# Lecture 4 : Complexity of Maximum Parsimony

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References: [SS03, Chapter 5], [DPV06, Chapter 8]

#### **Previous class**

Recall:

**THM 4.1 (Splits-Equivalence Theorem)** Let  $\Sigma$  be a collection of X-splits. Then,  $\Sigma = \Sigma(\mathcal{T})$  for some X-tree  $\mathcal{T}$  if and only if the splits in  $\Sigma$  are pairwise compatible. Such tree is unique up to isomorphism.

### 1 Beyond Perfect Phylogenies

Viewing (full, i.e., defined on all of X) binary characters as X-splits, the Splits-Equivalence Theorem and its proof via the Tree Popping procedure provide an algorithmic solution to the problem of checking whether a collection of binary characters are compatible and, if so, of constructing a minimal X-tree on which they are convex. (For a discussion of the more general non-binary, non-full problem, see [SS03, Chapters 4, 6].)

However, typical data may not be compatible and a more flexible approach is needed.

**DEF 4.2 (Parsimony Score)** Let C be a character state space with  $|C| \ge 2$ , let  $\chi$  be a (full) character on X and let  $T = (T, \phi)$  be an X-tree with T = (V, E). Let  $\bar{\chi}$  be an extension of  $\chi$  to V. The changing number  $\operatorname{ch}(\bar{\chi})$  is

$$ch(\bar{\chi}) = |\{\{u, v\} \in E\} : \bar{\chi}(u) \neq \bar{\chi}(v)|.$$

The parsimony score  $\ell(\chi, \mathcal{T})$  of  $\chi$  on  $\mathcal{T}$  is the minimum value of  $\operatorname{ch}(\bar{\chi})$  over all extensions of  $\chi$  on  $\mathcal{T}$ . For a collection  $\mathcal{C} = \{\chi_1, \dots, \chi_k\}$  of characters, the parsimony score of  $\mathcal{C}$  on  $\mathcal{T}$  is

$$\ell(\mathcal{C}, \mathcal{T}) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \ell(\chi_i, \mathcal{T}).$$

A maximum parsimony tree  $T^*$  for C is an X-tree which minimizes  $\ell(C,T)$  over all X-trees. The corresponding parsimony score is denoted by  $\ell(C)$ . A natural generalization of the parsimony score is obtained by considering a metric  $\delta$  on C and replacing  $\operatorname{ch}(\bar{\chi})$  with

$$\sum_{e=\{u,v\}\in E} \delta(\bar{\chi}(u),\bar{\chi}(v)).$$

We then use the notation  $\ell_{\delta}$ .

Given a character  $\chi$  on X, an X-tree  $\mathcal{T}$  and a metric  $\delta$  on C, one can compute the parsimony score  $\ell_{\delta}(\chi, \mathcal{T})$  using a technique known as *dynamic programming*. Choose an arbitrary root  $\rho$  on  $\mathcal{T}$ . If  $v = \phi(x)$  for some  $x \in X$ , for each  $\alpha \in C$  let

$$l(v,\alpha) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } \chi(x) = \alpha, \\ +\infty, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

(By convention, we assume that the parsimony score is  $+\infty$  if two different states are assigned to the same node of  $\mathcal{T}$ .) For all  $v \notin \phi(X)$ , let  $v_1, \ldots, v_m$  be the children of v (i.e., the immediate descendants of v in the partial order defined under the above rooting of  $\mathcal{T}$ ) and for each  $\alpha \in C$  define

$$l(v,\alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \min_{\beta \in C} \{\delta(\alpha,\beta) + l(v_i,\beta)\}.$$

Then, it is straighforward to check by induction that

$$\ell_{\delta}(\chi, \mathcal{T}) = \min_{\alpha \in C} l(\rho, \alpha),$$

which can be computed recursively from the leaves up to the root. For a collection of characters  $\mathcal{C}$ , one can compute  $\ell_{\delta}(\mathcal{C},\mathcal{T})$  by computing the parsimony scores of each character separately. Computing  $\ell_{\delta}(\mathcal{C},\mathcal{T})$  is known as the *Fixed Tree Problem*.

As it turns out, computing  $\ell_{\delta}(\mathcal{C})$  is much harder and, as we now explain, no efficient procedure is likely to exist for it.

## 2 Computational Complexity: A Brief Overview

We will use the notation g(n) = O(f(n)) to indicate that there is K > 0 such that  $g(n) \le Kf(n)$  for all  $n \ge 1$ . The following definitions are intentionally informal. For more details, see [Pap94].

In a search problem, we are given an instance  $\mathcal{I}$  and we are asked to find a solution  $\mathcal{S}$ , that is, an object that meets certain requirements (or indicate that no such solution exists). For example, in the SAT problem, we are given a formula f over a Boolean vector  $x = (x_1, \ldots, x_n)$  and we are asked to find an assignment for x such that f(x) is TRUE—if such an assignment exists.

An algorithm  $\mathcal{A}$  for a search problem is said to be *efficient* if the number of elementary operations it performs on any instance  $\mathcal{I}$  is bounded by a polynomial in the size of the input, that is, there is a constant K > 0 such that the running time of  $\mathcal{A}$  on an input of size n is  $O(n^K)$ .

**EX 4.3 (Fixed Tree Problem: Dynamic Programming)** Consider again the dynamic programming algorithm for solving the Fixed Tree Problem. For each vertex and each character state, we must perform a calculation which takes O(m|C|) where m is the number of children of that particular vertex. Summing over all vertices and character states, we get a running time of  $O(|V| \times |C|^2)$ . The input here is a character, a tree and a metric, the size of which is  $O(|X| + |V| + |C|^2)$ . Hence, the dynamic programming procedure is efficient.

**EX 4.4 (Maximum Parsimony: Exhaustive Search)** Suppose we are given a collection of characters  $C = \{\chi_1, \dots, \chi_k\}$  on X and we seek to compute  $\ell_{\delta}^{(2)}(C)$  for a metric  $\delta$ , where  $\ell_{\delta}^{(2)}$  indicates the maximum parsimony score restricted to binary phylogenetic trees on X. The input size is  $O(k|X| + |C|^2)$ . If we perform an exhaustive search over all binary phylogenetic trees and use dynamic programming on each of them to compute its parsimony score, the running time is  $O(b(|X|) \times k|V| \times |C|^2)$ , which is not polynomial in the size of the input.

**EXER 4.5** (**Tree Popping**) Show that the Tree Popping algorithm is efficient. What is its running time?

The class of all search problems for which there exists an efficient algorithm is called **P**. Another important class of search problems is **NP**, which is defined as those problems for which a solution can be verified efficiently. For example, SAT is in **NP** as, given a solution x, it is easy to check whether f(x) is TRUE. (The standard definition involves decision problems which we will not discuss here.) An important conjecture is that  $P \neq NP$ , that is, there exist problems in **NP** for which there is no efficient algorithm. In particular, it is possible to define a sub-class of **NP** consisting of the "hardest" problems within **NP** in the sense that the existence of an efficient algorithm for any such problem would lead to an efficient algorithm for any problem in **NP**. Such problems are called **NP**-complete and require the notion of a reduction to be defined. A *reduction* from a search problem A to a search problem B is:

An efficient algorithm f that transforms any instance  $\mathcal{I}$  of A into an instance  $f(\mathcal{I})$  of B, together with another efficient algorithm h that maps any solution  $\mathcal{S}$  of  $f(\mathcal{I})$  back into a solution  $h(\mathcal{S})$  of  $\mathcal{I}$ .

See [DPV06] for several examples of reductions. Then, the class of **NP**-complete problems is defined as follows:

A search problem is **NP**-complete if all other search problems in **NP** reduce to it.

It is well-known that SAT is NP-complete.

### 3 Maximum Parsimony is NP-complete

A natural way to transform an *minimization problem* such as Maximum Parsimony into a search problem is to add to the input a threshold g and ask for a solution with objective function below g. Then, the following was shown by Graham and Foulds:

**THM 4.6 (Complexity of Maximum Parsimony)** The search problem corresponding to Maximum Parsimony is **NP**-complete.

In other words, it is unlikely that an efficient algorithm exists for Maximum Parsimony.

## **Further reading**

The definitions and results discussed here were taken from Chapter 5 of [SS03] and Chapter 8 of [DPV06]. The rigorous theory of computational complexity is described at length in [Pap94]. The proof that Maximum Parsimony is **NP**-complete can be found in [GF82].

#### References

- [DPV06] S. Dasgupta, C. Papadimitriou, and U. Vazirani. *Algorithms*. McGraw-Hill, 2006.
- [GF82] R. L. Graham and L. R. Foulds. Unlikelihood that minimal phylogenies for a realistic biological study can be constructed in reasonable computational time. *Math. Biosci.*, 60:133–142, 1982.

- [Pap94] Christos H. Papadimitriou. *Computational complexity*. Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Reading, MA, 1994.
- [SS03] Charles Semple and Mike Steel. *Phylogenetics*, volume 24 of *Oxford Lecture Series in Mathematics and its Applications*. Oxford University Press, Oxford, 2003.