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

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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 $\operatorname{PSQUARES}_{k}(n)$ be the maximum value of $\operatorname{psquares}(T)$ over all partial words of length $n$ with $k$ holes. We show asympthotically tight bounds:


$$
c_{1} \cdot \min \left(n k^{2}, n^{2}\right) \leq \operatorname{PSQUARES}_{k}(n) \leq c_{2} \cdot \min \left(n k^{2}, n^{2}\right)
$$

for some constants $c_{1}, c_{2}>0$. We also present an algorithm that computes psquares $(T)$ in $\mathcal{O}\left(n k^{3}\right)$ time for a partial word $T$ of length $n$ with $k$ holes. 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 $U U$, 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 $\Theta\left(n^{2}\right)$ square factors (e.g. $a^{n}$ ), however, it is known that such a word contains

[^0]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 $\Sigma \cup\{\diamond\}$, where $\diamond$ denotes a hole, that is, a don't care symbol. Two symbols $a, b \in \Sigma \cup\{\diamond\}$ 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 $U V$ 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 $s q-v a l(U V)$ let us denote the set of different full squares that match the partial word $U V: \operatorname{sq-val}(U V)=\left\{X X: X \in \Sigma^{*}, X X \approx U V\right\}$. Then p-squares $U V$ and $U^{\prime} V^{\prime}$ are called equivalent if $s q-v a l(U V)=s q-v a l\left(U^{\prime} V^{\prime}\right)$ (denoted as $\left.U V \equiv U^{\prime} V^{\prime}\right)$. E.g., the following two sets are equivalence classes of p-squares: $\mathcal{A}=\{a a \diamond \diamond, \diamond a a \diamond, \diamond \diamond a a, a \diamond \diamond a\}$ and $\mathcal{B}=\{a \diamond a \diamond \diamond \diamond, \diamond \diamond a a \diamond \diamond, \ldots\}$. 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 $W W$ is a general form of a square $U V$ (see [8]), denoted as $\operatorname{repr}(U V)$, if $W W \approx U V$ and $\operatorname{sq-val}(W W)=\operatorname{sq-val(UV)}$ (in other words, $W$ is the "most general" partial word that matches both $U$ and $V$ ). Then $U V \equiv U^{\prime} V^{\prime}$ iff $\operatorname{repr}(U V)=\operatorname{repr}\left(U^{\prime} V^{\prime}\right)$. E.g., $\operatorname{repr}(A)=(a a)^{2}$ for all $A \in \mathcal{A}$ and $\operatorname{repr}(B)=$ $(a \diamond a)^{2}$ 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 $3 n$ 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 $\mathcal{O}\left(n k^{2}\right)$ non-equivalent p-squares. We also show an example of a partial word of length $n$ with $k$ holes that contains $\Omega\left(n k^{2}\right)$ non-equivalent psquares of ambiguous lengths and that contains $\Omega(n k)$ 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 $\mathcal{O}\left(n k^{3}\right)$ 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 $i=1, \ldots, n$, the $i$ th letter of $T$. For $1 \leq i \leq j \leq n$, $T[i . . j]$ denotes the factor of $T$ equal to $T[i] \ldots T[j]$. A positive integer $q$ is called a period of $T$ if $T[i]=T[i+q]$ for all $i=1, \ldots, n-q$. 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 $q, 2 q \leq b-a+1$, 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 $(a, b, k q)$ for integer $k$ such that $2 k q \leq b-a+1$; 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 $\Sigma^{\prime}=\Sigma \cup\{\diamond\}$. 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 $\Sigma^{\prime}$ is defined as $a \approx a$, $a \approx \diamond$ for all $a \in \Sigma^{\prime}$. We define an operation $\wedge$ such that $a \wedge a=a, a \wedge \diamond=a$ for
all $a \in \Sigma^{\prime}$, and otherwise $a \wedge b$ is undefined. Two equal-length partial words $T$ and $S$ are said to match (denoted as $T \approx S$ ) if $T[i] \approx S[i]$ for all $i=1, \ldots,|T|$. In this case, by $S \wedge T$ we denote the partial word $S[1] \wedge T[1], \ldots, S[|S|] \wedge T[|S|]$. Note that if $U V$ is a p-square, then $\operatorname{repr}(U V)=(U \wedge V)^{2}$.

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 $2 q \leq|T|$. 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 $T=c a a \diamond \diamond \Delta \diamond \Delta b b d$ contains one Q-run with period $2:(2,10,2)$ that corresponds to the factor $a a \diamond \diamond \diamond \diamond \Delta b b$.

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

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

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

Example 3. Let $T=$ caa $\diamond \diamond \diamond \diamond \diamond b b d$. 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: $a a \diamond \diamond$, $a \diamond \diamond \diamond, \diamond \Delta \diamond \Delta \diamond, \diamond \diamond \diamond b$, and $\diamond \diamond b b$, respectively. The squares induced by the respective P-runs are as follows: $a a \diamond \diamond ; a \diamond \diamond \diamond ; \diamond \diamond \diamond \diamond$ (two times); $\Delta \diamond \diamond b$; and $\diamond \diamond b b$.

## 3 Combinatorial Bounds

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

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

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

of length $n=4 m+\left(\frac{k}{2}\right)^{2}+\frac{k}{2}$ 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 $\Theta\left(m k^{2}\right)$ non-equivalent p-squares of ambiguous lengths.

Proof. First, note that that there are $\left(\frac{k}{2}\right)^{2}$ 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 $\left(a^{k / 2-1} \diamond\right)^{k / 2}$ part $\left(1 \leq i, j \leq \frac{k}{2}\right)$. Then the distance between them is $\frac{k}{2}-i+$ $m+\frac{k}{2} \cdot j=\frac{k}{2} \cdot j-i+\left(\frac{k}{2}+m\right)$. 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 differenece cover); see Fig. 1.

Let us choose $k$ so that $2\left(m+\left(\frac{k}{2}\right)^{2}+\frac{k}{2}\right) \leq \frac{n}{2}$. Then for each ambiguous length $\ell$, we have exactly $\ell$ p-square factors in $T_{m, k}$ of the general form $\left(a^{i} \diamond a^{\ell-i-1}\right)$. 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 ( $[\mathbf{1 6 , 2 0 , 1 4 ] ) . \leq 2 ~ r i g h t m o s t ~ o c c u r r e n c e s . ~}$
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 $r \leq \frac{3 k+3}{3 k+2} \ell$.

Lemma 6. For a short interval $[\ell, r)$, there are $\mathcal{O}\left(k^{\prime}\right)$, where $k^{\prime}=$ holes $(i, i+$ $2 r-1$ ), $p$-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 $I \geq 2(r-\ell)$.

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 $T[i+\ell . . i+2 r-1]$ 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

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

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 $U V$ be a p-square factor of unambiguous length of the considered type and let $W W=\operatorname{repr}(U V)$ There are three cases:
(a) $W W$ has period $p$
(b) $W$ has period $p$
(c) $W$ does not have period $p$.

There is at most one p-square factor $U V$ corresponding to case (a). Assume to the contrary that there are two such p-squares, $U V$ and $U^{\prime} V^{\prime}$, of lengths $d<d^{\prime}$. We have that $p \mid d, d^{\prime}$ and the generalized forms of the two p -squares have the same string period (as they share a subword $U$ ). Hence, $\operatorname{repr}(U V)$ is a border of $\operatorname{repr}\left(U^{\prime} V^{\prime}\right)$, so $U V$ occurs in $T$ at position $i+d^{\prime}-d$.

We will show that there are at most $k^{\prime}+1$ p-square subwords of type (b). Assume to the contrary that at least $k^{\prime}+2$ of them, of lengths $d_{1}<\ldots<d_{k^{\prime}+2}$. We see that $d_{j} \bmod k$ 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 $U V$ and the longest $U^{\prime} V^{\prime}$ these p-squares, with generalized forms $W W$ and $W^{\prime} W^{\prime}$, and the subword $T\left[i+d_{1} . . i+d_{k^{\prime}+2}-1\right]$. It matches a prefix $P$ of length $d_{k^{\prime}+2}-d_{1}$ of $W$ and a suffix $S$ of the same length of $W^{\prime}$. Both $P$ and $S$ have period $P$; however, their string periods are not equal. Consequently, in every occurrence of the period in $T\left[i+d_{1} . . i+d_{k^{\prime}+2}-1\right]$ there mus be a hole; this makes $\left(d_{k^{\prime}+2}-d_{1}\right) / p \geq k^{\prime}+1$ 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 $T\left[j_{1}\right]$ and $T\left[j_{2}\right]$ is not a hole, then it is determined uniquely as the first position where the deterministic period $p$ breaks, 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 $T\left[j_{1}\right]$ or $T\left[j_{2}\right]$ 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 $k^{\prime}$ choices for the other. Consequently, there are at most $4 k^{\prime}+2$ such p-squares.

Theorem 8. A partial word $T$ of length $n$ with $k$ holes contains $\mathcal{O}\left(n k^{2}\right)$ nonequivalent p-squares.

Proof. Obviously, in $T$ there are at most $k^{2}$ ambiguous lengths. Consequently, there are $\mathcal{O}\left(n k^{2}\right)$ non-equivalent p-squares of such lengths. Let us consider psquares 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:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{O}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} k_{i, i+2 r-1}\right)=\mathcal{O}(r k) \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

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

Let us consider a family of endpoints $r_{0}, r_{1}, \ldots$ :

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

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

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

## 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 $l c p(i, j)$ as the length of the longest common prefix of $S[i . . n]$ and $S[j . n]$ and $l c s(i, j)$ as the length of the longest common suffix of $S[1 . . i]$ and $S[1 . . j]$. The algorithm for each position $j>i$ computes $l c p(i, j)+l c s(i, j)$ and, if this value is at least $j-i$, reports a generalized run $(i-l c s(i, j) . . j+l c p(i, j), j-i)$. 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 $\mathcal{O}(n \log n)$ as $l c p$-queries and $l c s$-queries can be answered in $\mathcal{O}(1)$-time after preprocessing.

For a partial word $T$, the longest common compatible prefix of two positions $i, j$, denoted $l c c p(i, j)$, 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 $\mathcal{O}(n k)$-time preprocessing, $l c c p$-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 $\left\lceil\frac{k}{2}\right\rceil$-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 $\left(a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}, p\right)$ such that $a^{\prime} \leq a \leq b \leq b^{\prime}$.

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 $\mathcal{O}(n k) P$-runs and they can all be computed in $\mathcal{O}(n k)$ 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 $\mathcal{O}\left(k^{2}\right)$ time using Theorem 23 from [21]. Indeed, we can represent the representative of the p-square $T[a . . a+2 p-1]$ 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 $\mathcal{O}\left(n k^{3}\right)$ 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: $a a b a \diamond b, \diamond a a b a \diamond, a b \diamond \diamond b a, a \diamond a a b a, b \diamond \diamond b a \diamond$. The following pair is equivalent: $a b \diamond \diamond b a \equiv a \diamond a a b a$.


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