Evolutionary Trees and Ordinal Assertions*

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Abstract. An evolutionary tree, or *phylogeny*, is a tree without degree two vertices whose vertices are labelled by species. An *ordinal assertion*, in an evolutionary context, is a statement of the form "species a and b are as similar as species c and d" and is supported by a distance matrix M of evolutionary data if $M[a,b] \leq M[c,d]$. Many phylogenetic inference methods commit to the assumption that the observed evolutionary dissimilarity $M[s,t]$ approximates the true evolutionary dissimilarity $d_T(s,t)$. However, when M is derived from sequence comparison this assumption can lead to erroneous inferences. A more plausible assumption is that ordinal assumptions supported by the true phylogeny T are also supported by the observed evolutionary dissimilarities M.

A phylogeny T is an *ordinal representation* of the distance matrix M if for all species a, b, c and d labelling T

$$d_T(a,b) \leq d_T(c,d) \text{ if and only if } M[a,b] \leq M[c,d].$$

Ordinal representations are interesting from an evolutionary perspective since they represent ordinal assertions supported by observed data. Ordinal representations are equally interesting from a combinatoric perspective as their analysis is rich in structure. In this paper the applicability of ordinal assertions to phylogenetic inference is discussed and the following results are presented:

- The ordinal representation of a distance matrix is unique. This generalizes the well–known result that no two phylogenies share the same distance matrix [10, 20].
- The ordinal representation of a distance matrix can be found in $O(n^2 log^2(n))$ time. The algorithm presented improves upon an $O(n^3)$ algorithm by Kannan and Warnow [13] that finds binary ordinal representations of distance matrices.
- Under certain conditions weighted ordinal representations can be found in polynomial time.

1 The Assumption of Ordinality

The inference of evolutionary trees, or *phylogenies*, from distance data is a challenging problem both from a computational and biological perspective. Inference methods are often computationally intractable [5, 6] or without clear biological foundation (see [19, 8] for an overview of phylogenetic inference methods). Typically distance data takes the form of a distance matrix M indexed by species

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set S such that for each pair of species s and t, $M[s,t]$ is derived by comparing sequence data for s and t. The goal is to infer a phylogeny T labelled by S that is representative of the evolutionary data supported by M.

Definition 1. A *phylogeny T labelled by species set S* is a tree without degree[4] two vertices such that each leaf of T is identified with a unique element of S. T is a *partial* phylogeny if T is permitted vertices of degree two. Since vertices of evolutionary trees represent points of speciation, evolutionary trees do not have degree two vertices.

If the edges of T are assigned positive lengths then T is called *weighted* and $d_T(s,t)$ is the sum of the lengths along the path $P_T(s,t)$ in T from s to t. Otherwise, T is called *unweighted* and $d_T(s,t)$ is the number of edges on the path $P_T(s,t)$. At times d_T is referred to as the *distance matrix of* T. Unless otherwise stated, phylogenies are unweighted and not partial.

If a distance matrix is exactly the distance matrix of some phylogeny then it is called *additive*. Most inference methods such as neighborhood joining [16], Fitch–Margoliash [9, 3], Sattath and Tversky [17], UPGMA [18], and split decomposition [1] are based upon the assumption that the observed evolutionary dissimilarities (M) approximate the true evolutionary dissimilarities (d_T where T is the historically–correct evolutionary tree). We call this the *assumption of additivity*. However, $M[s,t]$ tends to underestimate $d_T(s,t)$ since sequence comparisons give no information about the number of mutations that have occurred at a given site during the evolution of the sequences of s and t. For example, two sequences may differ at a particular site but that difference may be the result of several mutations of the common ancestral site. In an attempt to compensate for this discrepancy *correction transforms* can be applied to M. For example, under the assumption that sequences evolve according to the Jukes–Cantor model [12], the following transformation from the percentage dissimilarity matrix M to a corrected distance matrix M' accounts for anticipated discrepancy:

$$M'[s,t] = -\frac{3}{4} ln(1 - \frac{4}{3} M[s,t]).$$

Nevertheless, there is evidence that inference methods such as neighbor joining and UPGMA perform poorly in simulations even when corrected distances are used [11]. This brings into question the appropriateness of the assumption of additivity.

Recently alternative inference methods using *ordinal assertions* have been examined [15, 14, 13]. An ordinal assertion in an evolutionary context is a statement of the form "species a and b are as similar as species c and d" and is supported by M (supported by T) if $M[a,b] \leq M[c,d]$ (if $d_T(a,b) \leq d_T(c,d)$). Replacing the assumption of additivity is the *assumption of ordinality* which claims that ordinal assertions supported by T where T if the historically–correct phylogeny, are also supported by M. That is, for all species a, b, c and d

$$d_T(a,b) \leq d_T(c,d) \text{ if and only if } M[a,b] \leq M[c,d]. \tag{1}$$

We refer to a (weighted) phylogeny T as a *(weighted) ordinal representation* of M if T and M satisfy (1).

Notice that correction transforms for evolutionary models such as Jukes–Cantor [12] and Felsenstein's [7] implicitly commit to the assumption of ordinality as these correction transforms are monotonic. That is, M and M' are *ordinally equivalent*: $M[a,b] \leq M[c,d]$ if and only if $M'[a,b] \leq M'[c,d]$

[4] The degree of a vertex v is the number of vertices adjacent to v.

for all species a, b, c and d. In this sense the assumption of ordinality is prior to the assumption of additivity.

This paper is an investigation into algorithmic and combinatoric properties of ordinal representations. In particular the following results are presented:

- The ordinal representation of a distance matrix is unique. This generalizes the well–known result that no two phylogenies share the same distance matrix [10, 20].
- The ordinal representation of a distance matrix can be found in $O(n^2 log^2(n))$ time. The algorithm presented improves upon an $O(n^3)$ algorithm by Kannan and Warnow [13] that finds binary ordinal representations of distance matrices.
- We discuss how the algorithm for finding ordinal representations can be extended to a polynomial algorithm for finding weighted ordinal representations under certain conditions.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. In section 2 *midpath phylogenies* are introduced which are precursors to ordinal representations. In section 3 an algorithm is presented that extends midpath phylogenies to ordinal representations. As a by–product of the algorithm it is shown that ordinal representations are unique (section 3.5). Finally, in section 4 it is shown how weighted ordinal representations can be found under certain conditions.

2 Midpath Phylogenies: A Starting Point

Midpath phylogenies were introduced in [14] as representations of evolutionary data. Here it is shown that an ordinal representation is a midpath phylogeny and, in fact, is an expansion of the *minimal* midpath phylogeny. Hence our understanding of ordinal representations begins with an articulation of these concepts.

Let T_R be an ordinal representation of M, possibly weighted, where M is indexed by S. Let $x, y \in S$ and let w be the edge or vertex of $P_{T_R}(x, y)$ where the midpoint of $P_{T_R}(x, y)$ is located. Observe that $T_R - \{w\}$ satisfies the following *trichotomy*:

- The partial phylogeny of $T_R - \{w\}$ containing x is labelled by $S_{xy} = \{s \in S \mid M[s, x] < M[s, y]\}$.
- The partial phylogeny of $T_R - \{w\}$ containing y is labelled by $S_{yx} = \{s \in S \mid M[s, y] < M[s, x]\}$.
- The partial phylogenies of $T_R - \{w\}$ containing neither x nor y are labelled by $E_{xy} = \{s \in S \mid M[s, x] = M[s, y]\}$.

For any phylogeny T labelled by S and species $x, y \in S$ a vertex or edge w of $P_T(x, y)$ is called the *midpath* for x and y in T, denoted $m(x, y)$, if $T - \{w\}$ satisfies the above trichotomy. If midpaths exist in T for all species pairs then T is called a *midpath phylogeny* of M. An example of a distance matrix M and a midpath phylogeny of M appear in Table 1 and Figure 1.

T is an *edge contraction* of the phylogeny T' at the edge (p, q) if T is obtained by removing p and q from T', creating a new vertex v and letting v's adjacencies in T be the union of p's and q's adjacencies in T'. Conversely, T' is called a *vertex expansion* of T at vertex v.

T' is an *expansion* of T if T' is obtained from T by a (possibly empty) sequence of vertex expansions. T is a *contraction* of T' if T' is an expansion of T.

T is a *minimal* midpath phylogeny of M if no contraction of T is a midpath phylogeny of M.

Theorem 2 [14]. *If it exists, the minimal midpath phylogeny of a distance matrix is unique.*

	Horse	Donkey	Pig	Dog	Rabbit	Monkey	Human	Pigeon
Horse	0	9	43	80	83	136	143	116
Donkey		0	34	71	74	127	134	107
Pig			0	38	53	105	112	78
Dog				0	59	111	118	80
Rabbit					0	84	91	59
Monkey						0	24	118
Human							0	126
Pigeon								0

Table 1. Cytochrome C sequence data appearing in [2].

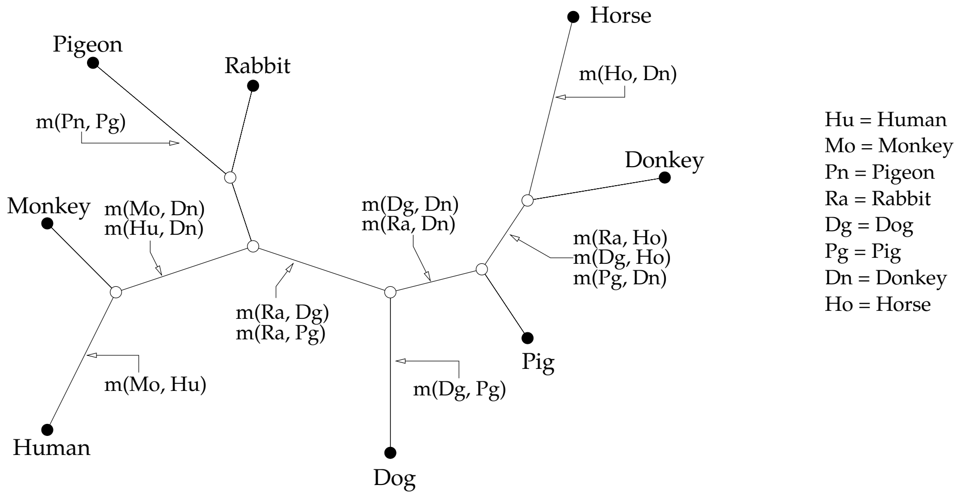

Fig. 1. Midpath phylogeny of the distance matrix appearing in Table 1. Only some of the midpaths are labelled though all exist.

Clearly, an ordinal representation T_R of M is also a midpath phylogeny of M. It follows that T_R is an expansion of the minimal midpath phylogeny T of M by Theorem 2. This is also true when T_R is a weighted ordinal representation of M. An optimal $O(n^2)$ algorithm exists for finding the minimal midpath phylogeny of a distance matrix where n is the number of species [14]. In section 3 an algorithm is presented that expands the minimal midpath phylogeny T of a distance matrix M to an ordinal representation T_R of M. In section 4 a method for expanding the minimal midpath phylogeny to a weighted ordinal representation is discussed.

A final observation is that expansion of the minimal midpath phylogeny is, in general, necessary as is exhibited by the following example.

Let T_1 and T_2 be the phylogenies depicted in Figure 2. If $M = d_{T_1}$ then T_2 is the minimal midpath phylogeny of M but is not an ordinal representation of M since $d_{T_2}(s, y) = d_{T_2}(s, x)$ but $M[s, y] < M[s, x]$.

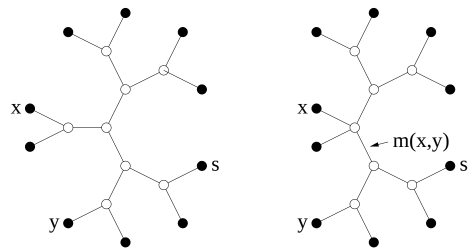

Fig. 2. Minimal midpath phylogenies are not always ordinal representations.

3 Expanding the Minimal Midpath Phylogeny

An ordinal representation T_R of M is an expansion of the minimal midpath phylogeny T of M. In this section we detail an algorithm that expands T to T_R. Before presenting the details of the expansion algorithm some notation is introduced. The following definitions apply to both partial and non–partial phylogenies.

If a phylogeny T is rooted at vertex r then this is denoted (T, r). Rooting a phylogeny provides an orientation of the phylogeny. If v is a vertex of (T, r) then $S(v)$ denotes the set of all species s such that $v \in P_T(s, r)$, that is, v is the least common ancestor of species in $S(v)$. If u is adjacent to v and $u \in P_T(v, r)$ then u is the *parent* of v in (T, r) and v is a *child* of u. A *shallowest species* of (T, r) is any species s closest to r and the *shallowest depth* of (T, r) is $d_T(r, s)$. If T is rooted at r and all species are equidistant from r then T is an *ultrametric* of *depth* $d_T(r, s)$, for any species s in T.

If T is a phylogeny and W is a subset of T's vertices then $T[W] = \cup_{w_i, w_j \in W} P_T(w_i, w_j)$ is the *subtree of T induced by W*. Given two subtrees T_1 and T_2 of T, $d_T(T_1, T_2)$ is the minimum distance in T between a vertex of T_1 and a vertex of T_2. In particular, $d_T(v, (p, q)) = min\{d_T(v, p), d_T(v, q)\}$ where v is a vertex of T and (p, q) is an edge of T. Define $P_T(T_1, T_2)$ to be the shortest path in T connecting T_1 and T_2 assuming T_1 and T_2 are disjoint. An *internal vertex* of T is a vertex that does not have degree one.

A phylogeny T labelled by S is *ordinally consistent* with the distance matrix M if $d_T(a, b) \leq d_T(c, d)$ if and only if $M[a, b] \leq M[c, d]$ for all species a, b, c and $d \in S$ where S is a subset of the species indexing M. Two phylogenies T_1 and T_2 are *ordinally equivalent* if $d_{T_1}(a, b) \leq d_{T_1}(c, d)$ if and only if $d_{T_2}(a, b) \leq d_{T_2}(c, d)$ for all species a, b, c and d labelling T_1 and T_2.

A concept that will be used repeatedly in the following sections is the correspondence between the location of a midpath $m(x, y)$ in T and the location of the midpoint of $P_{T_R}(x, y)$ in T_R. We refer to this as the *midpath–midpoint correspondence*. Before detailing the correspondence, it is necessary to relate a vertex or edge of T to the expansion of that vertex or edge within an expansion T' of T.

If T' is an *expansion* of T then the *expansion mapping*, denoted $exp_{T'}$, that maps vertices and edges of T to subtrees of T' is defined such that

- for each $v \in T$, $exp_{T'}(v)$ is the subtree of T' that resulted from expansion of v and
- for each edge $(p, q) \in T$, $exp_{T'}((p, q))$ is the edge of T' that connects $exp_{T'}(p)$ and $exp_{T'}(p)$ in T'.

An expansion mapping is illustrated in Figure 3.

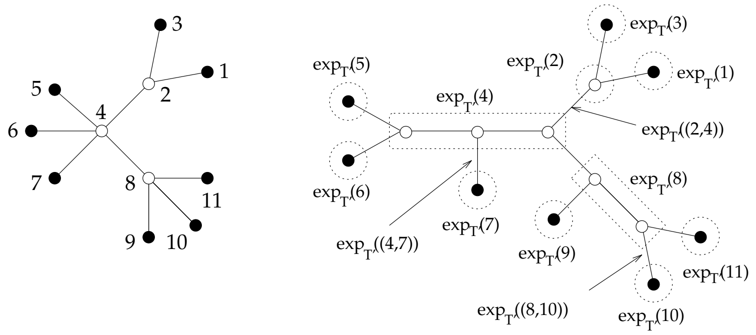

Fig. 3. A phylogeny T, an expansion T' of T and the expansion mapping $exp_{T'}$.

The midpath–midpoint correspondence is as follows:

- If the midpath for x and y in T is the edge (p, q) then $exp_{T_R}((p, q))$ is the midpoint of $P_{T_R}(x, y)$.
- If the midpath for x and y in T is the vertex v then there is a vertex in $exp_{T_R}(v)$ that is the midpoint of $P_{T_R}(x, y)$.

Hence, the midpath $m(x, y)$ in T specifies where the midpoint of $P_{T_R}(x, y)$ is located. This correspondence follows immediately from the trichotomy property of section 2.

The remainder of this section is organized as follows. An overview of the expansion algorithm is given in section 3.1. Section 3.2 introduces the concept of a *switch*. Switches play a central role in the combinatorics of ordinal representations. Section 3.3 presents the expansion algorithm in detail including the One–Two Theorem. Proofs of lemmas supporting the One–Two Theorem are presented in section 3.4. Implications of the One–Two Theorem are discussed in section 3.5. In particular, the ordinal representation of a distance matrix is unique. Finally, an analysis of the expansion algorithm's running time is given in section 3.6.

3.1 Expansion Algorithm Overview

Root the minimal midpath phylogeny T of M at an arbitrary internal vertex r. An ordinal representation T_R of M is obtained by expanding internal vertices of (T, r) such that a vertex is expanded only when all of its children have been expanded. Hence, to explain how the expansion algorithm proceeds it suffices to detail how an arbitrary internal vertex v of T is expanded.

To provide a context for the ensuing discussion, consider the locality of a vertex v in (T, r) and the locality of $exp_{T_R}(v)$ in T_R (see Figure 4). Let $v_1, \ldots, v_m$ denote the children of v in (T, r) and let u be the parent of v. In accordance with the notation introduced above, $T[S(v)]$ denotes the subtree of (T, r) rooted at v whereas $T_R[S(v)]$ is the expansion of $T[S(v)]$ in T_R.

To obtain $T_R[S(v)]$ from $T[S(v)]$ it is helpful to understand the structure of $T_R[S(v)]$. $T_R[S(v)]$ satisfies the following four conditions:

Condition 1: $T_R[S(v)]$ has at most one degree two vertex and it is a vertex of $exp_{T_R}(v)$.

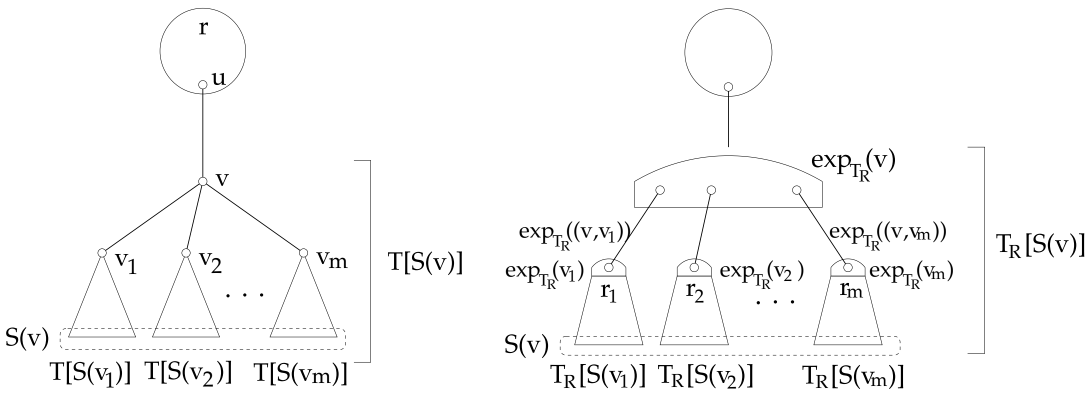

Fig. 4. The locality of v in the rooted minimal midpath phylogeny (T, r) and the locality of $exp_{T_R}(v)$ in the ordinal representation T_R.

Condition 1 is necessary since there is an edge (p, q) connecting $T_R[S(v)]$ to $T_R - T_R[S(v)]$ where $p \in exp_{T_R}(v)$ and $q \in exp_{T_R}(u)$, and so, if p has degree 3 in T_R then p has degree two in $T_R[S(v)]$. Conversely, $T_R[S(v)]$ cannot have more than one degree two vertex since T_R does not have degree two vertices.

Condition 2: $T_R[S(v)]$ is ordinally consistent with M.

Condition 2 follows from the fact that T_R is ordinally consistent with M.

Condition 3: If $m(x, y) = (v, v_i)$ then $exp_{T_R}((v, v_i))$ is the midpoint of $P_{T_R}(x, y)$.

Condition 3 follows from the fact that, assuming $x \in S(v_i)$, for all species $s \in S(v_i)$, $d_{T_R}(s, x) < d_{T_R}(s, y)$ and for all species $s \notin S(v_i)$, $d_{T_R}(s, y) < d_{T_R}(s, x)$.

Condition 4: If $m(x, y) = v$ then there is a vertex $w \in exp_{T_R}(v)$ such that w is the midpoint of $P_{T_R}(x, y)$. Furthermore, if $x \in S(v_i)$ and $y \in S(v_j)$ then $d_{T_R}(exp_{T_R}(v_i), exp_{T_R}(v_j)) = 2$.

Condition 4 follows from the fact that if $m(x, y) = v$ where $x \in S(v_i)$ and $y \in S(v_j)$ then for all $s \in S(v_i)$, $d_{T_R}(s, x) < d_{T_R}(s, y)$, for all $s \in S(v_j)$, $d_{T_R}(s, y) < d_{T_R}(s, x)$ and for all $s \notin S(v_i) \cup S(v_j)$, $d_{T_R}(s, x) = d_{T_R}(s, y)$. Hence, the midpoint of $P_{T_R}(x, y)$ must be an internal vertex of $P_{T_R}(exp_{T_R}(v_i), exp_{T_R}(v_j)) \subseteq exp_{T_R}(v)$.

If $d_{T_R}(exp_{T_R}(v_i), exp_{T_R}(v_j)) > 2$ then there are internal vertices p_1 and p_2 of $P_{T_R}(exp_{T_R}(v_i), exp_{T_R}(v_j))$ such that there are species $s_1, s_2 \notin S(v_i) \cup S(v_j)$ and $P_{T_R}(s_1, s_2) \cap P_{T_R}(x, y) = P_{T_R}(p_1, p_2)$. However, not both $d_{T_R}(s1, x) = d_{T_R}(s1, y)$ and $d_{T_R}(s2, x) = d_{T_R}(s2, y)$ as required. It follows by contradiction that $d_{T_R}(exp_{T_R}(v_i), exp_{T_R}(v_j)) = 2$.

Definition 3. *Solution*(v) is the set of expansions of $T[S(v)]$ that satisfy Conditions 1 through 4.

For each vertex v of T the algorithm determines $Solution(v)$ dynamically such that $Solution(v)$ is determined after $Solution(v_1)$, $Solution(v_2)$, $\ldots$ $Solution(v_m)$ have been determined. Clearly, any phylogeny of $Solution(r)$ is an ordinal representation of M as it satisfies Condition 2 and $S(r) = S$.

3.2 Switches

An inherent difficulty the expansion algorithm must address is that several expansions of $T[S(v)]$ may satisfy Conditions 1 through 4. For example, consider the phylogenies T_1, T and T_2 depicted in Figure 5. Let M be the distance matrix of T_1. Observe that T is the minimal midpath phylogeny of M and that both T_1 and T_2 are expansions of T at vertex r that satisfy Conditions 1 through 4, in particular, T_1 and T_2 are ordinally equivalent.

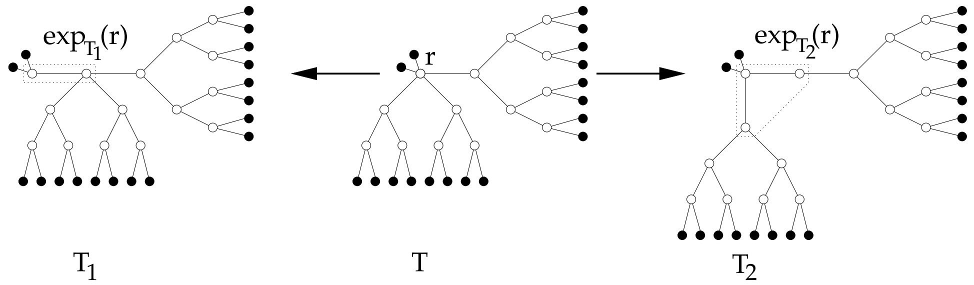

Fig. 5. T_1 and T_2 are expansions of T that are ordinally equivalent.

To achieve an efficient algorithm it is necessary that the size of $Solution(v)$ remains polynomial. In fact, it is shown in section 3.3 that if the size of $Solution(v)$ is greater than one then $Solution(v)$ is a *switch*:

Definition 4. An (n, k)-*switch* W is a pair of ordinally equivalent partial phylogenies $W[ON]$ and $W[OFF]$ with the following structural properties:

Let (U_1, u_1), (U_2, u_2), …, (U_n, u_n) and (U', u') be utrametrics each of depth k and let (U, u) be a rooted phylogeny. A *spine* is formed by joining (U, u) and (U', u') by a path $u = w_0$, w_1, …, $w_{n+1} = u'$ of length $n + 1$. $W[ON]$ and $W[OFF]$ are defined as follows:

- u_1, …, u_n are identified with w_1, …, w_n, respectively, in $W[ON]$.
- u_1, …, u_n are adjacent to w_0, …, w_{n-1}, respectively, in $W[OFF]$.

So that we may refer to certain components of a switch W we write $W = (U, U_1, U_2, \ldots, U_n, U', w_{n+1}, w_n)$. The vertices w_n and w_{n+1} are distinguished as they later play an important role.

Switches are best described by pictures. In Figure 6 all species are located at the leaves of U_1, U_2, U' and U. U_1, U_2, and U' are ultrametrics of depth 4 whereas U is an ultrametric of depth 1. It can be verified by comparing the distance matrices of the two partial phylogenies that they are ordinally equivalent. Figure 7 depicts a $(1, 3)$–switch and a $(3, 5)$–switch. Notice that the partial phylogenies T_1 and T_2 of Figure 5 form the $(1, 3)$–switch of Figure 7.

3.3 Details of the Expansion Algorithm: Determining *Solution*(v)

In this section we detail how $Solution(v)$ is determined given that $Solution(v_1)$, …, $Solution(v_m)$ have been determined. An important invariant that the algorithm maintains is the One–Two Theorem: