Toric Ideals of Phylogenetic Invariants

Bernd Sturmfels and Seth Sullivant
Department of Mathematics, University of California, Berkeley

Abstract

Statistical models of evolution are algebraic varieties in the space of joint probability distributions on the leaf colorations of a phylogenetic tree. The phylogenetic invariants of a model are the polynomials which vanish on the variety. Several widely used models for biological sequences have transition matrices that can be diagonalized by means of the Fourier transform of an abelian group. Their phylogenetic invariants form a toric ideal in the Fourier coordinates. We determine generators and Gröbner bases for these toric ideals. For the Jukes-Cantor and Kimura models on a binary tree, our Gröbner bases consist of certain explicitly constructed polynomials of degree at most four.

1 Introduction

Cavender-Felsenstein [3] and Lake [13] introduced phylogenetic invariants as an algebraic tool for reconstructing evolutionary trees from biological sequence data. Such invariants exist for any tree-based Markov model, and they uniquely characterize that model. While partial lists of invariants have been described for various models [5, 7, 10, 15], the literature still conveys a sense that phylogenetic invariants and algebraic algorithms for computing them are not useful for any problem whose size is of biological interest. In his book Inferring Phylogenies, Felsenstein sums this up from the perspective of molecular biology as follows: ... invariants are worth attention, not for what they do for us now, but what they might lead to in the future... [6, page 390]. A similar tone is expressed in the final section of the book Phylogenetics by Semple and Steel [16, page 212].

But the future is closer than readers of these two excellent books might surmise. For the general Markov model, considerable progress has been made in the recent work of Allman and Rhodes [1, 2]. A determinantal representation of the Allman-Rhodes ideal in the binary case has been proposed in [14, §5]. The present paper is not concerned with the general Markov model but with a class of special models, namely, the group-based models [16, §8.10]. The problem of finding invariants for these models was studied by several authors including Evans-Speed [4], Evans-Zhou [5], Steel-Fu [17] and Székely-Steel-Erdös [20]. The class of group-based models includes the Jukes-Cantor model, for either binary or DNA sequences, and the Kimura models, with two or three parameters.

The contribution of this paper is an explicit description of generators and a Gröbner basis for the ideal of phylogenetic invariants of such a model. The key idea can be summarized as follows.
Theorem 1. For any group based model on a phylogenetic tree $T$, the prime ideal of phylogenetic invariants is generated by the invariants of the local submodels around each interior node of $T$, together with the quadrics which encode conditional independence statements along the splits of $T$.

The precise form of this theorem and its proof are given in Section 4. We continue by reviewing the evolutionary models to be considered here. Let $T$ be a rooted tree with $m$ leaves. Let $V(T)$ denote the set of nodes of $T$. To each node $v \in V(T)$ we associate a $k$-ary random variable $X_v$. In biology, the most common values of $k$ are 2, 4, and 20. Consider the probability $P(X_v = i)$ that $X_v$ is in state $i$. For DNA sequences this probability represents the proportion of characters in the sequence at $v$ which is a particular nucleotide, namely, $A$, $G$, $C$ or $T$.

The relationship between the random variables $X_v$ is encoded by the structure of the tree. Let $\pi$ be a distribution of the random variable $X_r$ at the root node $r$. For each node $v \in V(T) \setminus \{r\}$, let $a(v)$ be the unique parent of $v$. The transition from $a(v)$ to $v$ is given by a $k \times k$-matrix $A^{(v)}$ of probabilities. Then the probability distribution at each node is computed recursively by the rule

$$P(X_v = j) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} A^{(v)}_{ij} \cdot P(X_{a(v)} = i).$$

This rule induces a joint distribution on all the random variables $X_v$. We label the leaves of $T$ by $1, 2, \ldots, m$, and we abbreviate the marginal distribution on the variables at the leaves as follows:

$$p_{i_1 i_2 \ldots i_m} = P(X_1 = i_1, X_2 = i_2, \ldots, X_m = i_m).$$

In biological applications, one estimates (some of) these $k^m$ probabilities from $m$ aligned sequences on $k$ letters, and the aim is to reconstruct the tree. The root distribution $\pi$ and the transition matrices $A^{(v)}$ are typically unknown. In the general Markov model of [1], each matrix entry $A^{(v)}_{ij}$ is an independent model parameter. For the group-based models, to be studied in this paper, the number of model parameters is smaller because some of the entries of $A^{(v)}$ are assumed to coincide.

A phylogenetic invariant of the model is a polynomial in the leaf probabilities $p_{i_1 i_2 \ldots i_m}$ which vanishes for every choice of model parameters. The set of these polynomials forms a prime ideal in the polynomial ring over the unknowns $p_{i_1 i_2 \ldots i_m}$. Our objective is to compute this ideal as explicitly as possible. In the language of algebraic geometry, we seek to determine the variety parameterized by the rational map induced by the joint distribution on the leaves. The study of such varieties for various statistical models is a central theme in the emerging field of algebraic statistics [9, 12].

In this paper, we determine the ideal of invariants for models whose structure is governed by an abelian group. Four models used in computational biology have this structure: the Jukes-Cantor models and the Kimura models. Theorem 2 below summarizes our results for these models.

The Jukes-Cantor binary model on two letters ($k = 2$) is the model with transition matrices

$$A^{(v)} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 - a_v & a_v \\ a_v & 1 - a_v \end{pmatrix},$$

where $a_v$ is the probability of making a transition between the states along the edge from $a(v)$ to $v$. 
The Kimura 3 parameter model on $k = 4$ letters (for DNA sequences) has the transition matrices

$$A^{(v)} = \begin{pmatrix}
1 - a_v - b_v - c_v & a_v & b_v & c_v \\
\frac{c_v}{a_v} & 1 - a_v - b_v - c_v & c_v & b_v \\
\frac{b_v}{c_v} & \frac{c_v}{b_v} & 1 - a_v - b_v - c_v & a_v \\
\frac{a_v}{c_v} & \frac{b_v}{a_v} & \frac{c_v}{b_v} & 1 - a_v - b_v - c_v
\end{pmatrix}$$

where $a_v$ is the probability of a transition and $b_v$ and $c_v$ are the transversion probabilities. The Kimura 2-parameter model arises as the subvariety defined by taking $b_v = c_v$ for all $v$ and the Jukes-Cantor DNA model is the subvariety defined by setting $a_v = b_v = c_v$ for all $v$.

Evans and Speed [4] introduced a linear change of coordinates which diagonalizes these models. In Section 2 we review their Fourier transform at the level of generality proposed by Székely-Steel-Erdős [20]. The key idea is to label the states of the random variables $\{X_i\}$ by a finite abelian group (e.g. $\mathbb{Z}_2 = \{0, 1\}$ or $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2 = \{A, G, C, T\}$) in such a way that the probability of transitioning from $g_i$ to $g_j$ depends only on the difference $g_i - g_j$. Replacing the original coordinates $p_{r_1 \ldots r_m}$ by Fourier coordinates $q_{r_1 \ldots r_m}$, the ideal of phylogenetic invariants becomes a toric ideal. Recall (e.g. from [19]) that a toric ideal is a prime ideal generated by differences of monomials.

As an example consider the Jukes-Cantor binary model for $m = 4$. The Fourier coordinates are

$$q_{ijkl} = \sum_{r=0}^{1} \sum_{s=0}^{1} \sum_{t=0}^{1} \sum_{u=0}^{1} (-1)^{ir+jt+kt+lu} \cdot p_{rstu}, \quad \text{where } i, j, k, l \in \mathbb{Z}_2. \quad (3)$$

If $T$ is the balanced binary tree of height two, then this model has the parametric representation

$$q_{ijkl} \mapsto a_i \cdot b_j \cdot c_k \cdot d_l \cdot e_{i+j} \cdot f_{k+l} \cdot g_{i+j+k+l}. \quad (4)$$

Disregarding the trivial invariant $q_{0000} - 1$, the toric ideal of phylogenetic invariants is generated by 20 linearly independent quadrics. These arise as the $2 \times 2$-minors of the four $2 \times 4$-matrices

$$\begin{pmatrix}
q_{00:0} & q_{00:1} & q_{01:0} & q_{01:1} \\
q_{11:0} & q_{11:1} & q_{1i:0} & q_{1i:1}
\end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \begin{pmatrix}
q_{00:0} & q_{00:1} & q_{01:0} & q_{01:1} \\
q_{10:0} & q_{10:1} & q_{1i:0} & q_{1i:1}
\end{pmatrix}$$

for $i = 0, 1$. \quad (5)

Moreover, these quadrics form a Gröbner basis for a suitable term order. This generalizes as follows:

**Theorem 2.** Let $T$ be an arbitrary binary rooted tree. Modulo the trivial invariant $q_{00...0} - 1$,

(a) the ideal of the Jukes-Cantor binary model is generated by polynomials of degree 2,

(b) the ideal of the Jukes-Cantor DNA model is generated by polynomials of degree 1, 2 and 3,

(c) the ideal of the Kimura 2-parameter model is generated by polynomials of degree 1, 2, 3 and 4,

(d) the ideal of the Kimura 3-parameter model is generated by polynomials of degree 2, 3 and 4.

Each of these generating sets has an explicit combinatorial description and it is a Gröbner basis.
The Fourier transform gives a linear change of coordinates in the parameter space, Example 3. The Jukes-Cantor binary model for the rooted claw tree after these coordinate changes, our model is given by the monomial parameterization:

\[ p = \frac{1}{2}(r_0 + r_1), \quad \pi_1 = \frac{1}{2}(r_0 - r_1), \quad \alpha_0 = \frac{1}{2}(a_0 + a_1), \quad \alpha_1 = \frac{1}{2}(a_0 - a_1), \]
\[ \beta_0 = \frac{1}{2}(b_0 + b_1), \quad \beta_1 = \frac{1}{2}(b_0 - b_1), \quad \gamma_0 = \frac{1}{2}(c_0 + c_1), \quad \gamma_1 = \frac{1}{2}(c_0 - c_1), \]

and it simultaneously gives a linear change of coordinates in the probability space:

\[ p_{ijk} = \sum_{r=0}^{1} \sum_{s=0}^{1} \sum_{t=0}^{1} (-1)^{ir+js+kt} \cdot q_{rst}. \quad (6) \]

After these coordinate changes, our model is given by the monomial parameterization:

\[ q_{000} = r_0a_0b_0c_0, \quad q_{001} = r_1a_0b_0c_1, \quad q_{010} = r_1a_0b_1c_0, \quad q_{011} = r_0a_0b_1c_1, \]
\[ q_{100} = r_1a_1b_0c_0, \quad q_{101} = r_0a_1b_0c_1, \quad q_{110} = r_0a_1b_1c_0, \quad q_{111} = r_1a_1b_1c_1. \]
The toric ideal of algebraic relations among these monomials has the following Gröbner basis:

\[ \{ q_001q_{110} - q_000q_{111}, q_010q_{101} - q_000q_{111}, q_100q_{011} - q_000q_{111} \}. \]

The inverse to (6) now translates each of the three binomials into a quadric with eight terms, e.g.,

\[ p_{001}p_{100} + p_{001}p_{100} - p_{000}p_{011} - p_{100}p_{111} - p_{101}p_{110} + p_{010}p_{111} - p_{011}p_{110}. \]

These three eight-term quadrics generate the ideal of phylogenetic invariants for this model.

Recall from (1) and (2) that the joint distribution of a Markov model on a tree \( T \) has the form

\[ p_{g_1,\ldots,g_m} = \sum \pi_{g_r} \prod_{v \in V(T) \setminus \{r\}} A_{g_{a(v)},g_v}^{(v)}, \]

where the sum is over all states of the interior nodes of the tree \( T \). Here we are concerned with the case when the states of the random variables are the elements of a finite additive abelian group \( G \), and the transition matrix entry \( A_{g_{a(v)},g_v}^{(v)} \) depends only on the difference of \( g_{a(v)} \) and \( g_v \) in \( G \). We denote this entry by \( f^{(v)}(g_{a(v)} - g_v) \). Hence group based models of evolution have the form

\[ p_{g_1,\ldots,g_m} = p(g_1,\ldots,g_m) = \sum \pi_{g_r} \prod_{v \in V(T) \setminus \{r\}} f^{(v)}(g_{a(v)} - g_v). \]

The right hand side is a polynomial of degree equal to the number of edges of \( T \) plus one, and the number of terms of this polynomial is \( k \) raised to the number of interior nodes of \( T \). Our aim is to perform a linear change of coordinates so that this big polynomial becomes a monomial.

The dual group to \( G \) (or character group of \( G \)) is the group of all group homomorphisms from \( G \) into the multiplicative group of complex numbers. It is denoted by \( \hat{G} = \text{Hom}(G, \mathbb{C}^\times) \). The elements of \( \hat{G} \) are the characters of \( G \) and a typical element of \( \hat{G} \) is denoted by the letter \( \chi \).

Given any function \( f : G \to \mathbb{C} \), the Fourier transform \( \hat{f} \) is the function \( \hat{f} : \hat{G} \to \mathbb{C} \) defined by

\[ \hat{f}(\chi) = \sum_{g \in G} \chi(g)f(g). \]

Given two functions \( f_1 \) and \( f_2 \) on \( G \), their convolution \( f_1 * f_2 \) is the new function defined by

\[ (f_1 * f_2)(g) = \sum_{h \in G} f_1(h)f_2(g - h). \]

The following facts about the dual group and the Fourier transform are well-known.

**Lemma 4.** Let \( f_1, f_2 \) be functions from a finite abelian group \( G \) to \( \mathbb{C} \) and \( 1 \) the constant function.

(a) The group \( G \) and the dual group \( \hat{G} \) are isomorphic as abstract groups.

(b) Fourier transform turns convolution into multiplication, i.e., \( \hat{f_1} \ast \hat{f_2} = \hat{f_1} \cdot \hat{f_2} \), and
The main theorem about discrete Fourier analysis and group based models is that the Fourier transform of the joint distribution has a parameterization that can be written in product form. Hence, a phylogenetic model with group structure is a toric variety. Note that if the abelian group for the group model is any group other than $\mathbb{Z}_2^l$, then the coordinate transformation requires the complex numbers. Before we state the general result, we illustrate the idea with a small example.

Example 5 (Fourier transform for the simplest trees). Let $T = K_{1,m}$ be the tree whose only nodes are the $m$ leaves and the root. The joint probability of a group based model is given by

$$p(g_1, g_2, \ldots, g_m) = \sum_{h \in G} \pi(h) \prod_{i=1}^m f^{(i)}(h - g_i).$$

(9)

We will take the Fourier transform of this probability density with respect to the group $G$. To do this, we replace the root distribution $\pi: G \to \mathbb{R}$ by a new function $\tilde{\pi}: G^m \to \mathbb{R}$ as follows:

$$\tilde{\pi}(h_1, \ldots, h_m) = \begin{cases} \pi(h_1) & \text{if } h_1 = h_2 = \cdots = h_m \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Then we have

$$p(g_1, g_2, \ldots, g_m) = \sum_{(h_1, \ldots, h_m) \in G^m} \tilde{\pi}(h_1, \ldots, h_m) \prod_{i=1}^m f^{(i)}(h_i - g_i).$$

Thus $p$ is the convolution of two functions on $G^m$. Taking the Fourier transform yields

$$q(\chi_1, \ldots, \chi_m) = \hat{\tilde{\pi}}(\chi_1, \ldots, \chi_m) \prod_{i=1}^m \hat{f}^{(i)}(\chi_i)$$

by the convolution formula and the independence of the $f^{(i)}$ in the Fourier transform. Furthermore,

$$\hat{\tilde{\pi}}(\chi_1, \ldots, \chi_m) = \sum_{(g_1, \ldots, g_m) \in G^m} \langle (\chi_1, \ldots, \chi_m), (g_1, \ldots, g_m) \rangle \cdot \tilde{\pi}(g_1, \ldots, g_m)$$

$$= \sum_{g \in G} \langle \chi_1 \chi_2 \cdots \chi_m, g \rangle \cdot \pi(g) = \hat{\pi}(\chi_1 \chi_2 \cdots \chi_m),$$

and hence

$$q(\chi_1, \ldots, \chi_m) = \hat{\pi}(\chi_1 \cdots \chi_m) \prod_{i=1}^m \hat{f}^{(i)}(\chi_i)$$

(10)

Example 5 is the base case in the induction needed to prove the following general result.

Theorem 6. (Evans-Speed) Let $p(g_1, \ldots, g_m)$ be the joint distribution of a group based model for the phylogenetic tree $T$, parametrized as in (8). Then the Fourier transform of $p$ has the form

$$q(\chi_1, \ldots, \chi_m) = \hat{\pi}(\chi_1 \cdots \chi_m) \prod_{v \in V(T) \setminus \{r\}} \hat{f}^{(v)}(\prod_{l \in \Lambda(v)} \chi_l)$$

(11)

where $\Lambda(v)$ is the set of leaves which have $v$ as a common ancestor.
We refer to [4] and [20] for the proof of Theorem 6. The transformation from (9) to (10) is a special case of the transformation from (8) to (11). Formula (8) is a polynomial parameterization of the evolutionary model, and formula (11) is a monomial parameterization of the same model. Since $G$ and $\hat{G}$ are isomorphic groups, we can rewrite the monomial parameterization (11) as follows:

\[ q_{g_1, \ldots, g_m} \mapsto \hat{\pi}(g_1 + \cdots + g_m) \prod_{v \in V(T) \setminus \{r\}} \hat{f}^{(v)}(\sum_{l \in \Lambda(v)} g_l). \]  

(12)

We regard this formula as a monomial map from a polynomial ring in $|G|^m$ unknowns $q_{g_1, \ldots, g_m} = q(g_1, \ldots, g_m)$ to the polynomial ring in the (not necessarily distinct) unknowns $\hat{\pi}(g)$ and $\hat{f}^{(v)}(g)$, which are indexed by nodes of $T$ and elements of $G$. Our aim is to determine the kernel of this map.

3 Edge Labelings and Linear Invariants

In this section, we determine all linear forms $q_{g_1, \ldots, g_m} - q_{h_1, \ldots, h_m}$ in the kernel of our monomial map (12), and we set up a convenient coordinate system for working modulo these linear invariants. Our construction is inspired by the work of Steel and Fu [17] on classifying the linear invariants.

We first add an extra edge at the root of $T$ to achieve a new tree with $m + 1$ leaves. To keep notation simple, we denote the new tree also by $T$. Let $E(T)$ be its set of edges. We next associate a set of parameters to each $e \in E(T)$ by “moving” the parameters from a given node to the edge directly above it. Given an assignment of group elements $(g_1, \ldots, g_m)$ to the $m$ leaves of $T$, we get, for each edge $e$ of $T$ an assignment of a group element $g(e)$ as follows:

\[ g(e) = \sum_{v \in \Lambda(e)} g_v. \]

Here $\Lambda(e)$ is the set of leaves below $e$. With this notation, we have eliminated the special distinction of the root distribution, and our monomial parameterization (12) can be rewritten as

\[ q_{g_1 \ldots g_m} \mapsto \prod_{e \in E(T)} f^{(e)}(g(e)). \]  

(13)

If the unknowns $f^{(e)}(g)$ are all distinct then there are no linear invariants. This happens in the Jukes-Cantor binary model and in the Kimura 3-parameter model. However, in general, we allow the possibility that $f^{(e)}(g) = f^{(e)}(g')$ for distinct group elements $g, g' \in G$. To deal with this issue, we introduce labeling functions. Let $L$ be a finite set of labels. A labeling function is any function

\[ L : G \to L \]

such that $f^{(e)}(g) = f^{(e)}(g')$ if and only if $L(g) = L(g')$. For the time being, we will assume that the labeling function associated to each edge of the tree is the same for every edge. However, we will show later that this assumption can be dropped in some special instances.
Given such a labeling function \( L \) we can now write our monomial parameterization \(^{13}\) in a standard commutative algebra notation. For every edge \( e \) of the tree \( T \) and every label \( l \in \mathcal{L} \) we introduce an indeterminate \( a_{l}^{(e)} \). These indeterminates are now distinct. The polynomial ring in these unknowns with complex coefficients is denoted \( \mathbb{C}[a_{l}^{(e)}] \). Similarly, \( \mathbb{C}[q_{g_{1}...g_{m}}] \) is the polynomial ring generated by the Fourier coordinates. We wish to study the ring homomorphism

\[
\mathbb{C}[q_{g_{1}...g_{m}}] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}[a_{l}^{(e)}], \quad q_{g_{1}...g_{m}} \mapsto \prod_{e \in E(T)} a_{L(g(e))}^{(e)},
\]

(14)

The kernel of this map is the toric ideal of phylogenetic invariants in the Fourier transform of the probabilities. We denote this ideal by \( I_{T,L} \) suppressing dependence on the group \( G \). From this description, we immediately can deduce the structure of the linear phylogenetic invariants.

**Proposition 7 (Linear Invariants).** The vector space of linear polynomials in the ideal \( I_{T,L} \) is spanned by all differences \( q_{g_{1}...g_{m}} - q_{h_{1}...h_{m}} \) where \( L(g(e)) = L(h(e)) \) for all edges \( e \) of \( T \).

**Proof.** Since \( I_{T,L} \) is a toric ideal, it has a vector space basis consisting of binomials \( q_{u} - q_{v} \). In particular, the subspace of linear polynomials in \( I_{T,L} \) is spanned by differences of unknowns \( q_{g_{1}...g_{m}} - q_{h_{1}...h_{m}} \). Such a difference lies in \( I_{T,L} \) if and only if \( \prod_{e \in E(T)} a_{L(g(e))}^{(e)} = \prod_{e \in E(T)} a_{L(h(e))}^{(e)} \). Since the unknowns \( a_{l}^{(e)} \) are all distinct, this happens if and only if \( L(g(e)) = \sum_{v \in \Lambda(e)} g_{v} \) coincides with \( L(h(e)) = \sum_{v \in \Lambda(e)} h_{v} \) for all \( e \in T \).

We now introduce coordinates for the polynomial ring \( \mathbb{C}[q_{g_{1}...g_{m}}] \) modulo the ideal generated by the linear invariants in \( I_{T,L} \). The labeling function \( L : G \rightarrow \mathcal{L} \) induces the function

\[
L^{T} : G^{m} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}^{E(T)}, \quad (g_{1}, \ldots, g_{m}) \mapsto (L(g(e)))_{e \in E(T)},
\]

(15)

Let \( \text{im}(L^{T}) \) denote the image of this map. We call \( \text{im}(L^{T}) \) the set of consistent labelings of the tree \( T \). For each \( \lambda \in \text{im}(L^{T}) \) we introduce a new unknown \( q_{\lambda} \). These generate a new polynomial ring.

**Proposition 7** implies that our monomial map \(^{13}\) is the composition of the map

\[
\mathbb{C}[q_{g_{1}...g_{m}} : (g_{1}, \ldots, g_{m}) \in G^{m}] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}[q_{\lambda} : \lambda \in \text{im}(L^{T})], \quad q_{g_{1}...g_{m}} \mapsto q_{L^{T}(g_{1}, \ldots, g_{m})},
\]

and the following monomial map which has no linear forms in its kernel:

\[
\mathbb{C}[q_{\lambda} : \lambda \in \text{im}(L^{T})] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}[a_{l}^{(e)} : e \in E(T), l \in \mathcal{L}], \quad q_{\lambda} \mapsto \prod_{e \in E(T)} a_{\lambda(e)}^{(e)},
\]

(16)

Our objective is to determine the kernel of the monomial map \(^{16}\). This kernel is the toric ideal \( I_{T,L} \) modulo linear invariants. We use the same symbol \( I_{T,L} \) to denote the kernel of \(^{16}\).

Our main result, which will be stated and proved in the next section, is valid only for a certain subclass of labeling functions. These will be called the friendly labeling functions. Fortunately, all labeling functions which arise naturally in statistical models of evolution are friendly.
Definition 8. Fix a labeling function \( L : G \to \mathcal{L} \) on the group \( G \). For \( m \geq 3 \) consider the set
\[
Z = \{(g_1, \ldots, g_m) \in G^m : \sum_{i=1}^{m-1} g_i = g_m \}.
\]
Consider the induced map \( \bar{L} : Z \subset G^m \to \mathcal{L}^m \) and denote by \( \pi_i \) the projection \( \pi_i : G^m \to G \) onto the \( i \)-th coordinate. The function \( L \) is called \( m \)-friendly if, for every \( l = (l_1, \ldots, l_m) \in \bar{L}(Z) \subset \mathcal{L}^m \),
\[
\pi_i(\bar{L}^{-1}(l)) = L^{-1}(l_i) \quad \text{for all } i = 1, \ldots, m.
\]
(17)
Note that the inclusion “\( \subset \)" always holds. But for most labeling functions it will be strict. Note that \( Z \) is the set of all allowable assignments of group elements to the edges of the unrooted tree \( T = K_{1,m} \). The definition of \( m \)-friendly guarantees that if a particular labeling \( \lambda \) comes from an assignment of group elements, then any choice of a group element to one particular edge \( e \) which is consistent with \( \lambda \) at \( e \) can be extended to an assignment that is consistent with \( \lambda \) on all the edge of \( K_{1,m} \).

Example 9. Let \( G = \mathbb{Z}_4 \) and \( \mathcal{L} = \{0, 1, 2\} \). Then the labeling function \( L \) defined by
\[
L(0) = 0, \ L(1) = 1, \ L(2) = L(3) = 2
\]
is not 3-friendly because \( L^{-1}(2) = \{2, 3\} \) strictly contains \( \pi_3(\bar{L}^{-1}((1, 1, 2))) = \pi_3(\{(1, 1, 2)\}) = \{2\} \).

The next example looks similar, but it is, in fact, much more friendly.

Example 10 (The Kimura 2-parameter labeling function). Let \( G = \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2 \) and \( \mathcal{L} = \{0, 1, 2\} \). The Kimura 2-parameter model corresponds to the labeling function \( L \) defined by
\[
L((0, 0)) = 0, \ L((0, 1)) = 1, \ L((1, 0)) = L((1, 1)) = 2.
\]
It can be checked by an explicit calculation that \( L \) is 3-friendly.

We say that a labeling function \( L : G \to \mathcal{L} \) is friendly if it is \( m \)-friendly for all \( m \geq 3 \).

Lemma 11. Labeling functions that are 3-friendly are friendly.

Proof. We will show that a labeling function that is 3-friendly and \( m \)-friendly is also \((m + 1)\)-friendly. Let \( l \in \bar{L}(Z) \). We will show that \( \pi_{m+1}(\bar{L}^{-1}(l)) = L^{-1}(l_{m+1}) \). Let \( l' = (L(g_1 + g_2), L(g_3), \ldots, L(g_{m+1})) \) where \( (g_1, \ldots, g_{m+1}) \in L^{-1}(l) \). Since \( L \) is \( m \)-friendly, for every \( h_{m+1} \in L^{-1}(l_{m+1}) \) there is an assignment of group elements \( h' = (h'_2, h_3, \ldots, h_{m+1}) \). Furthermore, \( L \) is 3-friendly so there is some choice of group assignment \((h_1, h_2, h'_2)\) that realizes the labeling \((L(g_1), L(g_2), L(g_1 + g_2))\). But then \( h = (h_1, h_2, h_3, \ldots, h_{m+1}) \) has \( \pi_{m+1}(h) = h_{m+1} \) as desired. \( \square \)

Lemma 11 says that checking whether a labeling is friendly can be done simply with a finite computation. The point of studying friendly labelings is that consistent labelings “glue” together. We will now make this statement explicit. Let \( e \) be an interior edge of the tree \( T \). Denote by \( T_{e,-} \) the tree obtained from \( T \) by taking the edge \( e \) and all the edges below \( e \). Denote by \( T_{e,+} \) the tree obtained from \( T \) be taking the edge \( e \) and all edges not in \( T_{e,-} \). Then we have the following
Lemma 12. Let $\lambda^-$ and $\lambda^+$ be consistent labelings of $T_{e,-}$ and $T_{e,+}$ respectively, i.e. $\lambda^- \in \text{im}(L_{T_{e,-}})$ and $\lambda^+ \in \text{im}(L_{T_{e,+}})$. Suppose furthermore that $\lambda^-(e) = \lambda^+(e)$. Then the labeling $\lambda$ of $T$ obtained from $\lambda^-$ and $\lambda^+$ by labeling edges of $T$ appropriately is consistent, i.e., $\lambda \in \text{im}(L_T)$.

Proof. Since $\lambda^+$ and $\lambda^-$ are consistent, there is some assignment of group elements to the edges of $T_{e,+}$ and $T_{e,-}$ that comes from $(L_{T_{e,+}})^{-1}(\text{im}(L_{T_{e,+}}))$ and $(L_{T_{e,-}})^{-1}(\text{im}(L_{T_{e,-}}))$. We will now construct an assignment of group elements of the edges of $T$ that belongs to $(L_T)^{-1}(\text{im}(L_T))$. First take any assignment which is compatible with $\lambda^+$ on $T_{e,+}$. This assigns some group element to the edge $e$. Let $v$ be the nonleaf vertex of $T_{e,-}$ incident to $e$. Since $L$ is friendly, and $\lambda^-$ is consistent, there exists an assignment of group elements to all the other edges incident to $v$ which is compatible with $\lambda^-(e)$ and is locally consistent. By induction on the number of interior vertices of $T_{e,-}$ we construct a globally consistent assignment of group elements to the edges of $T$.

Lemma 12 is the main technical result upon which all our combinatorial constructions of generators and Gröbner bases rest. Indeed, as we will see, it implies that phylogenetic invariants of group based models with friendly labelings are only determined by local features of the tree. We conclude this section with some examples of friendly labeling functions.

Example 13. Let $G$ be any finite abelian group. Any function $L : G \to L$ that is injective is friendly for trivial reasons (the two sets in (17) are singletons and hence equal). For similar reasons, if $L$ consists of elements of a group and $L$ is a group homomorphism then $L$ is friendly.

Example 14 (The Jukes-Cantor labeling function). Let $L = \{0, 1\}$ and $L$ the function

$$L(g) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } g = 0 \\ 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Then $L$ is friendly for any group $G$. It corresponds to the Jukes-Cantor models when $G = \mathbb{Z}_2^r$.

Example 15. The Kimura 2-parameter labeling function of Example 10 is friendly by Lemma 11.

4 The Main Result

We will now state and prove our main result concerning the ideal of phylogenetic invariants of any group based model with friendly labeling function $L$. We consider the toric ideal $I_{T,L}$ which is the kernel of the monomial map (16), and we construct minimal generators and a Gröbner basis for $I_{T,L}$ out of purely local information in the tree. This Gröbner basis is a list of binomials $q^u - q^v$ in the unknowns $q_i$ which are indexed by the consistent labelings $l \in \text{im}(L_T)$. In order to transform the binomials into polynomials in the probabilities $p_{g_1,\ldots,g_m}$, one must reverse the transformations described in Sections 2 and 3. In Section 6, we will characterize the consistent labelings and examine the relevant transformations for the four standard models of Theorem 2. Throughout this section, we assume that $L : G \to L$ is an arbitrary friendly labeling on a finite abelian group $G$. 

For ease of notation, we write the monomials in the unknowns \( q \) using the tableau notation. This means that any monomial \( M = q_1 q_2 \cdots q_d \) is written as a matrix of format \( d \times |E(T)| \):

\[
M = \begin{bmatrix}
  l_1 \\
  l_2 \\
  \vdots \\
  l_d
\end{bmatrix}.
\]

Such a matrix with entries in \( L \) is called a tableau. The columns of a tableau are indexed by the edges of the tree \( T \) under consideration. The number of rows of \( M \) is the degree \( d \) of the monomial.

Two tableaux represent the same monomial if they are related by a permutation of rows.

Binomials \( q^u - q^v \) in the unknowns \( q \) are represented as formal differences \( M - M' \) of tableaux.

Remark 16. Let \( M \) and \( M' \) be two tableaux of format \( d \times |E(T)| \) with entries in \( L \). Then the binomial \( M - M' \) lies in the ideal \( I_{T,L} \) if and only if the following two conditions hold:

(a) each row of \( M \) and each row of \( M' \) is a consistent labeling for the tree \( T \), and

(b) for each edge \( e \in E(T) \), the multiset of labels in column \( e \) is the same in \( M \) and in \( M' \).

We are now ready to construct the binomials that will constitute the Gröbner bases of \( I_{T,L} \). Let \( e \) be an interior edge of \( T \), and let \( T_{e,-} \) and \( T_{e,+} \) be the two subtrees as in Lemma 12. After relabeling the edges of \( T \), every tableau \( M \) can be written in three groups of columns,

\[
M = \begin{bmatrix}
  l_1 & m & n_1 \\
  l_2 & m & n_2 \\
  \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\
  l_d & m_d & n_d
\end{bmatrix},
\]

where the left columns (with entries \( l_i \)) correspond to the edges in \( T_{e,-}\{e\} \), the middle column corresponds to the edge \( e \), and the right columns correspond to the edges in \( T_{e,+}\{e\} \).

Lemma 17. Let \( (l_1, m, n_1) \) and \( (l_2, m, n_2) \) be consistent labelings of \( T \). Then the quadratic binomial

\[
g = \begin{bmatrix}
  l_1 & m & n_1 \\
  l_2 & m & n_2
\end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix}
  l_1 & m & n_2 \\
  l_2 & m & n_1
\end{bmatrix}
\]

lies in the toric ideal \( I_{T,L} \).

Proof. The labelings \( (l_1, m) \) and \( (l_2, m) \) are consistent for the subtree \( T_{e,-} \), and the labelings \( (m, n_1) \) and \( (m, n_2) \) are consistent for the subtree \( T_{e,+} \). By Lemma 12, the labelings \( (l_1, m, n_2) \) and \( (l_2, m, n_1) \) are consistent for the big tree \( T \). Remark 16 implies that \( g \in I_{T,L} \). \( \square \)

Definition 18. Denote by \( \text{Quad}(e,T) \) the set of all the quadratic binomials \( g \) from Lemma 17.
Consider now an arbitrary binomial in the ideal $I_{T,L}$. It has the form

$$h = \begin{bmatrix} l_1 & m_1 & n_1 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ l_d & m_d & n_d \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} l'_1 & m'_1 & n'_1 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ l'_d & m'_d & n'_d \end{bmatrix}$$

where the $m_i$ and $m'_i$ are single labels corresponding to the edge $e$, the $l_i$ and $l'_i$ are consistent labelings of $T_{e,-}\setminus\{e\}$, and the $n_i$ and $n'_i$ are consistent labelings of $T_{e,+}\setminus\{e\}$. Note that since the binomial $h$ belongs to $I_{T,f}$, the multiset of labels which appears on the edge $e$ must be the same for both terms of $h$. Hence, after rearranging the rows of the tableau we may write

$$h = \begin{bmatrix} l_1 & m_1 & n_1 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ l_d & m_d & n_d \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} l'_1 & m'_1 & n'_1 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ l'_d & m'_d & n'_d \end{bmatrix}.$$

Every binomial in $I_{T,L}$ restricts to a binomial in $I_{T_{e,-},L}$ and to a binomial in $I_{T_{e,+},L}$. Namely, if $h$ is the binomial above, then the following binomial lies in $I_{T_{e,-},L}$:

$$h|_{T_{e,-}} = \begin{bmatrix} l_1 & m_1 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ l_d & m_d \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} l'_1 & m'_1 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ l'_d & m'_d \end{bmatrix}.$$  

Similarly, deleting the left columns yields a binomial $h|_{T_{e,+}}$ in $I_{T_{e,+},L}$. We now state a constructive converse, from which binomials in $I_{T_{e,-},L}$ and $I_{T_{e,+},L}$ can be extended to binomials in $I_{T,L}$.

**Lemma 19.** Let $g$ be a binomial in $I_{T_{e,-},L}$ written in tableau notation as

$$g = \begin{bmatrix} l_1 & m_1 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ l_d & m_d \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} l'_1 & m'_1 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ l'_d & m'_d \end{bmatrix}.$$  

Let $n_1, \ldots, n_d$ be sequences of labels such that each $(m_i, n_i)$ is a consistent labeling of $T_{e,+}$. Then

$$g^* = \begin{bmatrix} l_1 & m_1 & n_1 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ l_d & m_d & n_d \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} l'_1 & m'_1 & n'_1 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ l'_d & m'_d & n'_d \end{bmatrix}$$

is a binomial in $I_{T,L}$.

**Proof.** Restricting the two tableaux to the tree $T_{e,-}$ and $T_{e,+}$ shows that the multiset of labels which appears on each edge are the same. In fact, we have

$$g^*|_{T_{e,-}} = g \quad \text{and} \quad g^*|_{T_{e,+}} = 0.$$

We must check that each of $(l_i, m_i, n_i)$ and $(l'_i, m_i, n_i)$ is a consistent labeling on $T$. Lemma 12 implies this because $(l_i, m_i)$ and $(l'_i, m_i)$ are consistent on $T_{e,-}$ and $(m_i, n_i)$ is consistent on $T_{e,+}$. □
Definition 20. Let \( \mathcal{B} \) be a collection of binomials in \( I_{T_{e,-},L} \). We define \( \text{Ext}(\mathcal{B} \rightarrow T) \) to be the set of all binomials \( g' \) where \( g \) ranges over \( \mathcal{B} \) and \( n_1, \ldots, n_d \) ranges over of sequences of labels as in Lemma 19. Similarly, we define \( \text{Ext}(T \leftarrow \mathcal{B}) \) for any collection of binomials \( \mathcal{B} \) in \( I_{T_{e,+},L} \).

The first main result of this paper is the following theorem.

Theorem 21. Let \( T \) be any tree with a friendly labeling \( L: G \rightarrow L \) and let \( e \) be any interior edge of \( T \). Suppose that \( \mathcal{B}_- \) is a binomial generating set for \( I_{T_{e,-},L} \) and let \( \mathcal{B}_+ \) be a binomial generating set for \( I_{T_{e,+},L} \). Then the following set of binomials generates the toric ideal \( I_{T,L} \):

\[
\text{Ext}(\mathcal{B}_- \rightarrow T) \cup \text{Ext}(T \leftarrow \mathcal{B}_+) \cup \text{Quad}(e,T). \tag{18}
\]

Moreover, if \( \mathcal{B}_- \) is a Gröbner basis for \( I_{T_{e,-},L} \) and \( \mathcal{B}_+ \) is a Gröbner basis for \( I_{T_{e,+},L} \), then there exists a term order on \( \mathbb{C}[q_\lambda : \lambda \in \text{im}(L^T)] \) such that the set in (18) is a Gröbner basis for \( I_{T,L} \).

Proof. We first prove the second statement concerning Gröbner bases. To this end we need to specify the term orders. Let \( \prec_\lambda \) be any term order on \( \mathbb{C}[q_\lambda : \lambda \in \text{im}(L^{T_{e,-}})] \) such that \( \mathcal{B}_- \) is a Gröbner basis for \( I_{T_{e,-},L} \) and \( \prec_\lambda \) any term order on \( \mathbb{C}[q_\lambda : \lambda \in \text{im}(L^{T_{e,+}})] \) such that \( \mathcal{B}_+ \) is a Gröbner basis for \( I_{T_{e,+},L} \). Finally, let us define a reverse lexicographic term order \( \prec_Q \) which makes \( \text{Quad}(e,T) \) a Gröbner basis for the ideal it generates. We do this by first taking any total order \( \prec_1 \) on the labels of the edge \( e \), then taking total orders \( \prec_2 \) on \( \text{im}(L^{T_{e,-}}) \) and \( \prec_3 \) on \( \text{im}(L^{T_{e,+}}) \) which are refinements of \( \prec_1 \). The revlex term order \( \prec_Q \) is obtained by declaring \( q_{\lambda_1} \prec_Q q_{\lambda_2} \) if and only if

\[
\lambda_1^- \prec_2 \lambda_2^- \quad \text{or} \quad (\lambda_1^- = \lambda_2^- \quad \text{and} \quad \lambda_1^+ \prec_3 \lambda_2^+).
\]

We construct a product term order \( \prec_T \) on the polynomial ring \( \mathbb{C}[q_\lambda : \lambda \in \text{im}(L^T)] \) as follows. If \( M \) and \( M' \) are monomials (tableaux with columns indexed by \( E(T) \)) then \( M \prec_T M' \) if and only if

1. \( M|_{T_{e,-}} \prec_\lambda M'|_{T_{e,-}} \), or
2. \( M|_{T_{e,-}} = M'|_{T_{e,-}} \) and \( M|_{T_{e,+}} \prec_\lambda M'|_{T_{e,+}} \), or
3. \( M|_{T_{e,-}} = M'|_{T_{e,-}} \) and \( M|_{T_{e,+}} = M'|_{T_{e,+}} \) and \( M \prec_Q M' \).

Our goal is to show that the set (18) is a Gröbner basis for \( I_{T,L} \) with respect to the term order \( \prec_T \), i.e., the leading term of every binomial \( g \) in \( I_{T,L} \) is divisible by the leading term of some binomial from (18). To prove this, we consider an arbitrary binomial in our toric ideal:

\[
g = M' - M = \begin{bmatrix} l_1 & m_1 & n_1 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ l_d & m_d & n_d \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} l'_1 & m_1 & n'_1 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ l'_d & m_d & n'_d \end{bmatrix} \in I_{T,L}.
\]

Suppose that \( M' \) is the leading term of \( g \). There are precisely three different ways this can happen, according to the three cases in the definition of \( \prec_T \). Each case will be analyzed separately.
Case 1: Suppose that \( M|_{T_{e,-}} \prec_\sim M'|_{T_{e,-}} \). Then \( g|_{T_{e,-}} \) is a nonzero binomial in \( I_{T_{e,-}} \) and \( M'|_{T_{e,-}} \) is its leading term. Since \( \mathcal{B}_- \) is a Gröbner basis there exists a binomial \( h = N' - N \in \mathcal{B}_- \) whose leading term \( N' \) divides \( M' \). Upon reordering the rows of \( M' \) and \( M \), we may suppose that

\[
h = N' - N = \begin{bmatrix}
l_1 & m_1 & n_1 \\
\vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\
l_i & m_i & n_i \\
\end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix}
l''_1 & m_1 & 1 \\
\vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\
l''_i & m_i & 1 \\
\end{bmatrix}
\]

for some \( i \leq d \).

Here \( l_1, \ldots, l_i \) and \( m_1, \ldots, m_i \) are the same labels that appear in \( M' \). Now we consider the binomial \( h^* \in \text{Ext}(\mathcal{B}_- \to T) \) obtained by appending the labels \( n_1, \ldots, n_i \):

\[
h^* = (N')^* - N^* = \begin{bmatrix}
l_1 & m_1 & n_1 \\
\vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\
l_i & m_i & n_i \\
\end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix}
l''_1 & m_1 & 1 \\
\vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\
l''_i & m_i & 1 \\
\end{bmatrix}
\]

The tableau \((N')^*\) is the leading term of \( h^* \) with respect to \( \prec_\sim \), and \((N')^*\) divides \( M' \) as desired.

Case 2: Suppose \( M|_{T_{e,-}} = M'|_{T_{e,-}} \) and \( M|_{T_{e,+}} \prec_\sim M'|_{T_{e,+}} \). Then by the same argument as in Case 1, we deduce that there is a binomial \( h^* \in \text{Ext}(T \leftarrow B_+) \) whose leading term divides \( M' \).

Case 3: Suppose that \( M|_{T_{e,-}} = M'|_{T_{e,-}} \) and \( M|_{T_{e,+}} = M'|_{T_{e,+}} \) and \( M \prec_Q M' \). The only way that this could happen is if there exists a pair of rows in \( M' \), \((l_1, m, n_1)\) and \((l_2, m, n_2)\), such that \((l_1, m) \prec_1 (l_2, m)\) and \((m, n_1) \succ_2 (m, n_2)\). But then the binomial \( h \in \text{Quad}(e, T) \) given by

\[
h = N' - N = \begin{bmatrix}
l_1 & m & n_1 \\
l_2 & m & n_2 \\
\end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix}
l''_1 & m & 1 \\
l''_2 & m & 1 \\
\end{bmatrix}
\]

has leading term \( N' \), and this leading term divides the leading term \( M' \) of the binomial \( g \).

These three cases together establish the second statement: the set \( \{13\} \) is a Gröbner basis for \( I_{T,L} \). Furthermore, for any Gröbner bases \( \mathcal{B}_- \) and \( \mathcal{B}_+ \), we have the equality of ideals

\[
I_{T,L} = \langle \text{Ext}(\mathcal{B}_- \to T) \rangle + \langle \text{Ext}(T \leftarrow \mathcal{B}_+) \rangle + \langle \text{Quad}(e, T) \rangle.
\]

In this equation, we may replace \( \text{Ext}(\mathcal{B}_- \to T) \) with any set that generates \( \langle \text{Ext}(\mathcal{B}_- \to T) \rangle \). But \( \text{Ext}(\mathcal{C}_- \to T) \) generates \( \langle \text{Ext}(\mathcal{B}_- \to T) \rangle \) whenever \( \mathcal{C}_- \) is a generating set for \( I_{T_{e,-,L}} \). A similar statement holds for \( I_{T_{e,+}} \). This completes the proof of the first statement in Theorem 21. \( \square \)

Theorem 1 in the Introduction says that all invariants are determined by local features of the tree. We shall now state this result more precisely and derive it as a corollary from Theorem 21.

Let \( v \) be an interior vertex of the tree \( T \), and let \( e_1, \ldots, e_c \) the edges of \( T \) incident to \( v \). Denote by \( T_{v,e_i} \) the subtree of \( T_{e,-} \) or \( T_{e,+} \) which has \( v \) as a leaf. Given a particular label \( l \) for the edge \( e_i \), denote by \( \text{im}(L_{T_{v,e_i}}) \) the set of all consistent labelings of \( T_{v,e_i} \) which has the label of \( e_i \) equal to \( l \). Denote by \( T_v \) the subtree of \( T \) with only interior node \( v \) and edges \( e_1, \ldots, e_c \). Note that \( T_v \) is the claw tree \( K_{1,c} \). It has no interior edges. These definitions are illustrated in Figure 1.
Lemma 22. Let $g$ be any binomial in the ideal of the claw tree $T_v$, written in tableau notation as

$$g = \begin{bmatrix} l_1^1 & \cdots & l_1^c \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ l_d^1 & \cdots & l_d^c \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} m_1^1 & \cdots & m_1^c \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ m_d^1 & \cdots & m_d^c \end{bmatrix} \in I_{T_v,L}.$$ 

For each row $i$ and column $j$, consider labelings $L^i_j \in \text{im}(L^{T_v,e_j})$ and $M^i_j \in \text{im}(L^{T_v,e_j})$ with the property that the multiset $\{L^i_j\}_{j=1}^d$ is equal to the multiset $\{M^i_j\}_{j=1}^d$. Then the binomial

$$g^* = \begin{bmatrix} L_1^1 & \cdots & L_1^c \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ L_d^1 & \cdots & L_d^c \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} M_1^1 & \cdots & M_1^c \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ M_d^1 & \cdots & M_d^c \end{bmatrix},$$

belongs to toric ideal $I_{T,L}$ of the big tree $T$.

Proof. Since $L$ is friendly, each row in the tableaux is a consistent labeling. Restricting to each subtree yields the same multiset of labels. Hence the binomial $g^*$ is in $I_{T,L}$. □

Definition 23. Let $B$ be any set of binomials in the (claw tree) ideal $I_{T_v,L}$. Denote by $\text{Ext}(B \to T)$ the set of all binomials $g^*$ gotten by applying the construction in Lemma 22 to the binomials $g \in B$.

Theorem 24 (Local Structure of Invariants). Let $T$ be a tree with a friendly labeling $L : G \to L$. For each interior vertex $v$ of the tree $T$, let $B_v$ denote a binomial generating set for $I_{T_v,L}$. Then the following set of binomials generates the ideal $I_{T,L}$ of all phylogenetic invariants of $T$:

$$\bigcup_v \text{Ext}(B_v \to T) \cup \bigcup_e \text{Quad}(e,T).$$

Figure 1: The subtrees around a vertex $v$ of the tree $T$
The first union is over the interior vertices of $T$. The second union is over the interior edges of $T$.

**Proof.** We proceed by induction on the number of interior vertices of $T$. If there is only one interior vertex then the statement is a tautology. Suppose there are $m \geq 2$ interior vertices. There exists an interior vertex $v$ which is incident to only one other interior vertex $u$. Let $e$ be the edge connecting $v$ and $u$. The tree $T_{e,-}$ has $m - 1$ interior vertices and the tree $T_{e,+}$ has only one interior vertex. By induction, the corresponding ideals have generating sets that come in the form of (19). Applying Theorem 21 yields a generating set for $I_{T,L}$ which is larger than the set of binomials listed in (19). We claim that every binomial in the set difference (18) \ (19) belongs to the ideal generated by (19). Indeed, each such binomial differs from a binomial in (19) by swapping some of the labels in the columns corresponding to the tree $T_{v,e}$. Such a swap can occur only when the edge label at $e$ itself is the same for each row of the tableau involved in the swap. But such a swap (or sequence of such swaps) can be realized by adding multiples of the quadratic binomials in $\text{Quad}(e,T)$.

## 5 The Toric Algebra of Group Multiplication

The results of the previous section reduce the computation of our toric ideals of phylogenetic invariants to the local case, namely, when the tree has only one interior node. Such a tree is a claw tree $K_{1,n}$. The corresponding toric ideal $I_{G,n}$ depends only on two parameters: a finite (additive) abelian group $G$ and a positive integer $n$. This construction furnishes a new family of numerical invariants for any group $G$, and it may hence be of independent interest to algebraists.

Throughout this section we assume that the labeling function $L$ is the identity map on a finite group $G$. Our object of interest is the following monomial map between polynomial rings:

$$
\mathbb{C}[q_{g_1, \ldots, g_n} : g_1, \ldots, g_n \in G] \to \mathbb{C}[a^{(i)}_g : g \in G, i = 1, \ldots, n+1]
$$

$$
q_{g_1, \ldots, g_n} \mapsto a^{(1)}_{g_1} a^{(2)}_{g_2} \cdots a^{(n)}_{g_n} a_{g_1+g_2+\cdots+g_n}
$$

Let $I_{G,n}$ denote the kernel of this ring homomorphism. This is the ideal of phylogenetic invariants in the Fourier coordinates for the claw tree $K_{1,n}$. Note that the definition of the toric ideal $I_{G,n}$ makes sense for any group $G$, even if $G$ is not abelian. It encodes the group multiplication table. The following example is the basic building block for the Kimura 3-parameter model on a binary tree.

**Example 25.** Let $n = 2$ and $G = \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$. We identify the group elements with the nucleotides:

$$
A = (0, 0), \ G = (0, 1), \ C = (1, 0), \ T = (1, 1).
$$

Then $I_{\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2, 2}$ is an ideal in $\mathbb{C}[q_{AA}, q_{AG}, q_{AC}, q_{AT}, q_{GA}, q_{GG}, q_{GC}, q_{GT}, q_{CA}, q_{CG}, q_{CC}, q_{CT}, q_{TA}, q_{TG}, q_{TC}, q_{TT}]$. It is the kernel of the monomial map $q_{g_1, g_2} \mapsto x_{g_1} y_{g_2} z_{g_1+g_2}$. More specifically,

$$
q_{AA} \mapsto x_{AY} a z_A, \ \ldots, \ q_{AT} \mapsto x_{AY} z_T, \ \ldots, \ q_{GC} \mapsto x_{GY} c z_T, \ \ldots, \ q_{TT} \mapsto x_{TY} y_T z_A.
$$
The toric ideal $I_{\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2, 2}$ is minimally generated by the 16 cubics
\[ qAAqCTqTqG - qACqCAqTqT, qAAqGTqTC - qACqGAqTT, qACqCTqTA - qATqCAqTC, qACqGGqTT - qAAqGCqTT, qAGqCTqCTqT, qAGqGTqCAqT, qATqGAqCC - qAAqGCqCAq, qAGqCCqTT - qGGqCAqTqT, qGGqCTqTqT, qGTqCGqTqT - qCAqCGqTqT, qGTqCCqTA - qGCqCAqTT \]
and the 18 quartics
\[ qAAqATqTqTqTqT - qAGqCAqTAqT, qAAqGCqCTqTqT - qAGqCAqCCqTT, qAAqGTqCCqTT - qACqGGqCAqTT, qAAqGTqCTqTA - qATqGAqCAqTT, qACqATqCAAG - qAAqACqGCqGT, qACqGAqCCqTA - qAAqGCqCAqTC, qACqGAqCTqTqT - qAGqGTqCAqT, qACqCTqCGqTT - qATqGCqCAqTT, qACqATqCAqCC - qAAqACqGCqCT, qACqGGqCCqTT - qACqGCqCGqTT, qAGqGCqCTqTqT - qATqGAqCGqTT, qAGqGGqCAqT - qAAqGAqCGqTT, qATqGGqCCqTT - qAAqGCqCGqTT, qATqGGqCTqTqT - qAGqGTqCGqTT, qATqGTqCCqCTqT - qACqGCqCTqT, qCCqCTqTAqT - qCAqCGqCTqTT, qGAqGTqCGqCC - qGGqGCqCAqCT, qGGqGTqTAqT - qGAqGCqCGqTT. \]
Geometrically, these binomials define a 11-dimensional toric variety of degree 96 in $\mathbb{P}^{15}$. 

Let $\phi(G, n)$ denote the largest degree of any minimal generator of the toric ideal $I_{G, n}$. We computed these numbers for some small groups $G$ and small values of $n$ using the toric algebra software 4ti2 written by the Hemmeckes [11]. The results are displayed in the following table:

| $G$   | $n$ | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | $\phi(G, n)$ |
|-------|-----|---|---|---|---|---|--------------|
| $\mathbb{Z}_2$ | 2   | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0            |
| $\mathbb{Z}_2$ | 3   | 3 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2            |
| $\mathbb{Z}_2$ | 4   | 30| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2            |
| $\mathbb{Z}_2$ | 5   | 195| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2            |
| $\mathbb{Z}_2$ | 6   | 1050| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2            |
| $\mathbb{Z}_3$ | 2   | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3            |
| $\mathbb{Z}_3$ | 3   | 54| 24| 0 | 0 | 0 | 3            |
| $\mathbb{Z}_4$ | 2   | 0 | 16| 6 | 0 | 0 | 4            |
| $\mathbb{Z}_4$ | 3   | 344| 256| 96| 0 | 0 | 4            |
| $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$ | 2   | 0 | 16| 18| 0 | 0 | 4            |
| $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$ | 3   | 360| 261| 480| 0 | 0 | 4            |
| $\mathbb{Z}_5$ | 2   | 0 | 50| 50| 0 | 0 | 4            |
| $\mathbb{Z}_6$ | 2   | 0 | 116| 675| 216| 126 | 6          |
| $\mathbb{Z}_7$ | 2   | 0 | 245| 1764| 1764 | 294 | 6          |
The entry in the row labeled \((G, n)\) and column labeled \(i\) is the number of minimal generators of \(I_{G, n}\) having degree \(i\). For the two element group \(Z_2\) we can prove the following general result:

**Theorem 26.** The toric ideal \(I_{Z_2,n}\) is generated in degree two. In symbols, \(\phi(Z_2, n) = 2\) for \(n \geq 3\).

**Proof.** Following the discussion in the previous section, the monomials in the polynomial ring \(\mathbb{C}[g_1, \ldots, g_n : g_i \in \{0, 1\}]\) are identified with tableaux. An \(m \times (n + 1)\)-tableau \(T\) with entries in \(\{0, 1\}\) represents a monomial if and only if all row sums of \(T\) are even. The ideal \(I_{Z_2,n}\) is spanned by all binomials \(T - T'\) where \(T\) and \(T'\) are such tableaux which have the same column sums.

Consider any binomial \(T - T'\) in the toric ideal \(I_{Z_2,n}\). We can pick any two columns \(i\) and \(j\) and switch each 0 in these two columns to a 1 and vice versa. The resulting tableaux still have even row sums and their difference is in \(I_{Z_2,n}\). We will use this symmetry in the next paragraph.

Suppose that \(I_{Z_2,n}\) is not generated by quadrics. Then the ideal contains a binomial \(T - T'\) of degree \(m \geq 3\) such that \(T\) and \(T'\) cannot be connected by moves involving only two rows at a time. Such a move corresponds to adding a multiple of a quadratic binomial. We may suppose that \(m\) is the smallest degree of any such monomial. After permuting columns and applying the symmetry described above, we may assume that

\[
T - T' = \begin{bmatrix}
0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\
\vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
\vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
1 & \cdots & 1 & 1 & \cdots & 1
\end{bmatrix}.
\]

We may further assume that the number \(k\) of 1’s in the first row of \(T'\) is less than or equal to the number of disagreements between \(T\) and \(T'\) in any other row. The pair \((m, k)\) is thus assumed to be lexicographically minimal among all such counterexample binomials.

Consider the two rightmost columns. If there exists a pair \(00\) in these columns in tableau \(T'\), then we can swap the pair \(00\) with the pair \(11\) in the first row and get a counterexample with smaller value of \(m\). Likewise, if there exists a pair \(11\) in these columns in tableau \(T\) then we can swap the pair \(11\) with the pair \(00\) in the first row and get a counterexample with smaller value of \(m\). We thus conclude the sum of the two last columns in \(T'\) is at least \(m + 1\). Likewise, the sum of the two last columns in \(T\) is at most \(m - 1\). This is a contradiction to the hypothesis that \(T\) and \(T'\) have the same column sums. This completes the proof that \(I_{Z_2,n}\) is generated by quadrics. \(\square\)

Theorem 26 and our computational results suggest the following general conjecture.

**Conjecture 27.** For any finite abelian group \(G\) and any positive integer \(n\) we have \(\phi(G, n) \leq |G|\).

If this conjecture holds then it is natural to define the **phylogenetic complexity** of a group \(G\) as

\[
\phi(G) := \max_{n \geq 2} \phi(G, n).
\]

The phylogenetic complexity \(\phi(G)\) is an intrinsic invariant of the group \(G\). It makes perfect sense for arbitrary groups not just abelian groups. However, if \(G\) is not abelian then the phylogenetic complexity can exceed the group order. Using the software **4ti2**, we found that \(\phi(S_3, 2) \geq 8\) for the symmetric group on three letters. It would be interesting to study the group-theoretic meaning of this invariant. For applications in computational biology, however, it is the four-element group of Example 26 which deserves the most interest. We state this as a separate conjecture.

**Conjecture 28.** The phylogenetic complexity \(\phi(G)\) of the group \(G = Z_2 \times Z_2\) is four.
6 Evolutionary Models for DNA Sequences

Theorem 2 follows as a corollary from Theorem 24 and the computational results for \( n = 2 \) in the table of Section 5. In this section we make this explicit by deriving the quadratic and cubic generators of the ideal of phylogenetic invariants for the Jukes-Cantor models. The analogous derivation for the Kimura models will be sketched. Our discussion is aimed at computational biologists who wish to work with phylogenetic invariants for evolution of DNA sequences.

6.1 Specifying the root distribution

The theory developed so far was based on the unrealistic assumption that the structure of the root distribution is constrained by the group structure associated to the transition matrices. In practice, the root distribution will be either the uniform distribution or an arbitrary distribution. In the first case there are no parameters associated to the root and in the second case there are \(|G| - 1\) parameters associated to the root. In either case, the setup differs slightly from that of Sections 3 and 4. In this subsection we explain why all the results including Theorem 21 still apply.

First we will suppose that, in our model, the root distribution \( \pi \) is the uniform distribution. Let \( e_r \) be the corresponding root edge. By Lemma 4, the Fourier transform of the uniform distribution \( \pi \) is the function that is equal to one when evaluated at the identity and zero otherwise. This means that any Fourier coordinate \( q_{g_1 \ldots g_m} \) with \( g_1 + \cdots + g_m \neq 0 \) is an invariant.

**Proposition 29 (More Linear Invariants).** Fix \( \pi \) to be the uniform distribution. Then the ideal \( I_{T,L} \) consists of the previous invariants together with all linear invariants \( q_{g_1 \ldots g_m} \) with \( g(e_r) \neq 0 \).

**Proof.** All of the theory we have developed for friendly labelings still applies in this setting. The only change is to restrict the set of labels to the subset \( \text{im}(L^T, 0) \). This is the subset of those labels \( \lambda \in \text{im}(L^T) \) which satisfy \( \lambda(e_r) = 0 \). Notice that Theorem 21 still applies since the Ext operator is well-defined on sets of labels that are globally restricted on one or more edge.

Now consider the case where \( \pi \) is allowed to be arbitrary in the model under consideration. In this case we are not restricting the type of labels \( \lambda \) which may appear, but we are in fact increasing the number and type of such labels. The labeling function \( L \) is no longer the same on each edge of the graph: it is equal to the identity function on the edge corresponding to the root distribution. Such a mixed labeling function need not be friendly everywhere. However, it is still friendly around any vertex that is not incident to the root edge. More generally, if we consider any edge of the tree \( e \) such that the mixed labeling function \( L \) is friendly on the tree \( T_{e,-} \) and possibly unfriendly on the tree \( T_{e,+} \), Theorem 24 still applies since the binomials constructed by the Ext operator are valid binomials. The crucial result which guaranteed that these polynomials actually contained unknowns which belonged to the ring was Lemma 12. Upon inspection of its proof, however, we see that this only depended on \( L \) being a labeling function that was friendly on half of the tree: \( T_{e,-} \).

In summary, we can apply all of our constructive results in any of the cases of biological interest, regardless of whether or not the root distribution is uniform or arbitrary.
6.2 Jukes-Cantor binary model

Let $T$ be a binary tree with $m$ leaves. The Jukes-Cantor binary model has transition matrices

$$
\begin{pmatrix}
 b_v & a_v \\
 a_v & b_v
\end{pmatrix}.
$$

Here it is not necessary to require $a_v + b_v = 1$. We can regard $(a_v : b_v)$ as homogeneous coordinates.

We shall derive the invariants for this model in the Fourier coordinates. First assume that the root distribution is arbitrary. There are no linear invariants for this model. Add an extra edge at the root to arrive at a new tree $T'$ with $m + 1$ leaves. According to Theorem 24 we need to know the invariants from the tree $K_{1,3}$ at a vertex of $T'$ to determine a generating set for the ideal of all invariants associated to this model. However, a direct calculation shows that there are no invariants associated to $K_{1,3}$ (this is the first line of the table in Section 5). So we only need to consider the quadratic invariants associated to each edge of the tree. We now construct these explicitly.

The Fourier coordinates are $q_{g_1 \ldots g_{m+1}}$ where $g_i \in \mathbb{Z}_2$ and $\sum g_i = 0$. These coordinates can be identified with families of disjoint paths connecting leaves of $T$. Consider any interior edge $e$ of $T$. We relabel the leaves so that the split determined by the edge $e$ separates the leaves $1, 2, \ldots, j$ from the leaves $j + 1, \ldots, m + 1$. We construct two matrices $M_0$ and $M_1$ each having $2^{j-1}$ rows and $2^{m-j}$ columns. The rows of $M_i$ are indexed by the sequences $(g_1, \ldots, g_j)$ such that $g_1 + \cdots + g_j = i$ and the columns are indexed by the sequences $(g_{j+1}, \ldots, g_{m+1})$ such that $g_{j+1} + \cdots + g_{m+1} = i$. The entry of $M_i$ in row $(g_1, \ldots, g_j)$ and column $(g_{j+1}, \ldots, g_{m+1})$ is the indeterminate $q_{g_1 \ldots g_{j+1} \ldots g_{m+1}}$. The set $\text{Quad}(e, T')$ is precisely the set of all $2 \times 2$ minors of the matrices $M_0$ and $M_1$. Our generating set for the ideal of invariants is the union the sets $\text{Quad}(e, T')$ as $e$ ranges over the interior edges.

For the case of the uniform root distribution, we add the invariants $q_{g_1 \ldots g_{m+1}}$ satisfying $g_{m+1} = 1$.

To obtain the ideal of invariants in the original probability coordinates we apply the inverse Fourier transform. In this situation, this is the same as the Hadamard transform which appears frequently in the phylogenetics literature [16]. Each Fourier coordinate gets replaced as follows:

$$
q_{g_1 \ldots g_{m+1}} = \sum_{i_1, \ldots, i_m \in \mathbb{Z}_2} (-1)^{g_1 \cdot i_1 + \cdots + g_{m+1} \cdot i_m} \cdot p_{i_1 \ldots i_m}
$$

**Example 30 (Snowflake).** Consider the tree $T$ on five leaves pictured in Figure 2. After adding the extra edge at the root, we have the snowflake tree $T'$ with six leaves. Associated to each of the three interior edges $e_1$, $e_2$, and $e_3$ there are 56 invariants which are the $2 \times 2$ minors of two $2 \times 8$ matrices. For instance, associated to the edge $e_1$ we get the two $2 \times 8$ matrices

$$
M_0 = \begin{pmatrix}
 q_{000000} & q_{000011} & q_{000101} & q_{000110} & q_{001010} & q_{001100} & q_{001111} \\
 q_{110000} & q_{110011} & q_{111011} & q_{111010} & q_{111100} & q_{111111}
\end{pmatrix},
$$

$$
M_1 = \begin{pmatrix}
 q_{010001} & q_{010010} & q_{010100} & q_{010111} & q_{011011} & q_{011101} & q_{011110} \\
 q_{100001} & q_{100010} & q_{100100} & q_{100111} & q_{101011} & q_{101101} & q_{101110}
\end{pmatrix}.
$$

A probability distribution on five binary random variables comes from the Jukes-Cantor binary model if and only if the $2 \times 2$-minors of all of these six $2 \times 8$ matrices are zero. □
6.3 Jukes-Cantor DNA model

The Jukes-Cantor DNA model has transition matrices that look like

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
  b_v & a_v & a_v & a_v \\
  a_v & b_v & a_v & a_v \\
  a_v & a_v & b_v & a_v \\
  a_v & a_v & a_v & b_v 
\end{pmatrix}.
\]

Here it is not necessary to require \(a_v + b_v = 1\). We can regard \((a_v : b_v)\) as homogeneous coordinates.

This is a group based model for \(G = \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2\) with the Jukes-Cantor labeling function \(L : G \rightarrow \{0, 1\}\) defined in Example 14. As was shown in [17] for binary trees and uniform root distribution, the trees labeled by \(L\) are precisely the subforests of \(T\). There are \(F_{2m-1}\) subforests in a binary tree with \(m\) leaves, where \(F_r\) is the \(r\)-th Fibonacci number. In total, for a tree with \(m\) leaves, there are \(3 \cdot 4^{m-1}\) linear invariants of the form \(q_{g_1...g_m}\) where \(g_1 + g_2 + \cdots + g_m \neq (0, 0)\), and there are \(4^{m-1} - F_{2m-1}\) linear invariants of the form \(q_{g_1...g_m} - q_{h_1...h_m}\) where \(L(g(e)) = L(h(e))\) for all \(e\).

Now we will describe the higher degree invariants. According to Theorem 24 it suffices to understand the invariants which arise for the (unrooted) claw tree \(K_{1,3}\). Modulo the linear invariants, there are only five unknowns. They correspond to the five subforests of \(K_{1,3}\) and they are

\[q_{000}, q_{011}, q_{101}, q_{110}, q_{111}\).

The phylogenetic ideal for this claw tree is generated by a single cubic polynomial

\[I_{K_{1,3},L} = \langle q_{000}q_{111}^2 - q_{011}q_{101}q_{110} \rangle .\]

From this cubic we can deduce the ideal of invariants \(I_{T,L}\) provided \(T\) is a binary tree. We express these invariants in the labeled coordinates \(q_\lambda\) where \(\lambda\) is a sequence in \(\{0, 1\}^{|E(T)|}\) which is
Figure 3: The unrooted balanced binary tree when the root distribution is uniform

a consistent labeling of the tree $T$ according to the Jukes-Cantor labeling function $L$. That is, the 1’s correspond to the edges which appear in the corresponding subforest of $T$.

First, we will describe the quadratic binomials $\text{Quad}(e, T)$ associated to each edge $e$. Form the matrix $M_0$ whose entries are the unknowns $q_\lambda$ with $\lambda(e) = 0$. The matrix $M_0$ has $F_{2m^-} - 3$ rows and $F_{2m^+} - 3$ columns where $m^-$ is the number of leaves on $T_{e,-}$ and $m^+$ is the number of leaves of $T_{e,+}$. The rows (resp. columns) of $M_0$ are indexed by the subforests of $T_{e,-}$ (resp. $T_{e,+}$) whose labeling on $e$ is 0. Similarly, the matrix $M_1$ is a $F_{2m^-} - 2 \times F_{2m^+} - 2$ matrix whose entries are the unknowns $q_\lambda$ with $\lambda(e) = 1$. The set $\text{Quad}(e, T)$ consists of all the $2 \times 2$ minors of $M_0$ and $M_1$.

Now we will describe the cubic invariants associated to each interior vertex $v$ of the tree. Let the three edges emanating from $v$ be $e_1, e_2$ and $e_3$. Recall that $T_{v,e_i}$ is the subtree of $T$ which has $e_i$ as a leaf edge (see Figure 1). The set of consistent labels of $T_{v,e_i}$ that have label $l$ on edge $e_i$ is denoted $\text{im}(L_{T_{v,e_i}}, l)$. This is just the set of subforests on $T_{v,e_i}$ which have edge label $l$ on the edge $e_i$. Then we need to take all the cubic polynomials derived from $q_{000}q_{111} - q_{011}q_{101}q_{110}$ as follows:

$$
q_{L_1^1,L_3^1}L_2^1 \cdot q_{L_2^1,L_3^2}L_2^1 \cdot q_{L_3^1,L_3^3}L_3^1 - q_{L_1^1,L_2^1}L_3^1 \cdot q_{L_2^2,L_1^2}L_2^1 \cdot q_{L_3^1,L_3^2}L_3^1,
$$

where $L_i^1 \in \text{im}(L_{T_{v,e_i}}, 0)$, $L_i^2, L_i^3 \in \text{im}(L_{T_{v,e_i}}, 1)$, for all $i$. Now we will illustrate how to apply these constructions on a small example.

**Example 31 (Balanced Binary Tree).** Let $T$ be the balanced binary tree with four leaves. See Figure 3. We assume that the root distribution is uniform. Modulo the linear invariants there are $F_7 = 13$ indeterminates given by the 13 subforests of the binary tree with four leaves:

$q_{00000}, q_{11000}, q_{00011}, q_{11011}, q_{10110}, q_{10101}, q_{01110}, q_{01101}, q_{11110}, q_{10111}, q_{01111}, q_{11101}, q_{11111}$.

The first two indices in the label correspond to the left-most leaves, the last two indices correspond to the right-most leaves and the middle index is the interior edge. The matrices $M_0$ and $M_1$ associated to the interior edge are respectively the $F_3 \times F_3$ and $F_4 \times F_4$ matrices

$$
M_0 = \begin{pmatrix}
q_{00000} & q_{00011} \\
q_{11000} & q_{11011}
\end{pmatrix},
$$

$$
M_1 = \begin{pmatrix}
q_{10110} & q_{10101} & q_{10111} \\
q_{01110} & q_{01101} & q_{01111} \\
q_{11110} & q_{11101} & q_{11111}
\end{pmatrix}. \tag{20}
$$
The invariants \( \text{Quad}(e, T) \) are the \( 2 \times 2 \) minors of these matrices. Among the cubic invariants associated to the left interior vertex is the binomial

\[
q_{00011}q_{1110}q_{1101} - q_{01110}q_{1010}q_{1101}.
\]

To construct the invariants when the root distribution is allowed to be arbitrary amounts to changing the labeling function associated to the root distribution to the identity labeling. There are 11 labeled Fourier indeterminates modulo the linear invariants. A direct computation using the software 4ti2 shows that the ideal of invariants is generated by 9 quadrics and 6 cubics.

6.4 Kimura 3-parameter model

The Kimura 3-parameter model has transition matrices that looks like

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
da_v & a_v & b_v & c_v \\
   a_v & d_v & c_v & b_v \\
   b_v & c_v & d_v & a_v \\
   c_v & b_v & a_v & d_v
\end{pmatrix}
\]

Here the labeling \( L \) is the identity function on \( \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2 = \{A, G, C, T\} \). The labeling being injective, there are no linear invariants. We add a root edge to get a tree with one more leaf. We first form the set of quadrics \( \text{Quad}(e, T) \) for each interior edge \( e \). They are the \( 2 \times 2 \)-minors of four matrices \( M_A, M_G, M_C, M_T \), one for each of the nucleotides which may appear in the labeling on that edge. The next step is to determine the set of local binomials \( \text{Ext}(B_v \to T) \) for any interior vertex \( v \). The ingredients for this are the 16 cubics and the 18 quartics displayed in Example 25. These 34 binomials form a Gröbner basis for the ideal of the claw tree \( K_{1,3} \), and to each of them we apply the extension procedure of Lemma 22. Adding the resulting large collection of cubics and quartics to the previous \( 2 \times 2 \)-minors gives generators for the ideal of the Kimura 3-parameter model.

6.5 Kimura 2-parameter model

The Kimura 2-parameter model has transition matrices that look like

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
c_v & a_v & b_v & b_v \\
a_v & c_v & b_v & b_v \\
b_v & b_v & c_v & a_v \\
b_v & b_v & a_v & c_v
\end{pmatrix}
\]

Here the group is also \( \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2 = \{A, G, C, T\} \), but the labeling function is not injective. It is

\[
L : \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2 \to \{0, 1, 2\} \quad \text{with} \quad L(A) = 0, \ L(G) = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad L(C) = L(T) = 2.
\]

See Example 10. Finding the set \( \text{im}(L^T) \) of consistent labelings on a binary tree \( T \) is a combinatorial problem which we will not address here. (What is the analogue to the Fibonacci numbers?) Assuming this has been accomplished and the precise list of indeterminates \( q_\lambda \) is known, then the description of the set of quadrics \( \text{Quad}(e, T) \) associated with an interior edge \( e \) is just like before. They are the \( 2 \times 2 \)-minors of three matrices \( M_0, M_1, M_2 \) whose entries are the unknowns \( q_\lambda \).
In light of Theorem 24, the remaining task is to understand the ideal of invariants for the claw tree $K_{1,3}$. Returning to the setup at the beginning of Section 3, this is an ideal in the 16 Fourier coordinates $q_{g_1 g_2 g_3}$ where $g_1 + g_2 = g_3$. There are six linear invariants for this tree, which correspond to pairs of triples $(g_1, g_2, g_3)$ and $(h_1, h_2, h_3)$ such that $L(g_i) = L(h_i)$ for all $i$. Modulo the linear invariants, the polynomial ring has ten indeterminates $q_{ij}$. These are

$$q_{000}, q_{011}, q_{022}, q_{101}, q_{110}, q_{122}, q_{202}, q_{212}, q_{220}, q_{221}. $$

The ideal of invariants for the claw tree $K_{1,3}$ modulo the linear invariants has a Gröbner basis consisting of six cubics and three quartics. For example, the following two binomials appear in it:

$$q_{022}q_{101}q_{220} - q_{000}q_{122}q_{221} \quad \text{and} \quad q_{022}q_{101}q_{100} - q_{000}q_{011}q_{221}^2. $$

Theorem 24 tells us how to construct the invariants for any binary tree from these local data.

7 Algebraically Independent Invariants Are Not Enough

Each algebraic variety $X$ we have studied in this paper lives in an ambient space of $k^m$ dimensions, where $m$ is the number of leaves of the given tree and $k$ is the number of states of each random variable. The coordinates of the ambient space are the probabilities $p_{i_1 i_2 \cdots i_m}$, or their Fourier transforms $q_{i_1 i_2 \cdots i_m}$. The dimension of the model $X$ is the number of free model parameters, and the codimension of the model $X$ is

$$\text{codim}(X) = k^m - \dim(X).$$

This is the number of local equations needed to describe the variety $X$ at a smooth point. However, in general, the number of equations needed to describe $X$ at a singular point, or the number of equations needed to define a variety $X$ globally, can be much larger than the codimension.

Several research articles on phylogenetic invariants give the impression that to characterize a model $X$, it suffices to take only $\text{codim}(X)$ polynomial invariants, and some authors raised the question whether there is a complete list of algebraically independent invariants. We wish to argue that, both from the perspective of algebraic geometry and from the perspective of computational biology, it is misleading and wrong to ask for a set of only $\text{codim}(X)$ polynomial invariants.

Most models in algebraic statistics, including the group-based evolutionary models treated here, are not complete intersections, i.e., these models require more polynomial equations than their codimension. This holds even if one is only interested in strictly positive probability distributions. In the opinion of the authors, a given system of polynomial invariants for an evolutionary model $X$ cannot be considered “complete” unless it actually generates the prime ideal of $X$.

We illustrate this issue for the case when $X$ is the Jukes-Cantor binary model (hence $k = 2$) on the fully balanced binary tree with $m = 4$ leaves. The parametric representation for this model was given by (4). The variety $X$ has codimension 8. The homogeneous prime ideal of the model is given by the $2 \times 2$-minors of the four $2 \times 4$-matrices in (3). This ideal requires 20 minimal generators. Can we replace these 20 quadrics by a smaller subset? Don’t eight suffice?
The specific Jukes–Cantor binary model with $m$ invariants. From [20, Theorem 10], we see that they are the following binomials of degree eight:

$$q_{0000} - 1$$

What remains is an ideal of codimension 3 which is minimally generated by five quadrics. The five equations. The first five of these ten equations express five of the unknowns in terms of the others:

$$q_{1110} - q_{1100}q_{0010}, q_{1111} - q_{1100}q_{0011}, q_{1001} - q_{1000}q_{0001}, q_{0111} - q_{0110}q_{0010}, q_{1011} - q_{0011}q_{1000}.$$  

If we add the trivial invariant $q_{0000} - 1$ to our 20 quadrics, then the resulting ideal in the polynomial ring in 15 unknowns still has codimension 8 but it is now minimally generated by ten equations. The first five of these ten equations express five of the unknowns in terms of the others:

$$q_{1110} - q_{1100}q_{0010}, q_{1111} - q_{1100}q_{0011}, q_{1001} - q_{1000}q_{0001}, q_{0111} - q_{0110}q_{0010}, q_{1011} - q_{0011}q_{1000}.$$  

What remains is an ideal of codimension 3 which is minimally generated by five quadrics. The five quadrics are the five $2 \times 2$-minors not involving the upper left corner in the following matrix:

$$
\begin{pmatrix}
\bullet & q_{0010} & q_{0001} \\
q_{0100} & q_{0110} & q_{0101} \\
q_{1000} & q_{1010} & q_{1001}
\end{pmatrix}
$$

If we remove any of these five quadrics then the zero set of the remaining four equations contains points which are not in the model, even in a neighborhood of the uniform distribution. For example, we get extraneous solutions by placing small positive reals $\epsilon_{ijkl}$ in the matrices

$$
\begin{pmatrix}
\bullet & 0 & 0 \\
0 & \epsilon_{0110} & \epsilon_{0101} \\
0 & \epsilon_{1010} & \epsilon_{1001}
\end{pmatrix}
$$

and

$$
\begin{pmatrix}
\bullet & \epsilon_{0010} & 0 \\
\epsilon_{0100} & \epsilon_{0110} & 0 \\
\epsilon_{1000} & \epsilon_{1010} & 0
\end{pmatrix}
$$

Notice that matrices with these entries are near the centroid of the probability simplex and satisfy all but one of the five $2 \times 2$-minors of the matrix. Thus we need all five quadrics to define our variety, even set-theoretically, and even locally around the uniform distribution. We regard the determinantal formula (5) as the best representation of the ideal of phylogenetic invariants.

The failure to describe a phylogenetic model $X$ set-theoretically becomes much more dramatic if we replace the ideal generators derived in this paper with the canonical invariants introduced by Székely, Steel and Erdős [20]. The number of canonical invariants is always equal to the codimension of $X$, but, as we have argued, this means that they are far from having the correct zero set. For the specific Jukes–Cantor binary model with $m = 4$ discussed above, there are eight canonical invariants. From [20, Theorem 10], we see that they are the following binomials of degree eight:

$$q_{0000}q_{0010}q_{0100}q_{1001}q_{1010}q_{1101}q_{1111} - q_{0001}q_{0011}q_{0101}q_{0111}q_{1000}q_{1010}q_{1100}q_{1110},$$  

$$q_{0000}q_{0100}q_{0110}q_{1001}q_{1011}q_{1101}q_{1110} - q_{0011}q_{0100}q_{0110}q_{1001}q_{1011}q_{1100}q_{1110}q_{1100},$$  

$$q_{0000}q_{0100}q_{0110}q_{1001}q_{1011}q_{1101}q_{1111} - q_{0011}q_{0100}q_{0110}q_{1001}q_{1011}q_{1100}q_{1110}q_{1100},$$  

$$q_{0000}q_{0100}q_{0110}q_{1001}q_{1011}q_{1101}q_{1111} - q_{0011}q_{0100}q_{0110}q_{1001}q_{1011}q_{1100}q_{1110}q_{1100},$$  

$$q_{0000}q_{0100}q_{0110}q_{1001}q_{1011}q_{1101}q_{1111} - q_{0011}q_{0100}q_{0110}q_{1001}q_{1011}q_{1100}q_{1110}q_{1100},$$  

$$q_{0000}q_{0100}q_{0110}q_{1001}q_{1011}q_{1101}q_{1111} - q_{0011}q_{0100}q_{0110}q_{1001}q_{1011}q_{1100}q_{1110}q_{1100},$$  

$$q_{0000}q_{0100}q_{0110}q_{1001}q_{1011}q_{1101}q_{1111} - q_{0011}q_{0100}q_{0110}q_{1001}q_{1011}q_{1100}q_{1110}q_{1100},$$  

$$q_{0000}q_{0100}q_{0110}q_{1001}q_{1011}q_{1101}q_{1111} - q_{0011}q_{0100}q_{0110}q_{1001}q_{1011}q_{1100}q_{1110}q_{1100}.$$  

25
The zero set of these equations has codimension three (!), and has many irreducible components. The structure of the primary decomposition of the ideal of canonical invariants is very complicated. For instance, among the irreducible components, there are 48 linear spaces of codimension 3, e.g.,

$$q_{1111} = q_{1100} = q_{1110} = 0.$$ 

Among all the probability distributions which satisfy the eight canonical invariants listed above, the distributions which come from the Jukes-Cantor model represent a subset that has measure zero (codimension 8 inside codimension 3). For practical applications, this implies that an empirical distribution which is near to the solution set of the canonical equations cannot be trusted to come from the model. Although the canonical invariants define the model locally almost everywhere on the model distributions, they do not define the model globally in the entire probability simplex.

The canonical equations correspond to a lattice basis for the toric ideal of phylogenetic invariants. It follows from general theory in commutative algebra that the toric ideal can computed from the canonical equations by the process of saturation (as described in [19, Algorithm 12.3]), but this is a non-trivial and time-consuming computation. What we have accomplished in this paper is an explicit description of a list of phylogenetic invariants which minimally generates the toric ideals of interest. This implies that globally (in the probability simplex, in $\mathbb{R}^{km}$, or in $\mathbb{C}^{km}$) the only points which satisfy all the invariants come from the model. However, in all cases (with the exception of a few trivial ones), the number of our polynomial invariants is considerably larger than the codimension of the model, a feature which is unavoidable in algebraic geometry.

There is another important motivation, coming directly from computational biology, for our representation of the phylogenetic invariants. Evolutionary models have to allow for the possibility of heterogeneous rates as described in [7, 8]. For instance, in the evolution of DNA sequences, one may wish to model two different rates: one for genes and one for non-genes. This replaces our given parameterization (7) by the superposition of two evolutionary models of the same kind:

$$p_{g_1,\ldots,g_m} = \sum_{\pi g_r} \prod_{v \in V(T) \setminus \{r\}} A_{g_{(v)},g_{(v)}}^{(v)} + \sum_{\sigma g_r} \prod_{v \in V(T) \setminus \{r\}} B_{g_{(v)},g_{(v)}}^{(v)}.$$

In statistics, this corresponds to introducing a hidden binary variable. In geometry, we are passing to the secant variety (see [9, §7]). Our determinantal presentation of the invariants $\text{Quad}(e, T)$ makes it easy to derive some invariants for models with heterogeneous rates. For instance, the cubic invariant discovered in [8] is nothing but the determinant of the $3 \times 3$-matrix in (20).

8 Conclusion

This paper gives a solution to the longstanding problem of finding all phylogenetic invariants for the statistical models of evolution which have a group structure. We found explicit Gröbner bases for the ideals of the Jukes-Cantor and Kimura models for DNA sequences. This was accomplished by developing a general machinery for building invariants from the local features of a tree and extending them to the entire tree. There are, however, many questions of a practical nature which remain. The main issue is how to use invariants to recover the phylogeny of a collection of taxa.
First and foremost is the question of what statistical significance should be attached to the numerical values that are obtained by evaluating the phylogenetic invariants at sample data. Intuitively, if the data come from the model associated to a particular tree, the evaluation of an invariant polynomial should be small. How should this intuitive understanding be applied in practice? This is really a general open problem associated with the polynomial functions that vanish on any statistical model. The point of working with these polynomial invariants is that they should eliminate the potentially difficult problem of approximating solutions to the maximum likelihood equations. However, most statistical tests (e.g. $\chi^2$, $G^2$) depend on comparing the empirical distribution to the maximum likelihood estimates. The fundamental open question we wish to pose to statisticians is to develop statistical tests for deciding whether or not the data fits a given model based solely on the evaluation of the polynomials which vanish on the model distributions.

Even if the statistical issues in the previous paragraph can be resolved, before we can start implementing a phylogeny recovery method based on algebraic invariants, the help of computer scientists is needed to address the following challenging complexity question: How can we evaluate exponentially many polynomials in exponentially many indeterminates for exponentially many trees? The structural results about phylogenetic invariants derived in this paper should help. For instance, the techniques of Section 4 will allow one to hunt for local features of the tree (e.g. 2- or 3-splits of the leaves) and assemble the tree piece by piece. Furthermore, our results show that all quadratic phylogenetic invariants are rank conditions on matrices associated to the splits of the tree, so they can be interpreted as conditional independence statements in the sense of graphical models. These invariants are clearly well-suited for the development of highly efficient algorithms.

Finally, now that we have explicit Gröbner bases for the phylogenetic invariants of a group based model, there remains the problem of determining how good invariant-based methods are at recovering phylogenies in problems of interest to biologists. Implementation and testing of invariant-based methods should be an expanding area of future research, based on the work in this paper and the results of Allman and Rhodes [1, 2] for the general Markov model.

9 Acknowledgements

This work was supported by the National Science Foundation (DMS-0200729). It was done while B. Sturmfels held the Hewlett Packard Visiting Research Professorship 2003-04 at MSRI Berkeley.

References

[1] E. Allman and J. Rhodes. Phylogenetic invariants for the general Markov model of sequence mutation. *Mathematical Biosciences* 186 (2003) 133-144,

[2] E. Allman and J. Rhodes. Quartets and parameter recovery for the general Markov model of sequence mutation, preprint, 2003.

[3] J. A. Cavender and J. Felsenstein. Invariants of phylogenies: a simple case with discrete states. *Journal of Classification* 4 (1987) 57-71.
[4] S. Evans and T. Speed. Invariants of some probability models used in phylogenetic inference. *Annals of Statistics* **21** (1993) 355-377.

[5] S. Evans and X. Zhou. Constructing and counting phylogenetic invariants. *Journal of Computational Biology* **5** (1998) 713-724.

[6] J. Felsenstein. *Inferring Phylogenies*. Sinauer Associates, Inc., Sunderland, 2003.

[7] V. Ferretti and D. Sankoff. Phylogenetic invariants for more general evolutionary models, *Journal of Theoretical Biology* **173** (1995) 147-162.

[8] V. Ferretti and D. Sankoff. A remarkable nonlinear invariant for evolution with heterogeneous rates, *Mathematical Biosciences* **134** (1996) 71-83.

[9] L. Garcia, M. Stillman and B. Sturmfels. Algebraic geometry of Bayesian networks. *Journal of Symbolic Computation*, to appear, math.AG/0301255

[10] T. Hagedorn. Determining the number and structure of phylogenetic invariants. *Advances in Applied Mathematics* **24** (2000) 1-21.

[11] R. Hemmecke and R. Hemmecke. 4ti2 - Software for computing of Hilbert bases, Graver bases, toric Gröbner bases, and more. Available at www.4ti2.de, 2003.

[12] S. Hoşten and S. Sullivant. Gröbner bases and polyhedral geometry of reducible and cyclic models. *Journal of Combinatorial Theory: Series A* **100** (2002) 277-301.

[13] J. A. Lake. A rate-independent technique for analysis of nucleic acid sequences: evolutionary parsimony. *Molecular Biology and Evolution* **4** (1987) 167-191.

[14] L. Pachter and B. Sturmfels. The tropical geometry of statistical models. q-bio.QM/0311009

[15] D. Sankoff and M. Blanchette. Phylogenetic invariants for genome rearrangements. *Journal of Computational Biology* **6** (1999) 431-445.

[16] C. Semple and M. Steel. *Phylogenetics*. Oxford University Press, Oxford, 2003

[17] M. Steel and Y. Fu. Classifying and counting linear phylogenetic invariants for the Jukes Cantor model. *Journal of Computational Biology* **2** (1995) 39-47.

[18] M. Steel, L. Székely, P. Erdős, and P. Waddell. A complete family of phylogenetic invariants for any number of taxa under Kimura’s 3ST model. *NZ Journal of Botany* **13** (1993) 289-296.

[19] B. Sturmfels. *Gröbner Bases and Convex Polytopes*, American Mathematical Society, Providence, 1995.

[20] L. Székely, M. Steel, and P. Erdős. Fourier calculus on evolutionary trees. *Advances in Applied Mathematics* **14** (1993) 200-216.