

# A Fixed-Parameter Algorithm for Minimum Common String Partition with Few Duplications

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**Abstract.** Motivated by the study of genome rearrangements, the NP-hard MINIMUM COMMON STRING PARTITION problem asks, given two strings, to split both strings into an identical set of blocks. We consider an extension of this problem to unbalanced strings, so that some elements may not be covered by any block. We present an efficient fixed-parameter algorithm for the parameters number  $k$  of blocks and maximum occurrence  $d$  of a letter in either string. We then evaluate this algorithm on bacteria genomes and synthetic data.

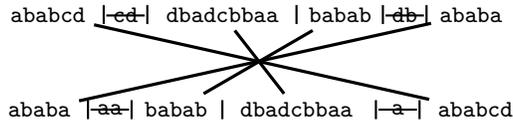
## 1 Introduction

Comparative genomics has various applications, one of which is understanding the evolution of genomes under the assumption that gene content and gene order conservation are closely related to gene function [11]. To this end, a fundamental task is to define and compute the true evolutionary distance between two given genomes [15]. This is done by the correct identification of orthologs and paralogs and by the correct identification of the evolutionary events resulting into changes in gene content and gene order. The first of these objectives is handled by several homology-based approaches [12, 16]; more evolved programs handle both objectives [1, 4, 13]. The second objective gave birth to a large number of important distances between genomes represented either as strings or as permutations. Such distances either exploit the similarity between genomes in terms of gene content and order, or count specific genome rearrangements needed to transform one genome into another (see [3] for an extensive survey).

In this work, both objectives above are followed *via* a distance between genomes represented as strings, which was defined independently by Chen et al. [1] (for ortholog/paralog identification) and Swenson et al. [15] (for evolutionary events defining an evolutionary distance). Informally, given two strings  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  representing two genomes, the operation to realize is cutting  $S_1$  into non-overlapping substrings and reordering a subset of these substrings such that the concatenation of the reordered substrings is as close as possible to  $S_2$ . The ortholog/paralog identification between  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  is then directly given by the substrings of  $S_1$  used to approximately recompose  $S_2$ , whereas the evolutionary

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**Fig. 1.** A common string partition of size 4. Copies of a, b, c and d that could not be matched are deleted.

distance is given by the minimum number of substrings needed to obtain such a reconstruction.

The above transformation between the two genomes is formalized by the notion of common string partition (CSP). Let  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  be two strings on an alphabet  $\Sigma$ . A partition  $P$  of  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  into blocks  $x_1x_2 \cdots x_p$  and  $y_1y_2 \cdots y_q$  is a *common string partition* if there is a bijective function  $M$  from  $D(M) \subseteq \{x_i \mid 1 \leq i \leq p\}$  to  $I(M) \subseteq \{y_j \mid 1 \leq j \leq q\}$  such that (1) for each  $x_i \in D(M)$ ,  $x_i$  is the same string as  $M(x_i)$ , and (2) there is no letter  $a \in \Sigma$  that is simultaneously present in some block  $x_j \notin D(M)$  and in some block  $y_l \notin I(M)$  (see Fig. 1 for an example). The *size* of the common string partition  $P$  is the cardinality  $k$  of  $D(M)$ . We study the problem of finding a minimum-size CSP:

#### MINIMUM COMMON STRING PARTITION (MCSP)

**Input:** Two strings  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  on an alphabet  $\Sigma$ , and an integer  $k$ .

**Question:** Is there a common string partition (CSP) of  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  of size at most  $k$ ?

The definition of a CSP given above is actually a generalization to arbitrary (or *unbalanced*) strings of the definition given in [1] for *balanced* strings, that is, when each letter appears the same number of times in  $S_1$  and  $S_2$ . Note also that in this paper, the strings we consider are unsigned. Although this model is less realistic from a genomic viewpoint, our study is a first step towards improved algorithms for the MCSP problem in the most general case, that is, for signed and unbalanced strings.

*Related Work.* MCSP was introduced by Chen et al. [1], but close variants also exist with different names, such as *block edit distance* [10] or *sequence cover* [15]. Most of the literature on MCSP actually considers the restricted case where the input strings  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  are balanced. In that case, necessarily  $D(M)$  (resp.  $I(M)$ ) contains every block from  $S_1$  (resp.  $S_2$ ). Let Bal-MCSP denote this restricted class of problems. Bal-MCSP has been shown to be NP-hard and APX-hard even if  $d = 2$ , where  $d$  is the maximum number of occurrences of any letter in either input string [5]. Several approximation algorithms exist with ratios 1.1037 when  $d = 2$  [5], 4 when  $d = 3$  [5], and  $4d$  in general [9]. Concerning fixed-parameter tractability issues, Damaschke [2] initiated the study of Bal-MCSP in the context of parameterized algorithmics by showing that it is fixed-parameter tractable with respect to the combined parameter "partition size  $k$  and repetition number  $r$ ". More recently, Jiang et al. [6] showed that Bal-MCSP can be solved in  $O((d!)^k \cdot \text{poly}(n))$  time.

*Our Results.* Our main result in this paper is an improvement on the latter result, showing that MCSP (and thus, Bal-MCSP) can be solved in  $O(d^{2k} \cdot kn)$  time, thus considerably improving the running time from Jiang et al. [6]. Our result is also more general since it is one of the rare known fixed-parameter algorithms that deals with unbalanced strings. Moreover, a(n approximate) solution to MCSP is computed within the pipeline of MSOAR, MSOAR2.0 and MultiMSOAR software [4, 13, 14] (all used to determine orthology relations between genes), hence these programs could benefit from any algorithmic improvement concerning MCSP [7], such as the one presented here. Indeed, our algorithm actually runs in  $d^{2k'} \cdot kn$ , where  $k'$  is the number of blocks of  $D(M)$  that contain *no letter appearing only once* in  $S_1$  and  $S_2$ . Moreover, we present reduction rules that yield further speed-up, and finally test our algorithm on genomic and synthetic data.

*Basic Notation.* A *marker* is an occurrence of a letter at a specific position in a string. Formally, the marker at position  $i$  in a string  $S$  corresponds to the pair  $(S, i)$ , which we denote by  $S[i]$ . Given a marker  $u$  we denote by  $S(u)$  the string that contains  $u$ . For all  $i$ ,  $1 \leq i < n$ , the markers  $S[i]$  and  $S[i + 1]$  are called *consecutive*. Let  $r(S[i]) := S[i + 1]$ ,  $1 \leq i < n$ , denote the right neighbor of marker  $S[i]$ , and let  $l(S[i]) := S[i - 1]$ ,  $1 < i \leq n$  denote the left neighbor of marker  $S[i]$ . An *adjacency* is a pair of consecutive markers. For two markers  $u$  and  $v$  we write  $u \equiv v$  if their letters are the same and  $u = v$  if the markers are identical, that is, they are at the same position in the same string. An *interval* is a set of consecutive markers, that is, an interval is a set  $\{S[i], S[i + 1], \dots, S[j]\}$  for some  $i \leq j$ . We write  $[u, v]$  to denote the interval whose first marker is  $u$  and whose last marker is  $v$ . For two intervals  $s$  and  $t$ , we write  $s \equiv t$  if they represent the same string of letters (if they have the same contents) and  $s = t$  if they are the same interval, that is, they start and end at the same position in the same string. Given two strings  $S_1, S_2$ , a letter is *abundant* in a string  $S_i$  if it appears with strictly more occurrences in  $S_i$  than in the other string. Otherwise, it is *rare* in  $S_i$ . A marker  $u$  is *abundant* if it corresponds to an abundant letter in  $S(u)$ , and *rare* otherwise.

*Fundamental CSP-Related Definitions.* We assume that  $S_1 \neq S_2$ , otherwise MCSP is trivially solved by reporting a CSP of size one. A *candidate match* is an unordered pair of markers  $\{u, v\}$  such that  $u \equiv v$  and  $S(u) \neq S(v)$ , that is, the markers have the same letters and are from different input strings. Two candidate matches  $\{x, y\}$  and  $\{x', y'\}$  where  $S(x) = S(x')$  and  $x$  is to the left of  $x'$  are called *parallel* if  $[x, x'] \equiv [y, y']$ . Note that this implies that for the  $i$ -th marker  $u$  in  $[x, x']$  and the  $i$ -th marker  $v$  in  $[y, y']$  the pair  $\{u, v\}$  is also a candidate match and it is parallel to  $\{x, y\}$  and to  $\{x', y'\}$ . Informally, being parallel means that two candidate matches could potentially be in the same block of a CSP.

A *CSP*  $P$  is a set of pairwise disjoint candidate matches containing all rare markers. If a marker does not appear in any candidate match of  $P$  then it is necessarily abundant, and it is called *deleted* in  $P$ , otherwise we use  $f_P(u)$  to denote the unique marker  $v$  such that  $\{u, v\} \in P$ . The *block relation*  $\sim_P$  of a CSP is defined as the (uniquely determined) equivalence relation such that each

equivalence class is a substring of  $S_1$  or  $S_2$  and  $u \sim_P r(u)$  if and only if  $u$  and  $r(u)$  are not deleted, and  $\{u, f_P(u)\}$  and  $\{r(u), f_P(r(u))\}$  are parallel. Note that this implies that, for any two markers  $x$  and  $x^\theta$  with  $x \sim_P x^\theta$  it holds that  $\{x, f_P(x)\}$  and  $\{x^\theta, f_P(x^\theta)\}$  are parallel. The blocks are precisely the equivalence classes of  $\sim_P$  of non-deleted markers, that is, two markers  $u$  and  $v$  are in the same block if  $u \sim_P v$ .

Due to lack of space, some proofs are deferred to a full version of this work.

## 2 An Improved Fixed-Parameter Algorithm

We now describe our fixed-parameter algorithm. It is a branching algorithm that adds, one by one, candidate matches to a temporary solution. The main idea is that these candidate matches belong to different blocks of the CSP.

### 2.1 CSPs, Samples and Witnesses

As stated above, the algorithm gradually extends a temporary solution called sample. Formally, a *sample*  $T$  is a set of disjoint candidate matches. We use  $\mathcal{M}(T)$  to denote the set of all markers belonging to a candidate match in  $T$  (thus,  $|\mathcal{M}(T)| = 2|T|$ ). The algorithm tries to construct an optimal CSP by extending a sample  $T$  that describes this CSP and is furthermore non-redundant. That is, the sample contains only candidate matches that are in the CSP and at most one candidate match for each pair of matched blocks. We call such samples witnesses.

**Definition 1.** A sample  $T = \{\{x_1, y_1\}, \{x_2, y_2\}, \dots, \{x_m, y_m\}\}$  is a witness of a CSP  $P$  if (1)  $T \subseteq P$ , that is,  $y_i = f_P(x_i)$  for each  $i$ , and (2) for all  $x, y \in \mathcal{M}(T)$  with  $x \neq y$  we have  $x \not\sim_P y$ .

Given a witness  $T$  of some CSP  $P$ , a marker  $u$  is *seen by*  $T$  if  $\exists x \in \mathcal{M}(T)$  such that  $u \sim_P x$ . We use  $\text{See}(P, T)$  to denote the set of markers seen by  $T$  in  $P$ . Let  $u \in \text{See}(P, T)$  be a marker seen by  $T$  in  $P$ , then we say that  $u$  is *colored black by*  $P$  and  $T$  if  $u = x$ ;  $u$  is *colored green by*  $P$  and  $T$  if it is to the right of  $x$ ; or  $u$  is *colored red by*  $P$  and  $T$  if it is to the left of  $x$ . Note that the coloring is unique since for each marker  $u$  there is at most one  $x \in \mathcal{M}(T)$  such that  $u \sim_P x$ .

The algorithm finds a witness describing an optimal CSP. More precisely, the aim is to see all rare markers eventually. A witness  $T$  is *complete* if it contains a marker from every block of  $P$ . Equivalently,  $T$  is complete if it sees every rare marker. We first show that if a rare marker is unseen by a witness  $T$  for some CSP  $P$ , then another witness for  $P$  can be obtained by extending  $T$ .

**Lemma 1.** Let  $u$  be a rare marker such that  $u \notin \text{See}(P, T)$ . Then there exists a candidate match  $\{u, v\}$  such that  $T \cup \{\{u, v\}\}$  is a witness of  $P$ .

*Proof.* Let  $v = f_P(u)$  ( $u$  is rare, hence it is not deleted), then  $\{u, v\}$  is clearly a candidate match. Furthermore,  $T \cup \{\{u, v\}\}$  is a subset of  $P$ . It thus remains to show that  $T$  is non-redundant. Since  $u \notin \text{See}(P, T)$ ,  $u \not\sim_P x$  for all  $x \in \mathcal{M}(T)$ . Furthermore, this also implies  $v \not\sim_P y$  for all  $y \in \{f_P(x) \mid x \in \mathcal{M}(T)\} = \mathcal{M}(T)$ . Thus  $T \cup \{\{u, v\}\}$  is a witness of  $P$ .  $\square$

The following lemma shows that when an optimal CSP contains parallel candidate matches, then the markers that are in the same string are also in the same blocks of the CSP. We will use this lemma to argue that the algorithm only considers samples without parallel edges.

**Lemma 2.** *If a CSP  $P$  contains two parallel candidate matches  $\{x, y\}$  and  $\{x^\ell, y^\ell\}$  such that  $S(x) = S(x^\ell)$  and  $x \not\sim_P x^\ell$ , then it is not optimal.*

*Proof.* Aiming at a contradiction, assume that  $P$  is optimal. Moreover, assume without loss of generality that  $S(x) = S(x^\ell) = S_1$ , and that  $\{x, y\}$  and  $\{x^\ell, y^\ell\}$  have been chosen so as to minimize the distance between  $x$  and  $x^\ell$ , while satisfying the conditions of the lemma. Since the candidate matches  $\{x, y\}$  and  $\{x^\ell, y^\ell\}$  are parallel, we have  $[x, x^\ell] \equiv [y, y^\ell]$ . Let  $\ell$  denote the number of markers in  $[x, x^\ell]$ , let  $x_i$  denote the  $i$ -th marker in  $[x, x^\ell]$  and let  $y_i$  denote the  $i$ -th marker in  $[y, y^\ell]$ . Then, each  $\{x_i, y_i\}$  is a candidate match,  $\{x_i, y_i\}$  and  $\{x_j, y_j\}$  are parallel for all  $1 \leq i, j \leq \ell$ , and, by the minimality of the distance between  $x$  and  $x^\ell$ ,  $\{x_i, y_i\} \notin P$  for  $1 < i < \ell$ . Moreover, for all  $1 < i < \ell$ ,  $x \not\sim_P x_i \not\sim_P x^\ell$  and  $y \not\sim_P y_i \not\sim_P y^\ell$ . Create a CSP  $Q$ , starting with  $Q := P$ .

If one of  $x_2, y_2$  is deleted (say  $x_2$ , note that they cannot both be deleted since they cannot both be abundant), then let  $u_2 := f_P(y_2)$ . The pair  $\{u_2, y_2\}$  is the left-most candidate match of its block in  $P$ . Remove  $\{u_2, y_2\}$  from  $Q$  and add  $\{x_2, y_2\}$ , extending the block containing  $\{x, y\}$ . Then  $Q$  is also an optimal CSP.

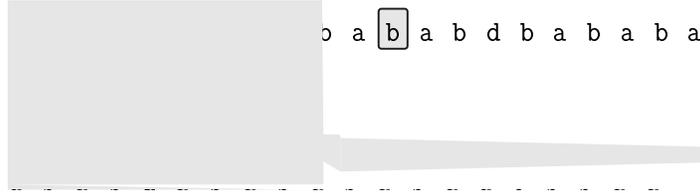
If none of  $x_2, y_2$  are deleted, then they are the left-most markers of blocks ending in  $x_p$  and  $y_q$  respectively (assume without loss of generality that  $p \leq q$ ). Note that  $p, q < \ell$ , since these blocks are strictly contained between  $x$  and  $x^\ell$  ( $y$  and  $y^\ell$ ). Write  $u_i = f_P(y_i)$  for all  $2 \leq i \leq q$ , and  $v_i = f_P(x_i)$  for all  $2 \leq i \leq p$ . For each  $2 \leq i \leq p$ , remove  $\{\{x_i, v_i\}, \{y_i, u_i\}\}$  from  $Q$  and add  $\{\{x_i, y_i\}, \{u_i, v_i\}\}$ . Then  $Q$  has no more blocks than  $P$  and is an optimal CSP. Indeed,  $[x_2, x_p]$  is now merged to the block containing  $x$ , and  $[u_2, u_q]$  is now split in two blocks  $[u_2, u_p]$  and  $[u_{p+1}, u_q]$ .

In both cases,  $Q$  is an optimal CSP where  $\{x_2, y_2\}$  has been added to the block containing  $\{x, y\}$ . If  $x_2 \sim_Q x^\ell$ , then the block containing  $\{x, y\}$  and  $\{x_2, y_2\}$  is merged with  $\{x^\ell, y^\ell\}$ , and  $Q$  has one block less than  $P$ . Otherwise,  $x_2 \not\sim_Q x^\ell$ , and  $Q$  satisfies the conditions of the lemma for  $\{x_2, y_2\}$  and  $\{x^\ell, y^\ell\}$  with a smaller distance between  $x_2$  and  $x^\ell$  than between  $x$  and  $x^\ell$ . Both cases lead to a contradiction.  $\square$

## 2.2 The Sample Graph

We now describe a multigraph that is associated with the current sample  $T$ . We will use the structure in this graph to identify cases to which the branching applies. First, we describe the construction of this graph.

Let  $T$  be a sample for an input instance  $(S_1, S_2, k)$ , and let  $C$  denote the set of all candidate matches between  $S_1$  and  $S_2$ . The *sample graph*  $G_T := \{V_T, E_T\}$  of  $T$  is the following edge-colored multigraph. The vertex set  $V_T$  is the set of markers of  $S_1$  and  $S_2$ . The edge multiset  $E_T \subseteq C$  consists of the black edges  $E_T^b$ ,



**Fig. 2.** Sample graph computed for two sequences, given a sample of two candidate matches (black edges), with green (dark gray) and red (light gray) edges. Note that  $a$  and  $c$  are rare in the top sequence, and  $b$ ,  $c$  and  $d$  are rare in the bottom sequence. Vertices satisfying the conditions of Branching Rules 1 and 2 are marked with white dots (four are isolated rare vertices, two appear in a rare odd path).

the green edges  $E_T^g$ , and the red edges  $E_T^r$ . The edge sets are defined as follows. The black edges are the pairs of the sample, that is,  $E_T^b := T$ . For the green and red edges, we use the following notation. For a marker  $u \notin \mathcal{M}(T)$ , let  $l_T(u)$  denote the rightmost vertex from  $\mathcal{M}(T)$  that is in the same string as  $u$  and to the left of  $u$ . Similarly, let  $r_T(u)$  denote the leftmost vertex from  $\mathcal{M}(T)$  that is to the right of  $u$ . Now, the green edge set is

$$E_T^g := \{ \{x, y\} \in C \mid x, y \notin \mathcal{M}(T) \wedge \{l_T(x), l_T(y)\} \in T \\ \wedge \{l_T(x), l_T(y)\} \text{ is parallel to } \{x, y\} \}.$$

The red edge set is

$$E_T^r := \{ \{x, y\} \in C \mid x, y \notin \mathcal{M}(T) \wedge \{r_T(x), r_T(y)\} \in T \\ \wedge \{r_T(x), r_T(y)\} \text{ is parallel to } \{x, y\} \}.$$

See Fig. 2 for an example. Clearly,  $G_T$  is bipartite. From now on, we use the terms "marker" and "vertex" equivalently since there is a one-to-one correspondence between them. Further, any definition applying to candidate matches applies in a similar manner to edges. The black-, green-, and red-degree of a vertex are the number of black, green, and red edges incident with it. The degree of a vertex is simply defined as the sum of the three colored degrees. The sample graph has the following properties.

*Property 1.* Let  $\{u, v\}$  be a green (red) edge of  $G_T$ , then  $\{l(u), l(v)\}$  ( $\{r(u), r(v)\}$ ) is either a black or green (red) edge of  $G_T$ .

*Proof.* Consider the case that edge  $\{u, v\}$  is green. The property clearly holds if  $\{l(u), l(v)\}$  is black. Otherwise,  $\{l(u), l(v)\}$  also fulfills the conditions in the construction of  $E_T^g$ : First,  $l(u) \neq l_T(u)$  and  $l(v) \neq l_T(v)$ , thus they cannot belong to  $T$ . Second,  $\{l(u), l(v)\}$  is to the left of  $\{u, v\}$  and thus it is also parallel to  $\{l_T(u), l_T(v)\}$ .  $\square$

*Property 2.* Each vertex incident with a black edge has degree one. For each other vertex, green-degree and red-degree are at most one.

*Proof.* First, let  $\{x, y\} \in T$  be a black edge. By the definitions of  $E_T^g$  and  $E_T^r$ , neither  $x$  nor  $y$  is incident with a red or green edge. Since the sample  $T$  has only pairwise disjoint candidate matchings, there is no other black edge in  $T$  incident with either  $x$  or  $y$ .

Now, let  $e_1, e_2$  be two green edges incident with some vertex  $v$ . Clearly,  $e_1$  and  $e_2$  fulfill the conditions in the definition of  $E_T^g$ . Note that, by Property 2,  $l_T(v)$  has degree one. Hence,  $e_1$  and  $e_2$  are parallel to the same edge. This implies  $e_1 = e_2$ . The proof for red edges is symmetrical.  $\square$

Property 2 implies that every vertex has degree at most two. Thus, each connected component is either a singleton, a path or a cycle.

*Property 3.* Let  $u$  and  $u^\theta := l(u)$  be two consecutive markers such that  $G_T$  contains the edges  $\{u, v\}$  and  $\{u^\theta, v^\theta\}$ . If both edges are green (both edges are red), then  $\{u, v\}$  and  $\{u^\theta, v^\theta\}$  are parallel, that is,  $v^\theta = l(v)$ .

*Proof.* Assume that  $\{u, v\}$  and  $\{u^\theta, v^\theta\}$  are green. By Property 2, vertices incident with black edges have degree one. Hence,  $l_T(u) \neq u^\theta$  and thus  $l_T(u) = l_T(u^\theta)$ . Consequently,  $\{u, v\}$  and  $\{u^\theta, v^\theta\}$  are parallel to the same edge  $\{l_T(u), l_T(v)\}$ . Hence, they are also parallel to each other. The proof for red edges works analogously.  $\square$

### 2.3 Branching on Odd Connected Components

We now show some further properties that the sample graph  $G_T$  has with respect to any CSP witnessed by the sample  $T$ . We then exploit these properties to devise branching rules that branch into  $O(d^2)$  cases. Hence, consider an arbitrary CSP  $P$  witnessed by  $T$ . The following is a simple corollary of Lemma 2, the construction of the sample graph, and the definition of witness.

**Lemma 3.** *If  $G_T$  contains two parallel black edges, then  $P$  is not optimal.*

The following lemma relates the colors that markers receive by the CSP  $P$  to the edge colors in the sample graph.

**Lemma 4.** *Let  $u \in \text{See}(P, T)$  be a marker seen by  $T$ . Then, there is at least one edge incident with  $u$  in  $G_T$ . In particular, if vertex  $u$  is colored black/green/red, then  $\{u, f_P(u)\}$  is a black/green/red edge in  $G_T$ .*

**Corollary 1.** *If some vertex  $u$  has degree 0 in  $G_T$ , then  $u \notin \text{See}(P, T)$ .*

Combined with Lemma 1 this leads to the first branching rule.

**Branching Rule 1.** *If the sample graph  $G_T$  contains a rare degree-0 vertex  $u$ , then for each vertex  $v \notin \mathcal{M}(T)$  such that  $S(u) \neq S(v)$  and  $u \equiv v$  branch into the case to add  $\{u, v\}$  to  $T$ .*

The branching rule above deals with connected components that are singletons. Next, we develop a branching rule for connected components that are a certain type of path in the sample graph.

To this end, we distinguish the following types of paths. A *black path* is a path containing exactly one black edge. An *odd path* is a path with an odd number of vertices. An *even path* is a path with an even number of vertices. Note that by Property 2, all black edges are contained exclusively in black paths. Furthermore, also by Property 2, the colors of each other path alternate between green and red. We thus call an even path *green* if it starts and ends with a green edge and *red*, otherwise. An odd path is *abundant* if its first marker is abundant, *rare* otherwise (this definition is not ambiguous since the markers at the ends of an even path correspond to the same letter in the same string, they are thus both abundant or both rare).

**Lemma 5.** *Let  $T$  be a sample witnessing a CSP  $P$ . If a connected component of the sample graph  $G_T$  is a rare odd path  $(u_1, v_1, \dots, v_{\ell-1}, u_\ell)$ , then there is some  $u_i$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq \ell$ , such that  $u_i \notin \text{See}(P, T)$  and  $u_i$  is not deleted in  $P$ .*

**Branching Rule 2.** *If the sample graph  $G_T$  contains a connected component which is a rare odd path  $(u_1, v_1, u_2, v_2, \dots, v_{\ell-1}, u_\ell)$ , then do the following for each vertex  $u_i$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq \ell$ : for each vertex  $x \notin \mathcal{M}(T)$  such that  $S(u_i) \neq S(x)$  and  $u_i \equiv x$  branch into the case to add  $\{u_i, x\}$  to  $T$ .*

## 2.4 Solving Instances without Rare Odd Paths or Singletons

We now show how to find an optimal CSP in the remaining cases. As we will show, the edge set defined as follows gives such an optimal CSP. See Fig. 3 for an example.

**Definition 2.** *Let  $G_T$  be a sample graph. The set  $P_T$  is the edge set containing*

- { all black edges from  $G_T$ ,*
- { each green edge that is in a green path, in an odd path or in a cycle, and*
- { each red edge that is in a red path.*

**Lemma 6.** *Let  $T$  be a sample such that  $G_T$  does not contain isolated vertices, parallel black edges, or rare odd paths. Then,  $P_T$  is a CSP for which  $T$  is a complete witness.*

**Theorem 1.** *MCSP can be solved in  $O(d^{2k} \cdot kn)$  time.*

*Proof.* We use the algorithm MCSP outlined in Algorithm 1. We first show the correctness of MCSP, then we bound the running time. Consider a yes-instance, and let  $P$  be an optimal CSP of size  $k$ . We show that  $\text{MCSP}(S_1, S_2, k, \emptyset)$  outputs at least one CSP of size  $k$  in this case. Since  $T = \emptyset$  in the first call,  $T$  is initially a witness of  $P$ . Combining Lemma 1 with Lemmas 4 and 5 shows that the algorithm creates in each application at least one branch such that the set  $T$  is a witness



**Fig. 3.** Left: Sample graph  $G_T$  with no isolated vertices, parallel black edges or rare odd paths. Right: CSP  $P_T$  obtained from  $G_T$  (Definition 2 and Lemma 6). Note that markers (with letter)  $u$  form a green path, markers  $v$  form a cycle, markers  $w$  form a red path, and markers  $x$  form an abundant odd path.

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**Algorithm 1** The fixed-parameter algorithm for parameter  $(d, k)$ .

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```

MCSP( $S_1, S_2, k, T$ )
1  if  $|T| > k$  abort branch
2  Compute the sample graph  $G_T$ 
3  if  $G_T$  contains parallel black edges : abort branch
4  else if  $G_T$  contains an isolated vertex :
5    apply Branching Rule 1; in each case call MCSP( $S_1, S_2, k, T \cup \{u, v\}$ )
6  else if  $G_T$  contains a rare odd path :
7    apply Branching Rule 2; in each case call MCSP( $S_1, S_2, k, T \cup \{u_i, x\}$ )
8  else compute  $P_T$ , output  $P_T$ 

```

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of  $P$  in this branch. Now, note that if a branch is aborted because  $|T| > k$ , then the current set  $T$  either is redundant (and thus not a sample) or any CSP that it witnesses has size at least  $k$ , thus it does not witness  $P$  in this case. Similarly, if the graph  $G_T$  contains parallel black edges, then the set  $T$  is either redundant, or any CSP that it witnesses is not optimal; thus it does not witness  $P$ . Hence, the algorithm eventually reaches a situation in which  $T$  is a witness of  $P$  and  $G_T$  contains no isolated vertices and no odd paths. Then it constructs and outputs a set  $P_T$ . By Lemma 6,  $P_T$  is a CSP. Furthermore, it has size  $|T|$  and thus it is at most as large as  $P$  which also has size at least  $|T|$  since  $T$  is a witness for  $P$ .

Now, assume that the instance is a no-instance, then the algorithm has empty output since all CSPs that are output have size at most  $k$  due to the condition in Line 1 of the algorithm.

It remains to bound the running time. We first bound the size of the search tree. After the application of each branching rule, the set  $T$  contains one additional candidate match, so the depth of the search tree is at most  $k$  because of the check in Line 1 of the algorithm. We now bound the number of new cases for each branching rule. First, Branching Rule 1 branches into at most  $d$  cases. Second, Branching Rule 2 branches into at most  $d^2$  cases: All vertices of a path have the same letter since edges are candidate matches. Hence, there are at most  $d$   $u_i$ 's. For each of them the algorithm creates at most  $d$  branches. Hence, the overall search tree size is  $O((d^2)^k) = O(d^{2k})$ . The time spent in each search tree node can be seen as follows. The sample graph can be constructed in  $O(kn)$

time by adding for each of the  $O(k)$  black edges the red and green edges in linear time. This is done by moving to the left and the right until either the next parallel marker pair is not a candidate match or contains a black vertex (this can also be used to find parallel black edges). The sample graph has size  $O(n)$ , hence isolated vertices and odd paths can also be found in  $O(n)$  time.  $\square$

### 3 Parameter Improvement

In this section, we show that the parameter  $k$  denoting the number of blocks in an optimal solution can be replaced by a potentially much smaller parameter  $k^0 := \text{number of blocks without unique letters}$ . Herein, a letter is called *unique* if it appears at most once in  $S_1$  and at most once in  $S_2$ . To deal with the blocks that contain unique letters we devise a simple rule for simplifying the instance. The algorithm makes use of a data reduction rule. A data reduction rule is *correct* if the new instance is a yes-instance if and only if the old one is. An instance is *reduced* with respect to a data reduction rule, if an application of the rule does not change the instance.

**Rule 1.** *If the input contains a pair of unique letters  $x$  and  $x^0$ , where  $x^0$  is to the right of  $x$ , such that the candidate matches  $\{x, y\}$  for  $x$  and  $\{x^0, y^0\}$  for  $x^0$  are parallel, then replace  $[x, x^0]$  by  $x$  and  $[y, y^0]$  by  $y$ .*

**Lemma 7.** *Rule 1 is correct.*

After this simplification, the resulting instance has the property that candidate matches between two different unique matches are in different blocks. This implies that a set  $T$  containing all different unique matches is a sample witnessing any optimal CSP. This leads to the following.

**Theorem 2.** *MCSP can be solved in  $O(d^{2k^0} \cdot kn)$  time where  $k^0$  denotes the number of blocks in  $S_1$  that contain no unique letter.*

### 4 Data Reduction Rules

In addition to the improvements described in previous sections which lead to an improved worst-case running time bound, we also devise the following data reduction rules. These rules proved crucial for solving larger instances of MCSP and may be of independent interest. The first of these reduction rules identifies unique letters that are in  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  surrounded by other unique letters.

**Rule 2.** *If the instance contains a unique candidate match  $\{u, v\}$  and the letters to the right and left of  $u$  and  $v$  are also unique, then let  $L(u)$ ,  $R(u)$ ,  $L(v)$ , and  $R(v)$  denote the uniquely defined candidate matches containing the left and right neighbor of  $u$  or  $v$ . Remove  $u$  and  $v$  from  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  and do the following.*

*{ If  $L(u) = L(v)$  or  $R(u) = R(v)$  leave  $k$  unchanged.*

{ Else, check whether removing  $u$  and  $v$  from  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  made either  $L(u)$  and  $R(u)$  parallel or  $L(v)$  and  $R(v)$  parallel. If it makes none of the two parallel, then decrease  $k$  by one, if it makes exactly one pair parallel, decrease  $k$  by two, otherwise decrease  $k$  by three.

*Proof (of correctness).* In the first case,  $\{u, v\}$  is parallel to either  $L(u)$  or  $R(u)$  and thus the rule is simply a special case of the parallel rule. In the other cases,  $\{u, v\}$  is parallel to none of  $L(u), R(u), L(v), R(v)$ . Hence,  $u$  and  $v$  will be in a block of size one in any CSP. In case the removal of  $\{u, v\}$  makes no other edges parallel, the minimum size of a CSP in the reduced instance thus is one less. Hence, the parameter decrement is correct in this case. If the removal of  $u$  and  $v$  makes only  $L(u)$  and  $R(u)$  parallel, then the minimum size of a CSP after removing  $u$  is decreased by exactly two: Consider any CSP of the original instance, "merging" the blocks containing the left and the right neighbor of  $u$  and removing the blocks containing  $u$  and  $v$  gives a CSP for the reduced instance

*Proof (of correctness).* The proof is similar to the proof of Rule 3. Since the blocks containing  $u$ ,  $v$ ,  $w$ , and  $z$  have size one, changing the candidate matches does not decrease the number of adjacencies in the blocks. Hence, replacing  $\{u, w\}$  and  $\{v, z\}$  by  $\{u, z\}$  and  $\{v, w\}$  gives a CSP of the same size.  $\square$

Note that checking whether there is any CSP including some match  $\{u, v\}$  that has  $u$  and  $v$  in blocks of size at least two can be done by simply checking whether  $\{u, v\}$  is parallel to a candidate match of its right or left neighbor.

## 5 Implementation & Experiments

We implemented the described algorithm to assess its performance on genomic and on synthetic instances. We furthermore added three additional data reduction rules and demonstrate their effect on the genomic instances. Although our algorithm and experiments concern unsigned strings, they can be seen as a first step; the results being more than encouraging, we will adapt, in the near future, our algorithm to the signed (and unbalanced) case. We ran all our experiments on an Intel(R) Core(TM) i5 M 450 CPU 2.40GHz machine with 2GB memory under the Ubuntu 12.04 operating system. The program is implemented in Java and runs under Java 1.6. The source code is available from <http://fpt.akt.tu-berlin.de/mcsp/>. The search tree is implemented as described in Sections 2 and 3. In addition to the data reduction rules described in Section 4, we apply Rule 1. All data reduction rules are applied in the beginning and also in each search tree node.

*Genomic Data.* We performed experiments with genomic data from several bacteria. The data was obtained as follows. The raw data consists of a file `ae.ares1ing Theb6(res1i(h)-331(in)-33328()-1(x)1(adjaces1ing)-33412(e)-44os8(add)1(it412inp)-28 [(reducr)51`

**Table 1.** Running time, instance properties and effect of data reduction on genomic data. Herein,  $n_1$  is the number of markers in the first genome,  $n_2$  the number of markers in the second genome,  $k$  is the CSP size,  $k'$  the number of blocks without fixed markers,  $d^*$  the average number of candidate matches for each marker,  $n'_1$  and  $n'_2$  denote the respective number of markers after data reduction,  $\delta$  is the number of removed candidate matches during data reduction, and  $t$  is the running time in seconds.

Species 1	Species 2	$n_1$	$n_2$	$k$	$k'$	$d$	$d^*$	$n'_1$	$n'_2$	$\delta$	$t$
<i>B. burg.</i>	<i>T. pall.</i>	91	93	68	0	3	1.02	13	15	4	0.06
<i>B. burg.</i>	<i>E. coli</i>	66	72	59	0	6	1.09	22	28	12	0.22
<i>B. burg.</i>	<i>B. sub.</i>	83	91	63	3	6	1.16	31	39	11	0.15
<i>B. burg.</i>	<i>B. thur.</i>	61	71	51	3	5	1.19	32	42	11	0.09
<i>T. pall.</i>	<i>E. coli</i>	89	93	78	2	5	1.09	22	26	7	0.35
<i>T. pall.</i>	<i>B. sub.</i>	136	144	82	0	7	1.12	23	31	11	0.18
<i>T. pall.</i>	<i>B. thur.</i>	116	128	76	0	6	1.16	30	42	16	0.15
<i>E. coli</i>	<i>B. sub.</i>	264	287	234	14	7	1.23	128	151	54	41.06
<i>E. coli</i>	<i>B. thur.</i>	249	282	221	12	10	1.24	129	162	59	18.64
<i>B. sub.</i>	<i>B. thur.</i>	673	693	340	14	8	1.17	173	193	51	249.71

number  $k^0$  of blocks without unique letters is small. Moreover, the parameter  $k^0$  is in these instances much smaller than the parameter  $k$ . Finally, the data reduction rules are very effective in decreasing the instance size and also decrease the overall number of candidate matches somewhat.

*Synthetic Data.* We also experimented with synthetic data to test how growth of  $k$  influences the running time. Each instance is generated randomly given five parameters: the string length  $n$ , the upper bound  $k$  on the number of blocks, the upper bound  $d$  on the number of occurrences, the upper bound  $f$  on the number of gene families (size of the alphabet), and finally the number  $\delta$  of deleted markers (considered as *noise* between the blocks). We randomly generate  $k$  blocks using available markers (that is, each block is a random string of markers so that the number of occurrences is never more than  $d$ ). The two input sequences are generated by concatenating the blocks in different (random) orders, interleaving with noisy parts of the required total size.

We study the effect of varying parameters  $n$ ,  $k$  and  $d$ . To this effect, we fix the number of deleted markers to  $\delta = 0.1n$  (we observed that the behavior of the algorithm is uniform for  $0 \leq \delta \leq 0.2n$ ). Values of  $\delta > 0.2n$  are harder, however, we assume that deleting too many markers is of less relevance in genomic applications. The number  $f$  of gene families is fixed to  $3n/d$ . This way we obtain an average number of occurrences which is experimentally close to  $d/2$ . The average occurrence of each letter thus is roughly twice that of the genomic data; this was done to obtain more difficult input.

In the experiments, we set  $n = 1000$ , and varied  $k$  from 50 to 130. One run was performed for  $d = 6$  and one for  $d = 8$ . Our results are shown in Table 2. For each set of parameter values, we generated 50 instances. We make the following main observations. First, increasing  $d$  makes the instances much harder.

**Table 2.** Average running time in seconds for synthetic instances with  $d = 6$  and  $d = 8$ ,  $n = 1000$  and varying  $k$ ; for each parameter triple, 50 instances were generated.

$d = 6$		$d = 8$	
$k$	running time	$k$	running time
50	0.06	50	0.07
60	0.06	60	0.06
70	0.07	70	0.08
80	0.09	80	0.09
90	0.10	90	0.12
100	0.12	100	0.16
110	0.13	110	0.26
120	0.18	120	1.62
130	0.21	130	30.42

Second, for  $d = 6$ , the combinatorial explosion sets in at  $k \approx 120$ , for  $d = 8$  this happens already at  $k \approx 100$ . Finally, the algorithm efficiently solves instances with  $n = 1000$  and  $k \approx 120$  when the average occurrence of each letter is roughly 3.5 (this is the average occurrence number in the experiments for  $d = 8$ ).

## 6 Conclusion

We have presented an efficient fixed-parameter algorithm for the MINIMUM COMMON STRING PARTITION problem with parameters  $k$  and  $d$ . Our algorithm even allows for unbalanced strings, since it can delete superfluous markers between consecutive blocks of the string partition. Looking towards practical applications, it would be interesting to consider signed instances, that is, blocks can be read either from left to right or from right to left with opposite signs. We conjecture that our algorithm can be extended to solve the signed variant of MCSP. Another generalization of MCSP is as follows. Pairs of markers which form candidate matches are given in input, rather than being defined from classes of letters. From a graph theory point of view, the bipartite graph of candidate matches may contain arbitrary connected components, not only complete ones. It would be of interest to provide efficient algorithms for this extension of MCSP.

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