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Faster algorithms for 1-mappability of a sequence

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\textbf{Abstract.} In the $k$-mappability problem, we are given a string $x$ of length $n$ and integers $m$ and $k$, and we are asked to count, for each length-$m$ factor $y$ of $x$, the number of other factors of length $m$ of $x$ that are at Hamming distance at most $k$ from $y$. We focus here on the version of the problem where $k = 1$. The fastest known algorithm for $k = 1$ requires time $O(mn \log n / \log \log n)$ and space $O(n)$. We present two new algorithms that require worst-case time $O(mn)$ and $O(n \log n \log \log n)$, respectively, and space $O(n)$, thus greatly improving the state of the art. Moreover, we present another algorithm that requires average-case time and space $O(n)$ for integer alphabets of size $\sigma$ if $m = \Omega(\log \sigma n)$. Notably, we show that this algorithm is generalizable for arbitrary $k$, requiring average-case time $O(kn)$ and space $O(n)$ if $m = \Omega(k \log \sigma n)$.

\section{Introduction}

The focus of this work is directly motivated by the well-known and challenging application of genome re-sequencing—the assembly of a genome directed by a reference sequence. New developments in sequencing technologies\cite{14} allow whole-genome sequencing to be turned into a routine procedure, creating sequencing data in massive amounts. Short sequences, known as \textit{reads}, are produced in huge amounts (tens of gigabytes); and in order to determine the part of the genome from which a read was derived, it must be mapped (aligned) back to some reference sequence that consists of a few gigabases. A wide variety of short-read alignment techniques and tools have been published in the past years to address the challenge of efficiently mapping tens of millions of reads to a

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genome, focusing on different aspects of the procedure: speed, sensitivity, and accuracy [10]. These tools allow for a small number of errors in the alignment.

The $k$-mappability problem was first introduced in the context of genome analysis in [6] (and in some sense earlier in [2]), where a heuristic algorithm was proposed to approximate the solution. The aim from a biological perspective is to compute the mappability of each region of a genome sequence; i.e. for every factor of a given length of the sequence, we are asked to count how many other times it occurs in the genome with up to a given number of errors. This is particularly useful in the application of genome re-sequencing. By computing the mappability of the reference genome, we can then assemble the genome of an individual with greater confidence by first mapping the segments of the DNA that correspond to regions with low mappability. Interestingly, it has been shown that genome mappability varies greatly between species and gene classes [6].

Formally, we are given a string $x$ of length $n$ and integers $m < n$ and $k < m$, and we are asked to count, for each length-$m$ factor $y$ of $x$, the number of other length-$m$ factors of $x$ that are at Hamming distance at most $k$ from $y$.

Example 1. Consider the string $x = \text{aabaaabbbb}$ and $m = 3$. The following table shows the $k$-mappability counts for $k = 0$ and $k = 1$.

| position | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|----------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| factor occurrence | aab | aba | baa | aaa | aab | abb |bbb |bbb |
| 0-mappability | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| 1-mappability | 3 | 2 | 1 | 4 | 3 | 5 | 2 | 2 |

For instance, consider the position 0. The 0-mappability is 1, as the factor aab occurs also at position 4. The 1-mappability at this position is 3 due to the occurrence of aab at position 4 and occurrences of two factors at Hamming distance 1 from aab: aaa at position 3 and abb at position 5.

The 0-mappability problem can be solved in $O(n)$ time with the well-known LCP data structure [8]. For $k = 1$, to the best of our knowledge, the fastest known algorithm is by Manzini [13]. This solution runs in $O(mn \log n / \log \log n)$ time and $O(n)$ space and works only for strings over a constant-sized alphabet. Since the problem for $k = 0$ can be solved in $O(n)$ time, one may focus on counting, for each length-$m$ factor $y$ of $x$, the number of other factors of $x$ that are at Hamming distance exactly 1 — instead of at most 1 — from $y$.

Our contributions. Here we make the following threefold contribution:

(a) We present an algorithm that, given a string $x$ of length $n$ over an integer alphabet of size $\sigma > 1$ and a positive integer $m = \Omega(\log_\sigma n)$, solves the 1-mappability problem for $x$ in average-case time $O(n)$ and space $O(n)$. Notably, we show that this algorithm is generalizable for arbitrary $k$.

(b) We present an algorithm that, given a string of length $n$ over an integer alphabet and a positive integer $m$, solves the 1-mappability problem in $O(mn)$ time and $O(n)$ space.
(c) We present an algorithm that, given a string of length $n$ over a constant-sized alphabet and a positive integer $m$, solves the 1-mappability problem in $O(\min\{mn, n \log n \log \log n\})$ time and $O(n)$ space, thus improving on the algorithm of [13] that requires $O(mn \log n / \log \log n)$ time and $O(n)$ space.

2 Preliminaries

Let $x = x[0]x[1] \ldots x[n-1]$ be a string of length $|x| = n$ over a finite ordered alphabet $\Sigma$ of size $|\Sigma| = \sigma = O(1)$. We also consider the case of strings over an integer alphabet, where each letter is replaced by its rank in such a way that the resulting string consists of integers in the range $\{1, \ldots, n\}$.

For two positions $i$ and $j$ on $x$, we denote by $x[i..j] = x[i] \ldots x[j]$ the factor (sometimes called substring) of $x$ that starts at position $i$ and ends at position $j$ (it is of length 0 if $j < i$). By $\varepsilon$ we denote the empty string of length 0. We recall that a prefix of $x$ is a factor that starts at position 0 ($x[0..j]$) and a suffix of $x$ is a factor that ends at position $n-1$ ($x[i..n-1]$). We denote the reverse string of $x$ by $\text{rev}(x)$, i.e. $\text{rev}(x) = x[n-1]x[n-2] \ldots x[1]x[0]$.

Let $y$ be a string of length $m$ with $0 < m \leq n$. We say that there exists an occurrence of $y$ in $x$, or, more simply, that $y$ occurs in $x$, when $y$ is a factor of $x$. Every occurrence of $y$ can be characterised by a starting position in $x$. Thus we say that $y$ occurs at the starting position $i$ in $x$ when $y = x[i..i+m-1]$.

The Hamming distance between two strings $x$ and $y$, $|x| = |y|$, is defined as $d_H(x,y) = |\{i : x[i] \neq y[i], i = 0, 1, \ldots, |x|-1\}|$. If $|x| \neq |y|$, we set $d_H(x,y) = \infty$.

If two strings $x$ and $y$ are at Hamming distance $k$, we write $x \approx_k y$.

The computational problem in scope can be formally stated as follows.

| 1-MAPPABILITY |
|----------------|
| **Input:** A string $x$ of length $n$ and an integer $m$, where $1 \leq m < n$ |
| **Output:** An integer array $C$ of size $n-m+1$ such that $C[i]$ stores the number of factors of $x$ that are at Hamming distance 1 from $x[i..i+m-1]$ |

2.1 Suffix array and suffix tree

Let $x$ be a string of length $n > 0$. We denote by $\text{SA}$ the suffix array of $x$. $\text{SA}$ is an integer array of size $n$ storing the starting positions of all (lexicographically) sorted non-empty suffixes of $x$, i.e. for all $1 \leq r < n$ we have $x[\text{SA}[r-1]..n-1] < x[\text{SA}[r]..n-1]$ [12]. Let $lcp(r,s)$ denote the length of the longest common prefix between $x[\text{SA}[r]..n-1]$ and $x[\text{SA}[s]..n-1]$ for positions $r, s$ on $x$. We denote by $\text{LCP}$ the longest common prefix array of $x$ defined by $\text{LCP}[r] = lcp(r-1,r)$ for all $1 \leq r < n$, and $\text{LCP}[0] = 0$. The inverse $\text{iSA}$ of the array $\text{SA}$ is defined by $\text{iSA}[\text{SA}[r]] = r$, for all $0 \leq r < n$. It is known that $\text{SA}$, $\text{iSA}$, and $\text{LCP}$ of a string of length $n$, over an integer alphabet, can be computed in time and space $O(n)$ [15, 8]. It is then known that a range minimum query (RMQ) data structure over the $\text{LCP}$ array, that can be constructed in $O(n)$ time and $O(n)$ space [3], can answer $\text{lcp}$-queries in $O(1)$ time per query [12]. A symmetric construction on
rev(x) can answer the so-called longest common suffix (lcs) queries in the same complexity. The lcp and lcs queries are also known as longest common extension (LCE) queries.

The suffix tree \( T(x) \) of string \( x \) is a compact trie representing all suffixes of \( x \). The nodes of the trie which become nodes of the suffix tree are called explicit nodes, while the other nodes are called implicit. Each edge of the suffix tree can be viewed as an upward maximal path of implicit nodes starting with an explicit node. Moreover, each node belongs to a unique path of that kind. Thus, each node of the trie can be represented in the suffix tree by the edge it belongs to and an index within the corresponding path. The label of an edge is its first letter.

We let \( L(v) \) denote the path-label of a node \( v \), i.e., the concatenation of the edge labels along the path from the root to \( v \). We say that \( v \) is path-labelled \( L(v) \).

Additionally, \( D(v) = |L(v)| \) is used to denote the string-depth of node \( v \). Node \( v \) is a terminal node if its path-label is a suffix of \( x \), that is, \( L(v) = x[i..n-1] \) for some \( 0 \leq i < n \); here \( v \) is also labelled with index \( i \). It should be clear that each factor of \( x \) is uniquely represented by either an explicit or an implicit node of \( T(x) \). In standard suffix tree implementations, we assume that each node of the suffix tree is able to access its parent. Once \( T(x) \) is constructed, it can be traversed in a depth-first manner to compute \( D(v) \) for each node \( v \).

It is known that the suffix tree of a string of length \( n \), over an integer alphabet, can be computed in time and space \( O(n) \) [7]. For integer alphabets, in order to access the children of an explicit node by the first letter of their edge label, perfect hashing [11] can be used.

### 3 Efficient Average-Case Algorithm

In this section we assume that \( x \) is a string over an integer alphabet \( \Sigma \). For clarity of presentation, we first describe the algorithm for \( k = 1 \) and then show how it can be generalized for arbitrary \( k \). Recall that if two strings \( y \) and \( z \) are at Hamming distance 1, we write \( y \approx_1 z \).

**Fact 2 (Folklore).** Given two strings \( y \) and \( z \) of length \( m \), we have that if \( y \approx_1 z \), then \( y \) and \( z \) share at least one factor of length \( \lfloor m/2 \rfloor \).

**Fact 3.** Given a string \( x \) and any two positions \( i, j \) on \( x \), we have that if \( x[i..i+m-1] \approx \lfloor m/3 \rfloor \), then \( x[i..i+m-1] \) and \( x[j..j+m-1] \) have at least one common factor of length \( L = \lfloor m/3 \rfloor \) starting at positions \( i' \in \{i, \ldots, i+m-L\} \) and \( j' \in \{j, \ldots, j+m-L\} \) of \( x \), such that \( i' - i = j' - j \) and \( i' \equiv 0 \pmod{L} \).

**Proof.** It should be clear that every factor of \( x \) of length \( m \) fully contains at least two factors of length \( L \) starting at positions equal to 0 mod \( L \). Then, if \( x[i..i+m-1] \) and \( x[j..j+m-1] \) are at Hamming distance 1, analogously to Fact 2, at least one of the two factors of length \( L \) that are fully contained in \( x[i..i+m-1] \) occurs at a corresponding position in \( x[j..j+m-1] \); otherwise we would have a Hamming distance greater than 1. \( \square \)
We first initialize an array $C$ of size $n - m + 1$, with 0 in all positions; for all $i$, $C[i]$ will eventually store the number of factors of $x$ that are at Hamming distance 1 from $x[i \ldots i + m - 1]$. We apply Fact 3 by implicitly splitting the string $x$ into $B = \lfloor \frac{n}{m/3} \rfloor$ blocks of length $L = \lfloor m/3 \rfloor$—the suffix of length $n \text{ mod } m/3$ is not taken as a block—starting at the positions of $x$ that are equal to 0 mod $L$. In order to find all pairs of length-$m$ factors that are at Hamming distance 1 from each other, we can find all the exact matches of every block and try to extend each of them to the left and to the right, allowing at most one mismatch. However, we need to tackle some technical details to correctly update our counters and avoid double counting.

We start by constructing the SA and LCP arrays for $x$ and $\text{rev}(x)$ in $O(n)$ time. We also construct RMQ data structures over the LCP arrays for answering LCE queries in constant time per query. By exploiting the LCP array information, we can then find in $O(n)$ time all maximal sets of indices such that the longest common prefix between any two of the suffixes starting at these indices is at least $L$ and at least one of them is the starting position of some block.

Then for each such set, denoted by $P$, we have to do the following procedure for each index $i \in P$ such that $i \equiv 0 \pmod{L}$.

For every other $j \in P$, we try to extend the match by asking two LCE queries in each direction. I.e., we ask an $\text{lcs}(i - 1, j - 1)$ query to find the first mismatch positions $\ell_1$ and $\ell_1'$, respectively, and then $\text{lcs}(\ell_1 - 1, \ell_1' - 1)$ to find the second mismatch ($\ell_2$ and $\ell_2'$, respectively). A symmetric procedure computes the mismatches $r_1, r_1'$ and $r_2, r_2'$ to the right, as shown in Figure 1. We omit here some technical details with regards to reaching the start or end of $x$.

![Diagram of two LCE queries](image)

Fig. 1: Performing two LCE queries in each direction.

Now we are interested in positions $p$ such that $\ell_2 < p \leq \ell_1$ and $i + L - 1 \leq p + m - 1 < r_1$ and positions $q$ such that $\ell_1 < q \leq i$ and $r_1 \leq q + m - 1 < r_2$. Each such position $p$ (resp. $q$) implies that $x[p \ldots p + m - 1] \approx_1 x[p' \ldots p' + m - 1]$, where $p' = j - (i - p)$. Henceforth, we only consider positions of the type $p, p'$.

Note that if $x[p \ldots p + m - 1] \approx_1 x[p' \ldots p' + m - 1]$, we will identify the unordered pair $\{p, p'\}$ based on the described approach $t_{p,p'}$ times, where $t_{p,p'}$ is the total number of full blocks contained in $x[p \ldots p + m - 1]$ and in $x[p' \ldots p' + m - 1]$ after the mismatch position. It is not hard to compute the number $t_{p,p'}$ in $O(1)$ time based on the starting positions $p$ and $p'$ as well as $\ell_1$ and $r_1$ each time we
identify \( x[p..p+m-1] \approx_1 x[p'..p'+m-1] \). To avoid double counting, we then increment the \( C[p] \) and \( C[p'] \) counters by \( 1/t_{p,p'} \).

By \( \text{EXT}_{i,j} \) we denote the time required to process a pair of elements \( i,j \) of a set \( P \) such that at least one of them, \( i \) or \( j \), equals 0 mod \( L \).

**Lemma 4.** The time \( \text{EXT}_{i,j} \) is \( O(m) \).

**Proof.** Given \( i,j \in P \), with at least one of them equal to 0 mod \( L \), we can find the pairs \( (p,p') \) of positions that satisfy the inequalities discussed above in \( O(m) \) time. They are a subset of \( \{(i-m+L,j-m+L),\ldots,(i-1,j-1)\} \). For each such pair \( (p,p') \) we can compute \( t_{p,p'} \) and increment \( C[p] \) and \( C[p'] \) accordingly in \( O(1) \) time. The total time to process all pairs \( (p,p') \) for given \( i,j \) is thus \( O(m) \).

It should be clear that the aforementioned algorithm is generalizable for arbitrary \( k \). We proceed with proving the following theorem.

**Theorem 5.** Given a string \( x \) of length \( n \) over an integer alphabet \( \Sigma \) of size \( \sigma > 1 \) with the letters of \( x \) being independent and identically distributed random variables, uniformly distributed over \( \Sigma \), the \( k \)-mappability problem can be solved in average-case time \( O(kn) \) and space \( O(n) \) if \( m \geq (k+2) \cdot (\log \sigma n + 1) \).

**Proof.** The time and space required for constructing the SA and LCP array for \( x \) and \( \text{rev}(x) \) and the RMQ data structures over the LCP arrays is \( O(n) \).

Let \( B \) denote the number of blocks over \( x \) and \( L \) be the block length. We set

\[
L = \left\lfloor \frac{m}{k+2} \right\rfloor, \quad B = \left\lfloor \frac{n}{L} \right\rfloor
\]

and apply the pigeon-hole principle: at least one block must be an exact match (generalization of Fact 3). Recall that by \( P \) we denote a maximal set of indices of the LCP array such that the length of the longest common prefix between any two suffixes starting at these indices is at least \( L \) and at least one of them is the starting position of some block. Processing all such sets \( P \) requires time

\[
\text{EXT}_{i,j} \cdot \text{Occ}
\]

where \( \text{EXT}_{i,j} \) is the time required to process a pair \( i,j \) of elements of a set \( P \); and \( \text{Occ} \) is the sum of the multiples of the cardinality of each set \( P \) times the number of the elements of set \( P \) that are equal to 0 mod \( L \). We generalize Lemma 4 for arbitrary \( k \), showing that \( \text{EXT}_{i,j} = O(m) \) as follows. We perform at most \( 2k+2 \) longest common extension queries (to the left and to the right); list all \( O(k) \) blocks that do not contain a mismatch within these extensions; and then consider \( O(m) \) positions to be updated. Additionally, by the stated assumption on the string \( x \), the expected value for \( \text{Occ} \) is no more than \( \frac{Bn}{\sigma^L} \).

Hence, the algorithm on average requires time

\[
O(n + m \cdot \frac{B \cdot n}{\sigma^L}).
\]
Let \( m = (k + 2)q + r \), for \( 0 \leq r \leq k + 1 \), \( q \geq 1 \); note that here we assume that \( m \geq k + 2 \); further note that \( \lfloor m/(k + 2) \rfloor = q \). If \( q \) satisfies \( n \leq \sigma^q \) we have

\[
m \cdot B = \frac{m \cdot \lfloor \frac{n}{m/(k+2)} \rfloor}{\sigma^{\lfloor m/(k+2) \rfloor}} \leq \frac{m \cdot \frac{n}{q}}{\sigma^q} \leq \frac{m}{q} = \frac{(k+2)q + r}{q}
\]

\[
= k + 2 + \frac{r}{q} \leq 2k + 3.
\]

Consequently, in the case when

\[
m \geq (k + 2) \cdot (\log_\sigma n + 1)
\]

we have that

\[
mB \cdot n \leq (2k + 3)n
\]

and hence the algorithm requires \( \mathcal{O}(kn) \) time on average. The extra space usage is \( \mathcal{O}(n) \).

We thus obtain the following corollary with respect to the 1-mappability problem; namely, for \( k = 1 \).

**Corollary 6.** Given a string \( x \) of length \( n \) over an integer alphabet \( \Sigma \) of size \( \sigma > 1 \) with the letters of \( x \) being independent and identically distributed random variables, uniformly distributed over \( \Sigma \), the 1-mappability problem can be solved in average-case time \( \mathcal{O}(n) \) and space \( \mathcal{O}(n) \) if \( m \geq 3 \cdot \log_\sigma n + 3 \).

### 4 Efficient Worst-Case Algorithms

#### 4.1 \( \mathcal{O}(mn) \)-time and \( \mathcal{O}(n) \)-space algorithm

In this section we assume that \( x \) is a string over an integer alphabet \( \Sigma \). The main idea is that we want to first find all pairs \( x[i_1 \ldots i_1 + m - 1] \approx_1 x[i_2 \ldots i_2 + m - 1] \) that have a mismatch in the first position, then in the second, and so on.

Let us fix \( 0 \leq j < m \). In order to identify the pairs \( x[i_1 \ldots i_1 + m - 1] \approx_1 x[i_2 \ldots i_2 + m - 1] \) with \( x[i_1 + j] \neq x[i_2 + j] \) (i.e., with the mismatch in the \( j \)th position), we do the following. For every \( i = 0, 1, \ldots, n - m \), we find the explicit or implicit node \( u_{i,j} \) in \( \mathcal{T}(x) \) that represents \( x[i \ldots i + j - 1] \) and the node \( v_{i,j} \) in \( \mathcal{T}(\text{rev}(x)) \) that represents \( \text{rev}(x[i + j + 1 \ldots i + m - 1]) = \text{rev}(x)[n - i - m \ldots n - i - j - 2] \). In each such node \( v_{i,j} \), we create a set \( V(v_{i,j}) \)—if it has not already been created—and insert the triple \( (u_{i,j}, x[i + j], i) \).

When we have done this for all possible starting positions of \( x \), we group the triples in each set \( V(v) \) by the node variable (i.e., the first component in the triples). For each such group in \( V(v) \) we count the number of triples that have each letter of the alphabet and increment array \( C \) accordingly. More precisely, if \( V(v) \) contains \( q \) triples that correspond to the same node \( u \), among which \( r \) correspond to the letter \( c \in \Sigma \), then for each such triple \( (u, c, i) \in V(v) \) we
increment $C[i]$ by $q - r$; we subtract $r$ to avoid counting equal factors in $C$. Before we proceed with the computations for the next index $j$, we delete all the sets $V(v)$. We formalize this algorithm, denoted by 1-MAP, in the pseudocode presented below and provide an example.

1-MAP($x, n, m$)
1 $T(x) \leftarrow$ SuffixTree($x$)
2 $T(\text{rev}(x)) \leftarrow$ SuffixTree($\text{rev}(x)$)
3 for string-depth $j = 0$ to $m - 1$ do
4     for $i = 0$ to $n - m$ do
5         $u_{i,j} \leftarrow$ NODE$_{T(x)}([x[i..i+j-1]])$
6         $v_{i,j} \leftarrow$ NODE$_{T(\text{rev}(x))}([n-i..n-m..i-j-2])$
7         Insert $(u_{i,j}, x[i+j], i)$ to $V(v_{i,j})$
8     for every node $v$ of string-depth $m - j - 2$ in $T(\text{rev}(x))$ do
9         Group triples in $V(v)$ by the node variable
10        for a group corresponding to the node $u$ in $V(v)$ do
11            Count number of triples with each letter $c \in \Sigma$
12            Update $C[i]$ accordingly for each triple $(u, c, i)$
13        Delete $V(v)$

Example 7. Suppose we have $V(v) = \{(u, \sigma, i_1), (u, \sigma, i_2), (u, \sigma, i_3), (u, \sigma, i_4), (u, \sigma, i_5), (u, \sigma, i_6), (u, \sigma, i_7), (u, \sigma, i_8), (u, \sigma, i_9)\}$, for some distinct positions $i_1, i_2, \ldots, i_9$. We then increment $C[i_1], C[i_2], C[i_3], C[i_4], C[i_5], C[i_6]$ by 6; $C[i_7]$ and $C[i_8]$ by 7; and $C[i_9]$ by 8.

We now analyze the time complexity of this algorithm. The algorithm iterates $j$ from 0 to $m - 1$. In the $j^{th}$ iteration, we need to compute $\{u_{i,j}, v_{i,j} \mid i = 0, \ldots, n-m\}$. When $j = 0$, $u_{i,0}$ for every $i$ is the root of $T(x)$ and we can find $v_{i,0}$ for all $i$ naively in $O(nm)$ time. For $j > 0$, $v_{i, j}$ can be found in $O(1)$ time from $v_{i, j-1}$ by moving one letter up in $T(\text{rev}(x))$ for all $i$, while $u_{i, j}$ can be obtained from $u_{i, j-1}$ by going down in $T(x)$ based on letter $x[i+j]$. We then include $(u_{i,j}, x[i+j], i)$ in $V(v_{i,j})$.

This requires in total $O(mn)$ randomized time due to perfect hashing [11] which allows to go down from a node in $T(x)$ (or in $T(\text{rev}(x))$) based on a letter in $O(1)$ randomized time. We can actually avoid this randomization, as queries for a particular child of a node are asked in our solution in a somewhat off-line fashion: we use them only to compute $v_{i,0}$ ($m$ times) and $u_{i,j}$ (from $u_{i,j-1}$).

Observation 8. For an integer alphabet $\Sigma = \{1, \ldots, n\}$, one can answer off-line $O(n)$ queries in $T(x)$ asking for a child of an explicit or implicit node $u$ labelled with the letter $c \in \Sigma$ in (deterministic) $O(n)$ time.

Proof. A query for an implicit node $u$ is answered in $O(1)$ time, as there is only one outgoing edge to check. All the remaining queries can be sorted lexicographically as pairs $(u, c)$ using radix sort. We can also assume that the children of every explicit node of $T(x)$ are ordered by the letter (otherwise we also radix sort them). Finally, all the queries related to a node $u$ can be answered in one go by iterating through the children list of $u$ once. $\Box$
Lastly, we use bucket sort to group the triples for each $V(v)$ according to the node variable (recall that the nodes are represented by the edge and the index within the edge) and update the counters in $O(n)$ time in total (using a global array indexed by the letters from $\Sigma$, which is zeroed in $O(|V(v)|)$ time after each $V(v)$ has been processed). Overall the algorithm requires $O(mn)$ time. The suffix trees require $O(n)$ space and we delete the sets $V(v_{i,j})$ after the $j^{th}$ iteration; the space complexity of the algorithm is thus $O(n)$. We obtain the following result.

**Theorem 9.** Given a string of length $n$ over an integer alphabet and an integer $m$, where $1 \leq m < n$, the 1-mappability problem can be solved in $O(mn)$ time and $O(n)$ space.

**Remark 10.** Theorem 9 can also be obtained via utilising the gapped suffix array data structure (see [5] for an efficient construction algorithm).

### 4.2 $O(n \log n \log \log n)$-time and $O(n)$-space algorithm

In this section we assume that $x$ is a length-$n$ string over an ordered alphabet $\Sigma$, where $|\Sigma| = \sigma = O(1)$. Consider two factors of $x$ represented by nodes $u$ and $v$ in $T(x)$; we observe that the first mismatch between the two factors is the first letter of the labels of the distinct outgoing edges from the lowest common ancestor of $u$ and $v$ that lie on the paths from the root to $u$ and $v$. For 1-mappability we require that what follows this mismatch is an exact match.

**Definition 11.** Let $T$ be a rooted tree. For each non-leaf node $u$ of $T$, the heavy edge $(u,v)$ is an edge for which the subtree rooted at $v$ has the maximal number of leaves (in case of several such subtrees, we fix one of them). The heavy path of a node $v$ is a maximal path of heavy edges that passes through $v$ (it may contain 0 edges). The heavy path of $T$ is the heavy path of the root of $T$.

Consider the suffix tree $T(x)$ and its node $u$. We say that an (explicit or implicit) node $v$ is a level ancestor of $u$ at string-depth $\ell$ if $D(v) = \ell$ and $L(v)$ is a prefix of $L(u)$. The heavy paths of $T(x)$ can be used to compute level ancestors of nodes in $O(\log n)$ time. However, a more efficient data structure is known.

**Lemma 12 ([1]).** After $O(n)$-time preprocessing on $T(x)$, level ancestor queries of nodes of $T(x)$ can be answered in $O(\log \log n)$ time per query.

**Definition 13.** Given a string $x$ and a factor $y$ of $x$, we denote by $\text{range}(x,y)$ the range in the SA of $x$ that represents the suffixes of $x$ that have $y$ as a prefix.

Every node $u$ in $T(x)$ corresponds to an SA range $I_u = \text{range}(x,L(u)) = (u_{\min}, u_{\max})$. We can precompute $I_u$ for all explicit nodes $u$ in $T(x)$ in $O(n)$ time while performing a depth-first traversal of the tree as follows. For a non-terminal node $v$ with children $u^1, \ldots, u^q$, we set $v_{\min} = \min\{v_{\min}^i\}$ and $v_{\max} =$
max_i{u^i_{\text{max}}}. If \( v \) is a terminal node (with children \( u^1, \ldots, u^q \)), representing the suffix \( x[j..n-1] \), we set \( v_{\text{min}} = \text{iSA}[j] \) and \( v_{\text{max}} = \max\{\text{iSA}[j], \max_i\{u^i_{\text{max}}\}\} \). When a considered node \( v \) is implicit, say along an edge \((p,q)\), then \( I_v = I_q \).

Our algorithm relies heavily on the following auxiliary lemmas.

**Lemma 14.** Consider a node \( u \) in \( T(x) \) with \( p = \mathcal{L}(u) \). Let \( \text{suffix}(u,\ell) \) be the node \( v \) such that \( \mathcal{L}(v) = p[\ell..|p| - 1] \). Given the SA and the iSA of \( x \), \( v \) can be computed in \( O(\log \log n) \) time after \( O(n) \)-time preprocessing.

**Proof.** The SA range of the node \( u \) is \( I_u = (u_{\text{min}}, u_{\text{max}}) \); \( u_{\text{min}} \) corresponds to the suffix \( x[\text{SA}[u_{\text{min}}]..n-1] \). By removing the first \( \ell \) letters, the suffix becomes \( x[\text{SA}[u_{\text{min}}] + \ell..n-1] \). The corresponding SA value is \( v_{\text{min}} = \text{iSA}[\text{SA}[u_{\text{min}}] + \ell] \).

Let \( v_1 \) be the node of \( T(x) \) such that \( \mathcal{L}(v_1) = x[\text{SA}[v_{\text{min}}]..n-1] \). The sought node \( v \) is the ancestor of \( v_1 \) located at string-depth \( |p| - \ell \). It can be computed in \( O(\log \log n) \) time using the level ancestor data structure of Lemma 12.

**Lemma 15.** Let \( u \) and \( v \) be two nodes in \( T(x) \). We denote \( \mathcal{L}(u) \) by \( p_1 \) and \( \mathcal{L}(v) \) by \( p_2 \). We further denote by \( \text{concat}(u,v) \) the node \( w \) such that \( \mathcal{L}(w) = p_1 p_2 \). Given the SA and the iSA of \( x \), as well as range\((x,p_1)\) and range\((x,p_2)\), \( w \) can be located in \( O(\log \log n) \) time after \( O(n \log \log n) \)-time and \( O(n) \)-space preprocessing.

**Proof.** We can compute \( \text{range}(x,p_1 p_2) = (w_{\text{min}}, w_{\text{max}}) \) in \( O(\log \log n) \) time after \( O(n \log \log n) \)-time and \( O(n) \)-space preprocessing [9]; we can then locate \( w \) in \( O(\log \log n) \) time using the level ancestor data structure of Lemma 12.

We are now ready to present an algorithm for 1-mappability that requires \( O(n \log n \log \log n) \) time and \( O(n) \) space. The first step is to build \( T(x) \). We then make every node \( u \) of string-depth \( m \) explicit in \( T(x) \) and initialize a counter \( \text{Count}(u) \) for it. For each explicit node \( u \) in \( T(x) \), the SA range \( I_u = \text{range}(x, \mathcal{L}(u)) \) is also stored. We also identify the node \( v_c \) with path-label \( c \) for each \( c \in \Sigma \) in \( O(\sigma) = O(1) \) time.

Fig. 2: Illustration; the heavy path of \( T(x) \) is shown in red.
**PerformCount** ($T, m$)

1. $HP ← \text{HeavyPath}(T)$
2. for each side-tree $S_i$ attached to a node $u$ on $HP$ with $D(u) < m$ do
3.   Let $(u, v)$ be the edge that connects $S_i$ to $HP$
4.   $c ←$ the edge label of $(u, v)$
5.   $d ←$ the edge label of the heavy edge $(u, u')$
6.   for each node $z$ in $S_i$ with $D(z) = m$ do
7.     $w ← \text{suf}(z, D(u) + 1)$
8.     for each $c' \neq c$, label of an outgoing edge from $u$ do
9.       $t ← \text{concat}(u, \text{concat}(v, w))$
10.      $\text{Count}(z) ← \text{Count}(z) + |I_z|$
11.     $z' ← \text{concat}(u, \text{concat}(v, w))$
12.     $\text{Count}(z') ← \text{Count}(z') + |I_z|$
13.     **PerformCount**($S_i, m - D(u)$)

We then call **PerformCount**($T(x), m$), which does the following (inspect also the pseudocode above and Figure 2). At first, a heavy path $HP$ of $T(x)$ is computed. Initially, we want to identify the pairs of factors of $x$ of length $m$ at Hamming distance 1 that have a mismatch in the labels of the edges outgoing from a node in $HP$. Given a node $u$ in $HP$, with $L(u) = p_1$, for every side tree $S_i$ attached to it (say by an edge with label $c \in \Sigma$), we find all nodes of $S_i$ with string-depth $m$. For each such node $z$, with path-label $p_1cp_2$, we use Lemma 14 to obtain the node $w = \text{suf}(z, |p_1| + 1)$; that is, $L(w) = p_2$. We then use Lemma 15 to compute $\text{range}(x, p_1c'p_2)$ for all $c' \neq c$ such that there is an outgoing edge from $u$ with label $c'$ and increment $\text{Count}(z)$ by $|\text{range}(p_1c'p_2)|$. Let the heavy edge from $u$ have label $d$; we also increment $\text{Count}(z')$, where $z' = \text{concat}(u, \text{concat}(v, w))$ is the node with path-label $p_1dp_2$, by $|I_z|$ while processing node $z$.

This procedure then recurs on each of the side trees; i.e. for side tree $S_i$, attached to node $u$, it calls **PerformCount**($S_i, m - D(u)$). Finally, we construct array $C$ from array $Count$ while performing one more depth-first traversal.

On the recursive calls of **PerformCount** in each of the side trees (e.g. $S_i$) attached to $HP$, we first compute the heavy paths (in $O(|S_i|)$ time for $S_i$) and then consider each node of string-depth $m$ of $T(x)$ at most once; as above, we process each node in $O(\log \log n)$ time due to Lemmas 14 and 15. As there are at most $n$ nodes of string-depth $m$, we do $O(n \log \log n)$ work in total. This is also the case as we go deeper in the tree. Since the number of leaves of the trees we are dealing with at least halves in each iteration, there at most $O(\log n)$ steps. Hence, each node of string-depth $m$ will be considered $O(\log n)$ times and every time we will do $O(\log \log n)$ work for it. The overall time complexity of the algorithm is thus $O(n \log n \log \log n)$. The space complexity is $O(n)$. By applying Theorem 9 we obtain the following result.

**Theorem 16.** Given a string of length $n$ over a constant-sized alphabet and an integer $m$, where $1 \leq m < n$, the 1-mappability problem can be solved in $O(\min\{mn, n \log n \log \log n\})$ time and $O(n)$ space.
Remark 17. Note that, alternatively, the data structure presented by Cole et al [4] for pattern matching with up to \( k \) mismatches can be used. For \( k = 1 \), this data structure is of size \( \mathcal{O}(n \log n) \) and can be built in time \( \mathcal{O}(n \log n) \). We can then find all \( \text{occ} \) occurrences of a given factor of \( x \) with at most 1 mismatch in time \( \mathcal{O}(\log n \log \log n + \text{occ}) \). However, the \( \omega(n) \) space required for this data structure is prohibitive for genome-scale analyses—in Theorem 16 we use \( \mathcal{O}(n) \) space.

5 Final Remarks

We have produced a proof-of-concept implementation of our efficient average-case algorithm for arbitrary \( k \). It takes 706 seconds to execute with an input of 200MB real DNA corpus \((n = 209,714,087)\) obtained from http://pizzachili.dcc.uchile.cl/texts/dna/, for \( m = 64 \) and \( k = 2 \), on a Desktop PC using one core of Intel(R) Core(TM) i7-4600U CPU at 2.10GHz and 8GB of RAM. We have repeated the same test with an input of 100MB real DNA corpus \((n = 104,856,983)\) obtained from the same website, for \( m = 52 \) and \( k = 2 \). The assignment took 365 seconds to execute.

The natural next aim is either to extend the presented worst-case solutions to work for arbitrary \( k \) without increasing the time and space complexities dramatically or to develop fundamentally new algorithms if this is not possible. One possible direction is to investigate whether the techniques of [16] are applicable in this context. Another interesting direction would be to consider the edit distance model instead of the Hamming distance model for this problem.

Furthermore, a practical extension of the \( k \)-mappability problem is the following. Given reads from a particular sequencing machine, the basic strategy for genome re-sequencing is to map a seed of each read in the genome and then try and extend this match. In practice, a seed could be for example the first 32 letters of the read—the accuracy is higher in the prefix of the read. It is reasonable to allow for a few (e.g. \( k = 2 \)) errors when matching the seed to the reference genome to account for sequencing errors and genetic variation. A closely-related problem to genome mappability that arises naturally from this application is the following: What is the minimal value of \( m \) that forces at least \( \alpha \) of the starting positions in the reference genome to have \( k \)-mappability equal to 0?

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