The mathematics of xenology: di-cographs, symbolic ultrametrics, 2-structures and tree-representable systems of binary relations

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Abstract The concepts of orthology, paralogy, and xenology play a key role in molecular evolution. Orthology and paralogy distinguish whether a pair of genes originated by speciation or duplication. The corresponding binary relations on a set of genes form complementary cographs. Allowing more than two types of ancestral event types leads to symmetric symbolic ultrametrics. Horizontal gene transfer, which leads to xenol-
ogous gene pairs, however, is inherent asymmetric since one offspring copy “jumps” into another genome, while the other continues to be inherited vertically. We therefore explore here the mathematical structure of the non-symmetric generalization of symbolic ultrametrics. Our main results tie non-symmetric ultrametrics together with di-cographs (the directed generalization of cographs), so-called uniformly non-prime (unp) 2-structures, and hierarchical structures on the set of strong modules. This yields a characterization of relation structures that can be explained in terms of trees and types of ancestral events. This framework accommodates a horizontal-transfer relation in terms of an ancestral event and thus, is slightly different from the the most commonly used definition of xenology. As a first step towards a practical use, we present a simple polynomial-time recognition algorithm of unp 2-structures and investigate the computational complexity of several types of editing problems for unp 2-structures. We show, finally that these NP-complete problems can be solved exactly as Integer Linear Programs.

Keywords Xenologs · Paralogs · Orthologs · Gene tree · 2-Structures · Uniformly non-prime decomposition · Di-cograph · Symbolic ultrametric · Recognition algorithm · NP-completeness · Integer Linear Program

Mathematics Subject Classification 05C05 · 92D15 · 68R05 · 68R10

1 Introduction

The current flood of genome sequencing data poses new challenges for comparative genomics and phylogenetics. An important topic in this context is the reconstruction of large families of homologous proteins, RNAs, and other genetic elements. The distinction between orthologs, paralogs, and xenologs is a key step in any research program of this type. The distinction between orthologous and paralogous gene pairs dates back to the 1970s: pairs of genes whose last common ancestor in the “gene tree” corresponds to a speciation are orthologs; if the last common ancestor was a duplication event, the genes are paralogs (Fitch 1970). The importance of this distinction is two-fold: first it is informative in genome annotation. Orthologs usually fulfill corresponding functions in related organism. Paralogs, in contrast, are expected to have similar but distinct functions (Koonin 2005). Secondly, the orthology (or paralogy) relation conveys information about the events corresponding to internal nodes of the gene tree (Hernandez-Rosales et al. 2012) and about the underlying species tree (Hellmuth et al. 2013, 2015).

Based on a theory of symbolic ultrametrics (Böcker and Dress 1998) is was shown in Hellmuth et al. (2013) that the orthology and paralogy relations are necessarily complementary cographs provided the genetic repertoire evolved only by means of speciation, gene duplication, and gene loss. However, horizontal gene transfer (HGT), i.e., the incorporation of genes or other DNA elements from a source different than the parent(s), cannot be neglected under many circumstances. In fact, HGT plays an important role not only in the evolution of prokaryotes (Koonin et al. 2001) but also in eukaryotes (Keeling and Palmer 2008). This begs the question whether the
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Fig. 1 Example of an evolutionary scenario showing the “true” evolution of a gene family evolving along the species tree (shown as blue tube-like tree). The corresponding gene tree $T$ appears embedded in the species tree $S$. The speciation vertices in the gene tree (red circuits) appear on the vertices of the species tree (blue ovals), while the duplication vertices (blue squares) and the HGT-vertices (green triangles) are located on the edges of the species tree. Gene losses are represented with “x”. The gene-tree $T$ uniquely determines the relationships between the genes by means of the event at the least common ancestor $\text{lca}_T(x, y)$ of distinct genes $x, y \in G$. There is a clear distinction between orthologs (comprised in $Ro$ and indicated via red edges), paralogs (comprised in $Rp$ and indicated via non-drawn edges), as well as xenologs, that are neither orthologs nor paralogs (comprised in $Rx$ and indicated by green directed arcs) (color figure online)

The combinatorial theory of orthology/paralogy can be extended to incorporate xenologs, i.e., pairs of genes that are separated in the gene tree by HGT events.

In contrast to orthology and paralogy, the definition of xenology is less well established and by no means consistent in the biological literature. The most commonly used definition stipulates that two genes are xenologs if their history since their common ancestor involves horizontal transfer of at least one of them (Fitch 2000; Jensen 2001). In this setting the HGT event itself is treated as gene duplication event. Every homolog is still either ortholog or a paralog. Both orthologs and paralogs may at the same time be xenologs (Jensen 2001).

The mathematical framework for orthology relations in terms of symbolic ultrametrics (Böcker and Dress 1998; Hellmuth et al. 2013), on the other hand, naturally accommodates more than two types of events associated with the internal nodes of the gene tree, see Hellmuth and Wieseke (2016) for an overview. It is appealing, therefore, to think of a HGT event as different from both speciation and duplication, in line with (Gray and Fitch 1983) where the term “xenologous” was originally introduced, see Fig. 1 for an illustrative example. The inherently asymmetric nature of HGT events, with their unambiguous distinction between the vertically transmitted “original” and horizontally transmitted “copy” furthermore suggests to relax the symmetry assumption and explore a generalization to directed graphs and symbolic “quasi-metrics”. From the mathematical point of view it seems natural to ask which systems of binary relations on a set $V$ (of genes) can be represented by a (phylogenetic) tree with leaf set $V$ and a suitable labeling (of event types) on the internal nodes of $T$. To this end the theory of 2-structures (Ehrenfeucht and Rozenberg 1990a,b) provides an interesting starting point.
This contribution consists of two parts. In the first part (Sects. 2, 3), we will be concerned with the mathematical characterization of certain classes of 2-structures. To this end, we present the basic and relevant concepts used in this paper in Sect. 2. In particular, we briefly survey existing results concerning di-cographs, symbolic ultrametrics and 2-structures. In Sect. 3, we establish the characterization of 2-structures that have a particular tree-representation, so-called uniformly non-prime (unp) 2-structures, in terms of symbolic ultrametrics, di-cographs and so-called 1-clusters that are obtained from the tree-representation of the respective di-cographs. These results are summarized in Theorem 6. In the second part (Sect. 4), we use the characterization of unp 2-structure to design a conceptual quite simple quadratic-time algorithm to recognize whether a 2-structure is unp, and in the positive case, to construct the corresponding tree-representation (Algorithms 1–6 and Theorem 7). Furthermore, we are concerned with editing problems to obtain a unp 2-structure, showing the NP-completeness of the underlying decision problems (Theorem 9) and describe integer linear programming formulations to solve them.

2 Preliminaries

2.1 Basic notation

Throughout this contribution all sets are finite. We say that two sets $A$ and $B$ overlap, in symbols $A \upharpoonright B$, if $A \cap B \neq \emptyset$ and neither $A \subseteq B$ nor $B \subseteq A$. Given a set $V$ we identify binary relations $R \subseteq V \times V$ with the directed graphs (di-graphs for short) $G = (V, R)$ with vertex set $V$ and arc set $R$. Throughout, we are concerned with irreflexive relations $R \subseteq V^2_{\text{irr}} := V \times V \setminus \{(v, v) | v \in V\}$ or, equivalently, loop-free digraphs. For an arc $e = (x, y) \in V^2_{\text{irr}}$ we write $e^{-1}$ to designate the reverse arc $(y, x)$. (Undirected) graphs are modeled by edge sets $E \subseteq (V)_2$ taken from the set of unordered pairs of vertices.

An undirected graph $G = (V, E)$ is connected if for any two vertices $x, y \in V$ there is a sequence of vertices $(x, v_1, \ldots, v_n, y)$, called walk, so that $\{x, v_1\}, \{v_n, y\}$ and $\{v_i, v_{i+1}\}, 1 \leq i \leq n - 1$ are contained in $E$. A di-graph $G = (V, E)$ is (weakly) connected if the undirected graph $G_u = (V, E_u)$ with $E_u = \{(x, y) \mid (x, y) \in E\}$ is connected. We say that a sequence of vertices $S = (x, v_1, \ldots, v_n, y)$ is a walk in the di-graph $G = (V, E)$, if $S$ is a walk in the underlying undirected graph $G_u$. A graph $H = (W, F)$ is a subgraph of $G = (V, E)$ if $F \subseteq W \times W$ for di-graphs or $F \subseteq (W)_2$ for undirected graphs, $W \subseteq V$ and $F \subseteq E$. We will write $H \subseteq G$, if $H$ is a subgraph of $G$. The subgraph $H = (W, F)$ is an induced di-graph if in addition $(x, y) \in W \times W$ and $(x, y) \in E$ implies $(x, y) \in F$. The corresponding condition in the undirected case reads $\{x, y\} \in (W)_2$ and $\{x, y\} \in E$ implies $\{x, y\} \in F$. A connected component of a (di-)graph is a connected subgraph that is maximal w.r.t. inclusion. A di-graph $G = (V, E)$ is complete if $E = V^2_{\text{irr}}$, and it is arc-labeled if there is a map $\varphi : E \to \Upsilon$ that assigns to each arc a label $i \in \Upsilon$.

A tree is a connected undirected graph that does not contain cycles. A rooted tree $T = (V, E)$ is a tree with one distinguished vertex $\rho \in V$ called root. The leaf set $L \subseteq V$ comprises all vertices that are distinct from the root and have degree 1.
vertices that are contained in $V^0 := V \setminus L$ are called \textit{inner} vertices. The first inner vertex $\text{lca}(x, y)$ that lies on both unique paths from two vertices $x$, resp., $y$ to the root, is called \textit{lowest common ancestor} of $x$ and $y$. We write $L(v)$ for the set of leaves in the subtree below a fixed vertex $v$, i.e., $L(v)$ is the set of all leaves for which $v$ is located on the unique path from $x \in L(v)$ to the root of $T$. The \textit{children} of an inner vertex $v$ are its direct descendants. To be more precise, $w$ is a child of $v$ if $\{v, w\} \in E(T)$ and $w$ is further away from the root than $v$. An \textit{ordered} tree is a rooted tree in which an ordering is specified for the children of each vertex. Hence, ordered trees particularly imply a linear order $\leq$ of the leaves in $L$, and we say that $x$ is left from $y$ iff $x < y$.

Two rooted trees $T_1$ and $T_2$ on the same leaf set $L$ are said to be \textit{isomorphic} if there is a bijection $\psi : V(T_1) \rightarrow V(T_2)$ that induces a graph isomorphism from $T_1$ to $T_2$ which is the identity on $L$ and maps the root of $T_1$ to the root of $T_2$.

It is well-known that there is a one-to-one correspondence between (isomorphism classes of) rooted trees on $V$ and hierarchies on $V$. A \textit{hierarchy} on $V$ is a subset $\mathcal{C} \subseteq 2^V$ such that (i) $V \in \mathcal{C}$, (ii) $\{x\} \in \mathcal{C}$ for all $x \in V$, and (iii) $p \cap q \in \{p, q, \emptyset\}$ for all $p, q \in \mathcal{C}$. Condition (iii) states that no two members of $\mathcal{C}$ overlap. Members of $\mathcal{C}$ are called \textit{clusters}. The number of clusters in a hierarchy is bounded (Hellmuth et al. 2015) and there is a well-known bijection between hierarchies and trees (Semple and Steel 2003):

\textbf{Theorem 1} Let $\mathcal{C}$ be a collection of non-empty subsets of $V$. Then, there is a rooted tree $T = (W, E)$ on $V$ with $\mathcal{C} = \{L(v) \mid v \in W\}$ if and only if $\mathcal{C}$ is a hierarchy on $V$. Moreover, the number of clusters $|\mathcal{C}|$ in a hierarchy $\mathcal{C}$ on $V$ is bounded by $2|V| - 1$.

\subsection*{2.2 Di-cographs}

Di-cographs are a generalization of the better-known undirected cographs. Cographs are obtained from single vertices by repeated application of disjoint union (parallel composition) and graph join (in this context often referred to as series composition) (Corneil et al. 1981; Brandstädt et al. 1999). In the case of di-cographs, the so-called \textit{order} composition is added, which amounts to a directed variant of the join operation. More precisely, let $G_1, \ldots, G_k$ be a set of $k$ disjoint digraphs. The disjoint union of the $G_i$s is the digraph whose connected components are precisely the $G_i$s. The series composition of the $G_i$s is the union of these $k$ graphs plus all possible arcs between vertices of different $G_i$s. The order composition of the $G_i$s is the union of these $k$ graphs plus all possible arcs from $G_i$ towards $G_j$, with $1 \leq i < j \leq k$.

We note that restricted to posets, di-cographs coincide with the series-parallel orders (Valdes et al. 1982). Di-cographs are characterized by the collection of forbidden induced subgraphs shown Fig. 2 (Crespeille and Paul 2006). An undirected graph is a cograph if and only if it does not contain $P_4$ as an induced subgraph (Corneil et al. 1981).

We emphasize that the results stated here are direct consequences of the results for 2-structure in Sect. 2.4. However, since di-cographs will play a central role for the characterization of certain 2-structures, we treat them here separately.

Given an arbitrary (di)graph $G = (V, E)$, a \textit{(graph-)module} $M$ is a subset $M \subseteq V$ such that for any $x \in M$ and $z \in V \setminus M$ it holds that $(x, z) \in E$ if and only if $(y, z) \in E$.
Forbidden subgraphs for di-cographs. A di-graph $G$ is a di-cograph if and only if it does not contain one of these graphs as an induced subgraph. Following Engelfriet et al. (1996), we denote them from left to right $D_3, A, B, \overline{D}_3$ (in the 1st line), and $C_3, \overline{N}, N, P_4$ (in the 2nd line). A similar picture appeared in Crespelle and Paul (2006).

Example of a di-cograph $G$ together with its cotree. It can easily be seen that $G$ that does not contain any of the forbidden subgraphs shown in Fig. 2 for all $y \in M$ and $(z, x) \in E$ if and only if $(z, y) \in E$ for all $y \in M$. The subfamily of so-called strong modules contains all modules that do not overlap other modules. The set of all strong modules forms a hierarchy and is called modular decomposition of $G$. For a given graph $G$ we denote with $M_{str}(G)$ the set of its strong modules. Since $M_{str}(G)$ forms a hierarchy, there is an equivalent (ordered, rooted) tree, that is well known as the modular decomposition tree of $G$ (Möhring and Radermacher 1984). The (unique) modular decomposition tree of a di-cograph is known as its cotree. Its leaves are identified with the vertices of the di-cograph and the inner vertices are labeled by the composition operations. Conversely, any ordered tree with internal vertices labeled by the operations parallel, series, or order, defines a unique di-cograph on its leaf-set.

Any inner vertex of the modular decomposition tree $T$ of $G$ corresponds to a strong module $L(v) \in M_{str}(G)$. Moreover, each child $u$ of $v$ in $T$ corresponds to a strong module $L(u) \subseteq L(v)$ so that there is no other module $M \in M_{str}(G)$ with $L(u) \subset M \subset L(v)$. Therefore, we refer to the module $L(u)$ as a the child of the module $L(v)$ if $u$ is a child of $v$ in the modular decomposition tree.

For simplicity, we use for a di-cograph $G$ and its respective cotree $T$ the labeling function $t : V^0(T) \rightarrow \{0, 1, \overline{1}\}$ defined by

$$t(lca(x, y)) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } (x, y) \in E(G) \text{ ("parallel") } \\ 1, & \text{if } (x, y) \notin E(G) \text{ ("series") } \\ \overline{1}, & \text{else ("order"} \end{cases}$$

throughout this contribution. Since the vertices in the cotree $T$ are ordered, the label $\overline{1}$ on some $lca(x, y)$ of two distinct leaves $x, y \in L$ means that there is an arc $(x, y) \in E(G)$, while $(y, x) \notin E(G)$, whenever $x$ is placed to the left of $y$ in $T$, see Fig. 3 for an example. For a given cotree $T$ and inner vertex $v$, we will also call the
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strong module $L(v)$ of a di-cograph parallel, series, or order, if it is labeled 0, 1 and $\overrightarrow{1}$, respectively. The modular decomposition of a digraph that is not a cograph also contains strong modules that are neither parallel, nor series, nor order. Such modules are called *prime*.

### 2.3 Symbolic ultrametrics

Let $V$ and $\mathcal{Y}$ be non-empty sets and let $\delta: V \times V \to \mathcal{Y}, (x, y) \mapsto \delta(xy)$ be a map that assigns to each pair $(x, y) \in V \times V$ the unique label $\delta(xy) \in \mathcal{Y}$. To simplify the notation we write $\delta(x, y)$ instead of $\delta((x, y))$.

**Definition 1** A symmetric symbolic ultrametric is a map $\delta: V \times V \to \mathcal{Y}$ that satisfies the following three axioms:

(U0) $\delta(x, y) = \delta(y, x)$ for all $x, y \in X$

(U1) there exists no subset $\{x, y, u, v\} \in \binom{V}{4}$ such that

$$\delta(x, y) = \delta(y, u) = \delta(u, v) \neq \delta(y, v) = \delta(x, v) = \delta(x, u).$$

(U2) $|\{\delta(x, y), \delta(x, z), \delta(y, z)\}| \leq 2$ for all $x, y, z \in V$;

Symmetric symbolic ultrametrics were first introduced by Böcker and Dress (1998) as a combinatorial generalization of ultrametrics. They play a central role in the reconstruction of event-labeled phylogenetic trees based on symmetric events (as the paralogy- or orthology-relation) (Hellmuth et al. 2013; Hellmuth and Wieseke 2015, 2016).

None of the axioms (U0'), (U1'), (U2') refer to the “diagonal”, i.e., the labels chosen for $\delta(x, x)$ for any $x \in V$. It will be convenient in the following to restrict ourselves to maps $\delta: V^2_{irr} \to \mathcal{Y}$ because the 2-structures that will play a key role in this contribution are defined on $V^2_{irr}$ only. Restricting the definition of symbolic ultrametrics to $V^2_{irr}$ thus will simplify the presentation of the close relationships between 2-structures and symbolic ultrametrics without loss of generality. We note, finally, that the recent applications of symmetric symbolic ultrametrics to phylogenetic combinatorics (Hellmuth et al. 2013; Hellmuth and Wieseke 2015, 2016) assigned a special label to the diagonal, thereby effectively restricting the definition to $V^2_{irr}$ as well.

For a given symmetric map $\delta: V^2_{irr} \to \mathcal{Y}$ we define graphs $G_i(\delta) = (V, E_i), i \in \mathcal{Y}$ with edge sets $E_i = \{\{x, y\} \mid x, y \in V, x \neq y, \delta(xy) = i\}$. Conversely, given a collection of graphs $G_i = (V, E_i)$ for $i \in \mathcal{Y}$ there is a symmetric map $\delta: V^2_{irr} \to \mathcal{Y}$ defined by $(x, y) \mapsto i$ iff $xy \in E_i$ provided the edge sets $\{E_i \mid i \in \mathcal{Y}\}$ form a partition.

Symmetric symbolic ultrametrics can be characterized by means of their graph representations:

**Theorem 2** (Hellmuth et al. 2013) A map $\delta: V^2_{irr} \to \mathcal{Y}$ is a symmetric symbolic ultrametric if and only if $\delta$ satisfies (U0'), (U2') and the condition (U1'') the graph $G_i(\delta)$ is an undirected cograph for each $i \in \mathcal{Y}$.
While the literature so far covers symmetric relations, we are interested in this contribution in non-symmetric relations. Therefore, we define symbolic ultrametrics here to include also the non-symmetric case.

Consider a map \( \delta : V_2^\text{irr} \rightarrow \Upsilon \) and two distinct vertices \( x, y \in V \). We denote by \( D_{xy} := \{ \delta(xy), \delta(yx) \} \) the set of labels assigned to the pairs \((x, y)\) and \((y, x)\). By construction \( D_{xy} = D_{yx} \) and \( |D_{xy}| = 1 \) iff \( \delta(xy) = \delta(yx) \). We write \( D_{xyz} := \{ D_{xy}, D_{xz}, D_{yz} \} \) for any three vertices \( x, y, z \in V \). Note that \( D_{xyz} \) is the set of distinct label pairs assigned to the constituent unordered pairs of the 3-tuple, not the set of distinct labels assigned to the six underlying ordered pairs. Furthermore, we define \( G_i(\delta) = (V, E_i) \) as the digraphs with arc sets \( E_i = \{(x, y) \in V_2^\text{irr} \mid \delta(xy) = i\} \) for all \( i \in \Upsilon \). As in the undirected case there is 1–1 correspondence maps \( \delta : V_2^\text{irr} \rightarrow \Upsilon \) and collections of digraphs \( \{G_i \mid i \in \Upsilon\} \) whose arc sets form a partition of \( V_2^\text{irr} \).

**Definition 2** A symbolic ultrametric on \( V \) is map \( \delta : V_2^\text{irr} \rightarrow \Upsilon \) satisfying the following two conditions

\begin{align*}
\text{(U1)} & \quad G_i(\delta) \text{ is a di-cograph for all } i \in \Upsilon. \\
\text{(U2)} & \quad |D_{xyz}| \leq 2 \text{ for all } x, y, z \in V.
\end{align*}

We will refer to axiom (U2) as the “\( \Delta(xyz) \)-Condition” or simply “Triangle-Condition”.

It is not hard to see that symmetric symbolic ultrametrics as defined above are indeed the symbolic ultrametrics in the sense of Def. 2 with a symmetric map \( \delta \): Axiom (U0”) stipulates symmetry of \( \delta \). Moreover, if \( \delta \) is a symmetric symbolic ultrametric in the sense of Def. 1, then (U2) states that \( |D_{xyz}| = |\{\delta(xy), \delta(yx)\}, \{\delta(xz), \delta(zx)\}, \{\delta(zy), \delta(yz)\}\} = |\{\delta(xy), \delta(xz), \delta(yz)\}| \leq 2 \). Hence, (U2) and (U2’) are equivalent. Axiom (U1) simplifies for symmetric maps to the statement that \( G_i(\delta) \) must be an undirected cograph for all \( i \in \Upsilon \) due to condition (U1”) in Theorem 2. Hence, Definition 2 serves as a natural generalization of symbolic ultrametrics to maps that do not necessarily fulfill the symmetry condition (U0’).

Symbolic ultrametrics also generalize the usual notion of an ultrametric \( d \) on \( V \) (Böcker and Dress 1998). The latter are defined as a real-valued symmetric map \( d : V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \) that (i) vanishes exactly on the diagonal and (ii) satisfies \( d(x, z) \leq \max\{d(x, y), d(y, z)\} \) for all \( x, y, z \in X \). A key property of ultrametrics is that the two larger distances of \( d(x, y), d(x, z), \) and \( d(y, z) \) necessarily coincide, see e.g. Semple and Steel (2003). For a quadruple of distinct vertices \( x, y, u, v \in V \) with \( d(x, y) = d(y, u) = d(u, v) \) and \( d(y, v) = d(x, v) = d(x, u) \) this fact implies \( d(x, y) = d(y, u) \geq d(x, u) \) and \( d(x, v) = d(x, u) \geq d(u, v), \) whence all six distances must be equal. Reading the real-valued distances as labels, this observation rules out the existence of a quadruple forbidden by condition (U1’) and property (ii) directly translates to (U2’).

### 2.4 2-Structures

2-Structures were introduced in Ehrenfeucht and Rozenberg (1990a, b). We refer to Ehrenfeucht et al. (1995, 1999) and Engelfriet et al. (1996) for excellent additional
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Fig. 4 Example of two different 2-structures that differ only in the respective label on the arc cb and bd. While the rhs. 2-structure is prime, the lhs.

structure has as non-trivial modules \{a, c\} and \{a, b, c\}

surveys. We follow the original terminology where possible. We will, however, deviate at times to remain consistent with the literature on co-graphs and symbolic ultrametrics.

Definition 3 A (labeled) 2-structure is a triple \(g = (V, \Upsilon, \varphi)\) where \(V\) and \(\Upsilon\) are nonempty sets and \(\varphi: V^2_{\text{irr}} \rightarrow \Upsilon\) is a map.

We refer to \(V\) as the vertices and \(\Upsilon\) as the labels. The function \(\varphi\) maps each pair \((x, y)\), called an arc of \(g\) to a unique label \(\varphi(xy) = \varphi((x, y)) \in \Upsilon\). We will sometimes write \(V_g, \Upsilon_g\) and \(\varphi_g\) to emphasize that the vertex set, label set, and the labeling function, resp., belong to the 2-structure \(g\).

Isomorphic 2-structures \(g = (V, \Upsilon, \varphi)\) and \(h = (V, \Upsilon', \varphi')\), in symbols \(g \simeq h\), differ only by a bijection \(\alpha : \Upsilon \rightarrow \Upsilon'\) of their labels, i.e., \(\varphi'(e) = \alpha(\varphi(e))\) and \(\varphi(e) = \alpha^{-1}(\varphi'(e))\) for all \(e \in V^2_{\text{irr}}\).

2-Structures can be considered as arc-labeled complete graphs, see Fig. 4 for examples. Conversely, every directed or undirected graph \(G\) with vertex set \(V\) has a representation as a 2-structure by labeling the edges of the complete graph by 0 or 1 depending on whether the arc is absent or present in \(G\). Thus we can interpret 2-structures as a natural generalizations of (di-)graphs. Moreover, 2-structures are equivalent to a set of disjoint binary relations \(R_1, \ldots, R_k\) where each tuple \((x, y)\) has label \(i\) iff \((x, y) \in R_i\) or label 0 if \((x, y)\) is not present in any of these relations.

Extending the definition for symbolic ultrametrics above, we define for a given 2-structure \(g = (V, \Upsilon, \varphi)\) and each \(i \in \Upsilon\) the graph \(G_i(g) = (V, E_i)\) with arc set \(E_i = \{(x, y) \in V^2_{\text{irr}} | \varphi(xy) = i\}\).

Given a subset \(X \subseteq V\) the substructure of \(g = (V, \Upsilon, \varphi)\) induced by \(X\) has vertex set \(X\) and all arcs \((a, b) \in X^2_{\text{irr}}\) retain the label \(\varphi(ab) \in \Upsilon\), i.e., \(g[X] := (X, \Upsilon, \varphi' = \varphi|X^2_{\text{irr}})\). A 2-structure \(h\) is a substructure of the 2-structure \(g\) iff there is a subset \(X \subseteq V_g\) so that \(h \simeq g[X]\).

Definition 4 A module (or clan) of a 2-structure is a subset \(M \subseteq V\), such that \(\varphi(xz) = \varphi(yz)\) and \(\varphi(zx) = \varphi(zy)\) holds for all \(x, y \in M\) and \(z \in V\setminus M\).

The empty set \(\emptyset\), the complete vertex set \(V_g\), and the singletons \(\{v\}\) are always modules. They are called the trivial modules of \(g\). We will assume from here on, that a module is non-empty unless otherwise indicated. The set of all modules of the 2-structure \(g\) will be denoted by \(\mathbb{M}(g)\).

Lemma 1 A subset \(M \subseteq V\) is a module of a 2-structure \(g = (V, \Upsilon, \varphi)\) if and only if \(M\) is also a graph-module of \(G_i(g)\) for all \(i \in \Upsilon\).
Proof We denote for a fixed vertex $x \in M \subseteq V$ and an arbitrary vertex $z \in V \setminus M$ the labels as follows: $\varphi(xz) = i_z \in \mathcal{Y}$ and $\varphi(zx) = j_z \in \mathcal{Y}$.

$M$ is a module in $g$ if and only if $\varphi(yz) = i_z$ and $\varphi(zy) = j_z$ for all $y \in M$, $z \in V \setminus M$ if and only if $(y, z) \in E(G_{l_i}(g))$ and $(z, y) \in E(G_{j_z}(g))$ (and thus, $(y, z), (z, y) \notin E(G_k(g))$ for any $k \in \mathcal{Y}$ with $k \neq i_z, j_z$) for all $y \in M, z \in V \setminus M$.

Thus, $M$ is a module in $g$ if and only if $M$ is a module in $G_l(g)$ for all $l \in \mathcal{Y}$. □

A very useful property of modules is summarized by

**Lemma 2.** ([Ehrenfeucht and Rozenberg 1990a](#_ref-1), Lemma 4.11) Let $X, Y \in \mathbb{M}(g)$ be two disjoint modules of $g = (V, \mathcal{Y}, \varphi)$. Then there are labels $i, j \in \mathcal{Y}$ such that $\varphi(xy) = i$ and $\varphi(yx) = j$ for all $x \in X$ and $y \in Y$.

There are important subclasses of 2-structures $g$:

1. $g$ is *prime* if $\mathbb{M}(g)$ consists of trivial modules only,
2. $g$ is *complete* if for all $e, e' \in V_{\text{irr}}^2, \varphi(e) = \varphi(e')$,
3. $g$ is *linear* if there are two distinct labels $i, j \in \mathcal{Y}$ such that the relations $<_i, <_j$ defined by,

$$x <_i y \iff \varphi(xy) = i, \quad \text{and} \quad x <_j y \iff \varphi(xy) = j$$

are linear orders of the vertex set $V_g$.

In particular, if $g$ is linear then there is a linear order $<_V$ of $V$ such that $x < y$ if and only if $\varphi(xy) = i$ and $\varphi(yx) = j$. Clearly, if $|V_g| = 2$ all modules are trivial, and hence $g$ is prime. On the other hand $|V_g| = 2$ also implies that $g$ is either linear or complete. For $|V_g| \geq 3$, however, the tree types of 2-structures are disjoint.

Not all 2-structures necessarily fall into one of these three types. For example, the 2-structure $g$ with $V_g = \{x, y, z\}, \varphi_g(xy) = \varphi_g(yx) = 1,$ and $\varphi_g(xz) = \varphi_g(zx) = \varphi_g(yz) = \varphi_g(zy) = 2$ is neither prime, nor linear, nor complete. We finally note that our notion of prime is called “primitive” in [Ehrenfeucht and Rozenberg (1990a)](#_ref-1); see also [Ehrenfeucht et al. (1999)](#_ref-2); [Engelfriet et al. (1996)](#_ref-3).

**Definition 5** A 2-structure is *uniformly non-prime* (unp) if it does not have a prime substructure $h$ of size $|V_h| \geq 3$.

Uniformly non-prime 2-structures were investigated already in [Engelfriet et al. (1996)](#_ref-3). They are a key concept in the present contribution.

**Definition 6** A module $M$ of $g$ is *strong* if $M$ does not overlap with any other module of $g$.

This notion was termed “prime” in [Ehrenfeucht and Rozenberg (1990a)](#_ref-1); see also [Ehrenfeucht et al. (1999)](#_ref-2); [Engelfriet et al. (1996)](#_ref-3). We write $\mathbb{M}_{\text{str}}(g) \subseteq \mathbb{M}(g)$ for the set of all strong modules of $g$.

While there may be exponentially many modules, the size of the set of strong modules is $O(|V|)$ (Ehrenfeucht et al. 1994). For example, the 2-structure $g = (V, \mathcal{Y}, \varphi)$ with $\varphi(xy) = \varphi(ab)$ for all $(x, y), (a, b) \in V_{\text{irr}}^2$ has $2^{|V|}$ modules, however, the $|V| + 1$ strong modules are $V$ and the singletons $\{v\}, v \in V$. 

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Since \( V \) and the singletons \( \{ v \} \) are strong modules and strong modules do not overlap by definition, we see immediately that \( M_{\text{str}}(g) \) forms a hierarchy and by Thm. 1 gives rise to a unique tree representation \( T_g \) of \( g \), also called inclusion tree. The vertices of \( T_g \) are (identified with) the elements of \( M_{\text{str}}(g) \). Adjacency in \( T_g \) is defined by the maximal proper inclusion relation, that is, there is an edge \( \{ M, M' \} \) between \( M, M' \in M_{\text{str}}(g) \) iff \( M \subset M' \) and there is no \( M'' \in M_{\text{str}}(g) \) such that \( M \subset M'' \subset M' \). The root of \( T_g \) is \( V \) and the leaves are the singletons \( \{ v \}, v \in V \). Although \( M_{\text{str}}(g) \subseteq M(g) \) does not represent all modules, any module \( M \in M(g) \) is the union of children of the strong modules in the tree \( T_g \) (Möhring and Radermacher 1984; Ehrenfeucht and Rozenberg 1990b). Thus, \( T_g \) represents at least implicitly all modules of \( g \).

The hierarchical structure of \( M_{\text{str}}(g) \) implies that there is a unique partition \( M_{\text{max}}(g) = \{ M_1, \ldots, M_k \} \) of \( V_g \) into maximal (w.r.t. inclusion) strong modules \( M_j \neq V_g \) of \( g \) (Ehrenfeucht and Rozenberg 1990a,b). Since \( V_g \notin M_{\text{max}}(g) \) the set \( M_{\text{max}}(g) \) consists of \( k \geq 2 \) strong modules, whenever \( |V_g| > 1 \).

In order to infer \( g \) from \( T_g \) we need to determine the label \( \varphi(xy) \) of all pairs of distinct leaves \( x, y \) of \( T_g \) and thus of \( V_g \). Hence, we need to define a labeling function \( t_g \) that assigns the “missing information” to the inner vertex of \( T_g \). To this end, we will need to understand the quotient \( g/M_{\text{max}}(g) \), i.e., the 2-structure \(( M_{\text{max}}(g), \Upsilon, \varphi' \) with \( \varphi'(M_i, M_j) = \varphi(xy) \) for some \( x \in M_i \) and \( y \in M_j \). Thus a quotient \( g/M_{\text{max}}(g) \) is obtained from \( g \) by contracting each module in \( M \in M_{\text{max}}(g) \) into a single node, and then inheriting the edge classes from \( g \). By Lemma 2, the quotient \( g/M_{\text{max}}(g) \) is well-defined. Although 2-structures are not necessarily prime, linear or complete, their quotients \( g/M_{\text{max}}(g) \) are always of one of these types.

**Lemma 3** (Ehrenfeucht and Rozenberg 1990b; Engelfriet et al. 1996) Let \( g \) be a 2-structure. Then the quotient \( g/M_{\text{max}}(g) \) is either linear, or complete, or prime. If \( g \) is unp, then \( g/M_{\text{max}}(g) \) is either linear, or complete.

We shall say that an inner vertex \( v \) of \( T_g \) (or, equivalently, the module \( L(v) \)) is linear, complete, or prime if the quotient \( g[L(v)]/M_{\text{max}}(g[L(v)]) \) is linear, complete, or prime, respectively. In order to recover \( g \) from \( T_g \) one defines a labeling function \( \sigma \) that assigns the quotient of \( g[L(v)] \) to each inner vertex \( v \):

\[
\sigma(v) = g[L(v)]/M_{\text{max}}(g[L(v)]).
\]

This type of labeled tree-representation is called shape \( (g) \) or (strong) module decomposition of \( g \) (Ehrenfeucht and Rozenberg 1990a,b; Engelfriet et al. 1996). If we restrict ourselves to unp structures, the strong modules are “generic” in the sense that they are completely determined by the cardinalities of their domains and the ordering of the vertices in \( T_g \).

We can therefore define a simplified labeling function \( t_g \) for unp structures \( g \). If \( M \in M_{\text{max}}(g) \) is a complete module and \( M_1, \ldots, M_l \) are the children of \( M \), then there is an \( i \in \Upsilon \) such that for all vertices \( x \in M_r, y \in M_s, r \neq s \) we have \( \varphi(xy) = \varphi(yx) = i \). Therefore, we can set \( t_g(M) = (i, i) \), implying that for all vertices \( x, y \) with \( \text{lca}(x, y) = M \) it holds that \( \varphi(xy) = \varphi(yx) = i \). If \( M \in M_{\text{max}}(g) \) is a linear module, then we can assume that the children of \( M \) are ordered \( M_1, \ldots, M_l \) such that

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Definition 7 The tree-representation \((T_g, t_g)\) of a \(\text{unp}\) 2-structure \(g\) is an ordered inclusion tree \(T_g\) of the hierarchy \(\mathbb{M}_{\text{str}}(g)\) together with a labeling \(t_g : V^2_{\text{ir}} \to \mathcal{Y}\) such that for all vertices \(x, y \in V_g\) of the \(\text{unp}\) 2-structure \(g\) it holds that

\[
t_g(\text{lca}(x, y)) = (i, j),
\]

where \(i = j\) if and only if \(\varphi_g(xy) = \varphi_g(yx) = i\); and \(x\) is to the left of \(y\) in \(T_g\) if and only if \(\varphi_g(xy) = i, \varphi_g(yx) = j\), and \(i \neq j\).

Figure 5 shows an illustrative example.

We call two tree-representations \((T, t)\) and \((T', t')\) of a 2-structure \(g\) isomorphic if \(T\) and \(T'\) are isomorphic via a map \(\psi : V(T) \to V(T')\) such that \(t'(\psi(v)) = t(v)\) holds for all \(v \in V(T)\). In the latter we write \((T, t) \simeq (T', t')\).

Lemma 4 (Ehrenfeucht and Rozenberg 1990b; Engelfriet et al. 1996) For any 2-structures \(h, g\) we have \((T_g, t_g) \simeq (T_h, t_h)\) if and only if \(h \simeq g\).

The tree-representation \((T, t)\) of \(g\) contains no prime nodes if and only if \(g\) has no induced substructures of small size that are prime (Ehrenfeucht and Rozenberg 1990; Schmerl and Trotter 1993), see Ehrenfeucht et al. (1999) for a concise proof. The following theorem summarizes a couple of important properties of \(\text{unp}\) 2-structures Engelfriet et al. (1996, cf. Thm. 3.6).

Theorem 3 If \(g\) is a 2-structure then the following statements are equivalent:

1. \(g\) is unp.
2. The tree-representation \((T_g, t_g)\) of \(g\) has no inner vertex \(v\) labeled prime, that is, the quotient \(g[L(v)]/\mathbb{M}_{\text{max}}(g[L(v)])\) is always linear or complete.
3. \(g\) has no prime substructure of size 3 or 4.

In particular, if \(g\) is \(\text{unp}\), then every substructure on a subset \(X\) with \(|X| = 3\) or \(|X| = 4\) has at least one non-trivial module, i.e., a module \(M \subseteq X\) with \(|M| \geq 2\).

We next examine a particular subclass of 2-structures, the so-called reversible 2-structures. As we shall see, they are simpler to handle than general 2-structures. Nevertheless, there is no loss of generality as far as modules are concerned.
Definition 8 A 2-structure $g = (V, \Upsilon, \varphi)$ is reversible, if for all $e, f \in V_{\text{irr}}^2$, $\varphi(e) = \varphi(f)$ implies that $\varphi(e^{-1}) = \varphi(f^{-1})$.

Equivalently, $g$ is reversible, if for each label $i \in \Upsilon$ there is a unique label $j \in \Upsilon$ such that $\varphi(x, y) = i$ implies $\varphi(y, x) = j$.

The definition of modules simplifies for reversible 2-structures. It suffices to require that $M$ satisfies $\varphi(xz) = \varphi(yz)$ for all $z \in V \setminus M$ and $x, y \in M$, because $\varphi(xz) = \varphi(yz)$ and reversibility implies $\varphi(zx) = \varphi(zy)$.

Definition 9 A 2-structure $\text{rev}(g)$ is the reversible refinement of the 2-structure $g = (V, \Upsilon, \varphi)$ if and only if (i) $V_{\text{rev}(g)} = V$ and (ii) for all $e, f \in V_{\text{irr}}^2$ it holds that $\varphi_{\text{rev}(g)}(e) = \varphi_{\text{rev}(g)}(f)$ if and only if $\varphi(e) = \varphi(f)$ and $\varphi(e^{-1}) = \varphi(f^{-1})$.

Let us recall some well-established results concerning (reversible) 2-structures.

Theorem 4 (Ehrenfeucht and Rozenberg (1990a)) For every 2-structure $g$ the following properties hold:

1. $\text{rev}(g)$ is reversible, i.e., $\text{rev}(\text{rev}(g)) = \text{rev}(g)$.
2. $g$ is reversible iff $g = \text{rev}(g)$.
3. $M(g) = M(\text{rev}(g))$.
4. A 2-structure $h$ is a substructure of $g$ iff $\text{rev}(h)$ is a substructure of $\text{rev}(g)$.

According to Ehrenfeucht and Rozenberg (1990b, Remark 6.3), we can fix the labels of the reversible refinement of $g$ and construct $\text{rev}(g)$ as follows.

Remark 1 For a given 2-structure $g = (V, \Upsilon, \varphi)$ set $\text{rev}(g) = (V, \Upsilon_{\text{rev}(g)} := \Upsilon \times \Upsilon, \varphi_{\text{rev}(g)})$ with $\varphi_{\text{rev}(g)}(e) = (\varphi(e), \varphi(e^{-1}))$ that maps each arc $e$ to the ordered pairs of labels on $e$ and its reverse $e^{-1}$.

Thus, for the 2-structures $g = (V, \Upsilon, \varphi)$ and the so-constructed 2-structure $\text{rev}(g)$ we have for all $e, f \in V_{\text{irr}}^2$, $\varphi_{\text{rev}(g)}(e) = \varphi_{\text{rev}(g)}(f) = (i, j)$ if and only if $\varphi(e) = \varphi(f) = i$ and $\varphi(e^{-1}) = \varphi(f^{-1}) = j$. Hence, $\text{rev}(g)$ is a reversible refinement of $g$.

Remark 2 Each symbolic ultrametric $\delta : V_{\text{irr}}^2 \rightarrow \Upsilon$ gives rise to a 2-structure $g = (V, \Upsilon, \varphi)$ with $\varphi = \delta$. To simplify the language, we will say that $g$ satisfies Condition (U1) and (U2) whenever $\varphi$ satisfies (U1) and (U2).

3 Characterization of unp 2-structures

Let $R = \{R_1, \ldots, R_n\}$ be a set of disjoint relations. Or goal is to characterize those $R$ that are obtained from a common tree $T$ and a suitable labeling $t$ of the inner vertices of $T$. To this end we need to understand on the one hand the relationships by symbolic ultrametrics and event-labeled trees, and on the other hand the connection between symbolic ultrametrics and 2-structures. Moreover, we will establish the connection between 2-structures $g$ and certain modules in the modular decomposition of the underlying graphs $G_t(g)$. The main results of this section are summarized in Theorem 6.
3.1 2-Structures and symbolic ultrametrics

We begin this section with the characterization of reversible 2-structures by means of symbolic ultrametrics, which will be generalized to arbitrary 2-structures at the end of this subsection.

**Proposition 1**  For every reversible 2-structure \( g = (V, \Upsilon, \varphi) \) the following two statements are equivalent:

1. \( g \) is unp.
2. \( \varphi \) is a symbolic ultrametric.

**Proof**  The straightforward but tedious case-by-case analysis is given in the appendix.

The next step is to generalize Proposition 1 to arbitrary 2-structures. To this end, we first prove two technical results:

**Lemma 5**  Let \( g = (V, \Upsilon, \varphi) \) be a 2-structure. Then condition (U2) is satisfied for \( g \) if and only if (U2) is satisfied in \( \text{rev}(g) \).

**Proof**  Condition (U2) is satisfied in \( g \) if and only if \( |D_{abc}| \leq 2 \) in \( g \) for all \( a, b, c \in V \) if and only if there are two arcs \( e, f \) in this triangle induced by \( a, b, c \) such that \( \varphi(e) = \varphi(f) \) and \( \varphi(e^{-1}) = \varphi(f^{-1}) \) if and only if \( \varphi_{\text{rev}(g)}(e) = \varphi_{\text{rev}(g)}(f) \) (and thus, by reversibility of \( g \), \( \varphi_{\text{rev}(g)}(e^{-1}) = \varphi_{\text{rev}(g)}(f^{-1}) \)) if and only if \( |D_{abc}| \leq 2 \) in \( \text{rev}(g) \) for all \( a, b, c \in V \). \( \square \)

**Lemma 6**  Let \( g = (V, \Upsilon, \varphi) \) be a 2-structure satisfying (U2). Then \( G_i(g) \) is a di-cograph for all \( i \in \Upsilon \) if and only if \( G_j(\text{rev}(g)) \) is a di-cograph for all \( j \in \Upsilon_{\text{rev}(g)} \).

**Proof**  The straightforward but tedious case-by-case analysis is given in the appendix.

It is now easy to establish our first main result:

**Theorem 5**  The following two statements are equivalent for all 2-structures \( g = (V, \Upsilon, \varphi) \):

1. \( g \) is unp.
2. \( \varphi \) is a symbolic ultrametric.

**Proof**  Lemmas 5 and 6 together imply that \( \varphi \) is a symbolic ultrametric if and only \( \varphi_{\text{rev}(g)} \) is a symbolic ultrametric. Proposition 1 implies that \( \varphi_{\text{rev}(g)} \) is a symbolic ultrametric if and only if \( \text{rev}(g) \) is unp. Now recall that \( \text{unp} \) 2-structures are defined in terms of their modules and that \( M(g) = M(\text{rev}(g)) \) (cf. Theorem 4(4)). Therefore, \( \text{rev}(g) \) is a \( \text{unp} \) 2-structure if and only if \( g \) is a \( \text{unp} \) 2-structure. The theorem follows immediately. \( \square \)

3.2 2-Structures and 1-clusters

Assume that \( g = (V, \Upsilon, \varphi) \) is a 2-structure with the property that \( G_i(g) \) is a di-cograph for all \( i \in \Upsilon \). Each di-cograph \( G_i(g) \) is represented by a unique ordered tree \( T_i \), called

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Proof of Claim 1

We start by proving that \( L(v) \) is a strong module of \( G_i(g) \). This is then used to show that \( L(v) \) is contained in \( C_i^1 \subseteq C_1^1(g) \) and hence, \( M_{\text{str}}(g) \subseteq C^1_1(g) \). To this end, we show first that all \( a, b \in L(v) \) are contained in the same connected subgraph of both \( G_i(g) \) and \( G_j(g) \).

Claim 1 All \( a, b \in L(v) \) are contained in the same connected subgraph of both \( G_i(g) \) and \( G_j(g) \). Moreover, \( \varphi(ab) = i \) if and only if \( \varphi(ba) = j \) for all \( a, b \in V \).

Proof of Claim 1 Let \( v_1, \ldots, v_k \) be the children of \( v \), ordered from left to right. If \( i = j \), an ordering is not necessary. For leaves \( x \in L(v_r) \) and \( y \in L(v_s) \) we have now \( \varphi(xy) = i \) and \( \varphi(yx) = j \) if \( r < s \). Hence, \( x \in L(v_r) \) and \( y \in L(v_s) \) and \( r < s \) implies that \( (x,y) \in E(G_i(g)) \) and thus, all vertices \( L(v) \) are contained in one connected subgraph of \( G_i(g) \). Analogously, all vertices \( L(v) \) are contained in one connected subgraph of \( G_j(g) \). Since \( \varphi(xy) = i \), \( \varphi(yx) = j \) if \( r < s \) and \( g \) is reversible, we observe that \( \varphi(ab) = i \) if and only if \( \varphi(ba) = j \) for all \( a, b \in V \). □
Claim 2  \( L(v) \) is a strong in \( G_i(g) \) and \( G_j(g) \).

Proof of Claim 2  Assume, for contradiction, that the module \( L(v) \) is not strong in \( G_i(g) \). Hence there is a further module \( M \) in \( G_i(g) \) such that \( M \not\supset L(v) \). Since \( L(v) \) is a strong module in \( g \), \( M \) cannot be a module in \( g \). Since \( M \not\supset L(v) \), we have \( M \cap L(v) \neq \emptyset, M \not\subset L(v) \) and \( L(v) \not\subset M \). By the latter, and since all \( a, b \in L(v) \) are contained in one connected subgraph of \( G_i(g) \) there must be an arc \((u, x) \) or \((x, u) \) in \( G_i(g) \), for some \( x \in L(v) \setminus M \) and \( u \in M \cap L(v) \). Wlog. assume that \((u, x) \) is an arc in \( G_i(g) \), since the following arguments can be applied analogously for the case that \((x, u) \) is an arc in \( G_i(g) \). Thus, we have \( \varphi(ux) = i \) and since \( g \) is reversible, \( \varphi(xu) = j \).

Since \( M \) and \( L(v) \) are modules in \( G_i(g) \) and there is an arc \((u, x) \) in \( G_i(g) \), where particularly \( x \in L(v) \) and \( u \in M \), we can conclude that for all vertices \( x' \in L(v) \), there is an arc \((y, x') \) in \( G_i(g) \). This implies additionally that all \( y \in M \) form an arc \((y, u) \), since \( u \) is also contained in \( L(v) \). However, since \( M \) is not a module in \( g \) and \( g \) is reversible, there must be a vertex \( y \in M \) such that \( \varphi(yz) \neq \varphi(uz) \) and \( \varphi(zy) \neq \varphi(zu) \) for some \( z \in V \setminus M \). Since \( \varphi(yx') = \varphi(ux') \) for all \( x' \in L(v) \), we can conclude that for the latter chosen vertex \( z \) we have \( z \in V \setminus (M \cup L(v)) \).

Since \( \varphi(yz) \neq \varphi(uz), \varphi(zy) \neq \varphi(zu) \), \( g \) is reversible, and \( M \) is a module in \( G_i(g) \) with \( u, y \in M \), we conclude that \( \varphi(yz), \varphi(zy), \varphi(uz), \) and \( \varphi(zu) \) must all be different from \( i \). To see this, assume for contradiction that for some \( e \in \{(y, z), (u, z)\} \) it holds that \( \varphi(e) = i \). Since \( M \) is a module in \( G_i(g) \) it follows that \( \varphi(f) = i \) for \( f \in \{(y, z), (u, z)\}\{e\} \); a contradiction to \( \varphi(yz) \neq \varphi(uz) \). The same argument applies for \( e, f \in \{(y, z), (z, u)\} \).

Thus, assume that \( \varphi(yz) = l \neq \varphi(uz) = k \) for some \( l, k \in \mathcal{Y} \) distinct from \( i \). Since all \( \varphi(yz), \varphi(zy), \varphi(uz), \varphi(zu) \) are distinct from \( i \) while \( \varphi(yu) = i \), and since Condition (U2) must be fulfilled for the set \( D_{yzu} \), we obtain \( \varphi(yz) = k \), and \( \varphi(zu) = l \). Since \( g \) is reversible, neither \( \varphi(uy) = k \), nor \( \varphi(uy) = l \). But then there is \( D^L_{\mathcal{Y}}(yzu) \) and \( D^L_{\mathcal{Y}}(yzu) \) in \( G_k(g) \) and \( G_l(g) \); a contradiction to (U1).

Thus, \( L(v) \) is a strong module in \( G_i(g) \). By analogous arguments, \( L(v) \) is a strong module in \( G_j(g) \). \( \square \)

Claim 3  \( L(v) \) is contained in \( \mathcal{C}^1 \subseteq \mathcal{C}^1(g) \). Therefore, \( M_{str}(g) \subseteq \mathcal{C}^1(g) \).

Proof of Claim 3  All strong modules of \( G_i(g) \) are represented in the respective cotree \( T_i \). As already observed, since \( t_g(v) = (i, j) \) for all leaves \( x \in L(v_r) \) and \( y \in L(v_s) \) we have \( \varphi(xy) = i \) if \( r < s \). Hence, \( (x, y) \) is an arc in \( G_i(g) \) for all \( x \in L(v_r), y \in L(v_s), r < s \). If \( i = j \) then even \( (y, x) \) is an arc in \( G_i(g) \). Hence, \( L(v) \) cannot be labeled with “0” in the cotree, because otherwise it is not possible to have all arcs \( (x, y) \) with \( x \in L(v_l) \) and \( y \in L(v_l), 1 < i < k \). In particular, if \( i \neq j \), then \( L(v) \) must labeled “1” in \( G_i(g) \); if \( i = j \), then the strong module \( L(v) \) must labeled “1” in \( G_i(g) \). Hence, \( L(v) \) is contained in \( \mathcal{C}^1 \subseteq \mathcal{C}^1(g) \). Therefore, \( M_{str}(g) \subseteq \mathcal{C}^1(g) \). \( \square \)

We proceed to show that \( \mathcal{C}^1(g) \subseteq M_{str}(g) \). Let \( L(v) \in \mathcal{C}^1 \subseteq \mathcal{C}^1(g) \) be a strong module with label different from “0” obtained from the cotree \( T_i \). Clearly, \(|L(v)| > 1\), since the singletons \(|v| \) are by definition not contained in \( \mathcal{C}^1 \), albeit they are by construction contained in \( \mathcal{C}^1(g) \).
Claim 4  \( L(v) \in \mathcal{C}_i^1 \subseteq \mathcal{C}^1(g) \) is a module of \( g \).

**Proof of Claim 4** Assume for contradiction that \( L(v) \) is not a module in \( g \). Since \( g \) is reversible, there must be two vertices \( a, b \in L(v) \) and \( c \in V \setminus L(v) \) such that \( \varphi(ac) = j \neq \varphi(bc) = k \). In particular, \( j \) and \( k \) must both be distinct from \( i \), as otherwise \( L(v) \) would not be a module in \( G_i(g) \). Since \( g \) is reversible, \( \varphi(ac) \neq \varphi(cb) \) and by analogous arguments as before, neither \( \varphi(ca) = i \) nor \( \varphi(cb) = i \). The latter arguments and reversibility of \( g \) imply that \( \varphi(xc) \neq i \) and \( \varphi(cx) \neq i \) for all \( x \in L(v) \), as otherwise \( L(v) \) would not be a module in \( G_i(g) \) or \( L(v) \) would be a module in \( g \); a contradiction. Since \( L(v) \in \mathcal{C}_i^1 \) the vertex \( v \) has either label 1 or \( \overrightarrow{1} \) in \( T_g \). Thus, the subgraph in \( G_i(g) \) induced by the vertices in \( L(v) \) is connected. Let \( (a, v_1, \ldots, v_n, b) \) be a walk in \( G_i(g) \) with \( v_i \in L(v) \) for \( 1 \leq i \leq n \), that connects the vertices \( a \) and \( b \). Since none of the labels \( \varphi(ac), \varphi(ca), \varphi(vic), \varphi(cv_1) \) is \( i \), and since Condition (U2) must be fulfilled for the set \( D_{av_1,c} \), we can conclude that the label \( \varphi(ac) = j \) must occur on at least one of the arcs \((v_1c)\) or \((cv_1)\). We distinguish the two cases (i) \( \varphi(v_1c) = j \neq \varphi(cv_1) \) and (ii) \( \varphi(v_1c) = \varphi(cv_1) = j \).

Case (i) Since none of the labels \( \varphi(v_2c), \varphi(cv_2) \) is \( i \), and Condition (U2) must be fulfilled for the set \( D_{v_1v_2c} \), we obtain that \( \varphi(v_2c) = j \) or \( \varphi(cv_2) = j \). Repeating the latter, we obtain \( \varphi(v_n c) = j \) or \( \varphi(cv_n) = j \). Since Condition (U2) must be fulfilled for the set \( D_{v_n,bc} \), and none of the labels of \((v_n c)\) and \((cv_n)\) is \( i \), but \( \varphi(bc) = k \), we can conclude that \( \varphi(cb) = j \) and the labels \( j \) and \( k \) must occur on the two arcs \((v_n, c)\) and \((c, v_n)\). The case \( \varphi(cv_n) = k \) cannot occur, since then there is \( D^k_{bcv_n} \). Thus, \( \varphi(v_n c) = k \) and by reversibility of \( g \), \( \varphi(cv_n) = j \). By analogous arguments, \( \varphi(cv_n-1) = j \) and \( \varphi(v_n-1 c) = k \), and, iterative, \( \varphi(cv_1) = j \), \( \varphi(v_1c) = k \) and \( \varphi(ca) = k \). Since \( g \) is reversible and \( \varphi(v_1a) = i \) or \( \varphi(a v_1) = i \) we can conclude that there are forbidden subgraphs \( D^k_{bacv_1} \) and \( D^k_{bacv_1} \); a contradiction.

Case (ii) If \( \varphi(cv_1) = \varphi(v_1c) = j \), then by analogous arguments as in Case (i), \( \varphi(cv_n) = \varphi(v_n c) = j \). But then \( |D_{bcv_n}| = 3 \), violating (U2) and thus, \( g \) is not unp.

In summary, \( L(v) \) is a module of \( g \). □

It remains to show that \( L(v) \in \mathcal{C}^1(g) \) is also strong in \( g \). Assume for contradiction that \( L(v) \) is not strong in \( g \). Hence, there is a module \( M \) in \( g \) with \( |M| > 1 \) and \( L(v) \nsubseteq \mathcal{M} \). Lemma 1 implies that \( M \) is also a module in \( G_i(g) \) and hence, \( M \) overlaps \( L(v) \) in \( G_i(g) \); a contradiction, since \( L(v) \) is strong in \( G_i(g) \). Therefore, \( \mathcal{C}^1(g) \subseteq \mathcal{M} \).

Since \( \mathcal{M} \subseteq \mathcal{C}^1(g) \) and \( \mathcal{C}^1(g) \subseteq \mathcal{M} \) we can conclude that \( \mathcal{C}^1(g) = \mathcal{M} \) and thus, \( \mathcal{C}^1(g) \) is a hierarchy.

Finally, we show that each cluster \( M \in \mathcal{C}^1(g) \) appears at most in two different cotrees. Let \( M \in \mathcal{C}^1(g) = \mathcal{M} \) and assume that \( t_k(M) = (i, j) \). By Claims 1, 2, and 3, \( M \) is a strong module in \( G_i(g) \) with label \( \overrightarrow{1} \), if \( i \neq j \), and label 1, if \( i = j \) in the cotree of \( G_i(g) \). Thus, \( M \in \mathcal{C}^1_1 \) in all cases and additionally, \( M \in \mathcal{C}^1_1 \), if \( i \neq j \).

It remains to show that there is no further \( k \in \mathcal{C}^1_1 \), if \( i \neq j \) with \( M \in \mathcal{C}^1_k \). Assume that this is not the case, and thus there is a di-cograph \( G_k(g) \) such that \( M \) is labeled 1 or \( \overrightarrow{1} \), in the respective cotree \( T_k \). Let \( M_1, \ldots, M_r \) be the children of \( M \) in \( T_g \).
and $N_1, \ldots, N_s$ be the children of $M$ in $T_k$. Let $x_l$ be a vertex contained in $M_l$ for $1 \leq l \leq r$. Since every arc between distinct $x_l$, $x_l'$ is labeled $i$ or $j$, and in particular, not $k$, and since $x_1, \ldots, x_r$ are contained in $M$, we can conclude that $x_1, \ldots, x_r \in N_m$ for some $m \in \{1, \ldots, s\}$. Otherwise, there would be a label $k$ on some arc between some $x_l, x_l'$. Now take a further vertex $y \in M_l$. By analogous arguments for the vertices $x_1, \ldots, x_l-1, y, x_{l+1}, \ldots, x_r$ and since $x_1, \ldots, x_r \in N_m$, we obtain that $y \in N_m$. By induction, all vertices in $\bigcup_{i=1}^r M_i$ must be contained in $N_m$. Thus, $M = \bigcup_{i=1}^r M_i \subseteq N_m \not\subseteq M$; a contradiction. Therefore, $M \in \mathcal{C}^1_i, M \in \mathcal{C}^1_j$ but $M \notin \mathcal{C}^1_k$ for any $k \neq i, j$, from what the statement follows.

Although it might be possible to derive a result similar to Lemma 7 for non-reversible 2-structures $g$ (with some more elaborated technical arguments), the fact that $\mathcal{C}^1(g)$ is a hierarchy and that each 1-cluster appears in at most 2 cotrees is not sufficient to conclude that $g$ is $\text{unp}$. Figure 6 gives a counterexample. Surprisingly, however, the triangle-condition (U2) and the property that $\mathcal{C}^1(g)$ is a hierarchy, are equivalent for reversible 2-structures that fulfill (U1).

**Lemma 8** Let $g = (V, \Upsilon, \varphi)$ be a reversible 2-structure such that $G_i(g)$ is a digraph for all $i \in \Upsilon$. Then the following statements are equivalent.

1. The Triangle-Condition (U2) is satisfied for $g$.
2. $\mathcal{C}^1(g)$ is a hierarchy. In particular, $\mathcal{M}_{\text{str}}(g) = \mathcal{C}^1(g)$.

**Proof** If $g$ satisfies (U1) and (U2), then, by Theorem 5, $g$ is $\text{unp}$, now apply Lemma 7.

Suppose $g$ does not satisfy (U2), i.e., there are three vertices $a, b, c \in V$ such that $\varphi(ab) = i$ and $|D_{abc}| = 3$. Since $g$ is reversible we conclude that $\varphi(ac), \varphi(ca), \varphi(bc)$,
and \( \varphi(cb) \) are all distinct from \( i \). In the cotree \( T_i \) of \( G_i(g) \), lca(\( ab \)) must be labeled either 1 or \( \overrightarrow{1} \). Next we observe that \( c \) cannot be descendant of lca(\( ab \)) in \( T_i \), since otherwise we would have lca(\( ac \)) \( \in \{1, \overrightarrow{1}\} \) or lca(\( bc \)) \( \in \{1, \overrightarrow{1}\} \). This implies that at least one of the arcs (\( ac \), (\( ca \)), (\( bc \), (\( cb \)) must be present in \( G_i(g) \), which is only possible iff \( \varphi \) mapped one of those arcs to the label \( i \); a contradiction. Therefore, there is a cluster in \( T_i \) that contains \( a \) and \( b \) but not \( c \), and this cluster is also contained in \( \mathcal{C}^1(g) \). Now, let \( \varphi(ac) = j \neq i \). Since \( g \) is reversible, we know that \( \varphi(ab), \varphi(ba), \varphi(bc), \) and \( \varphi(cb) \) are all distinct from \( j \). Using the same argument as above, one can show that in the cotree \( T_j \) there is a cluster containing \( a \) and \( c \) but not \( b \), which is contained in \( \mathcal{C}^1(g) \). But then these two particular clusters overlap, and hence, \( \mathcal{C}^1(g) \) is not a hierarchy. Since \( M_{\text{str}}(g) \) is a hierarchy, we can conclude that \( \mathcal{C}^1(g) \neq M_{\text{str}}(g) \). \( \square \)

**Corollary 1** Let \( g = (V, \Upsilon, \varphi) \) be a 2-structure such that \( G_i(g) \) is a di-cograph for all \( i \in \Upsilon \). The following statements are equivalent

1. \( g \) satisfies the Triangle-Condition (U2).
2. \( \mathcal{C}^1(\text{rev}(g)) \) is a hierarchy.
3. \( \mathcal{C}^1(\text{rev}(g)) = M_{\text{str}}(g) \).

**Proof** By Lemma 5, \( g \) satisfies (U2) if and only if \( \text{rev}(g) \) satisfies (U2). Together with Lemma 6 this implies that \( g \) satisfies (U1) if and only if \( \text{rev}(g) \) satisfies (U1). Therefore \( \text{rev}(g) \) satisfies (U1) and (U2), which, by Lemma 8, is equivalent to \( \text{rev}(g) \) satisfying (U1) and \( \mathcal{C}^1(\text{rev}(g)) \) being a hierarchy. In this case we have in particular \( \mathcal{C}^1(\text{rev}(g)) = M_{\text{str}}(\text{rev}(g)) \). By Theorem 4(4), \( M(\text{rev}(g)) = M(g) \) and hence, \( M_{\text{str}}(\text{rev}(g)) = M_{\text{str}}(g) \). Therefore, the statement is true. \( \square \)

Collecting the results derived above we obtain the main result of this contribution (Fig. 7):

**Theorem 6** (Characterization of \( \text{unp} \) 2-structures) The following statements are equivalent for every 2-structure \( g = (V, \Upsilon, \varphi) \):

1. \( g \) is \( \text{unp} \).
2. \( \varphi \) is a symbolic ultrametric.
3. \( g \) fulfills the following two properties:
   a. \( G_i(g) \) is a di-cograph for all \( i \in \Upsilon \).
   b. \( \mathcal{C}^1(\text{rev}(g)) \) is a hierarchy. In particular, \( \mathcal{C}^1(\text{rev}(g)) = M_{\text{str}}(g) \).
4. \( \text{rev}(g) \) fulfills the following two properties:
   a. \( G_i(\text{rev}(g)) \) is a di-cograph for all \( i \in \Upsilon_{\text{rev}(g)} \).
   b. \( \mathcal{C}^1(\text{rev}(g)) \) is a hierarchy.
5. \( \text{rev}(g) \) is \( \text{unp} \).

**Proof** The equivalence of Item (1.) and (2.) are already given in Theorem 5. Hence, \( g \) satisfies (U1) and (U2). By Corollary 1, \( \varphi \) is a symbolic ultrametric if and only if (U1) and the condition that \( \mathcal{C}^1(\text{rev}(g)) \) is a hierarchy (with \( \mathcal{C}^1(\text{rev}(g)) = M_{\text{str}}(g) \)) is satisfied. Thus, Item (2.) and (3.) are equivalent. By Lemma 6 and since \( g \) satisfies (U2), \( g \) satisfies (U1) if and only if \( \text{rev}(g) \) satisfies (U1), and thus Item (3.) and (4.) are equivalent. Lemma 8 implies that the statement that \( \text{rev}(g) \) satisfies (U1) so that
in addition \( \mathcal{C}^1(\text{rev}(g)) \) is a hierarchy is equivalent to the property that \( \text{rev}(g) \) satisfies (U1) and (U2) and thus, \( \varphi_{\text{rev}(g)} \) is a symbolic ultrametric. By Theorem 5, \( \text{rev}(g) \) is \( \text{unp} \). Hence, Item (4.) and (5.) are equivalent. □

4 Algorithms and complexity results

4.1 Recognition algorithm

We first consider the problem of recognizing whether a 2-structure \( g = (V, \Upsilon, \varphi) \) has a tree-representation \( (T_g, t_g) \) and thus, whether \( g \) is \( \text{unp} \). In what follows, the integer \( n \) will always denote \( |V| \).

There are \( O(n^2) \) time algorithms described in Ehrenfeucht et al. (1994) and McConnell (1995) to compute the modular decomposition of 2-structures. Ehrenfeucht et al. (1994) proposed a divide-and-conquer algorithm based on particular partitions of \( V \) defined by maximal modules that do not contain a certain vertex \( v \). These partitions together with connected components of a graph that reflects whether vertex \( v \) is “distinguished” by other vertices are then be used to stepwisely compute the modular decomposition tree of a 2-structure. The “incremental” algorithm by McConnell (1995) stepwisely extends small substructures \( h \) of a given 2-structure \( g \) by one vertex while computing an updated modular decomposition tree. The modular decomposition for an arbitrary 2-structure is then obtained by a series of such incremental steps. Clearly, these algorithms can be used in order to verify whether a 2-structure is \( \text{unp} \) or not: Simply check whether the modular decomposition tree has an inner vertex labeled “prime”.

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Here, we propose an alternative $O(n^2)$ time algorithm to recognize unp2-structures that is based on their characterization via di-cographs and 1-clusters (cf. Theorem 6(4)). On the one hand, our established results allow to design a conceptual simple algorithm by means of Theorem 6 and, on the other hand, the method developed here is an interesting starting point for novel heuristics for corresponding NP-complete editing problems as we shall discuss later.

For a given 2-structure $g = (V, \Upsilon, \phi)$ the approach works as follows:

Step 1 Compute the reversible refinement $rev(g)$ of $g$.
Step 2 Check whether for all $i \in \Upsilon$ the graph $G_i(rev(g))$ is a di-cograph or not.
Step 3 If they are all di-cographs then compute the 1-clusters $C_i$ for all $i \in \Upsilon$.
Step 4 If $C(rev(g))$ is a hierarchy, then a tree can be constructed with the method described in McConnell and Montgolfier (2005).

Complete pseudocode for the recognition procedure and all necessary subroutines is given in the Appendix (Algorithm 1–6). The following Lemma implies that a tree can be constructed from a hierarchy in linear time w.r.t. the number of elements in the hierarchy, which is bounded by $2|V| − 1$ due to Theorem 1.

Lemma 9 (McConnell and Montgolfier 2005) Given a hierarchy $C$, it takes $O(|C|)$ time to construct its inclusion tree.

Steps 1–4 can be implemented in such a way that the designed recognition algorithm runs in $O(n^2)$-time. For full details on the algorithmic aspects we refer to the appendix.

We continue to show how the tree-representation of a unp2-structure $g = (V, \Upsilon, \phi)$ can be computed. As shown in the appendix, we can compute the hierarchy $C(rev(g))$ in $O(|V|^2)$ time. By Lemma 7, $C(rev(g)) = M_{str}(rev(g))$. By Theorem 4(4), $M(g) = M_{str}(rev(g)) = M_{str}(g)$, which implies that $C(rev(g)) = C(g)$. By Theorem 1, the number of clusters contained in $C(g)$ is bounded by $2|V| − 1$. Thus, we can compute the inclusion tree $T_g$ of $C(g)$ in $O(|V|)$ by means of Lemma 9. In order to get the correct labeling $t_g$ we proceed as follows. We traverse $T_g$ via breadth-first search, starting with the root $v$ of $T_g$ that represents $V$. Take any two children $u_1, u_2$ of $v$ and any two vertices $x \in L(u_1)$, $y \in L(u_2)$ and check the labeling of the arcs $(xy)$ and $(yx)$. Assume that $\phi(xy) = i$ and $\phi(yx) = j$, where $i \leq j$. Then set $t_g(v) = (i, j)$ and place $u_1$ left of $u_2$ in $T_g$. An ordering of the children of $v$ is not necessary if $i = j$. This step has to be repeated for all pairs of children of $v$ and thus has total time complexity of $O(deg(v)^2)$, where $deg(v)$ denotes the number of children of $v$. After this we proceed with a child of $v$, playing now the role of $v$. Hence, the ordering of the tree $T_g$ and the labeling $t_g$ can be computed in $\sum_{v \in V(T_g)} deg(v)^2 \leq \sum_{v \in V(T_g)} |V| deg(v) = |V| \cdot 2(|V| − 1)$ and thus, in $O(|V|^2)$ time.

Taken the latter together with the preceding results, we obtain the following result.

Theorem 7 For a given 2-structure $g = (V, \Upsilon, \phi)$ it can be verified in $O(|V|^2)$ time whether $g$ is unp or not, and in the positive case, the tree-representation $(T_g, t_g)$ can be computed in $O(|V|^2)$ time.
4.2 Tree-representable sets of relations, complexity results and ILP

From the practical point of view, 2-structures \( g = (V, \Upsilon, \varphi) \) with \( \Upsilon = \{0, 1, \ldots, k\} \) can be used to represent sets of disjoint relations \( R_1, \ldots, R_k \), that is, \( \varphi \) is chosen such that

\[
\varphi(xy) = \begin{cases} 
  i \neq 0, & \text{if } (x, y) \in R_i \\
  0 & \text{else, i.e., } (x, y) \notin R_i, \ 1 \leq i \leq k
\end{cases}
\]

Moreover, 2-structures can even be used to represent non-disjoint relations as follows. Assume that we have arbitrary binary relations \( R_1, \ldots, R_k \) over some set \( V \). For two vertices \( x, y \in V \) let \( I_{xy} \subseteq \{1, \ldots, k\} \) be the inclusion-maximal subset such that \( (x, y) \in R_i \) for all \( i \in I_{xy} \). Furthermore, let \( b_{xy} \) be the (unique) integer encoded by the bit vector \( b_1b_2\ldots b_k \) with \( b_i = 1 \) if \( i \in I_{xy} \). Clearly, \( g = (V, \mathbb{N}, \varphi) \) with \( \varphi(xy) = b_{xy} \) is a 2-structure, and the disjoint relations can be represented in a tree if and only if \( g \) is \( unp \).

Those relations might represent the evolutionary relationships between genes, i.e., genes \( x, y \) are in relation \( R_i \) if the lowest common ancestor \( \text{lca}(x, y) \) in the corresponding gene tree was labeled with a particular event \( i \), as e.g. speciation, duplication, horizontal-gene transfer, retro-transposition, and others. By way of example, methods as ProteinOrtho (Lechner et al. 2011, 2014) allow to estimate pairs of orthologs without inferring a gene or species tree. Hence, in practice such relations represent often only estimates of the true relationship between genes. Thus, in general the 2-structure of such estimates \( R_1 \ldots, R_k \) will not be \( unp \) and hence, there is no tree-representation of such estimates. One possibility to attack this problem is to optimally edit the estimate \( g = (V, \Upsilon, \varphi) \) to a \( unp \) 2-structure \( g^* = (V, \Upsilon, \varphi^*) \) by changing the minimum number of labels assigned by \( \varphi \).

We first consider the problem to rearrange a symmetric map \( d \) to obtain a symmetric symbolic ultrametric \( \delta \).

**Problem 1 Symmetric Symbolic Ultrametric Editing/Deletion/Completion [SymSU- E/D/C]**

**Input:** Given a symmetric map \( d : V^2_{irr} \rightarrow \Upsilon \), a fixed symbol \(* \in \Upsilon \) and an integer \( k \).

**Question** Is there a symmetric symbolic ultrametric \( \delta : V^2_{irr} \rightarrow \Upsilon \), such that

- \( |D| \leq k \) (Editing)
- if \( d(x, y) \neq * \), then \( \delta(x, y) = d(x, y) \); and \( |D| \leq k \) (Completion)
- \( \delta(x, y) = d(x, y) \) or \( \delta(x, y) = * \); and \( |D| \leq k \) (Deletion)

where \( D = \{ (x, y) \in X \times X | d(x, y) \neq \delta(x, y) \} \).

The editing problem is clear. The completion problem is motivated by assuming that we might have an reliable assignment \( d \) on a subset \( W \) of \( V^2_{irr} \), however, the assignment for the pairs \( (x, y) \in \overline{W} = V^2_{irr} \setminus W \) is unreliable or even unknown. For those pairs we use an extra symbol \( * \) and set \( d(x, y) = * \) for all \( (x, y) \in \overline{W} \). Since we trust in the assignment \( d \) for all elements in \( W \) we aim at changing the least number of non-reliable estimates only, that is, only pairs \( (x, y) \) with \( d(x, y) = * \) are allowed
to be changed so that the resulting map becomes a symmetric symbolic ultrametric. Conversely, the deletion problem asks to change a minimum number of assignments \(d(x, y) \neq *\) to \(\delta(x, y) = *\).

The following result was given in Hellmuth and Wieseke (2016).

**Theorem 8** SYMSU- E/D/C is NP-complete.

We can use this result in order to show that the analogous problems for 2-structures are NP-complete, as well.

**Problem 2** \(u2s\) 2-STRUCTURE EDITING/DELETION/COMPLETION [u2s- E/D/C]

**Input:** Given a 2-structure \(g = (V, \Upsilon, \varphi_g)\), a fixed symbol \(* \in \Upsilon\) and an integer \(k\).

**Question** Is there a \(u2s\) 2-structure \(h = (V, \Upsilon, \varphi_h)\), such that

- \(|D| \leq k \) (Editing)
- if \(\varphi_g(x, y) \neq *\), then \(\varphi_h(x, y) = \varphi_g(x, y)\); and \(|D| \leq k \) (Completion)
- \(\varphi_h(x, y) = \varphi_g(x, y)\) or \(\varphi_h(x, y) = *\); and \(|D| \leq k \) (Deletion)

where \(D = \{(x, y) \in X \times X \mid \varphi_g(x, y) \neq \varphi_h(x, y)\}\).

**Theorem 9** u2s- E/D/C is NP-complete.

**Proof** Since we can test whether a 2-structure is \(u2s\) with Algorithm 1 in polynomial time, u2s- E/D/C \(\in NP\).

To show NP-hardness, we simply reduce the instance \(d : V^2_{\text{irr}} \to \Upsilon\) of SYMSU to the instance \(g = (V, \Upsilon, d)\) of u2s. By Theorem 5, \(\delta\) is a symbolic ultrametric if and only if \(h = (V, \Upsilon, \delta)\) is \(u2s\) and thus, we obtain the NP-hardness of u2s- E/D/C. \(\square\)

The latter proof in particular implies that u2s- E/D/C is even NP-complete in the case that \(\varphi_g(xy) = \varphi_g(yx)\) for all distinct \(x, y \in V\).

We showed in Hellmuth et al. (2015) that the cograph editing problem and in Hellmuth and Wieseke (2016) that the symmetric symbolic ultrametric editing/completion/deletion is amenable to formulations as Integer Linear Program (ILP). We will extend these results here to solve the symbolic ultrametric editing/completion/deletion problem.

Let \(d : V^2_{\text{irr}} \to \Upsilon\) be an arbitrary map with \(\Upsilon = \{*, 1, \ldots, n\}\) and \(K_{|V|} = (V, E = V^2_{\text{irr}})\) be the corresponding complete di-graph with arc-labeling such that each arc \((x, y) \in E\) obtains label \(d(x, y)\).

For each of the three problems and hence, a given symmetric map \(d\) we define for each distinct \(x, y \in V\) and \(i \in \Upsilon\) the binary constants \(\delta^i_{x,y}\) with \(\delta^i_{x,y} = 1\) if and only if \(d(x, y) = i\). Moreover, we define the binary variables \(E^{ij}_{xy}\) for all \(i, j \in \Upsilon\) and \(x, y \in V\) that reflect the labeling of the arcs in \(K_{|V|}\) of the final symbolic ultrametric \(\delta\), i.e., \(E^{ij}_{xy}\) is set to 1 if and only if \(\delta(x, y) = i\) and \(\delta(y, x) = j\). In the following we will write \(E^i_{xy}\) as a shortcut for \(\sum_{j \in \Upsilon} E^{ij}_{xy}\). Note that \(E^i_{xy} \in \{0, 1\}\) and \(E^i_{xy} = 1\) if and only if \(\delta(x, y) = i\).
In order to find the closest symbolic ultrametric $\delta$, the objective function is to minimize the symmetric difference of $d$ and $\delta$ among all different symbols $i \in \mathcal{Y}$:

$$\min \sum_{i \in \mathcal{Y}} \left( \sum_{(x,y) \in \mathcal{V}^2_{irr}} (1 - \delta_{xy}^i) E_{xy}^i + \sum_{(x,y) \in \mathcal{V}^2_{irr}} \delta_{xy}^i (1 - E_{xy}^i) \right)$$

(1)

The same objective function can be used for the symbolic ultrametric completion and deletion problem.

For the symbolic ultrametric completion we must ensure that $\delta(x, y) = d(x, y)$ for all $d(x, y) \neq \ast$. Hence we set for all $x, y$ with $d(x, y) = i \neq \ast$:

$$E_{xy}^i = 1.$$  

(2)

For the symbolic ultrametric deletion we must ensure that $\delta(x, y) = d(x, y)$ or $\delta(x, y) = \ast$. In other words, for all $d(x, y) = i \neq \ast$ it must hold that for some $j \in \mathcal{Y}$ either $E_{xy}^{ij} = 1$ or $E_{xy}^{*j} = 1$. Hence, we set for all $(x, y) \in \mathcal{V}^2_{irr}$:

$$E_{xy}^{*} = 1, \text{ if } d(x, y) = \ast, \text{ and } E_{xy}^i + E_{xy}^{*} = 1, \text{ else.}$$

(2')

For the cograph editing problem we neither need Constraint 2 nor 2'. However, for all three problems we need the following.

Each tuple $(x, y)$ with $x \neq y$ has exactly one pair of values $(i, j) \in \mathcal{Y} \times \mathcal{Y}$ assigned to it, such that $E_{xy}^{ij} = E_{xy}^{ji}$. Hence, we add the following constraints for all distinct $(x, y) \in \mathcal{V}^2_{irr}$ and $(i, j) \in \mathcal{Y} \times \mathcal{Y}$.

$$\sum_{i,j \in \mathcal{Y}} E_{xy}^{ij} = 1 \text{ and } E_{xy}^{ij} = E_{yx}^{ji}.$$  

(3)

In order to satisfy Condition (U2) and thus, that all induced triangles have at most two label-pairs we need to add the following constraints:

$$E_{xy}^{ij} + E_{yz}^{kl} + E_{zx}^{rs} \leq 2$$

(4)

for all (not necessarily distinct) labels $i, j, k, l, r, s \in \mathcal{Y}$ with pairwise distinct $\{i, j\}, \{k, l\}$, and $\{r, s\}$ and for all distinct $x, y, z \in \mathcal{V}$.

Finally, in order to satisfy Condition (U1) and thus, that each mono-chromatic subgraph comprising all arcs with fixed label $i$ is a di-cograph, we need the a couple of constraints that encode forbidden subgraphs. Since these conditions are straightforward to derive, we just give two example constraints to avoid induced $P_4$’s and $N$’s.

$$E_{ab}^i + E_{ba}^i + E_{bc}^i + E_{cb}^i + E_{cd}^i + E_{dc}^i - E_{ac}^i - E_{ca}^i - E_{ad}^i - E_{da}^i - E_{bd}^i - E_{db}^i \leq 5$$

(5)
for all $i \in \mathcal{Y}$ and all ordered tuple $(a, b, c, d)$ of distinct $a, b, c, d \in V$.

It is easy to verify that the latter ILP formulation needs $O(|\mathcal{Y}|^2|V|^2)$ variables and $O(|\mathcal{Y}|^6|V|^3 + |\mathcal{Y}||V|^4)$ constraints.

5 Concluding remarks

From an applications point of view, the main result of this contribution is a classification of those relationships between genes that can be derived from a gene phylogeny and the knowledge of event types assigned to interior nodes of phylogenetic tree. All such relations necessarily have co-graph structure. Fitch’s version of the orthology and paralogy relations are the most important special cases. However, this class of relations is substantially more general and also include non-symmetric relations. These can account in particular for pairs of genes that are related by an ancestral horizontal transfer event and keep track of the directionality of the transfer.

It remains an open question to what extent this “lca-xenology” relation (Hellmuth and Wieseke 2016) can be inferred directly from sequence similarity data similar to the orthology and paralogy relations. If, however, the (estimates of) the relations $R_o$, $R_p$, and $R_x$ (as in Fig. 1) are given, one can use the simplified map $\varphi_g(xy) = 1$ if $(x, y) \in R_o \cup R_x$ and $\varphi_g(xy) = 0$ otherwise, in order to determine whether $R_o$, $R_p$, and $R_x$ are tree-representable. That is, it suffices to check whether $G_1(g)$ is a dicograph or not. If so, the corresponding cotree with its vertex labels “0” (paralogs), “1” (orthologs), and “$\longrightarrow 1$” (HGT) faithfully represents $R_o$, $R_p$, and $R_x$. In biological terms, this co-tree is (a not necessarily fully resolved) event-labeled gene tree, that in extension of Hellmuth et al. (2015) also provides information on HGT events.

The most commonly used definition of the xenology relation, however, is based on the presence of one or more horizontal transfer events along the unique path in the gene tree that connects two genes. It cannot be expressed in terms labels at the lowest common ancestor only. This raises the question whether edge labeled phylogenetic trees given rise to similar systems of relations on the leaf set.

The mathematical results presented in this contribution do not yet provide a practically applicable workflow to solve the gene-tree/species-tree reconciliation problem for real-world data. Nevertheless they outline quite clearly how such an approach could look like and which practical problems have to be overcome to make it work. The estimation of orthology directly from sequence data via pairwise similarities is necessarily imperfect (due to complementary deletion of paralogs and due to sometimes large variations in evolutionary rates) but yields pairwise orthology assignments on par with phylogenetics-based methods (Altenhoff et al. 2016). In Hellmuth et al. (2015), we have shown that pairwise sequence similarities are indeed sufficient to reconstruct event-labeled gene trees in the absence of HGT.

The second key problem is the identification of horizontal transfer events. In principle, likely xenologs (i.e., genes that have been introduced into a genome by horizontal transfer) can be identified directly from sequence data (Soucy et al. 2015). Sequence
composition often identifies a gene as a recent addition to a genome. In the absence of horizontal transfer, the similarities of pairs of true orthologs in the species pairs \(AB\) and \(AC\) are expected to be linearly correlated. Outliers are likely candidates for HGT events and thus can be “relabeled”. A much more detailed analysis of the relational properties of horizontally transferred genes will be discussed in a forthcoming contribution.

A key issue for the practical purpose of a relation-based approach is the correction of noise and unavoidable errors in the input data. In the absence of horizontal transfer this boils down to the cograph editing problem. In the current setting this generalizes to the need for noise reduction in the input data by editing estimated input relations to \(unp\) 2-structures. Most likely, heuristics for cograph editing can be adapted to this task, see e.g. Dondi et al. (2016), Hellmuth and Wieseke (2016), Hellmuth et al. (2015), Lafond et al. (2016) and Lafond and El-Mabrouk (2015). Given the unavoidable noise in the input data it appears promising to consider a probabilistic inference of \(unp\) 2-structures depending on weighted or explicitly probabilistic estimates of orthology and/or horizontal transfer. While at present probabilistic models are based on explicit reconciliation of gene-trees and species trees (Sennblad and Lagergren 2009), there is no fundamental reason that would preclude e.g. a maximum likelihood or Bayesian formulation of cograph or 2-structure editing using similarities among small subsets of genes to derive propensities for a focal gene pair to be orthologs, paralogs, or xenologs.

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## Appendix

### Proofs of Proposition 1 and Lemma 6

Let \(g = (V, \Upsilon, \varphi)\) be a 2-structure. In the proof of Proposition 1 we write \(\Delta(\text{xyz})\) as a shorthand for “the Condition (U2) must be fulfilled for the set \(D_{\text{xyz}}\)”, where \(x, y, z \in V\). Moreover, for any forbidden subgraph \(K\) that might occur in the graph \(G_j(g)\) of some 2-structure \(g\), we use the symbols \(K^j(\text{abc})\) and \(K^j(\text{abcd})\), resp., to designate the fact that \(G_j(g)\) contains the forbidden subgraph \(K\) induced by the vertices \(a, b, c\), resp., \(a, b, c, d\) in \(G_j(g)\).

**Proof of Proposition 1**

In order to prove Proposition 1, we have to show that \(unp\) 2-structures are characterized by the conditions

1. \(\text{(U1)}\) \(G_i(g)\) is a di-cograph for all \(i \in \Upsilon\) and
2. \(\text{(U2)}\) for all vertices \(x, y, z \in V\) it holds \(|\{D_{xy}, D_{xz}, D_{yz}\}| \leq 2\).

We will frequently apply the following argument without explicitly stating it every time: By definition, if \(g\) is reversible then \(\varphi(e) = \varphi(f)\) iff \(\varphi(e^{-1}) = \varphi(f^{-1})\). Hence, for reversible \(g\), \(D_{ab} \neq D_{xy}\) implies that \(\varphi(ab) \neq \varphi(xy), \varphi(yx)\) and \(\varphi(ba) \neq \varphi(xy), \varphi(yx)\).
⇒: Let \(g = (V, \mathcal{Y}, \varphi)\) be a reversible unp2-structure. If \(|V| < 3\) then (U1) and (U2) are trivially satisfied. Thus we assume w.l.o.g. that \(|V| \geq 3\). Furthermore, suppose there is a label \(i \in \mathcal{Y}\) such that \(G_i(g)\) is not a di-cograph, i.e., \(G_i(g)\) contains one of the forbidden subgraphs. Since \(g\) is reversible, the forbidden subgraphs \(A, B, \overline{D_3}\), and \(\overline{N}\) cannot occur.

Now let \(h\) be a substructure of \(g\) with \(|V_h| = 3\) containing \(D_3\) or \(C_3\), or \(|V_h| = 4\) containing \(P_4\) or \(N\), respectively. It is not hard to check that for each of these four graphs and any two distinct vertices \(a, b \in V_h\) there is always a vertex \(v \in V_h \setminus \{a, b\}\) so that \(\varphi(\{a, b\}) \neq \varphi(\{a, v\})\). Therefore, \(\{a, b\}\) cannot form a module in \(h\). For \(P_4\) and \(N\) one checks that for any three distinct vertices \(a, b, c \in V_h\) and \(v \in V_h \setminus \{a, b, c\}\) we always have \(\varphi(\{a, v\}) \neq \varphi(\{b, v\})\), or \(\varphi(\{a, v\}) \neq \varphi(\{c, v\})\), or \(\varphi(\{b, v\}) \neq \varphi(\{c, v\})\), so that \(\{a, b, c\}\) cannot form a module in \(h\). Thus, \(h\) contains only trivial modules and, hence, is prime. This contradiction implies that (U1) must be fulfilled.

Since \(g = (V, \mathcal{Y}, \varphi)\) has a tree-representation without prime nodes, and since three distinct leaves can have at most two distinct least common ancestors, Condition (U2) must hold as well.

\(\Leftarrow:\) Now assume that \(\varphi\) is a symbolic ultrametric, i.e., condition (U1) and (U2) are fulfilled for a reversible 2-structure \(g\). In order to show that \(g\) is unp we have to demonstrate that all substructures \(h\) of \(g\) with \(|V_h| = 3\) and \(|V_h| = 4\) are non-prime (cf. Theorem 3).

**Claim 1** If \(h\) is a substructure of \(g\) with \(V_h = \{a, b, c\}\), then \(h\) is non-prime.

**Proof of Claim 1** Since \(\Delta(abc)\) we may assume that \(D_{ab} = D_{ac}\), otherwise we simply relabel the vertices. If \(|D_{ab}| = 1\), then \(\{b, c\}\) forms a module in \(h\). Assume that \(|D_{ab}| = 2\). There are two cases, either \(\varphi(ab) = \varphi(ac)\), then \(\{b, c\}\) is a module in \(h\), or \(\varphi(ba) = \varphi(ac)\) = \(i\). In the latter case, \(\varphi(bc) = i\) since otherwise either or \(D^1_3(abc)\) or \(C^1_3(abc)\) would occur. Therefore, \(\{a, c\}\) forms a module in \(h\).

Hence, in all cases, a substructure \(h\) of \(g\) with \(V_h = \{a, b, c\}\) forms a non-prime structure. \(\square\)

**Claim 2** If \(h\) is a substructure of \(g\) with \(V_h = \{a, b, c, d\}\), then \(h\) is non-prime.

**Proof of Claim 2** There are two cases, either \(|D_{ab}| = 1\) or \(|D_{ab}| = 2\). For both cases, we will examine numerous sub-cases that might occur, and show that for each of these cases \(h\) contains non-trivial modules and thus, is non-prime. \(\square\)

**Case** \(|D_{ab}| = 1:\)**

Since \(\Delta(abc)\) we can assume that \(D_{ab} = D_{ac}\), otherwise relabel the vertices. Thus, \(\varphi(ab) = \varphi(ba) = \varphi(ac) = \varphi(ca) = i\) for some \(i \in \mathcal{Y}\). Since \(\Delta(acd)\) we have the three distinct cases

(i) \(\varphi(ad) = \varphi(cd) = i\),
(ii) either (A) \(\varphi(ad) = i\) or (B) \(\varphi(cd) = i\),
(iii) neither \(\varphi(ad) = i\) nor \(\varphi(cd) = i\).

In Case (i) and (iiA), \(\{b, c, d\}\) is a module in \(h\). In Case (iiB), the arc \((bc)\) or \((bd)\) must be labeled with \(i\) as otherwise there is \(P^1_4(abcd)\). If \(\varphi(bc) = i\), then \(\{a, b, d\}\) is a module in \(h\). If \(\varphi(bd) = i\), then \(\{a, d\}\) is a module in \(h\).
Consider now Case (iii). Since $\Delta(acd)$, it follows that $D_{ad} = D_{cd}$ and in particular, $i \notin D_{ad} = D_{cd}$, since $g$ is reversible. Let first $|D_{ad}| = |\{j\}| = 1$. Since $\Delta(abd)$, we have that either $\varphi(bd) = j$, in which case $\{a, b, c\}$ is a module in $h$ or $\varphi(bd) = i$, which implies that $\varphi(bc) = i$, since otherwise $P_{4}^{3}(abcd)$. In the latter case, $\{a, c, d\}$ forms a module in $h$. If $|D_{ad}| = 2$, we have only the case that $\varphi(ad) = \varphi(cd) = j$ for some $j \in \mathcal{T}$. In the two other cases $\varphi(ad) = \varphi(dc) = j$ or $\varphi(da) = \varphi(cd) = j$ we would obtain $D_{3}^{j}(acd)$. Since $\Delta(abd)$, we obtain that either (I) $\varphi(bd) = i$, (II) $\varphi(bd) = j$ or (III) $\varphi(db) = j$. Case (I) implies that $\varphi(bc) = i$ as otherwise there is $P_{4}^{3}(abcd)$. Hence, $\{a, c, d\}$ form a module in $h$. In Case (II) $\{a, b, c\}$ is a module in $h$ and Case (III) cannot occur, as otherwise there is $D_{3}^{j}(abd)$.

Case $|D_{ab}| = 2$: Since $\Delta(abc)$, we can assume wlog. that $D_{ab} = D_{ac}$, otherwise we relabel the vertices. Hence, we have either (I) $\varphi(ab) = \varphi(ac) = i$ or (II) $\varphi(ba) = \varphi(ac) = i$. Note that in Case (I), $\varphi(ba) = \varphi(ca) = i \neq i$ and in Case (II) $\varphi(ab) = \varphi(ca) = i \neq i$.

Consider Case (I). Since $\Delta(acd)$, we have one of the four distinct cases

(i) $D_{ac} = D_{ad} = D_{cd}$

(ii) $D_{ac} = D_{ad} \neq D_{cd}$

(iii) $D_{ac} = D_{cd} \neq D_{ad}$

(iv) $D_{ac} \neq D_{cd}$ and $D_{ac} \neq D_{ad}$

In Case (ii) it is not possible to have $\varphi(cd) = \varphi(da) = i$ as otherwise there is $C_{3}^{j}(acd)$. If $\varphi(ad) = i$, then $\{b, c, d\}$ is module in $h$. If $\varphi(da) = i$, then $\varphi(db) = \varphi(dc) = i$, since otherwise there is $D_{3}^{j}(abd)$, $D_{3}^{j}(acd)$, $C_{3}^{j}(abd)$ or $C_{3}^{j}(acd)$. In that case, $\{a, b, c\}$ is a module in $h$.

In Case (iii) it is not possible to have $\varphi(da) = i$, since otherwise there is $D_{3}^{j}(acd)$. Thus, $\varphi(ad) = i$ and therefore, $\{b, c, d\}$ forms a module in $h$.

In Case (iv) it is not possible to have $\varphi(cd) = i$, since otherwise there is $D_{3}^{j}(acd)$. Hence, $\varphi(dc) = i$. But then, at least one of the remaining arcs $(bc), (cb), (bd), (db)$ must have label $i$, since otherwise there is $N_{3}^{i}(abcd)$. If $\varphi(bc) = i$, then $\{a, b, d\}$ is a module in $h$. If $\varphi(cb) = i$, then $\varphi(db) = i$ as otherwise there is $D_{3}^{j}(bcd)$ or $C_{3}^{j}(bcd)$. Hence, $\{a, c, d\}$ is a module in $h$. The case $\varphi(bd) = i$ is not possible, since then there is $D_{3}^{j}(abd)$. If $\varphi(db) = i$, then $\{a, d\}$ is a module in $h$.

In Case (iv) and since $\Delta(acd)$, we have $D_{ad} = D_{cd}$. If $D_{ad} = \{j\}$ and thus, $|D_{ad}| = 1$, then $\Delta(abd)$ implies that either $\varphi(bd) = \varphi(db) = j \neq i$, or $\varphi(bd) = i$, or $\varphi(db) = j$. If $\varphi(bd) = j \neq i$, then $\{a, b, c\}$ is a module in $h$. The case $\varphi(bd) = i$ cannot happen, since otherwise there is $D_{3}^{j}(abd)$. If $\varphi(db) = i$, then either $\varphi(bc) = i$ or $\varphi(cb) = i$, otherwise there is $N_{3}^{i}(abcd)$. The case $\varphi(bc) = i$ is not possible, otherwise there is $D_{3}^{j}(bcd)$. If $\varphi(cb) = i$, then $\{a, c, d\}$ is a module in $h$.

Assume now that in Case (iv) we have $|D_{ad}| = 2$. Again, since $\Delta(acd)$, we have $D_{ad} = D_{cd}$. Assume that $j \in D_{ad}$. There are two case, either $\varphi(ad) = \varphi(cd) = j \neq i$ or $\varphi(ad) = \varphi(dc) = j \neq i$. However, the latter case is not possible, otherwise there is $D_{3}^{j}(acd)$. Hence, let $\varphi(ad) = \varphi(cd) = j \neq i$. Since $\Delta(abd)$ we can conclude that either $\varphi(bd) = i$, or $\varphi(db) = i$, or $\varphi(bd) = j$, or $\varphi(db) = j$. The cases $\varphi(bd) = i$ and $\varphi(db) = j$ are not possible, otherwise there is $D_{3}^{j}(abd)$ and $D_{3}^{j}(abd)$, respectively. If $\varphi(db) = i$, then $\varphi(bc) = i$ or $\varphi(cb) = i$, otherwise there is $N_{3}^{i}(abcd)$. This case can
be treated as in the previous step and we obtain the module \( \{a, c, d\} \) in \( h \). If \( \varphi(bd) = j \), then \( \{a, b, c\} \) is a module in \( h \).

Consider now Case (II) \( \varphi(ba) = \varphi(ac) = i \), and \( \varphi(ab) = \varphi(ca) = i' \neq i \). Hence, \( \varphi(bc) = i \), otherwise there is \( D_{3i}^{i}(abc) \) or \( C_{3i}^{i}(abc) \). Again, since \( \Delta(acd) \), we have one of the four distinct cases (i), (ii), (iii) or (iv), as in Case (I).

Consider the Case (III). If \( \varphi(dc) = i \), then \( \{a, b, d\} \) is a module in \( h \). Thus, assume \( \varphi(cd) = i \). The case \( \varphi(da) = i \) is not possible, since then there is \( C_{3i}^{i}(acd) \). If \( \varphi(ad) = i \), then \( \varphi(bd) = i \), otherwise there is \( D_{3i}^{i}(abd) \) or \( C_{3i}^{i}(abd) \). Now, \( \{a, c, d\} \) is a module in \( h \).

Now, Case (IIIi). The case \( \varphi(da) = i \) is not possible, otherwise there is \( D_{3i}^{i}(acd) \) and thus, \( \varphi(ad) = i \). Then \( \varphi(bd) = i \), otherwise there is \( D_{3i}^{i}(abd) \) or \( C_{3i}^{i}(abd) \). Therefore, \( \{a, c, d\} \) is a module in \( h \).

Consider the Case (IIii). The case \( \varphi(cd) = i \) is not possible, otherwise there is \( D_{3i}^{i}(acd) \). Thus, \( \varphi(dc) = i \) and therefore, \( \{a, b, d\} \) is a module in \( h \).

In Case (IIiv) and since \( \Delta(acd) \), we have \( D_{ad} = D_{cd} \). If \( D_{ad} = \{j\} \) and thus, \( |D_{ad}| = 1 \), then \( \Delta(abd) \) implies that either \( \varphi(bd) = j \neq i \), or \( \varphi(bd) = i \), or \( \varphi(db) = i \). If \( \varphi(bd) = j \neq i \), then \( \{a, b, c\} \) is a module in \( h \). If \( \varphi(bd) = i \), then \( \{a, c, d\} \) is a module in \( h \). The case \( \varphi(db) = i \) cannot happen, otherwise there is \( D_{3i}^{i}(bcd) \).

If \( |D_{ad}| = 2 \) and \( j \in D_{ad} \), then there are two cases either \( \varphi(ad) = \varphi(cd) = j \neq i \) or \( \varphi(ad) = \varphi(dc) = j \neq i \). However, the latter case is not possible, otherwise there is \( D_{3i}^{i}(acd) \). Hence, let \( \varphi(ad) = \varphi(cd) = j \neq i \). Since \( \Delta(abd) \) we can conclude that either \( \varphi(bd) = i \), or \( \varphi(db) = i \), or \( \varphi(db) = j \), or \( \varphi(db) = j \). The cases \( \varphi(db) = i \) and \( \varphi(db) = j \) are not possible, otherwise there is \( D_{3i}^{i}(abd) \) and \( D_{3i}^{i}(abd) \), respectively. If \( \varphi(bd) = i \) or \( \varphi(bd) = j \), then \( \{a, c, d\} \), resp., \( \{a, b, c\} \) is a module in \( h \).

In summary, in each of the cases a substructure \( h \) of \( g \) with 3 or 4 vertices is non-prime whenever (U1) and (U2) holds. Thus \( g \) is \( unp \).

**Proof of Lemma 6**

\( \Rightarrow \): Let \( G_{i}(g) \) be a di-cograph for all \( i \in \mathcal{Y} \). Moreover, assume for contradiction that there is a label \( j \in \mathcal{Y}_{rev(g)} \) such that \( G_{j}(rev(g)) \) is not a di-cograph. Then \( G_{j}(rev(g)) \) contains a forbidden subgraph. Since \( rev(g) \) is reversible, only the subgraphs \( D_{3}, C_{3}, N, \) and \( P_{4} \) are possible. Moreover, by construction of \( rev(g) \) and because \( \varphi_{rev(g)}(e) = \varphi_{rev(g)}(f) \) implies \( \varphi(e) = \varphi(f) \), we have \( G_{j}(rev(g)) \subseteq G_{k}(g) \) for some \( k \in \mathcal{Y} \).

In the following we will show that the existence of one of the forbidden subgraphs \( D_{3}, C_{3}, N, \) and \( P_{4} \) in any \( G_{j}(rev(g)) \) leads to a contradiction. We proceed case by case.

**Case:** \( G_{j}(rev(g)) \) contains \( D_{3} \) for some \( j \in \mathcal{Y}_{rev(g)} \).

If \( G_{j}(rev(g)) \) contains \( D_{3} \) induced by the vertices \( x, y, z \), we can wlog. assume that the vertices are labeled so that \( \varphi_{rev(g)}(xy) = \varphi_{rev(g)}(yz) = j \neq \varphi_{rev(g)}(xz) \), \( \varphi_{rev(g)}(zy) = \varphi_{rev(g)}(yx) = k \neq \varphi_{rev(g)}(zx) \) and \( j \neq k \). By construction of \( rev(g) \) we obtain \( \varphi(xy) = \varphi(yz) = j' \), \( \varphi(zy) = \varphi(yx) = k' \) for some distinct \( j', k' \in \mathcal{Y} \).
However, since \( g \) does not contain forbidden subgraphs in \( G_j'(g) \), there must be an arc connecting \( x \) and \( z \) with label \( j' \). The possibilities \( \varphi(xz) = j' \neq \varphi(xz) \) and \( \varphi(xz) = \varphi(xz) = j' \) cannot occur, since then \( G_j'(g) \) would contain a \( C_3 \) or \( \overline{D}_3 \) as forbidden subgraph. Hence, it must hold that \( \varphi(xz) = j' \). Analogously, one shows that \( \varphi(xz) = k' \). By construction of \( \text{rev}(g) \), we obtain \( \varphi_{\text{rev}(g)}(xz) = j \), and \( \varphi_{\text{rev}(g)}(zx) = k \); a contradiction.

**Case:** \( G_j(\text{rev}(g)) \) **contains** \( C_3 \) **for some** \( j \in \mathcal{Y}_{\text{rev}(g)} \).

If \( G_j(\text{rev}(g)) \) contains a \( C_3 \) induced by the vertices \( x, y, z \), we can wlog. assume that the vertices are labeled so that \( \varphi_{\text{rev}(g)}(xy) = \varphi_{\text{rev}(g)}(yz) = \varphi_{\text{rev}(g)}(zx) \neq \varphi_{\text{rev}(g)}(yx) = \varphi_{\text{rev}(g)}(xz) = \varphi_{\text{rev}(g)}(zy) \). Thus, \( \varphi(xy) = \varphi(yz) = \varphi(zx) = j' \) and \( \varphi(yx) = \varphi(xz) = \varphi(zy) = k' \). We have \( j' \neq k' \) as otherwise \( \varphi_{\text{rev}(g)}(xy) = \varphi_{\text{rev}(g)}(yx) \). Therefore, \( G_j'(g) \) contains the forbidden subgraph \( C_3 \); a contradiction.

**Case:** \( G_j(\text{rev}(g)) \) **contains** \( P_4 \) **for some** \( j \in \mathcal{Y}_{\text{rev}(g)} \).

If \( G_j(\text{rev}(g)) \) contains a \( P_4 \) induced by the vertices \( a, b, c, d \), we can wlog. assume that the vertices are labeled so that \( \varphi_{\text{rev}(g)}(e) = \varphi_{\text{rev}(g)}(f) = j \) for all \( e, f \in E' = \{(a, b), (b, a), (b, c), (c, b), (c, d), (a, c), (a, d), (b, d)\} \). For all these arcs \( e, f \in E' \) it additionally holds that \( \varphi(e) = \varphi(f) = j' \). Moreover, for all other arcs \( e \in \{a, b, c, d\} \times E' \) it is not possible that \( \varphi(e) = \varphi(e^{-1}) = j' \), as otherwise, \( \varphi_{\text{rev}(g)}(e) = \varphi_{\text{rev}(g)}(e^{-1}) = j \) and the \( P_4 \) would not be an induced subgraph of \( G_j(\text{rev}(g)) \). By the latter argument and since \( G_j'(g) \) does not contain an induced \( P_4 \) there must be at least one arc \( e \in \{a, b, c, d\} \times E' \) with \( \varphi(e) = j' \), but \( \varphi(e^{-1}) \neq j' \). Now full enumeration of all possibilities (which we leave to the reader) to set one, two, or three of these arcs to the label \( j' \) yields one of the forbidden subgraphs \( \overline{D}_3, A, B \) or \( \overline{N} \) in \( G_j'(g) \); a contradiction.

**Case:** \( G_j(\text{rev}(g)) \) **contains** \( N \) **for some** \( j \in \mathcal{Y}_{\text{rev}(g)} \).

If \( G_j(\text{rev}(g)) \) contains an \( N \) induced by the vertices \( a, b, c, d \), we can wlog. assume that the vertices are labeled so that \( \varphi_{\text{rev}(g)}(ba) = \varphi_{\text{rev}(g)}(bc) = \varphi_{\text{rev}(g)}(dc) = j \neq \varphi_{\text{rev}(g)}(ab) = \varphi_{\text{rev}(g)}(cb) = \varphi_{\text{rev}(g)}(cd) = k \). Thus, \( \varphi(ba) = \varphi(bc) = \varphi(dc) = j' \neq \varphi(ab) = \varphi(cb) = \varphi(cd) = k' \). Since \( G_j'(g) \) is cograph, there must be an arc \( e \in E' = \{(a, c), (c, a), (a, d), (a, b), (b, d)\} \) with \( \varphi(e) = j' \). Moreover, for this arc \( e \) it must hold that \( \varphi(e^{-1}) \neq k' \) as otherwise, \( \varphi_{\text{rev}(g)}(e) = j \). The graph \( G_k(\text{rev}(g)) \) also contains an \( N \) induced by the vertices \( a, b, c, d \). Hence, by analogous arguments there is an \( f \in E', e \neq f \) with \( \varphi(f) = k' \) with \( \varphi(f^{-1}) \neq j' \). Assume first that \( e \) is \( (a, c) \) or \( (c, a) \) and thus, \( D_{ac} = \{j'', j''\} \) where \( j'' = j' \) is allowed. If \( f \) is \( (a, d) \) or \( (d, a) \), then \( D_{ad} = \{k', k''\} \) where \( k'' = k' \) is allowed. But then \( D_{acd} = \{k', j', j''\} \) which \( j'' \neq k' \) and thus \( |D_{acd}| = 3 \) violating Condition (U2) in \( g \); a contradiction. If \( f \) is \( (b, d) \) or \( (d, b) \), then \( D_{bd} = \{k', k''\} \) where \( k'' = k' \) is allowed. Thus, \( \{j', j''\}, \{k', j', j''\} \in D_{acd} \) and \( \{k', k''\}, \{k', j'\} \in D_{abd} \). The only way to satisfy \( |D_{acd}| = 2 \) and \( |D_{abd}| = 2 \) is achieved by \( D_{ad} = \{k', j'\} \). However, the case \( \varphi(e) = j' \) and \( \varphi(e^{-1}) = k' \) with \( e \in E' \) is not allowed. All other cases, starting with \( e \in E' \setminus \{(a, c), (c, a)\} \) can be treated analogously.

\( \Leftarrow: \) Let \( G_j(\text{rev}(g)) \) be a di-cograph for all \( j \in \mathcal{Y}_{\text{rev}(g)} \). Moreover, assume for contradiction that there is a label \( i \in \mathcal{Y} \) such that \( G_i(g) \) is not a di-cograph. Hence, \( G_i(g) \) contains a forbidden subgraph.
In the following we will show that the existence of one of the forbidden subgraphs in any \( G_i(g) \) leads to a contradiction. Again we analyze the possible forbidden subgraph separately.

Case: \( G_i(g) \) contains \( D_3 \), \( A \) or \( B \) for some \( i \in \mathcal{Y} \).

If \( G_i(g) \) contains a forbidden subgraph \( D_3 \), \( A \), \( B \) then there are arcs \( (a, b), (b, c) \) contained in these forbidden subgraphs with \( \varphi(ab) = \varphi(bc) = i \) but \( \varphi(ac) \neq i \) and \( \varphi(ca) \neq i \). Moreover, since \( G_j(\text{rev}(g)) \) does not contain these forbidden subgraphs for any \( j \in \mathcal{Y}_{\text{rev}(g)} \), we also obtain that \( \varphi(ab) = \varphi(bc) = i \) but \( \varphi(ba) \neq \varphi(cb) \). But this implies that \( |D_{abc}| = 3 \) in \( g \); a contradiction to (U2).

Case: \( G_i(g) \) contains \( D_3 \) or \( C_3 \) for some \( i \in \mathcal{Y} \).

If \( G_i(g) \) contains a forbidden subgraph \( D_3 \) or \( C_3 \), then there are arcs \( (a, b), (b, c) \) contained in these forbidden subgraphs with \( \varphi(ab) = \varphi(bc) = i \) and \( \varphi(ba) \neq i \). If \( \varphi(ba) = \varphi(cb) \) and the case \( D_3 \) is contained \( G_i(g) \), then \( G_j(\text{rev}(g)) \) contains the \( D_3 \) as forbidden subgraph. If \( \varphi(ba) = \varphi(cb) \) and the case \( C_3 \) is contained \( G_i(g) \), then \( G_j(\text{rev}(g)) \) contains the \( D_3 \) or \( C_3 \) as forbidden subgraph. Hence, \( \varphi(ba) \neq \varphi(cb) \). For the case \( D_3 \), we observe that \( |D_{abc}| = 3 \) in \( g \); a contradiction to (U2). For the case \( C_3 \), we can conclude by analogous arguments, \( \varphi(ba) \neq \varphi(ca) \) and \( \varphi(cb) \neq \varphi(ca) \) and again, \( |D_{abc}| = 3 \) in \( g \); a contradiction.

Case: \( G_i(g) \) contains \( N \) for some \( i \in \mathcal{Y} \).

Similarly, if \( N \) is contained in \( G_i(g) \) then there are arcs \( (b, a), (b, c), (d, c) \) contained in \( N \) with \( \varphi(ba) = \varphi(bc) = \varphi(dc) = i \) and \( \varphi(e) \neq i \) for all \( e \in \{(a, c), (c, a), (b, d), (d, b)\} \). Since \( G_j(\text{rev}(g)) \) does not contain \( N \) it holds that \( \varphi(ab) \neq \varphi(cb) \) or \( \varphi(cb) \neq \varphi(cd) \). If \( \varphi(ab) \neq \varphi(cb) \) then \( |D_{abc}| = 3 \), as \( \varphi(ac) \neq i \) and \( \varphi(ca) \neq i \); a contradiction to (U2). On the other hand, if \( \varphi(cb) \neq \varphi(cd) \) then \( |D_{bcd}| = 3 \), as \( \varphi(bd) \neq i \) and \( \varphi(db) \neq i \); again a contradiction to (U2).

Case: \( G_i(g) \) contains \( P_4 \) for some \( i \in \mathcal{Y} \).

The \( P_4 \) on four vertices \( a, b, c, d \) cannot be contained in any \( G_i(g) \), since for any two arcs \( e, f \in E' = \{(a, b), (b, a), (b, c), (c, b), (c, d), (d, c)\} \) of this \( P_4 \) it still holds \( \varphi_{\text{rev}(g)}(e) = \varphi_{\text{rev}(g)}(f) = i' \) and for any arc \( e \) not in \( E' \), \( \varphi_{\text{rev}(g)}(e) \neq i' \). Hence, if \( G_i(g) \) contains a \( P_4 \), then \( G_i(\text{rev}(g)) \) contains a \( P_4 \) as forbidden subgraph; a contradiction.

Case: \( G_i(g) \) contains \( \overline{N} \) for some \( i \in \mathcal{Y} \).

If \( G_i(g) \) contains the forbidden subgraph \( \overline{N} \) on four vertices \( a, b, c, d \), then for the three arcs \( e_1, e_2, e_3 \) with \( \varphi(e_j) = \varphi(e_j^{-1}) = i \), it still holds, that \( \varphi_{\text{rev}(g)}(e_j) = \varphi_{\text{rev}(g)}(e_j^{-1}) = i' \), \( 1 \leq j \leq 3 \). However, for the other arcs \( f_1, f_2, f_3 \) with \( \varphi(f_j) = i \neq \varphi(f_j^{-1}) \), we can infer that \( \varphi_{\text{rev}(g)}(f_j) \neq i' \) and \( \varphi_{\text{rev}(g)}(f_j^{-1}) \neq i' \). Thus, \( G_i(\text{rev}(g)) \) contains a \( P_4 \) on the three edges \( e_1, e_2, e_3 \) as forbidden subgraph; a contradiction. \( \Box \)
Algorithmic considerations

We show that the characterization of \textit{unp} 2-structures in terms of di-cographs and 1-clusters (cf. Theorem 6(4)) can be used to derive a simple algorithm for the recognition of \textit{unp} 2-structures. In the following the integer \(n\) will always denote \(|V|\) as a measure of the input size.

Pseudocode for the recognition procedure is given in Algorithm 1. Furthermore, we give pseudocode for all necessary subroutines (Algorithms 2 to 6). We omit the procedure for computing the modular decomposition \(\mathbb{M}_{\text{str}}(G)\) of a digraph \(G = (V, E)\), as McConnell and de Montgolfier McConnell and Montgolfier (2005) already presented an \(O(|V| + |E|)\) time algorithm for this problem.

We first prove the correctness of Algorithms 4, 5, and 6.

Lemma 10 Given a digraph \(G\) and its modular decomposition \(\mathbb{M}_{\text{str}}(G)\), Algorithm 4 recognizes whether \(G\) is a di-cograph or not.

Proof At first, Algorithm 4 computes the inclusion tree \(T\) of \(\mathbb{M}_{\text{str}}(G)\) and then iterates over all strong modules \(M \in \mathbb{M}_{\text{str}}(G)\). For each strong module \(M\) two arbitrary but distinct children \(M'\), \(M'' \in \mathbb{M}_{\text{str}}(G)\) of \(M\) in \(T\) are selected and it is checked if there is an arc between two vertices \(x \in M'\) and \(y \in M''\). If \(G\) is a di-cograph and there is an arc \((x, y) \in E\) or \((y, x) \in E\), then by Remark 3, \(M\) must be either series or order. In other words, if we have found an \((x, y) \in E\) or \((y, x) \in E\), but \(M\) is neither series nor order, it must be prime which implies that \(G\) was not a di-cograph.

However, it might be possible, that the chosen elements \(x\) and \(y\) do not form an arc \((x, y) \in E\) or \((y, x) \in E\), but then \(M\) is either prime or parallel. If \(M\) is prime there must be arcs \((x', y')\) or \((y', x')\), that we might have not observed in the preceding step, where \(x' \in M'\), \(y' \in M''\) for some children \(M', M''\) of \(M\), otherwise \(M\) would be parallel. However, this case is covered by counting the numbers of all arcs between the vertices of maximal strong submodules contained in series or order modules \(M\). If the accumulated number \(e\) of all counted arcs is equal to the number of arcs \(|E|\) in \(G\), then all modules \(M' \in \mathbb{M}_{\text{str}}(G)\) which are neither series nor order must be parallel. Hence, no prime modules exists and therefore \(G\) is a di-cograph.

Lemma 11 Given a di-cograph \(G_i\) and its modular decomposition \(\mathbb{M}_{\text{str}}(G_i)\), Algorithm 5 computes the 1-clusters \(\mathcal{C}_i^1\) of \(G_i\).

Proof At first, Algorithm 5 computes the inclusion tree \(T\) of \(\mathbb{M}_{\text{str}}(G_i)\). Then, for each strong module \(M\) two arbitrary vertices from distinct children \(M', M'' \in \mathbb{M}_{\text{str}}(G)\) of \(M\) in \(T\) are selected. If there is an arc \((x, y) \in E\) or \((y, x) \in E\), then by Remark 3, \(M\) cannot be parallel and hence, \(M\) is a 1-cluster and therefore, has to be added to the set of 1-clusters \(\mathcal{C}_i^1\).

The next lemma shows that Algorithm 6 correctly recognizes, whether \(\mathcal{C}^1(\text{rev}(g))\) is a hierarchy or not. However, due to efficiency and also simplicity of the algorithm, we deal here with multisets, \(\mathcal{C} = \bigcup_{i \in \text{rev}(g)} \mathcal{C}_i^1\). The symbol \(\bigcup\) denotes the multiset-union of sets where the multiplicity of an element \(M\) in \(\mathcal{C}\) is given by the number of sets that contain \(M\).
Algorithm 1 Recognition of unp 2-Structures
1: INPUT: 2-structure $g = (V, \Upsilon, \varphi)$ with $n = |V|$ vertices and $k = |\Upsilon|$ labels;
2: $g' = (V, \Upsilon', \varphi') \leftarrow$ Compute rev$(g)$
3: if $|\Upsilon'| > 2(n - 1)$ then
4: return FALSE
5: end if
6: set of digraphs $\mathcal{G} \leftarrow$ Compute monochromatic subgraphs $G_i(g')$
7: multiset of clusters $\mathcal{C} \leftarrow \emptyset$
8: for $G_i$ in $\mathcal{G}$ do
9: set of strong modules $M_{str} \leftarrow$ Compute the modular decomposition of $G_i$ (cf. McConnell and Montgolfier (2005))
10: if Check di-cograph property for $G_i$ with modular decomposition $M_{str}(G_i)$ then
11: $\mathcal{C}_1 \leftarrow$ Get 1-clusters from di-cograph $G_i$ with modular decomposition $M_{str}(G_i)$
12: else
13: return FALSE
14: end if
15: $\mathcal{C} \leftarrow \biguplus_{i \in \Upsilon'} \mathcal{C}_1$
16: end for
17: if $|\mathcal{C}| > 2(n - 1)$ then
18: return FALSE
19: end if
20: if Check hierarchy property for $\mathcal{C}$ then
21: return TRUE
22: else
23: return FALSE
24: end if

Algorithm 2 Compute rev$(g)$
1: INPUT: 2-structure $g = (V, \Upsilon, \varphi)$ with $n = |V|$ vertices;
2: $\Upsilon' \leftarrow \emptyset$
3: for $i = 1, \ldots, n$ do
4: for $j = 1, \ldots, n$ do
5: $\varphi'(i, j) \leftarrow (<\varphi(i, j), \varphi(j, i)>)$
6: $\Upsilon' \leftarrow \Upsilon' \cup \{\varphi'(i, j)>$
7: end for
8: end for
9: return $g' = (V, \Upsilon', \varphi')$

Lemma 12 Given a multiset $\mathcal{C} = \biguplus_{i \in \Upsilon_{rev(g)}} \mathcal{C}_i$ of the 1-clusters of a set of di-cographs $G_i = (V, E_i)$. Algorithm 6 recognizes whether $\mathcal{C}_1 = \bigcup_{i \in \Upsilon_{rev(g)}} \mathcal{C}_i \cup \{v|v \in V\}$ is a hierarchy or not.

Proof: Note that the multiset $\mathcal{C}$ may contain a cluster $C$ more than once, as $C$ can be part of different 1-clusters $\mathcal{C}_i$. Furthermore, $\mathcal{C}$ does not contain the singletons. However, it is easy to see that $\mathcal{C}_1$ is a hierarchy if and only if the singletons are contained in $\mathcal{C}_1$ (which is satisfied by construction), there is a 1-cluster equal to $V$ and for all $C', C'' \in \mathcal{C}$ it holds that $C' \cap C'' \in \{C', C'', \emptyset\}$. The latter is equivalent to the following statement. For all $C', C'' \in \mathcal{C}$, $|C' \cap C''| \leq |C''|$ it holds that either $C' \cap C'' = \emptyset$ or $C' \subseteq C''$. 

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Algorithm 3 Compute monochromatic subgraphs $G_i(g')$

1: INPUT: 2-structure $g' = (V, \mathcal{Y}', \varphi')$ with $n = |V|$ vertices and $k' = |\mathcal{Y}'|$ labels;  
2: define bijection $\mu : \mathcal{Y}' \rightarrow 1 \ldots k'$  
3: $\mathcal{G} \leftarrow \emptyset$  
4: for $i = 1, \ldots, k'$ do  
5: $E_i \leftarrow \emptyset$  
6: $G_i = (V, E_i)$  
7: end for  
8: for $i = 1, \ldots, n$ do  
9: for $j = 1, \ldots, n$ do  
10: $E_{\mu(\varphi'(i,j))} \leftarrow E_{\mu(\varphi'(i,j))} \cup \{(i, j)\}$  
11: end for  
12: end for  
13: return $\mathcal{G} = \bigcup_{i=1}^{k'} \{G_i\}$

Algorithm 4 Check di-co-graph property for $G_i$ with modular decomposition $\mathcal{M}_{\text{str}}(G_i)$

1: INPUT: digraph $G_i$ and its modular decomposition $\mathcal{M}_{\text{str}}(G_i)$;  
2: tree $T \leftarrow$ inclusion tree of $\mathcal{M}_{\text{str}}$  
3: arc counter $e \leftarrow 0$  
4: for $M \in V(T)$ do  
5: $M', M'' \leftarrow$ two arbitrary but distinct child vertices of $M$ in $T$  
6: $x, y \leftarrow$ two arbitrary elements $x \in M'$ and $y \in M''$  
7: if $(x, y) \in E(G_i)$ or $(y, x) \in E(G_i)$ then  
8: if $M$ is not series or order then  
9: return FALSE  
10: end if  
11: increase $e$ by the number of arcs between all elements from distinct children of $M$ in $T$  
12: end if  
13: end if  
14: end for  
15: if $e \neq |E(G_i)|$ then  
16: return FALSE  
17: end if  
18: return TRUE

In Line 4, a list $\mathcal{C}_{\leq}$ is created with all $C \in \mathcal{C}$ being sorted ascending by cardinality. Hence, $\mathcal{C}_{\leq}(\mathcal{C}_{\leq}(\mathcal{C}_{\leq}))$ is one of the largest clusters. In Line 6, it is checked if this largest cluster contains all elements from the ground set $V = \{1, \ldots, n\}$. If not then $V \notin \mathcal{C}$ and therefore $\mathcal{C}^1$ is not a hierarchy. In Lines 9 to 14, lists $\mathcal{L}_i$ are created, containing all clusters $C \in \mathcal{C}$ with $i \in C$. The relative order of clusters in $\mathcal{L}_i$ is identical to the relative order of clusters in $\mathcal{C}_{\leq}$. In each iteration of Lines 16 to 28 the smallest cluster $L$ is selected among all remaining clusters $\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} \mathcal{L}_i$. For each $i \in L$ obviously $L \in \mathcal{L}_i$. If $s, t \in L$ then it is checked if $\mathcal{L}_s = \mathcal{L}_t$. This can be done, as $\mathcal{L}_s$ and $\mathcal{L}_t$ have the same relative order of clusters. If $s, t \in L$ and $\mathcal{L}_s = \mathcal{L}_t$ then it follows that $s, t \in L'$ for all $L' \in \mathcal{L}_s \cup \mathcal{L}_t$. As this holds for all pairwise distinct $s, t \in L$ and $|L| \leq |L'|$ for all $L' \in \bigcup_{i=1}^{n} \mathcal{L}_i$ it follows that $L \subseteq L'$ for all $L' \in \bigcup_{i=1}^{n} \mathcal{L}_i$ with $L \cap L' \neq \emptyset$. As $\mathcal{L}_s = \mathcal{L}_t$ it is sufficient to keep only one of the lists, e.g., $\mathcal{L}_s$ (Line 24). Finally, $L$ is removed from $\mathcal{L}_s$ (Line 27) and the while-loop is repeated with the next smallest cluster. $\square$

We now show the correctness of Algorithm 1.

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Algorithm 5 Get 1-clusters from di-cograph $G_i$ with modular decomposition $M_{str}(G_i)$

1: **INPUT:** di-cograph $G_i$ and its modular decomposition $M_{str}(G_i)$;
2: $\mathcal{C}_1 \leftarrow \emptyset$
3: tree $T \leftarrow$ inclusion tree of $M_{str}(G_i)$
4: for $M \in V(T)$ do
5: $M', M'' \leftarrow$ two arbitrary but distinct child vertices of $M$ in $T$
6: $x, y \leftarrow$ two arbitrary elements $x \in M'$ and $y \in M''$
7: if $(x, y) \in E(G_i)$ or $(y, x) \in E(G_i)$ then
8: $\mathcal{C}_1 \leftarrow \mathcal{C}_1 \cup M$
9: end if
10: end for
11: return $\mathcal{C}_1$

Algorithm 6 Check hierarchy property for $\mathcal{C}$

1: **INPUT:** multiset of clusters $\mathcal{C}$, on the ground set $\{1, \ldots, n\}$;
2: for each element in $\mathcal{C}$ compute a unique identifier $id : \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \{1, \ldots, |\mathcal{C}|\}$
3: for each element in $\mathcal{C}$ compute its bit string representation $bsr : \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$ with $bsr(C_j)[i] = 1$ iff $i \in C_j, C_j \in \mathcal{C}$
4: sorted list $\mathcal{C}_\leq \leftarrow$ sort $\mathcal{C}$ ascending by cardinality of its elements
5: for $i=1, \ldots, n$ do
6: if $bsr(\mathcal{C}_\leq(|\mathcal{C}_\leq|))[i] \neq 1$ then
7: return $FALSE$
8: end if
9: $\mathcal{L}_i \leftarrow \mathcal{C}_\leq$
10: for $C_j \in \mathcal{L}_j$ do
11: if $bsr(C_j)[i] = 0$ then
12: remove $C_j$ from $\mathcal{L}_i$
13: end if
14: end for
15: end for
16: while $\mathcal{L}_1 \neq \emptyset$ do
17: $s \leftarrow$ the smallest $i$ such that $|\mathcal{L}_s(1)| \leq |\mathcal{L}_j(1)|$ for all $i \neq j$
18: $L \leftarrow \mathcal{L}_s(1)$
19: for $t \in L$ with $t \neq s, \mathcal{L}_t \neq \emptyset$ do
20: for $r = 1, \ldots, |\mathcal{L}_t|$ do
21: if $id(\mathcal{L}_t(r)) \neq id(\mathcal{L}_i(r))$ then
22: return $FALSE$
23: end if
24: $\mathcal{L}_t \leftarrow \emptyset$
25: end for
26: end for
27: remove $L$ from $\mathcal{L}_s$
28: end while
29: return $TRUE$

Lemma 13 Given a 2-structure $g = (V, \mathcal{T}, \varphi)$, Algorithm 1 recognizes whether $g$ is unp or not.

Proof In fact, Algorithm 1 recognizes, for the reversible refinement $rev(g)$, whether all monochromatic subgraphs $G_i(rev(g))$ are di-cographs and whether in addition the 1-clusters in $\mathcal{C}_1(rev(g))$ form a hierarchy. By Theorem 6, this suffices to decide whether $g$ is unp or not.
It is easy to see that Algorithm 2 computes the reversible refinement of \( g \) by means of Definition 9 and Remark 1 with \( \varphi_{\text{rev}(g)}(e) = (\varphi_{g}(e), \varphi_{g}^{-1}(e)) \). Hence, in Line 2 the reversible refinement \( g' = \text{rev}(g) \) of \( g \) is computed.

If \( \text{rev}(g) \) is \( \text{unp} \), then there exists a tree-representation \( (T_{\text{rev}(g)}, t_{\text{rev}(g)}) \). As \( T_{\text{rev}(g)} \) has at most \( n-1 \) inner vertices there can be at most \( n-1 \) different labels \( t_{\text{rev}(g)}(\text{lca}(x, y)) = (i, j) \), each composed of at most two distinct labels \( i, j \in \Y_{\text{rev}(g)}. \) Assuming that all labels are pairwise distinct leads to \( 2(n-1) \leq |\Y_{\text{rev}(g)}| \) distinct labels in total. Hence, if \( |T_{\text{rev}(g)}| > 2(n-1) \) then \( \text{rev}(g) \) is not \( \text{unp} \). It is easy to see that, given the 2-structure \( \text{rev}(g) \), Algorithm 3 (which is called in Line 6) computes the respective monochromatic subgraphs \( G_i(\text{rev}(g)) \). By Lemma 10, for each \( G_i \) Algorithm 4 (which is called in Line 10) checks whether \( G_i \) is a di-cograph or not, and by Lemma 11 in Line 11 the corresponding 1-clusters \( C_{\text{unp}}^1 \) are returned. In Line 15, the 1-clusters \( \mathcal{C}_{\text{unp}}^1 \) of all di-cographs \( G_i \) are collectively stored in the multiset \( \mathcal{C} \), without removing duplicated entries.

Since \( T_{\text{rev}(g)} \) has at most most \( n-1 \) inner vertices and since each 1-cluster appears in at most 2 distinct cotrees whenever \( \text{rev}(g) \) is \( \text{unp} \) (cf. Lemma 7), we can conclude that \( \mathcal{C} \) can contain at most \( 2(n-1) \) elements. Hence, if \( |\mathcal{C}| > 2(n-1) \) then \( \text{rev}(g) \) is not \( \text{unp} \), and therefore, \( g \) is not \( \text{unp} \) (Line 17).

Finally, by Lemma 12 it is checked in Line 20, if the set of 1-clusters \( \mathcal{C}^1 \) is a hierarchy. Hence, \( \text{TRUE} \) is returned if \( g \) is \( \text{unp} \) and \( \text{FALSE} \) else. \( \square \)

Before we show the time complexity of Algorithm 1 we first show the time complexity of the two subroutines Algorithms 4 and 6.

**Lemma 14** For a given digraph \( G = (V, E) \) and its modular decomposition \( \M_{\text{str}} \), Algorithm 4 runs in time \( O(n + m) \) with \( n = |V| \) and \( m = |E| \).

**Proof** By Lemma 9 computing the inclusion tree \( T \) of \( \M_{\text{str}}(G) \) in Line 2 takes time \( O(n) \) as there are at most \( O(n) \) strong modules. In the for-loop from Line 4 to 14 for each strong module \( M \) it is checked, whether or not there is an arc between two arbitrary vertices from two distinct children of \( M \) in \( T \). This has to be done for all \( O(n) \) strong modules \( M \in \M_{\text{str}}(G) \). Only if there is an arc it is further checked whether \( M \) is series or order. This can be done by checking all the arcs between vertices \( x \) and \( y \) from distinct children of \( M \) in \( T \). In both cases (\( M \) being series and order) there is at least one arc \((x, y) \in E\) or \((y, x) \in E\), between any pair of vertices \( x \) and \( y \). Furthermore, as only vertices from distinct children of \( M \) in \( T \) are considered, every pair \((x, y) \) is checked at most once once. Hence, the number of all pairwise checks is bounded by \( O(m) \). For the same reason, counting the arcs (Line 11) can also be done in \( O(m) \) time. This accounts to a running time of \( O(n + m) \) in total. \( \square \)

**Lemma 15** For a given multiset of clusters \( \mathcal{C} \) of size \( N \) on the ground set \( \{1, \ldots, n\} \), Algorithm 6 runs in time \( O(nN) \).

**Proof** Computing the identifier \( id \) for each cluster in \( \mathcal{C} \) (Line 2) takes time \( O(N) \), computing the bit string representation for each cluster in \( \mathcal{C} \) (Line 3) takes time \( O(nN) \), and sorting the clusters of \( \mathcal{C} \) (Line 4) using bucket sort with \( n \) buckets takes time \( O(N + n) \). The for-loop from Line 5 to Line 15 runs in time \( O(nN) \), as there are \( O(N) \) clusters in \( \mathcal{C} \) which possibly have to be removed in Line 12 from the respective

\( \square \) Springer
lists $\mathcal{L}_i$. The while-loop (Lines 16 to 28) is executed at most $O(N)$ times, as in each iteration one of the $N$ clusters is removed from all the lists $\mathcal{L}_i$ that contain it (Line 24 and 27). The for-loop from Line 19 to Line 26 is executed for all of the $O(n)$ many elements $t \in L$. However, as in each execution of the inner loop (Lines 20 to 25) one of the $n$ lists $\mathcal{L}_i$ gets empty, Lines 20 to 25 are executed $n$ times in total and each execution takes $O(N)$ time. Hence, the time that Algorithm 6 spends on computing Lines 20 to 25 is bounded by $O(nN)$. This sums up to a total running time of $O(nN)$ for Algorithm 6.

Finally, we show the time complexity of $O(n^2)$ for Algorithm 1.

Lemma 16 For a given 2-structure $g = (V, \mathcal{Y}, \varphi)$ with $n = |V|$, Algorithm 1 runs in time $O(n^2)$.

Proof Computing the reversible refinement of $g$ in Line 2 takes $O(n^2)$ time using Algorithm 2. In Line 3 it is assured that there are at most $2(n-1)$ labels and hence $N = |\mathcal{Y}_{rev(g)}| < 2(n-1)$ monochromatic subgraphs $G_i(rev(g))$. Computing those $O(n)$ subgraphs at once using Algorithm 3 in Line 6 takes $O(n^2)$ time. The for-loop from Line 8 to Line 16 runs for each of the $O(n)$ many digraphs $G_i(rev(g))$. As already stated, there is an $O(n+m)$ time complexity algorithm for computing the modular decomposition of a digraph (Line 9) given in McConnell and Montgolfier (2005). By Lemma 14, Algorithm 4 (Line 10) has also a time complexity of $O(n+m)$. Algorithm 5 (Line 11) has a time complexity of $O(n)$, as by Lemma 9 constructing the inclusion tree within Line 3 of Algorithm 5 takes time $O(n)$ as there are at most $O(n)$ strong modules within $G_i$. Hence, all procedures within the for-loop (Lines 8 to 16) have a time complexity of $O(n+m)$. Precisely, the time complexity is $O(n+m_i)$ with $m_i = |E(G_i(rev(g)))|$ the number of arcs of $G_i(rev(g))$. The total running time of the for-loop therefore is $O(n+m_1) + O(n+m_2) + \ldots + O(n+m_N) = O(n^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{N} m_i)$. As each arc $(x, y)$ occurs in exactly one of the digraphs $G_i(rev(g))$ it follows that $\sum_{i=1}^{N} m_i = n(n-1)$, which leads to a running time of $O(n^2)$ for Line 8 to 16. Line 17 assures that the multiset $\mathcal{C}$ contains at most $2(n-1)$ clusters. Hence, $|\mathcal{C}| \in O(n)$. Therefore, and by Lemma 15 Algorithm 6 runs in time $O(n^2)$. This leads to a time complexity of $O(n^2)$ for Algorithm 1.

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