Fast Parallel Algorithms for the Unit Cost Editing Distance Between Trees (extended abstract)

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1. Problem Ordered labeled trees are trees whose nodes are labeled and in which the left-to-right order among siblings is significant. We consider the distance between two trees to be the minimum number of edit operations (insert, delete, and modify) necessary to transform one tree to another.

We present three algorithms to find the distance. The first algorithm is a simple dynamic programming algorithm based on a postorder traversal whose complexity improves upon the best previously published algorithm due to Tai (T79 in JACM). The second and third algorithms are parallel algorithms based on the application of suffix trees to the comparison problem. The cost of executing these algorithms is a monotonic increasing function of the distance between the two trees.

Results Let trees T_1 and T_2 have numbers of levels L_1 and L_2 respectively. Let k be the actual distance between T_1 and T_2 . Let N be $min(|T_1|, |T_2|)$. The asymptotic running times (assuming a concurrent-read concurrent-write parallel random access machine) are:

Algorithm	Time	Processors
Tai	$ T_1 \times T_2 \times L_1^2 \times L_2^2$	1
Alg1	$ T_1 \times T_2 \times L_1 \times L_2$	1
Alg1 parallel	$ T_1 + T_2 $	$ T_1 \times T_2 \times \min(L_1, L_2)$
Alg2 parallel	$k \times log(k) \times log(N)$	k ² ×N
Alg3 parallel	$(k^2 \times log(k)) + log(N)$	$k^2 \times N$

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Application Significance We are applying these algorithms to comparing tree descriptions of spatial curves, secondary structures of RNA, and sentence parses.

The RNA problem is of the greatest immediate interest to us since some of these algorithms has been used by researchers at the National Cancer Institute. Because RNA is a single strand of nucleotides, it folds back onto itself into a shape that is topologically a tree (called its secondary structure). Each node of this tree contains several nucleotides. Nodes have colorful labels such as "bulge" and "hairpin."

Various researchers [ALKBO87, BSSBWD87, BP87] have observed that the secondary structure influences translation rates (from RNA to proteins). Because different sequences can produce similar secondary structures [DA82, SK76], comparisons among secondary structures are necessary to understanding the comparative functionality of different RNA's.

Existing methods for comparing the secondary structures of two RNA's take a traversal ordering of the two trees and discover the string edit distance between the orderings [S88]. That is unsatisfactory since a traversal ordering does not uniquely specify a tree. The tree edit distance is clearly a better metric.

For all the applications, differences are most significant for small values of k, since trees that differ by more than a certain threshold are for practical purposes simply different.

Algorithmic Significance We use the Ukkonen [U83] idea of computing in waves along the center diagonals of the distance matrix. At the beginning of stage k, all the distances up to k-1 have been computed. Stage k then computes in parallel all the

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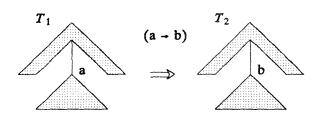


Figure 1. Relabeling

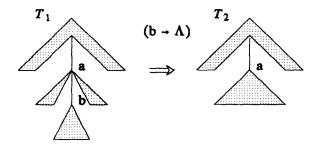


Figure 2. Deletion

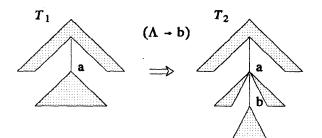


Figure 3. Insertion

distances up to k. We use suffix trees, inspired by [LV86], to perform this computation fast. But, whereas Landau and Vishkin apply suffix trees to comparing strings we apply suffix trees to comparing trees. That is, we map each of the two trees T_1 and T_2 to strings (each string is a traversal order where each node is associated with the number of its children), construct suffix trees from these strings, and then use the suffix trees to infer that portions of the T_1 are identical to portions of T_2 . This leaves some subtle problems.

In the string case, if $S_1[i..i+h] = S_2[j..j+h]$, then the distance between $S_1[1..i-1]$ and $S_2[1..j-1]$ is the same as between $S_1[1..i+h]$ and $S_2[1..j+h]$. The main difficulty in the tree case is that preserving ancestor relationships in the mapping between trees prevents the analogous implication from holding. In addition, to compute the distance between two forests at stage k sometimes requires knowing whether two contained subtrees are distance k apart. We overcome these problems by exploiting the relationship between identical subforests and tree-to-tree mappings (section 5).

2. Edit operations

Our distance metric for trees is a generalization of the editing distance between sequences. The edit operations are relabel, delete, and insert. Relabeling node n means changing the label on n. Deleting a node n means making the children of n become the children of the parent of n and then removing n. Insert is the complement of delete. This means that inserting n as the child of n' will make n the parent of a consecutive subsequence of the current children of n'. Figures 1, 2, and 3 illustrate these editing operations.

We represent an edit operation [T79, ZS87] as a pair (a,b) \neq (Λ , Λ), sometimes written a \rightarrow b. We call a \rightarrow b a relabeling operation if a \neq Λ and b \neq Λ ; a delete operation if b = Λ ; and an insert operation if a = Λ . Let S be a sequence s_1, \ldots, s_k of edit operations. An S-derivation from A to B is a sequence of trees $A_0, \ldots A_k$ such that $A=A_0$, $B=A_k$, and $A_{i-1} \rightarrow A_i$ via s_i for $1 \leq i \leq k$.

For the purposes of this paper, the cost of any editing operation $a \rightarrow b$, denoted $\gamma(a \rightarrow b)$, is 1 if $a \neq b$ and 0 otherwise. By extension, the cost of a sequence is simply the length of the sequence. The *distance* between T_1 and T_2 is simply the minimum cost sequence taking T_1 to T_2 . Our problem is to find the distance.

2.1. Mappings

The edit operations correspond to a mapping which is a graphical specification of what edit operations apply to each node in the two trees (or two ordered forests). The mapping in Figure 4 shows a way to transform T_1 to T_2 . It corresponds to the sequence (delete(node with label d), insert(node with label d)).

Formally a mapping from T_1 to T_2 is a triple (M,T_1,T_2) , where M is any set of pair of integers (i,j) satisfying the following conditions (see Figure 5):

- (1) $1 \le i \le N_1$, $1 \le j \le N_2$;
- (2) For any pair of (i₁, j₁) and (i₂, j₂) in M,
 (a) (one-to-one) i₁=i₂ iff j₁=j₂
 (b) (ancestor) T₁[i₁] is an ancestor of T₁[i₂] iff T₂[j₁] is an ancestor of T₂[j₂]
 - (c) (sibling) $T_1[i_1]$ is to the left of $T_1[i_2]$ iff $T_2[j_1]$ is to the left of $T_2[j_2]$

We use M instead of (M,T_1,T_2) if there is no confusion. The cost of M, denoted $\gamma(M)$, is the number of nodes to be inserted (i.e. those in T_2 that are not touched by a mapping line) plus the number to be deleted (i.e. those in T_1 not touched by a line) plus the number relabeled (i.e. those pairs of nodes related by mapping lines with differing labels).

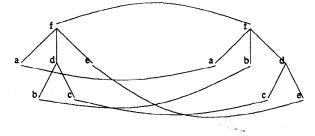
Lemma 1: Given S, a sequence s_1, \ldots, s_k of edit operations from T_1 to T_2 , there exists a mapping M from T_1 to T_2 such that $\gamma(M) \leq \gamma(S)$. Conversely, for any mapping M, there exists a sequence of editing operations such that $\gamma(S) = \gamma(M)$.

Hence, $\delta(T_1, T_2) = \min\{\gamma(M) \mid M \text{ is a mapping from } T_1 \text{ and } T_2\}$

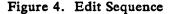
2.2. Left-to-right postorder traversal notation -- the default

Let T[i] be the ith node in the tree according to the left-to-right postorder numbering (our default traversal order). l(i) is the number of the leftmost leaf descendant of the subtree rooted at T[i]. When T[i] is a leaf, l(i) = i.

T[i..j] is the ordered subforest of T induced by the nodes numbered i to j inclusive (Figure 6). T[1..i] will be referred to as *forest(i)*, when the tree referred to is clear. T[l(i)..i] will be referred to as *tree(i)*. Size(i) is the number of nodes in tree(i).



 $((d \rightarrow \Lambda), (\Lambda \rightarrow d))$



Correct

Mapping must preserve ancestor descendant relationship

Not correct

Mapping must preserve sibling order

Figure 5. Mapping rules

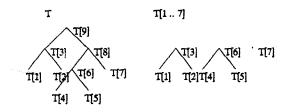


Figure 6. Postorder T[1 ... 7] = forest(7)

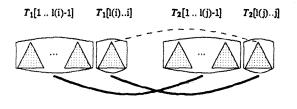


Figure 7. Case 3. holds when (i,j) is in mapping

The distance between $T_1[i'..i]$ and $T_2[j'..j]$ is denoted dist $(T_1[i'..i], T_2[j'..j])$ or dist(i'..i, j'..j) if the context is clear. We use a more abbreviated notation for certain special cases. The distance between $T_1[1 .. i]$ and $T_2[1 .. j])$ is sometimes denoted *forestdist(i,j)*. The distance between the subtree rooted at i and the subtree rooted at j is sometimes denoted *treedist(i,j)*.

3. Basic Algorithm

We compute forestdist(i,j) for $1 \le i \le N_1$ and $1 \le j \le N_2$. Let M be a minimum-cost map between forest(i) and forest(j). The distance is the minimum of these three cases.

- (1) $T_1[i]$ is not touched by a line in M. So, forestdist (i,j) = forestdist (i-1,j)+1.
- (2) $T_2[j]$ is not touched by a line in M. So, forestdist (i,j) = forestdist (i,j-1)+1.
- $T_1[i]$ and $T_2[j]$ are touched by lines in M (3) (Figure 7). By the ancestor and sibling conditions on mappings, (i, j) must be in M. By the ancestor condition on mapping, any node in the subtree rooted at $T_1[i]$ can only be touched by a node in the subtree rooted at $T_{2}[j].$ Hence. forestdist(i,j) =forest dist (l(i)-1, l(j)-1) $+ dist(T_1[l(i)..i-1], T_2[l(j)..j-1])$ $+\gamma(T_1[i] \rightarrow T_2[j])$. When either $l(i) \neq left$ most child of T_1 or $l(j) \neq$ leftmost child of $T_{2},$ we can the equation use forest dist (i,j) = forest dist (l(i) - 1, l(j) - 1)+ treedist (i, j).

These three cases specify a step of a simple dynamic programming algorithm. Because of case 3, any subtree-to-subtree distance may be required. So, the time complexity is $O(\sum_{i=1}^{|T_1||T_2|} size(i) \times size(j))$ $= O(|T_1| \times |T_2| \times L_1 \times L_2).$

4. Improving the simple algorithm

4.1. Review of Landau-Vishkin algorithm

In the following discussion, diagonal d corresponds to the the set of distances $\{stringdist(i,j) \mid i - j = d\}$. (The name diagonal comes from the distance matrix in the naive dynamic programming algorithm.) The basic algorithm of [LV86] is

 a
 c

 b
 c

 Figure 8a. Different Trees May have the Same Postorder Traversal (Here, bca)

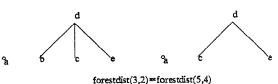


Figure 8b. Label with Number of Children Seems not Necessary (Even though d has a different number of children, editing operation is "delete b")



forestdist(3,2) # forestdist(5,4)

Figure 8c. Label with Number of Children Seems not Sufficient (even though both have traversal with children sequence {c,0}, {e,0}, {d,3}) for p := 1 to $|S_2|$ do

for diagonals d between -p and p inclusive pardo compute maximum row i in d such that stringdist(i, i+d) $\leq p$ exit program when stringdist($|S_1|, |S_2|$) is computed

Here is the computation for a given diagonal at stage p.

- (1) Find a row i in diagonal d with value p (consult diagonals d-1 and d+1 for this).
- (2) Jump to i + h if h is the maximum value such that $S_1[i..i+h] = S_2[i+d..i+d+h]$.

Both steps can be done in constant time, where step 2 uses a suffix tree. So the whole algorithm takes O(k) time, where k is the actual distance between the two strings.

4.2. Problems in applying this approach to trees

Problem 1: We would like to use suffix trees based on some traversal order, but a traversal order on labels alone is insufficient as Figure 8a shows. On the other hand, it is well known [Knuth vol. 1, p. 350] that any traversal (we use a left-to-right postorder traversal) in which each label is associated with the number of its children is sufficient to specify the tree. We will call that traversal SLR.

Problem 2: Identical traversals with children are not necessary. That is, forestdist(i,j) = forestdist(i+h, j+h) is possible even though $SLR_1[i+1..i+h] \neq SLR_2[j+1..j+h]$. See Figure 8b.

Problem 3: Identical traversals with children are not sufficient. That is, forestdist(i,j) < forestdist(i+h, j+h) is possible even though $SLR_1[i+1..i+h] = SLR_2[j+1..j+h]$. See Figure 8c.

So, what are these traversals good for? -- we hear you cry. Well, if the single node labeled e in Figure 8b or in 8c were replaced by a tree (or even forest) of size r, then in both cases forestdist(3,2) = forestdist(3+r,2+r) and this would be discovered by establishing that $SLR_1[3+1..3+r] = SLR_2[2+1..2+r].$

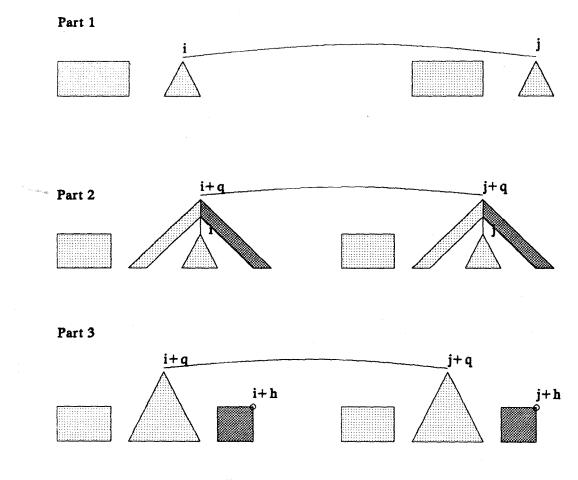


Figure 9. Three Parts to Basic Jump (goal is to find largest h usch that forest(i+h, j+h) = forest(i,j))

4.3. Overview of Our improved algorithm

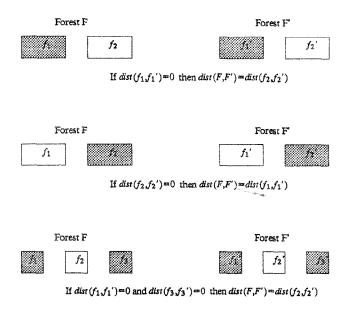
Having discussed these problems, we will now see how our algorithm deals with them. Figure 9 shows the three parts of the basic jump along one diagonal. Parts I and III are analogous to the string case, whereas part II requires special attention. Our algorithms differ in how they perform part II. We present only algorithm 3's approach, because algorithm 2, which uses binary search in part II is slightly more complex.

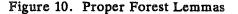
Part I finds the first i such that (i, i+d) must be in

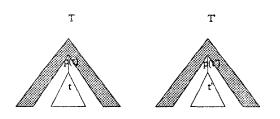
any mapping such that forest dist (i, i+d) = k. In that case, we let j = i+d. If no such *i* exists then stage *k* is over for this diagonal.

Part II determines the maximum ancestors $T_1[i+q]$ (of $T_1[i]$) and $T_2[j+q]$ (of $T_2[j]$) such that forestdist (i+q, j+q) = k.

Part III then determines the maximum h such that forestdist(i+h, j+h) = k, using a left-to-right postorder suffix tree.







If shaded part of the two trees are the same, then dist(T,T')=dist(t,t')

Figure 11. Quarantined Subtree Lemma

4.3.1. Doing part II

One particularly difficult problem in part II is that determining that forestdist $(i_1, j_1) = k$ may require knowing that treedist $(i_1, j_1) = k$. Our ability to determine that fact without waiting depends on the following definitions and lemmas.

Definition: Given forest F, we say that F[i..j] is a proper forest of F if the subgraph induced by the nodes i through j in the post-order numbering of F has the following property: if n is in F[i..j], then all children of n in the tree F are in F[i..j].

Lemma 2 (two sided proper forest): Suppose $F_1[1..m]$ and $F_2[1..n]$ are ordered forests, $F_1[1..x]$ is a proper forest of F_1 , $F_1[x+1..y-1]$ is a proper forest of F_2 . and $F_2[x+1..z-1]$ is a proper forest of F_2 . If $F_1[1..x]$ is identical to $F_2[1..x]$ and $F_1[y..m]$ is identical to $F_2[1..x]$ and $F_1[y..m]$ is identical to $F_2[x-n]$. then dist(1..m, 1..n) = dist(x+1..y-1, x+1..z-1). (See Figure 10.) \square

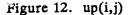
We now propose the analogous property for trees.

Definition: Suppose $T_1[1..m]$ and $T_2[1..n]$ are ordered trees, $T_1[l(i)..i]$ (tree(i)) is a subtree of T_1 and $T_2[l(j)..j]$ (tree(j)) is a subtree of T_2 . We say that the only difference between T_1 and T_2 is between tree(i) and tree(j) if replacing both tree(i) and tree(j) by a single node with the same label makes T_1 and T_2 identical.

Lemma 3 (Quarantined Subtree) If the only difference between T_1 and T_2 is between tree(i) and tree(j) then dist(1..m, 1..n) = dist(l(i)..i, l(j)..j). (Figure 11.)



 $up(i,j) \approx (s,t)$ shaded part of the two trees are the same



5. Algorithm

To do part II fast, we use a predicate up obtained by one application of suffix trees on the left-to-right and right-to-left postorder traversals.

Definition: Given trees T_1 and T_2 and a pair of subtrees (tree₁(i), tree₂(j)). Define up(i,j) to be a pair of subtrees rooted at (s, t) satisfying the following (Figure 12):

1) tree₁(i) is a subtree of tree₁(s) and tree₂(j) is a subtree of tree₂(t).

2) $(tree_1(s), tree_2(t))$ is the largest subtree pair (equivalently s and t are the greatest ancestors of i and j) such that the only difference between them is between tree_1(i) and tree_2(j). \Box

Figure 13(b) shows the application of up(i,j). Notice that the right-to-left postorder suffix tree will examine forests to the left of *tree*₁(i) and *tree*₂(j) as well as ancestors of *i* and *j*.

5.1. Bottom up algorithm for part II

Part I has established the condition in Figure 13(a).

Start Find up(i,j)= (i_2,j_2) . Using the proper forest and quarantined subtree lemmas, we know that forestdist $(i_2,j_2)=k$. Let $i_1=parent(i_2)$ and $j_1=parent(j_2)$. The hard question is whether forestdist $(i_1,j_1)=k$.

This is only possible if $T_1[i_2+1..i_1-1] = T_2[j_2+1..j_1-1]$ and $T_1[i_1] = T_2[j_1]$. (That can be determined by one application of a suffix tree.) Otherwise (i_2, j_2) is the answer to part II.

If so, there are three cases.

- If forestdist (l(i₁)-1, l(j₁)-1) has not been computed up to stage k 1, then forestdist (i₁, j₁)>k so (i₂, j₂) is the answer to part II.
- (2) If forestdist (l(i₁)-1,l(j₁)-1)>0, then we can check whether treedist (i₁, j₁)=k -forestdist (l(i₁)-1,l(j₁)-1). If not, then forestdist (i₁, j₁)>k so (i₂, j₂) is the answer to part II. If so, then forestdist (i₁, j₁)=k and go to Start setting i=i₁ and j=j₁.
- (3) If forest dist $(l(i_1)-1, l(j_1)-1)=0$ then forest dist $(i_1, j_1)=k$, so go to Start setting $i=i_1$ and $j=j_1$.

Case 1 holds because treedist $(i_1, j_1) > 0$ by definition of predicate up. Case 2 poses no difficulty either except as far as running time is concerned. In both case 2 and case 3 if forestdist $(i_1, j_1) = k$, then treedist $(i_1, j_1) >$ treedist (i, j), so we can return to Start only at most k times at stage k.

The third case is quite subtle, involving all the machinery we have presented so far. It may help the reader to refer to Figure 13(c).

Lemma 4 (bottom up hop): If 0. up $(i,j) = (i_2,j_2), i_1 = p(i_2), j_1 = p(j_2).$ 1. forestdist (i,j) = k and (i,j) must be in the mapping with cost k from forest(i) to forest(j). 2. $T_1[i_2+1..i_1-1] = T_2[j_2+1..j_1-1]$ and $T_1[i_1] = T_2[j_1].$ 3. forestdist $(l(i_1)-1, l(j_1)-1) = 0.$

then forest dist $(i_1, j_1) = k$.

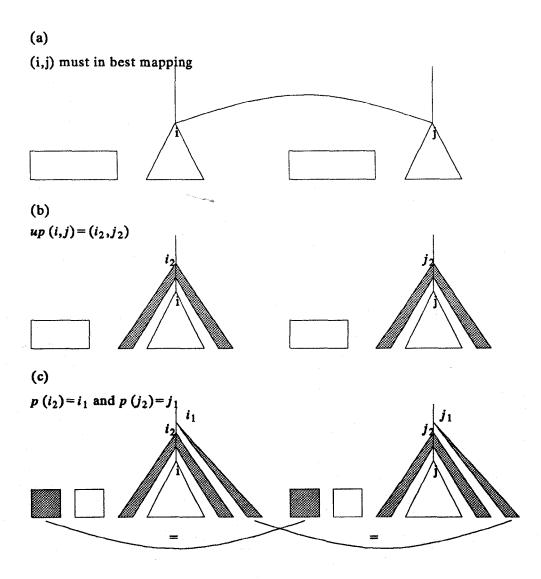


Figure 13. Hard Case for Bottom-up Approach

Proof: By lemma 3 (quarantined subtree) and condition 0, treedist $(i_2, j_2) =$ treedist (i, j). By condition 1, k = forestdist (i, j) = treedist (i, j)+ forestdist (l(i)-1, l(j)-1). By lemma 2 (proper forest) and condition 0, forestdist (l(i)-1, l(j)-1)= forestdist $(l(i_2)-1, l(j_2)-1)$. Putting this together, k = treedist (i_2, j_2) + forestdist $(l(i_2)-1, l(j_2)-1)$. So, forestdist $(i_2, j_2) = k$.

By condition 3 and lemma 2 (proper forest), forestdist($l(i_2)-1, l(j_2)-1$) = dist($l(i_1)..l(i_2)-1, l(j_1)..l(j_2)-1$). By condition 2, treedist(i_1, j_1)=treedist(i_2, j_2) + dist($l(i_1)..l(i_2)-1, l(j_1)..l(j_2)-1$)=k. By condition 3, this implies that forestdist(i_1, j_1)=k. \Box As mentioned above, we may return to Start at most k times at stage k. There are only k stages if the final distance between the two trees is k. The extra factor of log k as shown in the first table is due to the fact that we do not store all of forestdist(i,j). Instead, we just store points where the distance changes in an array f. f(d,p) is the maximum row number r such that the intersection between diagonal d and row r+1 holds a number that is greater than p, but row r holds a number that is less than or equal to p in the distance array. To determine forestdist(i,j), we use binary search, requiring $O(\log k)$ time.

So, the total time is $O(k^2 \log k)$. Finally, the additive $O(\log N)$ factor is required to build the suffix tree.

5.3. Processors

To determine whether two T_1 and T_2 are distance k apart or less, hereafter called the within k distance problem it is only necessary to evaluate treedist(i,j) if $|i-j| \le k$. There are $k \times N$ such subtree pairs. It is only necessary to evaluate the 2k + 1 center diagonals of each subtree pair. So, $O(k^2 \times N)$ processors are needed for that problem.

We reach that processor bound for the full problem by the simple trick of evaluating the within k distance problem for successive powers of two. This less than doubles the time complexity and achieves the desired processor bound.

The full paper with the two method of calculating part II and all the proofs can be obtained from the authors.

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