## Combinatorics

# On the triplex substitution - combinatorial properties ${ }^{\text {in }}$ 

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#### Abstract

If a substitution $\tau$ over a three-letter alphabet has a positively linear complexity, that is, $P_{\tau}(n)=C_{1} n+C_{2}(n \geqslant 1)$ with $C_{1}, C_{2} \geqslant 0$, there are only 4 possibilities: $P_{\tau}(n)=3, n+2,2 n+1$ or $3 n$. The first three cases have been studied by many authors, but the case $3 n$ remained unclear. This leads us to consider the triplex substitution $\sigma: a \mapsto a b, b \mapsto a c b, c \mapsto a c c$. Studying the factor structure of its fixed point, which is quite different from the other cases, we show that it is of complexity $3 n$. We remark that the triplex substitution is also a typical example of invertible substitution over a three-letter alphabet. To cite this article: B. Tan et al., C. R. Acad. Sci. Paris, Ser. I 346 (2008).


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## Résumé

Sur la substitution triplexe - propriétés combinatoires. Si une substitution $\tau$ sur un alphabet de trois lettres a une complexité positivement linéaire, c'est-à-dire $P_{\tau}(n)=C_{1} n+C_{2}(n \geqslant 1)$ où $C_{1}, C_{2} \geqslant 0$, alors il n'y a que quatre possibilités : $P_{\tau}(n)=3$, $n+2,2 n+1$ ou $3 n$. Les trois premiers cas ont été étudiés par différents auteurs, mais le cas $3 n$ reste non entièrement élucidé. Nous considérons donc la substitution triplexe $\sigma: a \mapsto a b, b \mapsto a c b, c \mapsto a c c$. Analysant la structure des facteurs de son point fixe nous montrons que sa complexité est $3 n$. La substitution triplexe est un exemple typique de substitution inversible sur un alphabet de trois lettres. Pour citer cet article : B. Tan et al., C. R. Acad. Sci. Paris, Ser. I 346 (2008).
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## Version française abrégée

Nous considérons la substitution $\sigma=(a b, a c b, a c c)$ (c'est-à-dire, $a \mapsto a b, b \mapsto a c b, c \mapsto a c c$ ), appelée substitution triplexe. Elle a un point fixe unique $\xi=\xi_{1} \xi_{2} \xi_{3} \cdots=$ abacbabaccacb $\cdots$.

Le but est de démontrer que $\xi$ a pour complexité $3 n$. Pour cela on analyse ses facteurs spéciaux :
Lemme 1. Pour $n \geqslant 1$, les facteurs suivants sont spéciaux : $b \sigma^{n}(b) b^{-1}, c \sigma^{n}(b) b^{-1}, b \sigma^{n}(a b) b^{-1}, c \sigma^{n}(a b) b^{-1}$, $\sigma^{n-1}(a c c a b) b^{-1}, \sigma^{n}(b a b) b^{-1}$.

[^0]On obtient ainsi un arbre de facteurs spéciaux (voir Fig. 1), qui démontre le :
Lemme 2. Pour $k \geqslant 2$, il existe au moins 3 facteurs spéciaux de longueur $k$.
Pour obtenir une égalité, on contrôle le nombre de facteurs spéciaux de longueur $\left|A_{n}\right|$ :
Proposition 1. Le nombre de facteurs spéciaux de longueur $\left|A_{n}\right|$ est au plus $3\left|A_{n}\right|$.
Par une méthode d'interpolation, la proposition et les lemmes précédents nous permettent de démontrer
Théorème 1. La complexité de $\xi$ est $P(n)=3 n(n \geqslant 1)$.
En particulier, l'arbre de la Fig. 1 est complet : il donne tous les facteurs spéciaux de $\xi$. Par conséquent, le language engendré par $\xi$ ou $\sigma$ est complètement déterminé.

## 1. Introduction

The study of substitutions over a finite alphabet plays an important rôle in finite automata, symbolic dynamics, formal languages, number theory, and fractal geometry, and it has various applications to quasi-crystals, computational complexity, information theory, $\ldots$ (see $[2,3,6,12]$ and the references therein). In addition, substitutions are fundamental objects in combinatorial group theory $[8,9]$.

Given a sequence $\xi=\xi_{1} \xi_{2} \xi_{3} \cdots$ over some finite alphabet $\mathcal{A}$, with $\xi_{i} \in \mathcal{A}$. We denote by $\mathcal{L}_{n}(\xi)$ the set $\left\{\xi_{i} \cdots \xi_{i+n-1} \mid i \geqslant 1\right\}$ of factors of $\xi$ with length $n(n \geqslant 1)$. The set $\mathcal{L}_{\xi}=\bigcup_{n \geqslant 1} \mathcal{L}_{n}(\xi)$ is called the language of $\xi$, and the function $P_{\xi}(n):=\# \mathcal{L}_{n}(\xi)$ is called the complexity of $\xi$.

Let $\mathcal{A}^{*}$ be the free monoid generated by $\mathcal{A}$ (its identity is the empty word $\varepsilon$ ). A morphism $\sigma: \mathcal{A}^{*} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}^{*}$ is called a substitution. Denote by $\xi_{\sigma}$ any one of the fixed points of $\sigma$ (that is $\sigma\left(\xi_{\sigma}\right)=\xi_{\sigma}$ ), if it exists.

The study of complexity and substitutions has a long history. Here are some classical results:

- $P_{\xi}(n) \leqslant n$ for some $n$ if and only if $\xi$ is ultimately periodic, and in this case the complexity is bounded [10];
- A sequence $\xi$ over a two-letter alphabet with complexity $P_{\xi}(n)=n+1$ is called Sturmian. There are many equivalent characterizations of Sturmian sequences (e.g., see [12,14,16]);
- Rote [13] constructed a class of sequences with complexity $2 n$ by using graphs;
- Mossé [11] studied the case of $q$-automata (substitutions of constant length). A method to compute $P(n)$ with linear recurrence formulas was given under some technical conditions;
- Over a three-letter alphabet, a class of Tribonacci type substitutions with complexity $2 n+1$ was introduced by Arnoux and Rauzy [4].

However, the complexity of substitutions over a three-letter alphabet presents much more complex phenomena. Few examples can be explicitly worked out, even for invertible substitutions. This is because the structure of invertible substitutions over a three-letter alphabet is quite different from the case of substitutions over a two-letter alphabet: In [17] we showed that the set of invertible substitutions over a three-letter alphabet is not finitely generated. Nevertheless in [15] we were able to characterize the structure of invertible substitutions.

Now notice that for a primitive substitution, the corresponding complexity $P(n)$ satisfies a linear inequality $P(n) \leqslant$ $C_{1} n+C_{2}(n \geqslant 1)$ for some positive constants $C_{1}$ and $C_{2}$. If we confine ourselves to the case of a three-letter alphabet, and if the above inequality becomes equality for all $n \geqslant 1$, there are clearly only four possibilities: (1) $P(n)=3$; (2) $P(n)=n+2$; (3) $P(n)=2 n+1$; (4) $P(n)=3 n$. The first case is trivial (periodic), the second case (Sturmianlike) was studied in [1]. Arnoux and Rauzy discussed the case (3) in [4]. For the case (4), as far as we know, the existence of such substitution is not present in the literature yet! This is one of the motivations of this Note. So we consider the substitution: $\sigma=(a b, a c b, a c c)$, that is, $a \mapsto a b, b \mapsto a c b, c \mapsto a c c$. We call it the triplex substitution.

We remark that the triplex substitution, which can be seen as a representative of undecomposable invertible substitutions (remark that the inverse of $\sigma$ is $a \mapsto a b^{-1} a b^{-1} c, b \mapsto c^{-1} b a^{-1} b, c \mapsto c^{-1} b a^{-1} c$ ), plays an important rôle in the study of invertible substitutions over a three-letter alphabet [17,15]. In this Note, we show that its complexity
is $3 n$, which fulfils the case (4) above. We also see that its special words and factor structure are quite different from the Tribonacci type substitutions. We shall completely characterize the corresponding Rauzy fractal in the next Note.

## 2. Preliminary

Let $\mathcal{A}=\{a, b, c\}$ be a three-letter alphabet. Let $\mathcal{A}^{*}$ stand for the free monoid generated by $\mathcal{A}$.
If $w \in \mathcal{A}^{*}$, we denote by $|w|$ its length and by $|w|_{a}$ (resp. $|w|_{b},|w|_{c}$ ) the number of occurrences of the letter $a$ (resp. $b, c$ ) in $w$. The Parikh vector of $w$ is $P(w)=\left(|w|_{a},|w|_{b},|w|_{c}\right)^{t} \in \mathbb{N}^{3}$.

A word $v$ is a factor of a word $w$, and then we write $v \prec w$, if there exist $u, u^{\prime} \in \mathcal{A}^{*}$, such that $w=u v u^{\prime}$. We say that $v$ is a prefix (resp. a suffix) of a word $w$, and then we write $v \triangleleft w$ (resp. $v \triangleright w$ ), if there exists $u \in \mathcal{A}^{*}$ such that $w=v u$ (resp. $w=u v$ ). The notions of factor and prefix extend to infinite words in a natural way.

Let $\tau$ be a substitution over $\mathcal{A}$. The matrix $M_{\tau}=(P(\tau(a)), P(\tau(b)), P(\tau(c)))$ is called the substitution matrix of $\tau$. A substitution is said to be primitive if its matrix is.

If $w=u v$, then $w v^{-1}:=u$ and $u^{-1} w:=v$ by convention.
For $0 \leqslant k<|w|$, we define the $k$ th conjugate of $w$ by $C_{k}(w):=x_{k} \cdots x_{n-1} x_{0} x_{1} \cdots x_{k-1}$. We set $C(w):=\left\{C_{k}(w) \mid\right.$ $0 \leqslant k<|w|\}$. A word $w \in \mathcal{A}^{*}$ is said to be primitive if the equation $w=u^{p}(p \in \mathbb{N})$ implies $p=1$, in other words, if all the conjugates of $w$ are distinct (see [7]).

In the sequel, we consider the triplex substitution $\sigma=(a b, a c b, a c c)$. Its unique fixed point is $\xi=\xi_{1} \xi_{2} \xi_{3} \cdots=$ abacbabaccacb $\cdots$. For $n \geqslant 0$, we set $A_{n}=\sigma^{n}(a), B_{n}=\sigma^{n}(b)$ and $C_{n}=\sigma^{n}(c)$.

The lengths of words $A_{n}, B_{n}$ and $C_{n}$ are related to the Fibonacci numbers defined by the recurrence formula $f(n)=f(n-1)+f(n-2)$, with the initial conditions $f(-2)=-1, f(-1)=1$.

Proposition 1. Let $M$ be the substitution matrix of $\sigma$. We have:

$$
M^{n}=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
f(2 n-1) & f(2 n) & f(2 n)  \tag{i}\\
f(2 n-2)+1 & f(2 n-1) & f(2 n-1)-1 \\
f(2 n-1)-1 & f(2 n) & f(2 n)+1
\end{array}\right] \quad \text { for } n \geqslant 0 ;
$$

(ii) $A_{n}$ and $B_{n}$ begin with the letter $a$ and end with $b$, while $C_{n}$ begins with a and ends with $c(n \geqslant 1)$;
(iii) For $n \geqslant 0$, the word $B_{n}$ differs from $C_{n}$ by exactly their last letter, i.e., $C_{n}=B_{n} b^{-1} c$;
(iv) $\left|A_{n}\right|=f(2 n+1),\left|B_{n}\right|=\left|C_{n}\right|=f(2 n+2)$. The words $A_{n}, B_{n}$ and $C_{n}$ all are primitive.

Proof. (i) holds by induction. (ii) and (iii) can be verified directly. (i) gives the first statement in (iv); the fact $\operatorname{gcd}\left(\left|A_{n}\right|_{a},\left|A_{n}\right|_{b},\left|A_{n}\right|_{c}\right)=1$ yields that $A_{n}$ is primitive. Likewise, $B_{n}$ and $C_{n}$ are primitive.

## 3. Factor structure and complexity

In this section, we consider the factors of length $\left|A_{n}\right|=f(2 n+1)$ and the structure of special words. From this, we determine the complexity of $\sigma$.

### 3.1. The factors of length $\left|A_{n}\right|$

Recall that $\xi$ denotes the fixed point of $\sigma$, hence, for any $n \geqslant 1$,

$$
\xi=\sigma^{n}(\xi)=\sigma^{n}(a b a c b \cdots)=A_{n} B_{n} A_{n} C_{n} B_{n} \cdots
$$

In particular, if $w$ is a factor of $\xi$, so is $\sigma^{n}(w)$.
Since $\left|A_{n}\right|<\left|B_{n}\right|=\left|C_{n}\right|$, the factors of length $\left|A_{n}\right|$ can be divided into two classes:
Class I factors of either $A_{n}, B_{n}$ or $C_{n}$.
Class II factors appearing at the concatenation of these $A_{n}, B_{n}$ and $C_{n}$ 's. More precisely, the factors are of the form $w=s p \prec \sigma^{n}(\alpha) \sigma^{n}(\beta)=\sigma^{n}(\alpha \beta)$, where $s$ is a proper suffix of $\sigma^{n}(\alpha), p$ is a proper prefix of $\sigma^{n}(\beta)$, and $\alpha \beta \in \mathcal{L}_{2}$ (recall that $\mathcal{L}_{2}$ stands for the set of factors of $\xi$ of length 2 ).

For the factors in Class I, we have:
(i) $w=A_{n}$ is the only factor of $A_{n}$ of length $\left|A_{n}\right|$;
(ii) $B_{n}$ contains at most $\left|B_{n}\right|-\left|A_{n}\right|+1$ factors of length $\left|A_{n}\right|$;
(iii) since $C_{n}=B_{n} b^{-1} c$, all the factors appearing in $C_{n}$ are the same as those appearing in $B_{n}$ except the last one (the suffix of $C_{n}$ of length $\left|A_{n}\right|$ ).

Now we consider Class II: let $s p \in \sigma^{n}(\alpha \beta)$ be a word with $s \triangleright \sigma^{n}(\alpha), p \triangleleft \sigma^{n}(\beta), s, p \neq \varepsilon$ and $\alpha \beta \in \mathcal{L}_{2}$.
It is readily checked that $\mathcal{L}_{2}=\{a b, a c, b a, c a, c b, c c\}$. Hence we have to consider the following corresponding sub-cases:

- $A_{n} B_{n}$, more precisely, $s p \in A_{n} B_{n}, s \triangleright A_{n}, p \triangleleft B_{n}, s, p \neq \varepsilon$ :

First notice that $\sigma^{k}\left(b^{-1} c\right)=b^{-1} c(k \geqslant 0)$. We verify easily that $B_{n}=A_{n} b^{-1} c B_{n-1}$. This together with the assumption $p \triangleleft B_{n}$ (with $|p|<\left|A_{n}\right|<\left|B_{n}\right|$ ) implies that $p$ is in fact a prefix of $A_{n}$. Thus we have $s p \prec A_{n} A_{n}$ (recall that $|s p|=\left|A_{n}\right|$ ), which shows that $s p$ is a conjugate of $A_{n}$;

- $A_{n} C_{n}$ : just the same as the above case, $s p$ is a conjugate of $A_{n}$;
$-B_{n} A_{n}$ : Consider the position where $s p$ appears in

$$
B_{n} A_{n}=\left(A_{n-1} C_{n-1} B_{n-1}\right)\left(A_{n-1} B_{n-1}\right)
$$

If $s\left(s \triangleright A_{n-1} C_{n-1} B_{n-1}\right)$ appears as a suffix of $B_{n-1}$ in the above representation, $B_{n-1}$ being a suffix of $A_{n}$ (and $p$ is a prefix of $A_{n}$ ), we know that $s p$ is a conjugate of $A_{n}$. Now we consider the other positions of the factor $s p$. Since $s$ is a proper suffix of $B_{n}$ and $p$ is a proper prefix of $A_{n-1}$. The number of this kind of words is at most $\left|A_{n-1}\right|-1$;

- $C_{n} A_{n}$ : the factor $s p$ satisfies that $s$ is a proper suffix of $C_{n}$ and $p$ is a proper prefix of $A_{n}$. The number of this kind of words is at most $\left|A_{n}\right|-1$;
- $C_{n} B_{n}$ and $C_{n} C_{n}$ : whence $p$ is also a proper prefix of $A_{n}$, and there are no new factors $s p$ other than those of $C_{n} A_{n}$.

Counting out all possibilities discussed above, the number of factors of length $\left|A_{n}\right|$ is at most

$$
\left|A_{n}\right|+\left(\left|B_{n}\right|-\left|A_{n}\right|+1\right)+1+\left(\left|A_{n-1}\right|-1\right)+\left(\left|A_{n}\right|-1\right)=3\left|A_{n}\right| .
$$

Up to now, we have shown the following:
Lemma 2. For $n \geqslant 1$, the factors on length $\left|A_{n}\right|$ appearing in $\xi$ are either:

- a conjugate word of $A_{n}$;
- a factor of $B_{n}$ or $C_{n}$;
- a word of form sp with s a proper suffix of $B_{n}$ and $p$ a proper prefix of $A_{n-1}$;
$-a$ word of form $s p$ with $s$ a proper suffix of $C_{n}$ and $p$ a proper prefix of $A_{n}$.
In total, the number of factors of length $\left|A_{n}\right|$ is at most $3\left|A_{n}\right|$, i.e., $P_{\xi}\left(\left|A_{n}\right|\right) \leqslant 3\left|A_{n}\right|$.


### 3.2. Special words

The notion of "special words" is very useful for computing the complexity.
Let $w$ be a factor of $\xi$ and $\alpha \in \mathcal{A}$. If $w \alpha$ is also a factor of $\xi$, then we say that $w \alpha$ is a right extension (extension for short) of $w$. A word is called a right special word (special word for short) of $\xi$ if it has more than one extension. Similarly we define "left extension" and "left special word". Notice that a suffix of a special word is also a special word. See [7,5] for more information.

In this subsection, we study the special words of $\xi$, the fixed point of the triplex substitution.
In $\mathcal{L}_{1}=\{a, b, c\}$, the words $a$ and $c$ are special, and $a$ has two extensions $a b$ and $a c$, while $c$ has three extensions $c a, c b$ and $c c$. In $\mathcal{L}_{2}$, there are 3 special words $a c, c a$ and $b a$.


Fig. 1. Graph of special words (the part with length between $f(2 n+2)$ to $f(2 n+4)$ ).
Lemma 3. $A$ factor $w$ with $|w| \geqslant 2$ is special if and only if it has exactly two (right) extensions, namely $w b$ and $w c$.
Proof. Since a suffix of a special factor is also a special factor, we need only check the lemma for the words of length 2. And this is just a routine.

Lemma 4. For $n \geqslant 1$, we have:
(i) both $b \sigma^{n}(b) b^{-1}$ and $c \sigma^{n}(b) b^{-1}$ are special; both $b \sigma^{n}(a b) b^{-1}$ and $c \sigma^{n}(a b) b^{-1}$ are special;
(ii) the words $\sigma^{n-1}(a c c a b) b^{-1}$ and $\sigma^{n}(b a b) b^{-1}$ are special.

Proof. (1) Since $a b$ and $a c$ are factors of $\xi, A_{n} B_{n}$ and $A_{n} C_{n}$ are factors also. This, together with the facts that $C_{n}=B_{n} b^{-1} c$ and that $b$ is the last letter of $A_{n}$, gives that $u=b \sigma^{n}(b) b^{-1}$ has two right extensions $u b\left(<A_{n} B_{n}\right)$ and $u c\left(<A_{n} C_{n}\right)$, and thus it is special. Likewise, by considering the factors $c b$ and $c c$, we can show the word $c \sigma^{n}(b) b^{-1}$ is special.

Then considering the factor pairs $\{c a b, c a c\}$ and $\{b a b, b a c\}$, we can show similarly that both $c \sigma^{n}(a b) b^{-1}$ and $b \sigma^{n}(a b) b^{-1}$ are special.
(2) Since both $a c c a b \prec \sigma^{3}(c)$ and $a c c a c \prec \sigma^{2}(c)$ are factors, $\sigma^{n-1}(a c c a b) b^{-1}$ is special; since both bab and bac are factors, $\sigma^{n}(b a b) b^{-1}$ is special.

For more characteristics of the special words, see Remark 7 and Proposition 8.
Since any suffix of a special word is also special, the set of special words can be viewed as an infinite tree, with an edge from $w$ to its left extension $\alpha w$ if $\alpha w$ is special. From Lemma 4, we can get the "partial tree" shown in Fig. 1 of special factors with length between $f(2 n+2)$ to $f(2 n+4)$ (in the tree, many evident nodes on the path indicated by broken lines are omitted).

Let us remark that the special words are aligned vertically according to their lengths in Fig. 1. The following lemma is then clear:

Lemma 5. For $k \geqslant 2$, there are at least 3 special factors of length $k$.

### 3.3. Complexity

Theorem 6. The complexity of $\xi$ is $P(n)=3 n$ for $n \geqslant 1$.
Proof. It is clear that $P(1)=3$ and $P(2)=6$. It suffices to show that $P(n+1)-P(n)=3(n \geqslant 2)$.
By Lemma 5, $P(k+1)-P(k) \geqslant 3$ for all $k \geqslant 2$. If $P\left(k_{0}+1\right)-P\left(k_{0}\right)>3$ for some $k_{0}$, then $P(n)>3 n$ whenever $n>k_{0}$. In particular $P\left(\left|A_{n}\right|\right)>3\left|A_{n}\right|$ when $\left|A_{n}\right|>k_{0}$, which contradicts Lemma 2.

Remark 7. The above theorem implies that there are exact three special words of length $n \geqslant 2$. Hence Fig. 1 presents all the special words of length between $f(2 n+2)$ and $f(2 n+4)$ (of course, do not ignore the omitted nodes).

The following concept is useful to determine the complexity of substitutive sequences:
Definition 1. Let $w$ be a special word of $\xi$. If $w$ has exactly $k$ left extensions which are special words, we say that $w$ is a $k$-special word.

By the above remark (and from Fig. 1) we have the following:
Proposition 8. The special words $\sigma^{n}(b) b^{-1}$ and $\sigma^{n}(a b) b^{-1}$ are 2-special; $\sigma^{n-1}(a c c a b) b^{-1}$ and $\sigma^{n}(b a b) b^{-1}$ are 0 -special; all other special words in the tree (Fig. 1) are 1-special.

We end this note by giving a classes of substitutions with complexity $3 n$ (moreover they share the same language with the triplex substitution), of which the proof is easy and omitted:

Proposition 9. Let $\tau$ be the conjugate of the triplex substitution $\sigma$, i.e., $\tau=(b a, c b a, c c a)$, and $\sigma^{(m)}=\sigma_{m} \circ \cdots \circ \sigma_{1}$ with $\sigma_{i} \in\{\sigma, \tau\}, 1 \leqslant i \leqslant m$. Suppose that $\xi^{\prime}$ is any one of the accumulation points of $\left\{\sigma^{(m)}(\alpha)\right\}_{m \geqslant 1}, \alpha \in \mathcal{A}$, then the complexity of the sequence $\xi^{\prime}$ is $P_{\xi^{\prime}}(n)=3 n(n \geqslant 1)$.

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