# Advanced Data Structures

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# 1 Compressed Suffix Arrays

We will show in this section that  $O(n \log \sigma)$  bits suffice also for representing A. The price of this compressed suffix array is that the time for retrieving an entry from A is not constant any more, but rises from O(1) to  $O(\log^{\epsilon} n)$ , for some arbitrarily small constant  $0 < \epsilon \leq 1$ .

# 1.1 Recommended Reading

- K. Sadakane New Text Indexing Functionalities in the Compressed Suffix Arrays. J. Algorithms 48(2): 294-313 (2003).
- G. Navarro and V. Mäkinen: *Compressed Full-Text Indexes*. ACM Computing Surveys 39(1), Article no. 2 (61 pages), 2007. Sect. 4.4, 4.5, 7.1.

# **1.2** The $\psi$ -Function

The most important component of the compressed suffix array (abbreviated as CSA henceforth) is a function  $\psi$  that allows us to "jump one character forward" in the suffix array.

**Definition 1.** Define  $\psi$ :  $[1, n] \rightarrow [1, n]$  such that  $\psi(i) = j \Leftrightarrow A[j] = A[i] + 1$ , where position n + 1 is interpreted as the first position in T (read text circularly!).

# Example 1.

Note the similarity of the  $\psi$ -function to suffix links in suffix trees: both "cut off" the first character of the corresponding substring.

Function  $\psi$  is *increasing* in areas where the corresponding suffixes start with the same character. For instance, in Ex. 1 we have that all suffixes from A[2,9] start with letter A; and indeed,  $\psi[2,9] = [7,9,10,12,13,14,16]$  is increasing. This is summarized in the following lemma.

**Lemma 1.** If i < j and  $T_{A[i]} = T_{A[j]}$ , then  $\psi(i) < \psi(j)$ .

This lemma will be used in Sect. 1.6 to store  $\psi$  in a space-efficient form.

#### 1.3 The Idea of the Compressed Suffix Array

We now present the general approach to store A in a space-efficient form. Instead of storing every entry in A, in a new bit-vector  $B_0[1, n]$  we mark the positions in A where the corresponding entry in A is even:

$$B_0[i] = 1 \Leftrightarrow A[i] \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$$
.

Bit-vector  $B_0$  is prepared for O(1) RANK-queries. We further store the  $\psi$ -values at positions i with  $B_0[i] = 0$  in a new array  $\psi_0[1, \lceil \frac{n}{2} \rceil]$ . Finally, we store the even values of A in a new array  $A_1[1, \lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor]$ , and divide all values in  $A_1$  by 2.

#### Example 2.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
T =	$\mathbf{C}$	А	$\mathbf{C}$	А	А	Т	А	$\mathbf{C}$	А	Т	Т	А	Т	А	$\mathbf{C}$	\$
A =	16	4	14	2	7	12	5	9	15	3	1	8	13	6	11	10
$B_0 =$	:1	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1
$\psi_0 =$					12		14	16	1	2	4		3		6	
$A_1 =$	8	2	7	1	6							4		3		5

Now, the three arrays,  $B_0$ ,  $\psi_0$  and  $A_1$ , completely substitute A: to retrieve value A[i], we first check if  $B_0[i] = 1$ . If so, we know that A[i]/2 is stored in  $A_1$ , and that the exact position in  $A_1$  is given by the number of 1-bits in  $B_0$  up to position *i*. Hence,  $A[i] = 2A_1[\text{RANK}_1(B_0, i)]$ .

If, on the other hand,  $B_0[i] = 0$ , we follow  $\psi(i)$  in order to get to the position of the (A[i] + 1)st suffix, which must be even (and is hence stored in  $A_1$ ). The value  $\psi(i)$  is stored in  $\psi_0$ , and its position therein is equal to the number of 0-bits in  $B_0$  up to position *i*. Hence,  $A[i] = A[\psi_0(\text{RANK}_0(B_0, i))] - 1$ , which can be calculated be the mechanism of the previous paragraph.

As we shall see later,  $\psi_0$  can be stored very efficiently (basically using  $O(n \log \sigma)$  bits). Hence, we have almost halved the space with this approach (from  $n \log n$  bits for A to  $\frac{n}{2} \log \frac{n}{2}$  for  $A_1$ ).

### 1.4 Hierarchical Decomposition

We can use the idea from the previous section recursively in order to gain more space: instead of representing  $A_1$  plainly, we replace it with bit-vector  $B_1$ , array  $\psi_1$  and  $A_2$ . Array  $A_2$  can in turn be replaced by  $B_2, \psi_2$ , and  $A_3$ , and so on. In general, array  $A_k[1, n_k]$ , with  $n_k = \frac{n}{2^k}$ , implicitly represents T's suffixes that are a multiple of  $2^k$ , in the order as they appear in the original array  $A_0 := A$ .

Example 3.



 $A_k$  can be seen as a suffix array of a new string  $T^k$ , where the *i*'th character of  $T^k$  is the concatenation of  $2^k$  characters  $T_{i2^k...(i+1)2^k-1}$  (we assume that T is padded with sufficiently enough s-characters). This means that the alphabet for  $T^k$  is  $\Sigma^{2^k}$ , i.e., all  $2^k$ -tuples from  $\Sigma$ .

**Example 4.**  $A_2 = [4, 1, 3, 2]$  can be regarded as the suffix array of

$$T^{2} = \underbrace{(AATA)}_{T_{1}^{2}} \underbrace{(CATT)}_{T_{2}^{2}} \underbrace{(ATAC)}_{T_{3}^{2}} \underbrace{(\$\$\$)}_{T_{4}^{2}} .$$

This way, on level k we only store  $B_k$  and  $\psi_k$ . Only on the last level h we store  $A_h$ . We choose  $h = \lceil \log \log_\sigma \frac{n}{\log n} \rceil$  such that the space for storing  $A_h$  is

$$O(n_h \log n_h) = O(n_h \log n) = O\left(\frac{n}{2^h} \log n\right) = O\left(\frac{n \log \sigma}{\log \frac{n}{\log n}} \log n\right) = O(n \log \sigma) \text{ bits.}$$

However, storing  $B_k$  and  $\psi_k$  on all h levels would take too much space. Instead, we use only a *constant* number of  $1 + \frac{1}{\epsilon}$  levels, namely 0,  $h\epsilon$ ,  $2h\epsilon$ , ..., h (constant  $0 < \epsilon \leq 1$ ).

Example 5.



Hence, bit-vector  $B_k$  has a '1' at position *i* iff  $A_k[i]$  is a multiple of  $2^{h\epsilon+k}$ . Given all this, we have the following algorithm to compute A[i], to be invoked with lookup(i, 0).

Algorithm 1: function lookup(i, k)

```
 \begin{array}{l} \textbf{if } k = h \textbf{ then} \\ | \quad \text{return } A_h[i]; \\ \textbf{end} \\ \textbf{if } k = \omega_k \textbf{ then} \\ | \quad \text{return } n_k; \\ \textbf{end} \\ \textbf{if } B_k[i] = 1 \textbf{ then} \\ | \quad \text{return } 2^{h\epsilon} \texttt{lookup}(\texttt{RANK}_1(B_k, i), k + h\epsilon); \\ \textbf{else} \\ | \quad \text{return } \texttt{lookup}(\psi_k(\texttt{RANK}_0(B_k, i), k)) - 1; \\ \textbf{end} \end{array}
```

Here,  $\omega_k$  stores the position of the last suffix, i.e.,  $A_k[\omega_k] = n_k$ . Checking if  $i = \omega_k$  is necessary in order to avoid following  $\psi_k$  from the last suffixes to the first, because this would give incorrect results.

Example 6.  $A[15] = 100 \exp(15, 0) = 100 \exp(\psi_0(11), 0) - 1 = 100 \exp(6, 0) - 1 = 2^2 100 \exp(3, 2) - 1 = 2^2 (100 \exp(\psi_2(2), 2) - 1) - 1 = 2^2 (100 \exp(1, 2) - 1) - 1 = 2^2 (4 - 1) - 1 = 11$ 

To analyze the running time of the lookup-procedure, we first note that on every level k, we need to follow  $\psi_k$  at most  $2^{h\epsilon}$  times until we hit a position i with  $B_k[i] = 1$  (second case of the last if-statement). Because the number of "implemented" levels,  $1 + \frac{1}{\epsilon}$ , is constant (remember  $\epsilon$  is constant!), the total time of the lookup-procedure is

$$O\left(2^{h\epsilon}\right) = O\left(\left(2^{\log\log_{\sigma}n}\right)^{\epsilon}\right) = O\left(\log_{\sigma}^{\epsilon}n\right) ,$$

which is sub-logarithmic for  $\epsilon < 1$ .

# 1.5 Elias-Codes

For coding the  $\psi$ -values in a space efficient form, we will use *Elias-\gamma* and *Elias-\delta* codes, which we present in this section. Let us write  $(x)_2$  for the *binary* representation of integer  $x \ge 1$ . Also  $(x)_1$  denotes the *unary* representation of x, which consists of x - 1 0's, followed by a single 1. For example,  $(5)_2 = 101$  and  $(5)_1 = 00001$ .

The Elias- $\gamma$  code of a number x, denoted by  $(x)_{\gamma}$ , is defined as follows: first, write the length of the binary representation of x in unary, i. e., write bits  $(|(x)_2|)_1$ . Then append the bits from  $(x)_2$ , with the first (leftmost) '1' being omitted. For example, the first five  $\gamma$ -codes (representing the numbers  $1, 2, \ldots, 5$ ) are 1, 010, 011, 00100 and 00101. The length in bits is

$$|(x)_{\gamma}| = \underbrace{\lfloor \log x \rfloor + 1}_{\text{unary part}} + \underbrace{\lfloor \log x \rfloor}_{\text{binary part}} .$$

The  $\delta$ -code is obtained in a similar manner, but instead of encoding  $|(x)_2|$  in unary, we encode it with the  $\gamma$ -code. That is, we first write  $(|(x)_2|)_{\gamma}$ , and then append  $(x)_2$ , again with the trailing '1' being omitted. Examples of  $\delta$ -codes are shown in the following table.

#### Example 7.

x	$(x)_{\delta}$	x	$(x)_{\delta}$
1	1	9	00100001
2	0100	10	00100010
3	0101	11	00100011
4	01100	12	00100100
5	01101	13	00100101
6	01110	14	00100110
7	01111	15	00100111
8	00100000	16	001010000

The size of the  $\delta$ -code is

$$\begin{aligned} |(x)_{\delta}| &= |(\lfloor \log x \rfloor + 1)_{\gamma}| + \lfloor \log x \rfloor \\ &= (\lfloor \log (\lfloor \log x \rfloor + 1) \rfloor + 1) + \lfloor \log (\lfloor \log x \rfloor + 1) \rfloor + \lfloor \log x \rfloor \\ &= \lfloor \log x \rfloor + 2 \lfloor \log (\lfloor \log x \rfloor + 1) \rfloor + 1 \text{ bits.} \end{aligned}$$

# **1.6** Storing $\psi$

Let us first concentrate on level 0, i. e., on storing  $\psi_0$ . From Lemma 1, we know that  $\psi$  is piecewise increasing in areas A[l, r] where the suffixes start with the same character (i. e., where  $T_{A[i]} = T_{A[j]}$ for all  $i, j \in [l, r]$ ). Let [l, r] be one such area. Instead of storing  $\psi_0[l, r]$  plainly, we first compute the differences  $\Delta_0[i] = \psi_0[i] - \psi_0[i-1]$  for  $l < i \leq r$ . This produces a list of positive integers from the range [1, n], which will be encoded space-efficiently in a subsequent step. In general, we define

$$\Delta_0[i] = \begin{cases} \psi_0[i] - \psi_0[i-1] & \text{if } T_{A_0[i]} = T_{A_0[i-1]}, \\ \psi_0[i] & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Example 8.

$$\Delta_0 \!=\! \overset{\scriptscriptstyle 1}{9} \overset{\scriptscriptstyle 2}{1} \overset{\scriptscriptstyle 3}{2} \overset{\scriptscriptstyle 4}{2} \overset{\scriptscriptstyle 5}{2} \overset{\scriptscriptstyle 6}{2} \overset{\scriptscriptstyle 7}{|} \overset{\scriptscriptstyle 8}{1} \overset{\scriptscriptstyle 9}{2} \overset{\scriptscriptstyle 10}{|} \overset{\scriptscriptstyle 11}{1} \overset{\scriptscriptstyle 12}{|} \overset{\scriptscriptstyle 8}{3} \overset{\scriptscriptstyle 9}{2} \overset{\scriptscriptstyle 10}{1} \overset{\scriptscriptstyle 11}{1} \overset{\scriptscriptstyle 12}{9}$$

These  $\Delta$ -values are now encoded with Elias  $\delta$ -code; the resulting bit stream is called  $S_0$ .

#### Example 9.

In general, because  $A_k$  can be regarded as the suffix array of a text  $T^k$ , we can compress  $\psi_k$ on levels k > 0 by the same mechanism, i.e., by using Elias  $\delta$ -codes on the list of differences of consecutive  $\psi_k$ -values. We therefore define

$$\Delta_k[i] = \begin{cases} \psi_k[i] - \psi_k[i-1] & \text{if } T^k_{A_k[i]} = T^k_{A_k[i-1]}, \\ \psi_k[i] & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

How can we decompress the  $\psi_k$ -values from the stream  $S_k$  of  $\delta$ -encoded  $\Delta_k$ -values? For this purpose we store  $\psi_k[i]$  explicitly if either position *i* marks the beginning of a new character in  $T^k$  (second case in the definition of  $\Delta_k$ ), or if the length of the encoded bit-stream since the last sampled  $\psi_k$ -value exceeds  $s = \frac{\log n}{2}$  bits. To implement this, we introduce three new arrays:

- 1.  $D_k$  is a bit vector such that  $D_k[i] = 1$  iff  $\psi_k[i]$  is sampled.  $D_k$  is enhanced with data structures for constant-time RANK and SELECT queries.
- 2.  $R_k$  is an array that stores the sampled values of  $\psi_k$ . All  $\psi_k$ -values stored in  $R_k$  are removed from the bit-stream  $S_k$  (they need not to be stored twice!).
- 3.  $P_k$  is a bit stream of the same size as  $S_k$  and marks those positions in  $S_k$  with a '1' where a  $\delta$ -encoded  $\Delta_k$ -value starts.  $P_k$  is prepared for O(1) SELECT<sub>1</sub>-queries. Then SELECT<sub>1</sub>( $P_k, i$ ) points to the *i*'th  $\Delta_k$ -value  $S_k[i]$ .

**Example 10.** Assuming s = 5, we have the following structures:

We can decode  $\psi_k[i]$  as follows. First compute the number of sampled  $\Delta_k$ -values up to position i by  $y = \text{RANK}_1(D_k, i)$ . Then check if  $\Delta_k[i]$  is represented explicitly  $(D_k[i] = 1)$ , and return  $R_k[y]$  in this case. Otherwise  $(D_k[i] = 0)$ , compute the greatest index j such that  $\psi_k$  is sampled by  $j = \text{SELECT}_1(D_k, y)$ . The result is then  $R_k[y] (= \Delta_k[j])$ , plus the sum of the (i - j) values  $\Delta_k[j + 1], \ldots, \Delta_k[i]$  that follow  $\Delta_k[j]$  in  $S_k$ . Note that  $D_k[j + 1] = 0$ , and that the 0's in  $D_k$  corresponds to the 1's in  $P_k$ . As  $\Delta_k[j+1]$  is the z'th encoded  $\Delta_k$ -value in  $S_k$ , with  $z = \text{RANK}_0(D_k, j + 1)$ .

1) =  $j + 1 - \text{RANK}_1(D_k, j+1) = j + 1 - y$ , we thus go to position SELECT<sub>1</sub>( $P_k, z$ ) in  $S_k$ , from where we decode the values  $\Delta_k[j+1], \ldots, \Delta_k[i]$ , and return  $R_k[y] + \sum_{l=j+1}^i \Delta_k[l]$  as the result  $\psi_k[i]$ . This decoding is possible because the  $\delta$ -code is prefix-free (no codeword is a prefix of a different codeword).

To compute this sum in O(1) time, we use again the *Four-Russians-Trick*: in a global lookuptable G, for all bit-vectors V of length s and all positions  $i \in [1, s]$ , G[V][i] stores the answer to  $\sum_{j=1}^{i} y_j$ , if we interpret V as a sequence of  $\delta$ -encoded values  $y_1, y_2, \ldots$ . Note that some values in G are undefined, because not at all positions  $i \in [1, s]$  there ends a  $\delta$ -encoded value in V, and not all bit-vectors V represent a correct sequence of  $\delta$ -codes, but these values will never be accessed by the algorithm.

#### Example 11.

G:							s = 5
V	1	2	3	4	5		
00000	-	-	-	-	-	-	
•							
10100	1	3	-	-	-		
•							
11111	1	2	3	4	5		

# 1.7 Space Analysis

We now analyze the space requirement of the compressed suffix array. Recall that on level k < h, we store bit-vectors  $B_k$ ,  $D_k$ ,  $S_k$ , and  $P_k$  (plus some data structures for RANK and SELECT), and array  $R_k$ . On level h, we only store  $A_h$ , which needs  $O(n \log \sigma)$  bits. Thus it remains to be shown that an level k < h the space is  $O(n \log \sigma)$  bits. Then the total space on all  $1 + \frac{1}{\epsilon}$  levels is  $O(\frac{1}{\epsilon}n \log \sigma)$  bits.

The bit-vectors  $B_k$  and  $D_k$  are certainly of size O(n) bits each, as they are never longer than n, the length of the text. Actually, the *total* size of all  $B_k$ 's can be bounded by 2n bits, because the length of the  $B_k$ -vectors is at least halved from one level to the next:

$$\sum_{k=0}^{h-1} |B_k| = \sum_{k=0}^{h-1} n_k = \sum_{k=0}^{h-1} \frac{n}{2^k} = n \sum_{k=0}^{h-1} \frac{1}{2^k} \le n \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^k} = 2n .$$

The total size of the  $D_k$ 's is even smaller. Together with the data structures for constant-time RANK- and SELECT-queries, the space for all  $B_k$ 's and  $D_k$ 's can be upper bounded by 4n + o(n) bits in total.

Let us now analyze the space for the bit-stream  $S_k$  on a fixed level k < h. For simplicity, we assume that  $S_k$  stores all  $\Delta_k$ -values, also those that are stored explicitly in  $R_k$  and thus deleted from  $S_k$ . Let  $n_k^c$  denote the number of positions in  $\psi_k$  corresponding to suffixes that start with the same character  $c \in \Sigma^{2^k}$ , and let  $\Delta_k^c[1, n_k^c]$  denote the corresponding sub-array in  $\Delta_k$ . Thus, by Lemma 1,  $S_k$  stores at most  $\sigma^{2^k}$  increasing sequences from the range  $[1, n_k]$ , each encoded by  $\delta$ -codes of the differences  $\Delta_k$ . Therefore, the space is

$$\begin{split} |S_k| &= \sum_{c \in \Sigma^{2^k}} \sum_{i=1}^{n_k^c} \left( \lfloor \log \Delta_k^c[i] \rfloor + 2\lfloor \log \left( \lfloor \log \Delta_k^c[i] \rfloor + 1 \right) \rfloor + 1 \right) \\ &= \sum_{c \in \Sigma^{2^k}} \sum_{i=1}^{n_k^c} \left( \lfloor \log \Delta_k^c[i] \rfloor + 2 \log \log \Delta_k^c[i] \right) + O(n_k) \\ &\leq \sum_{c \in \Sigma^{2^k}} \sum_{i=1}^{n_k^c} \left( \log \frac{n_k}{n_k^c} + 2 \log \log \frac{n_k}{n_k^c} \right) + O(n_k) \\ &= \sum_{c \in \Sigma^{2^k}} n_k^c \left( \log \frac{n_k}{n_k^c} + 2 \log \log \frac{n_k}{n_k^c} \right) + O(n_k) \\ &\leq \sum_{c \in \Sigma^{2^k}} n_k^c \left( \log \sigma^{2^k} + 2 \log \log \sigma^{2^k} \right) + O(n_k) \\ &= \left( \log \sigma^{2^k} + 2 \log \log \sigma^{2^k} \right) \sum_{c \in \Sigma^{2^k}} n_k^c + O(n_k) \\ &= \left( 2^k \log \sigma + 2 \log 2^k \log \sigma \right) \frac{n_k}{2^k} + O(n_k) \\ &= \left( 2^k \log \sigma + 2 \log 2^k \log \sigma \right) \frac{n_k}{2^k} + O(n_k) \\ &= n \log \sigma + O(n \log \log \sigma) \text{ bits.} \end{split}$$

Here, both inequalities follow from the fact that the sum of logarithms is largest when the values are spread evenly over the interval: if  $\sum_{i=1}^{m} x_i \leq x$  for a sequence of m real numbers with  $x_i \geq 1$  for all i, then  $\sum_{i=1}^{m} \log x_i \leq \sum_{i=1}^{m} \log \frac{x}{m}$ . Because  $P_k$  is of the same size as  $S_k$ , we can upper bound the space for  $P_k$  (including the

data-structure for SELECT) by  $O(n \log \sigma)$  bits.

Finally, the array  $R_k$  of sampled values consist of

$$\begin{aligned} |R_k| &= \left( \underbrace{|\Sigma^{2^k}|}_{\text{new cha-}} + \underbrace{\frac{|S_k|}{\log n}}_{\text{length ex-}} \right) \times \underbrace{\log n_k}_{\text{value from}} \\ &= \left( \sigma^{2^k} + \frac{n\log\sigma}{\log n} \right) \log n_k \\ &\leq O\left( \left( \sigma^{2^h} + \frac{n\log\sigma}{\log n} \right) \log n \right) \\ &= O\left( \left( \left( \frac{n}{\log n} + \frac{n\log\sigma}{\log n} \right) \log n \right) \right) \\ &= O\left( \left( \left( \frac{n}{\log n} + \frac{n\log\sigma}{\log n} \right) \log n \right) \right) \\ &= O(n\log\sigma) \text{ bits.} \end{aligned}$$

We summarize this section in a final theorem:

**Theorem 2.** The suffix array A of a text of length n over an alphabet of size  $\sigma$  can be stored in  $O\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon}n\log\sigma\right)$  bits such that retrieving an arbitrary entry A[i] from the suffix array with  $1 \le i \le n$  takes  $O(\log^{\epsilon} n)$  time.