

Wheeler Graphs: A Framework for BWT-Based Data Structures[☆]

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Abstract

The famous Burrows-Wheeler Transform (BWT) was originally defined for a single string but variations have been developed for sets of strings, labelled trees, de Bruijn graphs, etc. In this paper we propose a framework that includes many of these variations and that we hope will simplify the search for more.

We first define *Wheeler graphs* and show they have a property we call *path coherence*. We show that if the state diagram of a finite-state automaton is a Wheeler graph then, by its path coherence, we can order the nodes such that, for any string, the nodes reachable from the initial state or states by processing that string are consecutive. This means that even if the automaton is non-deterministic, we can still store it compactly and process strings with it quickly.

We then rederive several variations of the BWT by designing straightforward finite-state automata for the relevant problems and showing that their state diagrams are Wheeler graphs.

Keywords: Compressed data structures, Burrows-Wheeler Transform, Pattern matching

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1. Introduction

The Burrows-Wheeler Transformation (BWT) has a very peculiar history. First conceived in 1983, it was published only eleven years later in a technical report [9], presumably because it was so innovative that the first
5 reviewers were not able to grasp its full significance. A few years later, the compression algorithm `bzip2` based on the BWT became popular, challenging `gzip`'s dominance, thanks to the finely engineered implementation of Julian Seward [46] (the very same computer scientist who gave us also the invaluable tool `Valgrind` [47]).

10 After its introduction as a compression tool, interest in the BWT was rekindled when many researchers realized that, among the different techniques discovered at the turn of the century for designing compressed indexes [19, 29, 34], those based on the BWT are probably the simplest and most space efficient [15, 43]. After this realization, in the last ten years we
15 have witnessed an unusual phenomenon in computer science: variants of the BWT have been proposed and applied to more and more complex objects: from trees, to graphs, to alignments. These variants are clearly related to the BWT even if some of them no longer have the two main features of the original BWT, namely of being invertible and of “helping” compression.

20 At this point it is natural to ask whether we have approached the BWT as the blind men approached the elephant (see, e.g., [45]), with one touching a leg and thinking the elephant is like a tree, another touching the trunk and thinking it is like a snake, and yet another touching the tail and thinking it is like a rope. We do not disparage previous surveys of the BWT and related
25 data structures, such as [1, 35, 42], since we too have spent years trying to make sense of our sometimes disparate impressions of the it. Without pretending to give a complete answer, in this paper we propose a unifying view for many different BWT variants. Somewhat surprisingly we get our unifying view considering the Nondeterministic Finite Automata related to
30 different pattern matching problems. We show that the state graphs associated to these automata have common properties that we summarize with the concept of Wheeler graphs.¹

Using the notion of a Wheeler graph, we show that it is possible to process strings efficiently, e.g., in linear time if the alphabet is constant, even
35 if the automaton is nondeterministic. In addition, we show that Wheeler

¹On many occasions Mike Burrows stated that, as reported also in [9], the original idea of the BWT is due to David Wheeler. We therefore decided to name this graph class after this pioneer of computer science.

graphs can be compactly represented and traversed using up to three arrays with additional data structures supporting efficient rank and select operations. It turns out that these arrays coincide with, or are substantially equivalent to, the output of many BWT variants described in the literature.

40 We believe our unifying view can help researchers develop new BWT variants and new indexing data structures. However, we stress that not every BWT-related data structure fits our framework: for example Ganguly et al.’s parameterized BWT [25] and the index for order-preserving matching in [23]. Therefore, we hope that our contribution will spur further research
 45 resulting in a wider vision of the fascinating field originated by the seminal work of Burrows and Wheeler.

2. Definitions and Basic Results

Consider a directed edge-labeled graph G such that each edge is labeled by a character from an totally-ordered alphabet A . We use \prec to denote the ordering among A ’s elements. Labels on the edges leaving a given node are
 50 not necessarily distinct, and there can be multiple edges linking the same pair of nodes (for simplicity we still use the term *graph* rather than the more formally correct *multi-graph*).

Definition 1. G is a *Wheeler graph* if there is an ordering of the nodes such
 55 that nodes with in-degree 0 precede those with positive in-degree and, for any pair of edges $e = (u, v)$ and $e' = (u', v')$ labelled a and a' respectively, the following monotonicity properties hold:

$$\begin{aligned} a \prec a' &\implies v < v', \\ (a = a') \wedge (u < u') &\implies v \leq v'. \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

An example of a Wheeler graph is shown in Fig. 1. As an immediate consequence of (1), all edges entering a given node must have the same label.
 60 We now show that Wheeler graphs also possess the following property:

Definition 2. G is *path coherent* if there is a total order of the nodes such that for any consecutive range $[i, j]$ of nodes and string α , the nodes reachable from those in $[i, j]$ in $|\alpha|$ steps by following edges whose labels for α when concatenated, themselves form a consecutive range.

65 **Lemma 3.** *If G is a Wheeler graph by an ordering π on its nodes then it is path coherent by π .*

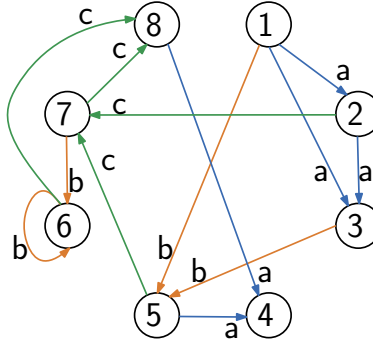


Figure 1: An eight-node Wheeler graph. Node 1 has in-degree 0; edges labelled a enters in nodes 2, 3, 4; edges labelled b in nodes 5, 6; edges labelled c in nodes 7, 8.

Proof. Suppose G is a Wheeler graph by π . Consider a consecutive range $[i, j]$ of nodes and let $[i', j']$ be the smallest range that contains all the nodes reachable from those in $[i, j]$ in one step by following edges labelled with some character a . By our choice of $[i', j']$, both i' and j' are reachable from nodes in $[i, j]$ in one step by following edges labelled a . By our definition of a Wheeler graph, nodes with in-degree 0 precede those with positive in-degree, such as i' , so every node in $[i', j']$ has at least one incoming edge.

Assume some node v strictly between i' and j' has an incoming edge labelled $a' \neq a$. Since $i' < v$ we have $a \prec a'$, by our definition of a Wheeler graph and *modus tollens*; similarly, since $v < j'$ we have $a' \prec a$, thus obtaining a contradiction. It follows that the edges arriving at nodes in $[i', j']$ are all labelled a . Furthermore, since the labels are equal, by the second implication in (1) and *modus tollens* we get that any edge with destination strictly between i' and j' must originate in $[i, j]$.

It follows that the nodes reachable in one step from those in $[i, j]$ by following edges labelled a are the ones in $[i', j']$, which is a consecutive range. For any string α , therefore, the nodes reachable in $|\alpha|$ steps from those in $[i, j]$ by following edges whose labels form α , themselves form a consecutive range, by induction on the length of α . \square

In the later sections of this paper, we explore the implications of path coherence. In the remainder of this section we first show it is possible to obtain a fast and compact representation of a Wheeler graph, then sketch why Wheeler graphs can achieve compression. We point out that, even without explicitly defining Wheeler graphs, many researchers have implicitly considered them while studying how to implement efficiently BWT variants

and how to bound their space usage, and given results analogous to the ones we give now.

A plain, edge-by-edge representation of a labelled graph with n nodes and e edges uses $\Theta(e(\log n + \log |A|))$ bits. Given a Wheeler graph G , let $x_1 < x_2 < \dots < x_n$ denote the ordered set of nodes. For $i = 1, \dots, n$ let ℓ_i and k_i denote respectively the out-degree and in-degree of node x_i . Define the binary arrays of length $e + n$

$$O = 0^{\ell_1} 1 0^{\ell_2} 1 \dots 0^{\ell_n} 1, \quad I = 0^{k_1} 1 0^{k_2} 1 \dots 0^{k_n} 1. \quad (2)$$

Note that O (resp. I) consists of the concatenated unary representations of the out-degrees (resp. in-degrees). Let L_i denote the multiset of labels on the edges exiting from x_i arranged in an arbitrary order, and let $L[1..e]$ denote the concatenation $L = L_1 L_2 \dots L_n$. By construction, $|L_i| = \ell_i$ and there is a natural one-to-one correspondence between the 0's in O and the characters in L . For example, for the graph of Fig. 1 it is

$$\begin{aligned} O &= 000100101100100100101 \\ L &= aab\ ac\ b\ \ ac\ bc\ bc\ a \end{aligned}$$

while the indegree array is $I = 101001001001001001001$. Finally, let $C[1..|A|]$ denote the array such that $C[c]$ is the number of edges with label smaller than c . For simplicity, assume every distinct character labels some edge; otherwise, we store a bitvector of $|A|$ bits marking the characters that do label edges and work with that subset. With this assumption, $C[c] < C[c+1]$ and x_j has all incoming edges labeled c if and only if $C[c] < \sum_{i \leq j} k_i \leq C[c+1]$.

Given an array Z we use the standard notation $\text{rank}_c(Z, i)$ to denote the number of occurrences of c in $Z[1, i]$, and $\text{select}_c(Z, j)$ to denote the position of the j -th c in Z . For simplicity we assume $\text{rank}_c(Z, 0) = 0$. The following two properties are straightforward to prove; indeed, similar properties have been established in many papers dealing with BWT-related data structures.

1. The out-degree ℓ_i of node x_i is $\text{select}_1(O, i) - \text{select}_1(O, i - 1)$. The labels in the edges leaving x_i are $L[w_i - \ell_i + 1, w_i]$ where $w_i = \text{select}_1(O, i) - i$.
2. If node x_i has one or more outgoing edges labeled c , then the largest index j such that (x_i, x_j) has label c can be computed as follows. Let w_i be defined as above and let $h_i = \text{rank}_c(L, w_i)$. If we order edges by label with ties broken by origin, (x_i, x_j) is the h_i -th edge labeled c . Since there are $C[c]$ edges with a label smaller than c , we have $j = 1 + \text{rank}_1(I, \text{select}_0(I, h_i + C[c]))$. To find the smaller indices j such that (x_i, x_j) has label c , we decrement h_i and repeat this procedure, until $h_i = \text{rank}_c(L, w_i - \ell_i) + 1$.

With a symmetric reasoning, given x_j and c we can establish whether there exists an edge labeled c entering in x_j , and, if this is the case, all indices i such that (x_i, x_j) has label c . Using standard data structures to represent compactly arrays supporting rank and select queries [43], we can establish the following result.

Lemma 4. *It is possible to represent an n -node, e -edge Wheeler graph with labels over the alphabet A in $2(e + n) + e \log |A| + |A| \log e + o(n + e \log |A|)$ bits. The representation supports the forward and backward traversing of the edges in $\mathcal{O}(\log |A|)$ time. \square*

We can often reduce even further the space used to represent Wheeler graphs. For example, suppose G is a Wheeler graph; V_k is the set of nodes of G reachable in exactly k steps from some other nodes; S is a set of strings of length k such that every node in V_k is reachable in k steps by following edges whose labels when concatenated form a string in S ; and f is a function assigning to each node $v \in V_k$ a string $s \in S$ such that v is reachable in k steps by following edges whose labels when concatenated form s . Consider the list L_k of labels of edges originating in V_k in order by origin with ties broken by label.

By Lemma 3, for $s \in S$ all the nodes $v \in V_k$ such that $f(v) = s$ form a consecutive interval. Therefore, we can partition L_k into $|S|$ consecutive intervals such that each interval L_s is the concatenation of the labels of edges leaving nodes v such that $f(v) = s$; L_s is empty for $s \notin S$. It follows that if $k \leq (1 - \epsilon) \lg_\sigma |V_k|$, where $\epsilon > 0$ is a constant and $\sigma = |A|$ is the size of the alphabet of labels, then we can store L_k in $\sum_{s \in A^k} |L_s| H_0(L_s) + o(|V_k|)$ bits, where $H_0(L_s)$ is the 0th-order empirical entropy of L_s . Informally, this means that if knowing how we can get to a node in k steps tells us a lot about the labels that are likely to be on the edges leaving that node, then we can compress L_k well. In some ways this generalizes the well-known analyses [14, 39] of the compression achievable using the Burrows-Wheeler Transform on a single string.

3. NFAs, Wheeler Graphs and FM-Indexes

Suppose we have never heard the words “Suffix Array” or “Burrows-Wheeler Transform” but we want to build a data structure supporting efficient queries for the substrings of, say, $s = \text{ABRACADABRA}$. A simple solution would be to build the Deterministic Finite Automaton (DFA) accepting all substrings of s , see Fig. 2 (left). Although there are techniques to

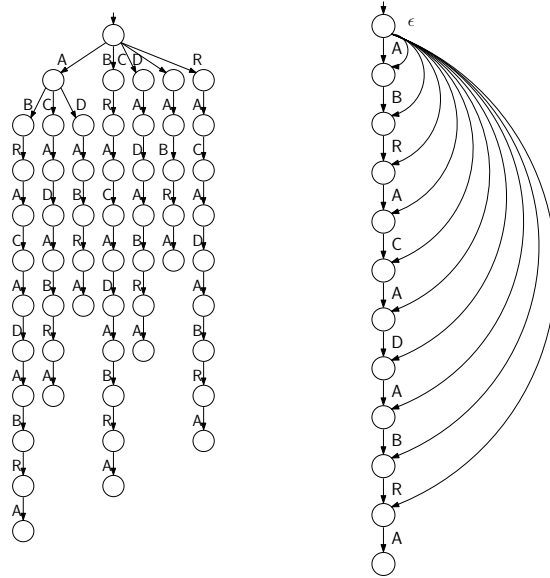


Figure 2: Deterministic (left) and non-deterministic (right) finite automata accepting all substrings of ABRACADABRA. All states are accepting.

compactly represent DFAs, such avenue will likely lead to a data structure
 165 much larger than the $\mathcal{O}(n \log |A|)$ bits of the original text.

A more space economical alternative is to build the Nondeterministic
 Finite Automaton (NFA) for the same set of substrings: It has a linear
 structure, see Fig. 2 (right), but because of nondeterminism, processing of
 patterns appears to be a difficult task. It turns out that this difficulty is
 170 only a matter of perspective: traversing the DFA becomes much simpler if
 we recognize that it is a Wheeler graph in disguise.

The NFA of Fig. 2 is already a labelled directed graph. To make it a
 Wheeler graph we only need to eliminate the ϵ -transitions (which violate the
 property that all the incoming edges to a node have the same label), make
 175 all the states initial (so the language is not changed), and define an ordering
 of the nodes such that the monotonicity properties (1) hold. To this end,
 we associate to each node of the NFA the prefix of s that takes us there
 without an ϵ -transition and order the NFA nodes according to the right-to-
 left lexicographic rank of such strings, see Fig. 3 (left and center). With this
 180 definition the NFA without ϵ -transitions is a Wheeler graph. Once the node
 ordering is established we can discard the prefixes and identify each node
 with its rank in the ordering, see Fig. 3 (right).

In the Wheeler graph derived from the NFA of Fig. 3 every node has

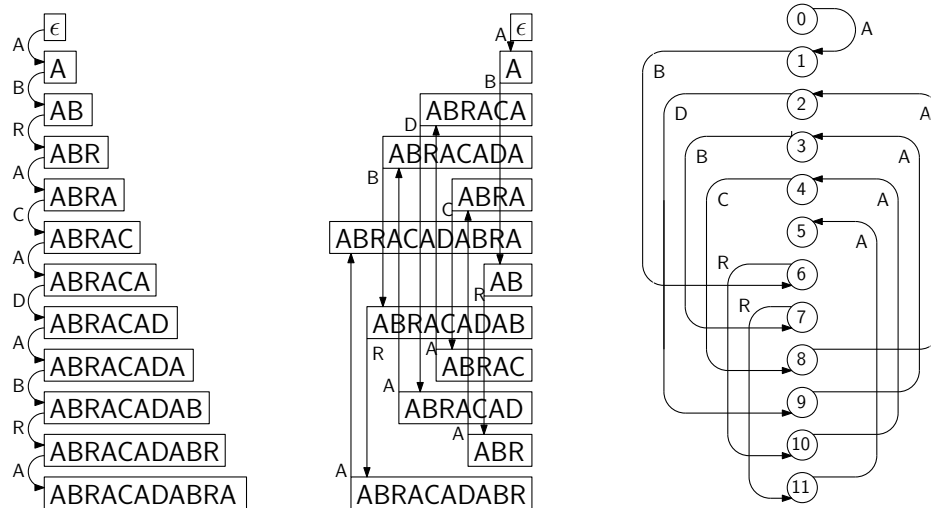


Figure 3: From the NFA (left) to the Wheeler graph (center) to the FM-index (right). All states are initial and accepting and numbered on the right to show that the diagram is a Wheeler graph.

185 out-degree 1 except from node 5, corresponding to the longest prefix, that
 has out-degree zero. Hence, in the representation of the Wheeler graph
 described in Sect. 2, we can get rid of the bitarray O and instead insert in
 position 5 of L a symbol not occurring elsewhere in s , say $\$$. Since all nodes
 have in-degree 1 except node 0 (ignoring the sourceless edges indicating
 190 that all nodes are initial) there is no need to store the bitarray I either.
 Summing up, we can represent and navigate the Wheeler graph using the
 string $L = \text{ABDBC}\$ \text{RRAAAA}$, enriched with data structures for rank/select
 operations, and the the array $C[1..|A|]$. Since the string L coincides with
 the last column of the BWT matrix of s^R , the string s reversed, and C
 is a well-known representation of the first column of such matrix, we have
 195 established the following result.

Lemma 5. *Given a string s , let $\text{NFA}(s)$ denote the corresponding NFA described above. The FM-index of s^R is a compact representation of $\text{NFA}(s)$. The Last-to-First and First-to-Last maps of the FM-index coincides with the navigation operations in $\text{NFA}(s)$. \square*

200 The attentive reader may ask why the Wheeler graph represents the FM-
 index of s^R while historically the FM-index was defined for s . The reason

is that the FM-index was derived from the BWT of s . The consequence is that the search of the pattern must be done right-to-left: the infamous backward-search procedure [20]. Here, we have defined the NFA so that the search is done left-to-right and through the Wheeler graph we have therefore obtained the FM-index of s^R .

Lemma 5 provides a new perspective on FM-indexes that may be interesting in its own right and, more importantly, suggests a way we can systematically generalize the ideas behind FM-indexes to indexing other kinds of data than single strings. Using the concept of path coherence, we now prove a more powerful version of this lemma:

Theorem 6. *Consider a finite-state automaton over an alphabet A without ϵ -transitions and with either one initial state or all states initial. If its state diagram is a Wheeler graph with n nodes and e edges then we can store it in $2(e + n) + e \log |A| + |A| \log e + o(n + e \log |A|)$ bits such that, for any string α , in $\mathcal{O}(|\alpha| \log |A|)$ time we can compute the set of states reachable from the initial states on α .*

Proof. Suppose the state diagram is a Wheeler graph by an ordering π on its nodes so, by Lemma 3, it is path coherent by π . Since either one state is initial or all are, the initial states form a consecutive range in π . By Definition 2, the nodes reachable from the initial states on each prefix of α form a consecutive interval. We can use Lemma 4 to map from the interval for each prefix to the interval for the next prefix in $\mathcal{O}(\log |A|)$ time. \square

Theorem 6 means that if we have a problem we can solve with a finite-state automaton, then even if the automaton is non-deterministic we may still be able to implement it without the usual blowups in space or query time. In the rest of this paper we show that many data structures based on variants of the BWT fit into this framework.

We note as an aside that FM-indexes usually include a sampled suffix array which permits us to locate each occurrence of a pattern in the indexed string. Extending this idea to automata seems straightforward, by sampling the nodes, but we do not explore that in this paper.

4. Other Wheeler Graphs in Disguise

4.1. Multi-string BWT and Permuterm Index

The first natural generalization of the BWT is to extend it to a collection of strings. This was done for the first time in [36–38] where the authors described a reversible multi-string transformation inspired by the BWT,

and showed its effectiveness for data compression and for measuring string similarity.

240 In the context of pattern matching, given a collection of strings s_1, \dots, s_d , in addition to substring queries it is convenient to offer also the possibility of *prefix/suffix* queries. In a prefix/suffix query, given two substring α, β we want to find all strings s_i such that s_i is prefixed by α and suffixed by β . As first observed in [21, 22] with the Compressed Permuterm Index, such queries
 245 can be solved by adding a special symbol $\$$ to each string and searching for the pattern $\beta\$ \alpha$ inside a *circular* version of each $s_i\$$. Fig. 4 (left) shows the NFA supporting circular queries for the strings AT\$, HOT\$, HAT\$. To each node we naturally associate a circular shift of one of the strings; if we sort the nodes according to the right-to-left lexicographic order of such shifts the
 250 resulting graph is a Wheeler graph, see Fig. 4 (right).

Since each node in the Wheeler graph has in-degree and out-degree 1, we can represent it with the approach of Lemma 4, using only the arrays L and C . Note that the array L , $L = \text{AHHTTAOT}\$\$\$\$$ in the example of Fig. 4, coincides with the multi-string BWT defined in terms of the cyclic shifts
 255 in [38]. Instead, the Compressed Permuterm Index is built computing the single-string BWT of the concatenation $s_1\$s_2 \cdots \s_d that does not support naturally the search for circular patterns. The authors of [21] got around this problem by sorting the strings s_1, \dots, s_d before the concatenation and by applying the so-called `jump2end` function. More recent algorithms using
 260 circular pattern search all make use of the cyclic multi-string BWT [2, 7, 8, 30].

4.2. XBWT and trie representation

If we are only interested in the substrings of a collection s_1, \dots, s_d , and not in circular matches, a smaller automaton than the one considered in
 265 the previous section is the one derived from the *trie* data structure, see Fig. 5. Following the lead from [16–18], we associate to each node the string formed by the labels in the node-to-root upward path, and we order all nodes according to the lexicographic rank of such strings.

The resulting graph is a Wheeler graph with the same number of nodes
 270 as the original trie. In a trie all nodes except the root have in-degree 1 so in the representation of Lemma 4 we do not need to store the in-degree binary array. Hence the representation consists of the out-degree binary array O , the labels array L and the count array C . For the trie in Fig. 5 we have

$$\begin{aligned} O &= 001\ 0001\ 01\ 1\ 1\ 1\ 01\ 001\ 01\ 01\ 1 \\ L &= \text{AB ABC C} \quad \text{A AC A A} \end{aligned}$$

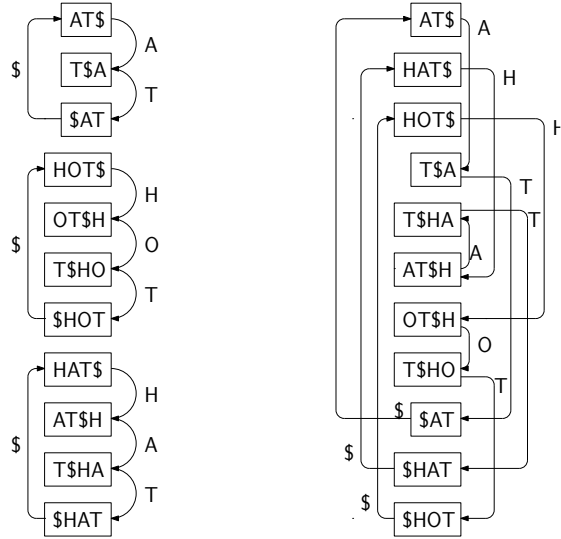


Figure 4: Left: A finite automaton accepting all circular substrings of $AT\$$, $HOT\$$, $HAT\$$; all states are initial and accepting. Right: Sorting the states according to the associated circular shifts gives us a Wheeler graph.

275 This representation is essentially equivalent to the XBWT (eXtended BWT)
introduced in [16] to represent labelled trees, with the arrays O and L cor-
responding respectively to $\mathcal{S}_{\text{last}}$ and \mathcal{S}_α in [16]. Note that we can restrict
the search to prefixes by setting the root as the only start state, and we can
restrict the search to suffixes by setting as accepting states only those cor-
280 responding to one of the input strings without affecting our representation.

4.3. de Bruijn graphs

Bowe, Onodera, Sadakane and Shibuya [6] (see also, e.g., [5, 10, 33])
extended the XBWT from trees to de Bruijn graphs, which are widely used
in bioinformatics for de novo assembly, read correction, identifying genetic
285 variations in a population, and other applications. A k th-order de Bruijn
graph for a string or set of strings contains a node for each distinct k -tuple
that occurs in those strings, and an edge (u, v) if there is a $(k + 1)$ -tuple
in the strings that starts with u and ends with v (which implies that v can be
obtained from u by deleting u 's first character and appending a character).

290 Together with the GCSA, described in Section 4.5, Bowe et al.'s repre-
sentation is really the prototypical BWT-based data structure that requires
us to think in terms of graphs instead of strings. The main difference be-

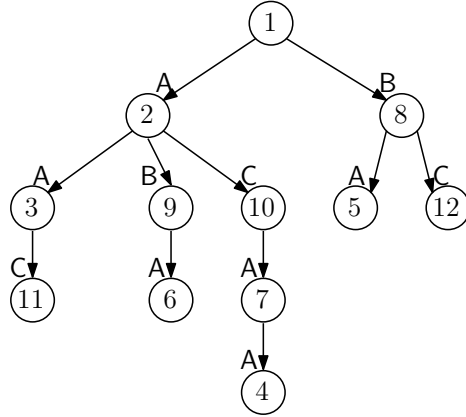


Figure 5: A finite automaton accepting all substrings of AAC, ABA, ACAA, BA and BC. All states are initial and accepting and numbered to show that the diagram is a Wheeler graph.

tween representing a labelled tree and representing a de Bruijn graph is that, in a graph, nodes can have in-degree more than 1, but this can be handled using the in-degree array I as described in Lemma 4.

We can also rederive Bowe *et al.*'s representation from Theorem 6: we build a finite-state automaton that accepts all prefixes of length at least k of strings containing only k -tuples and $(k + 1)$ -tuples from a given list, by building a trie for the k -tuples and then adding edges connecting the leaves appropriately. Figure 6 shows an example for the triples AAA, AAB, AAC, ABA, BAA, BAB, CAB and CCA, with the edges for BAAA and CABA missing: this automaton accepts all prefixes of length at least 3 of strings in which the only triples are AAA, AAB, AAC, ABA, BAA, BAB, CAB and CCA and in which BAAA and CABA do not occur. By numbering each node according to the lexicographic rank of the string labelling the node-to-root path, the state diagram is immediately seen to be a Wheeler graph.

4.4. FM-index of alignment

Let G be a Wheeler graph under node ordering π . If all incoming edges to nodes in range $[i, j]$ have the same label, we can merge the range into a single node v , and the resulting graph G' will still be a Wheeler graph. If graph G has an edge with label a from node u to a node in range $[i, j]$, graph G' will have an edge (u, v) with label a . Similarly, if graph G has an edge with label a' from a node in range $[i, j]$ to node w , graph G' will have an edge (v, w) with label a' .

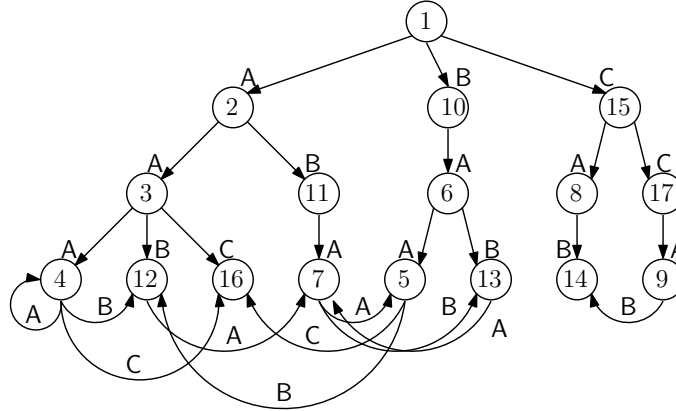


Figure 6: A finite automaton accepting all prefixes of length at least 3 of strings in which the only triples are AAA, AAB, AAC, ABA, BAA, BAB, CAB and CCA and in which BAAA and CABA do not occur. State 1 is initial, all states at distance 3 from the initial state are accepting. States are numbered to show that the diagram is a Wheeler graph.

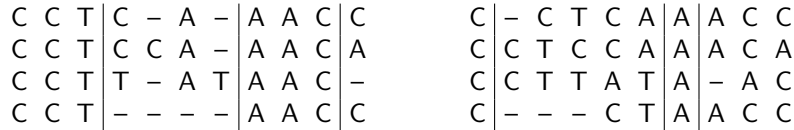


Figure 7: Left: An alignment of strings CCTCAAACC, CCTCCAAACA, CCTTATAAC, and CCTAACC. The alignment has been separated into common and non-common regions. Right: The alignment transformed for FMA. The suffixes moved to the non-common regions are CT for the first common region and AC for the second one.

315 If we have a multi-string BWT, we can transform its Wheeler graph into
a more compact representation of the strings by merging ranges of nodes.
This compact representation may contain *false positives*: path labels that
combine substrings from different original strings. The *FM-index of align-*
ment (FMA) [40, 41] has an efficient procedure for detecting false positives,
320 based on carefully choosing the nodes to merge.

We start with an alignment of the strings, and separate the alignment
into *common* regions X_i shared between all strings, and *non-common* regions
 Y_i where some strings are different. We assume that each common region
has a proper suffix Z_i that does not occur anywhere else in the strings.
325 If no such suffix exists, we merge the common region into the neighboring
non-common regions. We transform the alignment in two steps. First we
move the suffixes Z_i into the following non-common regions Y_i . Then we
justify each non-common region to the right, and use X'_i and Y'_i to denote

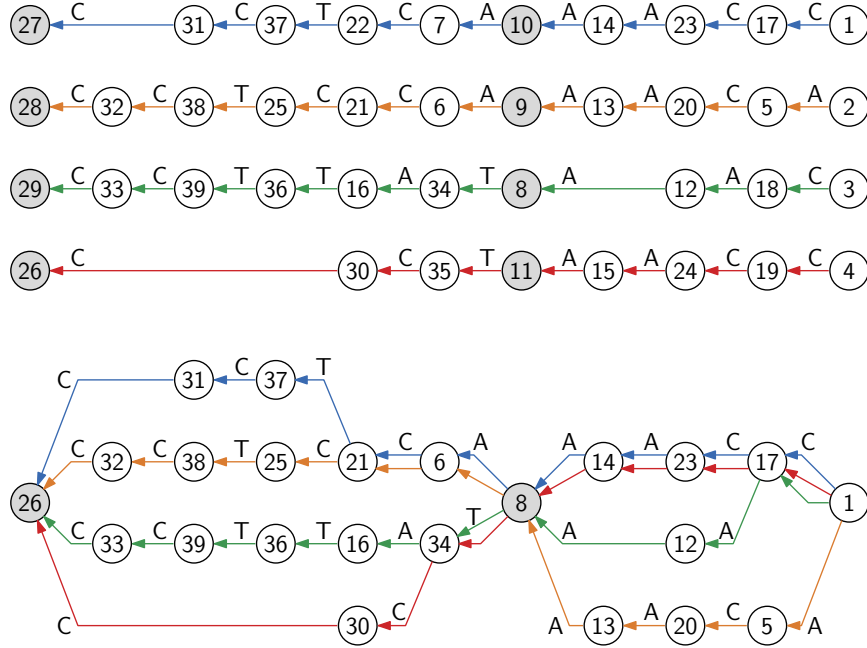


Figure 8: Top: Wheeler graph of the multi-string BWT of the transformed alignment in Figure 7. Node ordering is based on the labels in the nodes. Gray nodes correspond to the common regions. Bottom: Wheeler graph of the FMA for the same alignment. The colors of each edge mark the original strings that cross the edge. The labels of non-merged nodes are the same as in the top graph for convenience.

the common and non-common regions in the transformed alignment. See
 330 Figure 7 for an example.

The transformed alignment guides us in merging the Wheeler graph of
 the multi-string BWT into the FM-index of alignment. As we are building
 an FM-index for the original strings, we need to build a Wheeler graph for
 the reverse strings. We merge nodes corresponding to aligned positions, if
 335 the nodes a) have in-degree 0; b) are in a common region; or c) correspond
 to the same suffix of the non-common region. See Figure 8 for an example.

By Lemma 3, the Wheeler graph of a multi-string BWT is path coherent.
 To see that the graph remains a Wheeler graph after merging, we note that:

1. Source nodes with in-degree 0 form a consecutive range by Definition 1.
- 340 2. A common region X'_i is entered either from the source nodes or from
 the following non-common region Y'_i . In the latter case, the set of
 nodes reachable with string Z_i^R is the set of nodes with outgoing edges
 to the common region X'_i . By Lemma 3, these nodes form a consecutive

range. As the common region is entered from a consecutive range of
 345 nodes, we see by iterating Definition 2 that nodes corresponding to
 aligned positions in the region also form consecutive ranges.

3. By the previous two cases, the non-common region is entered from a
 consecutive range of nodes. By Definition 2, we see that the nodes
 corresponding to a suffix of the region form consecutive ranges.

False positives are paths that do not correspond to any of the original
 strings. They can occur when the path comes from a non-common region
 Y'_{i+1} , enters a common region X'_{i+1} , and exits into another non-common
 region Y'_i . Assume that for each node v we have stored the set of strings
 S_v passing through the node. To check for false positives, we take the
 355 intersection of sets S_v over all nodes v on the path. If the intersection is
 non-empty, it contains the strings *compatible* with the path. If (u, v) is the
 only outgoing edge from node u , we have $S_u \subseteq S_v$. Similarly, if (u, v) is
 the only incoming edge to node v , we have $S_v \subseteq S_u$. Hence it is enough to
 take the intersection a) at the final node; and b) at nodes u , where the path
 360 crosses an edge (u, v) to a node v with multiple incoming edges. It is also
 enough to store the set S_u explicitly if a) node u has multiple or no outgoing
 edges; or b) $S_u \neq S_v$ for the only outgoing edge (u, v) .

Let α be a string, let V_α be the set of nodes reachable by following paths
 with label α , and let S_α be the set of strings compatible with the paths.
 365 Because the graph is a DFA, the set of reachable nodes is monotonically
 decreasing: $|V_{\alpha a}| \leq |V_\alpha|$ and $|V_{\alpha a}| \leq |V_\alpha|$ for any character $a \in A$. If Z_i is
 a moved substring, $|V_{Z_i^R a}| \leq 1$ for any character $a \in A$, as the paths can
 only end at the rightmost node of the common region X'_i . If set $V_{Z_i^R a}$ is
 non-empty, set $S_{Z_i^R a}$ contains all strings, as aZ_i is a substring of all strings.

When we search in FMA, we move from V_α to $V_{\alpha a}$. We update the set of
 compatible strings S lazily. Initially the set contains all strings. If $|V_\alpha| > 1$,
 there cannot be false positives. Either none of the paths enters a common
 region from a non-common region, or all such paths start within Z_i and
 enter X'_i through every incoming edge. In either case, $S_\alpha = \bigcup_{v \in V_\alpha} S_v$. If
 375 $|V_{\alpha a}| = 1$ and the node $v \in V_{\alpha a}$ has multiple incoming edges, there is a risk
 of false positives. We therefore update $S \leftarrow S \cap \bigcup_{v \in V_\alpha} S_v$. When the search
 finishes at $V_{\alpha'}$, the set of compatible strings is $S \cap \bigcup_{v \in V_{\alpha'}} S_v$.

4.5. GCSA

While not all NFAs have an ordering of nodes that makes them Wheeler
 380 graphs, we can use Wheeler graphs to index path labels of length up to k
 in arbitrary graphs [49]. This is the idea behind Generalized Compressed

Suffix Arrays (GCSAs). We emphasize that Wheeler graphs can be larger than the graphs they are used to index.

Definition 7. Let G be an NFA, let G' be a Wheeler graph, let α be a string, and let V_α and V'_α be the sets of nodes reachable with α in G and G' , respectively. Graph G' is a k th-order *path graph* of G for a $k > 0$, if there is a function f from nodes of G' to sets of nodes of G such that $V_\alpha = \bigcup_{v \in V'_\alpha} f(v)$ for all $|\alpha| \leq k$.

We can use a k th-order de Bruijn graph of path labels in graph G as a k th-order path graph of G . See Figure 9 for an example. Function f has the same role as the suffix array. As with the sets of strings in FMA, we must store set $f(u)$ explicitly, if a) node u has multiple or no outgoing edges; or b) we cannot derive $f(u)$ from $f(v)$ for the only outgoing edge (u, v) . We often number the nodes of the NFA in a way such that $f(u) = \{x - 1 \mid x \in f(v)\}$, if (u, v) is the only outgoing edge from u and the only incoming edge to v .

With large values of k , de Bruijn graphs often have many redundant nodes when we use them as path graphs. If $|\alpha| \leq k$, the nodes V'_α reachable with α in the de Bruijn graph are the ones with α as a suffix of the corresponding k -tuples. By Lemma 3, the nodes form a consecutive range. If $f(v) = f(v')$ for all $v, v' \in V'_\alpha$, we can merge the nodes without affecting reachability. *GCSA2* [49] uses such *pruned de Bruijn graphs* to save space when indexing path labels in an NFA. See Figure 9 for an example.

The original *GCSA* [50] considers a different scenario. Instead of indexing paths of length up to k in an arbitrary NFA, it indexes paths of arbitrary length in an acyclic DFA. Conceptually, GCSA construction searches for a de Bruijn graph G' that is equivalent to the input graph G as a DFA, and then uses that de Bruijn graph as an infinite-order path graph of G . Consecutive ranges of nodes are merged if $f(v) = f(v')$ for all nodes v and v' in the range, even if the ranges do not correspond to shared suffixes of the k -tuples. See Figure 9 (bottom) for an example.

4.6. PBWT, wavelet trees and wavelet matrices

Another remarkable variant of the BWT is Durbin's positional BWT [12] (PBWT), which he introduced for haplotype matching but has also been used for reconstructing ancestral recombination graphs [48]. Given d strings of equal length the PBWT supports the matching of substrings starting at a specified position in the strings.

We can view the PBWT as a Wheeler graph with the same structure as that of the multi-string BWT. If the multi-string BWT has an edge (u, v)

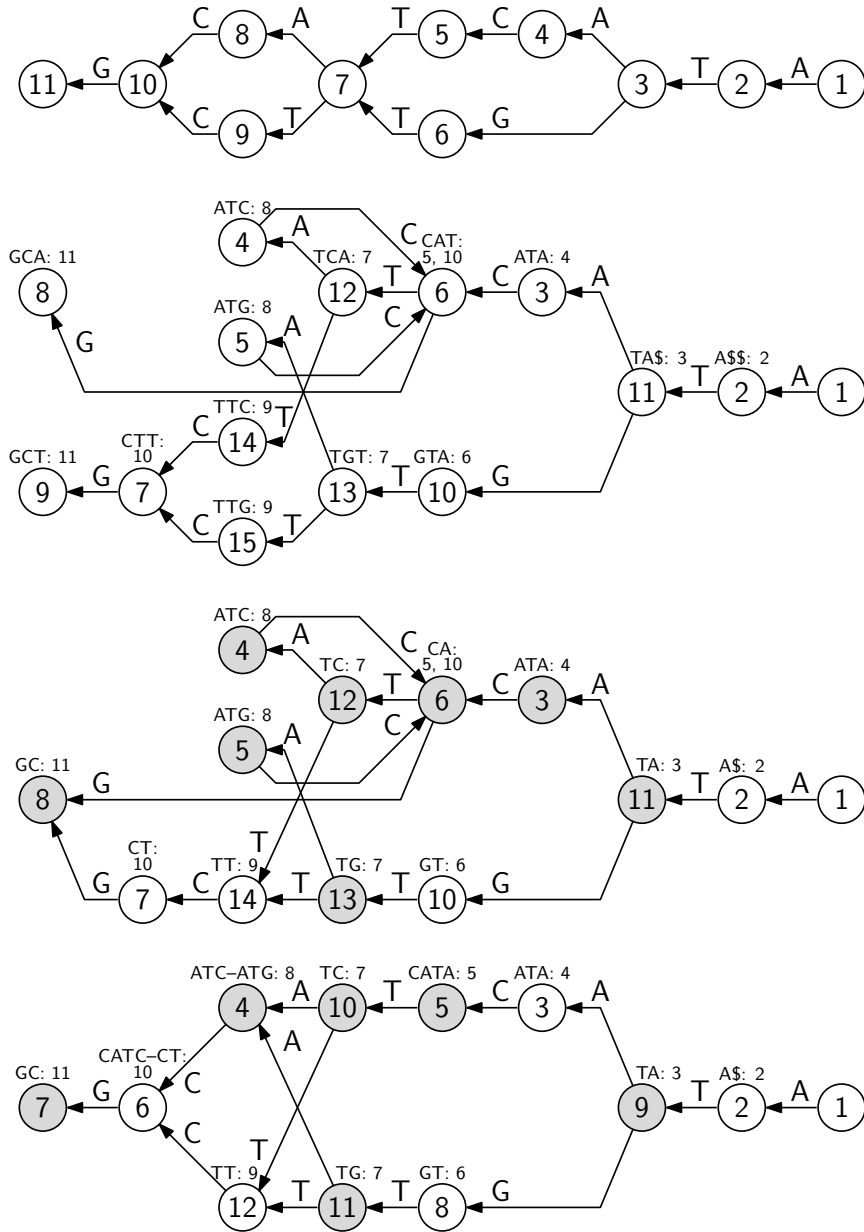


Figure 9: Top: A DFA. Second: A 3rd-order de Bruijn graph for path labels in the DFA. Node labels indicate node ordering in the Wheeler graph. We also show the k -tuples corresponding to each node (in reverse to match the sorting order) and the mapping f to the nodes of the DFA. Third: A pruned de Bruijn graph for the DFA. Node labels are compatible with the second graph. Gray color indicates nodes where the mapping must be stored explicitly. Bottom: A path graph based on a 4th-order de Bruijn graph.

with label a from text position i to position $i + 1$, PBWT uses $(i + 1, a)$ as the
420 label. Because all edges from position i go to position $i + 1$, the positional
component is always $i + 1$ for all outgoing edges in range $[(i - 1)d + 1, id]$.
Hence, we can infer the position from the range and store just the character
 a in the succinct representation (Lemma 4). A generalization [44] of PBWT
relaxes the requirements. Instead of storing strings of equal length, we store
425 the labels of paths in a graph. If edge (u, v) in the Wheeler graph corresponds
to edge (u', v') with label a in the underlying graph, we use (v', a) as the
label of the edge. As we can no longer infer the positional component, we
have to store it explicitly.

Although introduced for completely different applications, the PBWT
430 bears a striking resemblance to a data structure called a wavelet matrix,
which Claude, Navarro and Ordóñez [11] introduced as a version of the
wavelet tree [28] better suited for large alphabets. This suggests that even
wavelet trees and matrices can be viewed as Wheeler graphs. For the sake
of brevity, we assume the reader is familiar with these data structures with
435 “myriad virtues” [13, 24], and note only that, while building a wavelet tree is
analogous to a most-significant-bit-first radix sort, building either a PBWT
or a wavelet matrix is analogous to a least-significant-bit-first radix sort.

Consider the wavelet tree shown on the left in Figure 10. Since it is
a tree, we can use our construction from Subsection 4.2 to build an FSA
440 (with one initial state) that accepts all the binary strings that are root-to-
leaf paths in the wavelet tree. This does not store all the information in the
wavelet tree, however, so we turn the graph from an FSA into a directed
multi-graph, as shown on the right in Figure 10, which is still a Wheeler
graph. This graph has some interesting properties: e.g., the order of the
445 outgoing edges from each node encode the bitvector stored at that node in
the wavelet tree; as in the wavelet tree, for each internal node v except the
root, v ’s in-degree and out-degree are equal and its in-degree is equal to the
sum of the in-degrees of its leaf descendants. It is beyond the scope of this
paper to investigate this representation of wavelet trees as a data structure,
450 but it seems like an interesting direction for future research that goes beyond
the reach of Theorem 6.

Now consider the wavelet matrix show on the left in Figure 11. We can
turn it into a Wheeler graph if, as in the wavelet tree, we transform it into
a directed multi-graph and then, as in the PBWT, we rename the label c
455 on each edge with the pair (i, c) , where i is the level of the starting node, as
shown on the right in Figure 11. Again, the Wheeler graph clearly encodes
the wavelet matrix, but we leave as future work investigating the possible
benefits of this alternative representation.

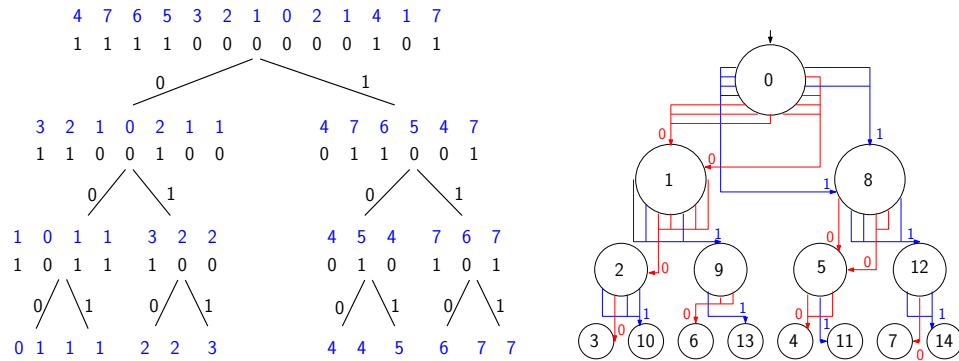


Figure 10: A standard representation of a wavelet tree and its representation as a Wheeler graph.

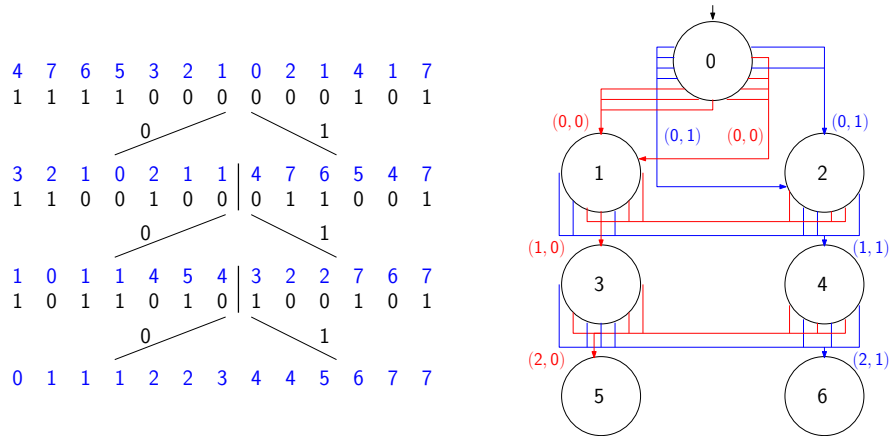


Figure 11: A standard representation of a wavelet matrix and its representation as a Wheeler graph with edge labels over a larger alphabet.

5. Conclusions and Future Work

460 We have defined Wheeler graphs to try to capture the ideas behind many
of the variants of the BWT, and given a framework for developing new vari-
ants by solving problems with finite-state automata whose state diagrams
are Wheeler graphs. We did not pursue the topic here, but Wheeler graphs
seem able to capture properties also of string transformations not related to
465 pattern matching: by reversing the inequality $u < u'$ in (1) we get a slightly
different notion of Wheeler graph that can be used to succinctly represent
the variant of the BWT defined in terms of the alternating lexicographic
order [26] (see also [27] for an ancestor of the multi-string BWT).

There has been so much work involving the BWT, however, that it would
470 be surprising if one idea could subsume it all, and indeed some BWT-related
results, such as the positional BWT, seemingly cannot be reasonably mod-
elled by finite-state automata, even if they can still be viewed as Wheeler
graphs; other BWT-related results, such as Ganguly et al.’s parameterized
BWT [25] and the index for order-preserving matching in [23], seem not
475 even to be based on Wheeler graphs at all. We have not yet even considered
bidirectional FM-indexes [3, 31, 32] and bidirectional BWT-based de Bruijn
graphs [4].

Apart from applying and extending our framework, we hope to de-
velop algorithms to recognize Wheeler graphs efficiently, and to characterize
480 classes of finite-state diagrams that are Wheeler graphs or can be expanded
slightly to become Wheeler graphs without changing the language accepted
by the automata (although characterizing all such state diagrams might be
difficult). In this regard we observe that not all regular languages have
finite-state automata whose state diagrams are Wheeler graphs: e.g., in any
485 finite-state automaton for the language $(ax^*b)|(cx^*d)$, there must be disjoint
paths for $ax^k b$ and $cx^k d$ and both ends of all edges with label x must be
in the same order, so there must be separate nodes for $x^i b$ and $x^i d$ for all
values of i .

Finally, we hope our new perspective on BWT variants makes them more
490 accessible to computer scientists from areas outside string algorithms and
data structures.

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