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# Efficient Enumeration of Non-Equivalent Squares in Partial Words with Few Holes

Panagiotis Charalampopoulos<sup>1</sup>, Maxime Crochemore<sup>1,2</sup>, Costas S. Iliopoulos<sup>1</sup>, Tomasz Kociumaka<sup>3,\*</sup>, Solon P. Pissis<sup>1</sup>, Jakub Radoszewski<sup>1,3,\*\*</sup>, Wojciech Rytter<sup>3,\*\*\*</sup>, and Tomasz Waleń<sup>3,\*\*\*</sup>

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**Abstract.** A partial word is a word with holes (also called don't cares: special symbols which match any symbol). A *p*-square is a partial word matching at least one standard square without holes (called a *full square*). Two p-squares are called *equivalent* if they match the same sets of full squares. Denote by psquares(T) the number of non-equivalent p-squares which are subwords of a partial word T. Let  $PSQUARES_k(n)$  be the maximum value of psquares(T) over all partial words of length n with k holes. We show asympthotically tight bounds:

 $c_1 \cdot \min(nk^2, n^2) \leq \text{PSQUARES}_k(n) \leq c_2 \cdot \min(nk^2, n^2)$ 

for some constants  $c_1, c_2 > 0$ . We also present an algorithm that computes psquares(T) in  $\mathcal{O}(nk^3)$  time for a partial word T of length n with kholes. In particular, our algorithm runs in linear time for  $k = \mathcal{O}(1)$  and its time complexity near-matches the maximum number of non-equivalent p-squares.

## 1 Introduction

A word is a sequence of letters from a given alphabet  $\Sigma$ . By  $\Sigma^*$  we denote the set of all words over  $\Sigma$ . A word of the form UU, for some word U, is called a square. For a word W, a square factor is a factor of W which is a square. Enumeration of square factors in words is a well-studied topic, both from a combinatorial and from an algorithmic perspective. Obviously, a word of length n of may contain  $\Theta(n^2)$  square factors (e.g.  $a^n$ ), however, it is known that such a word contains

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only  $\mathcal{O}(n)$  different square factors [16,20]; currently the best known upper bound is  $\frac{11}{6}n$  [14]. Moreover, all different square factors of a word can be listed in  $\mathcal{O}(n)$  time using two different approaches [17,11].

A partial word is a sequence of letters from  $\Sigma \cup \{\phi\}$ , where  $\phi$  denotes a hole, that is, a don't care symbol. Two symbols  $a, b \in \Sigma \cup \{\phi\}$  are said to match (denoted as  $a \approx b$ ) if they are equal or one of them is a hole; note that this relation is not transitive. The relation of matching is extended in a natural way to partial words of the same length. A partial word UV is called a *p*-square if  $U \approx V$ . We define the *length* of a p-square as |U|. Same as in the context of words, a *p*-square factor of a partial word W is a factor being a p-square; see [2,9]. Alongside [2,8,9], we define a *full square* as a square of a word and *square* subword of a partial word W as a full square that matches some p-square factor of W.

We introduce the notion of equivalence of p-square factors in partial words. By sq-val(UV) let us denote the set of different full squares that match the partial word UV:  $sq\text{-val}(UV) = \{XX : X \in \Sigma^*, XX \approx UV\}$ . Then p-squares UV and U'V' are called equivalent if sq-val(UV) = sq-val(U'V') (denoted as  $UV \equiv U'V'$ ). E.g., the following two sets are equivalence classes of p-squares:  $\mathcal{A} = \{aa \diamond \diamond, \diamond aa \diamond, \diamond \diamond aa, a \diamond \diamond a\}$  and  $\mathcal{B} = \{a \diamond a \diamond \diamond \diamond, \diamond \diamond aa \diamond \diamond, \ldots\}$ . Note that two psquare factors of a partial word W are equivalent in this sense iff they correspond to exactly the same sets of square subwords. Our work is devoted to enumeration of non-equivalent p-square factors of a partial word with a given number k of holes.

We say that WW is a general form of a square UV (see [8]), denoted as repr(UV), if  $WW \approx UV$  and sq-val(WW) = sq-val(UV) (in other words, W is the "most general" partial word that matches both U and V). Then  $UV \equiv U'V'$  iff repr(UV) = repr(U'V'). E.g.,  $repr(A) = (aa)^2$  for all  $A \in \mathcal{A}$  and  $repr(B) = (a \otimes a)^2$  for all  $B \in \mathcal{B}$ .

Previous study of p-squares in partial words was mostly focused on their combinatorics. It started with the case of k = 1 hole [8], in which case different square subwords correspond to non-equivalent p-square factors. It was shown that a partial word with one hole contains at most  $\frac{7}{2}n$  different square subwords [6] (later this bound was improved to 3n for binary partial words [19]). Also a generalization of the three squares lemma for words [12] was proposed for partial words [7].

As for a larger number of holes, the study was devoted mainly to counting the number of different square subwords of a partial word [8,2] or all occurrences of p-square factors [4,2]. Similarly, on the algorithmic side, [25] proved that the problem of counting different square subwords of a partial word is #P-complete and [15,24] and [9] showed quadratic- and nearly-quadratic-time algorithms for finding all occurrences of p-square factors and primitively-rooted p-square factors of a partial word, respectively. Other work includes avoidance of squares [18,3] or abelian squares [5] in partial words.

#### 1.1 Our Results

We present the following combinatorial bounds and efficient algorithms related to enumeration of non-equivalent p-square factors of a partial word of length n with k of holes. A length p is called *ambiguous* if there are two holes at a distance p. Otherwise it is called *unambiguous*.

**Combinatorial results.** We prove that a partial word of length n with k holes contains  $\mathcal{O}(nk^2)$  non-equivalent p-squares. We also show an example of a partial word of length n with k holes that contains  $\Omega(nk^2)$  non-equivalent p-squares of ambiguous lengths and that contains  $\Omega(nk)$  non-equivalent p-squares of unambiguous lengths. This work can be viewed as a generalization of the results on partial words with one hole [8,6,19] to k > 1 holes.

Algorithmic results. We present an algorithm that reports all non-equivalent p-squares in a partial word in  $\mathcal{O}(nk^3)$  time. In particular, our algorithm runs in linear time for  $k = \mathcal{O}(1)$  and its time complexity near-matches the maximum number of non-equivalent p-squares. Our algorithm generalizes the approach of [11] and proposes, as an important tool, a non-obvious extension of the notion of runs to partial words (another definition of runs in partial words appeared in [9]).

## 2 Periodicity of Words and Partial Words

A word T is a sequence of letters over an alphabet  $\Sigma$ . By |T| = n we denote the length of T, and by T[i], for i = 1, ..., n, the *i*th letter of T. For  $1 \le i \le j \le n$ , T[i..j] denotes the *factor* of T equal to T[i] ... T[j]. A positive integer q is called a *period* of T if T[i] = T[i+q] for all i = 1, ..., n-q. In this case, T[1..q] is called a *string period* of T. Two equal-length words S and T are called *cyclic shifts* if there exists an index i such that S[i..|S|]S[1..i-1] = T.

A run (also called a maximal repetition) in T is a triple (a, b, q) such that T[a..b] has the shortest period q,  $2q \leq b - a + 1$ , and the interval cannot be extended to the left nor to the right without violating the above property, that is,  $T[a-1] \neq T[a+q-1]$  and  $T[b-q+1] \neq T[b+1]$ , provided that the respective letters exist. The *exponent* of a run is defined as  $\frac{b-a+1}{q}$ . A word of length n has at most n runs and they can all be computed in  $\mathcal{O}(n)$  time [22,1].

From a run (a, b, q) we can produce all triples (a, b, kq) for integer k such that  $2kq \leq b-a+1$ ; we call such triples generalized runs. In other words, the period specified in a generalized run need not be the shortest period of the fragment. The number of generalized runs is also  $\mathcal{O}(n)$ , as the sum of exponents of runs is  $\mathcal{O}(n)$  [22,1].

A partial word is a sequence of symbols from  $\Sigma' = \Sigma \cup \{\phi\}$ . For a partial word T we use the same notation as for words: |T| for length, T[i] for the *i*th letter, T[i...j] for a factor. The relation of matching on  $\Sigma'$  is defined as  $a \approx a$ ,  $a \approx \phi$  for all  $a \in \Sigma'$ . We define an operation  $\wedge$  such that  $a \wedge a = a$ ,  $a \wedge \phi = a$  for

all  $a \in \Sigma'$ , and otherwise  $a \wedge b$  is undefined. Two equal-length partial words Tand S are said to *match* (denoted as  $T \approx S$ ) if  $T[i] \approx S[i]$  for all i = 1, ..., |T|. In this case, by  $S \wedge T$  we denote the partial word  $S[1] \wedge T[1], ..., S[|S|] \wedge T[|S|]$ . Note that if UV is a p-square, then  $repr(UV) = (U \wedge V)^2$ .

A quantum period of a partial word T is a positive integer q such that  $T[i] \approx T[i+q]$  for all  $i = 1, \ldots, |T| - q$ . T is called quantum periodic with a quantum period q if  $2q \leq |T|$ . Let T be a partial word of length n. We say that a triple (a, b, q) is a quantum generalized run (Q-run, for short) in T if T[a..b] is quantum periodic with period q and none of the partial words T[a - 1..b] and T[a..b + 1] (if exists) has the quantum period q; see Example 1 and Fig. 2.

*Example 1.* The partial word  $T = caa \diamond \diamond \diamond \diamond \diamond bbd$  contains one Q-run with period 2: (2, 10, 2) that corresponds to the factor  $aa \diamond \diamond \diamond \diamond \diamond bb$ .

Generalized runs in standard words are strongly related to squares: (1) every square belongs to a generalized run and, moreover, (2) all factors of length 2qof a generalized run with period q are squares being each other's cyclic shifts. Unfortunately, Q-runs in partial words have only property (1). However, we can introduce a type of run in partial words for which both properties (1) and (2) hold. A *pseudorun* (P-run, in short) is a triple (a, b, q) such that:

- (a) T[a..b] is quantum periodic with period q
- (b)  $T[i] \wedge T[i+q] = T[i+q] \wedge T[i+2q]$  for all i such that  $i, i+2q \in [a,b]$ ,
- (c) none of the partial words T[a 1..b] and T[a..b + 1] (if exists) satisfies the conditions (a) and (b).

We say that a p-square T[c..d] is *induced* by the P-run if the length of the p-square is q and  $[c,d] \subseteq [a,b]$ .

**Observation 2.** (1) Every p-square factor in T is induced by a P-run. (1) All factors of length 2q of a P-run with period q are p-squares and their representatives are each other's cyclic shifts.

*Proof.* (1) Let T[i..j] be a p-square factor of length q = (j - i + 1)/2 in T. Initially we set a = i, b = j; then (a, b, q) satisfies conditions (a) and (b) of a pseudorun (the latter one trivially). Now we extend (a, b, q) until it becomes maximal under the two conditions, i.e., decrement a while  $T[a-1] \wedge T[a+q-1] =$  $T[a+q-1] \wedge T[a+2q-1]$ , and same for b.

(2) Every factor of length 2q of a P-run is quantum periodic with period q, hence a p-square. Consider two such consecutive factors X = T[i..i+2q-1] and Y = T[i+1..i+2q]. Then  $repr(X) = T[i..i+q-1] \wedge T[i+q..i+2q-1]$  and

$$\begin{aligned} repr(Y) &= T[i+1..i+q] \wedge T[i+q+1..i+2q] \\ &= T[i+1..i+q-1] \wedge T[i+q+1..i+2q-1], T[i+q] \wedge T[i+2q] \\ &= T[i+1..i+q-1] \wedge T[i+q+1..i+2q-1], T[i] \wedge T[i+q] \end{aligned}$$

where the last equality is due to condition (b) of a P-run. Consequently, repr(X) and repr(Y) are cyclic shifts.

*Example 3.* Let  $T = caa \diamond \diamond \diamond \diamond \diamond bbd$ . Then T contains five P-runs with period 2: (2, 5, 2), (3, 6, 2), (4, 8, 2), (6, 9, 2) and (7, 10, 2), that correspond to factors:  $aa \diamond \diamond, a \diamond \diamond \diamond, \diamond \diamond \diamond \diamond \diamond, \diamond \diamond \diamond b$ , and  $\diamond \diamond bb$ , respectively. The squares induced by the respective P-runs are as follows:  $aa \diamond \diamond; a \diamond \diamond \diamond; \diamond \diamond \diamond \diamond$  (two times);  $\diamond \diamond \diamond b;$  and  $\diamond \diamond bb$ .

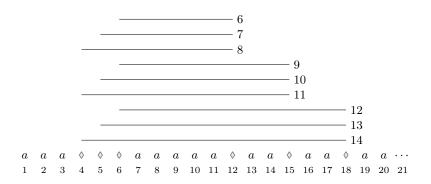
### 3 Combinatorial Bounds

**Theorem 4.** There exists a partial word of length n with k holes that contains  $\Omega(nk^2)$  non-equivalent p-squares, for  $k = \mathcal{O}(\sqrt{n})$ .

*Proof.* Assume that  $2 \mid k$ . Consider the following partial word:

$$T_{m,k} = a^m \diamond^{k/2} a^m (a^{k/2-1} \diamond)^{k/2} a^{3n}$$

of length  $n = 4m + (\frac{k}{2})^2 + \frac{k}{2}$  over  $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$ ; here  $m = \Theta(n)$ . Point (a) follows from the next claim.



**Fig. 1.** Ambiguous lengths in  $T_{3,6}$ .

Claim. For some  $k = \mathcal{O}(\sqrt{n})$ ,  $T_{m,k}$  contains  $\Theta(mk^2)$  non-equivalent p-squares of ambiguous lengths.

*Proof.* First, note that that there are  $(\frac{k}{2})^2$  different ambiguous lengths and that for each such length  $\ell$ , there is exactly one pair of holes at this distance in  $T_{m,k}$ . Indeed, consider the *i*-th hole in the  $\diamond^{k/2}$  part and the *j*-th hole in the  $(a^{k/2-1}\diamond)^{k/2}$  part  $(1 \leq i, j \leq \frac{k}{2})$ . Then the distance between them is  $\frac{k}{2} - i + m + \frac{k}{2} \cdot j = \frac{k}{2} \cdot j - i + (\frac{k}{2} + m)$ . Finally, note that for *i* and *j* in the considered range, values of the form  $\frac{k}{2} \cdot j - i$  are all distinct (this is a known example of a difference cover); see Fig. 1.

Let us choose k so that  $2(m + (\frac{k}{2})^2 + \frac{k}{2}) \leq \frac{n}{2}$ . Then for each ambiguous length  $\ell$ , we have exactly  $\ell$  p-square factors in  $T_{m,k}$  of the general form  $(a^i \diamond a^{\ell-i-1})$ . As  $\ell \geq m = \Theta(n)$ , this concludes the proof.

(b) ...

Now we proceed to the upper bound proof. Let us fix a partial word T of length n with k holes. Let holes(a, b) denote the number of holes in T[a..b].

We say that a square subword has a *solid occurrence* if... By the following fact, there are  $\mathcal{O}(n)$  square subwords of T with solid occurrences.

Fact 5 ([16,20,14]).  $\leq 2$  rightmost occurrences.

Our upper bound for partial words is based on the following key lemma that generalizes Fact 5. We call an interval  $[\ell, r) \subseteq [1, n]$  is short if  $r \leq \frac{3k+3}{3k+2}\ell$ .

**Lemma 6.** For a short interval  $[\ell, r)$ , there are  $\mathcal{O}(k')$ , where k' = holes(i, i + 2r - 1), p-squares of unambiguous lengths without solid occurrences in  $[\ell, r]$  that have their rightmost occurrence in T at position i.

*Proof.* Let us start with the following claim.

**Claim 7.** There exists an interval  $I = [a, b] \subseteq [i, i+\ell-1]$  such that holes(I) = 0, holes(J) = 0 where  $J = [a + \ell, b + r)$ , and  $I \ge 2(r - \ell)$ .

*Proof.* A position *i* cannot belong to *I* if T[i] is a hole or  $T[i + \ell..i + r]$  contains a hole. In total, a hole in  $T[i..i + \ell - 1]$  excludes one positions in  $[i, i + \ell - 1]$  and a hole in  $T[i + \ell..i + 2r - 1]$  excludes at most  $r - \ell + 1$  consecutive positions in  $[i, i + \ell - 1]$ . By the pigeonhole principle, there exists a non-excluded fragment in  $T[i..i + \ell - 1]$  of consecutive positions of length at least

$$\frac{\ell - k(r-l)}{k+1} \ge \frac{(3k+2)(r-\ell) - k(r-l)}{k+1} = 2(r-\ell).$$

Let X be the subword of T at positions in I. If there are at least two p-square factors of the considered type starting at position i, then X is periodic (Galil...). Let p be its shortest period.

Let UV be a p-square factor of unambiguous length of the considered type and let WW = repr(UV) There are three cases:

(a) WW has period p

(b) W has period p

(c) W does not have period p.

There is at most one p-square factor UV corresponding to case (a). Assume to the contrary that there are two such p-squares, UV and U'V', of lengths d < d'. We have that  $p \mid d, d'$  and the generalized forms of the two p-squares have the same string period (as they share a subword U). Hence, repr(UV) is a border of repr(U'V'), so UV occurs in T at position i + d' - d.

We will show that there are at most k' + 1 p-square subwords of type (b). Assume to the contrary that at least k' + 2 of them, of lengths  $d_1 < \ldots < d_{k'+2}$ . We see that  $d_j \mod k$  is the same, as the occurrences of X in the right half of the p-square in T differ by multiples of p. Consider the shortest UV and the longest U'V' these p-squares, with generalized forms WW and W'W', and the subword  $T[i + d_{1..}i + d_{k'+2} - 1]$ . It matches a prefix P of length  $d_{k'+2} - d_1$  of W and a suffix S of the same length of W'. Both P and S have period P; however, their string periods are not equal. Consequently, in every occurrence of the period in  $T[i + d_{1..}i + d_{k'+2} - 1]$  there mus be a hole; this makes  $(d_{k'+2} - d_1)/p \ge k' + 1$  holes in total, a contradiction.

(c) Consider the occurrence of X in W. The periodicity of X does not cover the whole W, so there is a position j in W where the periodicity breaks. Assume w.l.o.g. that j is to the right of X. Consider the positions  $j_1$  and  $j_2$  that correspond to j in the subwords U, V of T. If any of  $T[j_1]$  and  $T[j_2]$  is not a hole, then it is determined uniquely as the first position where the deterministic period pbreaks, starting from the corresponding occurrence of X. Hence, if both of them are not holes, then  $|W| = j_2 - j_1$  is uniquely determined. Otherwise, if  $T[j_1]$ or  $T[j_2]$  is a hole (they cannot be both holes, as the length is unambiguous), then one of  $j_1, j_2$  is uniquely determined and there are at most k' choices for the other. Consequently, there are at most 4k' + 2 such p-squares.

**Theorem 8.** A partial word T of length n with k holes contains  $\mathcal{O}(nk^2)$  non-equivalent p-squares.

*Proof.* Obviously, in T there are at most  $k^2$  ambiguous lengths. Consequently, there are  $\mathcal{O}(nk^2)$  non-equivalent p-squares of such lengths. Let us consider p-squares of unambiguous lengths. By Fact 5, among them there are  $\mathcal{O}(n)$  different p-squares with a solid occurrence. From now on we consider only p-squares without a solid occurrence.

Let  $[\ell, r]$  be a short interval. By Lemma 6, the total number of different p-squares of unambiguous lengths in  $[\ell, r]$  in T is:

$$\mathcal{O}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} k_{i,i+2r-1}\right) = \mathcal{O}(rk).$$
(1)

The equality is based on the fact that each of the k holes in T is counted in at most 2r terms  $k_{i,i+2r-1}$ .

Let us consider a family of endpoints  $r_0, r_1, \ldots$ :

$$r_j = \left\lfloor \frac{n}{(1 + \frac{1}{3k+2})^j} \right\rfloor = \left\lfloor n \left( \frac{3k+2}{3k+3} \right)^j \right\rfloor.$$

We divide the p-square lengths into short intervals  $[r_{j+1} + 1, r_j]$ . By (1), the total number of p-squares in T is:

$$\mathcal{O}\left(\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} r_j k\right) = \mathcal{O}\left(nk\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{3k+2}{3k+3}\right)^j\right) = \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{nk}{1-\frac{3k+2}{3k+3}}\right) = \mathcal{O}(nk^2).$$

## 4 Main Algorithm

Let T be a partial word of length n with k holes.

#### 4.1 Computing Q-runs

We divide Q-runs into solid Q-runs that do not contain a hole and the remaining non-solid Q-runs. A solid Q-run is a generalized run in a maximal solid factor of T. Thus all solid Q-runs can be computed in  $\mathcal{O}(n)$  time via a linear-time algorithm for computing runs in words [22,1].

Non-solid Q-runs are computed with a modification of Main-Lorentz algorithm [23]. Let us first reformulate the algorithm in the language of computing generalized runs in words. For a word S of length n, it finds a representation of all p-squares that contain the position  $i = \lfloor n/2 \rfloor$  and then makes recursive computations in S[1..i] and S[i..n]. It first computes all the p-squares with first half containing the position i and then computes the remaining p-squares containing the position i symmetrically. For a pair of positions i, j, we define lcp(i, j) as the length of the longest common prefix of S[i..n] and S[j..n] and lcs(i, j) as the length of the longest common suffix of S[1..i] and S[1..j]. The algorithm for each position j > i computes lcp(i, j) + lcs(i, j) and, if this value is at least j - i, reports a generalized run (i - lcs(i, j)..j + lcp(i, j), j - i). To avoid duplicates, the generalized run can be omitted if it reaches the end of the word in the recursive call which does not coincide with the position 1 or n in the original word. The algorithm's running time is  $O(n \log n)$  as lcp-queries and lcs-queries can be answered in O(1)-time after preprocessing.

For a partial word T, the longest common compatible prefix of two positions i, j, denoted lccp(i, j), is defined as the largest  $\ell$  such that  $T[i..i+\ell-1] \approx T[j..j+\ell-1]$ . Symmetrically, we can define lccs as the length of the longest common compatible suffix. In [10] it was shown that after  $\mathcal{O}(nk)$ -time preprocessing, lccp-queries (hence, lccs-queries) can be answered in  $\mathcal{O}(1)$  time.

Thus we could directly apply the Main-Lorentz scheme for partial words; the result would be exactly the set of Q-runs in T. However, this would yield  $\mathcal{O}(n \log n)$ -time computation. We aim only at computing non-solid Q-runs, which lets us easily reduce the complexity to  $\mathcal{O}(n \log k)$ . To this end, we only make recursive calls in positions that contain holes, with the recursive call taking place at the position of the  $\lceil \frac{k}{2} \rceil$ -th hole in T. Together with  $\mathcal{O}(n)$ -time solid Q-runs computation we arrive at the following.

**Lemma 9.** A partial word of length n with k holes contains  $\mathcal{O}(n \log k)$  Q-runs and they can all be computed in  $\mathcal{O}(n \log k)$  time.

### 4.2 Computing Pseudoruns

**Observation 10.** If (a, b, p) is a P-run, then there exists a Q-run (a', b', p) such that  $a' \le a \le b \le b'$ .

From the set of m Q-runs of period p we can produce the set of all P-runs with period p. The computation time is  $\mathcal{O}(m+k)$ .

**Lemma 11.** A partial word of length n with k holes contains  $\mathcal{O}(nk)$  P-runs and they can all be computed in  $\mathcal{O}(nk)$  time.

#### 4.3 Reporting Squares

Assume that the alphabet  $\Sigma$  is ordered and that  $\diamond$  is smaller than all the letters from  $\Sigma$ . We use Observation 2. If we group the P-runs by the minimal cyclic shift of the induced p-squares, then we can apply the approach of [11] to count the p-squares in time linear in the number of P-runs and n.

First, note that the minimal cyclic shift value for a P-run (a, b, p) can be computed in  $\mathcal{O}(k^2)$  time using Theorem 23 from [21]. Indeed, we can represent the representative of the p-square T[a..a + 2p - 1] as a concatenation of at most k factors of T and at most k single letters that appear elsewhere in T.

**Theorem 12.** All non-equivalent p-squares in a partial word of length n with k holes can be reported (as factors of the partial word) in  $\mathcal{O}(nk^3)$  time.

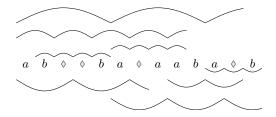
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# A Auxiliary Figures



**Fig. 2.** A partial word together with all its Q-runs. This partial word contains 5 p-squares of length 3:  $aaba\phi b$ ,  $\phi aaba\phi$ ,  $ab\phi\phi ba$ ,  $a\phi aaba$ ,  $b\phi\phi ba\phi$ . The following pair is equivalent:  $ab\phi\phi ba \equiv a\phi aaba$ .