

Minimal complexity of equidistributed infinite permutations

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Abstract

An *infinite permutation* is a linear ordering of the set of natural numbers. An infinite permutation can be defined by a sequence of real numbers where only the order of elements is taken into account. In the paper we investigate a new class of *equidistributed* infinite permutations, that is, infinite permutations which can be defined by equidistributed sequences. Similarly to infinite words, a complexity $p(n)$ of an infinite permutation is defined as a function counting the number of its subpermutations of length n . For infinite words, a classical result of Morse and Hedlund, 1938, states that if the complexity of an infinite word satisfies $p(n) \leq n$ for some n , then the word is ultimately periodic. Hence minimal complexity of aperiodic words is equal to $n + 1$, and words with such complexity are called Sturmian. For infinite permutations this does not hold: There exist aperiodic permutations with complexity functions growing arbitrarily slowly, and hence there are no permutations of minimal complexity. We show that, unlike for permutations in general, the minimal complexity of an equidistributed permutation α is $p_\alpha(n) = n$. The class of equidistributed permutations of minimal complexity coincides with the class of so-called Sturmian permutations, directly related to Sturmian words.

1 Introduction

Infinite permutations can be defined as equivalence classes of real sequences with distinct elements, such that only the order of elements is taken into

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account. In other words, an infinite permutation is a linear order on \mathbb{N} . An infinite permutation can be considered as an object close to an infinite word where instead of symbols we have transitive relations $<$ or $>$ between each pair of elements. So, many properties of such permutations can be considered from a symbolic dynamical point of view.

Infinite permutations in the considered sense were introduced in [10]; see also a very similar approach coming from dynamics [7] and summarised in [2]. Since then, they were studied in two main directions: first, permutations directly constructed with the use of words are studied to reveal new properties of words used for their construction [9, 17, 18, 19, 21, 22, 23]. In the other approach, properties of infinite permutations are studied in comparison with those of infinite words, showing some resemblance and some difference.

In particular, both for words and permutations, the (factor) complexity is bounded if and only if the word or the permutation is ultimately periodic [10, 20]. However, for minimal complexity in the aperiodic case the situations are different: The minimal complexity of an aperiodic word is $n + 1$, and the words of this complexity are well-studied Sturmian words [16, 20]. As for the permutations, there is no “minimal” complexity function for the aperiodic case: for any unbounded non-decreasing function, we can construct an aperiodic infinite permutation of complexity ultimately less than this function [10]. The situation is different for the *maximal pattern complexity* [13, 14]: there is a minimal complexity for both aperiodic words and permutations, but for permutations, unlike for words, the cases of minimal complexity are characterised [3]. All the permutations of lowest maximal pattern complexity are closely related to Sturmian words, whereas words may have lowest maximal pattern complexity even if they have a different structure [14].

Other results on the comparison of words and permutations include discussions of automatic permutations [12] and of the Fine and Wilf theorem [11], and a study of square-free permutations [6].

In this paper we introduce a new class of *equidistributed* infinite permutations and study their complexity. An equidistributed permutation then is a permutation which can be defined by an equidistributed sequence of distinct numbers from $[0, 1]$ with the natural order; and we show that this class of permutations is natural and wide. Some of equidistributed permutations can be defined using uniquely ergodic infinite words, or, equivalently, symbolic dynamical systems. A very similar approach directly relating uniquely ergodic symbolic dynamical systems and specific dynamical systems on $[0, 1]$, without explicitly introducing infinite permutations, was used by Lopez and

Narbel in [15].

We prove that if we restrict ourselves to the class of equidistributed permutations, then, contrary to the general case, the minimal complexity exists and is equal to n . Moreover, equidistributed permutations of minimal complexity are exactly Sturmian permutations in the sense of [19].

The paper is organized as follows. After general basic definitions and a section on the properties of Sturmian words (and permutations), we introduce equidistributed permutations and study their basic properties. The main result of the paper, Theorem 5.1, characterising equidistributed permutations of minimal complexity, is proved in Section 5.

Some of the results of this paper, for a much more restrictive definition of an *ergodic* permutation, were presented at the conference DLT 2015 [5].

2 Basic definitions

In this paper, we consider three following types of infinite objects. First, we need infinite words over a finite, often binary, alphabet: an infinite word is denoted by $u = u[0]u[1] \dots u[n] \dots$, where $u[i]$ are letters of the alphabet. Then, we make use of infinite sequences of reals, denoted by $a = (a[n])_{n=0}^\infty$. We say that two infinite sequences $(a[n])_{n=0}^\infty$ and $(b[n])_{n=0}^\infty$ of pairwise distinct reals are *equivalent*, denoted by $(a[n])_{n=0}^\infty \sim (b[n])_{n=0}^\infty$, if for all i, j the conditions $a[i] < a[j]$ and $b[i] < b[j]$ are equivalent. Since we consider only sequences of pairwise distinct real numbers, the same condition can be defined by substituting $(<)$ by $(>)$: $a[i] > a[j]$ if and only if $b[i] > b[j]$. At last, we consider infinite permutations defined as follows.

Definition 2.1. An *infinite permutation* is an equivalence class of infinite sequences of pairwise distinct reals under the equivalence \sim .

So, an infinite permutation is a linear ordering of the set $\mathbb{N}_0 = \{0, \dots, n, \dots\}$, and a sequence of reals from the equivalence class defining the permutation is called a *representative* of a permutation. We denote an infinite permutation by $\alpha = (\alpha[n])_{n=0}^\infty$, where $\alpha[i]$ are abstract elements equipped by an order: $\alpha[i] < \alpha[j]$ if and only if $a[i] < a[j]$ for a representative $(a[n])$ of α . So, one of the simplest ways to define an infinite permutation is by a representative, which can be any sequence of distinct real numbers.

Example 2.2. Both sequences $(a[n]) = (1, -1/2, 1/4, \dots)$ with $a[n] = (-1/2)^n$ and $(b[n])$ with $b[n] = 1000 + (-1/3)^n$ are representatives of the same permutation $\alpha = \alpha[0], \alpha[1], \dots$ defined by

$$\alpha[2n] > \alpha[2n+2] > \alpha[2k+3] > \alpha[2k+1]$$

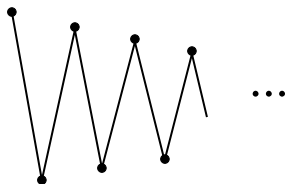


Figure 1: A graphic illustration of the permutation from Example 2.2

for all $n, k \geq 0$. So, the sequence of elements with even indices is decreasing, the sequence of elements with odd indices is increasing, and every element with an even index is greater than any element with an odd index. A way to represent the permutation α as a chart is given in Fig. 1; here the elements which are bigger are higher on the image.

A *factor* of an infinite word (resp., sequence, permutation) is any finite sequence of its consecutive letters (resp., elements). For $j \geq i$, the factor $u[i] \cdots u[j]$ of an infinite word $u = u[0]u[1] \cdots u[n] \cdots$ is denoted by $u[i..j]$, and we use similar notation for sequences and permutations. The *length* of such a factor f , denoted by $|f|$, is $j - i + 1$. Factors are considered as new objects unrelated to their position in the bigger object, so, a factor of an infinite word is just a finite word, and a factor of an infinite permutation can be interpreted as a usual finite permutation. In particular, for the example above for any even i we have $\alpha[i] > \alpha[i+2] > \alpha[i+3] > \alpha[i+1]$ and thus can write $\alpha[i..i+3] = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 4 & 1 & 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$. However, in general infinite permutations cannot be defined as permutations of \mathbb{N}_0 . For instance, the permutation from Fig. 1 has a maximal element.

An infinite word u is called *ultimately* $(|w|)$ -*periodic* if $u = vw^w \cdots = vw^\omega$ for some finite words v, w , where w is non-empty. An infinite permutation α is called *ultimately* (t) -*periodic* if for all sufficiently large i, j the conditions $\alpha[i] < \alpha[j]$ and $\alpha[i+t] < \alpha[j+t]$ are equivalent. The permutation from Fig. 1 is ultimately 2-periodic, as well as the word $0010101 \cdots = 0(01)^\omega$. A word or a permutation which is not ultimately periodic is called *aperiodic*.

The *complexity* $p_u(n)$ (resp., $p_\alpha(n)$) of an infinite word u (resp., permutation α) is a function counting the number of its factors of length n . Both for infinite words [20] and for infinite permutations [10], the complexity is a non-decreasing function, and the bounded complexity is equivalent to periodicity. However, for words, a stronger result holds: The complexity of an aperiodic word u satisfies $p_u(n) \geq n + 1$ [20]. The words of complexity $n + 1$ are called *Sturmian* and are discussed in Section 4.

As it was proved in [10], contrary to words, we cannot distinguish permutations of “minimal” complexity: for each unbounded non-decreasing function $f(n)$ with integer values, we can find a permutation α on \mathbb{N}_0 such that for n large enough, $p_\alpha(n) < f(n)$. The required permutation can be defined by the inequalities $\alpha[2n-1] < \alpha[2n+1]$ and $\alpha[2n] < \alpha[2n+2]$ for all $n \geq 1$, and $\alpha[2n_k-2] < \alpha[2k-1] < \alpha[2n_k]$ for a sequence $\{n_k\}_{k=1}^\infty$ which grows sufficiently fast (see [10] for further details).

In this paper, we introduce a new natural notion of an *equidistributed* permutation and prove that the minimal complexity of an equidistributed permutation is n . First, a sequence $(a[n])_{n=0}^\infty$ of reals from $[a, b]$ is called *equidistributed* if for each $t \in [a, b]$ the following limit exists and is equal to $\frac{t-a}{b-a}$:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\#\{a[i] | a[i] < t, 0 \leq i < n\}}{n} = \frac{t-a}{b-a}.$$

In particular, in an equidistributed sequence the fraction of elements from an interval from $[0, 1]$ is equal to the length of the interval.

Definition 2.3. We say that a permutation is *equidistributed* if it admits a representative which is an equidistributed sequence $(a[n])$ on the interval $[0, 1]$.

We remark that such a representative is unique and we call it *canonical*. Indeed, for an equidistributed representative $(a[n])$ and for every its element $a[i]$, taking $t = a[i]$ we get that the limit $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\#\{a[j] | a[j] < a[i], 0 \leq j < n\}}{n}$ exists and is equal to $a[i]$. So, the equidistributed representative of a permutation α , if it exists, is unique, and its element $a[i]$ can be defined by the permutation α as the limit

$$a[i] = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\#\{\alpha[j] | \alpha[j] < \alpha[i], 0 \leq j < n\}}{n}. \quad (1)$$

Remark 2.4. Any equidistributed sequence on $[0, 1]$ with pairwise distinct elements is a canonical representative of an equidistributed permutation. In other words, almost all sequences of numbers from $[0, 1]$ are canonical representatives of equidistributed permutations.

Note that in the preliminary version of this paper [5], a related notion of an *ergodic* permutation has been considered. The definition of an ergodic permutation requires the limit (1) to be uniform on all factors of α of length n . So, all ergodic permutations are equidistributed, but the class of ergodic permutations is a set of measure zero, while almost all permutations are equidistributed.

Example 2.5. Consider an aperiodic infinite word $u = u_0 \cdots u_n \cdots$ on a finite ordered alphabet and the lexicographic order on its shifts $T^k u = u_k u_{k+1} \cdots$. This order defines a permutation, and as it was proved in [4] (see also [15] for a very similar approach), if the word u is uniquely ergodic, that is, if the uniform frequencies of factors of u are well-defined and positive, then the permutation is equidistributed. However, some words which are not uniquely ergodic (and in particular, almost all random words) also give rise to equidistributed permutations.

The direct link between uniquely ergodic infinite words and equidistributed sequences, which we call canonical representatives of respective permutations, was investigated in [15]. It was proved basically that if such a word is of low complexity, then the respective equidistributed sequence is a trajectory of an infinite interval exchange.

Example 2.6. Since for any irrational σ and for any ρ the sequence of fractional parts $b[n] = \{\rho + n\sigma\}$ is equidistributed in $[0, 1)$, a permutation $\beta_{\sigma, \rho}$ whose representative is $(b[n])$ is equidistributed. Such permutations are closely related to Sturmian words, and thus are called *Sturmian permutations*. We discuss Sturmian words below in Section 4.

Example 2.7. Consider the sequence

$$\frac{1}{2}, 1, \frac{3}{4}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{5}{8}, \frac{1}{8}, \frac{3}{8}, \frac{7}{8}, \dots$$

defined as the fixed point of the following morphism over sequences of reals:

$$\varphi_{tm} : [0, 1] \mapsto [0, 1]^2, \varphi_{tm}(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{x}{2} + \frac{1}{4}, \frac{x}{2} + \frac{3}{4}, & \text{if } 0 \leq x \leq \frac{1}{2}, \\ \frac{x}{2} + \frac{1}{4}, \frac{x}{2} - \frac{1}{4}, & \text{if } \frac{1}{2} < x \leq 1. \end{cases}$$

As it was proved in [18], the permutation defined by this representative (or, more precisely, by a similar one on the interval $[-1, 1]$) can also be defined by the famous Thue-Morse word $011010011001 \cdots$ [1] and thus can be called the Thue-Morse permutation. The sequence above is equidistributed on $[0, 1]$ (see [4]) and thus is the canonical representative of the Thue-Morse permutation. More details on morphic permutations can be found in [4].

3 Properties of equidistributed permutations

In this section we discuss general properties of equidistributed permutations, in particular, we give certain necessary conditions for a permutation to be equidistributed.

Consider a growing sequence $(n_i)_{i=1}^\infty$, $n_i \in \mathbb{N}$, $n_{i+1} > n_i$. The respective subpermutation $(\alpha[n_i])_{i=1}^\infty$ of a permutation α will be called *N-growing* (resp., *N-decreasing*) if $n_{i+1} - n_i \leq N$ and $\alpha[n_{i+1}] > \alpha[n_i]$ (resp., $\alpha[n_{i+1}] < \alpha[n_i]$) for all i . A subpermutation which is *N-growing* or *N-decreasing* is called *N-monotone*.

Proposition 3.1. *If a permutation has a N-monotone subpermutation for some N, then it is not equidistributed.*

Proof. Suppose the opposite and consider a subsequence $(a[n_i])$ of the canonical representative a corresponding to the *N-monotone* (say, *N-growing*) subpermutation $(\alpha[n_i])$. Consider $b = \lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} a[n_i]$ (which exists since the sequence $(a[n_i])$ is monotone and bounded) and a positive $\varepsilon < 1/N$. Let M be the number such that $a[n_m] > b - \varepsilon$ for $m \geq M$. Then the limit frequency of elements $a[i]$ which are in the interval $[a[n_M], b]$ must be equal to $b - a[n_M] < \varepsilon$. On the other hand, since all $a[n_m]$ for $m > M$ are in this interval, and $n_{i+1} - n_i \leq N$, this frequency is at least $1/N > \varepsilon$. A contradiction. \square

Corollary 3.2. *If a permutation is equidistributed, then it is aperiodic.*

Proof. In an ultimately t -periodic permutation α , the subpermutation $(\alpha[ti])_{i=0}^\infty$ is ultimately t -monotone. Thus, α is not equidistributed due to Proposition 3.1. \square

An element $\alpha[i]$, $i > N$, of a permutation α is called *N-maximal* (resp., *N-minimal*) if $\alpha[i]$ is greater (resp., less) than all the elements at the distance at most N from it: $\alpha[i] > \alpha[j]$ (resp., $\alpha[i] < \alpha[j]$) for all $j = i - N, i - N + 1, \dots, i - 1, i + 1, \dots, i + N$.

Proposition 3.3. *In an equidistributed permutation α , for each N there exists an N-maximal and an N-minimal element.*

Proof. Consider a permutation α without *N-maximal* elements and prove that it is not equidistributed. Suppose first that there exists an element $\alpha[n_1]$, $n_1 > N$, in α which is greater than any of its N left neighbours: $\alpha[n_1] > \alpha[n_1 - i]$ for all i from 1 to N . Since $\alpha[n_1]$ is not *N-maximal*, there exist some $i \in \{1, \dots, N\}$ such that $\alpha[n_1 + i] > \alpha[n_1]$. If there are several such i , we take the maximal $\alpha[n_1 + i]$ and denote $n_2 = n_1 + i$. By the construction, $\alpha[n_2]$ is also greater than any of its N left neighbours, and we can continue the sequence of elements $\alpha[n_1] < \alpha[n_2] < \dots < \alpha[n_k] < \dots$. Since for all k we have $n_{k+1} - n_k \leq N$, it is an *N-growing* subpermutation, and due to the previous proposition, α is not equidistributed.

Now suppose that there are no elements in α which are greater than all their N left neighbours:

For each $n > N$, there exists some $i \in \{1, \dots, N\}$ such that $\alpha[n-i] > \alpha[n]$.
(2)

We take $\alpha[n_1]$ to be the greatest of the first N elements of α and $\alpha[n_2]$ to be the greatest among the elements $\alpha[n_1 + 1], \dots, \alpha[n_1 + N]$. Then due to (2) applied to n_2 , $\alpha[n_1] > \alpha[n_2]$. Moreover, $n_2 - n_1 \leq N$ and for all $n_1 < k < n_2$ we have $\alpha[k] < \alpha[n_2]$.

Now we take n_3 such that $\alpha[n_3]$ is the maximal element among $\alpha[n_2 + 1], \dots, \alpha[n_2 + N]$, and so on. Suppose that we have chosen n_1, \dots, n_i such that $\alpha[n_1] > \alpha[n_2] > \dots > \alpha[n_i]$, and

For all $j \leq i$ and for all k such that $n_{j-1} < k < n_j$, we have $\alpha[k] < \alpha[n_j]$.
(3)

For each new $\alpha[n_{i+1}]$ chosen as the maximal element among $\alpha[n_i + 1], \dots, \alpha[n_i + N]$, we have $n_{i+1} - n_i \leq N$. Due to (2) applied to n_{i+1} and by the construction, $\alpha[n_{i+1}] < \alpha[l]$ for some l from $n_{i+1} - N$ to n_i . Because of (3), without loss of generality we can take $l = n_j$ for some $j \leq i$. Moreover, we cannot have $\alpha[n_i] < \alpha[n_{i+1}]$ and thus $j < i$: otherwise n_{i+1} would have been chosen as n_{j+1} since it fits the condition of maximality better.

So, we see that $\alpha[n_i] > \alpha[n_{i+1}]$, (3) holds for $i+1$ as well as for i , and thus by induction the subpermutation $\alpha[n_1] > \dots > \alpha[n_i] > \dots$ is N -decreasing. Again, due to the previous proposition, α is not equidistributed. \square

Proposition 3.4. *For any equidistributed permutation α , we have $p_\alpha(n) \geq n$.*

Proof. Due to Proposition 3.3, there exists an n -maximal element α_i , $i > n$. All the n factors of α of length n containing it are different: in each of them, the maximal element is at a different position. \square

4 Sturmian words and Sturmian permutations

To characterise equidistributed permutations of minimal complexity, we have to consider in detail aperiodic words of minimal complexity, that is, Sturmian words.

Definition 4.1. An aperiodic infinite word u is called *Sturmian* if its factor complexity satisfies $p_u(n) = n + 1$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Sturmian words are by definition binary and are known to have the lowest possible factor complexity among aperiodic infinite words [20]. This extensively studied class of words admits various types of characterizations of geometric and combinatorial nature (see, e.g., Chapter 2 of [16]). In this paper, we need their characterization via irrational rotations on the unit circle found already in the seminal paper [20].

Definition 4.2. The *rotation* by slope σ is the mapping R_σ from $[0, 1)$ (identified with the unit circle) to itself defined by $R_\sigma(x) = \{x + \sigma\}$, where $\{x\} = x - \lfloor x \rfloor$ is the fractional part of x .

Considering a partition of $[0, 1)$ into $I_0 = [0, 1 - \sigma)$, $I_1 = [1 - \sigma, 1)$, define an infinite word $s_{\sigma, \rho}$ by

$$s_{\sigma, \rho}[n] = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } R_\sigma^n(\rho) = \{\rho + n\sigma\} \in I_0, \\ 1 & \text{if } R_\sigma^n(\rho) = \{\rho + n\sigma\} \in I_1. \end{cases}$$

We can also define $I'_0 = (0, 1 - \sigma]$, $I'_1 = (1 - \sigma, 1]$ and denote the corresponding word by $s'_{\sigma, \rho}$. As it was proved by Morse and Hedlund, Sturmian words on $\{0, 1\}$ are exactly words $s_{\sigma, \rho}$ or $s'_{\sigma, \rho}$ for some irrational $\sigma \in (0, 1)$.

Note that the same irrational rotation R_σ was used above to define a class of *Sturmian* equidistributed permutations.

Definition 4.3. A *Sturmian permutation* $\beta = \beta_{\sigma, \rho}$ is defined by its representative $(b[n])$, where $b[n] = R_\sigma^n(\rho) = \{\rho + n\sigma\}$.

These permutations are obviously related to Sturmian words: indeed, $\beta[i + 1] > \beta[i]$ if and only if $s[i] = 0$, where $s = s_{\sigma, \rho}$. Strictly speaking, the case of s' corresponds to a permutation β' defined with the upper fractional part.

Sturmian permutations have been studied in [19]; in particular, it is known that their complexity is $p_\beta(n) \equiv n$ (i.e., $p_\beta(n) = n$ for all n).

To continue, we now need two more usual definitions concerning words. A *conjugate* of a finite word w is any word of the form vu , where $w = uv$. Clearly, conjugacy is an equivalence, and in particular, all the words from the same conjugate class have the same number of occurrences of each symbol.

A factor s of an infinite word u is called *right* (resp., *left*) *special* if sa, sb (resp., as, bs) are both factors of u for distinct letters $a, b \in \Sigma$. A word which is both left and right special is called *bispecial*.

Now we recall a series of properties of a Sturmian word $s = s_{\sigma, \rho}$. They are either trivial or classical, and the latter can be found, in particular, in [16].

1. The frequency of ones in s is equal to the slope σ .
2. In any factor of s of length n , the number of ones is either $\lfloor n\sigma \rfloor$, or $\lceil n\sigma \rceil$. In the first case, we say that the factor is *light*, in the second case, it is *heavy*.
3. The factors of s from the same conjugate class are all light or all heavy.
4. Let the continued fraction expansion of σ be $\sigma = [0, 1 + d_1, d_2, \dots]$. Consider the sequence of *standard* finite words s_n defined by

$$s_{-1} = 1, s_0 = 0, s_n = s_{n-1}^{d_n} s_{n-2} \text{ for } n > 0.$$

- The set of bispecial factors of s coincides with the set of words obtained by erasing the last two symbols from the words $s_n^k s_{n-1}$, where $0 < k \leq d_{n+1}$.
- For each n , we can decompose s as a concatenation

$$s = p \prod_{i=1}^{\infty} s_n^{k_i} s_{n-1}, \quad (4)$$

where $k_i = d_{n+1}$ or $k_i = d_{n+1} + 1$ for all i , and p is a suffix of $s_n^{d_{n+1}+1} s_{n-1}$.

- For all $n \geq 0$, if s_n is light, then all the words $s_n^k s_{n-1}$ for $0 < k \leq d_{n+1}$ (including s_{n+1}) are heavy, and vice versa.
5. A *Christoffel word* can be defined as a word of the form $0b1$ or $1b0$, where b is a bispecial factor of a Sturmian word s . For a given b , both Christoffel words are also factors of s and are conjugate of each other. Moreover, they are conjugates of all but one of the factors of s of that length.
 6. The lengths of Christoffel words in s are exactly the lengths of words $s_n^k s_{n-1}$, where $0 < k \leq d_{n+1}$. Such a word is also conjugate of both Christoffel words of the respective length obtained from one of them by sending the first symbol to the end of the word.

We will make use of the following statement.

Proposition 4.4. *Let n be such that $\{n\sigma\} < \{i\sigma\}$ for all $0 < i < n$. Then the word $s_{\sigma,0}[0..n-1]$ is a Christoffel word. The same assertion holds if $\{n\sigma\} > \{i\sigma\}$ for all $0 < i < n$.*

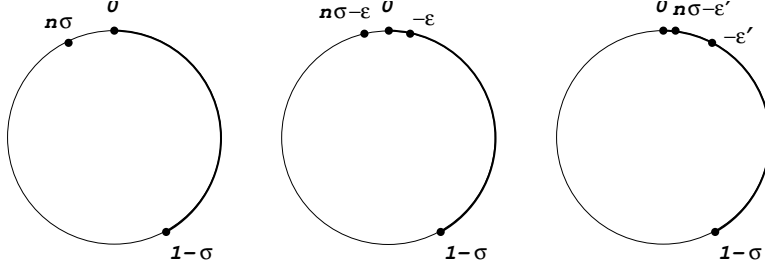


Figure 2: Intervals for a bispecial word

Proof. We will prove the statement for the inequality $\{n\sigma\} < \{i\sigma\}$; the other case is symmetric. First notice that there are no elements $\{i\sigma\}$ in the interval $[1 - \sigma, 1 - \sigma + \{n\sigma\})$ for $0 \leq i < n$. Indeed, assuming that for some i we have $1 - \sigma \leq \{i\sigma\} < 1 - \sigma + \{n\sigma\}$, we get that $0 \leq \{(i+1)\sigma\} < \{n\sigma\}$, which contradicts the conditions of the claim.

Next, consider a word $s_{\sigma, 1-\varepsilon}[0..n-1]$ for $0 < \varepsilon < \{n\sigma\}$, i.e., the word obtained from the previous one by rotating by ε clockwise. Clearly, all the elements except for $s[0]$ stay in the same interval, so the only element which changes is $s[0]$: $s_{\sigma, 0}[0] = 0$, $s_{\sigma, 1-\varepsilon}[0] = 1$, $s_{\sigma, 0}[1..n-1] = s_{\sigma, 1-\varepsilon}[1..n-1]$. This means that the factor $s_{\sigma, 0}[1..n-1]$ is left special.

Now consider a word $s_{\sigma, 1-\varepsilon'}[0..n-1]$ for $\{n\sigma\} < \varepsilon' < \min_{i \in \{0 < i < n\}} \{i\sigma\}$, i.e., the word obtained from $s_{\sigma, 0}[0..n-1]$ by rotating by ε' (i.e., we rotate a bit more). Clearly, all the elements except for $s[0]$ and $s[n-1]$ stay in the same interval, so the only elements which change are $s[0]$ and $s[n-1]$: $s_{\sigma, 0}[0] = 0$, $s_{\sigma, 1-\varepsilon'}[0] = 1$, $s_{\sigma, 0}[n-1] = 1$, $s_{\sigma, 1-\varepsilon'}[n-1] = 0$, $s_{\sigma, 0}[1..n-2] = s_{\sigma, 1-\varepsilon'}[1..n-2]$. This means that the factor $s_{\sigma, 0}[1..n-2]$ is right special.

So, the factor $s_{\sigma, 0}[1..n-2]$ is both left and right special and hence bispecial. By the construction, $s_{\sigma, 0}[0..n-1]$ is a Christoffel word.

The proof is illustrated by Fig. 2, where all the numbers on the circle are denoted modulo 1. \square

Note also that in the Sturmian permutation $\beta = \beta_{\sigma, \rho}$, we have $\beta[i] < \beta[j]$ for $i < j$ if and only if the respective factor $s[i..j-1]$ of s is light (and, symmetrically, $\beta[i] > \beta[j]$ if and only if the factor $s[i..j-1]$ is heavy).

5 Minimal complexity of equidistributed permutations

The rest of the section is devoted to the proof of

Theorem 5.1. *The minimal complexity of an equidistributed permutation α is $p_\alpha(n) \equiv n$. The set of equidistributed permutations of minimal complexity coincides with the set of Sturmian permutations.*

Due to Proposition 3.4, the complexity of equidistributed permutations satisfies $p_\alpha(n) \geq n$. In addition, the complexity of Sturmian permutations is $p_\alpha(n) \equiv n$. So, it remains to prove that if $p_\alpha(n) \equiv n$ for an equidistributed permutation α , then α is Sturmian.

Definition 5.2. Given an infinite permutation $\alpha = \alpha[0] \cdots \alpha[n] \cdots$, consider its *underlying* infinite word $s = s[0] \cdots s[n] \cdots$ over the alphabet $\{0, 1\}$ defined by

$$s[i] = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } \alpha[i] < \alpha[i+1], \\ 1, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Note that in some previous papers the word s was denoted by γ and considered directly as a word over the alphabet $\{<, >\}$.

It is not difficult to see that a factor $s[i+1..i+n-1]$ of s contains only a part of information on the factor $\alpha[i+1..i+n]$ of α , i.e., does not define it uniquely. Different factors of length $n-1$ of s correspond to different factors of length n of α . So,

$$p_\alpha(n) \geq p_s(n-1).$$

Together with the above mentioned result of Morse and Hedlund [20], it gives the following

Proposition 5.3. *If $p_\alpha(n) \equiv n$, then the underlying sequence s of α is either ultimately periodic or Sturmian.*

Now we consider different cases separately.

Proposition 5.4. *If $p_\alpha(n) \equiv n$ for an equidistributed permutation α , then its underlying sequence s is aperiodic.*

Proof. Suppose the converse and let p be the minimal period of s . If $p = 1$, then the permutation α is monotone, increasing or decreasing, so that its complexity is always 1, a contradiction. So, $p \geq 2$. There are exactly p factors of s of length $p-1$: each residue modulo p corresponds to such a factor and thus to a factor of α of length p . The factor $\alpha[kp+i..(k+1)p+i-1]$, where $i \in \{1, \dots, p\}$, does not depend on k , but for all the p values of i , these factors are different.

Now let us fix i from 1 to p and consider the subpermutation

$$\alpha[i], \alpha[p+i], \dots, \alpha[kp+i], \dots$$

It cannot be monotone due to Proposition 3.1, so, there exist k_1 and k_2 such that $\alpha[k_1p + i] < \alpha[(k_1 + 1)p + i]$ and $\alpha[k_2p + i] > \alpha[(k_2 + 1)p + i]$. So,

$$\alpha[k_1p + i..(k_1 + 1)p + i] \neq \alpha[k_2p + i..(k_2 + 1)p + i].$$

We see that each of p factors of α of length p , uniquely defined by the residue i , can be extended to the right to a factor of length $p + 1$ in two different ways, and thus $p_\alpha(p + 1) \geq 2p$. Since $p > 1$ and thus $2p > p + 1$, it is a contradiction. \square

So, Propositions 5.3 and 5.4 imply that the underlying word s of an equidistributed permutation α of complexity n is Sturmian. Let $s = s_{\sigma,\rho}$, that is,

$$s_n = \lfloor \sigma(n + 1) + \rho \rfloor - \lfloor \sigma n + \rho \rfloor.$$

In the proofs we will only consider $s_{\sigma,\rho}$, since for $s'_{\sigma,\rho}$ the proofs are symmetric.

It follows directly from the definitions that the Sturmian permutation $\beta = \beta_{\sigma,\rho}$ defined by its canonical representative b with $b[n] = \{\sigma n + \rho\}$ has s as the underlying word.

Suppose that α is a permutation whose underlying word is s and whose complexity is n . We shall prove the following statement concluding the proof of Theorem 5.1:

Lemma 5.5. *Let α be a permutation of complexity $p_\alpha(n) \equiv n$ whose underlying word is $s_{\sigma,\rho}$. If α is equidistributed, then $\alpha = \beta_{\sigma,\rho}$.*

Proof. Suppose the opposite, i.e., that α is not equal to β . We will prove that hence α is not equidistributed, which is a contradiction.

Recall that in general, $p_\alpha(n) \geq p_s(n - 1)$, but here we have the equality since $p_\alpha(n) \equiv n$ and $p_s(n) \equiv n + 1$. It means that a factor u of s of length $n - 1$ uniquely defines a factor of α of length n which we denote by α^u . Similarly, there is a unique factor β^u of β .

Clearly, if u is of length 1, we have $\alpha^u = \beta^u$: if $u = 0$, then $\alpha^0 = \beta^0 = (12)$, and if $u = 1$, then $\alpha^1 = \beta^1 = (21)$. Suppose now that $\alpha^u = \beta^u$ for all u of length up to $n - 1$, but there exists a word v of length n such that $\alpha^v \neq \beta^v$.

Since for any factor $v' \neq v$ of v we have $\alpha^{v'} = \beta^{v'}$, the only difference between α^v and β^v is the relation between the first and last element: $\alpha^v[1] < \alpha^v[n + 1]$ and $\beta^v[1] > \beta^v[n + 1]$, or vice versa. (Note that we number elements of infinite objects starting with 0 and elements of finite objects starting with 1.)

Consider the factor b^v of the canonical representative b of β corresponding to an occurrence of β^v . We have $b^v = (\{\tau\}, \{\tau + \sigma\}, \dots, \{\tau + n\sigma\})$ for some τ .

Proposition 5.6. *All the numbers $\{\tau + i\sigma\}$ for $0 < i < n$ are situated outside of the interval whose ends are $\{\tau\}$ and $\{\tau + n\sigma\}$.*

Proof. Consider the case of $\beta^v[1] < \beta^v[n+1]$ (meaning $\{\tau\} < \{\tau + n\sigma\}$) and $\alpha^v[1] > \alpha^v[n+1]$; the other case is symmetric. Suppose by contrary that there is an element $\{\tau + i\sigma\}$ such that $\{\tau\} < \{\tau + i\sigma\} < \{\tau + n\sigma\}$ for some i . It means that $\beta^v[1] < \beta^v[i] < \beta^v[n+1]$. But the relations between the 1st and the i th elements, as well as between the i th and $(n+1)$ st elements, are equal in α^v and in β^v , so, $\alpha^v[1] < \alpha^v[i]$ and $\alpha^v[i] < \alpha^v[n+1]$. Thus, $\alpha^v[1] < \alpha^v[n+1]$, a contradiction. \square

Proposition 5.7. *The word v belongs to the conjugate class of a Christoffel factor of s , or, which is the same, of a factor of the form $s_n^k s_{n-1}$ for $0 < k \leq d_{n+1}$.*

Proof. The condition “For all $0 < i < n$, the number $\{\tau + i\sigma\}$ is not situated between $\{\tau\}$ and $\{\tau + n\sigma\}$ ” is equivalent to the condition “ $\{n\alpha\} < \{i\alpha\}$ for all $0 < i < n$ ” considered in Proposition 4.4 and corresponding to a Christoffel word of the same length. The set of factors of s of length n is exactly the set $\{s_{\alpha, \tau}[0..n-1] | \tau \in [0, 1]\}$. These words are n conjugates of the Christoffel word plus one singular factor corresponding to $\{\tau\}$ and $\{\tau + n\sigma\}$ situated in the opposite ends of the interval $[0, 1]$ (“close” to 0 and “close” to 1), so that all the other points $\{\tau + i\sigma\}$ are between them.

Example 5.8. Consider a Sturmian word s of the slope $\sigma \in (1/3, 2/5)$. Then the factors of s of length 5 are 01001, 10010, 00101, 01010, 10100, 00100. Fig. 3 depicts permutations of length 6 with their underlying words. In the picture the elements of the permutations are denoted by points; the order between two elements is defined by which element is “higher” on the picture. We see that in the first five cases, the relation between the first and the last elements can be changed, and in the last case, it cannot since there are other elements between them. Indeed, the first five words are exactly the conjugates of the Christoffel word 1 010 0, where the word 010 is bispecial.

Note also that due to Proposition 5.7, the shortest word v such that $\alpha^v \neq \beta^v$ is a conjugate of some $s_n^k s_{n-1}$ for $0 < k \leq d_{n+1}$.

In what follows without loss of generality we suppose that the word s_n is heavy and thus s_{n-1} and $s_n^k s_{n-1}$ for all $0 < k \leq d_{n+1}$ are light.

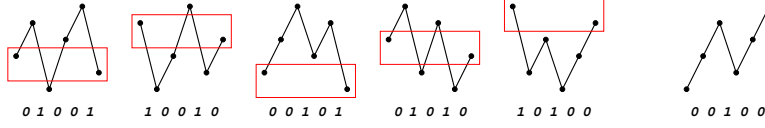


Figure 3: Illustration for Example 5.8

Consider first the easiest case: $v = s_n^{d_{n+1}} s_{n-1} = s_{n+1}$. This word is light, so, $\beta^{s_{n+1}}[1] < \beta^{s_{n+1}}[|s_{n+1}| + 1]$. Since the first and the last elements of $\alpha^{s_{n+1}}$ must be in the other relation, we have $\alpha^{s_{n+1}}[1] > \alpha^{s_{n+1}}[|s_{n+1}| + 1]$. At the same time, since s_n is shorter than s_{n+1} , we have $\alpha^{s_n} = \beta^{s_n}$ and in particular, since s_n is heavy, $\alpha^{s_n}[1] > \alpha^{s_n}[|s_n| + 1]$.

Due to (4), the word s after a finite prefix can be represented as an infinite concatenation of occurrences of s_{n+1} and s_n : $s = p \prod_{i=1}^{\infty} s_n^{t_i} s_{n+1}$, where $t_i = k_i - d_{n+1} = 0$ or 1 . But both α^{s_n} and $\alpha^{s_{n+1}}$ are permutations with the last elements less than the first ones. Moreover, if we have a concatenation uw of factors u and w of s , we see that the first symbol of α^w is the last symbol of α^u : $\alpha^u[|u| + 1] = \alpha^w[1]$. So, an infinite sequence of factors s_n and s_{n+1} of s gives us a chain of the first elements of respective factors of the permutation α , and each next element is less than the previous one. This chain is a $|s_{n+1}|$ -monotone subpermutation, and thus α is not equidistributed.

Now let us consider the general case: v is from the conjugate class of $s_n^t s_{n-1}$, where $0 < t \leq d_{n+1}$. We consider two cases: the word $s_n^t s_{n-1}$ can be cut either in one of the occurrences of s_n , or in the suffix occurrence of s_{n-1} .

In the first case, $v = r_1 s_n^l s_{n-1} s_n^{t-l-1} r_2$, where $s_n = r_2 r_1$ and $0 \leq l < t$. Then

$$s = p \prod_{i=1}^{\infty} s_n^{k_i} s_{n-1} = p r_2 (r_1 r_2)^{k_1 - l - 1} \prod_{i=2}^{\infty} v (r_1 r_2)^{k_i - t}.$$

We see that after a finite prefix, the word s is an infinite catenation of words v and $r_1 r_2$. The word $r_1 r_2$ is shorter than v and heavy since it is a conjugate of s_n . So, $\alpha^{r_1 r_2} = \beta^{r_1 r_2}$ and in particular, $\alpha^{r_1 r_2}[1] > \alpha^{r_1 r_2}[|r_1 r_2| + 1]$. The word v is light since it is a conjugate of $s_n^t s_{n-1}$, but the relation between the first and the last elements of α^v is different than between those in β^v , that is, $\alpha^v[1] > \alpha^v[|v| + 1]$. But as above, in a concatenation uw , we have $\alpha^u[|u| + 1] = \alpha^w[1]$, so, we see a $|v|$ -decreasing subpermutation in α . So, α is not equidistributed.

Analogous arguments work in the second case, when $s_n^t s_{n-1}$ is cut some-

where in the suffix occurrence of s_{n-1} : $v = r_1 s_n^t r_2$, where $s_{n-1} = r_2 r_1$. Note that s_{n-1} is a prefix of s_n , and thus $s_n = r_2 r_3$ for some r_3 . In this case,

$$s = p \prod_{i=1}^{\infty} s_n^{k_i} s_{n-1} = p r_2 (r_3 r_2)^{k_1} \prod_{i=2}^{\infty} v (r_3 r_2)^{k_i - t}.$$

As above, we see that after a finite prefix, s is an infinite catenation of the heavy word $r_3 r_2$, a conjugate of s_n , and the word v . For both words, the respective factors of α have the last element less than the first one, which gives a $|v|$ -decreasing subpermutation. So, α is not equidistributed.

The case when s_n is not heavy but light is considered symmetrically and gives rise to $|v|$ -increasing subpermutations. This concludes the proof of Theorem 5.1. \square

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