TheoretiCS

Strongly Sublinear Algorithms for Testing Pattern Freeness

Received Oct 10, 2022
Revised Oct 26, 2023
Accepted Nov 20, 2023
Published Jan 12, 2024

Key words and phrases
Property testing, Pattern freeness, Sublinear algorithms

Ilan Newman [a] ✉
Nithin Varma [b] ✉

a Department of Computer Science, University of Haifa, Israel

b Max Planck Institute for Informatics, SIC, Saarbrücken, Germany

ABSTRACT. For a permutation $\pi : [k] \to [k]$, a function $f : [n] \to \mathbb{R}$ contains a π-appearance if there exists $1 \leq i_1 < i_2 < \cdots < i_k \leq n$ such that for all $s, t \in [k]$, $f(i_s) < f(i_t)$ if and only if $\pi(s) < \pi(t)$. The function is π-free if it has no π-appearances. In this paper, we investigate the problem of testing whether an input function f is π-free or whether f differs on at least εn values from every π-free function. This is a generalization of the well-studied monotonicity testing and was first studied by Newman, Rabinovich, Rajendraprasad and Sohler [28]. We show that for all constants $k \in \mathbb{N}$, $\varepsilon \in (0, 1)$, and permutation $\pi : [k] \to [k]$, there is a one-sided error ε-testing algorithm for π-freeness of functions $f : [n] \to \mathbb{R}$ that makes $\tilde{O}(n^{o(1)})$ queries. We improve significantly upon the previous best upper bound $O(n^{1-1/(k-1)})$ by Ben-Eliezer and Canonne [7]. Our algorithm is adaptive, while the earlier best upper bound is known to be tight for nonadaptive algorithms.

1. Introduction

Given a permutation $\pi : [k] \to [k]$, a function $f : [n] \to \mathbb{R}$ contains a π-appearance if there exists $1 \leq i_1 < i_2 < \cdots < i_k \leq n$ such that for all $s, t \in [k]$ it holds that $f(i_s) < f(i_t)$ if and only if $\pi(s) < \pi(t)$. In other words, the function values restricted to the indices $\{i_1, \ldots, i_k\}$ respect the ordering in π. The function is π-free if it has no π-appearance. For instance, the set of all real-valued monotone non-decreasing functions over $[n]$ is $(2, 1)$-free. The notion of π-freeness is well-studied in combinatorics, where the famous Stanley-Wilf conjecture about the bound on the number of π-free permutations $f : [n] \to [n]$ has spawned a lot of work [13, 14, 5, 25, 3], ultimately culminating in a proof by Marcus and Tardos [26]. The problem of designing

Invited paper from ICALP 2022. The first author was supported by the Israel Science Foundation, grant number 379/21. Most of this work was done while the second author was an Assistant Professor at the Chennai Mathematical Institute, India.

algorithms to determine whether a given permutation $f : [n] \to [n]$ is π-free is an active area of research [2, 1, 10], with linear time algorithms for constant k [23, 20]. Apart from the theoretical interest, practical motivations to study π-freeness include the study of motifs and patterns in time series analysis [11, 31, 24].

In this paper, we study property testing of π-freeness, as proposed by Newman, Rabinovich, Rajendraprasad and Sohler [28]. Specifically, given $\varepsilon \in (0,1)$, an ε-testing algorithm for π-freeness accepts an input function f that is π-free, and rejects if f differs from every π-free function on at least εn values.[1] The algorithm is given oracle access to the function f and the goal is to minimize the number of queries made by the algorithm. This problem is a generalization of the well-studied monotonicity testing on the line ($(2,1)$-freeness), which was one of the first works in combinatorial property testing, and is still being studied actively [17, 18, 12, 15, 6, 16, 30].

Newman, Rabinovich, Rajendraprasad and Sohler [28] showed that for a general permutation π of length k, the property of π-freeness can be ε-tested using a nonadaptive[2] algorithm of query complexity $O_{k,\varepsilon}(n^{1-1/k})$.[3] Additionally, they showed that, for nonadaptive algorithms, one cannot obtain a significant improvement on this upper bound for $k \geq 4$. In a subsequent work, Ben-Eliezer and Canonne [7] improved this upper bound to $O_{k,\varepsilon}(n^{1-1/(k-1)})$, which they showed to be tight for nonadaptive algorithms. For monotone permutations π of length k, namely, either $(1,2,\ldots,k)$ or $(k,k-1,\ldots,1)$, Newman et al. [28] presented an algorithm with query complexity $(\varepsilon^{-1}\log n)^{O(k^2)}$ to ε-test π-freeness. The complexity was improved, in a sequence of works [8, 9], to $O_{k,\varepsilon}(\log n)$, which is optimal for constant ε even for the special case of testing $(2,1)$-freeness [19].

Despite the aforementioned advances in testing freeness of monotone permutations, improving the complexity of testing freeness of arbitrary permutations has remained open all this while. For arbitrary permutations of length at most 3, Newman et al. [28] gave an adaptive algorithm for testing freeness with query complexity $(\varepsilon^{-1}\log n)^{O(1)}$. However, the case of general $k > 3$ has remained elusive. In particular, the techniques of [28] for $k = 3$ do not seem to generalize even for $k = 4$.

As remarked above, optimal *nonadaptive* algorithms are known for any k [7], but, their complexity tends to be linear in the input length as k grows. For the special case of $(2,1)$-freeness, it is well-known that adaptivity does not help at all in improving the complexity of testing [18, 19]. Adaptivity is known to help somewhat for the case of testing freeness of monotone permutations of length k, where, every nonadaptive algorithm has query complexity $\Omega((\log n)^{\log k})$ [8], and the

---

1 Algorithms in this area are typically randomized, and the decisions to accept or reject are with high constant probability. See [32, 22] for definitions of property testing.

2 An algorithm whose queries do not depend on the answers to previous queries is a nonadaptive algorithm. It is adaptive otherwise.

3 Throughout this work, we are interested in the parameter regime of constant $\varepsilon \in (0,1)$ and k. The notation $O_{k,\varepsilon}(\cdot)$ hides a factor that is an arbitrary function of these parameters.

$O_{k,\varepsilon}(\log n)$-query algorithm of Ben-Eliezer, Letzter, and Waingarten [9] is adaptive. Adaptivity significantly helps in testing freeness of arbitrary permutations of length 3 as shown by [28] and [7].

1.1 Our results

In this work, we give adaptive ε-testing algorithms for π-freeness of permutations π of arbitrary constant length k with complexity $\tilde{O}_{k,\varepsilon}(n^{o(1)})$. Hence, testing π-freeness has quite efficient sublinear algorithms even for relatively large patterns. Our result shows a strong separation between adaptive and nonadaptive algorithms for testing pattern freeness.

THEOREM 1.1. *Let $\varepsilon \in (0,1)$, $k \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\pi : [k] \to [k]$ be a permutation. There exists an ε-tester for π-freeness of functions $f : [n] \to \mathbb{R}$ with query complexity $\tilde{O}\left(\left(\frac{k}{\varepsilon}\right)^{\Theta(\log\log n)} n^{k/\log\log\log n}\right)$.*

1.2 Discussion of our techniques

Our algorithm has one-sided error and rejects only if it finds a π-appearance in the input function $f : [n] \to \mathbb{R}$. In the following, we present some of the main ideas behind a $\tilde{O}(\sqrt{n})$-query algorithm for detecting a π-appearance in a function f that is ε-far from π-free, for a permutation π of length 4. The case of length-4 permutations is not very different from the general case (where, we additionally recurse on problems of smaller length patterns). The $\tilde{O}(\sqrt{n})$ queries algorithm is much simpler than the general one, but it outlines many of the ideas involved in the latter. Additionally, it already beats the lower bound of $\Omega(n^{2/3})$ on the complexity of nonadaptive algorithms for π-freeness testing patterns of length 4 [7]. A more detailed description appears in Section 3. The formal description of the general algorithm is given in Section 5.

For a parameter $\varepsilon \in (0,1)$, a function f is ε-far from π-free if at least εn values of f need to be changed in order to make it π-free. In other words, the Hamming distance of f to the closest real-valued π-free function over $[n]$ is at least εn. A folklore fact is that the Hamming distance and the deletion distance of f to π-freeness are equal, where the deletion distance of f to π-freeness is the cardinality of the smallest set $S \subseteq [n]$ such that f restricted to $[n] \setminus S$ is π-free. By virtue of this equality, a function that is ε-far from π-free has a matching of π-appearances of cardinality at least $\varepsilon n/4$, where a matching of π-appearances is a collection of π-appearances such that no two of them share an index. This observation facilitates our algorithm and all previous algorithms on testing π-freeness, including monotonicity testers.

The basic ingredient in our algorithms is the use of a natural representation of $f : [n] \to \mathbb{R}$ by a Boolean function over a grid $[n] \times R(f)$, where $R(f)$ denotes the range of f. Specifically, we visualize the function as a grid of n points in $\mathbb{R}^2$, such that for each $i \in [n]$, the pair $(i, f(i))$ is a point of the grid. We use G_n to denote this grid of points. This view has been useful in the

design of approximation algorithms for the related and fundamental problem of estimating the length of Longest Increasing Subsequence (LIS) in a real-valued array [34, 33, 27, 29]. Adopting this view, for any permutation $\pi : [k] \to [k]$, a π-appearance at $(i_1, \ldots, i_k)$ in f corresponds naturally to a k-tuple of points $(i_j, f(i_j)),\ j = 1 \ldots k$ in G_n, for which their relative order (in G_n) forms a π-appearance. The converse is also true: every π-appearance in the Boolean grid G_n corresponds to a π-appearance in f.

We note that the grid G_n is neither known to, nor directly accessible by, the algorithm. In particular, $R(f)$ is not assumed to be known. A main first step in our algorithm is to approximate the grid G_n by a coarser $m \times m$ grid $G_{m,m}$ of boxes, for a parameter $m = o(n)$ that will determine the query complexity. The grid $G_{m,m}$ is defined as follows. Suppose that we have a partition of $R(f)$ into m disjoint contiguous intervals of increasing values, referred to here as 'layers', $I_1, \ldots, I_m$, and let $S_1, \ldots, S_m$ be a partition of $[n]$ into m contiguous intervals of equal size, referred to as 'stripes'. These two partitions decompose G_n and the f-points in it into m^2 boxes and forms the grid $G_{m,m}$. The (i, j)-th cell of this grid is the Cartesian product $S_i \times I_j$, and is denoted $\mathrm{box}(S_i, I_j)$. We view the nonempty boxes in $G_{m,m}$ as a coarse approximation of G_n (and of the input function, equivalently). The grid $G_{m,m}$ has a natural order on its boxes (viewed as points in $[m] \times [m]$).

While $G_{m,m}$ is also not directly accessible to the algorithm, it can be well-approximated very efficiently. We can do this by sampling $\tilde{O}(m)$ indices from $[n]$ independently and uniformly at random and making queries to those indices to identify and *mark* the boxes in $G_{m,m}$ that contain a non-negligible density of points of G_n. This provides a good enough approximation of the grid $G_{m,m}$. For the rest of this high-level explanation, assume that we have fixed $m << n$, and we know $G_{m,m}$; that is, we assume that we know the number of points of G_n belonging to each box in $G_{m,m}$, but not necessarily the points themselves.

If we find k nonempty boxes in $G_{m,m}$ that form a π-appearance when viewed as points in the $[m] \times [m]$ grid, then G_n (and hence f) contains a π-appearance for any set of k points that is formed by selecting one point from each of the corresponding boxes. See Figure 1(A) for such a situation, for $\pi = (3, 2, 1, 4)$. We first detect such π-appearances by our knowledge of $G_{m,m}$. However, the converse is not true: it could be that G_n contains many π-appearances, where the corresponding points, called 'legs', are in boxes that share layers or stripes, and hence do not form π-appearances in $G_{m,m}$. See e.g., Figure 1(B) for such an appearance for $\pi = (3, 2, 1, 4)$. Thus, if the function is far from being π-free and no π-appearances are detected in $G_{m,m}$, then there must be many π-appearances in which some legs share a layer or a stripe in $G_{m,m}$. In this case, the seminal result of Marcus and Tardos [26], implies that only $O(m)$ of the boxes in $G_{m,m}$ are nonempty. An averaging argument implies that if f is ε-far from being π-free, then after deleting layers or stripes in $G_{m,m}$ with $\omega(1)$-dense boxes, we are still left with a partial function (on the undeleted points) that is ε'-far from being π-free, for a large enough ε'.

For the following high-level description we consider $\pi = (3, 2, 1, 4)$, although all the following ideas work for any permutation of length 4. Any π-appearance has its four legs spread over at most 4 marked boxes. This implies that there are only constantly many non-isomorphic ways of arranging the marked boxes containing any particular π-appearance, in terms of the order relation among the marked boxes, and the way the legs of the π-appearance are included in them. These constantly many ways are called 'configurations' in the sequel. Thus any π-appearance is consistent with a certain configuration. Additionally, in the case that multiple points in a π-appearance share some marked boxes, this appearance induces the appearances of permutations of length smaller than 4 in each box (which are sub-permutations ν of π). If a constant fraction of the π-appearances are spread across multiple marked boxes, there will be many such ν-appearances in the marked boxes in the coarse grid. Hence, one phase of our algorithm will run tests for ν-appearances for smaller patterns ν (which can be done in polylog n queries using known testers for patterns of length at most 3) on each marked box, and combine these ν-appearances to detect a π-appearance, if any. This phase, while seemingly simple will require extra care, as combining sub-patterns appearances into a global π-appearance is not always possible. This is a major issue in the general case for $k > 4$.

The simpler case is when there is a constant fraction of π-appearances such that all 4 points of each such appearance belong to a single marked box. This can be solved by randomly sampling a few marked boxes and querying all the points in them to see if there are any π-appearances. The case that a constant fraction of the π-appearances have their legs belonging to the same layer or the same stripe is an easy extension of the 'one-box' case.

To obtain the desired query complexity, consider first setting $m = \tilde{O}(\sqrt{n})$. Getting a good enough estimate of $G_{m,m}$ as described above take $\tilde{O}(m) = \tilde{O}(\sqrt{n})$ queries. Then, testing each box for ν-freeness, for smaller permutations ν takes polylog n per test, but since this is done for all marked boxes, this step also takes $\tilde{O}(m) = \tilde{O}(\sqrt{n})$. Finally, in the last simpler case, we may just query all indices in a sampled box that contains at most $n/m = \Theta(\sqrt{n})$ indices, by our setting of m. This results in a $\tilde{O}(\sqrt{n})$-query tester for π-freeness.

To obtain a better complexity, we reduce the value of m, and, in the last step, we randomly sample a few marked boxes and run the algorithm recursively. This is so, since, in the last step, we are in the case that for a constant fraction of the π-appearances, all four legs of each π-appearance belong to a single marked box (or a constant number of marked boxes sharing a layer or stripe). The depth of recursion depends monotonically on n/m and the larger it is the smaller is the query complexity. The bound we describe in this article is $n^{O(1/\log\log\log n)}$ which is due to the exponential deterioration of the distance parameter ε in each recursive call. Our algorithm for permutations of length $k > 4$ uses, in addition to the self-recursion, a recursion on k too.

Finally, we call ν-freeness or π-freeness algorithms on marked boxes (or a collection of constantly many marked boxes sharing a layer or stripe) and not the entire grid. Since we do not

know which points belong to the marked boxes, but only know that their density is significant, we can access points in them only via sampling and treating points that fall outside the desired box as being *erased*. This necessitates the use of erasure-resilient testers [16]. Such testers are known for all permutation patterns of length at most 3 [16, 29, 28]. In addition, the basic tester we design is also erasure-resilient, which allows us to recursively call the tester on appropriate subsets of marked boxes.

Some additional challenges we had to overcome: In the recursive algorithm for k-length permutation freeness, $k \geq 4$, we need to find ν-appearances that are restricted to appear in specific configurations, for smaller length permutations ν. To exemplify this notion, consider testing $\nu = (1, 3, 2)$-freeness. In the unrestricted setting, $f : [n] \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ has a ν-appearance if the values at any three indices have a ν-consistent order. In a restricted setting, we may ask ourselves whether f is free of ν-appearances where the indices corresponding to the 1, 3-legs of a ν-appearance are of value at most $n/2$ (that is in the first half of $[n]$), while the index corresponding to the 2-leg is larger than $n/2$. This latter property seems at least as hard to test as the unrestricted one. In particular, for the ν-appearance as described above, it could be that while f is far from being ν-free in the usual sense, it is still free of having restricted ν-appearances. In our algorithm, we need to test (at lower recursion levels) freeness from such restricted appearances. This extra restriction is discussed at a high level in Section 3. For a formal definition of the restricted testing problem and how it fits into our final algorithm, see Section 5.

1.3 Open directions

Testing restricted π-freeness: Testing for restricted π-appearance, as described above, is at least as hard as testing π-freeness. For monotone patterns (and hence 2-patterns) testing freeness and testing restricted appearances are relatively easy (can be done in polylog n queries). For patterns of size 3 and more, the complexity of testing freeness of restricted appearances is currently open.

Weak π-freeness: In the definition of π-freeness, we required strict inequalities on function values to have an occurrence of the pattern. A natural variant is to allow weak inequalities, that is – for a set indices $1 \leq i_1 < i_2 \cdots < i_k \leq n$ a *weak-π*-appearance is when for all $s, t \in [k]$ it holds that $f(i_s) \leq f(i_t)$ if and only if $\pi(s) < \pi(t)$. Such a relaxed requirement would mean that having a collection of k or more equal values is already a π-appearance for any pattern π. For monotone patterns of length k, the deletion distance equals the Hamming distance, for any k, for this relaxed definition as well. We do not know if this is true for larger k for non-monotone patterns in general, although we suspect that the Hamming distance is never larger than the deletion distance by more than a constant factor. Proving this will be enough to make our results

true for testing freeness of any constant size forbidden permutation, even with the relaxed definition. We show that the Hamming distance is equal to the deletion distance for patterns of length at most 4. Hence, Theorem 1.1 also holds for weak-π-freeness for $k \leq 4$.

Another similarly related variant is when the forbidden order pattern is not necessarily a permutation (that is, an arbitrary function from $[k]$ to $[k]$ which is not one-to-one). For example, for the 4-pattern $\alpha = (1, 2, 3, 1)$, an α-appearance in f at indices $i_1 < i_2 < i_3 < i_4$ is when $f(i_1) < f(i_2) < f(i_3)$ and $f(i_4) = f(i_1)$, as dictated by the order in α. For testing freeness of such patterns, an $\Omega(\sqrt{n})$ adaptive lower bounds exist (by a simple probabilistic argument) even for the very simple case of $(1, 1)$-freeness, which corresponds to the property of being a one-to-one function.

An interesting point to mention, in this context, is that for testing freeness of forbidden permutations, a major tool that we use is the Marcus-Tardos bound [26]. Namely, that the number of 1's in an $m \times m$ Boolean matrix that does not contain a specific permutation matrix of order k is $O(m)$. For non-permutation patterns, similar bounds are not true in general anymore, but do hold in many cases (or hold in a weak sense, e.g., only slightly more than linear). In such cases, the Marcus-Tardos bound could have allowed relatively efficient testing. However, the lower bounds hinted above for the $(1, 1)$-pattern makes the testing problem completely different from that of testing forbidden permutation patterns.

Restricted functions: In this paper we always consider the set of functions $f : [n] \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ with no restrictions. Interesting questions occur when the set of functions is more restricted. One natural such restriction is for functions of bounded or restricted range (for the special case of $(2, 1)$-freeness, such a study was initiated by Pallavoor, Raskhodnikova and Varma [30] and followed upon by others [6, 29]). We do know that in the very extreme case, that is, for functions from the line $[n]$ to a constant-sized range, pattern freeness is testable in constant time even for much more general class of forbidden patterns [4]. Apart from this extreme restriction, or the results for 2-patterns stated above, we are not aware of results concerning functions of bounded range (e.g., range that is n^2 or $\sqrt{n}$).

Lastly, if we restrict our attention to functions $f : [n] \to [n]$ that are themselves permutations, Fox and Wei [21] argued that for some special types of distance measures such as the rectangular-distance and Kendall's tau distance, testing π-freeness can be done in constant query complexity. Testing π-freeness w.r.t. the Hamming or deletion distances is very different, and still remains open for this setting.

Other open questions: The major open question left in this paper is to determine the exact (asymptotic) complexity of testing π-freeness of arbitrary permutations $\pi : [k] \to [k]$, $k \geq 3$. While the gaps for $k = 3$ are relatively small (within polylog n range), the gaps are yet much larger for $k \geq 4$. We do not have any reason to think that the upper bound obtained in this draft

is tight. We did not try to optimize the exponent of n in the $\tilde{O}(n^{o(1)})$ expression, but the current methods do not seem to bring down the query complexity to polylog n. We conjecture, however, that the query complexity is polylog n for all constant k. Another open question is whether the complexity of two-sided error testing might be lower than that of one-sided error testing.

Finally, Newman and Varma [29] used lower bounds on testing pattern freeness of monotone patterns of length $k \geq 3$ (for nonadaptive algorithms), to obtain lower bounds on the query complexity of nonadaptive algorithms for LIS estimation. Proving any lower bound better than $\Omega(\log n)$ for adaptively testing freeness, for arbitrary permutations of length k for $k \geq 3$, may translate in a similar way to lower bounds on adaptive algorithms for LIS estimation.

Organization: Section 2 contains the notation, important definitions, and a discussion of some key concepts related to testing π-freeness. Section 3 contains a high-level overview of an $\tilde{O}(\sqrt{n})$-query algorithm for patterns of length 4. The formal description of our π-freeness tester for permutations π of length $k \geq 4$ and the proof of correctness appear in Section 5.

2. Preliminaries and discussion

For a function $f : [n] \to \mathbb{R}$, we denote by $R(f)$ the image of f. We often refer to the elements of the domain $[n]$ as *indices*, and the elements of $R(f)$ as *values*. For $S \subseteq [n]$, $f|_S$ denotes the restriction of f to S. Throughout, n will denote the domain size of the function f.

We often refer to events in a probability space. For ease of representation, we will say that an event E occurs with high probability, denoted 'w.h.p.', if $\Pr(E) > 1 - n^{-\log n}$, to avoid specifying accurate constants.

Let $\mathcal{S}_k$ denote the set of all permutations of length k. We view $\pi = (a_1, \ldots, a_k) \in \mathcal{S}_k$ as a function (and not as a cyclus), that is, where $\pi(i) = a_i,\ i \in [k]$. We refer to a_i as the ith value in π, and as the a_i-leg of π. Thus, e.g., for $\pi = (4, 1, 2, 3)$, the first value is 4, and the third is 2, while the 4-leg of π is at the first place and its 1-leg is at the second place. We often refer to $\pi \in \mathcal{S}_k$ as a k-pattern.

2.1 Deletion distance vs. Hamming distance

The distance of a function from the property of being π-free can be measured in several ways. In this paper, we use Hamming and deletion distances as are defined next.

DEFINITION 2.1 (Deletion and Hamming distance). Let $f : [n] \to \mathbb{R}$. The deletion distance of f from being π-free is $\mathrm{Ddist}_\pi(f) = \min\{|S| :\ S \subseteq [n],\ f|_{[n]\setminus S} \text{ is } \pi\text{-free}\}$. Namely, it is the cardinality of the smallest set $S \subseteq [n]$ that intersects each π-appearance in f. The Hamming distance of f from being π-free, $\mathrm{Hdist}_\pi(f)$ is the minimum of $\mathrm{dist}(f, f') = |\{i :\ i \in [n],\ f(i) \neq f(i')\}|$ over all functions $f' : [n] \to \mathbb{R}$ that are π-free.

For $0 \leq \varepsilon < 1$ we say that f is ε-far from π-freeness in deletion distance, or Hamming distance, if $dist_\pi(f) \geq \varepsilon n$, and otherwise we say that f is ε-close to π-freeness, where $dist_\pi(f)$ is the corresponding distance.

CLAIM 2.2. $\text{Ddist}_\pi(f) = \text{Hdist}_\pi(f)$

PROOF. It is obvious from the definition that $\text{Ddist}_\pi(f) \leq \text{Hdist}_\pi(f)$. For the other direction, assume that $\text{Ddist}_\pi(f) = d$. Let $S = \{i_1, i_2, \ldots, i_d\} \subseteq [n]$ for $i_1 < i_2 \ldots < i_d$ be such that $f|_{[n]\setminus S}$ is π-free. If $i_1 > 1$, consider the function $f' : [n] \to \mathbb{R}$ such that for $i \notin S$, $f'(i) = f(i)$ and for $j \in [d]$, $f'(i_j) = f(m_j)$, where m_j is the largest element in $[i_j] \setminus S$. It can be seen that f' is π-free. Moreover, $\text{Hdist}(f, f') \leq d$, which proves the claim for S such that $i_1 > 1$. If $i_1 = 1$, let $s \in [n]$ be the smallest index not in S. We consider the function $f'' : [n] \to \mathbb{R}$, where $f''(i) = f(s)$ for all $i \in [s-1]$, where $[s-1] \subseteq S$, by definition of s. Now, the deletion distance of f'' is less than d and we are back to the case that the smallest index being deleted is greater than 1. ■

Claim 2.2 is extremely important for testing π-freeness, and is what gives rise to *all* testers of monotonicity, as well as π-freeness that are known. This is due to the fact that the tests are really designed for the deletion distance, rather than the Hamming distance. The folklore observation made in Claim 2.3 facilitates such tests, and Claim 2.2 makes the tests work also for the Hamming distance. Due to Claim 2.2, we say that a function f is ε-far from π-free without specifying the distance measure.

Let $\pi \in \mathcal{S}_k$ and $f : [n] \to \mathbb{R}$. A *matching* of π-appearances in f is a collection of π-appearances that are pairwise disjoint as sets of indices in $[n]$. The following claim is folklore and immediate from the fact that the size of a minimum vertex cover of a k-uniform hypergraph is at most k times the cardinality of a maximal matching.

CLAIM 2.3. *Let $\pi \in \mathcal{S}_k$. If $f : [n] \to \mathbb{R}$ is ε-far from being π-free, then there exists a matching of π-appearances of size at least $\varepsilon n/k$.*

All our algorithms have one-sided error, i.e., they always accept functions that are π-free. For functions that are far from being π-free, using Claim 2.3, our algorithms aim to detect some π-appearance, providing a witness for the function to not be π-free. Hence, in the description below, and throughout the analysis of the algorithms, the input function is assumed to be ε-far from π-free.

2.2 Viewing a function as a grid of points

Let $f : [n] \to \mathbb{R}$. We view f as points in an $n \times |R(f)|$ grid G_n. The horizontal axis of G_n is labeled with the indices in $[n]$. The vertical axis of G_n represents the image $R(f)$ and is labeled with the distinct values in $R(f)$ in increasing order, $r_1 < r_2 < \ldots < r_{n'}$, where $|R(f)| = n' \leq n$. We refer to an index-value pair $(i, f(i)), i \in [n]$ in the grid as a *point*. The grid has n points, to

which our algorithms do not have direct access. In particular, we do not assume that $R(f)$ is known. The function is one-to-one if $|R(f)| = n$. Note that if M is a matching of π-appearances in f, then M defines a corresponding matching of π-appearances in G_n. We will always consider this alternative view, where the matching M is a set of disjoint π-appearances in the grid G_n.

2.2.1 Coarse grid of boxes

For a pair of subsets (S, I), where $S \subseteq [n]$ and $I \subseteq R(f)$, we denote by $\text{box}(S, I)$, the subgrid $S \times I$ of G_n alongwith with the set $\{(i, f(i)) : i \in S, f(i) \in I\}$ of points in G_n. In most cases, S and I will be intervals in $[n]$ and $R(f)$, respectively, and hence the name *box*. The *size* of $\text{box}(S, I)$ is defined to be $|S|$. A box is *nonempty* if it contains at least one point and is *empty* otherwise.

Consider an arbitrary collection of pairwise disjoint contiguous value intervals $\mathcal{L} = \{I_1, \ldots I_m\}$, such that $I \subseteq \bigcup_{j\in[m]} I_j$. The set $\mathcal{L}$ naturally defines a partition of the points in $\text{box}(S, I)$ into m horizontal *layers*, $\text{box}(S, I_j)$ for $j \in [m]$. Assume that, in addition to a set of layers $\mathcal{L}$, we have a partition of S into disjoint intervals $S = \bigcup_{i=1}^{m} S_i$ where $S_i = [a_i, b_i]$, and $b_i < a_{i+1},\ i = 1, \ldots m-1$. The family $\mathcal{S} = \{S_1, \ldots S_m\}$ induces a partition of $\text{box}(S, I)$ and the points in it, into m vertical *stripes*, $\text{box}(S_i, I)$ for $i \in [m]$. The layering defined by $\mathcal{L}$ together with the stripes defined by $\mathcal{S}$ partition $\text{box}(S, I)$ into a coarse grid $G_{m,m}$ of boxes $\{\text{box}(S_i, I_j)\}_{i,j\in[m]}$ that is isomorphic to the grid $[m] \times [m]$. Note that $\text{box}(S, I)$ could even be the entire grid G_n. Given such a gridding of $\text{box}(S, I)$, the layer of $\text{box}(S_i, I_j)$, denoted $L(\text{box}(S_i, I_j))$, is $\text{box}(S, I_j)$ and its stripe, denoted $\text{St}(\text{box}(S_i, I_j))$, is $\text{box}(S_i, I)$.

We say that *layer L is below layer L'*, and write $L < L'$, if the largest value of a point in L is less than the smallest value of a point in L'. For stripes $\text{St}(S), \text{St}(S')$, we write $\text{St}(S) < \text{St}(S')$ if the largest index in S is smaller than the smallest index in S'. For the grid $G_{m,m}$ and two boxes B_1, B_2 in it, $B_1 < B_2$ if $L(B_1) < L(B_2)$ and $\text{St}(B_1) < \text{St}(B_2)$.

2.2.2 Patterns among and within nonempty boxes

Consider a coarse grid of boxes, $G_{m,m}$, defined as above on the grid of points G_n. There is a natural homomorphism from the points in G_n to the nonempty boxes in $G_{m,m}$ where those points fall. For f and a grid of boxes $G_{m,m}$ as above, we refer to this homomorphism implicitly. This homomorphism defines when $G_{m,m}$ contains a π-appearance in a natural way. For example, consider the permutation $\pi = (3, 2, 1, 4) \in \mathcal{S}_4$. We say that $G_{m,m}$ *contains* π if there are nonempty boxes B_1, B_2, B_3, B_4 such that $\text{St}(B_1) < \text{St}(B_2) < \text{St}(B_3) < \text{St}(B_4)$ and $L(B_3) < L(B_2) < L(B_1) < L(B_4)$ (see Figure 1(A)).

OBSERVATION 2.4. *Let $\mathcal{L}, \mathcal{S}$ be a partition of G_n into layers and stripes as above, with $|\mathcal{L}| = m,\ |\mathcal{S}| = m$. If $G_{m,m}$ contains π then G_n (and equivalently f) has a π-appearance.*

The converse of Observation 2.4 is not true; G_n may contain a π-appearance while $G_{m,m}$ does not. This happens when some of the boxes that contain the π-appearance share a layer or

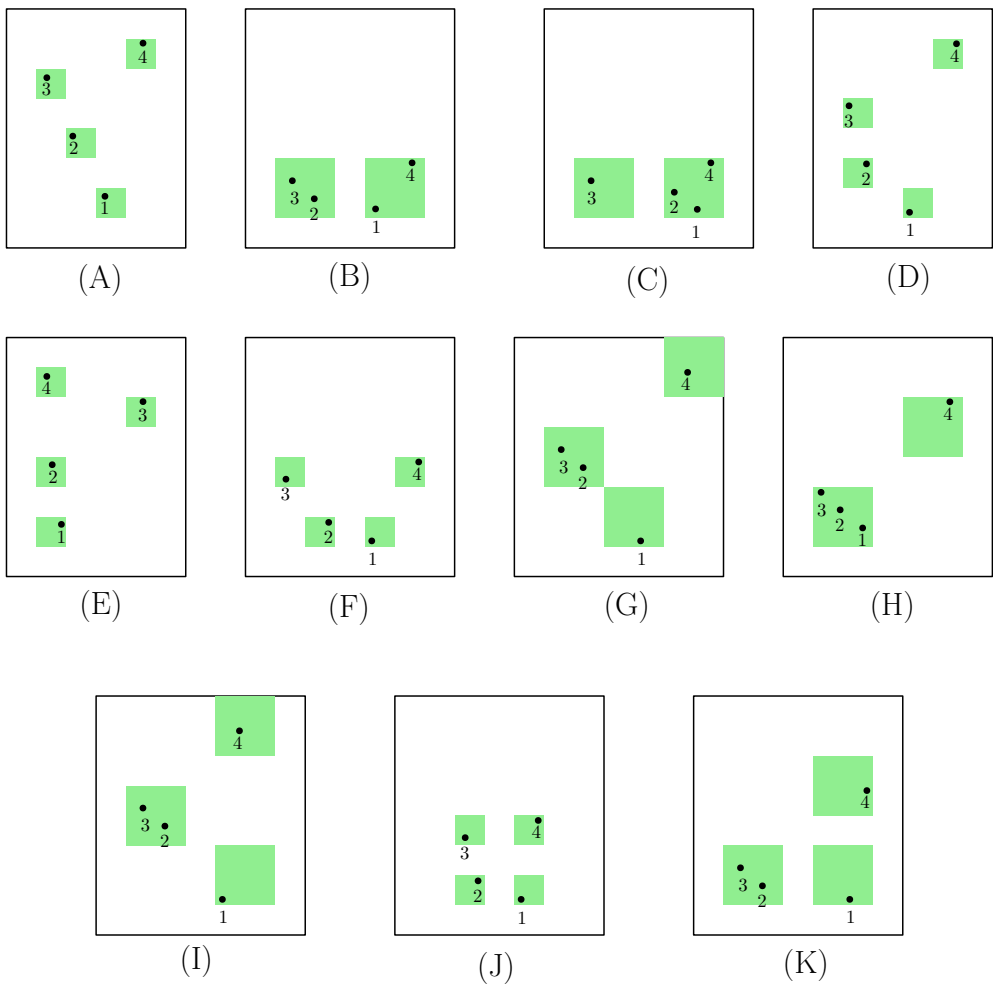

Figure 1. Each rectangle represents a different grid G_n, where the green shaded boxes correspond to some nonempty boxes in those grids. Each figure represents a different configuration type with respect to the appearance of some 4-length pattern. The dots and the numbers indicate possible splittings of the 4 legs of π. Figure (E) represents the pattern $(4, 2, 1, 3)$ and all others represent the pattern $(3, 2, 1, 4)$. The sizes of green boxes in the figures are not representative and are not drawn to scale.

a stripe. Two boxes are *directly-connected* if they share a layer or a stripe. The transitive closure of the relation *directly-connected* is called *connected*. An arrangement of boxes where every two boxes are connected is called a *connected component*, or simply, a component. The size of a connected component is the number of boxes in it.

For $\pi \in \mathcal{S}_k$, a π-appearance in G_n implies that the k points corresponding to such a π-appearance are in $i \leq k$ distinct components in $G_{m,m}$, where the jth component C_j may contain b_j boxes each containing at least one point of the corresponding π-appearance. We refer to the π-values in the corresponding boxes of the components as *legs*. For example, for $\pi = (3, 2, 1, 4)$, the π-appearance shown in Figure 1(B) is contained in two boxes that share the same layer, and hence form one component. The left box contains the 3, 2 legs of the π-appearance and other contains the 1, 4 legs. A different 1-component 2-boxed appearance in the same two boxes has 3 appearing in B_1 and all the other legs in B_2 as in Figure 1(C). It need not be the case that every

pair of boxes in a single connected component are directly-connected as illustrated in Figure 1(J) and Figure 1(K).

Examples for $\pi = (3, 2, 1, 4)$-appearances with two components C_1, C_2 are illustrated in Figure 1(F) and Figure 1(H). In the first, C_1, C_2 contain 2 boxes each, where C_1 contains the $(3, 4)$ legs of the appearance, each in one box, and C_2 contains the $(1, 2)$ legs. In the second, each component is 1-boxed, where the first contains the $(3, 2, 1)$-legs and the other contains the 4-leg of the appearance. Figure 1(A) contains a $(3, 2, 1, 4)$-appearance in 4 components. Some other possible appearances with 1 component and 3 components are illustrated in Figure 1(B), Figure 1(C), Figure 1(D) and Figure 1(G).

To sum up, each π-appearance in G_n defines an arrangement of nonempty boxes in $G_{m,m}$ that contain the legs of that appearance. This arrangement is defined by the relative order of the layers and stripes among the boxes, and has at most k components. Such a box-arrangement that can contain the legs of a π-appearance is called a *configuration*. Note that there may be many different π-appearances in distinct boxes, all having the same configuration C. Namely, in which, the arrangements of the boxes in terms of the relative order of layers and stripes are identical. So, every set of $\ell \leq k$ points in the $k \times k$ grid defines a configuration and two such sets represent the same configuration if they are order-isomorphic with respect to the grid order. For instance, the sets of points $\{(1, 1), (2, 1), (3, 3)\}$ and $\{(1, 1), (2, 1), (3, 4)\}$ represent the same configuration. An actual set of boxes in $G_{m,m}$ forming a specific type of configuration is referred to as a *copy* of that configuration.

For $\pi \in \mathcal{S}_k$, let $c(k)$ be the number of all possible configurations that are consistent with a π-appearance. For any fixed π, the number $c(k)$ of distinct types of configurations is upper bounded in the following observation.

OBSERVATION 2.5. $c(k) = 2^{O(k \log k)}$

PROOF. The total number of possible configurations is upper bounded by the number of ways to select at most k points from a $k \times k$ grid. This latter quantity is equal to $\sum_{i \in [k]} \binom{k^2}{i}$, which is at most $2^{O(k \log k)}$. ■

A configuration C does not fully specify the way in which a π-appearance can be present. It is necessary to also specify the way the k legs of the π-appearance are partitioned among the boxes in a copy of C. Let $\mathcal{B}$ denote a set of boxes forming the configuration C. Let $\phi : [k] \to \mathcal{B}$ denote the mapping of the legs of the π-appearance to boxes in $\mathcal{B}$, where $\phi(j)$, $j \in [k]$ denotes the box in $\mathcal{B}$ containing the j-th leg of the π-appearance. We say that the copy of C formed by the boxes in $\mathcal{B}$ contains a ϕ-legged π-appearance.

A configuration C in which the boxes form $p \geq 2$ components, and that is consistent with a π-appearance, defines $\nu_1, \ldots, \nu_p$-appearances, respectively, in the p components of C, where ν_j for $j \in [p]$ is the subpermutation of π that is defined by the restriction of π to the

j-th component. In addition, C defines the corresponding mappings $\phi_j, j = 1, \ldots p$, of the corresponding legs of each v_j to the corresponding boxes in the jth component. For example, consider $\pi = (3, 2, 1, 4)$ and the box arrangement shown in Figure 1(F). That arrangement has two connected components: one that contains B_1, B_4 and the other that contains B_2, B_3, where we number the boxes from left to right (by increasing stripe order). Further, the (only) consistent partition of the legs of π into these boxes is $\pi(i) \in B_i,\ i \in [4]$. In particular, it means that the component formed by B_1, B_4 contains the $3, 4$ legs of π and the component formed by B_2, B_3 contains the $2, 1$ legs of π. Thus, in terms of the discussion above, the component formed by B_1, B_4 has a $v_1 = (1, 2)$-appearance (corresponding to the $3, 4$ legs of π), with leg mapping ϕ_1 mapping the 1-leg into B_1 and the 2-leg into B_4. Similarly, the component formed by B_2, B_3 has a $v_2 = (2, 1)$-appearance (corresponding to the $2, 1$ legs of π) with corresponding leg mapping ϕ_2 that maps the 2-leg into B_2 and the 1-leg into B_3. Note that the converse is also true: every v_1-appearance in the component $B_1 \cup B_4$, with a leg-mapping ϕ_1 (that is, in which the $1, 2$ legs are in B_1, B_4 respectively), in addition to a v_2-appearance in $B_2 \cup B_3$ with the leg-mapping ϕ_2, results in a π-appearance in $G_{m,m}$.

This leads to the crucial observation that if π defines the corresponding $v_1, \ldots, v_p$ appearances in the p components of the configuration C, then, *any* $v_1, \ldots, v_p$-appearances in the p components of any copy of C with consistent leg-mappings is a π-appearance in C. This is formally stated below.

DEFINITION 2.6. Let $v \in \mathcal{S}_r$. Let $B_1, \ldots, B_p$ be a set of boxes forming one component C and $\phi : [r] \mapsto \{B_1, \ldots, B_p\}$ be an arbitrary mapping of the legs of a v-appearance to boxes. We say that C has a ϕ-legged v-appearance if there is a v-appearance in $\bigcup_{j=1}^{p} B_j$ in which for each $i \in [r]$, the i-th leg of v appears in the box $B_{\phi(i)}$.

OBSERVATION 2.7. *Let $\pi \in \mathcal{S}_k$ and assume that there exists a π-appearance in G_n that, in the grid of boxes $G_{m,m}$, forms a configuration C that contains t components $C_1, \ldots, C_t$. Let the restriction of this π-appearance to $C_1, \ldots, C_t$ define the permutation patterns $v_1, \ldots v_t$ with leg mappings $\phi_1, \ldots \phi_t$, respectively. Then any collection $\{C'_j : j \in [t]\}$ such that C'_j is a configuration copy of C_j and $\bigcup_{j=1}^{t} C'_j$ is a copy of C, along with ϕ_j-legged v_j-appearances in C'_j for each $j \in [t]$ defines a π-appearance in $\bigcup_{j=1}^{t} C'_j$.*

PROOF. Since $\bigcup_{j\in[t]} C'_j$ form a copy of the configuration C, for any two boxes B_1 and B_2 belonging to $\bigcup_{j\in[t]} C'_j$, their relative position in the grid $G_{m,m}$ is identical to the relative position of the corresponding boxes in C. For $a, b \in [k]$ such that $a < b$, consider the a-th and b-th leg in the order from left to right along the grid, in the union of ϕ_j-legged v_j-appearances in C'_j for $j \in [t]$. By the above statement and by virtue of the leg mappings ϕ_j, $j \in [t]$, the relative values of the a-th and b-th legs in the aforementioned union of appearances is identical to the relative values of the a-th and b-th legs in the π-appearance occurring according to the configuration C. Therefore, the union of ϕ_j-legged v_j-appearances in C'_j for $j \in [t]$ defines a π-appearance. ■

2.3 Erasure-resilient testing

Erasure-resilient (ER) testing, introduced by Dixit, Raskhodnikova, Thakurta and Varma [16], is a generalization of property testing. In this model, algorithms get oracle access to functions for which the values of at most α fraction of the points in the domain are erased by an adversary, for $\alpha \in [0,1)$.

For $f : [n] \to \mathbb{R}$ let $\mathrm{NE}(f)$ be the *nonerased* values of f. The parameter α is given as an input to the algorithms, but, they do not know $\mathrm{NE}(f)$. On querying a point, the algorithm receives the function value if the point is *nonerased*, and a special symbol otherwise.

DEFINITION 2.8 (One-sided error erasure-resilient tester for $\mathcal{P}_\pi$). For $\varepsilon \in (0,1), \alpha \in [0,1)$, an α-erasure-resilient (α-ER) ε-tester for $\mathcal{P}_\pi$ is a randomized algorithm that on oracle access to a function $f : [n] \to \mathbb{R}$, **accepts**, with probability 1, if $f|_{\mathrm{NE}(f)}$ is π-free, and **rejects**, with probability at least $2/3$, if there is a matching of size $\varepsilon n/k$ of π-appearances in $\mathrm{NE}(f)$.

We point out that the definition in [16] is for any property and for two-sided error testing as well.

Dixit et al. [16] give a one-sided error α-ER ε-tester for monotonicity of functions $f : [n] \to \mathbb{R}$ with query complexity $O(\frac{\log n}{\varepsilon})$ that works for any constants $\alpha, \varepsilon \in [0,1)$. It can be observed that the polylog n-query one-sided error tester for ν-freeness of [28], for any $\nu \in \mathcal{S}_3$, is also ER.

As part of our algorithm for testing π-freeness for $\pi \in \mathcal{S}_k$ for $k \geq 4$, we call testers for smaller subpatterns on subregions of the grid G_n which may be defined by, say, $\mathrm{box}(S, I)$ for some $S \subseteq [n], I \subseteq R(f)$. In this case, the only access to points in $\mathrm{box}(S, I)$ is by sampling indices from S and checking whether their values fall in I. If the values do not fall in I, we can treat them as erasures. Given the promise that the number of points falling in $\mathrm{box}(S, I)$ is a constant fraction of $|S|$, we can simply run ER testers on $f|_S$ to test for these smaller subpatterns.

3. High-level description of the basic algorithm for $\pi \in \mathcal{S}_4$

In this section, we give a high-level description of most of the ideas used in the design of our π-freeness tester of query complexity $\tilde{O}(n^{o(1)})$. We first describe the ideas behind a $\tilde{O}(\sqrt{n})$-query ε-tester for π-freeness of functions $f : [n] \to \mathbb{R}$, where $\pi \in \mathcal{S}_4$ and $\varepsilon \in (0,1)$. At the end of this section, we briefly touch upon how to generalize these ideas to obtain the query complexity of $\tilde{O}(n^{o(1)})$ for constant-length permutations of length at least 4. For simplicity, we assume in what follows that the input function $f : [n] \to \mathbb{R}$ is one-to-one. The algorithm for functions that are not one-to-one differs in a few places and these are explained in Section 5.1.

For the purposes of this high-level description, we fix the forbidden permutation $\pi = (3,2,1,4)$. The same algorithm works for any $\pi \in \mathcal{S}_4$. We view f as an (implicitly given) $n \times |R(f)|$ grid G_n consisting of points $(i, f(i))$ for $i \in [n]$, where, in particular, $R(f)$ is neither

known nor bounded. Our first goal is to approximate G_n by a coarse grid of boxes $G_{m',m'}$, where $m = \sqrt{n}$ and $m' = \Theta(m)$. This is done by first querying f on $\tilde{\Theta}(m)$ independently sampled and uniformly random indices, upon which we obtain a partition $\mathcal{L}$ of $R(f)$ into m' horizontal layers, corresponding to value intervals $\{I_j\}_{j\in[m']}$. Then, we partition the index set $[n]$ into m' contiguous intervals $\{S_i\}_{i\in[m']}$ of equal sizes. This results in a grid $G_{m',m'}$, where a box $\mathrm{box}(S_i, I_j), i, j \in [m']$ is tagged as *nonempty* if it has at least one sampled point. A box is tagged as *dense* if it contains $\Omega_\varepsilon(1)$-fraction of the sampled points in its stripe. All of the above takes $\tilde{O}_\varepsilon(m) = \tilde{O}_\varepsilon(\sqrt{n})$ queries. The following properties are satisfied with high probability:

— Each layer, that is $\mathrm{box}([n], I_j),\ j \in [m']$, has approximately the same number of points from G_n.

— It is either the case that the dense boxes contain all but an insignificant fraction of the points in G_n, or the total number of nonempty boxes is larger than $m' \log n$.

Next, we use the following lemma of Marcus and Tardos.

LEMMA 3.1 ([26]). *For any $\pi \in \mathcal{S}_k,\ k \in \mathbb{N}$, there is a constant $\kappa(k) \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for any $r \in \mathbb{N}$, if a grid $G_{r,r}$ contains at least $\kappa(k) \cdot r$ marked points, then it contains a π-appearance among the marked points.*

Let $\kappa = \kappa(4)$. Using Lemma 3.1, we may assume that there are at most $\kappa \cdot m'$ nonempty boxes in $G_{m',m'}$, as otherwise, we already would have found a π-appearance in $G_{m',m'}$, which by Observation 2.4, implies a π-appearance in G_n and in f as well. Hence, as a result of the gridding, if we do not see a π-appearance among the sampled points, the second item above implies that there are $\Theta(m')$ dense boxes in $G_{m',m'}$ and that these boxes cover all but an insignificant fraction of the points of G_n.

An averaging argument implies that, for an appropriate value $d = d(\varepsilon)$, only a small fraction (depending on ε) of layers (or stripes) contain more than d nonempty boxes. Therefore, since the grid G_n is ε-far from being π-free, the restriction of G_n to the layers and stripes that contain at most d boxes each, is also ε'-far from π-free for a large enough $\varepsilon' < \varepsilon$. This implies that G_n restricted to the points in dense boxes that belong to layers and stripes containing at most d dense boxes each, has a matching M of π-appearances of size at least $\varepsilon' n/4$. We assume in what follows that this is indeed the situation.

An important note at this point is that every dense box B is contained in $O(d^3)$ many copies of 1-component configurations with at most 4 dense boxes. This implies that there are $O(d^3 m)$ such copies of 1-component configurations in $G_{m',m'}$.

Recall that every π-appearance in M defines a configuration of at most 4 components in $G_{m',m'}$. Hence, the matching M of size $|M| = \Omega_\varepsilon(n)$ can be partitioned into 4 sub-matchings $M = M_1 \cup M_2 \cup M_3 \cup M_4$, where $M_i,\ i = 1, \ldots, 4$ consists of the π-appearances participating in configurations having exactly i components. Since $|M| = \Omega_\varepsilon(n)$ it follows that at least one of $M_i,\ i = 1, 2, 3, 4$ is of linear size. Now, any π-appearance in M_4 is an appearance in 4 distinct

dense boxes in $G_{m',m'}$, where no two share a layer or a stripe. In that case, such an appearance can be directly detected from the tagged $G_{m',m'}$ with no further queries.

The description of the rest of the algorithm can be viewed as a treatment of several independent cases regarding which one among the constantly many configuration types contributes the larger mass out of the $\Omega_\varepsilon(n)$ π-appearances in $M_1 \cup M_2 \cup M_3$. There are only two significant cases, but to enhance understanding, we split these two cases into the more natural larger number of cases, and observe at the end that most cases can be treated conceptually in the same way.

Case 1: Let $|M_1| \geq \varepsilon' n/3$, and let a constant fraction of the π-appearances in M_1 be in a single-box component. Then, on average, a dense box, out of the $\Theta(m')$ dense boxes, is expected to contain at least $\Theta_\varepsilon(n/m') = \Theta_\varepsilon(m') = \Theta_\varepsilon(\sqrt{n})$ many π-appearances. Thus a random dense box B is likely to have $\Theta_\varepsilon(\sqrt{n})$ many π-appearances, and hence, making queries to all points of such a box will enable us to find one such π-appearance. This takes an additional $n/m' = \Theta(\sqrt{n})$ queries, which is within the query budget.

Next, consider the case that a constant fraction of the π-appearances in M_1 belong to a configuration C that has more than one dense box (but only one connected component). An example of such a situation would be Figure 1(J). By a similar argument, a random dense box is expected to participate in at least $\Theta_\varepsilon(n/m)$ many π-appearances of copies of configuration-type C. Since each dense box is part of at most $O(d^3)$ (constantly many) connected components of at most 4 dense boxes, sampling a random dense box B and querying all the indices in each of the components that contain at most 4 dense boxes and involve B, is likely to find a π-appearance with high probability. Each connected component is over at most $4n/m'$ indices, resulting in $O(n/m)$ queries.

Case 2: $|M_3| \geq \varepsilon' n/3$, and assume first that a constant fraction of the members in M_3 belong to copies of a configuration C of 3 components B_1, B_2, B_3, where each one is a single box. Since the boxes B_1, B_2, B_3 belong to different components, no two of them share a layer or a stripe. For our current working example, $\pi = (3, 2, 1, 4)$, assume further that B_1 contains the 3, 2 legs of a π-appearance and B_2, B_3 contain its 1 and 4 legs, respectively (see Figure 1(G) for an example). In this case B_1 is not $(2, 1)$-free (as B_1 contains the $(3, 2)$-subpattern of π).

By an averaging argument, it follows that there is a dense box B for which: (a) B is far from $(2, 1)$-free, and (b) there are corresponding dense boxes B_2, B_3 that, together with B, form a copy of the configuration C. Now, a test follows easily. We test every dense box for $(2, 1)$-freeness, which can be done in $O(\log n)$ queries per box, and hence in $\tilde{O}(m)$ in total. Then, by the guarantee above we will find the corresponding B, B_2 and B_3 and a π-appearance in it (by Observation 2.7 with the trivial mapping).

A similar argument holds for a 3-component configuration C' in which one component contains more than one box. Let C' consist of two single-box components and a two-boxed component, as in Figure 1(D). In this case, a similar averaging argument shows the existence of a dense box B for which (a) there is a dense box B' forming a component D with B, and dense boxes B_2, B_3 such that D, B_2, B_3 jointly form a copy of C', and (b) there are $\Omega_\varepsilon(n/m) = \Omega_\varepsilon(\sqrt{n})$ ϕ-legged $(2,1)$-appearances in D, where ϕ is such that the 2-leg maps to the upper box in D and the 1-leg maps to the lower box in D. Hence, the test is similar to the simpler case above. We test for every dense box B and every way to extend it into a component of two boxes by adding a box B' (a constant number of ways) such that $D = (B, B')$ contains a ϕ-legged $(2,1)$-appearance. This again can be done using $O(\log n)$ queries per component copy D. Once this is done, finding D, B_2, B_3 that form a copy of C' results in a π-appearance by Observation 2.7.

Case 3: Assume now that $|M_2| \geq \varepsilon' n/3$, and that the corresponding configurations of the π-appearances in M_2 contain two single-box components B_1, B_2, where B_1 holds the first 3 legs of π and B_2 holds the 4-th leg. E.g., For $\pi = (3,2,1,4)$, the configuration C contains two boxes B_1, B_2 where B_1 contains the subpattern $(3,2,1)$ and B_2 is any nonempty box such that $B_1 < B_2$, (see Figure 1(H) for an illustration). An averaging argument, as made in Case 2, shows that there is a dense box B_1 for which (a) B_1 is far from $(3,2,1)$-free, and (b) there is a corresponding dense box B_2 that, together with B_1, forms a copy of the configuration C. This suggests a test that is conceptually similar to the test in Cases 1 and 2. We test each box for being $(3,2,1)$-free. This can be done in $O(\text{polylog}\, n)$ queries (e.g., [8]). Then once finding a $(3,2,1)$ in B_1 for which (a) and (b) hold, $B_1 \cup B_2$ contains a π-appearance.

We note here that for the example above, we ended by testing for $(3,2,1)$-freeness which is relatively easy. For a different configuration or π, we might need to test B_1 for a different $\nu \in \mathcal{S}_3$, but this can be done for any $\nu \in \mathcal{S}_3$ using $O(\text{polylog}\, n)$ queries [28]. Hence the same argument and complexity guarantee hold for any 2-component configuration C as above.

Case 4: A more complicated situation arises when $|M_2| \geq \varepsilon' n/3$, and the corresponding configurations of the π-appearances in M_2 are formed of two components D, B, with D holding 3 legs of π in 2 or 3 boxes (rather than in one box as in Case 3). E.g., $\pi = (4,2,1,3)$, and the configuration C as illustrated in Figure 1(E).

By a similar averaging argument to that made in Case 2, it follows that there is a dense box B_1 for which (a) there are dense boxes B_2, B_3 forming a copy D' of D with B_1, and a dense box B such that the configuration formed by D', B is a copy of C, and (b) there are $\Omega_\varepsilon(n/m) = \Omega_\varepsilon(\sqrt{n})$ ϕ-legged $(3,2,1)$-appearances in D', where ϕ is consistent with the leg mapping that is induced by the configuration C. This implies a conceptually similar test to that of the simpler Case 3 above - we test each of the $O(m)$ components D for $(3,2,1)$-freeness, and then with the existence of the corresponding box B we find a π-appearance. However, this is not perfectly

accurate: the algorithm for finding $\nu = (3,2,1)$ in D', although efficient, might find a $(3,2,1)$-appearance where the 3 legs appear in B_1 or in $B_1 \cup B_2$. But this does not extend with B to form a π-appearance, as the leg mapping is not consistent with the one that is induced by C. Namely, unlike before, we do not only need to find a ν-appearance in D but rather a ϕ-legged ν-appearance with respect to a fixed mapping ϕ (that in this case maps each leg to a different box in the component D').

There are several ways to cope with this extra restriction. For the current description of a basic $\tilde{O}(\sqrt{n})$ algorithm, it is enough to sample a constant number of copies of the component D and do the test for ϕ-legged ν-appearance in each. But, since each copy D' is of size $O(\sqrt{n})$ we can afford to query all indices in the domain of D'.

To resolve the problem in the general setting, we need to efficiently detect ϕ-legged ν-appearances in multi-boxed components. This, however, we currently do not know how to do. Instead, we design a test that either finds a ϕ-legged ν-appearance, or finds the original π-appearance. This is done using the algorithm $\mathsf{AlgTest}_\pi(\nu, \phi, D, m, \varepsilon)$ that will be described in Section 5.

Case 5: The last case that we did not consider yet is when most of the π-appearances are in a configuration containing more than one component, with at least two components containing two (or more) legs each. For $\pi \in \mathcal{S}_4$ the only such case is when the configuration C contains exactly two components, each containing exactly two legs of π. Returning to our working example with $\pi = (3,2,1,4)$, such an example is depicted in Figure 1(F). For the explanation below, we will discuss the case that the configuration C is as in Figure 1(F). Namely, it contains components D_1 that is above D_2, with two boxes each $D_1 = \{B_1, B_4\}$ and $D_2 = \{B_2, B_3\}$, and so that every box contains exactly one leg of π (boxes are numbered by order from left to right in $G_{m',m'}$). Our goal is to find two copies D'_1, D'_2 of the components D_1, D_2 respectively, that form a copy of C, and to find a ϕ_1-legged appearance of $(1,2)$ in D'_1, and a ϕ_2-legged appearance of $(2,1)$ in D'_2, so that these two appearances will together form a π-appearance.

Indeed, an averaging argument shows that there are D'_1, D'_2 as above, with D'_i containing $\Omega_\varepsilon(n/m)$ ϕ_i-legged appearances of ν_i for $i = 1,2$. However, we do not know whether sampling a pair D'_1, D'_2 in some way, will result in such a good pair. Rather, we are only assured of the existence of only one such pair! Hence, in this case we need to test *every* component copy D' of the appropriate type, for every $\nu \in \mathcal{S}_2$, and for every leg mapping ϕ, for a ϕ-legged ν-appearance in D' in order to find such an asserted pair of components. Such restricted ν-appearances can be tested in $O(\log n)$ queries per component. Since the number of two-boxed component copies where both boxes belong to the same layer is $O(m)$, this step takes $\tilde{O}(m)$ queries in total.

The same argument holds for any $\pi \in \mathcal{S}_4$, and for every configuration that is consistent with Case 5.

Concluding remarks

— At some places in the algorithm above, we had to test for ν-appearances (or restricted ν-appearances) in 'dense' subgrids of G_n. For this, we need all our algorithms to be ER, which will be implicitly clear from the description. We also need to take care of reducing the total error when we run a non-constant number of tests, or want to guarantee a large success probability for a large number of events - this is done by a trivial amplification that results in a multiplicative polylog n factor.

— In Case 1, we reduced the problem of finding a π-appearance in G_n that is assumed to be ε-far from π-free, to the same problem on a subrange of the indices (formed by a small component) of size $\Theta(n/m)$ (with a smaller but constant distance parameter $\varepsilon' < \varepsilon$). For the setting of $m = \sqrt{n}$, solving the problem on the reduced domain was trivially done by querying all indices in the subrange. In the general algorithm, where our goal is a query complexity of $n^{o(1)}$, we set $m = n^{\delta}$ for an appropriately small δ and apply self-recursion in Case 1.

— In Case 5, we had to test for ν-freeness (or for restricted π-appearances) for $\nu \in \mathcal{S}_2$ for *every* small component of size $\Theta(n/m)$ in $G_{m',m'}$. This entails a collection of $O(m)$ tests, where we want to assign a large success probability to each one of them. We also need to guarantee a large success probability to correctly tagging each of the $\Theta(m^2)$ boxes as part of the layering procedure. A similar need will also arise in the general algorithm. We amplify the success probability by multiplying our number of queries by $\log^2 n$ which will imply less than $1/n^{\Omega(\log n)}$ failure probability for each individual event in such collection. We will not comment more on this point, and assume implicitly that in all such places, all needed events occur w.h.p.

— In Cases 2, 3, 4 we end up testing ν-freeness for $\nu \in \mathcal{S}_2 \cup \mathcal{S}_3$ in dense boxes, or ϕ-legged ν-freeness of such ν in components of multiple dense boxes. An averaging argument shows that this can simply be done by sampling one box or component, and making queries to all indices therein.

Case 5 is different: here, sampling a small number of components does not guarantee an expected large number of the corresponding appearances. This is the reason that we need to test *all* components with at most 2 dense boxes, for ϕ-legged ν-freeness, and for every $\nu \in \mathcal{S}_2$ and leg mapping ϕ. Algorithm $\mathsf{AlgTest}_{\pi}(\nu, \phi, D, m, \varepsilon)$ can do this for any $\nu \in \mathcal{S}_2 \cup \mathcal{S}_3$ in n^{δ} queries for an arbitrarily small constant δ. Since we have to do it in Case 5, we may do the same in cases 2, 3, 4 as well! As a result, the algorithm above will contain only two cases: Case 1 where we reduce the problem to the same problem but on a smaller domain, and the new Case 2 where we test *every* small component for ϕ-legged ν-appearance for every $\nu \in \mathcal{S}_2 \cup \mathcal{S}_3$ and every leg mapping ϕ – namely a case in which we reduce the problem to testing (restricted appearances) for smaller patterns.

— In view of the comment above, the idea behind improving the complexity to n^δ for constant $0 < \delta < 1$ is obvious: Choosing $m = n^{\delta/2}$ will result in an $m \times m$ grid, where Layering can be done in $\tilde{O}(n^{\delta/2})$ queries. Then, Case 2 will be done in an additional n^δ queries by setting a query complexity for $\mathsf{AlgTest}_\pi(\nu, \phi, D, m, \varepsilon)$ to be $n^{\delta/2}$ per component. The self-recursion in Case 1 will result in the same problem over a range of n/m. For the fixed $m = n^{\delta/2}$, this will result in a recursion depth of $2/\delta$, after which the domain size will drop down to m and allow making queries to all corresponding indices. This results in a total of $\tilde{O}(n^\delta)$ queries, including the amplification needed to account for the accumulation of errors and deterioration of the distance parameter at lower recursion levels.

— **Generalized testing and testing beyond** $k = 4$. Applying the same ideas to $\pi \in \mathcal{S}_k,\ k \geq 5$ works essentially the same way, provided we can test for ϕ-legged ν-freeness of $\nu \in \mathcal{S}_r$ for $r < k$. This we know how to do for $\nu \in \mathcal{S}_2$ but not beyond. For $r = 2$, testing ϕ-legged ν-freeness of $\nu \in \mathcal{S}_2$ is simpler than testing monotonicity for nontrivial ϕ, and is equivalent to testing monotonicity when testing is done in a one-boxed component. Hence, this can be done in $O(\log n)$ queries. For $r \geq 3$ the exact complexity is currently not know.
In particular, one difficulty is that after gridding, a superlinear number of nonempty boxes does not guarantee such appearance, as Lemma 3.1 does not apply. For example, for even r, consider the grid $[r] \times [r]$ all of whose points in the top left quarter $\{1, \ldots, r/2\} \times \{r/2+1, \ldots, r\}$ and right bottom quarter $\{r/2+1, \ldots, r\} \times \{1, \ldots, r/2\}$ are marked. There are no restricted $(1,2)$-appearances among the marked points where the 1 leg is from the right half and the 2-leg is from the left half, despite there being $\Omega(r^2)$ points. However, for our goal of testing π-freeness for $\pi \in \mathcal{S}_k$, we can relax the task of finding ϕ-legged ν-freeness of $\nu \in \mathcal{S}_r, r \leq k$ to the following problem which we call "generalized-testing ν w.r.t. π", denoted $\mathsf{GeneralizedTesting}_\pi(\nu, D, \phi)$: The inputs are a permutation $\nu \in \mathcal{S}_r$, a component D, and a leg mapping ϕ. Our goal is to find either a ϕ-legged ν-appearance **OR** a π-appearance in D. The way we solve this generalized problem is very similar, conceptually, to the way we solve the unrestricted problem; we decompose D into an $m \times m$ grid of subboxes,$D_{m,m}$, by performing gridding of D. Then, we either find π in $D_{m,m}$, or, using Lemma 3.1, conclude that there are only linearly many dense subboxes in $D_{m,m}$. At that point, we find a ϕ-legged ν-appearance by reducing it to the same problem of a ϕ'-legged ν'-freeness of smaller $\nu' \in \mathcal{S}_{r'},\ r' < r$, or, self-reducing the problem for finding ϕ-legged ν-appearance but in a sub-component D' whose size is a factor m smaller than that of the size of D. This is done in a similar way to what is described above in Case 1.
In summary, the algorithm for $\mathsf{GeneralizedTesting}_\pi(\nu)$ is very similar to the algorithm for testing π-freeness, with the same two cases, where Case 2 becomes recursion to finding appearances of a smaller permutation, and where the base case is for permutations of length 2. As we show in Section 5, formally, $\mathsf{GeneralizedTesting}_\pi(\nu)$ strictly generalizes

testing π-freeness, and hence, the formal algorithm for testing π-freeness will be a special case of GeneralizedTesting$_\pi(\nu)$.

4. Gridding

In this section, we describe an algorithm that we call Gridding (Algorithm 2), which is a common subroutine to all our algorithms. The output of Gridding, given oracle access to the function $f : [n] \to \mathbb{R}$ and a parameter $m \le n$, is an $m \times m$ grid of boxes that partitions either the grid G_n defined by f or a region inside of it into boxes, with the property that the density of each box, which we define below, is well controlled.

DEFINITION 4.1 (Density of a box). Consider index and value subsets $S \subseteq [n]$ and $I \subseteq R(f)$, respectively. The density of box(S, I), denoted by den(S, I), is the number of points in box(S, I) normalized by its size $|S|$.

DEFINITION 4.2 (Nice partition of a box). For index and value sets $S \subseteq [n]$ and $I \subseteq R(f)$ and parameter $m \le n$, we say that $\mathcal{I} = \{I_1, I_2, \ldots, I_{m'}\}$ forms a nice m-partition of box(S, I) if:

— $m' \le 2m$,

— $I_1, \ldots, I_{m'}$ are pairwise disjoint, and $\bigcup_{j \in [m']} I_j = I$. In particular, the largest value in I_j is less than the smallest value in $I_{j'}$ for $j < j'$.

— for $j \in [m']$, either den$(S, I_j) < \frac{4}{m}$ OR I_j contains exactly one value and is such that den$(S, I_j) \ge \frac{1}{2m}$. In the first case, we say that box(S, I_j) is a *single-valued layer* of box(S, I), and in the second case, we say that box(S, I_j) is a *multi-valued layer* of box(S, I).

4.1 Layering

The main part of Gridding is an algorithm Layering which is described in Algorithm 1. A similar algorithm was used by Newman and Varma [29] for estimating the length of the longest increasing subsequence in an array. Layering(S, I, m), given $S \subseteq [n], I \subseteq R(f), m \le n$ as inputs, and outputs, with probability at least $1 - 1/n^{\Omega(\log n)}$, a set $\mathcal{I}$ of intervals that is a nice m-partition of box(S, I). It works by sampling $\tilde{O}(m)$ points from box(S, I) and outputs the set $\mathcal{I}$ based on these samples. Note that both the sets S and I are either contiguous index/value intervals themselves or a disjoint union of at most k such contiguous intervals. Additionally, we always apply the algorithm Layering to boxes of density $\Omega(1/\log n)$.

CLAIM 4.3. *If* den$(S, I) > 1/\log n$*, then with probability* $1 - 1/n^{\Omega(\log n)}$*, Layering*(S, I, m) *returns a collection of intervals* $\mathcal{I} = \{I_j\}_{j=1}^{m'}$ *such that* $\mathcal{I}$ *is a nice* m*-partition of* box(S, I)*. Furthermore, it makes a total of* $m \log^4 n$ *queries.*

1: Sample a set of $m \log^4 n$ indices from S uniformly and independently at random.
2: Let U denote the multiset of points in the sample that belong to $\mathrm{box}(S, I)$ and let u denote the cardinality of U including multiplicities. If $u < m \log^2 n$, then **FAIL**.
3: We sort the multiset of values $V = \{f(p) : p \in U\}$ to form a strictly increasing sequence $\mathrm{seq} = (v'_1 < \ldots < v'_q)$, where, with each $i \in [q]$, we associate a weight w_i that equals the multiplicity of v'_i in the multiset V of values. ▷ Note that $\sum_{i \in [q]} w_i = u$.
4: We now partition the sequence $W = (w_1, \ldots, w_q)$ into maximal disjoint contiguous subsequences $W_1, \ldots W_{m''}$ such that for each $j \in [m'']$, either $\sum_{w \in W_j} w < 2u/m$, or W_j contains only one member w for which $w > u/m$.
▷ This can be done greedily as follows. If $w_1 > u/m$ then W_1 will contain only w_1, otherwise W_1 will contain the maximal subsequence $(w_1, \ldots, w_i)$ whose sum is at most $2u/m$. We then delete the members of W_1 from W and repeat the process. For $i \in [m'']$, let $w(W_i)$ denote the total weight in W_i.

Correspondingly, we obtain a partition of the sequence seq of sampled values into at most m'' subsequences $\{\mathrm{seq}_j\}_{j \in [m'']}$. Some subsequences contain only one value of weight at least u/m and are called *single-valued*. The remaining subsequences are called *multi-valued*.

For a subsequence seq_j, let $\alpha_j = \min(\mathrm{seq}_j)$ and $\beta_j = \max(\mathrm{seq}_j)$. Let $\beta_0 = \inf(I)$. Note that $\alpha_j \le \beta_j$ and $\beta_{j-1} < \alpha_j$ for all $j \in [m'']$.
5: For $j \in [m'']$, we associate with the subsequence seq_j, an interval $I_j \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, where $I_j = (\beta_{j-1}, \beta_j] \cap I$, and an approximate density $\widetilde{\mathrm{den}}(S, I_j) = w(W_j)/u$. The interval is multi-valued or single-valued depending on whether its corresponding sequence is multi-valued or single-valued, respectively.
6: For $j \in [m'']$, if the interval I_j is the disjoint union of two contiguous intervals $I_j^{(1)}$ and $I_j^{(2)}$, then drop such an interval I_j from consideration.
▷ This situation can arise since I is the disjoint union of several contiguous intervals and hence I_j can contain points from two such consecutive and contiguous subintervals of I. In this case, by definition, I_j is a multi-valued interval.
7: **Return** the set $\mathcal{I} = \bigcup_{\ell \in [m']} I_\ell$ of the remaining $m' \le m''$ intervals.

Algorithm 1. Layering(S, I, m)

PROOF. Since $\mathsf{den}(S, I) > 1/\log n$, a Chernoff bound implies that, with probability at least $1 - \exp(-(m \log^3 n)/8)$, at least $m \log^2 n$ of the sampled points fall in $\mathsf{box}(S, I)$ and the algorithm does not fail in Step 2. In the rest of the analysis, we condition on this event happening.

To prove that $m' \leq 2m$, it is enough to bound m'', which is the total number of intervals formed before some multi-valued intervals are dropped at the last step. The total number of intervals of weight at least u/m is at most m since the total weight is u. Other intervals have weight less than u/m and for each such interval I_j, it must be the case that I_{j-1} and I_{j+1} are of weight at least u/m. It follows that $m' \leq m'' \leq 2m$.

We now prove that the family $\mathcal{I}$ output by Layering is a nice m-partition of $\mathsf{box}(S, I)$. It is clear from the description of Algorithm 1 that the intervals output by the algorithm are disjoint. Let $\mathcal{B} = \{[a, b] : a, b \in I \text{ and } \exists v, w \in S \text{ such that } f(v) = a, f(w) = b\}$ denote the set of all true intervals of points from $\mathsf{box}(S, I)$. Consider an interval $[a, b] \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $\mathsf{den}(S, [a, b]) \geq \frac{4}{m}$. The probability that less than $2u/m$ points from the sample have values in the range $[a, b]$ is at most $1/n^{\Omega(\log n)}$ by a Chernoff bound. Conditioning on this event implies that for every I_j, $j \in [m']$ output as a multi-valued interval by the algorithm, we have $\mathsf{den}(S, I_j) < \frac{4}{m}$. Finally, for a single-valued interval $[a, a] \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $\mathsf{den}(S, [a, a]) < \frac{1}{2m}$, with probability at least $1 - 1/n^{\Omega(\log n)}$, we have $\widetilde{\mathsf{den}}(S, [a, a]) \leq \frac{3}{2}\mathsf{den}(S, [a, a]) < \frac{3}{4m}$, where $\widetilde{\mathsf{den}}(S, I')$ denote the estimated density (as estimated in Algorithm 1) for a layer $\mathsf{box}(S, I')$ when $I' \subseteq I$. Conditioning on this event implies that for every I_j, $j \in [m']$ output as a single-valued interval by the algorithm, we have $\mathsf{den}(S, I_j) \geq \frac{1}{2m}$.

Finally, the number of layers that get dropped is at most k, each of them is multi-valued and hence, conditioning on the above events, the density of points lost in this process is at most $\frac{k}{2m} = o(1)$. Putting all of this together, we can see that the layers form a nice m-partition of $\mathsf{box}(S, I)$.

The claim about the query complexity is clear from the description of the algorithm. ■

4.2 Gridding

Next, we describe the algorithm Gridding (see Algorithm 2).

We note that initially, at the topmost recursion level of the algorithm for π-freeness, we call Gridding with $S = [n]$, $I = (-\infty, +\infty)$ and our preferred m which is typically $m = n^{\delta}$, for some small $\delta < 1$.

We prove in Claim 4.4 that running $\mathsf{Gridding}(S, I, m)$ results in a partition of $\mathsf{box}(S, I)$ into a grid of boxes $G_{m',m'}$ in which either the marked boxes contain a π-appearance, or the union of points in the marked boxes contain *all* but an η fraction of the points in G_n, for $\eta << \varepsilon$. Additionally, with high probability, all boxes that are tagged *dense* have density at least $\frac{1}{8}$-th of the threshold β for marking a box as dense.

Input: $S \subseteq [n]$ is a union of disjoint stripes, $I \subseteq R(f)$ is a disjoint union of intervals of values in $R(f)$, $D = \text{box}(S, I)$ is the domain on which we do gridding, m is a parameter defining the 'coarse' grid size, $\beta < 1$ is a density threshold.

Output: A grid of boxes $G_{m',m'}$, $m' \leq 2m$ in which there will be $\tilde{O}(m')$ marked boxes.

1: Call Layering (Algorithm 1) on inputs S, I, m. This returns, with high probability, a set $\mathcal{I}$ of $m' \leq 2m$ value intervals $I = \bigcup_{j \in [m']} I_j$ that forms a nice m-partition of $\text{box}(S, I)$.

2: Partition S into m' contiguous intervals $S_1, \ldots S_{m'}$ each of size $|S|/m'$. This defines the grid of boxes $D_{m',m'} = \{\text{box}(S_i, I_j) : (i, j) \in [m']^2\}$ inside the larger box $\text{box}(S, I)$.

3: Sample and query, independently at random, $\frac{\log^4 n}{\beta^2}$ points from each stripe $S_i, i \in [m']$. For each $(i, j) \in [m']^2$, if $\text{box}(S_i, I_j)$ contains a sampled point, then tag that box as *marked*. If $\text{box}(S_i, I_j)$ contains at least $3\beta/4$ fraction of the sampled points in the stripe S_i, tag that box as *dense*.

4: **Return** the grid $D_{m',m'}$ along with the tags on the various boxes.

Algorithm 2. Gridding(S, I, m, β)

CLAIM 4.4. *Gridding(S, I, m, β) returns a grid of boxes $D_{m',m'}$ that decomposes $\text{box}(S, I)$. It makes $\tilde{O}(m/\beta^2)$ queries, and with high probability,*

- *The set of intervals corresponding to the layers of $D_{m',m'}$ form a nice m-partition of I.*
- *For every $i \in [m']$, either the stripe $\text{box}(S_i, I)$ contains at least $\frac{\log^2 n}{100\beta^2}$ marked boxes, or the number of points in the marked boxes in $\text{box}(S_i, I)$ is at least $(1 - \frac{1}{\log^2 n}) \cdot |S_i|$.*
- *Every box that is tagged dense has density at least $\beta/8$, and every box of density at least β is tagged as dense.*

PROOF. The bound on query complexity as well as the first item follows directly from Claim 4.3. The third item follows by a simple application of the Chernoff bound followed by a union bound over all stripes.

For the second item, fix a stripe S_i of $D_{m',m'}$. Let $T \subseteq [m']$ be the set of all $j \in [m']$ such that $\text{box}(S_i, I_j)$ gets marked during Step 3 in Gridding. If $\sum_{j \in T} \text{den}(S_i, I_j) \geq 1 - 1/(\log^2 n)$ then we are done. Otherwise, each query independently hits a box that is not marked by any of the previous queries with probability greater than $1/(\log^2 n)$. Thus, the expected number of boxes marked

is at least $\log^2 n/\beta^2$. Chernoff bound implies that, with probability at least $1 - n^{-\Omega(\log n)}$, at least $\frac{\log^2 n}{100\beta^2}$ boxes are marked. The union bound over all the stripes implies the second item. ■

5. Generalized testing of forbidden patterns

In this section, we formally define the problem of testing (or deciding) freeness from ν-appearances with a certain leg-mapping. We then provide an algorithm for a relaxation of this testing problem. Our algorithm for testing π-freeness is based on this. A description of the algorithm, and a proof sketch for the case of patterns of length 3 for specific leg-mappings is provided in Section 5.1.1. It illustrates some of the ideas for the general case, and it might be easier to follow. This is followed by an algorithm and a correctness proof for the most general case.

Recall that G_n denotes the $n \times |R(f)|$ grid that represents the input function $f : [n] \to \mathbb{R}$. Let $G_{\ell,\ell}$ be a partition of G_n into a grid of boxes for an arbitrary $\ell \geq 1$, and D be a connected component in $G_{\ell,\ell}$ containing t boxes $B_1, \ldots, B_t$. Let $\nu \in \mathcal{S}_r$, and let $\phi : [r] \mapsto \{B_1, \ldots, B_t\}$ be an arbitrary mapping of the legs of ν into the boxes of D, where $t \leq r$. We say that $1 \leq i_1 < \ldots < i_r \leq n$ is a ϕ-legged ν-appearance if $(i_1, \ldots, i_r)$ forms a ν-appearance in G_n such that the point $(i_j, f(i_j))$ is contained in the box $\phi(j)$ for each $j \in [r]$. That is, the legs of the ν-appearance are mapped into the boxes given by ϕ. For example, consider Figure 1(B), $\nu = (3, 2, 1, 4)$, and D the component formed by the two boxes in the same layer. The function ϕ maps the 3-leg and 2-leg of the ν-appearance to the left box and the 1-leg and 4-leg to the right box. The connected component D is ϕ-legged ν-free if it contains no ϕ-legged ν-appearances. It is ε-far from being ϕ-legged ν-free if the values of at least $\varepsilon \cdot |\bigcup_{j\in[t]} \mathrm{St}(B_j)|$ points belonging to D must be modified in order to make D free of ϕ-legged ν-appearances, where $\mathrm{St}(B)$ for a box B denotes the stripe corresponding to B. Note that a function could be ϕ-legged ν-free but very far from being ν-free. For example, for the ϕ referred to above in Figure 1(B), it could be that there are many appearances of $(3, 2, 1, 4)$ which are all in the left box or all in the right box or both, but there are no appearances with the leg mapping ϕ.

The property of being free of ϕ-legged ν-appearances is a generalization of the property of π-freeness. Taking $\ell = 1$, $G_{\ell,\ell}$ is just G_n itself viewed as one single box D. When $\nu = \pi$ and ϕ is the constant function that maps each leg to the unique box D, any π-appearance in G_n is a ϕ-legged ν-appearance.

The problem of testing ϕ-legged ν-freeness was not previously explicitly studied and we believe that it is an interesting research direction in its own right. Even though its complexity is not known, we encounter it only as a subproblem in the testing of standard π-freeness. This motivates the following definition.

DEFINITION 5.1. Let $\pi \in \mathcal{S}_k$, $\nu \in \mathcal{S}_r$, where $r \leq k$. Let G_n denote the $n \times |R(f)|$ grid that represents the input function $f : [n] \to \mathbb{R}$. For $\ell \geq 1$, let $G_{\ell,\ell}$ be a decomposition of G_n into

boxes. For $t \leq r$, let D be a t-boxed single component composed of the boxes $B_1, \ldots, B_t$ in $G_{\ell,\ell}$ and let $\phi : [r] \mapsto \{B_1, \ldots, B_t\}$. The problem GeneralizedTesting$_\pi(\nu, \phi, D)$ is the following. For a parameter $\varepsilon \in (0,1)$, if D is ε-far from being ϕ-legged ν-free, find a ϕ-legged ν-appearance in D **OR** find any (unrestricted) π-appearance .

Our algorithm for GeneralizedTesting$_\pi(\nu, \phi, D)$ is called AlgTest$_\pi(\nu, \phi, D, m, \varepsilon)$ and is presented in Algorithm 3. The algorithm has a permutation $\pi \in \mathcal{S}_k$ hardwired into it. It gets oracle access to a function $f : [n] \to \mathbb{R}$ and its inputs are (1) $\nu \in \mathcal{S}_r$, $r \leq k$, (2) a component D composed of the boxes $B_1, \ldots, B_t$, $t \leq r$, in a grid $G_{\ell,\ell}$ of G_n, where $\ell \geq 1$, (3) a mapping $\phi : [r] \to \{B_1, \ldots B_t\}$, (4) a distance parameter $\varepsilon \in (0,1)$, and (5) a free parameter $m \geq 2$. The parameter m is used to control the query complexity. We are not specifying ℓ explicitly here, but it is implicit in the way boxes of D are defined. If D is ε-far from being free of ϕ-legged ν-appearances, with high probability, the algorithm either finds a π-appearance or a ϕ-legged ν-appearance in D.

The algorithm is recursive. A recursion is done by reducing ν to smaller length patterns, and/or self-reduction to the same ν but on a smaller size box D'. The important base cases (see Algorithm 3) are when the size of D is small enough to allow queries to all indices in D, or when $\nu \in \mathcal{S}_2$, in which case the algorithm is reduced to testing monotonicity.

We recall that the permutation $\pi \in \mathcal{S}_k$ is fixed and hardwired into the algorithm. The grid G_n is fixed and not part of the recursion. The algorithm makes its queries to the t-boxed component D in a grid of boxes $G_{\ell,\ell}$ defined with respect to G_n (that is, a subfunction of the original function f). The first main step of the algorithm is to grid the region box(S, I) with parameter m into a grid $D_{m',m'}$ of subboxes, where $m' = O(m)$ and $S \subseteq [n]$ and $I \subseteq R(f)$ are the unions of the sets of all indices and values, respectively, in the t boxes of D. In this process of refining the existing boxes of D into subboxes, the legs of a ϕ-legged ν-appearance in D are mapped into subboxes formed by $D_{m',m'}$. The set of subboxes that contain the legs of a particular ϕ-legged ν-appearance can form a different configuration (with one or more connected components in it) than the configuration corresponding to the component D. This prompts us to make the following definitions which are used in the algorithm description.

DEFINITION 5.2. Consider a configuration C consisting of components $C_1, \ldots C_p$ for $p \in [r]$. Additionally, for $i \in [p]$ let ϕ_i be a mapping from the set of legs of a permutation ν_i to the set of boxes in C_i. The configuration C along with $\{\nu_i\}_{i\in[p]}$ and $\{\phi_i\}_{i\in[p]}$ is (ϕ, ν, D)-consistent if (1) the subboxes of the grid $D_{m',m'}$ contain a copy of C and (2) a union of the legs of ϕ_i-legged ν_i-appearances in the copies of C_i form a ϕ-legged ν-appearance in the corresponding copy of C.

If $p = 1$, then $\nu_1 = \nu$ and we say that the mapping ϕ_1 is simply (ϕ, D)-consistent.

In order to exemplify these definitions, let $\nu = (1, 3, 2)$ and let D consist of two boxes in the same layer and let ϕ map the 1, 3 legs to the box on the left and the 2 leg to the box on the right.

Input: pattern $\nu \in \mathcal{S}_r$; D is a component containing boxes $B_1,\ldots,B_t$ in $G_{\ell,\ell}$ for $t \in [r]$; the function $\phi : [r] \mapsto \{B_1,\ldots,B_t\}$ is a leg-mapping of ν into the boxes of D; parameter $m \le n$; parameter $\varepsilon \in (0,1)$.

Goal: Find a ϕ-legged ν-appearance **or** an unrestricted π-appearance in D.

Let $S = \bigcup_{i\in[t]} \mathrm{St}(B_i)$ and $I = \bigcup_{i\in[t]} L(B_i)$ define $\mathrm{box}(S,I)$ in $G_{\ell,\ell}$ that contains D.

Base cases: **Call** $\mathrm{BaseCaseAlgTest}_\pi(\nu,\phi,D,S,m,\varepsilon)$ and output what it outputs.

Gridding D: We set $\beta = \frac{\varepsilon}{200k\kappa(k)}$. Call $\mathrm{Gridding}(S,I,m,\beta)$ which returns a decomposition of $\mathrm{box}(S,I)$ into an $m' \times m'$ grid $D_{m',m'}$ of subboxes, where $m \le m' \le 2m$. A subset of these boxes in $D_{m',m'}$ are *marked* and a subset of the marked boxes are *dense*.

Simple case: If $D_{m',m'}$ contains more than $\kappa(k)\cdot m'$ marked subboxes then **output** "π-appearance is found".

Sparsification: Delete each stripe and layer in $D_{m',m'}$ that contains more than $d = 100k\kappa(k)/\varepsilon$ marked subboxes. Delete all non-dense subboxes.

Multi-component configurations: Let $c = r^{3r}$ denote an upper bound on the number of distinct configurations with at most r components. For each (ϕ,ν,D)-consistent configuration C (see Definition 5.2) with $p > 1$ many components $C_1,\ldots C_p$, sub-permutations $\nu_1,\ldots,\nu_p$ of ν and mappings $\phi_1,\ldots,\phi_p$:

1. Recursively **call** $\mathrm{AlgTest}_\pi(\nu_i,\phi_i,D_i,m,\varepsilon')$ with distance parameter $\varepsilon' = \frac{9\varepsilon}{10kcr^2\cdot r!\cdot(2d)^r}$ for *every* component D_i, where D_i is a copy of C_i in $D_{m',m'}$, and is contained in D. Note that ν_i's are smaller patterns.
2. **Output** "ϕ-legged ν-appearance is found" if for a copy $(D_1,\ldots,D_p)$ of $(C_1,\ldots,C_p)$, for each $i \in [p]$, D_i contains a ϕ_i-legged ν_i-appearance. If a π-appearance is found among the sampled points, **output** "π-appearance is found" .

Single component configurations: Let $\mathcal{A}$ be the set of all possible copies in D of (ϕ,ν,D)-consistent single-component configurations C in $D_{m',m'}$.

1. **loop** $\frac{\log^3 n}{\varepsilon^r}$ times:
2. **Sample** a member D' from $\mathcal{A}$ uniformly at random, and for each ϕ-consistent mapping ϕ' (Definition 5.2), **call** $\mathrm{AlgTest}_\pi(\nu,\phi',D',m,\varepsilon'')$ with $\varepsilon'' = \frac{9\varepsilon}{20k\cdot(2d)^r\cdot(r-1)!\cdot r^r}$.

If no output is declared in any of the previous steps, **output** "not found".

Algorithm 3. $\mathrm{AlgTest}_\pi(\nu,\phi,D,m,\varepsilon)$

Input: pattern $\nu \in \mathcal{S}_r$; D is a component containing boxes $B_1, \ldots, B_t$ in $G_{\ell,\ell}$ for $t \in [r]$; S is a set of indices encompassing the points in D; the function $\phi : [r] \mapsto \{B_1, \ldots, B_t\}$ is a leg-mapping of ν into the boxes of D; parameter m; parameter $\varepsilon \in (0, 1)$.

Goal: Find a ϕ-legged ν-appearance **or** an unrestricted π-appearance in D.

1: If $|S| \leq m$ query all indices in S. **Output** "π-appearance is found" or "ϕ-legged ν-appearance is found" if one of these is found.

2: If $k = 1$, **output** "π-appearance is found" if D contains a point.

3: If $r = 2$, use the test for restricted appearance of 2-patterns as described in the proof of Lemma 5.5. If $r = 1$, **output** "ϕ-legged ν-appearance is found" if the box $\phi(1)$ contains a point.

4: If the sampled points in D already contain a ϕ-legged ν-appearance, or contain a π-appearance then **output** "ϕ-legged ν-appearance is found" or "π-appearance is found" respectively.

Algorithm 4. BaseCaseAlgTest$_\pi(\nu, \phi, D, S, m, \varepsilon)$

The $(1, 3, 2)$-appearances in the green boxes in Figure 2 illustrate this. These appearances can belong to various possible configurations upon further gridding of the two boxes as illustrated by the various cases shown in the same figure. Specifically, the smaller orange boxes are representative of subboxes obtained upon gridding of the two green boxes. Figure 2(A) shows a (ϕ, ν, D)-consistent configuration composed of three components and Figure 2(B)-(D) show (ϕ, ν, D)-consistent configurations composed of two components. Figure 2(E)-(H) show (ϕ, ν, D)-consistent configurations with just a single component and in these cases, the leg mappings are (ϕ, D)-consistent.

We further note that our algorithm does not use any structure of π. The only role of π in the algorithm is to ensure that after gridding, the resulting grid $D_{m',m'}$ contains only $O(m)$ marked boxes as otherwise, by Lemma 3.1, a π-appearance is guaranteed.

The following theorem asserts the correctness of AlgTest$_\pi(\pi, \phi, G_n, m, \varepsilon)$ and the corresponding query complexity.

THEOREM 5.3. *Let $\pi \in \mathcal{S}_k$ and $\nu \in \mathcal{S}_r$, $r \leq k$. Let $f : [n] \to \mathbb{R}$ and let G_n denote the $n \times |R(f)|$ grid of function points. Let $\ell \geq 1$ and $G_{\ell,\ell}$ be an $\ell \times \ell$ grid decomposing G_n. Let D be a connected component in $G_{\ell,\ell}$, composed of boxes $B_1, \ldots, B_t$, $t \leq r$ and $\phi : [r] \to \{B_1, \ldots B_t\}$. Let $S = \bigcup_{i\in[t]} \mathrm{St}(B_i)$ and $I = \bigcup_{i\in[t]} L(B_i)$. Let $\varepsilon \in (0, 1)$. Let $m = k|S|^\eta$ for $\eta \in \left(\Omega\left(\frac{1}{\log\log\log n}\right), 1\right)$. Let a be the smallest integer such that $m^a \geq k^{a-1}|S|$. If D is ε-far from ϕ-legged ν-freeness, then*

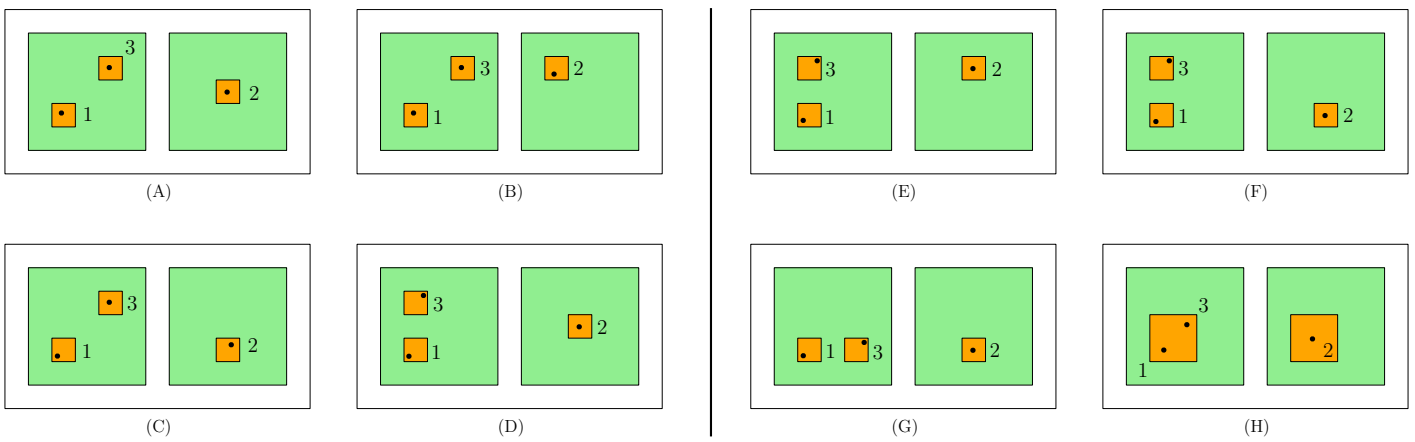

Figure 2. $(1,3,2)$-appearances with legs spread across two green boxes sharing a layer resulting in new configurations upon further gridding of the boxes into smaller orange boxes.

$\mathsf{AlgTest}_\pi(\nu, \phi, D, m, \varepsilon)$ *finds either a* ϕ*-legged* ν*-appearance or a* π*-appearance, with probability at least* $1 - o(1)$*. Its query complexity is* $\tilde{O}\left(m^r \left(\frac{k}{\varepsilon}\right)^{\Theta(k^a)}\right)$*, where the* $\tilde{O}(\cdot)$ *notation hides polylogarithmic factors in* n*.*

We note that since $\mathsf{AlgTest}_\pi(\nu, \phi, D, m, \varepsilon)$ either finds a π-appearance or a ϕ-legged ν-appearance in D, then if D is free of ϕ-legged ν-appearances, the algorithm will never return such an appearance.

Our π-freeness tester is simply $\mathsf{AlgTest}_\pi(\pi, \phi, G_n, m, \varepsilon)$, where ϕ is the constant function mapping each leg to the entire grid G_n and $m = kn^{1/a}$ for an integer parameter $a \leq \log\log\log n$ that we can control.

COROLLARY 5.4. *There is a* 1*-sided error test for* π*-freeness of functions of the form* $f : [n] \to \mathbb{R}$*, for every* $\pi \in \mathcal{S}_k$*, with query-complexity* $\tilde{O}(\left(\frac{k}{\varepsilon}\right)^{\Theta(k^a)} \cdot n^{k/a})$*, for integer* $a \leq \log\log\log n$*.*

5.1 Proof of Correctness

In Section 5.1.1, we start with a description of the algorithm and the proof sketch for the first non-base case of testing ϕ-legged ν-freeness for $\nu \in \mathcal{S}_r$, $r = 3$, with respect to an arbitrary $\pi \in \mathcal{S}_k$ and fixed $k \geq 4$. In Section 5.1.2, we present the proof of Theorem 5.3.

5.1.1 An example for $\nu \in \mathcal{S}_3$

For this exposition, we fix $\nu = (1, 3, 2)$, and D being composed of 2 boxes B_1, B_2 in the same layer, where B_1 is to the left of B_2, and ϕ maps the 1, 3 legs of ν to B_1, and the 2-leg to B_2. See Figure 2(D) for an illustration of one such case. In the figure, the green boxes represent B_1 and B_2. The orange boxes indicate the subboxes in the finer grid formed when gridding is called on the green boxes.

We note that Figure 2(D) illustrates the hardest case for $\nu \in \mathcal{S}_3$. There are additional one-component configurations in which the boxes are in the same stripe or layer, but these turn out to be much easier. We will set $m = m(n)$ to be defined later and express the complexity as a function of m. We do not specify π since, as explained above, π is only needed at Step 4 of the algorithm when the number of marked boxes is superlinear in m in some recursive call. The argument here holds for any $\pi \in \mathcal{S}_k,\ k \geq 4$.

Algorithm to test ϕ-legged ν-freeness. Let $\nu = (1, 3, 2)$ and ϕ be such that $\phi(1) = \phi(3) = B_1$ and $\phi(2) = B_2$.

1. We assume that B_1, B_2 are over $s \leq n$ indices each, and that the distance of $B_1 \cup B_2$ from ϕ-legged ν-freeness is at least $\varepsilon = \Omega(1)$. In particular B_1, B_2 are dense. In Step 3 of Algorithm 3, we grid the appropriate box containing $B_1 \cup B_2$ (as defined in Step 1 of Algorithm 3) into a $m' \times m'$ grid, $D_{m',m'}$, of subboxes (each over $2s/m'$ indices), where $m \leq m' \leq 2m$. We either find a π-appearance among the sampled points or we may assume, after Steps 4 and 5 that there are $O(m')$ dense subboxes in $D_{m',m'}$ and that each layer and each stripe contains $O(1)$ dense boxes. The latter claim is obtained by an averaging argument and is described in the formal proof in Section 5.1.2. The argument is that if $B_1 \cup B_2$ contains a large matching of ϕ-legged ν-appearances, then so does the restricted domain after deleting points from non-dense boxes as well as and deleting layers and stripes that contain too many dense boxes from $D_{m',m'}$. These steps take $\tilde{O}(m)$ queries overall, which is the complexity of the algorithm Gridding.
2. A ϕ-legged ν-appearance in $B_1 \cup B_2$ can be in 8 possible configurations in the grid $D_{m',m'}$, as depicted in Figure 2. Consider first $C_1, \ldots, C_4$ as in Figure 2(A)-(D), that form 2 or 3 components each. For these, a ϕ-legged ν-appearance in $B_1 \cup B_2$ decomposes into two or three subpatterns, and for which any restricted appearances in the corresponding components results in a ϕ-legged ν-appearance. For example, in Figure 2(B) the configuration C_2 contains one component $D_1 = (B_{1,3}, B_{2,2})$, where $B_{1,3} \in B_1, B_{2,2} \in B_2$, and another single boxed component $B_{1,1} \in B_1$, where $B_{i,j}$ is the orange subbox contained within the green box B_i and such that the j-th leg belongs to $B_{i,j}$ for $i \in [2], j \in [3]$.
   In Step 6 of Algorithm 3, we test each of the $O(m)$ many copies of D_1 for a ϕ'-legged $(2, 1)$-appearance for which $\phi'(2) = B_{1,3}$ and $\phi'(1) = B_{2,2}$. Then for any such D_1-copy in which such a ϕ'-legged $(2, 1)$-appearance is found, any nonempty dense box $B_{1,1}$ forming with D_1 a copy of C_2 results in a ϕ-legged ν-appearance.
   Since this is a reduction to generalized 2-pattern appearance, the recursion stops here with $O(\log n)$-complexity per copy of D_1. Hence, altogether this will contribute a total of $\tilde{O}(m)$ queries. Procedures along the same lines work for any of $C_i,\ i = 1, 2, 3, 4$.
   If a desired ϕ-legged ν-appearance (or a π-appearance) is found in the above process, then clearly a correct output is produced.

On the other hand, if indeed (B_1, B_2) contains $\Omega(s)$ (that is, linear in the size of $B_1 \cup B_2$) many ϕ-legged ν-appearances that are consistent with one of the configurations C_i, $i \in [4]$, then, by an averaging argument, there will be such a D_1 and corresponding $B_{1,1}$ that together contribute $\Omega(s/m)$ (that is, linear in the domain size of D_1) such subpattern appearances.

We note that for the more general case of $r > 3$, the reduction will be done in higher complexity per component (that is dependent on m rather than just $O(\log n)$).

3. Consider now a consistent configuration C_i for $i = 5, 6, 7, 8$ that forms a single component (with 2 or 3 orange subboxes) as illustrated in Figure 2(E)-(H). In these cases, if such appearances contribute ε' to the total distance, then a simple averaging argument shows that for a uniformly sampled component, its distance from ϕ-legged ν-freeness will be linear. Hence in Step 7, sampling such a component will enable us to recursively find a ϕ-legged ν-appearance with high probability. Since the size of a component on which the recursive call is made is $\Theta(s/m)$, the complexity of this step is $\tilde{O}(q(s/m, \varepsilon'))$, where $q(s, \delta)$ is the complexity of the algorithm, for the case of $\nu \in \mathcal{S}_3$, in terms of the size s of D, and a distance parameter δ.

Correctness. The correctness of the algorithm follows from the fact that if D is indeed far from being ϕ-legged ν-free, then it must be that there are linearly many ϕ-legged ν-appearances in at least one of the 8 configurations discussed above, and for each case, either a π-appearance or a ϕ-legged ν-appearance is found, by induction. Note however, that there is a drop in the distance parameter from ε to ε', due to the deletion of points in Step 5 of the algorithm, and the averaging arguments resulting in the call with smaller distance parameters at Step 6 and Step 7. This does not matter as long as ε' is kept constant (or even $1/\log n$), forcing the recursion depth to be bounded from above by a constant.

Query complexity. We now analyze the query complexity of the algorithm for the special case described above. The parameter m is to be interpreted as the *query budget* of the algorithm. We abuse notation and use s to indicate the total number of indices that the component D contains. Let a be the smallest integer such that $m^a \geq s$. This parameter a denotes the recursion depth of our algorithm and we express our recurrence relation in terms of a. Let $t(m, a)$ denote the query complexity of the above algorithm with parameter m for functions over a domain of size $s \leq m^a$. We omit the dependence of the query complexity on ε and assume that $\varepsilon = \Theta(1)$ for the purposes of this high level description.

For the base case, we have $a = 1$. Then, $q(m, 1) = m = \Theta(s)$ since the algorithm can query all the indices and still be within the query budget.

If $a > 1$, ignoring polylog factors, we have $t(m, a) = m + m + t(m, a-1)$. The first summand here is the number of queries made by the Gridding. The second summand is the number of

queries made by Step 2 above (corresponding to Step 6 in Algorithm 3). The last summand denotes the query complexity of the recursive call on a subbox of size $\Theta(s/m)$ with the same m, for which the recursion depth is $a-1$.

The recurrence implies that $t(a,m) = \tilde{O}(am)$, which implies a query complexity s^{δ} by choosing $m = s^{\delta}$. We note that for $\delta = \Omega(1)$ the recursion depth is $a = 1/\delta = O(1)$ as indeed needed to keep the distance parameter constant. Moreover, for $\delta = 1/\log\log\log n$, the distance parameter $\varepsilon' = \Omega(1/\log n)$ at all recursion levels and the complexity becomes $s^{o(1)}$.

5.1.2 Formal Proof of Theorem 5.3 for general $\nu \in \mathcal{S}_r$

We now provide the formal proof of Theorem 5.3. In what follows, we refer to the steps in the description of $\mathsf{AlgTest}_{\pi}(\nu, \phi, D, m, \varepsilon)$ (see Algorithm 3). Let S, I be as defined in the algorithm (based on the component that D contains). The proof is by induction on the parameters a and r as defined in the statement of Theorem 5.3. To recall, a is the smallest integer for which $m^a \geq k^{a-1}|S|$ and indicates the recursion depth of the algorithm.

Base Cases. For completeness we start with the base cases (see Algorithm 4). One of them is when $a = 1$, which is equivalent to $m \geq |S|$, in which case the algorithm queries all indices in S and solves the problem correctly with probability 1. The other base case is when $r = 2$, which is the same as testing for restricted ν-appearance for a 2-pattern ν. That is, the input is $\nu \in \mathcal{S}_2$, a component D with at most two boxes, a leg mapping function ϕ and the distance parameter ε. There is no need of π as we will show how to test ϕ-legged ν-freeness unconditionally. Lastly, the only 2-pattern up to isomorphism is $\nu = (2,1)$ which is assumed to be the input.

LEMMA 5.5. *Let D be a connected component in G_n and ϕ a leg mapping for $\nu = (2,1)$ into the boxes of D. Let $S \subseteq [n]$ denote the set of indices belonging to the boxes in D. For any $\varepsilon > 0$ there is a 1-sided error ε-tester for ϕ-legged ν-freeness in D with query complexity $O((\log|S|)/\varepsilon)$.*

PROOF. The component D has at most 2 boxes since ν is a pattern of length 2. If D is a single box $\mathrm{box}(S, I)$, then the problem is identical to erasure-resilient monotonicity testing, where the points belonging to D are the nonerased points and the points (x, y) with $x \in S$ and $y \notin I$ are erased. In this case, we can use an existing $O((\log|S|)/\varepsilon)$-query erasure-resilient tester [16], since D is dense and contains a constant fraction of points in the stripe defined by S.

In the rest, we assume that D is composed of exactly two boxes $D = B_1 \cup B_2$, and $\phi(i) = B_i,\ i = 1, 2$. Consider first the case where the boxes are on the same layer and B_1 is on the left of B_2. A ϕ-legged ν-appearance in this case is constituted by $(i, j) \in \mathrm{St}(B_1) \times \mathrm{St}(B_2)$ such that $f(i) > f(j)$. The ε-tester is as follows.

1. Sample $O(1/\varepsilon)$ indices independently and uniformly at random from each one of the stripes $\mathrm{St}(B_1)$ and $\mathrm{St}(B_2)$.

2. Reject if there exists indices i, j in the sample such that $(i, f(i)) \in B_1$, $(j, f(j)) \in B_2$ and $f(i) > f(j)$; accept otherwise.

The tester has 1-sided error and has query complexity $O(1/\varepsilon)$. We now show that if D is ε-far from ϕ-legged ν-freeness, then the tester above rejects with constant probability. Let $s = |\operatorname{St}(B_1)|$. It must be the case that D has a matching M of ϕ-legged ν-appearances of cardinality at least εs. Let α be the median value of the 2-legs in this matching. Namely, there are at least $\varepsilon s/2$ pairs in M with the value of the left leg $> \alpha$. Thus, the probability of a sampled index $x \in \operatorname{St}(B_1)$ to be a 2-leg in M and with $f(x) > \alpha$ is at least $\varepsilon/2$. By the same argument, for half the pairs in M their 2-leg value is below α and, for each such pair, its corresponding 1-leg in B_2 has a lower value than α. Hence with probability at least $\varepsilon/2$, a random query $y \in B_2$ will be such that $f(y) < \alpha$. We conclude that if these two events occur we find the required pair. These two events happen with probability at least $1 - 2(1 - \varepsilon/2)^{\ell} > 2/3$ for an appropriate number of queries $\ell = O(1/\varepsilon)$. This ends the proof for this case.

The other case is when B_1 and B_2 are on the same stripe. A similar tester with a similar correctness argument is applicable for this case as well. ■

General Case. Let $\pi \in \mathcal{S}_k$ be fixed and let $\nu \in \mathcal{S}_r$, where $r \leq k$. Assume that we call the algorithm $\mathsf{AlgTest}_{\pi}(\nu, \phi, D, m, \varepsilon)$, where D is a single component (in some grid of boxes $G_{\ell,\ell}$) containing the boxes $B_1, B_2, \ldots, B_t$, $t \leq r$. Let $S = \bigcup_{j\in[t]} \operatorname{St}(B_j)$ and $I = \bigcup_{j\in[t]} L(B_j)$.

In what follows, we show that if D is ε-far from being ϕ-legged ν-free, the call to the algorithm $\mathsf{AlgTest}_{\pi}(\nu, \phi, D, m, \varepsilon)$ finds a ϕ-legged ν-appearance or a π-appearance w.h.p. This will complete the proof of correctness. We assume, for simplicity, that f is one-to-one (see note at the end of this section for handling the case when f is not one-to-one).

The first step of Algorithm 3 is Step 3, which is a call to $\mathrm{Gridding}(S, I, m, \beta)$, where $\beta = \varepsilon/(200k\kappa)$. By Claim 4.4, we know that w.h.p. this call returns a decomposition of $\mathsf{box}(S, I)$ into an $m' \times m'$ grid of subboxes $D_{m',m'}$, $m \leq m' \leq 2m$, where a subset of boxes are marked and a subset of these marked boxes are dense w.r.t. the threshold β. Additionally, the set of intervals $\mathcal{I} = \{I_j\}_{j\in[m']}$ corresponding to the layers of $D_{m',m'}$ form a nice m-partition (see Definition 4.2) of $\mathsf{box}(S, I)$. Since f is one-to-one, there are no single-valued layers and hence, for each $j \in [m']$, it holds that $\mathsf{den}(S, I_j) \leq 4/m$.

In the next stage (Step 4 of AlgTest), the algorithm checks whether the marked boxes of $D_{m',m'}$ directly contain a π-appearance. Such an appearance corresponds to an actual appearance in f by Observation 2.4. Hence, we either find a π-appearance and we are done, or we conclude by Lemma 3.1 that $D_{m',m'}$ has at most $\kappa m'$ marked boxes. Then, in Step 5 of AlgTest we delete all points in each layer and each stripe that contains more than d marked boxes. We additionally delete all points in all the non-dense boxes.

CLAIM 5.6. *If D is ε-far from ϕ-legged ν-free, then the union of dense boxes that remain after Step 5 in Algorithm 3 contains a matching M' of ϕ-legged ν-appearances of cardinality at least $\frac{9\varepsilon|S|}{10k}$.*

PROOF. Since $D_{m',m'}$ contains at most $\kappa m'$ marked boxes, it follows that at most $\frac{\kappa}{d} = \frac{\varepsilon}{100k}$ fraction of the layers have more than d marked boxes. Hence, using the bound on the density of each layer (due to the nice m-partition of $\mathrm{box}(S, I)$) from Claim 4.4, deleting the points in these marked boxes deletes at most $\frac{\varepsilon}{100k} m' \cdot \frac{4}{m} \cdot |S| \leq \frac{8\varepsilon|S|}{100k}$ points from D. By a similar argument, the number of points that get deleted by removing stripes with more than d marked boxes is at most $\frac{\varepsilon|S|}{100k}$. Moreover, by the third item of Claim 4.4, we know that the total number of points that belong to marked boxes that are not tagged dense by AlgTest is at most $\beta \frac{|S|}{m'} \cdot \kappa m' \leq \frac{\varepsilon|S|}{200k}$, where the inequality follows by our setting of β. Finally, combining the second item in Claim 4.4 with the fact that we delete each stripe containing more than $d = \frac{100k\kappa}{\varepsilon}$ marked boxes, for each stripe that is left, the marked boxes contain at least $1 - 1/(\log^2 n)$ fraction of the points in it. Hence, the total number of points deleted in Step 5 of Algorithm 3 is at most $\frac{8\varepsilon|S|}{100k} + \frac{\varepsilon|S|}{100k} + \frac{\varepsilon|S|}{200k} + \frac{|S|}{\log^2 n} \leq \frac{\varepsilon|S|}{10k}$.

Recall that we assume that D is ε-far from being ϕ-legged ν-free. This implies that it contains a matching of ϕ-legged ν-appearances of size at least $\varepsilon|S|/k$. For the rest of this proof, we fix such a matching M. Since each deleted point deletes at most 1 member from M, there is a matching M' of cardinality at least $\frac{\varepsilon|S|}{k} - \frac{\varepsilon|S|}{10k} \geq \frac{9\varepsilon|S|}{10k}$ with all legs in the set of dense boxes remaining after Step 5. ■

We can partition M' into a collection of disjoint matchings $M' = \bigcup_{i\in[r]} M_i$, where M_i contains the ϕ-legged ν-appearances in M' belonging to configuration copies in $D_{m',m'}$ that have i components. Recall that all the legs of every ϕ-legged ν-appearance in M' belong to the single component D made of the boxes $B_1, \ldots, B_t$. However, with respect to the grid $D_{m',m'}$, each such ν-appearance has a corresponding leg mapping that maps the legs of the appearance to boxes in $D_{m',m'}$, which are actually subboxes of $B_1, \ldots, B_t$. Some of the leg mappings of ν-appearances to subboxes might result in configurations with multiple components in the finer grid $D_{m',m'}$.

It follows that either M_1 or $\bigcup_{i\in[r-1]} M_{i+1}$ has cardinality at least $\frac{9\varepsilon|S|}{20k}$. Let $\varepsilon_1 = 9\varepsilon/(20k)$.

CLAIM 5.7. *If $|M_1| \geq \varepsilon_1|S|$, then with high probability, Algorithm 3 finds a ϕ-legged ν-appearance or a π-appearance in Step 7.*

PROOF. The number of 1-component configuration copies in the grid $D_{m',m'}$ that share a dense box and contain at most r boxes is at most $(r-1)! \cdot (2d)^{r-1}$. Combined with the fact that the total number of dense boxes is at most dm', we can see that the number of distinct copies of 1-component configurations with at most r boxes is at most $dm' \cdot (r-1)! \cdot (2d)^{r-1}$.

Therefore, in expectation, a uniformly random copy of a 1-component configuration with at most r boxes contains at least $\frac{\varepsilon_1|S|}{dm' \cdot (r-1)!(2d)^{r-1}}$ many ν-appearances from M_1. These ν-appearances each could have different leg mappings that are each (ϕ, D)-consistent (see Definition 5.2). There

are at most r^r ways to map the r legs of v into at most r boxes. Thus, in expectation, a uniformly random 1-component copy C and a uniformly random (ϕ, D)-consistent mapping of r legs into the boxes of C correspond to at least $\frac{\varepsilon_1|S|}{dm' \cdot (r-1)! (2d)^{r-1} \cdot r^r}$ many v-appearances from M_1.

By the reverse Markov's inequality[4], with probability at least $\frac{\varepsilon_1}{(2d)^r \cdot (r-1)! r^r}$, the number of ϕ'-legged v-appearances in a uniformly random one-component configuration copy for a uniformly random (ϕ, D)-consistent leg mapping ϕ' is at least $\frac{\varepsilon_1|S|}{m'(2d)^r \cdot (r-1)! r^r}$. Therefore, w.h.p., at least one of the $\frac{\log^3 n}{\varepsilon^{r+1}}$ sampled one-component configuration C and an associated (ϕ, D)-consistent leg-mapping ϕ' contains at least $\frac{\varepsilon_1|S|}{m'(2d)^r \cdot (r-1)! r^r}$ many ϕ'-legged v-appearances. Conditioned on this event, the sub-grid restricted to this component is at least $\frac{\varepsilon_1}{(2d)^r \cdot (r-1)! r^r}$-far from being free of ϕ'-legged v appearances. By the induction hypothesis, the recursive call in Algorithm 3 in Step 7 with parameter $\varepsilon'' = \frac{\varepsilon_1}{(2d)^r \cdot (r-1)! r^r}$ will detect, with high probability, one such ϕ'-legged v-appearance, which is also a ϕ-legged v-appearance in D. ■

Next, we consider the case that $|\bigcup_{i \in [r-1]} M_{i+1}| \geq \varepsilon_1 \cdot |S|$. We start by presenting the following definitions and claims. Let ℓ be a positive integer. Let $H \subseteq [\ell]^t$ be a collection of weighted ordered t-tuples. Each t-tuple $\mathbf{a} \in H$ is associated with a positive weight $w(\mathbf{a})$. We use w_H to denote $\sum_{\mathbf{a} \in H} w(\mathbf{a})$, i.e., the sum of weights of all elements in H. Let $\mathbf{a}_i$ denote the i-th coordinate in $\mathbf{a}$. For $x \in [\ell]$ and $i \in [t]$, let $w_i(x) = \sum_{\mathbf{a} \in H : \mathbf{a}_i = x} w(\mathbf{a})$. Namely, $w_i(x)$ is the sum of weights of elements in H that have the value x in their i-th coordinate.

DEFINITION 5.8. For H with $w_H = \ell p$, we say that $x \in [\ell]$ is (i, α)-heavy if $w_i(x) \geq \alpha p$.

CLAIM 5.9. *Let $H \subseteq [\ell]^t$ be such that $w_H = p\ell$. Then for every $\alpha \leq \frac{1}{t}$, there exists $\mathbf{a} \in H$ such that for every $i \in [t]$, $\mathbf{a}_i$ is (i, α)-heavy.*

PROOF. For any fixed $i \in [t]$, $\sum_{x \in [\ell]} w_i(x) = w_H = p\ell$. On the other hand, the sum of weight of values $x \in [\ell]$, each that is not (i, α)-heavy is less than $\ell \cdot \alpha p$ by definition. Therefore, the set of all $\mathbf{a} \in H$ in which for some $i \in [t]$, $\mathbf{a}_i$ is not (i, α)-heavy has a total weight less than $t\ell \cdot \alpha p \leq p\ell$, since $\alpha \leq \frac{1}{t}$. Hence, removing all such tuples from H leaves at least one tuple $\mathbf{a}' \in H$. By definition, for every $i \in [t]$, $\mathbf{a}'$ is (i, α)-heavy. ■

CLAIM 5.10. *If $|\bigcup_{i \in [r-1]} M_{i+1}| \geq \varepsilon_1 \cdot |S|$, then with high probability, Algorithm 3 finds a ϕ-legged v-appearance or a π-appearance in Step 6.*

PROOF. Consider $2 \leq h \leq r$ such that $|M_h| \geq \varepsilon_1 |S|/r$. There are at most $c = r^{3r}$ configurations with $\leq r$ boxes along with their associated mappings of r legs into those boxes. Consider a (ϕ, v, D)-consistent (see Definition 5.2) h-component configuration C along with corresponding leg mappings $\{\phi_i\}_{i \in [h]}$ and sub-patterns $\{v_i\}_{i \in [h]}$ such that there are at least $|M_h|/c$ appearances in M_h that form the configuration C. Let V be the set of all 1-component configuration copies

4 Let X be a random variable such that $\Pr[X \leq a] = 1$ for some constant a. Then, for $d < E[X]$, we have $\Pr[X > d] \geq \frac{\mathbf{E}[X]-d}{a-d}$.

made up of at most r dense boxes in $D_{m',m'}$. Let $H \subseteq V^h$ be the (hyper)graph over the vertex set V, where $(C_1, C_2 \dots C_h) \in H$ if it is a copy of C. Its weight, denoted $w(C_1, C_2 \dots C_h)$, is the number of ϕ-legged ν-appearances in M_h such that each one of them decomposes, for $i \in [h]$, into ϕ_i-legged ν_i-appearances in C_i. It must be the case that $w_H \geq \varepsilon_1 |S|/(cr)$, as each member in M_h forming the configuration C contributes to w_H.

This corresponds to the setting of Claim 5.9 with $t = h$ and $\ell = |V|$. In addition, since $\ell = |V| \leq dm' \cdot (2d)^{r-1} \cdot (r-1)!$, it follows that $w_H = \ell \cdot \frac{w_H}{\ell} \geq \ell \cdot \frac{\varepsilon_1}{c2^{r-1}d^r r!} \cdot \frac{|S|}{m}$ which corresponds to $p = \frac{\varepsilon_1}{c2^{r-1}d^r r!} \cdot \frac{|S|}{m}$. Finally, for $\tilde{C} \in V$ and $i \in [h]$, the quantity $w_i(\tilde{C})$ is the number of ϕ-legged ν-appearances in M_h forming the configuration C, where the legs of the ν_i subpattern are ϕ_i-mapped to $\tilde{C}$.

Let $\alpha = \frac{1}{r} \leq \frac{1}{h} = \frac{1}{t}$ for the application of Claim 5.9. As a result, Claim 5.9 guarantees that there is an h-tuple $(C_1, C_2, \dots C_h) \in V^h$ consistent with a copy of C, contains a ϕ-legged ν-appearance consistent with C, and for which, each of $C_1, C_2 \dots C_h$ are α-heavy (see Definition 5.8). In turn, this means that for each $i \in [h]$, the component C_i is ε'-far from being ϕ_i-legged ν_i-free, where $\varepsilon' = \frac{p\alpha}{r|S|/m} = \frac{\varepsilon_1}{cr^2 \cdot r! \cdot 2^{r-1} \cdot d^r}$. This additionally implies that the overall density of the marked boxes involved in each $C_i, i \in [h]$ is also at least ε'. This, in turn, implies that each test for ϕ_i-legged ν_i-freeness in C_i for $i \in [h]$ (with the corresponding distance parameter ε'), that is done in Step 6, is going to succeed with very high probability by the induction hypothesis. ■

This concludes the proof of correctness for all cases, assuming inductively correctness for $r-1$ and $a-1$. Since at each recursive call we decrease a by 1, the recursion depth is at most a. In particular, as the distance parameter ε decreases by a constant factor (assuming k and a are constants), namely, that is independent of n or $|S|$, we conclude that it remains constant at all recursion levels.

Query Complexity. We now analyze the query complexity of a call to $\mathsf{AlgTest}_\pi(\nu, \phi, D, m, \varepsilon)$. We fix $m = m(|S|)$ and write the complexity in terms of m, where S is the set of indices of D as defined in the algorithm. For this fixed m (that is not going to be changed during recursive calls), let a be the smallest integer for which $m^a \geq k^{a-1}|S|$.

LEMMA 5.11. *Algorithm 3 makes* $\tilde{O}\left(a! \cdot m^r \cdot \left(\frac{k}{\varepsilon}\right)^{\Theta(k^a)}\right)$ *queries.*

PROOF. We express the query complexity as $q(m, a, r, \varepsilon)$, where the integer a here denotes the recursion depth. Recall that S, I are as defined in the algorithm (based on the component D contains). One of the boundary cases is when ν has length 2 and we have $q(m, a', 2, \varepsilon) = O\left(\frac{\log |S|}{\varepsilon}\right) = \tilde{O}(1/\varepsilon)$ from Lemma 5.5 for $a' \leq a, \varepsilon \in (0,1)$. The other boundary case is for $q(m, 1, r', \varepsilon)$ for $\varepsilon \in (0,1), r' \leq r$, i.e., the query complexity after $a-1$ recursive calls. Since the size of the domain on which the algorithm is called decreases by a factor of at most k/m with each recursive call, the final domain size is at most $\left(\frac{k}{m}\right)^{a-1} \cdot |S| \leq m$ and the algorithm can query every index in the domain at that level. Therefore $q(m, 1, r', \varepsilon) = m$ for all $\varepsilon \in (0,1), r' \leq r$.

We now write the recurrence for the general case by ignoring polylog factors. We have

$$q(m,a,r,\varepsilon) = m \cdot \frac{k^2}{\varepsilon^2} + m \cdot \left(\frac{k}{\varepsilon}\right)^{\Theta(k)} q(m,a-1,r-1,\varepsilon^{(1)}) + \left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon}\right)^{\Theta(k)} q(m,a-1,r,\varepsilon^{(1)}),$$

where $\varepsilon^{(1)} = \left(\frac{\varepsilon}{k}\right)^{\Theta(k)}$. The first term on the right comes from the gridding of D. The second term comes from recursively calling the algorithm for each one of the possible m components in D for the constantly many smaller patterns and constantly many consistent leg-mappings (Step 6), and the third item from the self recursion in Step 7.

We can solve the recurrence above to get the solution $q(m,a,r,\varepsilon) = a! \cdot m^r \cdot \left(\frac{k}{\varepsilon}\right)^{\Theta(k^a)}$. As long as $a \leq \log\log\log n$, the distance parameter at the lowest recursion levels is $\Omega(1/\log n)$, which is allows us to call the 2-pattern testers (one of the base cases) in $\tilde{O}(1)$ query complexity. ■

A note on single-valued layers: In case the function is not one-to-one, the subroutine Layering may discover single-valued layers if there are such values of large enough density. The first place where this might have an impact is at Step 5 of AlgTest, where we delete all layers that contain more than a constant number of marked boxes. The modification is that we apply this step only on multi-valued layers. Hence, single-valued layers will possibly remain with more than d marked boxes. However, Claim 4.4 remains unchanged.

We used the fact that every layer has at most d marked boxes to conclude that every marked box that may be involved in a v-appearance is contained in at most $(r-1)!(2d)^r$ components of at most r boxes. This claim is still true since a v-appearance cannot have two or more legs in a single valued layer. Hence, each connected component that contains a v-appearance, can contain at most one box from each single-valued layer. It follows that all our arguments go through even in this setting. The only difference is that we also consider components containing at most one marked box per single-valued layer.

Acknowledgements. We thank anonymous reviewers for their extensive comments that significantly improved the presentation of the manuscript.

References

[1] **Shlomo Ahal and Yuri Rabinovich**. On complexity of the subpattern problem. *SIAM Journal on Discrete Mathematics*, 22(2):629–649, 2008. DOI (2)

[2] **Michael H. Albert**, **Robert E. L. Aldred**, **Mike D. Atkinson**, **and Derek A. Holton**. Algorithms for pattern involvement in permutations. *Algorithms and Computation, 12th International Symposium, ISAAC 2001, Proceedings*, volume 2223 of *Lecture Notes in Computer Science*, pages 355–366. Springer, 2001. DOI (2)

[3] **Noga Alon and Ehud Friedgut**. On the number of permutations avoiding a given pattern. *Journal of Combinatorial Theory, Series A*, 89(1):133–140, 2000. DOI (1)

[4] **Noga Alon**, **Michael Krivelevich**, **Ilan Newman**, **and Mario Szegedy**. Regular languages are testable with a constant number of queries. *SIAM Journal on Computing*, 30(6):1842–1862, 2000. DOI (7)

[5] **Richard Arratia**. On the Stanley-Wilf conjecture for the number of permutations avoiding a given pattern. *The Electronic Journal of Combinatorics*, 6:1–4, 1999. DOI (1)

[6] **Aleksandrs Belovs**. Adaptive lower bound for testing monotonicity on the line. *Approximation, Randomization, and Combinatorial Optimization. Algorithms and Techniques, APPROX/RANDOM 2018*, 31:1–31:10, 2018. DOI (2, 7)

[7] **Omri Ben-Eliezer and Clément L. Canonne**. Improved bounds for testing forbidden order patterns. *Proceedings of the Twenty-Ninth Annual ACM-SIAM Symposium on Discrete Algorithms, SODA 2018*, pages 2093–2112. SIAM, 2018. DOI (1–3)

[8] **Omri Ben-Eliezer**, **Clément L. Canonne**, **Shoham Letzter**, **and Erik Waingarten**. Finding monotone patterns in sublinear time. *60th IEEE Annual Symposium on Foundations of Computer Science, FOCS 2019*, pages 1469–1494. IEEE Computer Society, 2019. DOI (2, 17)

[9] **Omri Ben-Eliezer**, **Shoham Letzter**, **and Erik Waingarten**. Finding monotone patterns in sublinear time, adaptively. *49th International Colloquium on Automata, Languages, and Programming, ICALP 2022, July 4-8, 2022, Paris, France*, volume 229 of *LIPIcs*, 17:1–17:19. Schloss Dagstuhl - Leibniz-Zentrum für Informatik, 2022. DOI (2, 3)

[10] **Benjamin Aram Berendsohn**, **László Kozma**, **and Dániel Marx**. Finding and counting permutations via CSPs. *Algorithmica*, 83(8):2552–2577, 2021. DOI (2)

[11] **Donald J. Berndt and James Clifford**. Using dynamic time warping to find patterns in time series. *Knowledge Discovery in Databases: Papers from the 1994 AAAI Workshop, 1994. Technical Report WS-94-03*, pages 359–370. AAAI Press, 1994. URL (2)

[12] **Arnab Bhattacharyya**, **Elena Grigorescu**, **Kyomin Jung**, **Sofya Raskhodnikova**, **and David P. Woodruff**. Transitive-closure spanners. *SIAM Journal on Computing*, 41(6):1380–1425, 2012. DOI (2)

[13] **Miklós Bóna**. Exact and asymptotic enumeration of permutations with subsequence conditions. PhD thesis, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, 1997. URL (1)

[14] **Miklós Bóna**. The solution of a conjecture of Stanley and Wilf for all layered patterns. *Journal of Combinatorial Theory, Series A*, 85(1):96–104, 1999. DOI (1)

[15] **Deeparnab Chakrabarty and C. Seshadhri**. Optimal bounds for monotonicity and Lipschitz testing over hypercubes and hypergrids. *Proceedings of the ACM Symposium on Theory of Computing (STOC) 2013*, pages 419–428, 2013. DOI (2)

[16] **Kashyap Dixit**, **Sofya Raskhodnikova**, **Abhradeep Thakurta**, **and Nithin Varma**. Erasure-resilient property testing. *SIAM Journal on Computing*, 47(2):295–329, 2018. DOI (2, 6, 14, 32)

[17] **Yevgeniy Dodis**, **Oded Goldreich**, **Eric Lehman**, **Sofya Raskhodnikova**, **Dana Ron**, **and Alex Samorodnitsky**. Improved testing algorithms for monotonicity. *RANDOM-APPROX, 1999, Proceedings*, pages 97–108, 1999. DOI (2)

[18] **Funda Ergün**, **Sampath Kannan**, **Ravi Kumar**, **Ronitt Rubinfeld**, **and Mahesh Viswanathan**. Spot-checkers. *Journal of Computer and System Sciences*, 60(3):717–751, 2000. DOI (2)

[19] **Eldar Fischer**. On the strength of comparisons in property testing. *Information and Computation*, 189(1):107–116, 2004. DOI (2)

[20] **Jacob Fox**. Stanley-Wilf limits are typically exponential. *CoRR*, abs/1310.8378, 2013. URL (2)

[21] **Jacob Fox and Fan Wei**. Fast property testing and metrics for permutations. *Combinatorics, Probability and Computing*, 27(4):539–579, 2018. DOI (7)

[22] **Oded Goldreich**, **Shafi Goldwasser**, **and Dana Ron**. Property testing and its connection to learning and approximation. *Journal of ACM*, 45(4):653–750, 1998. DOI (2)

[23] **Sylvain Guillemot and Dániel Marx**. Finding small patterns in permutations in linear time. *Proceedings of the Twenty-Fifth Annual ACM-SIAM Symposium on Discrete Algorithms, SODA 2014*, pages 82–101. SIAM, 2014. DOI (2)

[24] **Eamonn J. Keogh**, **Stefano Lonardi**, **and Bill Yuan-chi Chiu**. Finding surprising patterns in a time series database in linear time and space. *Proceedings of the Eighth ACM SIGKDD International Conference on Knowledge Discovery and Data Mining, KDD 2002*, pages 550–556. ACM, 2002. DOI (2)

[25] **Martin Klazar**. The Füredi-Hajnal conjecture implies the Stanley-Wilf conjecture. *In: Krob, D., Mikhalev, A.A., Mikhalev, A.V. (eds) Formal Power Series and Algebraic Combinatorics*, pages 250–255. Springer, 2000. DOI (1)

[26] **Adam Marcus and Gábor Tardos**. Excluded permutation matrices and the Stanley-Wilf conjecture. *Journal of Combinatorial Theory, Series A*, 107(1):153–160, 2004. DOI (1, 4, 7, 15)

[27] **Michael Mitzenmacher and Saeed Seddighin**. Improved sublinear time algorithm for longest increasing subsequence. *Proceedings of the 2021 ACM-SIAM Symposium on Discrete Algorithms, SODA 2021*, pages 1934–1947. SIAM, 2021. DOI (4)

[28] **Ilan Newman**, **Yuri Rabinovich**, **Deepak Rajendraprasad**, **and Christian Sohler**. Testing for forbidden order patterns in an array. *Random Structures and Algorithms*, 55(2):402–426, 2019. DOI (1–3, 6, 14, 17)

[29] **Ilan Newman and Nithin Varma**. New sublinear algorithms and lower bounds for LIS estimation. *48th International Colloquium on Automata, Languages, and Programming, ICALP 2021*, volume 198 of *LIPIcs*, 100:1–100:20. Schloss Dagstuhl - Leibniz-Zentrum für Informatik, 2021. DOI (4, 6–8, 21)

[30] **Ramesh Krishnan S. Pallavoor**, **Sofya Raskhodnikova**, **and Nithin Varma**. Parameterized property testing of functions. *ACM Transactions on Computation Theory*, 9(4):17:1–17:19, 2018. DOI (2, 7)

[31] **Pranav Patel**, **Eamonn J. Keogh**, **Jessica Lin**, **and Stefano Lonardi**. Mining motifs in massive time series databases. *Proceedings of the 2002 IEEE International Conference on Data Mining (ICDM 2002)*, pages 370–377. IEEE Computer Society, 2002. DOI (2)

[32] **Ronitt Rubinfeld and Madhu Sudan**. Robust characterizations of polynomials with applications to program testing. *SIAM Journal on Computing*, 25(2):252–271, 1996. DOI (2)

[33] **Aviad Rubinstein**, **Saeed Seddighin**, **Zhao Song**, **and Xiaorui Sun**. Approximation algorithms for LCS and LIS with truly improved running times. *60th IEEE Annual Symposium on Foundations of Computer Science, FOCS 2019*, pages 1121–1145, 2019. DOI (4)

[34] **Michael E. Saks and C. Seshadhri**. Estimating the longest increasing sequence in polylogarithmic time. *SIAM Journal on Computing*, 46(2):774–823, 2017. DOI (4)