise, for $10 \leqslant n \leqslant 1000$. Moreover, $\mathbf{b}_{t}^{(3)}(n)$ is equal to 21 if $n \equiv 0$ $(\bmod 8)$ and to 20 otherwise, for $8 \leqslant n \leqslant 500$.

## 6 A Glimpse at Avoidance

It is obvious that, over a 2-letter alphabet, any word of length $\geqslant 4$ contains a square. On the other hand, there exist square-free infinite ternary words [12]. In the same way, over a 3 -letter alphabet, any word of length $\geqslant 8$ contains an abelian square, i.e., a word $u u^{\prime}$ where $u \sim_{1} u^{\prime}$. But, over a 4 -letter alphabet, abelian squares are avoidable, see for instance [10]. So a first natural question in that direction is to determine, whether or not, over a 3-letter alphabet 2-binomial squares can be avoided in arbitrarily long words. Naturally, a 2-binomial square is a word of the form $u u^{\prime}$ where $u \sim_{2} u^{\prime}$. Note that, for abelian equivalence, the longest ternary word which is 2-abelian square-free has length 537 [9].

As an example, $u=121321231213123132123121312$ is a word of length 27 without 2-binomial squares but this word cannot be extended without getting a 2 -binomial square. Indeed, $u 1$ (resp. $u 3$ ) ends with a square of length 8 (resp. 26)

Consider the 13-uniform morphism of Leech [11] which is well-known to be square-free, $g: a \mapsto a b c b a c b c a b c b a, b \mapsto b c a c b a c a b c a c b, c \mapsto c a b a c b a b c a b a c$. In

[^2]the submitted version of this paper, we conjectured that the infinite square-free word $g^{\omega}(1)$ avoids 2 -binomial squares. For instance, we can prove that
$$
u \sim_{2} v \Leftrightarrow g(u) \sim_{2} g(v) .
$$

Nevertheless, M. Bennett has recently shown that the factor of length 508 occurring in position 845 is a 2-binomial square [4].

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[^1]:    ${ }^{3}$ This is the idea of "de-substitution" where $t$ is factorized into consecutive factors of length $2^{k}$.

[^2]:    ${ }^{4}$ A close inspection shows that if $|u|=2 n$, then $|u|_{0},|u|_{1} \in\{n-1, n, n+1\}$, if $|u|=2 n+1$, then $|u|_{0},|u|_{1} \in\{n, n+1\}$.

