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# Minimal Phylogenetic Supertrees and Local Consensus Trees 

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#### Abstract

The problem of constructing a minimally resolved phylogenetic supertree (i.e., having the smallest possible number of internal nodes) that contains all of the rooted triplets from a consistent set $\mathcal{R}$ is known to be NP-hard. In this paper, we prove that constructing a phylogenetic tree consistent with $\mathcal{R}$ that contains the minimum number of additional rooted triplets is also NP-hard, and develop exact, exponential-time algorithms for both problems. The new algorithms are applied to construct two variants of the local consensus tree; for any set $\mathcal{S}$ of phylogenetic trees over some leaf label set $L$, this gives a minimal phylogenetic tree over $L$ that contains every rooted triplet present in all trees in $\mathcal{S}$, where "minimal" means either having the smallest possible number of internal nodes or the smallest possible number of rooted triplets. The second variant generalizes the $R V$-II tree, introduced by Kannan, Warnow, and Yooseph in 1998.


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## 1 Introduction

Phylogenetic trees are used to describe evolutionary relationships between species [11]. The supertree approach is a relatively new divide-and-conquer-based technique for reconstructing phylogenetic trees that may be useful when dealing with very big datasets [4]. The general idea behind it is to first infer a set of highly accurate trees for overlapping subsets of the species (e.g., using a computationally expensive method such as maximum likelihood $[9,11]$ ) and then combine all the trees into one tree according to some well-defined rule. An example of a famous phylogenetic supertree for more than 4500 species can be found in [5]; see also [4, 15] for references to many other supertrees in the biological literature. One class of supertree methods consists of the BUILD algorithm [2] and its various extensions [10, 13, 14, 18, 19, 20, 21, 24] for combining a set of rooted triplets (binary phylogenetic trees with three leaves each), e.g., inferred by the method in [9].

A consensus tree $[1,7,17]$ can be regarded as the special case of a phylogenetic supertree where all the trees that are to be combined have the same leaf label set. Such inputs

[^0]arise when a collection of alternative datasets, each covering all the species, is available, or when applying bootstrapping or different tree reconstruction algorithms to the same basic dataset [11]. A consensus tree can also measure the similarity between two identically leaf-labeled trees or identify parts of trees that are similar. Many different types of consensus trees, whose formal definitions of how to handle conflicts differ, have been proposed in the last 45 years. See the surveys in [7], Chapter 30 in [11], and Chapter 8.4 in [23] for more details about different consensus trees and their advantages and disadvantages.

In situations where more than one phylogenetic tree can explain some given experimental data equally well, it is natural to select a "minimal" tree that supports the data while making as few extra statements about the evolutionary history as possible. A minimally resolved phylogenetic supertree [16] is a supertree that is consistent with all of the input and that has the minimum number of internal nodes. By minimizing the number of internal nodes, the risk of creating false groupings called "spurious novel clades" [4] is reduced. Furthermore, such a tree gives a simpler overview of the data than a tree with many internal nodes and can in general be stored in less memory. Another way to define "minimal" above, giving what we call a minimally rooted-triplet-inducing phylogenetic supertree, instead requires that the supertree contains the minimum number of rooted triplets. This interpretation of minimal was previously considered in the definition of the $R V-I I$ local consensus tree in [17].

The goal of this paper is further develop the mathematical framework of minimal phylogenetic supertrees and to design new supertree algorithms that can also be applied to the construction of consensus trees.

### 1.1 Problem Definitions

A rooted phylogenetic tree is a rooted, unordered, leaf-labeled tree in which all leaf labels are different and every internal node has at least two children. For example, $T_{1}$ and $T_{2}$ in Figure 1 are two rooted phylogenetic trees. In this paper, rooted phylogenetic trees are referred to as "trees" and every leaf in a tree is identified with its unique label.

Let $T$ be a tree. The set of all nodes in $T$, the set of internal nodes in $T$, and the set of leaves in $T$ are denoted by $V(T), I(T)$, and $\Lambda(T)$, respectively. For any $u, v \in V(T)$, if $u$ is a descendant of $v$ and $u \neq v$ then we write $u \prec v$. lca $(u, v)$ means the lowest common ancestor of $u$ and $v$.

A rooted triplet is a binary tree with exactly three leaves. We use the notation $x y \mid z$ to refer to the rooted triplet with leaf label set $\{x, y, z\}$ such that $l c a(x, y) \prec l c a(x, z)=l c a(y, z)$. Let $T$ be a tree. For any $x, y, z \in \Lambda(T)$, if $l c a(x, y) \prec l c a(x, z)=l c a(y, z)$ holds in $T$ then the rooted triplet $x y \mid z$ and $T$ are said to be consistent with each other. For example, $a b \mid c$ is consistent with $T_{1}$ but not with $T_{2}$ in Figure 1. Observe that for any $\{x, y, z\} \subseteq \Lambda(T)$, exactly zero or one of the three rooted triplets $x y|z, x z| y$, and $y z \mid x$ is consistent with $T$. The set of all rooted triplets that are consistent with $T$ is denoted by $r(T)$. For any set $\mathcal{R}$ of rooted triplets, if $\mathcal{R} \subseteq r(T)$ then $\mathcal{R}$ and $T$ are consistent with each other. Finally, a set $\mathcal{R}$ of rooted triplets is consistent if there exists a tree that is consistent with $\mathcal{R}$.

Next, we give the definitions of the minimally resolved phylogenetic supertree consistent with rooted triplets problem (MinRS) (studied in [16]) and the minimally rooted-tripletinducing phylogenetic supertree consistent with rooted triplets problem (MinIS). In both problems, the input is a consistent set $\mathcal{R}$ of rooted triplets ${ }^{1}$, and the output is a tree $T$

[^1]

Figure 1 An example. Let $\mathcal{S}=\left\{T_{1}, T_{2}\right\}$ as above with $\Lambda\left(T_{1}\right)=\Lambda\left(T_{2}\right)=\{a, b, c, d, e, f, g\}$. Then $r\left(T_{1}\right) \cap r\left(T_{2}\right)=\{a b|e, a b| f, a b|g, c d| e, c d|f, c d| g, e f|a, e f| b, e f|c, e f| d, e f \mid g\}$ and $T_{2}$ is an optimal solution to MinRLC. On the other hand, $\left|r\left(T_{1}\right)\right|=15$ while $\left|r\left(T_{2}\right)\right|=23$, so $T_{2}$ cannot be an optimal solution to MinILC.
satisfying $\Lambda(T)=\bigcup_{t \in \mathcal{R}} \Lambda(t)$ and $\mathcal{R} \subseteq r(T)$. The objectives are to minimize the value of $|I(T)|$ (for MinRS) and to minimize the value of $|r(T)|$ (for MinIS), respectively.

In the minimally resolved local consensus tree problem (MinRLC) and the minimally rooted-triplet-inducing local consensus tree problem (MinILC) (introduced in [17] for the special case $k=2)$, the input is a set $\mathcal{S}=\left\{T_{1}, T_{2}, \ldots, T_{k}\right\}$ of trees with $\Lambda\left(T_{1}\right)=\Lambda\left(T_{2}\right)=$ $\ldots=\Lambda\left(T_{k}\right)=L$ for some leaf label set $L$, and the output is a tree $T$ satisfying $\Lambda(T)=L$ and $\bigcap_{i=1}^{k} r\left(T_{i}\right) \subseteq r(T)$. The objectives in MinRLC and MinILC are, respectively, to minimize the value of $|I(T)|$ and to minimize the value of $|r(T)|$.

Note that MinRLC and MinILC admit trivial polynomial-time reductions to MinRS and MinIS, respectively, by letting $\mathcal{R}=\bigcap_{i=1}^{k} r\left(T_{i}\right)$.

See Figure 1 for a simple example showing that MinRLC and MinILC are indeed different problems, and consequently, that MinRS is different from MinIS. From here on, we will use Newick notation ${ }^{2}$ to describe trees compactly. E.g., in Figure 1, we have $T_{1}=((a, b),(c, d),(e, f), g) ;$ and $T_{2}=((a, b, c, d),(e, f), g) ;$.

Throughout the paper, the size of the input to MinRS/MinIS is expressed in terms of $k=|\mathcal{R}|$ and $n=|L|$, where $L=\bigcup_{t \in \mathcal{R}} \Lambda(t)$. For MinRLC/MinILC, $k=|\mathcal{S}|$ and $n=|L|$, where $L=\Lambda\left(T_{1}\right)=\Lambda\left(T_{2}\right)=\ldots=\Lambda\left(T_{k}\right)$.

### 1.2 Previous Work

Here, we give an overview of some relevant results from the literature.
BUILD: Aho et al. [2] presented a polynomial-time algorithm called BUILD for determining if an input set $\mathcal{R}$ of rooted triplets is consistent, and if so, constructing a tree $T$ with $\Lambda(T)=\bigcup_{t \in \mathcal{R}} \Lambda(t)$ and $\mathcal{R} \subseteq r(T)$. (When the input $\mathcal{R}$ is not consistent, one can for example look for a tree $T$ that maximizes $|r(T) \cap \mathcal{R}|$; cf. Section 2 in [8] for a survey on this problem variant.) BUILD is summarized in Section 2.1 below. Henzinger et al. [15] gave a faster implementation of BUILD, and we note that substituting the data structure for dynamic graph connectivity used in the proof of Theorem 1 in [15] by the one in [25] yields a time complexity of $\min \left\{O\left(n+k \frac{\log ^{2} n}{\log \log n}\right), O\left(k+n^{2} \log n\right)\right\}$, where $k=|\mathcal{R}|$ and $n=\left|\bigcup_{t \in \mathcal{R}} \Lambda(t)\right|$.

Importantly, BUILD does not solve MinRS and MinIS. This was first observed by Bryant [6, Section 2.5.2], who gave the following counterexample: $\mathcal{R}=\{b c|a, b d| a, e f|a, e g| a\}$. Given $\mathcal{R}$ as input, BUILD constructs the tree $T_{B}=(a,(b, c, d),(e, f, g))$;, which has three

[^2]internal nodes and 24 rooted triplets. In contrast, the optimal solution to both MinRS and MinIS is the tree $T_{O}=(a,(b, c, d, e, f, g))$;, which has two internal nodes and 15 rooted triplets. As pointed out in [16], the claim by Henzinger et al. in [15] that their Algorithm A' always constructs a minimal tree is therefore false. In another highly cited paper, Ng and Wormald [18] presented an extension of BUILD named OneTree to so-called fans. However, Note 2 in Section 4 of [18] incorrectly states that OneTree outputs a tree with the minimum number of nodes.

MinRS: For MinRS, the following strong negative result is known: MinRS cannot be approximated within $n^{1-\epsilon}$ for any constant $\epsilon>0$ in polynomial time, unless $\mathrm{P}=\mathrm{NP}$ [16]. An algorithm named AllMinTrees in [19] outputs all minor-minimal trees consistent with $\mathcal{R}$, where a tree $T$ is minor-minimal if it is consistent with $\mathcal{R}$ and it is not possible to obtain a tree consistent with $\mathcal{R}$ by contracting any edges of $T$, and this algorithm can be used to solve MinRS. However, it runs in $\Omega\left(\left(\frac{n}{2}\right)^{n / 2}\right)$ time [16], which is self-exponential in $n / 2$. Some special cases of MinRS can be solved in polynomial time; e.g., if the output tree has at most three internal nodes or if it is a caterpillar (a tree in which every node has at most one child that is an internal node) [16]. Also, for any positive integer $p$, if every node in the output tree has at most $p$ children which are internal nodes then MinRS can be solved in $p^{O(n)}$ time [16].

MinIS: To determine the computational complexity of MinIS was listed as an open problem in Section 6 in [16]. As far as we know, it has not been studied previously.

MinRLC, MinILC, and local consensus trees: The MinILC problem originates from Kannan et al. [17], who gave several alternative definitions of a "local consensus tree". They called a tree $T$ an $R V-I I$ ("relaxed version II") tree of two trees $T_{1}$ and $T_{2}$ with identical leaf label sets if $r\left(T_{1}\right) \cap r\left(T_{2}\right) \subseteq r(T)$ and $|r(T)|$ is minimized. (Thus, an RV-II tree is a solution to MinILC when $k=2$.) In Section 5.4 of [17], the authors suggested that applying BUILD to the set $r\left(T_{1}\right) \cap r\left(T_{2}\right)$ always produces an RV-II tree, but this is not correct. A counterexample, analogous to the one for MinRS and MinIS above, is obtained by letting $T_{1}$ and $T_{2}$ be the two trees $T_{B}$ and $T_{O}$, which gives $r\left(T_{1}\right) \cap r\left(T_{2}\right)=\{b c|a, b d| a, c d \mid a$, ef $|a, e g| a, f g \mid a\}$, so that the solution to both MinRLC and MinILC is $T_{O}$ while BUILD's output is $T_{B}$. This shows that one cannot solve MinRLC and MinILC by taking $\mathcal{R}=\bigcap_{i=1}^{k} r\left(T_{i}\right)$ and applying BUILD directly.

Bryant [7] later defined the "local consensus tree" as the output of BUILD when given $\bigcap_{i=1}^{k} r\left(T_{i}\right)$ as input. The algorithm in Section 5.4 .1 of [17] constructs such a tree in $O\left(n^{2}\right)$ time for the case $k=2$, while the $O\left(k n^{3}\right)$-time algorithm in Theorem 7 in [15] by Henzinger et al. can be used for unbounded $k$. Note that finding a tree $T$ satisfying only $\bigcap_{i=1}^{k} r\left(T_{i}\right) \subseteq r(T)$ is trivial since one can just select $T=T_{1}$, so some additional conditions are needed to make the tree informative. The advantages of Bryant's local consensus tree are that it is unique and can be computed efficiently; the disadvantages are that it does not minimize the number of nodes or induced rooted triplets and that it is defined in terms of the output of an algorithm and not axiomatically.

### 1.3 Our New Results and Organization of the Paper

Section 2 reviews the BUILD algorithm from [2] and a useful result by Semple in [19] that characterizes all trees consistent with the input $\mathcal{R}$. Based on Semple's characterization,

Section 3 presents an $O^{*}\left((1+\sqrt{3})^{n}\right)=O\left(2.733^{n}\right)$-time algorithm ${ }^{3}$ for MinRS and an $O\left(k n^{3}+2.733^{n}\right)$-time algorithm for MinRLC, and Section 4 presents an $O^{*}\left(4^{n}\right)$-time algorithm for MinIS and an $O\left(k n^{3}+4^{n} \cdot \operatorname{poly}(n)\right)$-time algorithm for MinILC.

All four problems are NP-hard; MinRS was shown to be NP-hard in [16], and we complement this result by establishing the NP-hardness of MinRLC in Section 5 and the NP-hardness of MinIS and MinILC in Section 6.

## 2 Preliminaries

### 2.1 Aho et al.'s BUILD Algorithm [2]

The BUILD algorithm [2] is a recursive, top-down algorithm that takes as input a set $\mathcal{R}$ of rooted triplets and a leaf label set $L$ such that $\bigcup_{t \in \mathcal{R}} \Lambda(t) \subseteq L$ and outputs a tree $T$ with $\Lambda(T)=L$ that is consistent with all of the rooted triplets in $\mathcal{R}$, if such a tree exists; otherwise, it outputs fail. The time complexity of BUILD is polynomial (q.v., Section 1.2).

A summary of how BUILD works is given here. It first partitions the leaf label set $L$ into blocks based on the information contained in $\mathcal{R}$. More precisely, BUILD constructs an auxiliary graph, defined as the undirected graph $\mathcal{G}(L)=(L, E)$ where for any $x, y \in L$, the edge $\{x, y\}$ belongs to $E$ if and only if $\mathcal{R}$ contains at least one rooted triplet of the form $x y \mid z$ with $z \in L$. It then computes the connected components in $\mathcal{G}(L)$ and assigns the leaf labels in each connected component to one block. (Henceforth, the set of leaf labels belonging to any connected component $C$ in $\mathcal{G}(L)$ is denoted by $\Lambda(C)$, and for every $L^{\prime} \subseteq L$, we define $\mathcal{R} \mid L^{\prime}=\left\{t \in \mathcal{R}: \Lambda(t) \subseteq L^{\prime}\right\}$.) Next, for each block $\Lambda(C)$, BUILD builds a tree $T_{C}$ by calling itself recursively using $\mathcal{R} \mid \Lambda(C)$ together with $\Lambda(C)$ as input. Finally, BUILD returns a tree consisting of a newly created root node whose children are the roots of all the recursively constructed $T_{C}$-trees. The recursion's base case is when the leaf label set consists of one element $x$, in which case the algorithm just returns a tree with a single leaf labeled by $x$. If any auxiliary graph $\mathcal{G}\left(L^{\prime}\right)$ constructed during BUILD's execution has only one connected component and $\left|L^{\prime}\right|>1$ holds then the algorithm terminates and outputs fail. See, e.g., [2] for the correctness proof and further details.

Returning to the example in Section 1.2 where $\mathcal{R}=\{b c|a, b d| a, e f|a, e g| a\}$ and $L=$ $\{a, b, c, d, e, f, g\}$, the blocks in the auxiliary graph $\mathcal{G}(L)$ are $\{a\},\{b, c, d\}$, and $\{e, f, g\}$. The auxiliary graphs on the successive recursive levels contain no edges, so BUILD outputs the tree $(a,(b, c, d),(e, f, g))$;.

### 2.2 Semple's Characterization

In [19], Semple clarified the relationship between the auxiliary graph $\mathcal{G}(L)$ used in the BUILD algorithm and the trees consistent with $\mathcal{R}$. For any tree $T$, define $\pi(T)$ as the partition of $\Lambda(T)$ whose parts are the leaves in the different subtrees attached to the root of $T$; as an example, $\pi\left(T_{1}\right)=\{\{a, b\},\{c, d\},\{e, f\},\{g\}\}$ in Figure 1. With this notation, Semple's characterization can be expressed as:

- Lemma 1. (Corollary 3.3 in [19]) Let $T$ be any tree that is consistent with $\mathcal{R}$. For each connected component $C$ in $\mathcal{G}(L), \Lambda(C) \subseteq B$ for some $B \in \pi(T)$.

Lemma 1 implies that if $T$ is any tree consistent with $\mathcal{R}$ then the partition $\pi(T)$ can be obtained by performing zero or more mergings of $\mathcal{G}(L)$ 's connected components. Thus, every

[^3]tree consistent with $\mathcal{R}$ can be recovered by trying all possible mergings of the connected components in $\mathcal{G}(L)$ at each recursion level. ${ }^{4}$

We remark that Lemma 1 is very useful. For example, it can be employed to prove the non-uniqueness of solutions to MinRLC and MinILC (and hence, MinRS and MinIS) by considering the instance $\mathcal{S}=\left\{T_{1}, T_{2}, T_{3}\right\}$ with $T_{1}=((1,2,3,4,5,6),(7,8),(9,10), 11)$;, $T_{2}=((1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8),(9,10), 11) ;$, and $T_{3}=((1,2,3,4,5,6,9,10),(7,8), 11) ;$. The connected components in $\mathcal{G}(L)$, where $\mathcal{R}=\bigcap_{i=1}^{3} r\left(T_{i}\right)$, consist of $\{1,2,3,4,5,6\},\{7,8\}$, $\{9,10\}$, and $\{11\}$. By Lemma 1 , we only need to check a few possible candidate trees (corresponding to the different ways of merging these connected components), and we find that each of $T_{1}, T_{2}$, and $T_{3}$ is an optimal solution to MinILC since $\left|r\left(T_{1}\right)\right|=\left|r\left(T_{2}\right)\right|=\left|r\left(T_{3}\right)\right|=93$. Furthermore, each of $T_{2}$ and $T_{3}$ is an optimal solution to MinRLC.

## 3 Exponential-Time Algorithms for MinRS and MinRLC

This section presents an exact $O\left(2.733^{n}\right)$-time algorithm for MinRS. As a consequence, MinRLC can be solved in $O\left(k n^{3}+2.733^{n}\right)$ time.

The main idea is to use Lemma 1 together with dynamic programming. For every $L^{\prime} \subseteq L$, let $\operatorname{opt}\left(L^{\prime}\right)$ be the number of internal nodes in an optimal solution to MinRS for $\mathcal{R} \mid L^{\prime}$. Clearly, if $\left|L^{\prime}\right|=1$ then $\operatorname{opt}\left(L^{\prime}\right)=0$. To compute $\operatorname{opt}\left(L^{\prime}\right)$ when $\left|L^{\prime}\right| \geq 2$, observe that if $T^{\prime}$ is any optimal solution for $\mathcal{R} \mid L^{\prime}$ then $T^{\prime}$ consists of a root node whose children are the roots of the optimal solutions for $\mathcal{R}\left|P_{1}, \mathcal{R}\right| P_{2}, \ldots, \mathcal{R} \mid P_{t}$, where $\left\{P_{1}, P_{2}, \ldots, P_{t}\right\}$ is equal to $\pi\left(T^{\prime}\right)$. The partition $\pi\left(T^{\prime}\right)$ can be found by enumerating partitions of $L^{\prime}$ and using dynamic programming to identify the best one; according to Lemma 1, only partitions corresponding to the different ways of merging connected components in the auxiliary graph $\mathcal{G}\left(L^{\prime}\right)$ need to be considered.

The details are explained next. Let $\mathcal{C}_{L^{\prime}}$ be the set of connected components in $\mathcal{G}\left(L^{\prime}\right)$. For every subset $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathcal{C}_{L^{\prime}}$, define $\operatorname{Merge}(\mathcal{D})$ as the set of all leaf labels belonging to components in $\mathcal{D}$, i.e., $\operatorname{Merge}(\mathcal{D})=\bigcup_{Q \in \mathcal{D}} \Lambda(Q)$. Also define $\operatorname{DP}(\mathcal{D})$ for every $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathcal{C}_{L^{\prime}}$ to be the minimum value of $\sum_{\mathcal{X} \in \mathcal{Q}} \operatorname{opt}(\operatorname{Merge}(\mathcal{X}))$ taken over all possible true partitions $\mathcal{Q}$ of $\mathcal{D}$, where we say that a partition $\mathcal{Q}$ of a set $X$ is a true partition of $X$ if $|X| \geq 2$ and $\mathcal{Q} \neq\{X\}$ (i.e., if $|\mathcal{Q}|>1$ ), or if $|X|=|\mathcal{Q}|=1$. Then:

- Lemma 2. For every $L^{\prime} \subseteq L$ with $\left|L^{\prime}\right| \geq 2$, it holds that opt $\left(L^{\prime}\right)=D P\left(\mathcal{C}_{L^{\prime}}\right)+1$.

Proof. Let $T^{\prime}$ be any optimal tree for $\mathcal{R} \mid L^{\prime}$. The children of the root of $T^{\prime}$ are the roots of the optimal solutions for $\mathcal{R}\left|P_{1}, \mathcal{R}\right| P_{2}, \ldots, \mathcal{R} \mid P_{t}$, where each $P_{i}$ equals $\operatorname{Merge}(\mathcal{D})$ for some $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathcal{C}_{L^{\prime}}$ because of Lemma 1. By definition, $\operatorname{DP}\left(\mathcal{C}_{L^{\prime}}\right)$ is the minimum value of $\sum_{\mathcal{X} \in \mathcal{P}} \operatorname{opt}(\mathcal{X})$ over all true partitions $\mathcal{P}$ of $L^{\prime}$ such that each $\mathcal{X} \in \mathcal{P}$ equals $\operatorname{Merge}(\mathcal{D})$ for some $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathcal{C}_{L^{\prime}}$. Together with the common root node, this gives opt $\left(L^{\prime}\right)=D P\left(\mathcal{C}_{L^{\prime}}\right)+1$.

- Lemma 3. For every $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathcal{C}_{L^{\prime}}$ with $|\mathcal{D}| \geq 2, D P(\mathcal{D})=\min _{\emptyset \neq \mathcal{X} \subseteq \mathcal{D}}\{\operatorname{opt}(\operatorname{Merge}(\mathcal{X}))+$ $\min \{D P(\mathcal{D} \backslash \mathcal{X}), \operatorname{opt}(\operatorname{Merge}(\mathcal{D} \backslash \mathcal{X}))\}\}$.

Proof. $D P(\mathcal{D})=\min \left\{\sum_{\mathcal{X} \in \mathcal{Q}} \operatorname{opt}(\operatorname{Merge}(\mathcal{X})): \mathcal{Q}\right.$ is a true partition of $\left.\mathcal{D}\right\}=$ $\min \{\operatorname{opt}(\operatorname{Merge}(\mathcal{X}))+\min \{D P(\mathcal{D} \backslash \mathcal{X}), \operatorname{opt}(\operatorname{Merge}(\mathcal{D} \backslash \mathcal{X}))\}: \mathcal{X} \in \mathcal{Q}, \mathcal{Q}$ is a true partition of $\mathcal{D}\}=\min \{\operatorname{opt}(\operatorname{Merge}(\mathcal{X}))+\min \{D P(\mathcal{D} \backslash \mathcal{X}), \operatorname{opt}(\operatorname{Merge}(\mathcal{D} \backslash \mathcal{X}))\}: \emptyset \neq \mathcal{X} \subsetneq \mathcal{D}\}$.

[^4]```
Algorithm MinRS_exact
Input: Set \(\mathcal{R}\) of rooted triplets over a leaf label set \(L\).
Output: The number of internal nodes in a minimally resolved tree consistent with \(\mathcal{R}\)
and leaf-labeled by \(L\).
    For every \(x \in L\), initialize \(\operatorname{opt}(\{x\}):=0\);
    for \(i:=2\) to \(n\) do
    for every cardinality- \(i\) subset \(L^{\prime}\) of \(L\) do
        Construct \(\mathcal{G}\left(L^{\prime}\right)\). Let \(\mathcal{C}\) and \(\mathcal{U}\) be the set of connected components and the set
        of singleton components, respectively, in \(\mathcal{G}\left(L^{\prime}\right)\);
        Let \(D P(\emptyset):=0\). For every \(X \in \mathcal{C} \backslash \mathcal{U}\), let \(D P(\{X\}):=o p t(\Lambda(X))\);
        for \(j:=2\) to \(|\mathcal{C}|-|\mathcal{U}|\) do
            for every cardinality- \(j\) subset \(\mathcal{D}\) of \(\mathcal{C} \backslash \mathcal{U}\) do
                \(D P(\mathcal{D}):=\)
                        \(\min _{\emptyset \neq \mathcal{X} \subseteq \mathcal{D}}\left\{\operatorname{opt}\left(\bigcup_{Q \in \mathcal{X}} \Lambda(Q)\right)+\min \left\{D P(\mathcal{D} \backslash \mathcal{X}), \operatorname{opt}\left(\bigcup_{Q \in \mathcal{D} \backslash \mathcal{X}} \Lambda(Q)\right)\right\}\right\} ;\)
            end for
        end for
        \(\operatorname{opt}\left(L^{\prime}\right):=D P(\mathcal{C} \backslash \mathcal{U})+1 ;\)
    end for
    end for
    return \(\operatorname{opt}(L)\);
```

Figure 2 Algorithm MinRS_exact.

Lemmas 2 and 3 suggest the following strategy: Compute $\operatorname{opt}\left(L^{\prime}\right)$ for all subsets $L^{\prime}$ of $L$ in order of increasing cardinality by evaluating the formula in Lemma 2, while using dynamic programming to compute and store the relevant $D P$-values. To do this, for each $L^{\prime}$, we first construct $\mathcal{G}\left(L^{\prime}\right)$ in polynomial time. We then enumerate all subsets $\mathcal{D}$ of $\mathcal{C}_{L^{\prime}}$ in a loop having $\left|\mathcal{C}_{L^{\prime}}\right|$ iterations in which iteration $j$ uses Lemma 3 to compute all $D P(\mathcal{D})$-values where $|\mathcal{D}|=j$. Each application of Lemma 3 takes $O^{*}\left(2^{|\mathcal{D}|}\right)$ time, so this takes a total of $O^{*}\left(\sum_{j=1}^{\left|\mathcal{C}_{L^{\prime}}\right|}\left({ }^{\left|\mathcal{C}_{L^{\prime}}\right|}\right) 2^{j}\right)=O^{*}\left((2+1)^{\left|\mathcal{C}_{L^{\prime}}\right|}\right)=O^{*}\left(3^{\left|\mathcal{C}_{L^{\prime}}\right|}\right)$ time for each $L^{\prime}$. To obtain $\operatorname{opt}(L)$, we iterate over all subsets $L^{\prime}$ of $L$ of cardinality $i=1,2, \ldots, n$; iteration $i$ computes $\operatorname{opt}\left(L^{\prime}\right)$ for each $L^{\prime}$ with $\left|L^{\prime}\right|=i$ in $O^{*}\left(3^{\left|\mathcal{C}_{L^{\prime}}\right|}\right)$ time as just described. The total running time becomes $O^{*}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n}\binom{n}{i} 3^{i}\right)=O^{*}\left((3+1)^{n}\right)=O^{*}\left(4^{n}\right)$.

To reduce the time complexity, we will reduce the number of applications of Lemma 3 in the main loop that computes opt $\left(L^{\prime}\right)$ for any $L^{\prime} \subseteq L$. We rely on the following simple observation, which essentially tells us that the singleton components of $\mathcal{G}\left(L^{\prime}\right)$ can be ignored.

- Lemma 4. Let $\mathcal{U}$ be the set of singleton components in $\mathcal{G}\left(L^{\prime}\right) . D P\left(\mathcal{C}_{L^{\prime}}\right)=D P\left(\mathcal{C}_{L^{\prime}} \backslash \mathcal{U}\right)$.

Proof. Consider any $x \in \mathcal{U}$. By the construction of $\mathcal{G}\left(L^{\prime}\right)$ and $\mathcal{U}$, there are no rooted triplets of the form $x y \mid z$ for any $y, z \in L^{\prime}$ in the set $\mathcal{R} \mid L^{\prime}$. Hence, there exists a minimally resolved tree consistent with $\mathcal{R} \mid L^{\prime}$ in which $x$ is attached directly to the root. The lemma follows.

The resulting algorithm, called MinRS_exact, is summarized in Figure 2.
Theorem 5. Algorithm MinRS_exact solves MinRS in $O^{*}\left((1+\sqrt{3})^{n}\right)$ time.
Proof. First note that $\mathcal{C}_{L^{\prime}} \backslash \mathcal{U}$ contains no singleton components. Therefore, the number of connected components in $\mathcal{C}_{L^{\prime}} \backslash \mathcal{U}$ is at most $\frac{\left|L^{\prime}\right|}{2}$, i.e., $\left|\mathcal{C}_{L^{\prime}}\right|-|\mathcal{U}| \leq \frac{\left|L^{\prime}\right|}{2}$. Now, when computing
$\operatorname{opt}\left(L^{\prime}\right)$ for any subset $L^{\prime}$ of $L$, the number of applications of the formula in Lemma 3 is reduced since there no are subsets $\mathcal{D}$ of cardinality larger than $\left|\mathcal{C}_{L^{\prime}}\right|-|\mathcal{U}|$. More precisely, the time for each $L^{\prime}$ is reduced to $O^{*}\left(\sum_{j=1}^{\left|\mathcal{C}_{L^{\prime}}\right|-|\mathcal{U}|}\binom{\left|\mathcal{C}_{L^{\prime}}\right|-|\mathcal{U}|}{j} 2^{j}\right)=O^{*}\left((2+1)^{\left|\mathcal{C}_{L^{\prime}}\right|-|\mathcal{U}|}\right)=O^{*}\left(3^{\left|\mathcal{C}_{L^{\prime}}\right|-|\mathcal{U}|}\right)=$ $O^{*}\left(\sqrt{3}^{\left|L^{\prime}\right|}\right)$. Finally, replacing $O^{*}\left(3^{\left|\mathcal{C}_{L^{\prime}}\right|}\right)$ by $O^{*}\left(\sqrt{3}^{\left|L^{\prime}\right|}\right)$ in the analysis of computing opt $(L)$ above gives a total time complexity of $O^{*}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n}\binom{n}{i} \sqrt{3}^{i}\right)=O^{*}\left((\sqrt{3}+1)^{n}\right)$.

- Remark. The algorithm as presented here returns opt $(L)$. An optimal tree with this number of internal nodes can be obtained by standard traceback techniques.
- Corollary 6. MinRLC can be solved in $O\left(k n^{3}+(1+\sqrt{3})^{n} \cdot \operatorname{poly}(n)\right)$ time.

Proof. First construct $\mathcal{R}=\bigcap_{i=1}^{k} r\left(T_{i}\right)$ in $O\left(k n^{3}\right)$ time, e.g., by preprocessing each $T_{i}$ in $O(n)$ time so that any query of the form $l c a(x, y)$ in $T_{i}$ with $x, y \in L$ can be answered in $O(1)$ time [3] and then, for every $L^{\prime} \subseteq L$ with $\left|L^{\prime}\right|=3$, doing $3 k l c a$-queries to see if $L^{\prime}$ induces the same rooted triplet in all of the $k$ trees. Next, run MinRS_exact on $\mathcal{R}$.

## 4 Exponential-Time Algorithms for MinIS and MinILC

We now describe an $O^{*}\left(4^{n}\right)$-time algorithm for MinIS based on the technique from Section 3. Applying it to MinILC yields an $O\left(k n^{3}+4^{n} \cdot \operatorname{poly}(n)\right)$-time algorithm for the latter.

Lemma 1 guarantees that every valid solution to MinIS can be discovered by trying all ways of merging connected components in the auxiliary graphs $\mathcal{G}\left(L^{\prime}\right)$. As in Section 3, we use dynamic programming to compute and store optimal values to subproblems but make the following modifications. First of all, redefine opt so that opt $\left(L^{\prime}\right)$ for every $L^{\prime} \subseteq$ $L$ means the value of $\left|r\left(T^{\prime}\right)\right|$ for an optimal solution $T^{\prime}$ to MinIS for $\mathcal{R} \mid L^{\prime}$. Secondly, redefine $\operatorname{DP}(\mathcal{D})$ for every $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathcal{C}_{L^{\prime}}$ to mean the minimum value of $\sum_{\mathcal{X} \in \mathcal{Q}}(\operatorname{opt}(\operatorname{Merge}(\mathcal{X}))+$ $\left.\left(\begin{array}{l}|\operatorname{Merge}(\mathcal{X})|\end{array}\right) \cdot\left|L^{\prime} \backslash \operatorname{Merge}(\mathcal{X})\right|\right)$, taken over all possible true partitions $\mathcal{Q}$ of $\mathcal{D}$. With the new definitions of opt and $D P$, the analogues of Lemmas 2 and 3 become:

- Lemma 7. For every $L^{\prime} \subseteq L$ with $\left|L^{\prime}\right| \geq 2$, it holds that opt $\left(L^{\prime}\right)=D P\left(\mathcal{C}_{L^{\prime}}\right)$.

Proof. $D P\left(\mathcal{C}_{L^{\prime}}\right)$ counts the minimum number of rooted triplets in a tree consistent with $\mathcal{R} \mid L^{\prime}$ among all partitions $\mathcal{Q}$ of $\mathcal{C}_{L^{\prime}}$. Hence, opt $\left(L^{\prime}\right)=\operatorname{DP}\left(\mathcal{C}_{L^{\prime}}\right)$.

- Lemma 8. For every $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathcal{C}_{L^{\prime}}$ with $|\mathcal{D}| \geq 2, \operatorname{DP}(\mathcal{D})=\min _{\emptyset \neq \mathcal{X} \subseteq \mathcal{D}}\{\operatorname{opt}(\operatorname{Merge}(\mathcal{X}))+$ $\left(\begin{array}{c}|\operatorname{Merge}(\mathcal{X})|\end{array}\right) \cdot\left|L^{\prime} \backslash \operatorname{Merge}(\mathcal{X})\right|+\min \left\{D P(\mathcal{D} \backslash \mathcal{X}), \left.\operatorname{opt}(\operatorname{Merge}(\mathcal{D} \backslash \mathcal{X}))+\binom{|\operatorname{Merge}(\mathcal{D} \backslash \mathcal{X})|}{2} \cdot \right\rvert\, L^{\prime} \backslash\right.$ $\operatorname{Merge}(\mathcal{D} \backslash \mathcal{X}) \mid\}\}$.

Proof. $\operatorname{DP}(\mathcal{D})=\min \left\{\sum_{\mathcal{X} \in \mathcal{Q}}\left(\operatorname{opt}(\operatorname{Merge}(\mathcal{X}))+\left(\begin{array}{|c}|\operatorname{Merge}(\mathcal{X})|\end{array}\right) \cdot\left|L^{\prime} \backslash \operatorname{Merge}(\mathcal{X})\right|\right): \mathcal{Q}\right.$ is a true partition of $\mathcal{D}\}=\min \left\{\operatorname{opt}(\operatorname{Merge}(\mathcal{X}))+(\underset{2}{|\operatorname{Merge}(\mathcal{X})|}) \cdot\left|L^{\prime} \backslash \operatorname{Merge}(\mathcal{X})\right|+\min \{D P(\mathcal{D} \backslash X)\right.$, $\left.\operatorname{opt}(\operatorname{Merge}(\mathcal{D} \backslash \mathcal{X}))+\left(\begin{array}{r}|\operatorname{Merge}(\mathcal{D} \backslash \mathcal{X})|\end{array}\right) \cdot\left|L^{\prime} \backslash \operatorname{Merge}(\mathcal{D} \backslash \mathcal{X})\right|\right\}: \mathcal{X} \in \mathcal{Q}, \mathcal{Q}$ is a true partition of $\left.\mathcal{D}\right\}$ $=\min \left\{\operatorname{opt}(\operatorname{Merge}(\mathcal{X}))+\left({ }_{2}^{|\operatorname{Merge}(\mathcal{X})|}\right) \cdot\left|L^{\prime} \backslash \operatorname{Merge}(\mathcal{X})\right|+\min \{D P(\mathcal{D} \backslash X)\right.$, opt $(\operatorname{Merge}(\mathcal{D} \backslash$ $\left.\left.\mathcal{X}))+(\underset{2}{|\operatorname{Merge}(\mathcal{D} \backslash \mathcal{X})|}) \cdot\left|L^{\prime} \backslash \operatorname{Merge}(\mathcal{D} \backslash \mathcal{X})\right|\right\}: \emptyset \neq \mathcal{X} \subsetneq \mathcal{D}\right\}$.

The new algorithm, called MinIS_exact, is obtained by modifying Algorithm MinRS_exact as follows:

- Change Step 8 so that it computes $\operatorname{DP(\mathcal {D})\text {usingLemma}8\text {insteadLemma}3....~.~}$
- Change Step 11 so that it assigns $\operatorname{opt}\left(L^{\prime}\right):=D P\left(\mathcal{C}_{L^{\prime}}\right)$, in accordance with Lemma 7 .
- Change Step 4 so that it always sets $\mathcal{U}$ to $\emptyset$.

The reason why we force $\mathcal{U}=\emptyset$ is that we do not have an analogue of Lemma 4 for MinIS that would allow us to ignore the singleton components. The algorithm therefore spends $O^{*}\left(\sum_{j=1}^{\left|\mathcal{C}_{L^{\prime}}\right|}\binom{\left|\mathcal{C}_{L^{\prime}}\right|}{j} 2^{j}\right)=O^{*}\left((2+1)^{\left|\mathcal{C}_{L^{\prime}}\right|}\right)=O^{*}\left(3^{\left|\mathcal{C}_{L^{\prime}}\right|}\right)$ time for each $L^{\prime}$, just like the slower version of Algorithm MinRS_exact in Section 3, and the total running time is $O^{*}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n}\binom{n}{i} 3^{i}\right)$ $=O^{*}\left((3+1)^{n}\right)=O^{*}\left(4^{n}\right)$.

- Theorem 9. Algorithm MinIS_exact solves MinIS in $O^{*}\left(4^{n}\right)$ time.
- Corollary 10. MinILC can be solved in $O\left(k n^{3}+4^{n} \cdot \operatorname{poly}(n)\right)$ time.


## 5 NP-Hardness of MinRLC

Section 3 in [16] proved that MinRS is NP-hard. It follows from the proof in [16] that MinRS remains NP-hard even if restricted to a particular special case which we now describe.

Suppose that $L_{0}=\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}, \ldots, v_{q}\right\}$ is a set of elements. Define $L_{0}^{\prime}=\left\{v_{1^{\prime}}, v_{1^{\prime \prime}}, v_{2^{\prime}}, v_{2^{\prime \prime}}, \ldots\right.$, $\left.v_{q^{\prime}}, v_{q^{\prime \prime}}\right\}$, and for any integers $i, j$ with $1 \leq i<j \leq q$, define $\mathcal{R}\left(v_{i}, v_{j}\right)$ as the set of four rooted triplets $\left\{v_{i^{\prime}} v_{i^{\prime \prime}}\left|v_{j^{\prime}}, v_{i^{\prime}} v_{i^{\prime \prime}}\right| v_{j^{\prime \prime}}, v_{j^{\prime}} v_{j^{\prime \prime}}\left|v_{i^{\prime}}, v_{j^{\prime}} v_{j^{\prime \prime}}\right| v_{i^{\prime \prime}}\right\}$ over $L_{0}^{\prime}$. For any set $S$, let $\binom{S}{2}$ denote the set of all subsets of $S$ of cardinality 2. According to Section 3 in [16], MinRS is NP-hard even if restricted to instances where $\mathcal{R}$ has the form $\mathcal{R}=\bigcup_{\left\{v_{i}, v_{j}\right\} \in Z} \mathcal{R}\left(v_{i}, v_{j}\right)$ for some set $L_{0}$ and some $Z \subseteq\binom{L_{0}}{2}$.

- Theorem 11. MinRLC is NP-hard.

Proof. We reduce from the above variant of MinRS. Let $\mathcal{R}$ be any given instance of the problem. Let $P$ be the set of pairs of indices that form rooted triplets in $\mathcal{R}$, i.e., $P=\left\{\{i, j\}: v_{i^{\prime}} v_{i^{\prime \prime}}\left|v_{j^{\prime}}, v_{i^{\prime}} v_{i^{\prime \prime}}\right| v_{j^{\prime \prime}}, v_{j^{\prime}} v_{j^{\prime \prime}}\left|v_{i^{\prime}}, v_{j^{\prime}} v_{j^{\prime \prime}}\right| v_{i^{\prime \prime}} \in \mathcal{R}\right\}$, and let $Q=\left(\frac{\{1,2, \ldots, q\}}{2}\right) \backslash P$.

Define a tree $T_{0}=\left(\left(v_{1^{\prime}}, v_{1^{\prime \prime}}\right),\left(v_{2^{\prime}}, v_{2^{\prime \prime}}\right), \ldots,\left(v_{q^{\prime}}, v_{q^{\prime \prime}}\right)\right)$; and for every $f=\{x, y\} \in Q$, define a tree $T_{f}$ by taking a copy of $T_{0}$ and merging the two subtrees ( $v_{x^{\prime}}, v_{x^{\prime \prime}}$ ) and ( $v_{y^{\prime}}, v_{y^{\prime \prime}}$ ) so that $T_{f}=\left(\left(v_{x^{\prime}}, v_{x^{\prime \prime}}, v_{y^{\prime}}, v_{y^{\prime \prime}}\right),\left(v_{1^{\prime}}, v_{1^{\prime \prime}}\right),\left(v_{2^{\prime}}, v_{2^{\prime \prime}}\right), \ldots,\left(v_{n^{\prime}}, v_{n^{\prime \prime}}\right)\right) ;$ Let $\mathcal{S}=\left\{T_{0}\right\} \cup\left\{T_{f}\right.$ : $f \in Q\}$. Note that $\mathcal{R}=\bigcap_{T_{i} \in \mathcal{S}} r\left(T_{i}\right)$. This is because for any $\{x, y\} \in P$, the four rooted triplets $v_{x^{\prime}} v_{x^{\prime \prime}}\left|v_{y^{\prime}}, v_{x^{\prime}} v_{x^{\prime \prime}}\right| v_{y^{\prime \prime}}, v_{y^{\prime}} v_{y^{\prime \prime}}\left|v_{x^{\prime}}, v_{y^{\prime}} v_{y^{\prime \prime}}\right| v_{x^{\prime \prime}}$ appear in $\mathcal{R}$ as well as in $r\left(T_{i}\right)$ for every $T_{i} \in \mathcal{S}$. On the other hand, for any $\{x, y\} \in Q, v_{x^{\prime}} v_{x^{\prime \prime}}\left|v_{y^{\prime}}, v_{x^{\prime}} v_{x^{\prime \prime}}\right| v_{y^{\prime \prime}}, v_{y^{\prime}} v_{y^{\prime \prime}}\left|v_{x^{\prime}}, v_{y^{\prime}} v_{y^{\prime \prime}}\right| v_{x^{\prime \prime}}$ do not appear in $\mathcal{R}$ or in $r\left(T_{\{x, y\}}\right)$. Thus, there exists a tree $T$ with $\bigcap_{T_{i} \in \mathcal{S}} r\left(T_{i}\right) \subseteq r(T)$ having $x$ internal nodes if and only if there exists a tree $T^{\prime}$ with $\mathcal{R} \subseteq r\left(T^{\prime}\right)$ having $x$ internal nodes.

## 6 NP-Hardness of MinILC and MinIS

To prove the NP-hardness of MinILC, we give a polynomial-time reduction from the Maximum Clique problem, which is NP-hard [12]. Maximum Clique takes as input an undirected graph $G=(V, E)$ and asks for a largest clique in $G$, where $X \subseteq V$ is a clique in $G$ if every two vertices belonging to $X$ are adjacent in $G$.

The reduction is as follows. Let $n=|V|$ and write $V=\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$. Create a set $L$ of leaf labels such that $L=\left\{v_{i}, v_{i}^{\prime}: i \in V\right\} \cup\left\{z, w_{1}, w_{2}, \ldots, w_{n^{2}}\right\}$. Define a tree $T_{\emptyset}=$ $\left(z,\left(w_{1}, w_{2}, \ldots, w_{n^{2}}\right),\left(v_{1}, v_{1}^{\prime}\right),\left(v_{2}, v_{2}^{\prime}\right), \ldots,\left(v_{n}, v_{n}^{\prime}\right)\right)$; with $\Lambda\left(T_{\emptyset}\right)=L$. For any nonempty subset $X=\left\{i_{1}, i_{2}, \ldots, i_{p}\right\} \subseteq V$, let $T_{X}$ be the tree with $\Lambda\left(T_{X}\right)=L$ obtained by taking a copy of $T_{\emptyset}$, deleting the subtrees $\left(v_{i}, v_{i}^{\prime}\right)$ for all $i \in X$, and replacing the subtree $\left(w_{1}, w_{2}, \ldots, w_{n^{2}}\right)$ by $\left(\left(w_{1}, w_{2}, \ldots, w_{n^{2}}, v_{i_{1}}, v_{i_{2}}, \ldots, v_{i_{p}}\right), v_{i_{1}}^{\prime}, v_{i_{2}}^{\prime}, \ldots, v_{i_{p}}^{\prime}\right)$. Finally, let $\mathcal{S}=\left\{T_{\emptyset}\right\} \cup\left\{T_{\{i\}}: i \in\right.$ $V\} \cup\left\{T_{\{i, j\}}:\{i, j\} \in E\right\}$.

Section 6.1 first states some general properties satisfied by the trees defined above. Then, Section 6.2 establishes some specific properties satisfied by any local consensus tree of $\mathcal{S}$. After that, we will prove that for any $X \subseteq V, X$ is a maximum clique in $G$ if and only if $T_{X}$ is a local consensus tree of $\mathcal{S}$ with the smallest possible number of rooted triplets, giving the main result of this section.

### 6.1 General Properties

The following additional notation is used. For any tree $H$, $\operatorname{Child}(H)$ is the set of children of the root of $H$. For any $u \in V(H)$, the subtree of $H$ induced by $u$ and all proper descendants of $u$ is called the subtree of $H$ rooted at $u$ and is denoted by $H^{u}$. For any $L^{\prime} \subseteq \Lambda(H), H \mid L^{\prime}$ is the tree obtained from $H$ by deleting all nodes with no descendants in $L^{\prime}$ and their incident edges, and then contracting every edge between a node having one child and its child. Finally, for every positive integer $n$, define a function $f_{n}(k)=$ $n^{5}-\frac{k-1}{2} n^{4}+4 k n^{3}-\frac{6 k^{2}-3 k-3}{2} n^{2}+\left(4 k^{2}-4 k-1\right) n-\frac{7 k^{3}-7 k^{2}}{2}$. We immediately have:

- Lemma 12. For any tree $H,|r(H)|=\sum_{u \in \operatorname{Child}(H)}\left(\left|r\left(H^{u}\right)\right|+\left(\begin{array}{|c}\left|\Lambda\left(H^{u}\right)\right|\end{array}\right) \cdot\left(|\Lambda(H)|-\left|\Lambda\left(H^{u}\right)\right|\right)\right)$.
- Lemma 13. Let $X$ be any subset of the given $V$. Write $k=|X|$. Then $\left|r\left(T_{X}\right)\right|=f_{n}(k)$.

Proof. By Lemma 12, the number of rooted triplets consistent with $T_{X}$ is $\binom{n^{2}+k}{2} \cdot k+$ $\binom{n^{2}+2 k}{2} \cdot(2 n-2 k+1)+(n-k) \cdot\left(n^{2}+2 n-1\right)$. Expanding this expression yields the formula.

- Corollary 14. For any fixed $n \geq 8, f_{n}(k)$ is strictly decreasing as $k$ increases.

Proof. By Lemma 13, $f_{n}(k+1)-f_{n}(k)=-\frac{1}{2} n^{4}+4 n^{3}-\frac{12 k+3}{2} n^{2}+8 k n-\frac{7}{2}\left(3 k^{2}+k\right)$. Since $n \geq 8,-\frac{1}{2} n^{4}+4 n^{3} \leq 0$ holds. Also, $\frac{12 k+3}{2} n>8 k$ for $n \geq 8$ and $-\frac{7}{2}\left(3 k^{2}+k\right) \leq 0$. The corollary follows.

- Lemma 15. Consider any $u \in \operatorname{Child}(H)$ in a tree $H$. Suppose that $\Lambda\left(H^{u}\right)=\alpha \cup \beta$ for some $\alpha, \beta \neq \emptyset$ with $\alpha \cap \beta=\emptyset$. Let $H^{\prime}$ be the tree obtained from $H$ by deleting $H^{u}$ and its parent edge and attaching the roots of $H \mid \alpha$ and $H \mid \beta$ as children of the root of $H$. If $|\alpha|+|\beta| \leq \frac{2|\Lambda(H)|}{3}$ then $\left|r\left(H^{\prime}\right)\right|<|r(H)|$.

Proof. Define $m=|\Lambda(H)|$. Lemma 12 gives $|r(H)|-\left|r\left(H^{\prime}\right)\right|=\left|r\left(H^{u}\right)\right|+\binom{|\alpha|+|\beta|}{2} \cdot(m-$ $|\alpha|-|\beta|)-|r(H \mid \alpha)|-\binom{|\alpha|}{2} \cdot(m-|\alpha|)-|r(H \mid \beta)|-\binom{|\beta|}{2} \cdot(m-|\beta|)$. Noting that $\left|r\left(H^{u}\right)\right| \geq$ $|r(H \mid \alpha)|+|r(H \mid \beta)|$, we have $|r(H)|-\left|r\left(H^{\prime}\right)\right| \geq\binom{|\alpha|+|\beta|}{2} \cdot(m-|\alpha|-|\beta|)-\binom{|\alpha|}{2} \cdot(m-|\alpha|)-$ $\binom{|\beta|}{2} \cdot(m-|\beta|)=|\alpha| \cdot|\beta| \cdot\left(m+1-\frac{3}{2} \cdot(|\alpha|+|\beta|)\right) \geq|\alpha| \cdot|\beta| \cdot(m+1-m)=|\alpha| \cdot|\beta|>0$.

### 6.2 Properties of a Local Consensus Tree of $\mathcal{S}$

By the definition of $\mathcal{S}$, we have the next lemma.

> Lemma 16. The set $\bigcap_{T_{i} \in \mathcal{S}} r\left(T_{i}\right)$ consists of the following rooted triplets:
> $=w_{i} w_{j} \mid z$ for all $1 \leq i<j \leq n^{2}$ and $v_{i} v_{i}^{\prime} \mid z$ for all $1 \leq i \leq n$;
> $=w_{i} w_{j} \mid v_{k}^{\prime}$ for all $1 \leq i<j \leq n^{2}$ and $1 \leq k \leq n$;
> $v_{i} v_{i}^{\prime}\left|v_{j}, v_{i} v_{i}^{\prime}\right| v_{j}^{\prime}, v_{j} v_{j}^{\prime} \mid v_{i}$, and $v_{j} v_{j}^{\prime} \mid v_{i}^{\prime}$ for all $1 \leq i<j \leq n$ with $\{i, j\} \notin E$.

Let $T$ be any local consensus tree of $\mathcal{S}$, i.e., any tree $T$ such that $\Lambda(T)=L$ and $\bigcap_{T_{i} \in \mathcal{S}} r\left(T_{i}\right) \subseteq r(T)$. According to Lemma $16, r(T)$ contains $v_{i} v_{i}^{\prime} \mid z$ for all $1 \leq i \leq n$, so the two leaves $v_{i}$ and $v_{i}^{\prime}$ must belong to the same subtree attached to the root of $T$ for all $1 \leq i \leq n$. Similarly, all leaves in $\left\{w_{1}, w_{2}, \ldots, w_{n^{2}}\right\}$ must belong to one subtree attached to the root of $T$. The core of $T$, denoted by $\gamma_{T}$, is the subtree of $T$ rooted at the node $l c a\left(w_{1}, w_{2}, \ldots, w_{n^{2}}\right)$. The path from the root of $T$ to the parent of $\gamma_{T}$ is called the core path of $T$. For any node $u \in V(T)$, if $u$ is a child of the core path of $T$ that does not belong to the core path itself and $u \neq l c a\left(w_{1}, w_{2}, \ldots, w_{n^{2}}\right)$, the subtree of $T$ rooted at $u$ is called a secondary subtree of $T$. Note that the secondary subtrees of $T$ are disjoint. Define $C_{T}=\left\{i: v_{i} \in \Lambda\left(\gamma_{T}\right)\right\}$.

- Lemma 17. Let $T$ be a local consensus tree of $\mathcal{S} . T$ has the following properties:

1. The core $\gamma_{T}$ does not contain the leaf $v_{i}^{\prime}$ for any $1 \leq i \leq n$.
2. $C_{T}$ forms a clique in $G$.
3. For any $i \in\{1,2, \ldots n\}$, if $C_{T} \cup\{i\}$ is not a clique in $G$ then $v_{i}$ and $v_{i}^{\prime}$ belong to the same secondary subtree of $T$.

## Proof.

1. Suppose $v_{i}^{\prime} \in \Lambda\left(\gamma_{T}\right)$. Let $w_{a}, w_{b}$ be any two leaves such that $l c a\left(\left\{w_{a}, w_{b}\right\}\right)=l c a\left(\left\{w_{1}, w_{2}\right.\right.$, $\left.\left.\ldots, w_{n^{2}}\right\}\right)$. Then, $w_{a} w_{b} \mid v_{i}^{\prime} \notin r(T)$, contradicting Lemma 16.
2. Consider any $i, j \in C_{T}$ with $i \neq j$. By point $1 ., v_{i} v_{j} \mid v_{i}^{\prime} \in r(T)$, so $v_{i} v_{i}^{\prime} \mid v_{j} \notin r(T)$. According to Lemma $16,\{i, j\} \notin E$ does not hold, which means that $\{i, j\} \in E$.
3. Since $C_{T} \cup\{i\}$ is not a clique, there exists some $j \in C_{T}$ where $\{i, j\} \notin E$. By Lemma 16 , $v_{i} v_{i}^{\prime} \mid v_{j} \in r(T)$. Thus, $v_{i}$ and $v_{i}^{\prime}$ are in the same subtree attached to the core path.

Observe that Lemma 17.1 implies $\Lambda\left(\gamma_{T}\right)=\left\{w_{1}, w_{2}, \ldots, w_{n^{2}}\right\} \cup\left\{v_{p} \mid p \in C_{T}\right\}$. Moreover, by Lemma 17.3, for any $i \in\{1,2, \ldots n\}$, if $v_{i}$ and $v_{i}^{\prime}$ belong to subtrees attached to different nodes on the core path then $C_{T} \cup\{i\}$ is a clique in $G$.

- Lemma 18. Let $n \geq 10$ and let $T$ be a local consensus tree of $\mathcal{S}$. $T$ can be transformed into a local consensus tree of $\mathcal{S}$ of the form $T_{X}$ for some $X \subseteq V$ where $X$ is a clique in $G$ and $\left|r\left(T_{X}\right)\right| \leq|r(T)|$.

Proof. We describe a sequence of transformations that can be applied to $T$ without increasing the number of rooted triplets consistent with it. After each transformation, the resulting tree still contains all of the rooted triplets listed in Lemma 16, so it is still a local consensus tree of $\mathcal{S}$.

First, consider the leaf $z$ in $T$. Let $P$ be the path from the root of $T$ to $z$, and let $\rho_{1}, \rho_{2}, \ldots, \rho_{e}$ be the disjoint subtrees of $T$ attached to $P$ whose roots do not belong to $P$ themselves. Let $T^{1}$ be the tree formed by removing $P$ and attaching $z$ and the roots of $\rho_{1}, \rho_{2}, \ldots, \rho_{e}$ as children of the root. Then $\left|r\left(T^{1}\right)\right| \leq|r(T)|$, and $T^{1}$ has the property that $z$ is a child of the root of $T^{1}$.

Secondly, transform $T^{1}$ to $T^{2}$ by contracting the core $\gamma_{T^{1}}$, i.e., by replacing $\gamma_{T^{1}}$ by a single node to which all leaves in $\Lambda\left(\gamma_{T^{1}}\right)$ are directly attached. Clearly, $\left|r\left(T^{2}\right)\right| \leq\left|r\left(T^{1}\right)\right|$.

Thirdly, suppose that for some $q \in\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$, it holds that $q \notin C_{T^{2}}$ while $C_{T^{2}} \cup\{q\}$ is a clique in $G$. Let $T^{3}$ be the tree formed by removing the leaf $v_{q}$ from its location in $T^{2}$ and attaching it to the root of $\gamma_{T^{2}}$, and attaching the leaf $v_{q}^{\prime}$ as a child of the root of $\gamma_{T^{2}}$. There are two types of rooted triplets involving $v_{q}$ : (i) $x v_{q} \mid y$ and (ii) $x y \mid v_{q}$. For (i), there are at most $n^{2}+n-1$ choices of $x$ by Lemma 17.1 and at most $2 n$ choices of $y$, so $T^{3}$ has at most $\left(n^{2}+n-1\right) \cdot 2 n$ more rooted triplets than $T^{2}$ of this form. For (ii), there are at least
$\binom{n^{2}}{2}$ such rooted triplets in $T^{2}$ but not in $T^{3}$, corresponding to pairs of the form $\left(w_{i}, w_{j}\right)$, and at most $\binom{2 n}{2}$ such rooted triplets in $T^{3}$ that are not present in $T^{2}$. Similarly, there are two types of rooted triplets involving $v_{q}^{\prime}$ : (iii) $x v_{q}^{\prime} \mid y$ and (iv) $x y \mid v_{q}^{\prime}$. As above, $T^{3}$ has at most $\left(n^{2}+n-1\right) \cdot 2 n$ more rooted triplets than $T^{2}$ of the form (iii) and at most $\binom{2 n}{2}$ rooted triplets of the form (iv). Hence, by transforming $T^{2}$ to $T^{3}$, the number of rooted triplets is reduced by at least $\binom{n^{2}}{2}-2 \cdot\binom{2 n}{2}-2 \cdot\left(n^{2}+2-1\right) \cdot(2 n)$, which is larger than 0 when $n \geq 10$. We repeat this step until $T^{3}$ has no leaf $v_{q}$ such that $q \notin C_{T^{3}}$ and $C_{T^{3}} \cup\{q\}$ is a clique. This gives $\left|r\left(T^{3}\right)\right| \leq\left|r\left(T^{2}\right)\right|$.

Next, transform $T^{3}$ to a tree $T^{4}$ in which every secondary subtree contains at most two leaves and, furthermore, the leaves in any secondary subtree with precisely two leaves are of the form $\left\{v_{q}, v_{q}^{\prime}\right\}$ where $C_{T^{4}} \cup\{q\}$ is not a clique in $G$. To do this, consider each secondary subtree $s$ of $T^{3}$. By the definition of $T^{3}$ in the previous paragraph, $C_{T^{3}} \cup\{q\}$ is not a clique in $G$ for any $v_{q} \in \Lambda(s)$. While $|\Lambda(s)|>2$, extract any pair of leaves $\left\{v_{q}, v_{q}^{\prime}\right\}$ from $s$ (recall from Lemma 17.3 that any two leaves of the form $v_{i}$ and $v_{i}^{\prime}$ must belong to the same secondary subtree), and create a new secondary subtree with the leaves $\left\{v_{q}, v_{q}^{\prime}\right\}$ attached to the core path as a sibling of $s$. Every secondary subtree $s$ satisfies $|\Lambda(s)| \leq 2 n \leq \frac{2 n^{2}}{3} \leq \frac{2|\Lambda(H)|}{3}$, where $H$ is the subtree rooted at the parent of the root of $s$, so we get $\left|r\left(T^{4}\right)\right| \leq\left|r\left(T^{3}\right)\right|$ by Lemma 15.

Lastly, transform $T^{4}$ to a tree $T^{5}$ whose core path consists of a single edge $\left(u_{0}, u_{1}\right)$, where $u_{0}$ is the root of $T^{5}$, as follows. Attach each secondary subtree of $T^{4}$ having two leaves as a child of $u_{0}$, and attach each secondary subtree of $T^{4}$ having one leaf as a child of $u_{1}$. Attach $z$ as a child of $u_{0}$ and the core $\gamma_{T^{4}}$ as a child of $u_{1}$. Note that this will not destroy any of the rooted triplets in Lemma 16, and that $\left|r\left(T^{5}\right)\right| \leq\left|r\left(T^{4}\right)\right|$.

By the definition of $T_{X}, T^{5}$ is equal to $T_{X}$ if we select $X=C_{T^{5}}$. Finally, $C_{T^{5}}$ is a clique in $G$ by Lemma 17.2.

- Lemma 19. Let $n \geq 10 . X \subseteq V$ is a maximum clique in $G$ if and only if $T_{X}$ is a local consensus tree of $\mathcal{S}$ that minimizes the number of rooted triplets.

Proof. $(\rightarrow)$ For the purpose of obtaining a contradiction, suppose there exists a local consensus tree $T^{\prime}$ of $\mathcal{S}$ with $\left|r\left(T^{\prime}\right)\right|<\left|r\left(T_{X}\right)\right|$. Apply Lemma 18 to $T^{\prime}$ to get a tree $T_{Q}$ that is also a local consensus tree of $\mathcal{S}$ with $\left|r\left(T_{Q}\right)\right| \leq\left|r\left(T^{\prime}\right)\right|$ and where $Q$ is a clique in $G$. Then $|Q|>|X|$ by Lemma 13 and Corollary 14, which is impossible.
$(\leftarrow)$ Suppose $X^{\prime}$ is a larger clique in $G$ than $X$. Lemma 13 and Corollary 14 imply $\left|r\left(T_{X^{\prime}}\right)\right|<$ $\left|r\left(T_{X}\right)\right|$, contradicting that $T_{X}$ is a local consensus tree of $\mathcal{S}$ minimizing the number of rooted triplets.

Now, assuming without loss of generality that $n \geq 10$ in the reduction from MAXIMUM Clique above, Lemma 19 gives:

- Theorem 20. MinILC is NP-hard.

Finally, by the reduction from MinILC to MinIS mentioned in Section 1.1:

- Corollary 21. MinIS is $N P$-hard.


## 7 Concluding Remarks

The main open problem is to obtain faster exponential-time algorithms than the ones presented here. In particular, can MinRS be solved in $O^{*}\left(2^{n}\right)$ time?

Another open problem is to extend the algorithms in this paper to unrooted phylogenetic trees. This would be interesting because many existing methods for inferring phylogenetic trees produce unrooted trees [11]. The unrooted case appears to be much harder than the rooted case, as the basic problem of determining the consistency of an input set of rooted triplets is solvable in polynomial time (see Section 1.2), while the corresponding problem for unrooted quartets (unrooted, distinctly leaf-labeled trees with exactly four leaves each and in which every internal node has at least three neighbors) is already NP-hard [22].

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[^1]:    1 This paper assumes without loss of generality that the input $\mathcal{R}$ to MinRS/MinIS is consistent. The reason is that given an arbitrary $\mathcal{R}$, one can check whether $\mathcal{R}$ is consistent or not in polynomial time using the BUILD algorithm [2] described below.

[^2]:    ${ }^{2}$ See, e.g., http://evolution.genetics.washington.edu/phylip/newicktree.html.

[^3]:    ${ }^{3}$ The notation $O^{*}(f(n))$ means $O(f(n) \cdot \operatorname{poly}(n))$.

[^4]:    4 This technique was actually used even earlier than [19]; the SUPERB algorithm in [10] outputs all binary trees consistent with $\mathcal{R}$ by considering all ways of merging the connected components of $\mathcal{G}(L)$ into exactly two connected components at each recursion level.

