

# Avoiding 2-binomial squares and cubes

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## Abstract

Two finite words  $u, v$  are 2-binomially equivalent if, for all words  $x$  of length at most 2, the number of occurrences of  $x$  as a (scattered) subword of  $u$  is equal to the number of occurrences of  $x$  in  $v$ . This notion is a refinement of the usual abelian equivalence. A 2-binomial square is a word  $uv$  where  $u$  and  $v$  are 2-binomially equivalent.

In this paper, considering pure morphic words, we prove that 2-binomial squares (resp. cubes) are avoidable over a 3-letter (resp. 2-letter) alphabet. The sizes of the alphabets are optimal.

*Keywords:* Combinatorics on words; binomial coefficient; binomial equivalence; avoidance; squarefree; cubefree.

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## 1. Introduction

A *square* (resp. *cube*) is a non-empty word of the form  $xx$  (resp.  $xxx$ ). Since the work of Thue, it is well-known that there exists an infinite square-free word over a ternary alphabet, and an infinite cubefree word over a binary alphabet [13, 14]. A main direction of research in combinatorics on words is about the avoidance of a pattern, and the size of the alphabet is a parameter of the problem.

A possible and widely studied generalization of squarefreeness is to consider an abelian framework. A non-empty word is an *abelian square* (resp. *abelian cube*) if it is of the form  $xy$  (resp.  $xyz$ ) where  $y$  is a permutation of  $x$  (resp.  $y$  and  $z$  are permutations of  $x$ ). Erdős raised the question whether abelian squares can be avoided by an infinite word over an alphabet of size 4 [3]. Keränen answered positively to this question, with a pure morphic word [9]. Moreover Dekking has previously obtained an infinite word over a 3-letter alphabet that avoids abelian

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cubes, and an infinite binary word that avoids abelian 4-powers [2]. (Note that in all these results, the size of the alphabet is optimal.)

In this paper, we are dealing with another generalization of squarefreeness and cubefreeness. We consider the 2-binomial equivalence which is a refinement of the abelian equivalence, *i.e.*, if two words  $x$  and  $y$  are 2-binomially equivalent, then  $x$  is a permutation of  $y$  (but in general, the converse does not hold, see Example 1 below). This equivalence relation is defined thanks to the binomial coefficient  $\binom{u}{v}$  of two words  $u$  and  $v$  which is the number of times  $v$  occurs as a subsequence of  $u$  (meaning as a “scattered” subword). For more on these binomial coefficients, see for instance [10, Chap. 6]. Based on this classical notion, the  $m$ -binomial equivalence of two words has been recently introduced [12].

**Definition 1.** Let  $m \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{+\infty\}$  and  $u, v$  be two words over the alphabet  $A$ . We let  $A^{\leq m}$  denote the set of words of length at most  $m$  over  $A$ . We say that  $u$  and  $v$  are  $m$ -binomially equivalent if

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

We simply write  $u \sim_m v$  if  $u$  and  $v$  are  $m$ -binomially equivalent. The word  $u$  is obtained as a permutation of the letters in  $v$  if and only if  $u \sim_1 v$ . In that case, we say that  $u$  and  $v$  are *abelian equivalent* and we write instead  $u \sim_{\text{ab}} v$ . Note that if  $u \sim_{k+1} v$ , then  $u \sim_k v$ , for all  $k \geq 1$ .

**Example 1.** The four words 0101110, 0110101, 1001101 and 1010011 are 2-binomially equivalent. Let  $u$  be any of these four words. We have

$$\binom{u}{0} = 3, \quad \binom{u}{1} = 4, \quad \binom{u}{00} = 3, \quad \binom{u}{01} = 7, \quad \binom{u}{10} = 5, \quad \binom{u}{11} = 6.$$

For instance, the word 0001111 is abelian equivalent to 0101110 but these two words are not 2-binomially equivalent. Let  $a$  be a letter. It is clear that  $\binom{u}{aa}$  and  $\binom{u}{a}$  carry the same information, *i.e.*,  $\binom{u}{aa} = \binom{|u|_a}{2}$  where  $|u|_a$  is the number of occurrences of  $a$  in  $u$ .

A *2-binomial square* (resp. *2-binomial cube*) is a non-empty word of the form  $xy$  where  $x \sim_2 y$  (resp.  $x \sim_2 y \sim_2 z$ ). For instance, the prefix of length 12 of the Thue–Morse word: 011010011001 is a 2-binomial cube. Squares are avoidable over a 3-letter alphabet and abelian squares are avoidable over a 4-letter alphabet. Since 2-binomial equivalence lies between abelian equivalence and equality, the question is to determine whether or not 2-binomial squares are avoidable over a 3-letter alphabet. We answer positively to this question in Section 2. The fixed point of the morphism  $g : 0 \mapsto 012, 1 \mapsto 02, 2 \mapsto 1$  avoids 2-binomial squares.

In a similar way, cubes are avoidable over a 2-letter alphabet and abelian squares are avoidable over a 3-letter alphabet. The question is to determine

whether or not 2-binomial cubes are avoidable over a 2-letter alphabet. We also answer positively to this question in Section 3. The fixed point of the morphism  $h : 0 \mapsto 001, 1 \mapsto 011$  avoids 2-binomial cubes.

**Remark 1.** The  $m$ -binomial equivalence is not the only way to refine the abelian equivalence. Recently, a notion of  $m$ -abelian equivalence has been introduced [8]. To define this equivalence, one counts the number  $|u|_x$  of occurrences in  $u$  of all factors  $x$  of length up to  $m$  (it is meant factors made of consecutive letters). That is,  $u$  and  $v$  are  $m$ -abelian equivalent if  $|u|_x = |v|_x$  for all  $x \in A^{\leq m}$ . In that context, the results on avoidance are quite different. Over a 3-letter alphabet 2-abelian squares are unavoidable: the longest ternary word which is 2-abelian squarefree has length 537 [6], and pure morphic words cannot avoid  $k$ -abelian-squares for every  $k$  [7]. On the other hand, it has been shown that there exists a 3-abelian squarefree morphic word over a 3-letter alphabet [11]. Moreover 2-abelian-cubes can be avoided over a binary alphabet by a morphic word [11].

The number of occurrences of a letter  $a$  in a word  $u$  will be denoted either by  $\binom{u}{a}$  or  $|u|_a$ . Let  $A = \{0, 1, \dots, k\}$  be an alphabet. The *Parikh map* is an application  $\Psi : A^* \rightarrow \mathbb{N}^{k+1}$  such that  $\Psi(u) = (|u|_0, \dots, |u|_k)^T$ . Note that we will deal with column vectors (when multiplying a square matrix with a column vector on its right). In particular, two words are abelian equivalent if and only if they have the same Parikh vector. The mirror of the word  $u = u_1 u_2 \dots u_k$  is denoted by  $\tilde{u} = u_k \dots u_2 u_1$ .

## 2. Avoiding 2-binomial squares over a 3-letter alphabet

Let  $A = \{0, 1, 2\}$  be a 3-letter alphabet. Let  $g : A^* \rightarrow A^*$  be the morphism defined by

$$g : \begin{cases} 0 \mapsto 012 \\ 1 \mapsto 02 \\ 2 \mapsto 1 \end{cases} \quad \text{and thus, } g^2 : \begin{cases} 0 \mapsto 012021 \\ 1 \mapsto 0121 \\ 2 \mapsto 02. \end{cases}$$

It is prolongable on 0:  $g(0)$  has 0 as a prefix. Hence the limit  $\mathbf{x} = \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} g^n(0)$  is a well-defined infinite word

$$\mathbf{x} = g^\omega(0) = 012021012102012021020121 \dots$$

which is a fixed point of  $g$ . Since the original work of Thue, this word  $\mathbf{x}$  is well-known to avoid (usual) squares. It is sometimes referred to as the *ternary Thue–Morse word*. We will make use of the fact that  $X = \{012, 02, 1\}$  is a prefix-code and thus an  $\omega$ -code: Any finite word in  $X^*$  (resp. infinite word in  $X^\omega$ ) has a unique factorization as a product of elements in  $X$ . Let us make an obvious but useful observation.

**Observation 1.** *The factorization of  $\mathbf{x}$  in terms of the elements in  $X$  permits to write  $\mathbf{x}$  as*

$$\mathbf{x} = 0\alpha_1 2\alpha_2 0\alpha_3 2\alpha_4 0\alpha_5 2\alpha_6 0\cdots$$

where, for all  $i \geq 1$ ,  $\alpha_i \in \{\varepsilon, 1\}$ . That is, the image of  $\mathbf{x}$  by the morphism  $e : 0 \mapsto 0, 1 \mapsto \varepsilon, 2 \mapsto 2$  (which erases all the 1's) is  $e(\mathbf{x}) = (02)^\omega$ .

The next property is well known. For example, it comes from the fact that the image of the ternary Thue–Morse word by the morphism  $0 \mapsto 011, 1 \mapsto 01, 2 \mapsto 0$  is the Thue–Morse word. However, for the sake of completeness, we give a direct proof here.

**Lemma 1.** *A word  $u$  is a factor occurring in  $\mathbf{x}$  if and only if  $\tilde{u}$  is a factor occurring in  $\mathbf{x}$ .*

PROOF. We define the morphism  $\tilde{g} : A^* \rightarrow A^*$  by considering the mirror images of the images of the letters by  $g$ ,

$$\tilde{g} : \begin{cases} 0 \mapsto 210 \\ 1 \mapsto 20 \\ 2 \mapsto 1 \end{cases} \quad \text{and thus, } \tilde{g}^2 : \begin{cases} 0 \mapsto 120210 \\ 1 \mapsto 1210 \\ 2 \mapsto 20. \end{cases}$$

Note that  $\tilde{g}$  is not prolongable on any letter. But the morphism  $\tilde{g}^2$  is prolongable on the letter 1. We consider the infinite word

$$\mathbf{y} = (\tilde{g}^2)^\omega(1) = 1210201210120210201202101210\cdots.$$

If  $v \in A^*$  is a non-empty word ending with  $a \in A$ , i.e.,  $v = ua$  for some word  $u \in A^*$ , we denote by  $va^{-1}$  the word obtained by removing the suffix  $a$  from  $v$ . So  $va^{-1} = u$ .

For every words  $r$  and  $s$  we have  $r = g^2(s) \Leftrightarrow \tilde{r} = \tilde{g}^2(\tilde{s})$ . Obviously,  $u$  is a factor occurring in  $\mathbf{x}$  if and only if  $\tilde{u}$  is a factor occurring in  $\mathbf{y}$ .

On the other hand,  $\tilde{g}^2$  is a cyclic shift of  $g^2$ , since  $g^2(a) = 0\tilde{g}^2(a)0^{-1}$  for every  $a \in \{0, 1, 2\}$ . Thus  $u$  is a factor occurring in  $\mathbf{x}$  if and only if  $u$  is a factor occurring in  $\mathbf{y}$ . To summarize,  $u$  is a factor occurring in  $\mathbf{x}$  if and only if  $u$  is a factor occurring in  $\mathbf{y}$ , and  $u$  is a factor occurring in  $\mathbf{y}$  if and only if  $\tilde{u}$  is a factor occurring in  $\mathbf{x}$ . This concludes the proof.

We will be dealing with 2-binomial squares so, in particular, with abelian squares. The next lemma permit to “desubstitute”, meaning that we are looking for the inverse image of a factor under the considered morphism.

**Lemma 2.** *Let  $u, v \in A^*$  be two abelian equivalent non-empty words such that  $uv$  is a factor occurring in  $\mathbf{x}$ . There exists  $u', v' \in A^*$  such that  $u'v'$  is a factor of  $\mathbf{x}$ , and either:*

1.  $u = g(u')$  and  $v = g(v')$ ;
2. or,  $\tilde{u} = g(v')$  and  $\tilde{v} = g(u')$ .

PROOF. We will make an extensive use of Observation 1. Note that  $u$  and  $v$  must contain at least one 0 or one 2. Obviously  $e(uv)$  is an abelian square of  $(02)^\omega$ , thus either  $e(u) = e(v) = (02)^i$  or  $e(u) = e(v) = (20)^i$  for an  $i > 0$ .

If  $e(u) = e(v) = (02)^i$ , then we have  $u = a0 \cdots 2b$  and  $v = c0 \cdots 2d$  with  $a, b, c, d \in \{\varepsilon, 1\}$ . In this case, we deduce that  $u$  and  $v$  belong to  $X^*$ . Otherwise stated, since  $uv$  is a factor of  $\mathbf{x}$ , there exists a factor  $u'v'$  in  $\mathbf{x}$  such that  $g(u') = u$  and  $g(v') = v$ .

Otherwise we have  $e(u) = e(v) = (20)^i$ . Thanks to Lemma 1,  $\widetilde{vu}$  is a factor occurring in  $\mathbf{x}$ , and  $e(\widetilde{u}) = e(\widetilde{v}) = (02)^i$ . Thus we are reduced to the previous case, and there is a factor  $u', v'$  in  $\mathbf{x}$  such that  $g(u') = \widetilde{v}$  and  $g(v') = \widetilde{u}$ .

Let  $u$  be a word. We set

$$\lambda_u := \binom{u}{01} - \binom{u}{12}.$$

When we use the desubstitution provided by the previous lemma, the shorter factors  $u'$  and  $v'$  derived from  $u$  and  $v$  keep properties from their ancestors.

**Lemma 3.** *Let  $u, v \in A^*$  be two abelian equivalent non-empty words such that  $uv$  is a factor occurring in  $\mathbf{x}$ . Let  $u', v'$  be given by Lemma 2. If  $\lambda_u = \lambda_v$ , then  $u'$  and  $v'$  are abelian equivalent and  $\lambda_{u'} = \lambda_{v'}$ .*

PROOF. If we are in the second situation described by Lemma 2, then  $\widetilde{vu}$  is also a factor occurring in  $\mathbf{x}$ . Obviously  $\widetilde{v}$  and  $\widetilde{u}$  are also abelian equivalent,  $\lambda_{\widetilde{v}} = \lambda_{\widetilde{u}}$  and the case is reduced to the first situation.

Assume now w.l.o.g. that we are in the first situation, that is,  $u = g(u')$  and  $v = g(v')$ . First observe that we have, for all  $a, b \in A$ ,  $a \neq b$ ,

$$\binom{u'}{ab} = \binom{|u'|_a + |u'|_b}{2} - \binom{|u'|_a}{2} - \binom{|u'|_b}{2} - \binom{u'}{ba}. \quad (1)$$

Since  $u = g(u')$ , we derive that

$$\begin{aligned} \binom{u}{01} &= |u'|_0 + \binom{u'}{00} + \binom{u'}{02} + \binom{u'}{12} + \binom{|u'|_0 + |u'|_1}{2} - \binom{|u'|_0}{2} - \binom{|u'|_1}{2} - \binom{u'}{01}, \\ \binom{u}{12} &= |u'|_0 + \binom{u'}{00} + \binom{u'}{01} + \binom{|u'|_1 + |u'|_2}{2} - \binom{|u'|_1}{2} - \binom{|u'|_2}{2} - \binom{u'}{12} \\ &\quad + \binom{|u'|_0 + |u'|_2}{2} - \binom{|u'|_0}{2} - \binom{|u'|_2}{2} - \binom{u'}{02}. \end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$\lambda_u = 2 \left[ \binom{u'}{02} - \binom{u'}{01} + \binom{u'}{12} - \binom{|u'|_2}{2} \right] + \binom{|u'|_0 + |u'|_1}{2} - \binom{|u'|_1 + |u'|_2}{2} - \binom{|u'|_0 + |u'|_2}{2}.$$

Similar relations hold for  $v$ .

Since  $u'$  and  $v'$  occur in  $\mathbf{x}$ , from Observation 1, we get

$$||u'|_0 - |u'|_2| \leq 1 \text{ and } ||v'|_0 - |v'|_2| \leq 1. \quad (2)$$

Since  $u \sim_{\text{ab}} v$ , we have  $|u|_1 = |v|_1$ . Hence, from the definition of  $g$ ,  $|u'|_0 + |u'|_2 = |v'|_0 + |v'|_2$ . In the same way,  $|u|_2 = |v|_2$  implies that  $|u'|_0 + |u'|_1 = |v'|_0 + |v'|_1$  or equivalently,  $|u'|_1 - |v'|_1 = |v'|_0 - |u'|_0$ . From the above relation and (2), we get

$$||v'|_0 - |u'|_0 + |u'|_2 - |v'|_2| \leq 2 \text{ and } |u'|_2 - |v'|_2 = |v'|_0 - |u'|_0.$$

Hence the difference of the following two Parikh vectors can only take three values

$$\Psi(u') - \Psi(v') \in \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}.$$

To prove that  $u'$  and  $v'$  are abelian equivalent, we will rule out the last two possibilities.

By assumption,  $\lambda_u = \lambda_v$ . So this relation also holds modulo 2. Hence

$$\begin{aligned} & \binom{|u'|_0 + |u'|_1}{2} - \binom{|u'|_1 + |u'|_2}{2} - \binom{|u'|_0 + |u'|_2}{2} \\ \equiv & \binom{|v'|_0 + |v'|_1}{2} - \binom{|v'|_1 + |v'|_2}{2} - \binom{|v'|_0 + |v'|_2}{2} \pmod{2}. \end{aligned}$$

Assume that we have

$$\Psi(u') - \Psi(v') = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}, \text{ i.e., } \begin{cases} |u'|_0 + |u'|_1 &= |v'|_0 + |v'|_1, \\ |u'|_0 + |u'|_2 &= |v'|_0 + |v'|_2, \\ |u'|_1 + |u'|_2 &= |v'|_1 + |v'|_2 - 2. \end{cases}$$

This leads to a contradiction because then

$$\binom{|u'|_1 + |u'|_2}{2} \not\equiv \binom{|v'|_1 + |v'|_2}{2} \pmod{2}.$$

Indeed, it is easily seen that  $\binom{4n}{2} \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$ ,  $\binom{4n+1}{2} \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$ ,  $\binom{4n+2}{2} \equiv 1 \pmod{2}$  and  $\binom{4n+3}{2} \equiv 1 \pmod{2}$ .

The case  $\Psi(u') - \Psi(v') = \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$  is handled similarly. So we can assume now that  $\Psi(u') = \Psi(v')$ , that is,  $u' \sim_{\text{ab}} v'$ . It remains to prove that  $\lambda_{u'} = \lambda_{v'}$ . By assumption  $\lambda_u = \lambda_v$ , and from the above formula describing  $\lambda_u$  (resp.  $\lambda_v$ ) we get

$$\binom{u'}{02} - \binom{u'}{01} + \binom{u'}{12} = \binom{v'}{02} - \binom{v'}{01} + \binom{v'}{12}.$$

To conclude that  $\lambda_{u'} = \lambda_{v'}$ , we should simply show that  $\binom{u'}{02} = \binom{v'}{02}$ . But  $u'v'$  is a factor occurring in  $\mathbf{x}$  (from Observation 1, when discarding the 1's in  $u'v'$  we just get a word made of alternating 0's and 2) and  $u' \sim_{\text{ab}} v'$ . This concludes the proof.

**Theorem 4.** *The word  $\mathbf{x} = g^\omega(0) = 012021012102012021020121 \dots$  avoids 2-binomial squares.*

PROOF. Assume to the contrary that  $\mathbf{x}$  contains a 2-binomial square  $uv$  where  $u$  and  $v$  are 2-binomially equivalent. In particular,  $u$  and  $v$  are abelian equivalent and moreover  $\lambda_u = \lambda_v$ . We can therefore apply iteratively Lemma 2 and the above lemma to words of decreasing lengths and get finally a repetition  $aa$  with  $a \in A$  in  $\mathbf{x}$ . But  $\mathbf{x}$  does not contain any such factor.

**Remark 2.** The fixed point of  $g$  is a 2-binomial-squarefree word, i.e., it does not contain any 2-binomial square, but  $g$  is not a 2-binomial-squarefree morphism: the image of a 2-binomial-squarefree word may contain a 2-binomial-square (e.g.,  $g(010) = 01202012$  contains the square 2020).

### 3. Avoiding 2-binomial cubes over a 2-letter alphabet

Consider the morphism  $h : 0 \mapsto 001$  and  $h : 1 \mapsto 011$ . A word is 2-binomial-cubefree if it does not contain any 2-binomial cube. In this section, we show that  $h$  is a 2-binomial-cubefree morphism: for every 2-binomial-cubefree binary word  $w$ ,  $h(w)$  is 2-binomial-cubefree. As a direct corollary, we get that the fixed point of  $h$ ,

$$\mathbf{z} = h^\omega(0) = 001001011001001011001011011 \dots$$

avoids 2-binomial cubes.

Let  $u$  be a word over  $\{0, 1\}$ . The *extended Parikh vector* of  $u$  is

$$\Psi_2(u) = \left( |u|_0, |u|_1, \binom{u}{00}, \binom{u}{01}, \binom{u}{10}, \binom{u}{11} \right)^T.$$

Observe that two words  $u$  and  $v$  are 2-binomially equivalent if and only if  $\Psi_2(u) = \Psi_2(v)$ .

Consider the matrix  $M_h$  given by

$$M_h = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 4 & 2 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 & 4 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 1 & 4 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 2 & 2 & 4 \end{pmatrix}.$$

One can check that  $M_h$  is invertible. We will make use of the following observations:

**Proposition 5.** *For every  $u \in \{0, 1\}^*$ ,*

$$\Psi_2(h(u)) = M_h \Psi_2(u).$$

**Proposition 6.** Let  $u = 1x$  and  $u' = x1$  be two words over  $\{0,1\}$ . We have  $|u|_0 = |u'|_0$ ,  $|u|_1 = |u'|_1$ ,

$$\binom{u}{00} = \binom{u'}{00}, \quad \binom{u}{11} = \binom{u'}{11}, \quad \binom{u'}{01} = \binom{u}{01} + |u|_0, \quad \binom{u'}{10} = \binom{u}{10} - |u|_0.$$

In particular, if  $1x \sim_2 1y$ , then  $x1 \sim_2 y1$ . Similar relations hold for  $0x$  and  $x0$ . In particular, if  $x0 \sim_2 y0$ , then  $0x \sim_2 0y$ .

Let  $x, y \in \{0,1\}$ . We set  $\delta_{x,y} = 1$ , if  $x = y$ ; and  $\delta_{x,y} = 0$ , otherwise.

**Lemma 7.** Let  $p'$ ,  $q'$  and  $r'$  be binary words, and let  $a, b \in \{0,1\}$ . Let  $p = h(p')0$ ,  $q = a1h(q')0b$  and  $r = 1h(r')$ . Then either  $p \not\sim_2 q$  or  $p \not\sim_2 r$ .

PROOF. Assume, for the sake of contradiction, that  $p \sim_2 q \sim_2 r$ . Then  $|p'| = |q'| + 1 = |r'| = n$ . The following relations can mostly be derived from the coefficients of  $M_h$  (we also have to take into account the extra suffix 0 of  $p$ , respectively the extra prefix 1 in  $r$ ):

$$\begin{aligned} \binom{p}{01} &= 2\binom{p'}{0} + 2\binom{p'}{1} + 2\binom{p'}{00} + 4\binom{p'}{01} + \binom{p'}{10} + 2\binom{p'}{11}, \\ \binom{p}{10} &= \binom{p'}{0} + 2\binom{p'}{1} + 2\binom{p'}{00} + \binom{p'}{01} + 4\binom{p'}{10} + 2\binom{p'}{11}, \\ &\Rightarrow \binom{p}{01} - \binom{p}{10} = \binom{p'}{0} + 3\binom{p'}{01} - 3\binom{p'}{10}; \\ \binom{r}{01} &= 2\binom{r'}{0} + 2\binom{r'}{1} + 2\binom{r'}{00} + 4\binom{r'}{01} + \binom{r'}{10} + 2\binom{r'}{11}, \\ \binom{r}{10} &= 2\binom{r'}{0} + \binom{r'}{1} + 2\binom{r'}{00} + \binom{r'}{01} + 4\binom{r'}{10} + 2\binom{r'}{11}, \\ &\Rightarrow \binom{r}{01} - \binom{r}{10} = \binom{r'}{1} + 3\binom{r'}{01} - 3\binom{r'}{10}. \end{aligned}$$

We also get the following relations:

$$\begin{aligned} \binom{q}{01} &= 2\binom{q'}{0} + 2\binom{q'}{1} + 2\binom{q'}{00} + 4\binom{q'}{01} + \binom{q'}{10} + 2\binom{q'}{11} \\ &\quad + \delta_{a,0} \left[ 1 + \binom{q'}{0} + 2\binom{q'}{1} + \delta_{b,1} \right] + \delta_{b,1} \left[ 1 + 2\binom{q'}{0} + \binom{q'}{1} \right], \\ \binom{q}{10} &= 3\binom{q'}{0} + 3\binom{q'}{1} + 2\binom{q'}{00} + \binom{q'}{01} + 4\binom{q'}{10} + 2\binom{q'}{11} + 1 \\ &\quad + \delta_{a,1} \left[ 1 + \delta_{b,0} + 2\binom{q'}{0} + \binom{q'}{1} \right] + \delta_{b,0} \left[ 1 + \binom{q'}{0} + 2\binom{q'}{1} \right] \\ &= (6 - 2\delta_{a,0} - \delta_{b,1})\binom{q'}{0} + (6 - \delta_{a,0} - 2\delta_{b,1})\binom{q'}{1} + 4 - 2\delta_{a,0} - 2\delta_{b,1} + \delta_{a,0}\delta_{b,1} \\ &\quad + 2\binom{q'}{00} + \binom{q'}{01} + 4\binom{q'}{10} + 2\binom{q'}{11}. \end{aligned}$$



Where for the last equality, we have used the fact that  $\delta_{a,1} = 1 - \delta_{a,0}$  and  $\delta_{b,0} = 1 - \delta_{b,1}$ . Finally, we obtain

$$\binom{q}{01} - \binom{q}{10} = (-4 + 3\delta_{a,0} + 3\delta_{b,1}) \left[ \binom{q'}{0} + \binom{q'}{1} \right] + 3\binom{q'}{01} - 3\binom{q'}{10} - 4 + 3\delta_{a,0} + 3\delta_{b,1}.$$

Since  $p \sim_2 q \sim_2 r$ , we have  $\binom{p}{10} - \binom{p}{01} = \binom{q}{10} - \binom{q}{01} = \binom{r}{10} - \binom{r}{01}$ . In particular, these equalities modulo 3 give

$$\binom{p'}{0} \equiv \binom{r'}{1} \equiv 2 \left[ \binom{q'}{0} + \binom{q'}{1} + 1 \right] \equiv 2n \pmod{3}. \quad (3)$$

Now, we take into account the fact that  $p$  and  $r$  are abelian equivalent to get a contradiction. Since  $p = h(p')0$  and  $r = 1h(r')$ , we get

$$\begin{pmatrix} |p|_0 \\ |p|_1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} |p'|_0 \\ |p'|_1 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \begin{pmatrix} |r|_0 \\ |r|_1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} |r'|_0 \\ |r'|_1 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Hence, we obtain

$$\begin{pmatrix} |p|_0 - |r|_0 \\ |p|_1 - |r|_1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} |p'|_0 - |r'|_0 \\ |p'|_1 - |r'|_1 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

We derive that  $|p'|_0 - |r'|_0 = -1$  and  $|p'|_1 - |r'|_1 = 1$ . Recall that  $|p'|_0 + |p'|_1 = n$ . If we subtract the last two equalities, we get  $|p'|_0 + |r'|_1 = n - 1$ . From (3), we know that  $|p'|_0 \equiv |r'|_1 \pmod{3}$ . Hence  $2|p'|_0 \equiv n - 1 \pmod{3}$  and thus

$$|p'|_0 \equiv 2n - 2 \pmod{3}.$$

This contradicts the fact again given by (3) that  $|p'|_0 \equiv 2n \pmod{3}$ .

Similarly, one get the following lemma.

**Lemma 8.** *Let  $p'$ ,  $q'$  and  $r'$  be binary words, and let  $a, b \in \{0, 1\}$ . Let  $p = h(p')0a$ ,  $q = 1h(q')0$  and  $r = b1h(r')$ . Then either  $p \not\sim_2 q$  or  $p \not\sim_2 r$ .*

PROOF. Assume, for the sake of contradiction, that  $p \sim_2 q \sim_2 r$ . Then  $|p'| = |q'| = |r'| = n$ . Taking into account the special form of  $p$  and  $q$ , we get

$$\begin{aligned} \binom{p}{01} &= 2\binom{p'}{0} + 2\binom{p'}{1} + 2\binom{p'}{00} + 4\binom{p'}{01} + \binom{p'}{10} + 2\binom{p'}{11} + \delta_{a,1} \left( 1 + 2\binom{p'}{0} + \binom{p'}{1} \right), \\ \binom{p}{10} &= \binom{p'}{0} + 2\binom{p'}{1} + 2\binom{p'}{00} + \binom{p'}{01} + 4\binom{p'}{10} + 2\binom{p'}{11} + \delta_{a,0} \left( \binom{p'}{0} + 2\binom{p'}{1} \right), \\ \binom{q}{01} &= 2\binom{q'}{0} + 2\binom{q'}{1} + 2\binom{q'}{00} + 4\binom{q'}{01} + \binom{q'}{10} + 2\binom{q'}{11}, \\ \binom{q}{10} &= 3\binom{q'}{0} + 3\binom{q'}{1} + 2\binom{q'}{00} + \binom{q'}{01} + 4\binom{q'}{10} + 2\binom{q'}{11} + 1. \end{aligned}$$

Hence, we get

$$\begin{aligned}\binom{p}{01} - \binom{p}{10} &= -2\binom{p'}{1} + 3\binom{p'}{01} - 3\binom{p'}{10} + \delta_{a,1}\left(1 + 3\binom{p'}{0} + 3\binom{p'}{1}\right), \\ \binom{q}{01} - \binom{q}{10} &= -\binom{q'}{0} - \binom{q'}{1} + 3\binom{q'}{01} - 3\binom{q'}{10} - 1.\end{aligned}$$

Since,  $p \sim_2 q$ , the last two relations evaluated modulo 3 give

$$|p'|_1 + \delta_{a,1} \equiv 2n + 2 \pmod{3}. \quad (4)$$

Similarly, the form of  $r$  gives the following relations

$$\begin{aligned}\binom{r}{01} &= 2\binom{r'}{0} + 2\binom{r'}{1} + 2\binom{r'}{00} + 4\binom{r'}{01} + \binom{r'}{10} + 2\binom{r'}{11} + \delta_{b,0}\left(1 + \binom{r'}{0} + 2\binom{r'}{1}\right), \\ \binom{r}{10} &= 2\binom{r'}{0} + \binom{r'}{1} + 2\binom{r'}{00} + \binom{r'}{01} + 4\binom{r'}{10} + 2\binom{r'}{11} + \delta_{b,1}\left(2\binom{r'}{0} + \binom{r'}{1}\right), \\ \binom{r}{01} - \binom{r}{10} &= -2\binom{r'}{0} + 3\binom{r'}{01} - 3\binom{r'}{10} + \delta_{b,0}\left(1 + 3\binom{r'}{0} + 3\binom{r'}{1}\right)\end{aligned}$$

Since,  $p \sim_2 r$ , the last two relations evaluated modulo 3 give

$$|p'|_1 + \delta_{a,1} \equiv |r'|_0 + \delta_{b,0} \pmod{3}. \quad (5)$$

Now, we take into account the fact that  $p, q$  and  $r$  are abelian equivalent to get a contradiction. The following two vectors are equal:

$$\begin{pmatrix} |p|_0 \\ |p|_1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} |p'|_0 \\ |p'|_1 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 1 + \delta_{a,0} \\ \delta_{a,1} \end{pmatrix}, \quad \begin{pmatrix} |r|_0 \\ |r|_1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} |r'|_0 \\ |r'|_1 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \delta_{b,0} \\ 1 + \delta_{b,1} \end{pmatrix}.$$

We derive easily that

$$|p'|_1 - |r'|_1 = 1 + \delta_{a,0} - \delta_{b,0}.$$

On the one hand, using the latter relation and (5)

$$|r'|_1 + 1 + \delta_{a,0} - \delta_{b,0} + \delta_{a,1} = |p'|_1 + \delta_{a,1} \equiv |r'|_0 + \delta_{b,0} \pmod{3}$$

Replacing  $|r'|_0$  by  $n - |r'|_1$ , we get  $2|r'|_1 + 2 \equiv n + 2\delta_{b,0} \pmod{3}$ , or equivalently

$$|r'|_1 + 1 \equiv 2n + \delta_{b,0} \pmod{3}.$$

On the other hand, using (4),

$$|r'|_1 + 1 + \delta_{a,0} - \delta_{b,0} + \delta_{a,1} = |p'|_1 + \delta_{a,1} \equiv 2n + 2 \pmod{3}$$

and thus,

$$|r'|_1 \equiv 2n + \delta_{b,0} \pmod{3}.$$

We get a contradiction,  $2n + \delta_{b,0}$  should be congruent to both  $|r'|_1$  and  $|r'|_1 + 1$  modulo 3.

We are ready to prove the main theorem of this section.

**Theorem 9.** *Let  $h : 0 \mapsto 001, 1 \mapsto 011$ . For every 2-binomial-cubefree word  $w \in \{0, 1\}^*$ ,  $h(w)$  is 2-binomial-cubefree.*

PROOF. Let  $w$  be a 2-binomial-cubefree binary word. Assume that  $h(w) = z_0 \dots z_{3|w|-1}$  contains a 2-binomial cube  $pqr$  occurring in position  $i$ , i.e.,  $p \sim_2 q \sim_2 r$  and  $w = w' p q r w''$ , where  $|w'| = i$ . We consider three cases depending on the size of  $p$  modulo 3.

As a first case, assume that  $|p| = 3n$ . We consider three sub-cases depending on the position  $i$  modulo 3.

1.a) Assume that  $i \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$ . Then  $p, q, r$  have 1 as a prefix and the letter following  $r$  in  $h(w)$  is the symbol  $z_{i+9n} = 1$ . Hence, the word  $1^{-1}pqr1$  occurs in  $h(w)$  in position  $i+1$  and it is again a 2-binomial cube. Indeed, thanks to Proposition 6, we have  $1^{-1}p1 \sim_2 1^{-1}q1 \sim_2 1^{-1}r1$ . This case is thus reduced to the case where  $i \equiv 0 \pmod{3}$ .

1.b) Assume that  $i \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ . Then  $p, q, r$  have 0 as a suffix and the letter preceding  $p$  in  $h(w)$  is the symbol  $z_{i-1} = 0$ . Hence, the word  $0pqr0^{-1}$  occurs in  $h(w)$  in position  $i-1$  and it is also a 2-binomial cube. Thanks to Proposition 6, we have  $0p0^{-1} \sim_2 0q0^{-1} \sim_2 0r0^{-1}$ . Again this case is reduced to the case where  $i \equiv 0 \pmod{3}$ .

1.c) Assume that  $i \equiv 0 \pmod{3}$ . In this case, we can desubstitute: there exist three words  $p', q', r'$  of length  $n$  such that  $h(p') = p$ ,  $h(q') = q$ ,  $h(r') = r$  and  $p'q'r'$  is a factor occurring in  $w$ . We have  $\Psi_2(p) = \Psi_2(q) = \Psi_2(r)$ . By Proposition 5, and since  $M_h$  is invertible, we have  $\Psi_2(p') = \Psi_2(q') = \Psi_2(r')$ , meaning that  $w$  contains a 2-binomial cube  $p'q'r'$ .

As a second case, assume that  $|p| = 3n + 1$ . In this case, one of  $p, q$  and  $r$  occur in position 0 modulo 3, one in position 1 modulo 3, and one in position 2 modulo 3. Suppose w.l.o.g. that  $p$  occur in position 0 modulo 3, and  $q$  in position 1 modulo 3. Then there are three factors  $p', q'$  and  $r'$  in  $w$ , and  $a, b \in \{0, 1\}$  such that  $p = h(p')0$ ,  $q = a1h(q')0b$  and  $r = 1h(r')$ . By Lemma 7, this is impossible.

For the final case, assume that  $|p| = 3n + 2$ . In this case again, one of  $p, q$  and  $r$  occur in position 0 modulo 3, one in position 1 modulo 3, and one in position 2 modulo 3. Suppose w.l.o.g. that  $p$  occur in position 0 modulo 3, and  $q$  in position 1 modulo 3. Then there are three factors  $p', q'$  and  $r'$  in  $w$ , and  $a, b \in \{0, 1\}$  such that  $p = h(p')0a$ ,  $q = 1h(q')0$  and  $r = b1h(r')$ . By Lemma 8, this is impossible.

**Corollary 10.** *The infinite word  $\mathbf{z} = 001001011 \dots$  fixed point of  $h : 0 \mapsto 001, 1 \mapsto 011$  avoids 2-binomial cubes.*

#### 4. Open problems

There are sufficient conditions for a morphism to be abelian or  $k$ -abelian-powerfree [1, 2, 11]. It seems more difficult to find sufficient conditions for a morphism to be  $k$ -binomial-powerfree. One can raise the following question.

**Question 1.** Give a non-trivial 2-binomial-squarefree morphism (that is, a morphism  $f$  such that  $f(w)$  is 2-binomial-squarefree if  $w$  is 2-binomial-squarefree).

As shown in Section 3, the morphism  $0 \mapsto 001, 1 \mapsto 011$  is 2-binomial-cubefree.

Every infinite binary word contains arbitrarily long abelian squares, while ones exist which avoid squares of period at least 3 [4]. Moreover, it is possible to construct a binary word with only 3 squares: 00, 11 and 0101 [5]. A computer experiment shows the following.

**Fact 1.** It is impossible to construct an infinite binary word with only 3 different 2-binomial-squares.

One can then ask the following questions.

**Question 2.** Is there  $k \geq 3$  such that one can construct an infinite binary word with only 3 different  $k$ -binomial-squares ?

**Question 3.** Is there  $k \geq 4$  such that one can construct an infinite binary word with only  $k$  different 2-binomial-squares ?

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