

Latin square Thue-Morse sequences are overlap-free

C. Robinson Tompkins

► **To cite this version:**

C. Robinson Tompkins. Latin square Thue-Morse sequences are overlap-free. Discrete Mathematics and Theoretical Computer Science, DMTCS, 2007, 9 (1), pp.239–246. <hal-00966502>

HAL Id: hal-00966502

<https://hal.inria.fr/hal-00966502>

Submitted on 26 Mar 2014

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

Latin Square Thue-Morse Sequences are Overlap-Free

C. Robinson Tompkins

Department of Mathematics, University of South Carolina, Columbia, South Carolina 29208
tompkicr@math.sc.edu

received June 6, 2007, revised September 18, 2007, accepted October 2, 2007.

We define a morphism based upon a Latin square that generalizes the Thue-Morse morphism. We prove that fixed points of this morphism are overlap-free sequences, generalizing results of Allouche - Shallit and Frid.

Keywords: overlap-free word, Latin square morphism

1 Introduction

In his 1912 paper, Axel Thue introduced the first binary sequence that does not contain an overlap [7]. It is now called the Thue-Morse sequence:

$$01101001100101101001011001101001 \dots$$

An overlap is a string of letters in the form $cxcxc$ where c is a single letter and x is finite string that is potentially empty. Overlaps begin with a square, namely ww where $w = cx$ as given above. It is easy to observe, as Thue did, that any binary string of four or more letters must contain a square.

There are several ways to define the Thue-Morse sequence [2]. We will derive it as a fixed point of a morphism. Let Σ be an alphabet and let $\Sigma^* \cup \Sigma^\omega$ be the set of all finite or infinite strings over Σ . A morphism is a mapping

$$h : \Sigma^* \cup \Sigma^\omega \rightarrow \Sigma^* \cup \Sigma^\omega$$

that obeys the identity $h(xy) = h(x)h(y)$, for x a finite string and $y \in \Sigma^* \cup \Sigma^\omega$ [1, p. 8].

By [1, p. 16], define the Thue-Morse morphism on $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$ as

$$\mu(t) = \begin{cases} 01, & \text{for } t = 0 \\ 10, & \text{for } t = 1 \end{cases} . \quad (1)$$

The sequence found by applying 0 to the the n th iterate of μ converges to the Thue-Morse sequence,

denoted $\mu^\omega(0)$, which of course is infinite. In particular,

$$\begin{aligned}\mu(0) &= 01 \\ \mu^2(0) &= \mu(\mu(0)) = \mu(01) = \mu(0)\mu(1) = 0110 \\ \mu^3(0) &= \mu(\mu^2(0)) = \mu(0110) = 01101001 \\ &\vdots \\ \mu^\omega(0) &= 01101001100101101001011001101001 \dots\end{aligned}$$

Notice that $\mu^\omega(\mu(0)) = \mu^\omega(0)$ and $\mu(\mu^\omega(0)) = \mu^\omega(0)$. This second observation says that the Thue-Morse sequence is a fixed point of μ [1, p. 10].

We can identify the binary alphabet of the Thue-Morse sequence with $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$ the integers modulo 2. It is natural to then generalize it to $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$, by considering the alphabet $\Sigma = \{0, 1, \dots, n-1\}$, and for $i \in \Sigma$, defining the morphism

$$\phi_n(i) = \overline{i+0} \overline{i+1} \dots \overline{i+(n-1)},$$

where \bar{i} is the residue modulo n . Notice that for $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$, $\phi_2(i) = \mu(i)$. In 2000, Allouche and Shallit proved that ϕ_n^ω is overlap-free [3].

In this paper, we generalize ϕ_n , which is based on the Cayley table of $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$, to Latin squares of arbitrary finite size n . We define our morphism based the Latin square, and prove that the fixed point of the Latin square morphism is an overlap-free sequence. Note that the Cayley table for $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ is a Latin square, but not every Latin square is a Cayley table.

2 Latin Square Morphisms produce Tilings

Allouche and Shallit's morphism can be seen as a mapping of i to the i^{th} row (that begins with i) of the Cayley table for $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$. For example when $n = 3$, we have

$$\begin{array}{rcl}\phi_3 & & \\ 0 & \rightarrow & 0 \ 1 \ 2 \\ 1 & \rightarrow & 1 \ 2 \ 0 \\ 2 & \rightarrow & 2 \ 0 \ 1\end{array}$$

This suggests a natural generalization to any Latin square.

Begin with a generic alphabet of n letters, which we may assume to be $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$. Recall that a Latin square \mathcal{L} is an $n \times n$ table with n different letters such that each letter occurs only once in each column and only once in each row. We will concern ourself with the Latin squares in which the first column retains the natural order of our alphabet $(1, 2, \dots, n)$. For $n = 3$, there are two such Latin squares. The one that does not come from $\mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z}$ directly is

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Let \mathcal{L}_t denote the t^{th} row of our Latin square \mathcal{L} . For each $t \in \Sigma$ we define the Latin square morphism by $\ell(t) = \mathcal{L}_t$. For example we can use the above Latin square for $n = 3$ to define the following morphism,

$$\ell(t) = \begin{cases} 132, & \text{for } t = 1 \\ 213, & \text{for } t = 2 \\ 321, & \text{for } t = 3 \end{cases}$$

Given any $t \in \Sigma$, $\ell(t), \ell^2(t), \ell^3(t), \dots$ converges to a sequence $\ell^\omega(t)$, which is a fixed point of the morphism ℓ . So,

$$\ell(\ell^\omega(t)) = \ell^\omega(t) \tag{2}$$

In fact every fixed point of ℓ is of the form $\ell^\omega(t)$ for some $t \in \Sigma$ [1, p. 10].

Express the sequence as $\ell^\omega(t_1) = t_1 t_2 t_3 \dots$, so

$$\ell^\omega(t_1) = \ell(\ell^\omega(t_1)) = \ell(t_1 t_2 t_3 \dots) = \ell(t_1)\ell(t_2)\ell(t_3) \dots$$

Thus, we have a tiling of our sequence (and of the natural numbers) by the rows of our Latin square \mathcal{L} . Again, in terms of our example where $n = 3$ we have three tiles 132, 213, and 321 and so

$$\ell^\omega(1) = 132321213321213132 \dots = |132|321|213|321|213|132| \dots$$

Now, consider the subsequence created by taking the first letter of each tile. Notice that this sequence is in fact our original sequence. Thus our sequence contains itself as a subsequence. These two observations, our sequence as a tiling and our sequence equaling a subsequence of itself, will be critical for the proof of our main result.

3 Overlap-Free Latin Square Sequences

In this section we prove our main result.

Theorem 1 *Let $\Sigma = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$, and let \mathcal{L} be an $n \times n$ Latin square using the letters from Σ , with the first column in its natural order. For an arbitrary $t \in \Sigma$, let \mathcal{L}_t denote the row of \mathcal{L} corresponding to t in the first column. If we define the Latin square morphism as*

$$\ell(t) = \mathcal{L}_t,$$

then we have that for any $t \in \Sigma$, $\ell^\omega(t)$ is an overlap-free sequence.

Remark 1 *The Latin square for $n = 3$ above can be seen to be the Cayley table for $\mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z}$ with the last two columns transposed. Frid has shown that all morphisms based upon such Latin squares for $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ produce overlap-free sequences as their fixed points [6]. Of course not every Latin square comes from a group Cayley table. For an example of a Latin square that is not a group Cayley table see below [4, p. 27].*

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 2 & 1 & 6 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 3 & 4 & 5 & 2 & 6 & 1 \\ 4 & 5 & 1 & 6 & 2 & 3 \\ 5 & 6 & 4 & 1 & 3 & 2 \\ 6 & 3 & 2 & 5 & 1 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

Proof: Let $\ell^\omega(t_1) = t_1 t_2 t_3 \dots$ so the j^{th} letter in the sequence is t_j . Similarly, the m^{th} tile in the sequence is T_m . We will be also using the notion of length of a string of letters, meaning the number

of letters in a string. For an arbitrary string w the length of w will be denoted $|w|$. Use r to denote the location of t_j on its tile T_m , so $j = (m-1)n + r$ with $|T_m| = n$ and $r \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$.

Assume for a contradiction that $\ell^\omega(t_1)$ contains an overlap; moreover that $cx\text{c}x\text{c}$ is the shortest overlap in $\ell^\omega(t_1)$. Write $\ell^\omega(t_1) = Acx\text{c}x\text{c}B$, where c is a single letter, \mathbf{x} is a finite string with $|\mathbf{cx}| \geq n$, A is a finite string, and B is the infinite tail of our sequence. We have that $|\mathbf{cx}| \geq n$ (bound by the length of the tiles) because each tile is a permutation of $1, 2, \dots, n$, and we cannot have two of the three copies of c contained in one tile. Our subscripts place this overlap in our sequence. For $i \in \{1, 2, 3\}$, let j_i denote the subscript of the i^{th} c . Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} A &= t_1 \cdots t_{j_1-1} \\ c &= t_{j_1} = t_{j_2} = t_{j_3} \\ \mathbf{x} &= t_{j_1+1} \cdots t_{j_2-1} = t_{j_2+1} \cdots t_{j_3-1} \\ B &= t_{j_3+1} t_{j_3+2} t_{j_3+3} \cdots, \end{aligned} \tag{3}$$

Our argument proceeds as follows: there are two cases $|\mathbf{cx}| \not\equiv 0 \pmod{n}$ and $|\mathbf{cx}| \equiv 0 \pmod{n}$. In the first case we use the fact that we have a tiling of $\ell^\omega(t_1)$ by the rows of a Latin square, to show that the overlap $cx\text{c}x\text{c}$ is not possible. In the second case, when $|\mathbf{cx}| \equiv 0 \pmod{n}$, we argue based upon the fact that $\ell^\omega(t_1)$ contains itself as a subsequence that the existence of the overlap $cx\text{c}x\text{c}$ leads to the existence of a shorter overlap, and thus a contradiction.

3.1 Case 1: $|\mathbf{cx}| \not\equiv 0 \pmod{n}$

For each $i \in \{1, 2, 3\}$, let $r_i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ such that $r_i \equiv j_i \pmod{n}$. In other words t_{j_i} is the r_i^{th} letter in its tile in $\ell^\omega(t_1)$. Also, we will refer to the tile containing t_{j_i} as T_{m_i} . It is now possible to write the length of \mathbf{cx} as $|\mathbf{cx}| \equiv r_2 - r_1 \equiv r_3 - r_2 \pmod{n}$. So,

$$r_3 \equiv 2r_2 - r_1 \pmod{n}. \tag{4}$$

3.1.1 Six Cases

Since $r_2 - r_1 \equiv |\mathbf{cx}| \not\equiv 0 \pmod{n}$ there are two main cases that we will first consider: $r_1 < r_2$ and $r_2 < r_1$. However, for the explicit details of our conclusions we will consider all six of the following possibilities depending on the value of r_3 ,

$$\begin{aligned} r_3 = 2r_2 - r_1 &\longleftrightarrow \begin{cases} r_1 < r_2 < r_3 \\ r_3 < r_2 < r_1 \end{cases} \\ r_3 = 2r_2 - r_1 - n &\longleftrightarrow \begin{cases} r_1 \leq r_3 < r_2 \\ r_3 < r_1 < r_2 \end{cases} \\ r_3 = 2r_2 - r_1 + n &\longleftrightarrow \begin{cases} r_2 < r_1 \leq r_3 \\ r_2 < r_3 < r_1 \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

The equalities on the left arise out of equation (4) and the fact that the integer $2r_2 - r_1$ satisfies, $-n \leq 2r_2 - r_1 \leq 2n$. This means that r_3 is the element in the set $\{2r_2 - r_1 + n, 2r_2 - r_1, 2r_2 - r_1 - n\}$ that lies in the interval $0 < r_3 \leq n$. Notice that $r_3 = 2r_2 - r_1$ in both cases when $r_1 < r_2$ and $r_2 < r_1$.

3.1.2 G and the beginning of each cx

When $r_1 < r_2$, we pick $G \subset \Sigma$ to be the last $r_2 - r_1$ letters in T_{m_1} such that G has no specific order and $G \neq \emptyset$. Of course, the remainder of the letters in T_{m_1} are in \overline{G} , the complement of G . Notice that this puts $c = t_{j_1} \in \overline{G}$. By equating the letters in T_{m_1} with the corresponding letters in $t_{j_2}xt_{j_3}$, we find that the last $n - r_2 + 1$ letters of T_{m_2} (starting with $c = t_{j_2}$) are in \overline{G} . Also, we find that the first $r_2 - r_1$ letters of T_{m_2+1} are G .

When $r_2 < r_1$, we pick $G \subset \Sigma$ to be the last $r_1 - r_2$ letters in T_{m_2} such that G has no specific order and $G \neq \emptyset$. Obviously, the remainder of letters in T_{m_2} must be those that make up \overline{G} again placing $c = t_{j_2} \in \overline{G}$. By equating the letters in T_{m_2} with the corresponding letters in $t_{j_1}xt_{j_2}$ we find that the last $n - r_1 + 1$ letters of T_{m_1} (starting with $c = t_{j_1}$) are in \overline{G} . Also, we find that the first $r_1 - r_2$ letters of T_{m_1+1} are G .

We have discussed the appearance of G and its complement \overline{G} in the beginning of each cx . So, we set forth to describe G and \overline{G} at the end of each cx .

3.1.3 Following G through the overlap

It is a basic observation that because each tile is a permutation of the letters in Σ , each tile can be partitioned into G and its complement \overline{G} . It is fundamental to our argument that because of the equality $t_{j_1}xt_{j_2} = cxc = t_{j_2}xt_{j_3}$, the letters in G form a contiguous collection of elements in each tile involved in our overlap excluding T_{m_i} (each of which will need further description), either the beginning or the ending of each tile. The idea involved in following G through the overlap is quite simple, we illustrate it in one particular case $r_1 < r_2 < r_3$.

We have explicitly described the location of G at the beginning of each cx . We will now use our example $r_1 < r_2 < r_3$ to show to the reader how the tiling of our sequence can be used to find the location of G at the end of each cx . In doing so, we will refer to Figure 1.

In Figure 1, we have displaced the overlap from our sequence (represented by the continuous solid horizontal line). We have also split our overlap in half leaving T_{m_2} intact for equality purposes. We have placed $t_{j_1}xt_{j_2}$ over $t_{j_2}xt_{j_3}$ with t_{j_1} directly over t_{j_2} and t_{j_2} directly over t_{j_3} so that we can see equality of terms simply by looking straight up or straight down (displayed by vertical arrows). The set of letters G is represented by a horizontal solid line above and below our sequence line, and the set of letters \overline{G} is represented by horizontal dotted lines above and below the sequence line. Also, notice that we have drawn in the edges of the tiles with smaller vertical black lines.

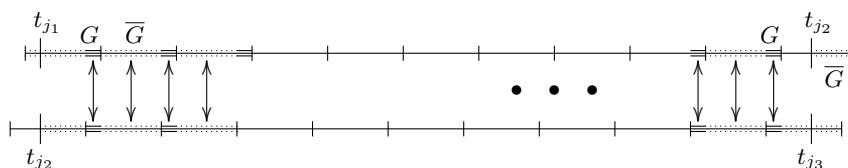


Figure 1: The situation when $r_1 < r_2 < r_3$.

Now notice that by using the tiles we can equate letters in $t_{j_1}xt_{j_2}$ with $t_{j_2}xt_{j_3}$ all the way through the overlap. Since we know that G occurs in the first $r_2 - r_1$ letters of T_{m_2+1} , then \overline{G} is the last $n - (r_2 - r_1)$ letters of $T_{m_2} + 1$. This causes \overline{G} to be the first $n - (r_2 - r_1)$ letters of T_{m_1+1} , and thus G appears in the last $r_2 - r_1$ letters of T_{m_1+1} . Thus we can conclude that G occurs in the last $r_2 - r_1$ letters of all the tiles in $t_{j_1}xt_{j_2}$ except for T_{m_2} . We can also conclude that G occurs in the first $r_2 - r_1$ letters of all the tiles in $t_{j_2}xt_{j_3}$ up through T_{m_3-1} . We can approach every case by the same process.

3.1.4 G and how each $c\mathbf{x}$ ends

We now will explain the conclusions for the six possible cases that we defined earlier, leaving the actual drawing to the reader.

Case $r_1 < r_2 < r_3$ (as seen in Figure 1). After we follow G through the overlap, we find that G occurs in the first $r_2 - r_1$ letters of T_{m_3} . Recall $r_3 = 2r_2 - r_1$. So, we have that the next $r_3 - (r_2 - r_1) = r_2$ letters of T_{m_3} are not in G . Notice that the size of G , $r_2 - r_1$, added to r_2 make up all of r_3 . This places the boundary between T_{m_2-1} and T_{m_2} exactly in line with the end of G in T_{m_3} and the beginning of \overline{G} . We then equate the first letters in T_{m_3} with those in T_{m_2} to find that G occurs nowhere in T_{m_2} . So now, we have described T_{m_2} fully. Earlier we defined G such that \overline{G} occurred from t_{j_2} to the end of the tile, and we have just shown that the first r_2 letters of T_{m_2} (which includes t_{j_2}) must be in \overline{G} . So G does not appear in anywhere in T_{m_2} , and since $G \neq \emptyset$, we must have a contradiction.

Cases $r_1 \leq r_3 < r_2$ and $r_3 < r_1 < r_2$. After we follow G through the overlap, we find that G occurs in the first $r_2 - r_1$ letters of T_{m_3-1} . So, \overline{G} occurs in the final $n - (r_2 - r_1)$ letters of T_{m_3-1} causing the first $n - (r_2 - r_1)$ letters of T_{m_2} to be \overline{G} . Notice that $r_2 = [n - (r_2 - r_1)] + r_3$. So the boundary between \overline{G} and G in T_{m_2} coincides with the boundary between T_{m_3-1} and T_{m_3} . This means that $t_{j_2} \in G$, but we assumed that $c \notin G$ earlier which is a contradiction.

Case $r_3 < r_2 < r_1$. After we follow G through the overlap, we find that G occurs in the last $r_1 - r_2$ letters of T_{m_3-1} . This causes G to occur in the first $r_1 - r_2$ letters of T_{m_2} by equality of $t_{j_1} \mathbf{x} t_{j_2}$ and $t_{j_2} \mathbf{x} t_{j_3}$. To describe the remaining letters of T_{m_2} up to and including t_{j_2} consider $r_2 - (r_1 - r_2) = r_3$. So \overline{G} occurs in the next r_3 letters after G . Thus we have that G is repeated twice in T_{m_2} so we have our contradiction.

Cases $r_2 < r_1 \leq r_3$ and $r_2 < r_3 < r_1$. After we follow G through the overlap we find that G occurs in the first $r_1 - r_2$ letters of T_{m_2-1} . This causes \overline{G} to occur in the final $n - (r_1 - r_2)$ letters of T_{m_2-1} and thus the first $n - (r_1 - r_2)$ letters of T_{m_3} . Since $r_2 = r_3 - [n - (r_1 - r_2)]$, we see that the left boundary of T_{m_2} coincides with the right boundary of these first $n - (r_1 - r_2)$ letters of T_{m_3} . In particular, this means that the last $r_1 - r_2$ letters of T_{m_3} , which include c , are in G . But, this contradicts the fact that $c \notin G$.

3.2 Case 2: $|c\mathbf{x}| \equiv 0 \pmod{n}$

We begin by considering some $\pi \in S_n$ the symmetric group on n letters. Note that we may apply π to any string by requiring π to act on each individual letter, so $\pi(t_1 t_2 \dots t_s) = \pi(t_1) \pi(t_2) \dots \pi(t_s)$. Thus π can be treated as a morphism. Moreover, $\pi : \Sigma^* \rightarrow \Sigma^*$ is an invertible map because $\pi \in S_n$. Thus $w \in \Sigma^*$ contains an overlap if and only if $\pi(w) \in \Sigma^*$ contains an overlap.

Define the function $d_{(a,n)} : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ by $d_{(a,n)}(m) = (m-1)n + a$. Now if we let $M = (t_s)$ be a sequence, then define the sequence given by the function $D_{(a,n)}(M)$ to be the subsequence $(t_{d_{(a,n)}(s)})$ of M . So for $i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ arbitrary we have that

$$D_{(i,n)}(\ell^\omega(t_1)) = t_i t_{i+n} t_{i+2n} \dots$$

Define $\pi_i : \Sigma \rightarrow \Sigma$ with $\pi_i \in S_n$, such that if $\mathcal{L}_{t_1} = \{t_1, t_2, \dots, t_i, \dots, t_n\}$, $\pi_i(t_1) = t_i$. Recall that \mathcal{L}_t refers to the t^{th} row of our Latin square \mathcal{L} . So we have that π_i maps each letter in the first column of our Latin square, to the i^{th} letter of its corresponding row. Now, we want to show that $\pi_i(\ell^\omega(t)) =$

$D_{(i,n)}(\ell^\omega(t))$ for all $t \in \Sigma$. So take

$$\begin{aligned} D_{(i,n)}(\ell^\omega(t_1)) &= D_{(i,n)}(\ell(\ell^\omega(t_1))) \\ &= D_{(i,n)}(\ell(t_1)\ell(t_2)\ell(t_3)\cdots) \\ &= \pi_i(t_1)\pi_i(t_2)\pi_i(t_3)\cdots \\ &= \pi_i(\ell^\omega(t_1)). \end{aligned}$$

Since $\pi_i \in S_n$ is invertible we can conclude that $D_{(i,n)}(\ell^\omega(t_1))$ contains an overlap if and only if $\ell^\omega(t_1)$ contains an overlap.

Since $|c\mathbf{x}| \equiv 0 \pmod{n}$ pick $i \equiv j_1 \equiv j_2 \equiv j_3 \pmod{n}$. By applying $D_{(i,n)}$ to (4) we obtain

$$D_{(i,n)}(\ell^\omega(t_1)) = A_i t_{j_1} \mathbf{x}_i t_{j_2} \mathbf{x}_i t_{j_3} B_i$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} A_i &= D_{(i,n)}(A) = t_i t_{i+n} t_{i+2n} \cdots, \\ \mathbf{x}_i &= D_{(i,n)}(\mathbf{x}) = t_{j_1+n} t_{j_1+2n} \cdots t_{j_1+(m-1)n} \\ &= t_{j_2+n} t_{j_2+2n} \cdots t_{j_2+(m-1)n}, \\ B_i &= D_{(i,n)}(B) = t_{j_3+n} t_{j_3+2n} t_{j_3+3n} \cdots, \end{aligned}$$

and $m = |c\mathbf{x}|/n$. Observe that $D_{(i,n)}(\ell^\omega(t_1))$ contains a shorter overlap which implies that $\ell^\omega(t_1)$ also contains a shorter overlap, a contradiction of our assumption. \square

4 Acknowledgements

I would like to thank Dr. Griff Elder, my research advisor for his guidance. I would also like to thank Dr. Dan Farkas for introducing me to the Thue-Morse sequence at Virginia Tech's Undergraduate Research workshop in 2006 funded by the NSA and for the idea that lead to the argument for $|c\mathbf{x}| \equiv 0 \pmod{n}$. Lastly, I would like to thank the referees and Professor Anca Muscholl for helping me correct my notation.

References

- [1] J.-P. Allouche and J. Shallit. *Automatic Sequences: Theory, Applications, Generalizations*. Cambridge Press, Cambridge, UK. (2003), 1-17.
- [2] J.-P. Allouche and J. Shallit. The ubiquitous Prouhet-Thue-Morse sequence. In C. Ding, T. Helleseeth and H. Niederreiter, eds., *Sequences and Their Applications, Proceedings of SETA'98*, Springer-Verlag, 1999, 1-16.
- [3] J.-P. Allouche and J. Shallit. Sums of Digits, Overlaps, and Palindromes. *Discrete Mathematics and Theoretical Computer Science* **4**, 2000, 001-010.
- [4] J. Dénes and A.D. Keedwell. *Latin Squares and Their Applications*. Academic Press Inc., New York, New York and London, UK. (1974), 1-27.
- [5] A. Frid. Applying a Uniform Marked Morphism to a Word. *Discrete Mathematics and Theoretical Computer Science* **3**, 1999, 125-140.
- [6] A. Frid. Overlap-Free Symmetric D0L words. *Discrete Mathematics and Theoretical Computer Science* **4**, 2001, 357-362.
- [7] A. Thue, Über die gegenseitige Lage gleicher Teile gewisser Zeichenreihen, *Norske vid. Selsk. Skr. Mat. Nat. Kl.* **1** (1912), 1-67. Reprinted in "Selected mathematical papers of Axel Thue," T. Nagell, ed., Universitetsforlaget, Oslo, 1977, 413-478.