Indexing arbitrary-length $k$-mers in sequencing reads

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Abstract

We propose a lightweight data structure for indexing and querying collections of NGS reads data in main memory. The data structure supports the interface proposed in the pioneering work by Philippe et al. \cite{1} for counting and locating $k$-mers in sequencing reads. Our solution, PgSA (pseudogenome suffix array), based on finding overlapping reads, is competitive to the existing algorithms in the space use, query times, or both. The main applications of our index include variant calling, error correction and analysis of reads from RNA-seq experiments.

Introduction

The genome sequencing costs dropped recently to less than 5 thousand U.S. dollars per human genome with about 30-fold coverage \cite{2}. Using the recent (and expensive) Illumina HiSeq X Ten system \cite{3}, it may be even possible to reduce this cost to about 1 thousand dollars (or somewhat more) on a long run. The scale of the largest sequencing projects is amazing, e.g., the Million Veteran Program \cite{4} aims at sequencing 1M human genomes. Needless to say, all this results in enormous amounts of sequencing data.

These data have to be processed in some way. Usually, they are mapped onto reference genomes and then variant calling algorithms are used to identify the mutations present in sequenced genomes. Since the mapping requires fast search over reference genomes, a lot of indexing structures for genomes were adopted or invented. The obvious candidates were the suffix tree and the suffix array \cite{5}, but their space requirements were often prohibitive, especially in the beginning of the 21st century. The situation changed with the advent of much more compact (compressed) index data structures. The most widely used in the read aligning software is the family of FM-indexes \cite{6}, employed by the popular Bowtie \cite{7}, BWA \cite{8} and many other mappers. Modern computers are more powerful, hence nowadays using a suffix array is often not a problem, especially if the array is sparsified (i.e., only a fraction of indexes is represented explicitly) \cite{9}. One of the recent successful examples is the MuGI multi-genome index \cite{10}, allowing to index 1092 human genomes in less than 10 GB of memory.

As said above, a lot was done in the area of genome indexing, but very little for the other standard component of the input, i.e., sequencing reads. The main reason is that when the reads are simply mapped onto a reference genome, indexing them is pointless. In many situations, however, the reads are processed in some way before (or instead of) mapping. The most obvious case is read correction, which makes the
mapping (or de novo assembling) easier and yields better final results, i.e., better
determination of mutations. There are a number of read correctors, e.g., Quake [11],
RACER [12], BLESS [13], Fiona [14]; see the recent survey [15] for more examples.
Sometimes the paired reads are joined if they overlap, with benefits in the mapping
quality [16]. In some other applications, e.g., in metagenomic studies, the goal is to
assign reads to species (to identify which organisms can be found in the analyzed
probe), and the reads are not mapped at all [17–19].

In such cases no reference sequence is used (or it is used only implicitly) and all the
available knowledge can be retrieved only from the reads. The simplest approach is to
calculate the statistics of $k$-mers (i.e., all $k$-symbol long substrings of reads), but some
programs use more sophisticated knowledge. Therefore, the necessity of indexing reads
was identified recently [1]. Philippe et al. defined therein the index supporting the
following queries. Given a query string $f$:

Q1 In which reads does $f$ occur?
Q2 In how many reads does $f$ occur?
Q3 What are the occurrence positions of $f$?
Q4 What is the number of occurrences of $f$?
Q5 In which reads does $f$ occur only once?
Q6 In how many reads does $f$ occur only once?
Q7 What are the occurrence positions of $f$ in the reads where it occurs only once?

There are two ways in which $f$ can be given in those queries, which may lead to
different time complexities and actual timing results. In one, $f$ is given as a sequence
of DNA symbols. In the other, $f$ is represented as a read ID followed with the start
position of $f$ in this read (and optionally, $f$’s length, if it is not fixed).

There are a number of potential applications of this index. Philippe et al. [1]
described the following. The queries Q1 and Q2 can be used for mutation (both SNPs
and short indels) detection. The query Q2 can be used to calculate a “local coverage”
of a $k$-mer, i.e., the number of reads sharing it. This was used in the work [20] for
calculation of “support profile” of each $k$-mer in a large package for analyzing reads
from RNA-seq experiments. One more potential usage of index queries Q3 and Q4 can
be in clustering and assembly without a reference genome.

One of the successful techniques in read correctors, e.g., BLESS, RACER, is to
preprocess the reads to collect the $k$-mer frequencies (i.e., allow to answer the Q4
queries), which can be obtained with specialized software [21–23]. In some other tools,
like Fiona [14], Shrec [24], HybridShrec [25], it is necessary also to obtain the list of
reads containing the $k$-mer (i.e., they need Q1 queries). The solution used in Fiona is
to construct the generalized suffix array, i.e., suffix array containing all suffixes from
all reads. Unfortunately, this implies huge memory requirements, e.g., for reads of
human sequencing with 10-fold coverage, the memory occupation is 224 GB.

Currently, only a few indexing structures supporting the mentioned list of queries
are known. Historically, the first one is Gk arrays (GkA) [1]. This scheme works for a
single length of $f$ only (set at construction time). The main GkA idea is to order
lexicographically all substrings of length $k = |f|$ of the reads. Let us denote the
cardinality of the reads collection with $q$. Assume that the reads are of equal length $m$.
As the number of reads substrings is $q(m - k + 1)$, the binary search for sequences
with a given $k$-long prefix, like in a suffix array [26], has time complexity of
$O(k \log((m - k + 1)q))$. In the following we use the symbol $n = q(m - k + 1)$ to simplify
This operation answers query \( Q_4 \) with \( f \) given as a sequence of symbols. If, however, the query position is given, then \( Q_4 \) is handled in constant time. \( \text{GkA} \) is based on three arrays: one for storing the start position of each \( k \)-mer, one inverted array telling the lexicographic rank of a \( k \)-mer given its position in a read, and finally an array associating to a \( k \)-mer’s rank its number of occurrences. The proposed data structure was found to be both more memory efficient and (in most cases) faster than two alternatives, a hash table and a suffix array augmented with some helper tables.

Välimäki and Rivals [27] proposed a compressed variant of \( \text{GkA} \), based on the compressed suffix array (CSA) [28]. Their index, \( \text{CGkA} \), reduces the size of its predecessor by about 40% to 90%, handling most queries with similar time complexity. Like \( \text{GkA} \), this solution also supports a single value of \( k \).

The index presented in this paper is based on two ideas: building a pseudogenome by finding overlapping reads in the collection, and using the sparse suffix array [9] as the search engine in the resulting sequence. We performed a number of experiments to compare the proposed \( \text{PgSA} \) (pseudogenome suffix array) and the existing \( \text{GkA} \) and \( \text{CGkA} \) indexes for the supported queries. Then, to see how \( \text{PgSA} \) would work in a real environment, we replaced the \( \text{GkA} \) in CRAC [20] by our index to check its overall memory consumption and processing time.

### Materials and Methods

We assume that the input alphabet contains 4 (ACGT) or 5 symbols (ACGTN). The actual number of symbols in the input data implies some design choices in the internal representation of our index. By a pseudogenome we mean a sequence obtained by concatenation of all (possibly reverse-complemented) reads with overlaps. More formally, let us have a read array \( \mathcal{R} = [R_1, \ldots, R_q] \), where \( |R_i| = m \) for all \( i \in \{1, \ldots, q\} \). A pseudogenome is a sequence \( \text{PG}[1 \ldots p] \) for which

- there exists a sequence \( j_1, j_2, \ldots, j_q \) such that \( j_1 = 1 \), \( j_{i+1} - j_i \in \{0, 1, \ldots, m\} \) for all \( i \in \{2, \ldots, q\} \) and \( j_q = p - m + 1 \),
- for each \( j_i \) we have \( \text{PG}[j_i \ldots j_i + m - 1] = R_{u_i} \) or \( \text{PG}[j_i \ldots j_i + m - 1] = \text{rc}(R_{u_i}) \), where \( \text{rc}(\cdot) \) is the reverse-complement operation on a DNA sequence,
- \( [u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_q] \) is a permutation of \( \{1, 2, \ldots, q\} \).

We attempt to minimize the pseudogenome length \( p \). In further considerations we usually deal with the permuted read array, hence we define it as \( \mathcal{R}' = [R_{u_1}, \ldots, R_{u_q}] \), where the indices \( u_i \) are described just above.

While a sequence approximating a real genome may be obtained by a de novo assembly procedure, we refrain from it because of two reasons. First, our procedure is lightweight, at least in conceptual and programming sense, while the problem of de novo assembly is known to be hard. Second, removing sequencing errors during the assembly is obviously beneficial for the output accuracy, but we aim at indexing original reads, and mapping the reads onto a “corrected” genomic sequence would complicate the index representation and would possibly be detrimental to query handling effectiveness.

Note that the minimal pseudogenome problem, without allowing the reverse-complement operations on the reads, is known in string matching literature under the name of the shortest common superstring (SCS) problem. SCS is NP-hard, as shown by Maier and Storer [29].

The pseudogenome is generated in the following way. For each possible positive overlap length, \( ol \in \{m, m-1, \ldots, 1\} \), considered in descending order, we look for
$R_1 = CCAGTA$
$R_2 = AAGCAT$
$R_3 = AACGAT$
$R_4 = GGAGAA$
$R_5 = TAACGA$
$R_6 = CGGTAA$

Extension finding. Successive iterations:
#1 no overlap of length 6
#2 one pair with overlap of length 5:

  $R_5 \circ R_3 \rightarrow TAACGAT$

#3 no overlap of length 4
#4 one pair with overlap of length 3:

  $R_6 \circ (R_5 \circ R_3) \rightarrow CGGTAAACGAT$

#5 one pair with overlap of length 2:

  $R_4 \circ R_2 \rightarrow GGAGAAGCAT$

#6 no overlap of length 1

Assembly (forming the pseudogenome):

$R_1 + (R_4 \circ R_2) + (R_6 \circ (R_5 \circ R_3)) \rightarrow CCAGTAGGAAGACAATCGGTAAACGAT$

Total length: 26 symbols.

Reads offsets in PG for the successive reads in $R'$: 0, 6, 10, 16, 19, 20.

Figure 1. Pseudogenome generation example. The input read collection $R$ contains 6 reads of length 6. We use two symbols: + and $\circ$. $S + T$ is a plain concatenation of strings $S$ and $T$. $S \circ T$ denotes a concatenation of strings $S$ and $T$ with a non-zero overlap of maximal length.

reads that overlap any other reads. Yet, one read may be a successor of only one other read and also one read is disallowed to be followed (directly overlapped) by more than one read. (Note that duplicate reads correspond to having $al = m$.) If some reads are left (i.e., are not successors to any other read), they are attached at the end of the pseudogenome. The construction worst-case time complexity is $O(qm^2 \log q)$, where the logarithmic factor comes from the balanced binary search tree based implementation of the C++ multiset container. Note that $qm = \Theta(n)$ under the realistic assumption that $m - k + 1 = \Theta(m)$, and then we can simplify the complexity formula to $O(nm \log q)$. Finally, we point out that the practical performance of this algorithm is much better than the worst case time suggests, due to many long overlaps in real data with large coverage. Fig. 1 illustrates.

Note that our current pseudogenome implementation does not handle reverse-complemented reads. Yet, our preliminary experiments with adding reverse-complemented reads to the generated sequence resulted in rather moderate improvement in the pseudogenome length (e.g., shorter by about 15%), while handling the queries requires significant changes in the used data structures (and possibly more space needed for them). For this reason, we leave this harder problem version as a future work.

We note that this procedure is only a heuristic and does not guarantee to produce an optimal (shortest possible) pseudogenome. To see this, consider an example of three reads: $R_1 = CCAGTA$, $R_2 = AAGCAT$ and $R_3 = AACGAT$. According to the presented algorithm, we obtain the assembly $(R_1 \circ R_2) + R_3 \rightarrow CAATGATAA$ of length 9. Yet, the assembly $(R_1 \circ R_3) \circ R_2 \rightarrow CAATAATG$ produces a sequence of
length 8.

The actual pseudogenome representation depends on the given data (number of reads, read length etc.). In general it contains the $PG$ string and the read array $R^{PG}$ consisting of either 9- or 13-byte records. Consecutive records correspond to consecutive reads in the pseudogenome and contain the following fields:

- read offset in the pseudogenome (4 or 8 bytes, depending on the pseudogenome length),
- flag data occupying 1 byte (duplicate $k$-mer flag, occurrence flag, single-occurrence flag, to be described later; several bits of this byte are not used),
- read index in the original read array $R$ (4 bytes).

Over the pseudogenome a search structure is built. Our basic solution is based on the classic suffix array (SA) [26], as a simple and fast full-text index. The $SA^{PG}$ elements require from 4 to 6 bytes. One element, associated with one pseudogenome suffix, stores the following fields:

- a read array index of the furthest read (of $R^{PG}$) containing starting symbols of the given suffix (3 or 4 bytes, depending on the number of reads in the collection),
- start position of the suffix with regard to the beginning of the read (1 or 2 bytes, depending on the read length).

In order to access a suffix one has to obtain from the read array $R^{PG}$ the offset of the specified read and add an offset of the suffix. Such organization enables straightforward identification of reads containing the sought prefix of the suffix.

Packing DNA symbols into bytes is a standard idea in compact data structures. We adopt this solution for the pseudogenome, in order to reduce the space use, minimize the rate of cache misses during searches and boost string comparisons (due to a lesser number of compared bytes on average). When the alphabet contains 4 symbols we handle the following compaction variants: (i) 2, 3 or 4 symbols per byte, (ii) 5 or 6 symbols per 2-byte unit (“short”). For the 5-symbol alphabet we pack either (i) 2 or 3 symbols per byte, or (ii) 4, 5 or 6 symbols per 2-byte unit.

Apart from the standard variant, we also implement a sparse suffix array (SpaSA) [9], which samples the suffixes in regular distances from the SA. The distances between sampled suffixes are specified by input parameter $s$. More precisely, if the pseudogenome is represented with $PG[1\ldots p]$ (w.l.o.g. assume that $s$ divides $p$), the SpaSA index contains $p/s$ suffix offsets: $s, 2s, \ldots, p$. The data stored for a sampled suffix are like described above, plus $s−1$ preceding symbols, in packed form. We set the $s \leq 6$ limitation. Storing these $s−1$ symbols allows not to access the pseudogenome sequence during a scan over the suffix array (cf. the $Q3$ query, described later) and is thus cache friendly. To make the current implementation easier and faster (due to less conditions necessary to check in the search procedure) the sparsity of the suffix array determines the packing of symbols, e.g., $s = 5$ means that 5 symbols are packed into 2-byte unit. Note that the $s−1$ packed symbols require up to 2 bytes, hence the whole element for a suffix requires from 5 to 8 bytes.

For small values of $k$ it is feasible to precompute all answers for the counting queries ($Q2$, $Q4$, and $Q6$). We assume the query is over the 4-symbol alphabet (ACGT). When the pseudogenome is small (up to 300 Mbases) we cache the answers for all $k \leq 10$, and for larger pseudogenomes for all $k \leq 11$. The $Q2$ and $Q6$ results occupy 4 bytes each and $Q4$ results 8 bytes. (Handling $Q4$ needs more space since $f$ may appear in a single read several times.)
Table 1. Worst-case time complexities. To save space, the $O(.)$ symbols around each formula were omitted. $|Q'x|$ equals $|Qx|$ plus the number of visited SA\textsuperscript{PG} locations. Note that $n = q(m - k + 1)$.

| query | $G_k$ (pos) | $CG_k$ (pos) | $G_k$ (seq) | $CG_k$ (seq) | $PG\text{SA}$ (pos/seq) |
|-------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|----------------------------|
| Q1    | $|Q3|\log \log n$ | $k\log n + |Q3|$ | $k\log \sigma + \text{polylog } n + |Q1| \log \log n$ | $k\log p + |Q3'|$ | |
| Q2    | $|Q3|$ \log \log n | $k\log n + |Q3|$ | $k\log \sigma + \text{polylog } n$ | $k\log p + |Q3'|$ | |
| Q3    | $|Q3|\log \log n$ | $k\log n + |Q3|$ | $k\log \sigma + \text{polylog } n + |Q3| \log \log n$ | $k\log p + |Q3'|$ | |
| Q4    | 1            | $k\log n$   | $k\log \sigma + \text{polylog } n$ | $k\log p + |Q3'|$ | |
| Q5    | $|Q3|\log \log n$ | $k\log n + |Q3|$ | $k\log \sigma + \text{polylog } n + |Q5| \log \log n$ | $k\log p + |Q3'|$ | |
| Q6    | $|Q3|$ \log \log n | $k\log n + |Q3|$ | $k\log \sigma + \text{polylog } n$ | $k\log p + |Q3'|$ | |
| Q7    | $|Q7|\log \log n$ | $k\log n + |Q3|$ | $k\log \sigma + \text{polylog } n + |Q7| \log \log n$ | $k\log p + |Q3'|$ | |

We note that the queries Q2, Q4, and Q6 are related. For example, the number of reads in which string $f$ occurs only once (Q6) is often not much smaller than the total number of occurrences of $f$ (Q4), and sometimes these values may be even equal; the equality of Q4 and Q6 also implies the same value of Q2. We make use of this fact and store answers also for some longer $k$-mers: up to $k = 12$ using 2-byte units and single bytes for $k = 13$. The precomputed answers are stored only if $Q2 = Q4 = Q6$, and Q2 less than $2^{16} - 1$ or $2^8 - 1$, depending on the used variant. The opposite case is signaled on the 1- or 2-byte field with an unused value.

Table 1 compares the worst-case time complexities for the queries Q1–Q7 of the existing algorithms. We use the notation $|Qx|$ to represent the number of occurrences reported by query $Qx$ (for $x = 1, 3, 5, 7$). In the following paragraphs we describe how the seven queries are performed in an order dictated by exposition clarity.

**Q3** We binary search the suffix array $SA\text{PG}$ for the string $f$, and for each potential match in the found range, pointing to some position in the pseudogenome $PG$ (represented as a pair: read ID in the read array $R\text{PG}$ and the suffix offset with regard to the beginning of the read), we check in how many (0 or more) reads $f$ really occurs. To this end, we check if the suffix offset shifted by $k$ symbols does not exceed the read length $m$. If this is the case, we add its position to the output list, otherwise we terminate. Then, we scan over the read array $R\text{PG}$ backward, adding a position as long as the suffix offset plus $k$ still does not exceed $m$.

**Q4** We follow the procedure for Q3, but simply count the matches.

**Q1** This query is related to Q3, but requires filtering, as $f$ may occur in a read more than once. To this end, “occurrence flags” (stored in flag fields of $R\text{PG}$) are used. Initially, all these flags are set to false. During the iteration over reads (like in the Q3 query) only non-visited yet reads are added to the output list and for each new read the corresponding flag is set to true. The flag locations are also put on a stack, to remove them in $O(|Q1|)$ time at the end, leaving all “occurrence flags” set to false in $R\text{PG}$. In general $|Q1| \leq |Q3|$, but since the equality often holds, we implemented some optimization. The array $R\text{PG}$ stores “repetitive read flag” for each read. This flag is true if the read contains at least one 11-mer at least twice. When we process the reads answering the Q1 query we verify the flag. If it is false we are sure that no $f$ (of length at least 11) can appear in the read more than one time.

**Q2** This query is to Q1 exactly like Q4 to Q3.
Table 2. Dataset characteristics

| Dataset  | No. reads [M] | Read length | Alphabet size | PG length [MB] |
|----------|---------------|-------------|---------------|----------------|
| E. coli  | 11.5          | 151         | 5             | 551.4          |
| GRCh37   | 42.4          | 75          | 4             | 567.9          |
| C. elegans | 67.6        | 100         | 5             | 1603.1         |

Q5 Again, this query is related to Q3, with extra filtration needed. Now “single-occurrence” flags in $R^{PG}$ are used. The one-visit only mechanism for reads and unsetting the flags with aid of a stack is identical as in Q1. The operations on the stack take $O(|Q5|)$ time, where $|Q5| \leq |Q3|$. Also here the “repetitive read” flags are used as a helpful heuristic.

Q6 This query is to Q5 exactly like Q4 to Q3, or Q2 to Q1.

Q7 We follow the procedure for Q5, only with replacing read IDs with the match positions.

Results

We ran experiments to confirm validity of our algorithm in practice. The testbed machine was equipped with an Intel i7 4930K 3.4 GHz CPU and 64 GB of RAM (DDR3-1600, CL11), running Linux 3.13.0-43-generic x86_64 (Ubuntu 14.04.1 LTS). Table 2 presents the datasets used in the tests. These datasets are taken from:

- E. coli (11.5M reads of 151 bp) —
  [ftp://webdata:webdata@ussd-ftp.illumina.com/Data/SequencingRuns/MG1655/MiSeq_Ecoli_MG1655_110721_PF_R1.fastq.gz](ftp://webdata:webdata@ussd-ftp.illumina.com/Data/SequencingRuns/MG1655/MiSeq_Ecoli_MG1655_110721_PF_R1.fastq.gz), this dataset was used in the CGkA paper [27],
- GRCh37 (42.4M reads of 75 bp; no N symbols in the data) —
  [http://crac.gforge.inria.fr/index.php?id=genomes-reads](http://crac.gforge.inria.fr/index.php?id=genomes-reads), this dataset was used in the CRAC paper [20],
- C. elegans (67.6M reads of 100 bp) —
  [http://ftp.sra.ebi.ac.uk/vol1/fastq/SRR065/SRR065390/](http://ftp.sra.ebi.ac.uk/vol1/fastq/SRR065/SRR065390/).

The command lines of the examined programs can be found in the PgSA package available at project homepage [http://sun.aei.polsl.pl/pgsa](http://sun.aei.polsl.pl/pgsa).

In the first experiments, we compare PgSA versus GkA (version 2.1.0) and CGkA (version cgka_2013_08_21) on two datasets, E. coli and GRCh37-75bp-simulated reads (Figs 2, 3, 4, 5). We can see that in Q1 and Q3 queries PgSA is by more than an order of magnitude faster than CGkA at comparable or better compression rate. As expected, GkA is faster than CGkA (and sometimes faster, although not very significantly, than PgSA), yet requiring at least 3 times more space. The speed relation is different for Q2 and Q4 queries. Here CGkA defeats PgSA, sometimes by an order of magnitude. In the Q4 query, given by position, GkA is a clear winner in speed. We note that the tested (latest) GkA version (v2.1.0) does not support Q1, Q2 and Q4 when the query is given as a sequence rather than a position. Overall, we believe that PgSA offers attractive space-time tradeoffs for most queries, and in contrast to its
competitors it handles arbitrary values of $k$ (rather than a fixed one). Additionally, we note that the latest GkA and CGkA versions do not support the $Q5–Q7$ queries.

In the next experiment we ran only PgSA and GkA on C. elegans dataset (Fig. 6). We were not able to run CGkA on this dataset. The PgSA lines on the figures are for the queries $Q1–Q7$ given as a sequence (the time differences with regard to queries given as a position are up to 1 percent), and the left and right figure corresponds to the query length $k = 11$ and $k = 16$, respectively. Note that the results for the queries $Q2$, $Q4$, and $Q6$ are precomputed (cached) for $k = 11$.

In Tables 3 and 4 we detail out how much space is consumed by the components of the PgSA solution.

Finally, we checked how replacing GkA with PgSA affects the CRAC performance (Table 5). We used CRAC v1.3.2 (http://crac.gforge.inria.fr). Unfortunately, the build time grows several times (and even including the CRAC processing time the

| Table 3. E. coli dataset, space consumption. All sizes in megabytes. |
|---------------------------------------------------------------|
| SA sparsity | $PG$ | $RP^G$ | $SA^PG$ | $LUT$ | total |
| 1            | 551  | 149    | 2205    | 195   | 3101  |
| 2            | 276  | 149    | 1378    | 195   | 1999  |
| 3            | 184  | 149    | 919     | 195   | 1447  |
| 4            | 276  | 149    | 689     | 195   | 1309  |
| 5            | 221  | 149    | 662     | 195   | 1227  |
| 6            | 184  | 149    | 551     | 195   | 1080  |
Figure 3. Q2 query results on E. coli (top row) and H. sapiens (bottom row) datasets. On the left figures the query is given as a position in the read list, while on the left ones as a string.

Table 4. C. elegans dataset, space consumption. All sizes in megabytes.

| SA sparsity | PG | PGP | SAPG | LUT | total |
|-------------|----|-----|------|-----|-------|
| 1           | 1603 | 879 | 8016 | 195 | 10693 |
| 2           | 802  | 879 | 4809 | 195 | 6685  |
| 3           | 534  | 879 | 3206 | 195 | 4814  |
| 4           | 802  | 879 | 2405 | 195 | 4280  |
| 5           | 641  | 879 | 2244 | 195 | 3959  |
| 6           | 534  | 879 | 1870 | 195 | 3479  |

Table 5. CRAC, k = 22. Times in minutes, sizes in gigabytes.

| Type     | Build time | Build+CRAC time | Index size | Max mem. (build) | Max mem. (CRAC) |
|----------|------------|-----------------|------------|------------------|-----------------|
| PgSA s = 1 | 50.5       | 410.7           | 3.98       | 8.16             | 6.06            |
| PgSA s = 4 | 36.3       | 509.0           | 1.56       | 8.16             | 3.65            |
| PgSA s = 6 | 34.9       | 572.3           | 1.42       | 8.16             | 3.51            |
| Gk        | 11.6       | 218.9           | 20.30      | 27.60            | 21.98           |
Figure 4. Q3 query results on E. coli (top row) and H. sapiens (bottom row) datasets. On the left figures the query is given as a position in the read list, while on the left ones as a string.
Figure 5. Q4 query results on E. coli (top row) and H. sapiens (bottom row) datasets. On the left figures the query is given as a position in the read list, while on the left ones as a string.

Figure 6. Q1–Q7 query results of PgSA and GkA on C. elegans dataset. The letter ‘p’ appended to some query names means that the query is given as a position in the read list.
Discussion

We proposed a new indexing structure for read collections. The experiments proved that this structure is much more compact than the existing solutions, GkA and CGkA. The running times of the counting queries are worse than of the CGkA, but in the listing queries PgSA is usually faster.

Several aspects of the presented scheme can be improved. We have noticed that using both direct and reverse-complemented reads in our construction of the pseudogenome reduces its size by about 15%. Still, this easy change for the construction is not equally easy to handle during the search, therefore the current implementation refrains from it. Additionally, our recent progress with read compression [30] suggests to build the pseudogenome from large datasets on disk (disk-based SA construction algorithms also exist, see, e.g., [31] and references therein). Finally, the sparse suffix array may be replaced by a recent sparse index, SamSAMi (sampled suffix array with minimizers) [32], with hopefully better performance.

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