On the d-complexity of strings Zoltán Kása

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Abstract. This paper deals with the complexity of strings, which play an important role in biology (nucleotid sequences), information theory and computer science [1,2,4]. The d-complexity of a string is defined as the number of its distinct d-substrings given in Definition 1. The case d=1 is studied in detail.

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1. Introduction

Let X be an alphabet, and X^k the set of all strings of length k over X. The i consecutive appearance of a letter a in a string will be denoted by a^i . If i=0 then this means the absence of the corresponding letter. The definitions are from [2].

DEFINITION 1. Let d, k and s be positive integers, $\mathbf{p} = x_1 x_2 \cdots x_k \in X^k$. A d-substring of \mathbf{p} is defined as $\mathbf{q} = x_{i_1} x_{i_2} \cdots x_{i_s}$ where

$$i_1 \ge 1,$$

 $1 \le i_{j+1} - i_j \le d,$ for $j = 1, 2, \dots, s - 1,$
 $i_s \le k.$

DEFINITION 2. The d-complexity $\mathbf{K}_d(\mathbf{p})$ of the string \mathbf{p} is the number of all distinct d-substrings of \mathbf{p} .

Example. Let X be the English alphabet and $\mathbf{p} = \text{ISIS}$. In this string there are two 2-substrings of length 1 (I, S), four 2-substrings of length 2 (IS, II, SI, SS), four 2-substrings of length 3 (ISI, ISS, IIS, SIS), and a single one of length 4 (ISIS). Then $\mathbf{K}_2(\mathbf{p}) = 2 + 4 + 4 + 1 = 11$.

In the case of strings of length k, consisting of different symbols, the d-complexity will be denoted by N(k,d). For any $k \geq 1$ and $\mathbf{p} \in X^k$ we

have $k \leq \mathbf{K}_1(\mathbf{p}) \leq \frac{k(k+1)}{2}$. If $|X| \geq 2$, $k \geq 1$, $d \geq 1$ and $\mathbf{p} \in X^k$ then $k \leq \mathbf{K}_d(\mathbf{p}) \leq 2^k - 1$. If \mathbf{p} is a string, consisting of different symbols, and d a positive integer, then $a_{i,d}(\mathbf{p})$ will denote the number of d-substrings of \mathbf{p} which terminate in the position i. If $k \geq 1$ and $\mathbf{p} \in X^k$ consists of different symbols, then for $i = 1, 2, \ldots, k$

$$a_{i,d}(\mathbf{p}) = 1 + a_{i-1,d}(\mathbf{p}) + a_{i-2,d}(\mathbf{p}) + \dots + a_{i-d,d}(\mathbf{p}),$$
 (*)

2. Computing the value of N(k,d)

The d-complexity of a string with different symbols can be obtained by the formula

$$N(k,d) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} a_{i,d}(\mathbf{p})$$

where **p** is any string of k different symbols. Because of (*) we can write in the case of $d \ge 2$

$$a_{i,d} + \frac{1}{d-1} = \left(a_{i-1,d} + \frac{1}{d-1}\right) + \dots + \left(a_{i-d,d} + \frac{1}{d-1}\right).$$

Let be

$$b_{i,d} = a_{i,d} + \frac{1}{d-1}$$
, and $c_{i,d} = (d-1)b_{i,d}$

then

$$c_{i,d} = c_{i-1,d} + c_{i-2,d} + \ldots + c_{i-d,d}$$

and the sequence $c_{i,d}$ is one of Fibonacci-type. For any d we have $a_{1,d} = 1$ and from this $c_{1,d} = d$ results. Therefore the numbers $c_{i,d}$ are defined by the following recurrence equations:

$$c_{n,d} = c_{n-1,d} + c_{n-2,d} + \ldots + c_{n-d,d}$$
 for $n > 0$,
 $c_{n,d} = 1$ for $n \le 0$.

These numbers can be generated by the following generating function:

$$F_d(z) = \sum_{n\geq 0} c_{n,d} z^n = \frac{1 + (d-2)z - z^2 - \dots - z^d}{1 - 2z + z^{d+1}}$$
$$= \frac{1 + (d-3)z - (d-1)z^2 + z^{d+1}}{(1-z)(1 - 2z + z^{d+1})}$$

The d-complexity N(k,d) can be expressed with these numbers $c_{n,d}$ by the following formula:

$$N(k,d) = \frac{1}{d-1} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{k} c_{i,d} - k \right), \quad \text{for } d > 1$$

and

$$N(k,1) = \frac{k(k+1)}{2}$$

or

$$N(k,d) = N(k-1,d) + \frac{1}{d-1}(c_{k,d}-1),$$
 for $d > 1, k > 1.$

If d=2 then

$$F_2(z) = \frac{1-z^2}{1-2z+z^3} = \frac{1+z}{1-z-z^2} = \frac{F(z)}{z} + F(z)$$

where F(z) is the generating function of the Fibonacci numbers F_n (with $F_0=0,\ F_1=1$). Then, from this formula we have

$$c_{n,2} = F_{n+1} + F_n = F_{n+2}$$

and

$$N(k,2) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} F_{i+2} - k = F_{k+4} - k - 3$$

Taking into account the formula for F_n we have

$$N(k,2) = \left| \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2} \right)^{k+4} + \frac{1}{2} \right| - k - 3$$

which can be approximated by

$$|3.0652475 \cdot (1.6180339)^k + 0.5| - k - 3.$$

Table 1 lists the values of N(k, d) for $k \leq 10$ and $d \leq 10$.

$k \setminus d$	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
3	6	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7
4	10	14	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15
5	15	26	30	31	31	31	31	31	31	31
6	21	46	58	62	63	63	63	63	63	63
7	28	79	110	122	126	127	127	127	127	127
8	36	133	206	238	250	254	255	255	255	255
9	45	221	383	464	494	506	510	511	511	511
10	55	364	709	894	974	1006	1018	1022	1023	1023

Table 1

From the definition of the d-substrings follows that

$$N(k,d) = N(k,d+1),$$
 for $d \ge k-1$

but

$$N(k, k-1) = 2^k - 1$$

and then

$$N(k, d) = 2^k - 1,$$
 for any $d \ge k - 1.$

The following proposition gives the value of N(k, d) in almost all cases:

Proposition 1. [3]. For $k \geq 2d - 2$ we have

$$N(k, k - d) = 2^{k} - (d - 2) \cdot 2^{d - 1} - 2.$$

The main step in the proof is based on the formula

$$N(k, k - d - 1) = N(k, k - d) - d \cdot 2^{d-1}.$$

The value of N(k, d) can be also obtained by computing the number of sequences of length k of 0's and 1's, with no more than d-1 adjacent zeros. In such a sequence one 1 represents the presence, one 0 does the absence of a letter of the string in a given d-substring. Let $b_{k,d}$ denote the number of k-length sequences of zeros and ones, in which the first and last position is

1, and the number of adjacent zeros is at most d-1. Then easily can be proved that

$$b_{k,d} = b_{k-1,d} + b_{k-2,d} + \dots + b_{k-d,d}$$
, for $k > 1$,
 $b_{1,d} = 1$,
 $b_{k,d} = 0$, for all $k \le 0$,

because any such sequence of length k-i (i=1,2,...,d) can be continued in order to obtain a similar sequence of length k in only one way (by adding a sequence of the form $0^{i-1}1$ on the right). For $b_{k,d}$ the following formula also can be derived:

$$b_{k,d} = 2b_{k-1,d} - b_{k-1-d,d}$$

If we add one 1 or 0 in a internal position (e.g in the $(k-2)^{th}$) of each $b_{k-1,d}$ sequences, then we obtain $2b_{k-1,d}$ sequences of length k, but between these $b_{k-1-d,d}$ sequences will have d adjacent zeros.

The generating function corresponding to $b_{n,d}$ is

$$B_d(z) = \sum_{n>0} b_{n,d} z^n = \frac{z}{1 - z \cdots - z^d} = \frac{z(1-z)}{1 - 2z + z^{d+1}}.$$

Adding zeros on the left and/or on the right to these sequences, we can obtain the number N(k, d), as the number of all these sequences. Thus

$$N(k,d) = b_{k,d} + 2b_{k-1,d} + 3b_{k-2,d} + \cdots + kb_{1,d}$$

(*i* zeros can be added in i + 1 ways to these sequences: 0 on the left and i on the right, 1 on the left and i - 1 on the right, and so on).

From the above formula, the generating function corresponding to the complexities N(k,d) can be obtained as a product of the two generating functions $B_d(z)$ and $A(z) = \sum_{n\geq 0} nz^n = 1/(1-z)^2$, thus:

$$N_d(z) = \sum_{n>0} N(n,d)z^n = \frac{z}{(1-z)(1-2z+z^{d+1})}.$$

3. The 1-complexity

We shall use the term *complexity* instead of the 1-complexity and the notation $\mathbf{K}(\mathbf{p})$ instead of $\mathbf{K}_1(\mathbf{p})$. A k-length string \mathbf{p} over an n-letter alphabet has maximal complexity if

$$\mathbf{K}(\mathbf{p}) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \min(n^i, k - i + 1).$$

In the following we give some results which can be proved immediately (in all cases $\mathbf{p} \in X^k$):

- a) $k \le \mathbf{K}(\mathbf{p}) \le \frac{k(k+1)}{2}$.
- b) For a trivial string $\mathbf{p} = a^k$, $\mathbf{K}(\mathbf{p}) = k$.
- c) If $x_k \neq x_i$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, k 1$, then

$$\mathbf{K}(x_1x_2\cdots x_k) = k + \mathbf{K}(x_1x_2\cdots x_{k-1})$$

d) If **p** is not a trivial string, then $2k-1 \le \mathbf{K}(\mathbf{p}) \le \frac{k(k+1)}{2}$.

e) If $\mathbf{p} = a^{i-1}ba^{k-i}$ for a fixed i $(1 \le i \le \lfloor k/2 \rfloor)$ then

$$\mathbf{K}(\mathbf{p}) = (i+1)k - i^2.$$

f) If **p** has at least ℓ different letters then $\mathbf{K}(\mathbf{p}) \geq k\ell - \frac{\ell(\ell-1)}{2}$.

(For the string $a_1a_2\cdots a_{l-1}b^{k-l}$ with $a_i\neq a_j$ for $i\neq j$, and $a_i\neq b$ we have equality in the above formula).

g) If $\mathbf{p} \in X^k$, $\mathbf{q} \in Y^m$ and $X \cap Y = \emptyset$ then

$$\mathbf{K}(\mathbf{p}\mathbf{q}) = \mathbf{K}(\mathbf{p}) + \mathbf{K}(\mathbf{q}) + km.$$

h) If **p** has only different letters then

$$\mathbf{K}(\mathbf{p}) = \frac{k(k+1)}{2},$$

 $\mathbf{K}(\mathbf{p}\mathbf{p}^R) = 2k^2$, where \mathbf{p}^R is the reverse string of \mathbf{p} ,

 $\mathbf{K}(\mathbf{p}^n) = \frac{k(k+1)}{2} + (n-1)k^2$, where \mathbf{p}^n is \mathbf{p} concatenated n times.

i) $\mathbf{K}(x_1x_2\cdots x_kx_1x_2\cdots x_n) = \frac{k(k+1)}{2} + nk$ for $1 \le n \le k$, $x_i \ne x_j$ for $i \ne j$.

There arise the following two problems:

1. Find a minimal length string with a given complexity.

This problem always has solution. (If the complexity is C, then in the worst case the string consisting of C identical letters represents a trivial solution).

2. Find a k-length string with a given complexity, if it exists.

These problems can be solved by a branch-and-bound-type algorithm. We shall construct a tree in which each node is a string. The root is a letter of the alphabet. Each node (i.e. each string) is obtained from its parent node by adding a new letter of the alphabet. The contruction will be continued at a node if its complexity is less than the given complexity, or in the case of the second problem only if its length is also less than k. This algorithm can be improved by omitting some branches, which do not produce essentially new strings, e.g. if we have a four letter alphabet, then the strings abd and abc are isomorphic (differ only some letters, but not the form). This can be given by the following recursive algorithm. Let a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n be the letters of the alphabet, k the length and k0 the desired complexity. The symbol "+" will denote the concatenation of a string with a letter, |k|1 the length of string k2. The algorithm starts with k3 generate ("k4").

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generate (w): if complexity (w) < C and |w| < k then for i := 1, 2, \dots, k do generate( w + "a_i"). else if complexity (w) = C and |w| = k then write (w).
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Of course, if C < k or C > k(k+1)/2 or doesn't exist a string with the desired complexity and length, then this algorithm produces nothing. To solve the first problem, we omit the restriction on length in the above algorithm.

If there is always a string with a given complexity, the question is: there exists a nontrivial string with a given complexity or not? (A nontrivial string contains at least two different letters). The answer is yes, except some cases.

PROPOSITION 2. If C is a natural number different from 1, 2 and 4, then there exists a nontrivial string of complexity equal to C.

PROOF. To prove this proposition we give the complexity of the following *k*-length strings:

$$\mathbf{K}(a^{k-1}b) = 2k - 1$$
 for $k \ge 1$
 $\mathbf{K}(ab^{k-3}aa) = 4k - 8$ for $k \ge 4$
 $\mathbf{K}(abcd^{k-3}) = 4k - 6$ for $k > 3$

These can be proved immediately from the definition of the complexity.

- 1. If C is odd then we can write C = 2k 1 for a given k. From this k = (C + 1)/2 results, and the string $a^{k-1}b$, has complexity C.
 - 2. If C is even, then $C = 2\ell$.
- 2.1. If $\ell=2h$, then 4k-8=C gives 4k-8=4h, and from this k=h+2 results. The string $ab^{k-3}aa$ has complexity C.
- 2.2. If $\ell=2h+1$ then 4k-6=C gives 4k-6=4h+2, and from this k=h+2 results. The string $abcd^{k-3}$ has complexity C.

In the proof we have used more than two letters in a string only in the case of the numbers of the form 4h + 2 (case 2.2 above). The new question is, if there exist always nontrivial strings formed only of two letters with a given complexity. The answer is yes anew. We must prove this only for the numbers of the form 4h + 2. If C = 4h + 2 and C > 34, we use the followings:

$$\mathbf{K}(ab^{k-7}abbabb) = 8k - 46, \qquad \text{for } k \ge 10,$$

$$\mathbf{K}(ab^{k-7}ababba) = 8k - 42, \qquad \text{for } k > 10.$$

If h = 2s, then 8k-46 = 4h+2 gives k = s+6, and the string $ab^{k-7}abbabb$ has complexity 4h + 2.

If h = 2s + 1, then 8k - 42 = 4h + 2 gives k = s + 6, and the string $ab^{k-7}ababba$ has complexity 4h + 2. For C < 34 only 14, 26 and 30 are feasible. The string ab^4a has complexity 14, ab^6a complexity 26, and ab^5aba complexity 30. Easily can be proved, using a tree like in the above algorithm, that for 6, 10, 18 and 22 such strings does not exist. Then the following is true.

PROPOSITION 3. If C is a natural number different from 1, 2, 4, 6, 10, 18 and 22, then there exists a nontrivial string formed only of two letters, with the given complexity C.

In relation with the second problem a new one arises: How many strings of length k and complexity C there exist? For small k this problem can be studied exhaustively. Let X be of k letters, and let us consider all strings of length k over X. By a computer program we have got Table 2, which contains the frequency of strings with a given length and complexity.

													_
length = 2			length = 3										
complexity	2	3		complexity				4	5	6			
frequency	2	2		frequen			3	0	18	6			
length=4													
complexity	4	5	6	7	8	9	9 10)					
frequency	4	0	0	36	48	14^{4}	4 24	Ŀ					
length = 5													
complexity	5	6	7	8	9	10	11		12	13	3 14	15	
frequency	5	0	0	0	60	0	200	4	00	1140	1200	120	
length = 6													
complexity		6	7		8	9	1	0		11	12	13	
frequency		6	0		0	0		0		90	0	0	
	1	4	15		16	17	1	8		19	20	21	
	30	0	990	2	70	5400	828	0	198	00	10800	720	

Table 2.

Let |X| = k and let $f_k(C)$ denote the frequency of the k-length strings over X having a complexity C. Then the following proposition is true.

Proposition 4.

$$f_k(C) = 0$$
 if $C < k$ or $C > \frac{k(k+1)}{2}$,
 $f_k(k) = k$,
 $f_k(2k-1) = 3k(k-1)$,
 $f_k\left(\frac{k(k+1)}{2} - 1\right) = \frac{k(k-1)k!}{2}$,
 $f_k\left(\frac{k(k+1)}{2}\right) = k!$

PROOF. The first two and the last ones are evident. Let us prove the third. If the complexity of a k-length string is 2k-1, then it must contain exactly two substrings of length $1, 2, \dots, k-1$, and only one of the length k, and must be formed of two letters. (If it contains 3 letters than the complexity is $\geq 3k-3$, see the property f). In this case the 2-lentgh substrings

can be only aa, ab or aa, ba or ab, ba, and with these only strings of the form $a^{k-1}b$, ba^{k-1} and $(ab)^{k/2}$ (if k is even) or $(ab)^{(k-1)/2}a$ (if k is odd) can be generated. In every case the two letters can be chosen in k(k-1) ways, and because of the three above possibility $f_k(2k-1) = 3k(k-1)$.

The last but one comes from the following: k letters can form k! different k-length strings of maximal complexity, and the complexity of such a string can be diminished by one if we replace a letter by another already being present in that string. We can choose a position for one already given in k(k-1) ways, and because of the symmetry of the letters in these positions, the number of new strings is k!k(k-1)/2.

As regards the distribution of the frequaency 0, we can prove the following.

Proposition 5.

If
$$C = k + 1, k + 2, \dots, 2k - 2$$
, then $f_k(C) = 0$.
If $C = 2k, 2k + 1, \dots, 3k - 5$, then $f_k(C) = 0$.

PROOF. The complexity of the trivial k-length string is k, and this contains only one letter k times. If in such a string we replace one or more letters by a new one, the number of substrings of any length, except the whole string, will increase by at least one. Then the complexity will be at least 2k-1, and there are no strings with complexity between k and 2k-1. To prove the second formula, we use the following, easy to see assertion: if a k-length string has n i-length substrings, then it has at least $\min(n,k-1)$ (i+1)-length substrings.

By replacing a letter with a new one in the strings of complexity 2k-1, we obtain at least complexity 3k-3. If we replace one a (or more) with one b (or more), or inversely, but not to obtain a trivial string, and keeping the length, the number of 2-length substrings will increase by 3, and by the above assertion will increase the number of $3-, 4-, \cdots, (k-2)$ —length substrings. Then the complexity will be at least 2+3(k-3)+2+1 which is 3k-4.

Strings of length k may have complexity between k and k(k+1)/2. Let us denote by b_k the least number for which

$$f_k(C) \neq 0$$
 for all C with $b_k \leq C \leq \frac{k(k+1)}{2}$.

The number b_k exists for any k (in the worst case it may be equal to k(k+1)/2). In the Table 2 we can see that $b_3 = 5$, $b_4 = 7$, $b_5 = 11$ and $b_6 = 14$.

We give the following conjecture:

Conjecture. If
$$k = \frac{\ell(\ell+1)}{2} + 2 + i$$
, where $\ell \ge 2$ and $0 \le i \le \ell$ then
$$b_k = \frac{\ell(\ell^2 - 1)}{2} + 3\ell + 2 + i(\ell+1). \quad \blacksquare$$

We can easily see that $f_k(b_k) \neq 0$ for $k \geq 5$, because of $\mathbf{K}(ab^{k-\ell}ab^{\ell-2}) = b_k$.

4. Conclusions

We have studied the d-complexity of strings, which is defined as the number of all distinct d-substrings of it. The concept of the d-substring is a generalization of that of the substring: not only a contiguous part of a string can be chosen as substring, but parts which have distance between them no greater than d. The d-complexity of strings with different letters only, can be computed by a Fibonacci-type sequence. Proposition 1 gives a formula for this complexity in almost all cases.

The 1-complexity is studied in detail. In propositions 2 and 3 we prove that, except some cases, a string with a given complexity can be associated to any natural number. The frequency of strings with a given complexity is also considered. It is conjectured that if we consider strings of length k, there exists a value between k and k(k+1)/2 from which 0 frequency no more exists.

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