

Tighter Lower Bounds on The Exact Complexity of String Matching

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Abstract

The paper considers the exact number of character comparisons needed to find all occurrences of a pattern of length m in a text of length n using on-line and general algorithms. For on-line algorithms, a lower bound of about $(1 + \frac{9}{4(m+1)}) \cdot n$ character comparisons is obtained. For general algorithms, a lower bound of about $(1 + \frac{2}{m+3}) \cdot n$ character comparisons is obtained. These lower bounds complement an on-line upper bound of about $(1 + \frac{8}{3(m+1)}) \cdot n$ comparisons obtained recently by Cole and Hariharan. The lower bounds are obtained by finding patterns with interesting combinatorial properties. It is also shown that for some patterns off-line algorithms can be more efficient than on-line algorithms.

Key words. string matching, pattern matching, comparisons, complexity, lower bounds

Subject classifications. primary 68R15; secondary 68Q25, 68U15

1 Introduction

The classical *string matching* problem is the problem of finding all occurrences of a pattern $w[1 \dots m]$ in a text $t[1 \dots n]$. String matching is among the most extensively studied problems in computer science. A survey of the various algorithms devised for it can be found in [Ah90].

Among the most efficient algorithms devised for string matching are algorithms that gain information about the pattern and text only by performing comparisons between pattern and text characters. Such algorithms need not have any prior knowledge of the (possibly

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infinite) alphabet from which the pattern and text are drawn. We investigate the exact comparison complexity of string matching in this model and obtain lower bounds on the number of comparisons required (in the worst case). These lower bounds allow the algorithms to preprocess the pattern (but not the text). The lower bounds remain valid even if the algorithms do know the alphabet in advance provided that the alphabet contains a character not appearing in the pattern.

Two kinds of comparison based algorithms have been studied. An *on-line* algorithm is an algorithm that examines text characters only in a window of size m sliding monotonically to the right; furthermore, the window can slide to the right only when all matching pattern instances to the left of the window or aligned with the window have been discovered. A general (or *off-line*) algorithm is an algorithm that can access both the pattern and the text in an unrestricted manner.

Perhaps the most widely known linear time algorithms for string matching are the Knuth-Morris-Pratt [KMP77] and Boyer-Moore [BM77] algorithms. We refer to them as the KMP and BM algorithms, respectively. The KMP algorithm makes at most $2n - m$ comparisons and this bound is tight. The exact complexity of the BM algorithm was an open question until recently. It was shown in [KMP77] that the BM algorithm makes at most $6n$ comparisons if the pattern does not occur in the text. Guibas and Odlyzko [GO80] reduced this to $4n$ under the same assumption. Cole [Cole91] finally proved an essentially tight bound of $3n - \Omega(n/m)$ comparisons for the BM algorithm, whether or not the pattern occurs in the text.

The versions of the KMP and BM algorithms considered in the preceding paragraph are comparison based. It is interesting to note that both algorithms have variants that are not purely comparison based and do not fall into the category of algorithms considered in this paper. The failure function of the KMP algorithm [KMP77] yields finite automata that perform string matching by reading each character exactly once. However, simulations of these automata require prior knowledge of the alphabet and the number of comparisons needed to simulate each transition depends on the alphabet size. Transitions can be simulated in unit time by using text characters to address an array of pointers, but this is not allowed in our model.

The standard BM algorithm [BM77] uses two shift functions to determine the distance to shift the pattern when a mismatch occurs. One of these shift functions, the *occurrence shift*, gives the rightmost position in the pattern in which the unmatched text character occurs. An efficient implementation of this shift function is again alphabet dependent. The second shift function used by the BM algorithm is comparison based. The analysis of Cole [Cole91] shows that the occurrence shift function does not improve the worst case behaviour of the BM algorithm. This occurrence shift function is very important in practice, however, as it ensures sublinear time in various probabilistic settings (see [BGR90]). For a study of how the KMP, BM and other algorithms behave in practice the reader is referred to [HS91].

Apostolico and Crochemore [AC89] gave a simple variant of the KMP algorithm which makes at most $\frac{3}{2}n$ comparisons. Apostolico and Giancarlo [AG86] gave a variant of the BM algorithm which makes at most $2n - m + 1$ comparisons. Crochemore et al. [CCG92] showed recently that remembering just the most recently matched portion reduces the upper bound of *BM* from $3n$ to $2n$ comparisons.

Recently, Galil and Giancarlo [CGG90],[GG92] analyzed and modified a string matching

algorithm designed by Colussi [Coll91] ; they showed it makes at most $\frac{4}{3}n$ comparisons. In fact, [GG92] give this bound in a sharper form as a function of the period z of the pattern; the bound becomes $n + (n - m) \min\{\frac{1}{3}, \frac{\min\{z, m-z\}+2}{2m}\}$. Galil and Giancarlo [GG91] have also shown that any on-line algorithm for string matching must perform at least $\frac{4}{3}n - O(1)$ comparisons for some strings (the string `aba` is an example). It will be shown here that this lower bound also applies to general algorithms, if only pattern-text comparisons are allowed.

The algorithm of Galil and Giancarlo [GG92] is efficient for relatively short patterns. It may become inefficient for longer patterns. Breslauer and Galil [BG92] and Cole and Hariharan [CH92] have shown that the string matching problem becomes easier as the length of the pattern increases. Breslauer and Galil [BG92] developed an algorithm that performs at most $(1 + O(\frac{\log m}{m})) \cdot n$ character comparisons for texts of length n and patterns of length m . Cole and Hariharan [CH92] obtained an algorithm that performs at most $(1 + O(\frac{1}{m})) \cdot n$ comparisons. As we shall see, this is essentially tight.

Galil and Giancarlo [GG91] showed that any on-line algorithm must perform at least $(1 + \frac{2}{m+3}) \cdot n - O(1)$ comparisons for some patterns of odd length m , and that any (general) algorithm must perform at least $(1 + \frac{1}{2m}) \cdot n - O(1)$ comparisons for some patterns of length m .

In this work we improve the lower bounds for both on-line and off-line algorithms. We also show that for certain patterns off-line algorithms can be more efficient than on-line algorithms. Some of our lower bounds apply in a model in which both text-text and pattern-text comparisons are allowed. We suspect that for some patterns text-text comparisons can improve the efficiency of string matching algorithms.

Our improved lower bounds are the following: for on-line algorithms that use only pattern-text comparisons, a lower bound of $(1 + \frac{16}{7m+27}) \cdot n - O(1)$ character comparisons is obtained, for $m = 16k + 19$ where $k \geq 1$. For on-line algorithms that are allowed to use both pattern-text and text-text comparisons, a lower bound of $(1 + \frac{9}{4(m+1)}) \cdot n - O(1)$ character comparisons is obtained, for $m = 36k + 35$ where $k \geq 0$. For general off-line algorithms, that are allowed to use both pattern-text and text-text comparisons, a lower bound of $(1 + \frac{2}{m+3}) \cdot n - O(1)$ character comparisons is obtained, for $m = 2k + 1$ where $k \geq 2$. We also get an off-line lower bound of $\frac{4}{3} \cdot n - O(1)$ character comparisons for $m = 3$, if only pattern-text comparisons are allowed.

The on-line lower bounds presented come very close to the on-line upper bound of $(1 + \frac{8}{3(m+1)}) \cdot n$ obtained by Cole and Hariharan [CH92]. The worst-case comparison complexity of string matching is therefore almost exactly determined. It is asymptotically of the form $(1 + \frac{d}{m}) \cdot n$ where for on-line algorithms $\frac{9}{4} \leq d \leq \frac{8}{3}$ and for general algorithms $2 \leq d \leq \frac{8}{3}$.

Our work builds on the work of Galil and Giancarlo [GG91]. Our point of view, however, is a bit different. Galil and Giancarlo [GG91] investigated the number of comparisons required only as a function of n , the text length, and m , the pattern length. We are interested in the number of comparisons required as a function of the text length and the specific pattern sought.

In the next section we explain, in more detail, the rules of the string matching game in the comparison model setting. In Section 3 we describe the adversary arguments that lie at the heart of our lower bounds proofs. The off-line lower bounds presented in Section 4 follow

almost immediately from the arguments of Section 3. A specific lower bound is obtained for every pattern. This lower bound depends on the first and second periods of the pattern (see next section). These off-line lower bounds are shown to be tight for an interesting family of patterns. Exploiting the additional restrictions placed on on-line algorithms, we obtain, in Sections 5 and 6, improved on-line lower bounds. The lower bound of Section 5 depends again on the first and second periods of the patterns. Additional periods and more complicated combinatorial structures are used in Section 6. In section 7 we obtain some on-line upper bounds (for strings of the form $\mathbf{a}^k \mathbf{b} \mathbf{a}^\ell$) that match the on-line and some of the off-line lower bounds of Sections 4 and 5. Finally, in Section 8 we exhibit a pattern (abaa) for which an off-line algorithm (it is actually on-line with a small look-ahead) performs better than any on-line algorithm.

A preliminary version of this paper has appeared in [CHPZ93].

2 Preliminaries

The algorithms we consider are allowed to access the text and the pattern only through queries of the form “ $t[i] = w[j]$?” or “ $t[i] = t[j]$?”. To each such query the algorithm is supplied with a ‘yes’ or ‘no’ answer. An algorithm is charged only for the queries it makes; all other computations are free of charge. Algorithms may adaptively choose their queries depending on the answers to earlier queries. An algorithm in this model may be viewed as a sequence of decision trees. Similar comparison models are used to study comparison problems such as sorting, searching and selection.

For a string w , let $c(w)$ denote the minimal constant for which there exists a string matching algorithm that finds all occurrences of the pattern w in a text of length n using at most $c(w) \cdot n + o(n)$ comparisons (between text and pattern characters and between pairs of text characters). A variant of $c(w)$ is $c^*(w)$ in which the algorithm is not allowed to compare pairs of text characters. Obviously $c(w) \leq c^*(w)$.

In the definition of $c(w)$ and $c^*(w)$, we allow unrestricted *off-line* algorithms that have random access to all the characters of the text. By contrast, we define $c_k(w)$ and $c_k^*(w)$ to be the corresponding minimal constants when the algorithms have access to the text only through a sliding window of size $|w| + k$ (where $|w|$ denotes the length of w). Furthermore, the algorithm is only allowed to slide the window past a text position when it has already reported whether an occurrence of the pattern starts at that text position. Algorithms using a sliding window of size $|w|$ (i.e., $k = 0$) are traditionally called *on-line* algorithms. We call algorithms that use larger windows, *finite look-ahead* or *window* algorithms. Clearly $c(w) \leq c_k(w) \leq c_0(w)$ for any $k \geq 0$. We show in Section 8 that for some w and some k , $c_k(w) < c_0(w)$. More specifically, we show there that $c_4(\text{abaa}) < c_0(\text{abaa})$. This means that for some patterns, algorithms that use larger windows may be more efficient than all algorithms that use smaller windows. It is still an open problem whether there exists a string w for which $c(w) < c_k(w)$ for every $k \geq 0$. That is, it is not known whether there exists strings for which an optimal off-line algorithm is better than any finite look-ahead algorithm. It is clear however that $c_k(w)$ is non-increasing in k . The following Lemma is also easily established.

Lemma 2.1 *For any string w we have $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} c_k(w) = c(w)$.*

Proof : Let $c(n)$ be the number of comparisons required, in the worst case, to find all occurrences of w in a text of length n using an unrestricted algorithm. By the definition of $c(w)$ we get that $c(n) \leq c(w) \cdot n + d(n)$ where $d(n) = o(n)$. For every $k \geq 0$ consider now the following algorithm with look-ahead k . The algorithm finds all occurrences of w in its window of size $k + |w|$ using at most $c(k + |w|)$ comparisons. The window is then slid by $k + 1$ positions and the same process is repeated. The number of comparisons performed by this algorithm on a text of length n is at most

$$\left\lceil \frac{n}{k+1} \right\rceil \cdot c(k + |w|) \leq \hat{c}_k(w) \cdot n + \hat{d}_k(w)$$

where

$$\hat{c}_k(w) = \frac{k + |w|}{k + 1} \cdot c(w) + \frac{d(k + |w|)}{k + 1}$$

and $\hat{d}_k(w)$ is some constant (depending on w and k). In particular we get that $c_k(w) \leq \hat{c}_k(w)$. It is now easy to check that $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \hat{c}_k(w) = c(w)$ and therefore $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} c_k(w) \leq c(w)$. It is clear however that $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} c_k(w) \geq c(w)$ and the required equality follows. \square

It is easy to see that $1 \leq c(w) \leq c_0(w), c^*(w) \leq c_0^*(w)$ for every string w . The KMP algorithm shows that $1 \leq c_0^*(w) \leq 2$, for every w . The algorithm of Galil and Giancarlo [GG92] shows that $1 \leq c_0^*(w) \leq \frac{4}{3}$, for every w . The algorithm of Breslauer and Galil [BG92] shows that $1 \leq c_0^*(w) \leq 1 + \frac{4 \log_2 m + 2}{m}$ for every string of length m . Finally, the algorithm of Cole and Hariharan [CH92] shows that $1 \leq c_0^*(w) \leq 1 + \frac{8}{3(m+1)}$ for every string w of length m . The algorithms (of [KMP77],[GG92],[BG92],[CH92]) mentioned here are all on-line and they use only pattern-text comparisons.

Galil and Giancarlo [GG91] showed that $c_0^*(w) \geq c_0(w) \geq 1 + \frac{2}{m+3}$ for some patterns of odd length m . We show that for infinitely many values of m there exists strings of length m for which $c_0^*(w) \geq c_0(w) \geq 1 + \frac{9}{4(m+1)}$. We also show that for infinitely many values of m there exists strings of length m for which $c_0^*(w) \geq 1 + \frac{16}{7m+27}$. This shows that the algorithm of Cole and Hariharan is not far from being optimal. We further show that $c^*(w) \geq c(w) \geq 1 + \frac{2}{m+3}$ for some patterns of odd length $m \geq 5$, showing essentially that the lower bounds obtained by [GG91] for on-line algorithms also hold for general algorithms.

Let w be a string of length m . We say that z ($1 \leq z \leq m$) is a *period* of w if and only if $w[i] = w[i + z]$ for every $1 \leq i \leq m - z$. Let z_1 be the minimal period of w . (A minimal period exists since m is always a period of w .) Let z_2 be the minimal period of w which is not divisible by z_1 . If such a second period does not exist we set $z_2 = \infty$. We call z_1 *the period* of w and z_2 *the second period* of w . Periodicity properties play a major role in the sequel.

It is well known (see, e.g., [KMP77]) that if z_1 and z_2 are periods of w and if $z_1 + z_2 \leq |w| + \gcd(z_1, z_2)$ then $\gcd(z_1, z_2)$ is also a period of w . If z_1 and z_2 are the first and second periods of w then $\gcd(z_1, z_2)$ is not a period of w and, as a consequence, $z_1 + z_2 \geq |w| + 2$.

3 Adversary arguments

Our lower bounds are derived using an adversary that fills in the text while answering the algorithm's queries. The adversary always 'tiles' the text with (overlapping) occurrences of

the pattern. Every character of the text eventually becomes part of an occurrence, which the algorithm must find. Consequently the algorithm must establish the identity of each text character and it can achieve this only by getting at least one ‘yes’ answer for each position. The adversary tries to avoid giving ‘yes’ answers whenever possible. It gives a ‘yes’ answer only when a ‘no’ answer would either contradict a previous answer or prevent it from completely tiling the text. The arguments of this section are generalizations of similar arguments of Galil and Giancarlo [GG91].

The statement, made above, that at least one ‘yes’ answer must be obtained by the algorithm for each text position covered by an occurrence of the pattern seems obvious. It is indeed immediate if only pattern-text comparisons are allowed. A slightly more complicated argument is needed to handle the possibility of text-text comparisons.

Lemma 3.1 *A comparison based algorithm can be certain about the identity of s text characters in a text t only after receiving at least s ‘yes’ answers.*

Proof: Assume that the algorithm declares the identity of s text positions after receiving only s' ‘yes’ answers where $s' < s$, and an arbitrary number of ‘no’ answers. We show that there exists a text t' , consistent with all the ‘yes’ and ‘no’ answers received by the algorithm, in which at least one of the characters is not the one claimed by the algorithm. This text is built in the following way. Let $V = \{v_1, \dots, v_s\}$ be the set of indices of the text positions whose identity is declared by the algorithm. Let $U = \{u_1, \dots, u_p\}$ be the set of indices of text positions involved in queries that were answered by ‘yes’. If $V \not\subseteq U$ then we are done, as if $v_j \notin U$ for some $1 \leq j \leq s$, then t' may be obtained by replacing the character at position v_j of t by a new character b not appearing in t . Assume therefore that $V \subseteq U$. Let the number of distinct symbols in the pattern w be k . Construct a graph G which has one vertex for each text character in U and one vertex for each of the k symbols which appear in w . Every edge in G corresponds to a ‘yes’ answer received by the algorithm. If a ‘yes’ answer was given to a query ‘ $w[i] = t[j]$?’ then an edge is added between the vertex corresponding to $t[j]$ and the vertex corresponding to the symbol at $w[i]$. If a ‘yes’ answer was given to a query ‘ $t[i] = t[j]$?’ then an edge is added between the vertices which correspond to $t[i]$ and $t[j]$ respectively. Note that G has at most s' edges and at least $s + k$ vertices. Since $s' \leq s - 1$, G must have at least $k + 1$ connected components. Clearly, at least one of these connected components C does not have a vertex corresponding to a symbol in w . The required text t' is obtained in this case by replacing all the characters of t in positions that belong to the component C by a new character b not appearing in t . \square

Next we describe a scheme using which the adversary can give any algorithm a relatively large number of ‘no’ answers. We begin with a definition.

Definition 3.2 Let w be a string. A family $\mathcal{F} = \{t_v : v \in \{0, 1\}^r\}$ of texts of length n is said to be r -separating for w if there exist indices u_1^0, \dots, u_r^0 and u_1^1, \dots, u_r^1 such that

1. The text t_v , for every $v = (v_1, \dots, v_r) \in \{0, 1\}^r$, contains occurrences of w starting at positions $u_1^{v_1}, \dots, u_r^{v_r}$, but not at positions $u_1^{\bar{v}_1}, \dots, u_r^{\bar{v}_r}$ (where $\bar{x} = 1 - x$ is the complement of x).
2. The answer to any query of the form ‘ $w[i] = t[j]$?’ is either ‘yes’ for all texts $t_v \in \mathcal{F}$, or ‘no’ for all texts $t_v \in \mathcal{F}$, or ‘yes’ for a text $t_v \in \mathcal{F}$ if and only if $v_k = \varepsilon$, for some fixed $1 \leq k \leq r$ and $\varepsilon \in \{0, 1\}$.

A very simple example of an r -separating family for **aba** may be obtained as follows. Let $n = 3r + 1$ for some $r \geq 1$. Place **a**'s in positions $3j$, for $0 \leq j < r$, of all texts t_v . In positions $3j + 1, 3j + 2$ of t_v , put **ba** if $v_j = 0$ and **ab** if $v_j = 1$ (for simplicity, we number the positions here from 0). This family may be depicted schematically as:

$$\dots \text{ a } \begin{array}{c} \text{ba} \\ \text{ab} \end{array} \text{ a } \begin{array}{c} \text{ba} \\ \text{ab} \end{array} \text{ a } \begin{array}{c} \text{ba} \\ \text{ab} \end{array} \text{ a } \dots$$

The following Lemma is easily established. Its proof is omitted.

Lemma 3.3 *If $\mathcal{F} = \{t_v : v \in \{0, 1\}^r\}$ is an r -separating family then the answer to a text-text query ' $t[i] = t[j]?$ ' is either 'yes' for all texts t_v , or 'no' for all t_v , or 'yes' for t_v if and only if $v_{k_1} = \varepsilon_1$, or 'yes' for t_v if and only if $v_{k_1} \oplus v_{k_2} = \varepsilon_1$, or 'yes' in t_v if and only if $v_{k_1} = \varepsilon_1$ and $v_{k_2} = \varepsilon_2$, for some fixed $1 \leq k_1, k_2 \leq r$ and $\varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2 \in \{0, 1\}$.*

In the example given after Definition 3.2, there is no text-text query whose answer is 'yes' if and only if $v_{k_1} = \varepsilon_1$ and $v_{k_2} = \varepsilon_2$, for some fixed $1 \leq k_1 \neq k_2 \leq r$ and $\varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2 \in \{0, 1\}$. Such a situation may arise however for patterns w that contain more than two distinct characters.

We are now ready to prove:

Lemma 3.4 *If \mathcal{F} is an r -separating family for w then, for any comparison-based algorithm for w , there exists a text $t_v \in \mathcal{F}$ for which the algorithm receives at least r 'no' answers before being able to locate all the occurrences of w in t_v .*

Proof: The adversary maintains a set E containing linear equations over the binary field $\text{GF}(2)$ in the variables v_1, \dots, v_r . At any stage, there is at least one vector $v \in \{0, 1\}^r$ that satisfies all the equations of E , and if a vector $v \in \{0, 1\}^r$ satisfies all the equations of E then the text t_v is consistent with all answers given so far by the adversary. Further, the number of equations in E is at most the number of 'no' answers given by the adversary. At the beginning $E = \phi$, and as no query has been made, all texts are still possible. This is how the adversary responds to a new query:

If the answer to the query is the same for all texts t_v for which v is a solution of E , the adversary responds with this common answer. The set E remains unchanged and all the invariants remain satisfied.

Otherwise, the adversary answers with a 'no'. It then adds an equation to E in the following way. As the answer to the current query is not the same for all the texts in \mathcal{F} , there exist, by Definition 3.2 and by Lemma 3.3, either a single equation e_1 or two equations e_1 and e_2 such that the answer to the query is 'yes' in t_v if and only if v satisfies e_1 , or both e_1 and e_2 .

If the answer to the query, according to t_v , is 'yes' if and only if e_1 is satisfied, then $\overline{e_1}$, the equation obtained from e_1 by complementing its free coefficient, is added to E . If the answer to the query, according to t_v , is 'yes' if and only if both e_1 and e_2 are satisfied, then at least one of e_1 and e_2 is independent of the equations of E , as otherwise the answer would have been the same for all surviving texts. If e_1 does not depend on E then the

equation \bar{e}_1 is added to E , otherwise \bar{e}_2 is added. It is easy to verify that all the required invariants are still satisfied.

The algorithm's task is done only when there is a unique solution to E . This happens only when the set E contains at least r equations. An equation is added to E only as a result of a 'no' answer. The adversary can therefore give the algorithm at least r 'no' answers. \square

Lemmas 3.1 and 3.4 can be combined together to give a lower bound of $n + r$ if, in every text t_v of the separating family \mathcal{F} used in Lemma 3.4, every text position is covered by an occurrence of the pattern w . Such separating families will be constructed in the next section.

4 Off-line lower bounds

Theorem 4.1 *If w is a string and z_1, z_2 are its first and second periods then $c(w) \geq 1 + \frac{1}{z_1+z_2}$.*

Proof : Assume without loss of generality that $n = r(z_1 + z_2) + |w|$ for some $r \geq 1$. For every $v \in \{0, 1\}^r$ construct a text t_v of length n in which, for every $0 \leq j < r$, occurrences of w start at $j(z_1 + z_2)$, and either at $j(z_1 + z_2) + z_1$ or at $j(z_1 + z_2) + z_2$ according to whether $v_j = 0$ or $v_j = 1$. It is easy to verify that $\mathcal{F} = \{t_v : v \in \{0, 1\}^r\}$ is an r -separating family for w where $u_j^0 = j(z_1 + z_2) + z_1$ and $u_j^1 = j(z_1 + z_2) + z_2$, for $0 \leq j < r$. This construction is depicted in Figure 1 (note that $z_1 + z_2 \geq |w| + 2$). Consider now a comparison-based algorithm A that finds all occurrences of w in a string of length n . According to Lemma 3.4, A gets at least r 'no' answers for at least one text t_{v_0} , where $v_0 \in \{0, 1\}^r$. It is also easy to see that every text t_v , and in particular t_{v_0} , is completely covered with occurrences of w . According to Lemma 3.1, A must therefore get at least n 'yes' answers on t_{v_0} . In total, A must make, in the worst case, at least $n + r = (1 + \frac{1}{z_1+z_2})n - \frac{|w|}{z_1+z_2}$ comparisons for a text of length n . \square

As an example, note that for the string aba , $z_1 = 2$ and $z_2 = 3$ and therefore $c(aba) \geq \frac{6}{5}$. The separating family used to obtain this lower bound may be depicted as:

$$\dots \begin{array}{c} aba \\ ab \end{array} \begin{array}{c} ba \\ ab \end{array} \begin{array}{c} aba \\ ab \end{array} \begin{array}{c} ba \\ ab \end{array} \begin{array}{c} aba \\ ab \end{array} \begin{array}{c} ba \\ ab \end{array} \begin{array}{c} aba \\ ab \end{array} \dots$$

This family has the property that, in every text of the family, every position is covered by an occurrence of aba . The separating family for aba given after Definition 3.2 did not have this property.

As a further example, note that for the string $abaa$ we have $z_1 = 3$ and $z_2 = 4$, and therefore $c(abaa) \geq \frac{8}{7}$. In Section 8 it will be shown that this bound is tight, i.e., $c(abaa) = \frac{8}{7}$. We will see from Theorem 7.1 that $c_0(abaa) = \frac{5}{4}$. This provides an example of a string for which off-line algorithms can be more efficient than on-line algorithms.

Theorem 4.2 *If w is a string, z_1, z_2 are its first and second periods, and $2z_2 - z_1 \leq |w|$ then $c(w) \geq 1 + \frac{1}{z_2}$.*

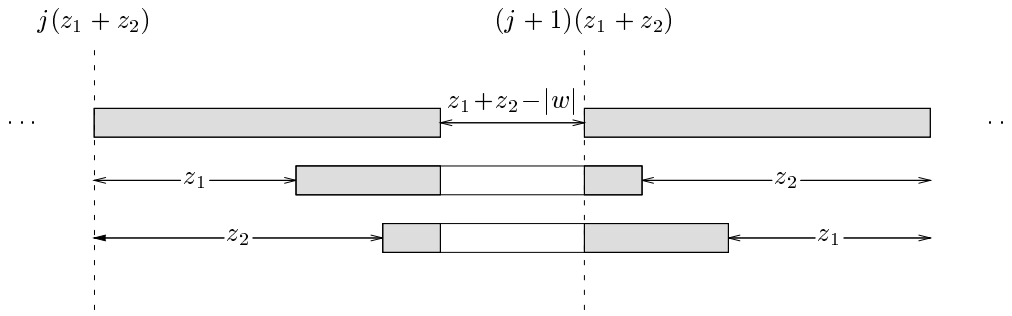


Figure 1: The configuration used to prove that $c(w) \geq 1 + \frac{1}{z_1+z_2}$

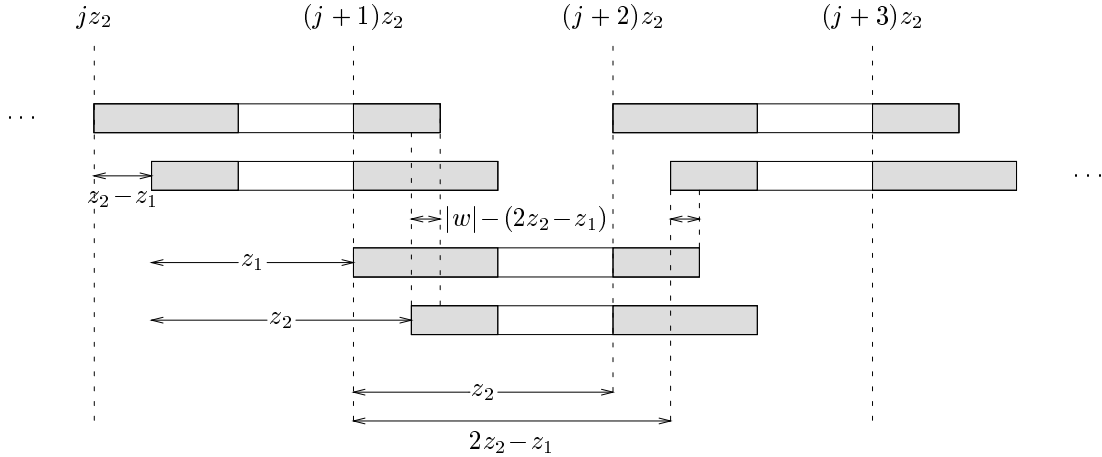


Figure 2: A configuration used to show that $c(w) \geq 1 + \frac{1}{z_2}$

Proof : The proof is very similar to the proof of Theorem 4.1. A separating family, in which every text is *almost* completely tiled with occurrences of w , may be obtained this time without using occurrences of w that are common to all the texts of the family.

Assume that $n = rz_2 + |w| + z_1$ for some $r \geq 1$. For every $v \in \{0, 1\}^r$, construct a text t_v of length n in which, for $0 \leq j < r$, occurrences of w start at jz_2 if $v_j = 0$ or at $jz_2 + (z_2 - z_1)$ if $v_j = 1$. It is again easy to check that $\mathcal{F} = \{t_v : v \in \{0, 1\}^r\}$ is an r -separating family for w where this time $u_j^0 = jz_2$ and $u_j^1 = jz_2 + (z_2 - z_1)$, for every $0 \leq j < r$. The construction is depicted in Figure 2. Note that if z_1, z_2 ($z_1 < z_2$) are periods of w then so is $2z_2 - z_1$. As $2z_2 - z_1 \leq |w|$, every position in a text t_v , except perhaps the first and last $z_2 - z_1$ positions, is covered by an occurrence of w . Thus, as in the proof of Theorem 4.1, we can show that any algorithm must perform, in the worst case, at least $n(1 + \frac{1}{z_2}) - O(|w|)$ comparisons. \square

As an example, for the string **aabaa** we have $z_1 = 3, z_2 = 4$ and $2z_2 - z_1 \leq |w|$ and therefore $c(\text{aabaa}) \geq \frac{5}{4}$. The separating family used this time is:

... aa ba aa ba aa ba aa ...
 ab ab ab ab

Theorem 4.3 $c^*(\text{aba}) = \frac{4}{3}$.

Proof : The upper bound will follow from Theorem 7.1. The lower bound does not follow from Theorem 4.2 as the condition $2z_2 - z_1 \leq |w|$ is not satisfied. A specialized argument is needed in this case. The argument given here assumes that only pattern-text comparisons are allowed. It does not seem to extend in a simple manner to the case in which both pattern-text and text-text comparisons are allowed.

The lower bound is obtained using the separating family for aba given after Definition 3.2. A complication arises however as texts in this family are not completely covered by occurrences of aba .

Assume that $n = 3r + 1$ for some $r \geq 1$. The adversary starts by putting a 's in all text positions $3j$, for $0 \leq j < r$. It will set positions $3j + 1, 3j + 2$ to either ab or ba only after replying with a 'no' to at least one query concerning these positions.

The adversary answers the queries of the algorithm in the following way. If the queried text position was already set by the adversary, the answer consistent with this setting is returned. If the query is ' $t[3j + k] = \text{a}?$ ' or ' $t[3j + k] = \text{b}?$ ' where $k = 1, 2$, and position $3j + k$ has not yet been set, the adversary responds with a 'no'. It then sets positions $3j + 1, 3j + 2$ to either ab or ba , whichever is consistent with its 'no' answer.

All text positions of the form $3j + 1$ and $3j + 2$ will eventually be covered by occurrences of aba . The adversary therefore forces at least one 'no' answer and two 'yes' answers for each such pair. Positions of the form $3j$ are not necessarily covered by occurrences of aba . If, however, position $3j$ is not covered by such an occurrence, then positions $3j - 2, 3j - 1$ are set to ba and positions $3j + 1, 3j + 2$ are set to ab . An algorithm must still query position $3j$ at least once in such a case, to either verify or rule out an occurrence of aba starting at position $3j - 1$. This completes the proof. \square

For a non-periodic string w (i.e., a string with $z_1 = |w|$, $z_2 = \infty$), the above theorems give only the trivial lower bound, $c(w) \geq 1$. This bound is tight however as the many string matching algorithms (see, e.g., those of [Coll91],[GG91] and [CH92]) perform at most n comparisons when searching for a non-periodic pattern in a text of length n .

As a corollary to Theorem 4.2 we get

Corollary 4.4 For $k, \ell \geq 2$ we have $c(\mathbf{a}^k \mathbf{b} \mathbf{a}^\ell) \geq 1 + \frac{1}{\max\{k, \ell\} + 2}$.

Proof : It is easy to check that the first and second periods of $w = \mathbf{a}^k \mathbf{b} \mathbf{a}^\ell$ are $z_1 = \max\{k, \ell\} + 1$ and $z_2 = \max\{k, \ell\} + 2$ and that $2z_2 - z_1 = \max\{k, \ell\} + 3 \leq |w| = k + \ell + 1$. The claim follows immediately from Theorem 4.2. \square

In Section 7 it will be shown that the bounds given in Corollary 4.4 are tight. They can even be matched using on-line algorithms. As a further Corollary to Theorem 4.2 (or Corollary 4.4) we get

Corollary 4.5 For every $m = 2k + 1$, where $k \geq 2$, there exists a string $w_m (= \mathbf{a}^k \mathbf{b} \mathbf{a}^k)$ of length m such that any algorithm that finds all the occurrences of w_m in a text of length n must make at least $(1 + \frac{2}{m+3})n - O(1)$ comparisons in the worst case.

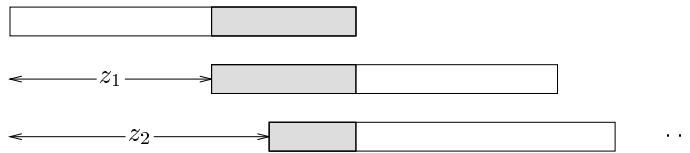


Figure 3: The configuration used to prove that $c_0(w) \geq 1 + \frac{1}{z_2}$.

We know (see last paragraph of Section 2) that if z_1 and z_2 are the first and second periods of w then $z_1 + z_2 \geq |w| + 2$. As $z_2 \geq z_1 + 1$, we get that $z_2 \geq \lceil \frac{|w|+3}{2} \rceil$. Corollary 4.5 is therefore the strongest result of its kind implied by Theorem 4.2.

5 On-line lower bounds - I

In this short section we show that the lower bound, $c(w) \geq 1 + \frac{1}{z_2}$, obtained for off-line algorithms only when $2z_2 - z_1 \leq |w|$, holds for on-line algorithms even if this condition does not hold.

Theorem 5.1 *If w is a string and z_2 is its second period then $c_0(w) \geq 1 + \frac{1}{z_2}$.*

Proof : Suppose that an on-line algorithm has just found an occurrence of w in the text. The window will now be slid by at most z_1 positions to the right. Place two copies of w shifted by z_1 and z_2 positions below w , as shown in Figure 3. Denote these copies by w' and w'' . Since $z_2 - z_1$ is not a period of w , the two copies w' and w'' must disagree in at least one position after the end of the found occurrence of w . The adversary will extend the found occurrence of w by either w' or w'' in a way that will force the algorithm to get at least one ‘no’ answer. If the algorithm makes a query whose answer is identical under both continuations, the adversary gives the algorithm this common answer. At some stage the algorithm has to make a query that distinguishes between the two noncompatible continuations. No matter what this query is, the adversary answers it by ‘no’. The adversary now chooses the continuation consistent with this ‘no’ and answers all further questions accordingly, until the algorithm finds the chosen occurrence. By then the algorithm has either made at least $z_1 + 1$ queries and can slide the window by only z_1 positions, or has made at least $z_2 + 1$ queries and can slide the window by only z_2 positions. Note that to verify an occurrence of the pattern in the text, the algorithm must get at least one ‘yes’ answer for each character of this occurrence. This process will be repeated again and again forcing the algorithm to make at least $(1 + \frac{1}{z_2}) \cdot n - O(1)$ queries on a text of length n . \square

In the next section we obtain, using more complicated arguments, better lower bounds for on-line algorithms (see Corollaries 6.3 and 6.5).

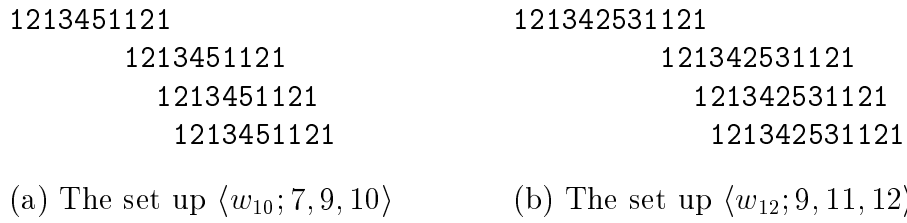


Figure 4: Two simple setups in which Theorem 6.1 can be applied

6 On-line lower bounds - II

In (the proof of) Theorem 5.1 it was shown that for every non-periodic pattern the adversary can force any algorithm to make at least *one* mistake (i.e., get at least one ‘no’ answer) for each occurrence of the pattern used in the tiling of the text. Now we show that for certain patterns the adversary can force any algorithm to make at least *two* mistakes for each such occurrence. The algorithm of Cole and Hariharan [CH92] makes at most two mistakes for each such occurrence, so no adversary can force all algorithms to make at least three mistakes for each occurrence of the tiling.

Theorem 6.1 *Let w be a string of length m and let $z_1 < z_2 < \dots < z_k$ be periods of w such that for every $1 \leq i < j \leq k$, $z_j - z_i$ is not a period of w .*

(i) *If none of the multi-sets $\{w[m+i-z_j] : 1 \leq j \leq k\}$, for $1 \leq i \leq z_1$, contains a character exactly $k-1$ times then $c_0^*(w) \geq 1 + \frac{2}{z_k}$.*

(ii) *In addition, if none of the multi-sets $\{(w[m+i_1-z_j], w[m+i_2-z_j]) : 1 \leq j \leq k\}$, for $1 \leq i_1 < i_2 \leq z_1$, contains exactly $k-1$ equal pairs then $c_0(w) \geq 1 + \frac{2}{z_k}$.*

Before proceeding with the proof of this theorem, we try to clarify the conditions appearing in it. Consider $k+1$ copies of w , positioned in an array of $k+1$ rows numbered $0, 1, \dots, k$, and $m+z_k$ columns numbered $1, \dots, m+z_k$, where the copy in the i -th row is shifted z_i positions to the right with respect to the copy in the 0-th row. Such arrays are depicted in Figure 4(a) for the string $w_{10} = 1213451121$ with $z_1 = 7, z_2 = 9$ and $z_3 = 10$, and in Figure 4(b) for the string $w_{12} = 121342531121$ with $z_1 = 9, z_2 = 11$ and $z_3 = 12$. A multi-set $\{w[m+i-z_j] : 1 \leq j \leq k\}$ contains the k characters appearing in column $m+i$ of rows $1, \dots, k$ in the array corresponding to w . The requirement in clause (i) above is that, in each column that lies after the end of the copy of the 0-th row, but at or before the end of any of the other copies, no character appears in all but one of the rows. It is easy to check that in both cases depicted in Figure 4 this condition is satisfied. Note that when $k=3$ this condition requires that the three characters in such a column will either all be equal or all be distinct.

To check the condition of clause (ii) above, one needs to look at pairs of such columns and compare the pair of characters appearing in each row. The number j of equal pairs is required to satisfy $j \neq k-1$. It is easily verified that this condition is satisfied in the array of $w_{10} = 1213451121$ but not in the array of $w_{12} = 121342531121$. Thus for w_{10} we obtain $c_0(w_{10}) \geq \frac{6}{5}$, while for w_{12} we can only infer $c_0^*(w_{12}) \geq \frac{7}{6}$.

Proof : The proof (of both statements) is a simple extension of the proof of Theorem 5.1. Suppose that an on-line algorithm has just found an occurrence of w in the text. The

window can be slid at most z_1 positions to the right. Below w , place k copies of w shifted by z_1, z_2, \dots, z_k positions respectively (the reader may refer to Figure 3 imagining that k instead of just two copies appear there). Since none of $z_j - z_i$ is a period of w , each pair of copies must disagree in at least one position after the end of the found occurrence of w . The adversary will extend the found occurrence of w by one of the k copies in a way that will force the algorithm to get at least two ‘no’ answers. If the algorithm asks a question whose answer under the above k continuations is the same, the adversary gives the algorithm this common answer. At some stage the algorithm has to make a query to which the answer is ‘yes’ according to some of the continuations, and ‘no’ according to the rest of them. The adversary will answer this query with a ‘no’. Conditions (i) and (ii) imply that at least two continuations are consistent with this ‘no’ answer. The adversary now gives the common answers to all queries that do not distinguish between the remaining continuations. At some stage the algorithm has to make another query to which both answers are possible. Again, the adversary answers this with a ‘no’. At least one continuation is consistent with all the replies given by the adversary. The adversary chooses one of them and answers all subsequent queries accordingly, until the algorithm finds the next occurrence of w . By then the algorithm has made at least $z_i + 2$ queries, for some $1 \leq i \leq k$, and it can slide the window by only z_i positions. \square

We will henceforth say that $\langle w; z_1, z_2, \dots, z_k \rangle$ is a *setup* if w is a string, and $z_1 < z_2 < \dots < z_k$ are periods of w , and none of $z_j - z_i$, for $i \neq j$ is a period of w . The string w_{10} is the shortest string for which a setup satisfying the conditions of Theorem 6.1 can be obtained. The string w_{12} is the shortest string for which a setup that satisfies condition (i), but not condition (ii), of Theorem 6.1 can be obtained. The two last statements were verified using a computer search.

We next show how to obtain from each setup satisfying the conditions of Theorem 6.1 an infinite sequence of such setups. This helps in the investigation of the asymptotic number of comparisons required as the length of the pattern strings tends to infinity. The infinite sequence is obtained by *padding* the basic setup.

Let u and v be strings. $pad(u, v)$ denotes the string obtained by placing a copy of v before and after each character of u . Thus $pad(121, 00) = 00100200100$ and in general $|pad(u, v)| = (|u| + 1)(|v| + 1) - 1$. We now have

Theorem 6.2 *If $\langle w; z_1, \dots, z_k \rangle$ is a setup satisfying the conditions of Theorem 6.1 and if $w_\ell = pad(w, 0^\ell)$ then*

$$c_0(w_\ell) \geq 1 + \frac{2(|w|+1)}{z_k} \cdot \frac{1}{|w_\ell|+1} \quad .$$

Proof : If the setup $\langle w; z_1, \dots, z_k \rangle$ satisfies the conditions of Theorem 6.1 then so does the setup $\langle w_\ell; (\ell + 1)z_1, \dots, (\ell + 1)z_k \rangle$. To see this, note at first that $(\ell + 1)z_i$, for $1 \leq i \leq k$, is indeed a period of $w_\ell = pad(w, 0^\ell)$ and that none of $(\ell + 1)(z_j - z_i)$, for $i \neq j$, is such a period. To verify the first condition of Theorem 6.1, note that every column in the setup $\langle w_\ell; (\ell + 1)z_1, \dots, (\ell + 1)z_k \rangle$ is either a column of the setup $\langle w; z_1, \dots, z_k \rangle$ or an all-zero column. The second condition is verified in a similar way. The statement of the Theorem then follows from Theorem 6.1, applied to $\langle w_\ell; (\ell + 1)z_1, \dots, (\ell + 1)z_k \rangle$, and from the fact that $1 + \frac{2}{(\ell+1)z_k} = 1 + \frac{2(|w|+1)}{z_k} \cdot \frac{1}{|w_\ell|+1}$. \square

Theorem 6.2 motivates the search for setups $\langle w; z_1, \dots, z_k \rangle$ satisfying the conditions of Theorem 6.1 for which $2(|w| + 1)/z_k$ is as high as possible. The best such setup that we have found with $k = 3$ is the following, $\langle w_{35}; 25, 30, 32 \rangle$:

```

12121121213412156781479121212112121
      12121121213412156781479121212112121
            12121121213412156781479121212112121
                  12121121213412156781479121212112121

```

For this setup, $2(|w| + 1)/z_k = \frac{9}{4}$. As a corollary to Theorem 6.2 we obtain

Corollary 6.3 *For every $m = 36k + 35$, where $k \geq 0$, there exists a string w_m of length m such that any on-line algorithm that finds all the occurrences of w_m in a text of length n must make at least $\left(1 + \frac{9}{4(m+1)}\right)n - O(1)$ comparisons in the worst case.*

Using a computer enumeration we have verified that no better setup with $k = 3$ is possible with a pattern of length at most 250. However, better setups that satisfy the first condition of Theorem 6.1 can be obtained by using four instead of three overlaps.

Let

$$u_k = \left(\left((12)^k 1 \right)^2 3^3 \right)^2 12 \left((12)^k 1 \right)^2 3^3 \left((12)^k 1 \right)^2 .$$

The following Lemma is easily verified.

Lemma 6.4 *The setups $\langle u_k; 8k + 12, 12k + 17, 14k + 18, 14k + 20 \rangle$, for $k \geq 1$, satisfy the first condition of Theorem 6.1.*

The setup $\langle u_1; 20, 29, 32, 34 \rangle$ for example is

```

12112133312112133312121121333121121
      12112133312112133312121121333121121
            12112133312112133312121121333121121
                  12112133312112133312121121333121121
                        12112133312112133312121121333121121

```

As $|u_k| = 16k + 19$ we get as a corollary

Corollary 6.5 *For every $m = 16k + 19$, where $k \geq 1$, there exists a string $w_m (= u_k)$ of length m such that any on-line algorithm that uses only pattern-text comparisons to find all the occurrences of w_m in a text of length n must make at least $\left(1 + \frac{16}{7m+27}\right)n - O(1)$ comparisons in the worst case.*

Corollary 6.5 is asymptotically better than Corollary 6.3 and it is the best on-line bound we have obtained. We have verified using a computer search that no better setup with four or five overlaps can be obtained using strings of length at most 250.

We believe that if $\langle w; z_1, \dots, z_k \rangle$ is a setup satisfying the conditions of Theorem 6.1 then $|z_k| \geq \frac{7}{8}|w|$. If this is true, then the result of Corollary 6.5 is essentially the best that can be obtained using our methods.

7 On-line upper bounds

The next theorem exhibits an interesting family of strings for which Theorem 5.1 is tight.

Theorem 7.1 *For every $k, \ell \geq 1$ we have $c_0(\mathbf{a}^k \mathbf{b} \mathbf{a}^\ell) = c_0^*(\mathbf{a}^k \mathbf{b} \mathbf{a}^\ell) = 1 + \frac{1}{\max\{k, \ell\} + 2}$.*

Proof : The lower bound is a corollary of Theorem 5.1. A matching upper bound is fairly straightforward for the case $k \leq \ell$, but needs more care when $k > \ell$. We will describe an algorithm that works in both cases.

Algorithm for $\mathbf{a}^k \mathbf{b} \mathbf{a}^\ell$

The algorithm is described as a sequence of steps, in each of which a text character is compared to the aligned pattern character. In the case of a mismatch or if an occurrence of the pattern has been verified, the window is shifted along to the next position at which a pattern occurrence is possible. We represent the state of the algorithm before each step by an *information string* uxv , where $u \in \{0, \mathbf{a}\}^k$, $v \in \{0, \mathbf{a}\}^\ell$, and $x \in \{0, \mathbf{A}, \mathbf{b}\}$, describing (part of) the current knowledge the algorithm has about the text characters in the window. A '0' in the information string indicates that no information is available on the corresponding position. An 'a' (or a 'b') indicates that the character in that position is known to be an a (or a b). An 'A' (or a 'B') indicates that the character in the corresponding position is known *not* to be an a (or a b). The state can be written in the specified form because, after any necessary window shift, the information string must be consistent with the pattern. Our algorithm makes only 'a?' and 'b?' queries, and we *choose to forget* any negative information represented by 'B'. We shall call the $(k + 1)$ -st position in the window the *b-position* and all the others *a-positions*. An a-position is always queried for an a. A b-position is always queried for a b.

In terms of the information strings, the algorithm is simply described.

```
IF there is some 0 in the information string
  THEN query the rightmost 0
  ELSE { $x = \mathbf{A}$ } query the b-position .
```

This procedure is repeated until the text string is exhausted. To prove the upper bound we first establish the following pair of invariants.

Invariants

- (i) If $x = \mathbf{b}$ then $v = \mathbf{a}^\ell$.
- (ii) If $x = 0$ then u does not contain the subword $\mathbf{a}^{\ell+1}$.

Invariant (i) holds because x can only become \mathbf{b} after an information string of the form $u0\mathbf{a}^\ell$, and following any shift we again have $x \neq \mathbf{b}$.

For Invariant (ii), while $x = 0$ no tests in u are made, and the only a's shifted into u come from v . These are separated from the previous contents of u by the 'x' of the previous information string.

Nearly all comparisons can be associated with text positions in the following way. Any query made at an a-position is associated with the corresponding text position. When

$x = 0$ and the \mathbf{b} -position is queried, a \mathbf{b} result is associated with that text position. If the result is \mathbf{B} then care is needed since, if $\ell < k$, this result will be represented as a 0 in u . However, in this case a shift of size $\ell + 1$ will be made and, by Invariant (ii), at least one 0 will be shifted out from the information string. The query is associated with the text character corresponding to any one such 0. The remaining case is when $x = \mathbf{A}$ and the \mathbf{b} -position is queried. Such a query is not associated with any text position. We note that after such a query a shift of $1 + \max\{k, \ell\}$ is always made, and that the resulting information string will have $x = 0$. Since a window shift is made in any step which changes $x = 0$ to $x = \mathbf{A}$, clearly an accumulative shift of at least $2 + \max\{k, \ell\}$ positions must occur between any two such ‘extra’ queries. The upper bound follows. \square

As a corollary we get that Theorem 5.1 is also tight for all members of the $\mathbf{a}^k\mathbf{b}\mathbf{a}^\ell$ family to which it can be applied.

Corollary 7.2 *For $k, \ell \geq 2$ we have $c(\mathbf{a}^k\mathbf{b}\mathbf{a}^\ell) = c_0^*(\mathbf{a}^k\mathbf{b}\mathbf{a}^\ell) = 1 + \frac{1}{\max\{k, \ell\} + 2}$.*

8 Look-ahead is useful

In this section we present a string matching algorithm, specifically tailored for the string \mathbf{abaa} . The algorithm uses a window of size eight and its performance matches the general lower bound obtained for \mathbf{abaa} using Theorem 4.1. Thus, $\frac{8}{7} = c(\mathbf{abaa}) = c_4(\mathbf{abaa}) < c_0(\mathbf{abaa}) = \frac{5}{4}$ and \mathbf{abaa} is therefore a string for which look-ahead is useful.

The \mathbf{abaa} algorithm presented here sheds some light on the intricacy of optimal string matching algorithms. The description of it is quite complicated. Optimal algorithms for longer strings may have even more complicated descriptions.

Algorithm for the string \mathbf{abaa}

The algorithm requires a window of size 8. A state of the algorithm is given as an information string $\sigma \in \cup_{k=1}^8 \{0, \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{A}, \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{B}\}^k$, where σ represents information known about the text symbols in (a prefix of) the window. To describe the algorithm, we specify for each state the next query to be made, the amount of shift and the next state corresponding to the two possible answers. We represent $\mathbf{a}?$ queries and $\mathbf{b}?$ queries by a single or double underline, respectively, under the appropriate symbol of the information string. For example, in state P in Table 1, an $\mathbf{a}?$ query is made at the fourth position in the window.

For certain information strings, the task of finding all pattern occurrences decomposes into two logically disjoint tasks, checking occurrences in some finite prefix and checking in the remainder. Such a state is represented in the tables by a pair of states with the connective \oplus . For example, in state R of Table 1, if the seventh symbol is found not to be an \mathbf{a} then it is sufficient to check separately for occurrences within the first five positions (state F) and in the text string beginning at the sixth position (state Q).

Table 2 shows, for each finite subproblem which arises in this way, the next query to be made and the number of queries required in the worst case to resolve that subproblem. The latter is computed recursively by following the transitions in Table 2. A ‘ \surd ’ in Table 2 indicates that a full occurrence of the pattern has been found and the treatment of the current subproblem is finished. A ‘—’ indicates that the treatment of the current subproblem has ended without finding such an occurrence.

state	inf. & query	transitions			
		match		mismatch	
		state	shift	state	shift
P	$a00\underline{0}$	R	0	Q	2
Q	$\underline{0}A$	T	0	U	2
R	$a00a00\underline{0}$	S	0	$Q \oplus F$	5
S	$a00a00a\underline{0}$	$P \oplus H$	7	$T \oplus G$	6
T	$aA0\underline{0}$	$P \oplus D$	3	Q	2
U	$\underline{0}$	P	0	U	1

Table 1: The main transition table of the abaa algorithm.

state	inf. & query	new state		worst-case cost
		match	mismatch	
A	$a\underline{0}aa$	\checkmark	—	1
B	$ab\underline{0}a$	\checkmark	—	1
C	$a0a\underline{0}$	A	—	2
D	$a0\underline{0}a$	A	—	2
E	$a\underline{0}0aa$	A	D	3
F	$a\underline{0}0a0$	C	D	3
G	$a00a\underline{0}0a$	$D \oplus B$	F	4
H	$a00a\underline{0}0aa$	$E \oplus A$	$D \oplus D$	5

Table 2: The secondary transition table of the abaa algorithm.

In Table 1, the main part of the algorithm is presented. The graph showing the transitions between states of Table 1 is given in Figure 5. The corresponding number of comparisons to make the transition and finish any consequent subproblem and the resulting shift is shown on each arrow. It can be verified that the worst case corresponds to iterating the cycle PRS , and this proves that $c_4(\mathbf{abaa}) \leq \frac{8}{7}$.

9 Concluding remarks

What is the hardest string to find? The, perhaps disappointing, answer is \mathbf{aba} (or \mathbf{mum} and \mathbf{dad} and so on). We know that $c_0^*(\mathbf{aba}) = \frac{4}{3}$ and that $c_0^*(w) \leq \frac{4}{3}$ for any string w ([GG92]). We believe that $c_0^*(w) < \frac{4}{3}$ whenever $|w| \geq 4$ but this is not established yet (except for $|w| \geq 8$ [CH92]). This would imply that \mathbf{aba} , and its like, are strictly the hardest strings to find. It is interesting to note that while we have shown here that $c^*(\mathbf{aba}) = c_0^*(\mathbf{aba}) = c_0(\mathbf{aba}) = \frac{4}{3}$, the exact value of $c(\mathbf{aba})$ is not known yet. We only know that $\frac{6}{5} \leq c(\mathbf{aba}) \leq \frac{4}{3}$.

The task of computing the exact value of $c_0^*(w)$ or any of the other three variants, for every given pattern w , seems at present to be a very hard task. The constants $c_0^*(w), c_0(w)$ can in principle be computed algorithmically as there is only a finite, though huge, number of different on-line algorithms for every specific w . The task of finding $c(w)$ and $c^*(w)$ may be even harder. We do not know at present whether $c(w)$ and $c^*(w)$ are always rational, although it would be very odd if they were not.

A small gap still remains between our lower bounds and the upper bounds of Cole and Hariharan [CH92]. While closing this gap will have no practical value, we think that it may reveal many interesting properties of strings and string matching algorithms.

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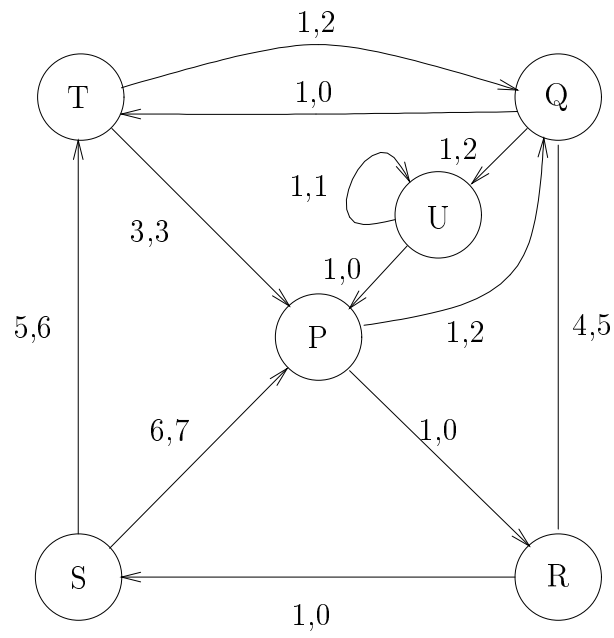


Figure 5: The transition diagram of the abaa algorithm.