Computing similarity between RNA strings*

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Abstract

Ribonucleic acid (RNA) strings are strings over the four-letter alphabet $\{A, C, G, U\}$ with a secondary structure of base-pairing between $A - U$ and $C - G$ pairs in the string[1]. Edges are drawn between two bases that are paired in the secondary structure and these edges have traditionally been assumed to be noncrossing. The noncrossing base-pairing naturally leads to a tree-like representation of the secondary structure of RNA strings.

In this paper, we address several notions of similarity between two RNA strings that take into account both the primary sequence and secondary base-pairing structure of the strings. We present efficient algorithms for exact matching and approximate matching between two RNA strings. We define a notion of alignment between two RNA strings and devise algorithms based on dynamic programming. We then present a method for optimally aligning a given RNA string with unknown secondary structure to one with known sequence and structure, thus attacking the structure prediction problem in the case when the structure of a closely related sequence is known. The techniques employed to prove our results include reductions to well-known string matching problems allowing wild cards and ranges, and speeding up dynamic programming by using the tree structures implicit in the secondary structure of RNA strings.

Keywords: RNA structure, edit distances, approximate matching, string algorithms, trees.

1   Introduction

A variety of string matching problems are motivated by the analysis of DNA or protein sequences. An example is the problem of computing the similarity between two sequences such as the edit distance to transform one into another using insertions, deletions and substitutions of characters [13, 20, 21]. When comparing RNA sequences, usually much more is known about the secondary structure of base pairing between nucleotides in the sequence. A bonded pair of bases is usually represented as an edge between the two complementary bases involved in the bond; traditional models of RNA secondary structure[27] assume that every base participates in at most one such pair, and that the edges representing the paired bases are noncrossing or noninterleaving along the length of the string. The secondary structure can be represented by a nesting tree whose nodes correspond to edges of the pairing and parenthood in the tree represents the immediate enclosure relation between the two edges (see fig. 1).

$$d = parent(a)$$
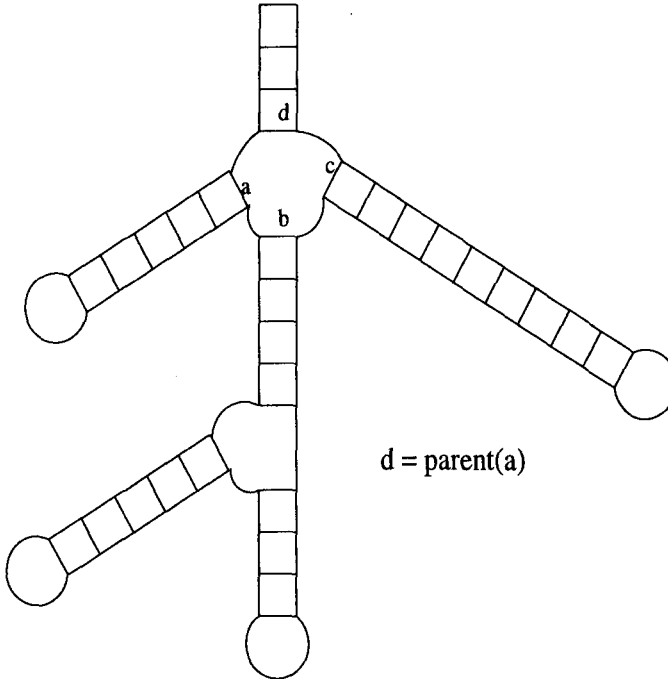
Figure 1: Secondary structure of an RNA sequence

Consequently, much of the work on comparing the secondary structures of two RNA strings have been modeled as problems of comparing two trees [7, 22, 25, 26]. In this paper, we study several problems in computing the similarity between two RNA strings that take into consideration *both* the primary sequence and secondary base-pairing information provided with the strings. We also investigate the problem of inferring the secondary structure of an RNA

	Problem	Running time
String Matching	Symmetric Exact Matching (SEM)	$O(n + m)$
	Containment Exact Matching (CEM)	$O(n \text{ polylog } m)$
	Symmetric K-mismatches problem (SKM)	$O(nm^{2/3} \text{ polylog } m)$
	Containment K-mismatches problem (CKM)	$O(n\sqrt{m} \text{ polylog } m)$
Alignment	Global similarity or RNA edit distance	$O(n^2 m^2)$
	Longest Common RNA Substring (RLCS)	$O(n^2 m^2)$
	Shortest Common RNA Superstring (RSCS)	$O(n^2 m^2 (n^2 + m^2))$
Structure	Inferring structure through alignment	$O(n^2 m^2 + nm^3)$

Table 1: Summary of results.

sequence when a closely related RNA string is given.

Standard notions of similarity between two sequences have been formulated as problems of exact and approximate string matching, finding a longest common subsequence (LCS) or a shortest common supersequence (SCS) of the sequences, and computing optimal alignments under general scoring functions. We formulate the corresponding versions of these problems between two RNA strings and present efficient algorithms for computing them. In the context of RNA strings, we would like to match symbols as well as edges in the two strings. An edge in one of the strings is said to be matched if the two symbols in the other string that are aligned to its endpoints are connected by an edge in the second string. Two variants of exact and approximate matching problems arise, depending on whether edges in both the pattern and text strings or only the edges in the pattern are required to be matched: we call these variants the *symmetric* and *containment* variants respectively. We observe that the action-at-a-distance effect of aligning edges significantly increases the complexity of RNA string similarity algorithms. Furthermore, problems like LCS and SCS that are computationally identical for sequences turn out to be quite different in the context of RNA strings.

Finally, we solve the problem of inferring the secondary structure of an RNA sequence when a closely related RNA string is given by aligning the sequence with the given RNA string. The alignment not only maximizes the common characters as in traditional sequence alignment but also favors the alignment of the endpoints of an edge in the related string with complementary base pairs in the input string.

Results

Table 1 describes the list of problems addressed in this paper and the time complexity of the algorithms we propose for solving them. In the table, n and m represent the sizes of the two input strings.

String matching. The first four entries of the table are analogous to exact and approximate matching problems in standard strings. In such problems, a

pattern RNA string and a typically longer text RNA string are given, and the task is to compute the positions in the text where the pattern occurs with at most $k(\geq 0)$ mismatches. We obtain our bounds by reducing these RNA string matching problems to well-known string matching problems allowing wild cards and ranges.

Alignment. The global similarity between two RNA strings is defined as a weighted sum of sequence similarity and structural similarity. Our algorithm for computing global similarity can be used to compute an edit distance between two RNA strings that is a weighted sum of sequence edit cost and edge-mismatch costs.

The next two entries in Table 1 are analogous to the LCS and SCS problem for two RNA strings. A longest common RNA subsequence (RLCS) of two RNA strings is one whose sequence is a subsequence of the two given strings and the sum of the common characters in the sequences as well as the number of common edges in the two strings that are matched to each other is maximum. This definition, as well as our algorithm, can be extended to allow an arbitrary weighted sum of the number of common characters and the number of matched edges in the two strings. The shortest common RNA supersequence (RSCS) is an RNA string of which both the given strings are RNA subsequences such that the total number of characters plus edges in the supersequence is minimum. Again, the extension to weighting edges and characters differently is straightforward. Somewhat surprisingly, RLCS and RSCS seem to be computationally very different problems. We can reduce RLCS to computing an optimal alignment by defining the scoring function appropriately. On the other hand our algorithm for computing the RSCS has running time that is two orders of magnitude more.

Structure. The problem of inferring structure through alignment, takes as input an RNA sequence and an RNA string and computes an alignment of the sequence with the string to maximize a weighted sum of the sequence similarity and the number of edges in the RNA string whose endpoints are aligned with complementary base-pairs in the RNA sequence. This alignment can be used as a model of commonality between the RNA string and the unknown RNA sequence. As more and more RNA secondary sequences become available, our formulation of the prediction problem appears increasingly relevant.

Related work

Comparison methods. First we review work on comparison methods developed to estimate distances between RNA secondary structures. Since secondary structures can be represented as trees, there are several papers [7, 22, 25, 26] addressing comparisons of trees. Tree edits are discussed and efficient algorithms are derived in [22, 25, 26] while a new notion of tree alignment is proposed and algorithms developed in [7]. Even though these comparison methods compute distances only between secondary structures, the worst-case running time of estimating this distance (tree edits or alignments) is quadric; the running time

of our alignment algorithm that takes in account both sequence and structure compares favorably with this estimate.

Tree based comparison methods do not appear to generalize when comparing both the secondary structure as well as the underlying sequence of two RNA strings. The difficulty seems to be in the local definition of the operations of tree edit and tree alignment: A single edit operation, for instance, can either create a new node or delete an existing node and reconnect its children to its parent. Suppose we include characters from the sequence in a tree representation of the secondary structure to represent an RNA string. The deletion of a character that is an allowable tree edit operation does not take into account that there may be an edge in the secondary structure with this character as one endpoint. Therefore, such edit operations have no semantic meaning in the process of converting one RNA string to another, and illustrate the weakness of purely tree-based methods of edit. Our algorithms use a combination of sequence edit computation and a tree-based computation to align the edges in the secondary structure to overcome this difficulty.

Prediction methods. Prediction of RNA secondary structure of a single RNA molecule from its sequence has been widely studied in the past [3, 4, 10, 14, 23, 24, 28, 29]. Most of this work use adaptations of dynamic programming to solve variants of the problem that take into account different energy assignments for the different secondary structure primitives such as stacked pairs, hairpins, multiloops, interior loops and bulges. Sankoff [17] considers prediction of secondary structure common to two RNA sequences also taking into account alignment of the sequences. The key difference from our approach is that he does not assume that the secondary structure of either of the sequences is given, but instead computes an alignment and a most likely folding that is common to both the sequences. Sankoff's algorithm more carefully models the energy functions for different kinds of loops in the structure (such as stacked pairs, multiloops etc.); the running time of his algorithm for two sequences is two orders of magnitude higher. In contrast to the above work, our version of the prediction problem assumes that more information is available in the form of the sequence and the secondary structure of an RNA string that is closely related to the one whose structure is to be predicted.

Another related line of work is [6, 15, 16] that uses stochastic context free grammars to model a family of related RNA strings. Other related work appears in [8, 11, 18, 19].

In the next section, we describe our results on RNA string matching; We then turn to alignment of RNA strings and its variants in Section 3. In Section 4, we describe our algorithm for structure prediction given a related RNA string. We conclude with some open issues.

2 RNA string matching

In this section, we explore string matching problems in the context of RNA strings. We formally define the variants of string matching problems that arise

when we deal with RNA strings. The first problem we consider is the basic problem of exact matching.

Symmetric Exact Matching.(SEM) Given a text RNA string t and a pattern RNA string p of length n and m respectively, determine all those positions where p occurs in t, that is, all locations i in t where,

1. *Strings match,* that is, $t[i]\cdots t[i+m-1] = p[1]\cdots p[m]$, and

2. *Secondary structures are identical,* that is, for any bonding pair $(i+j-1, i+k-1)$, $0 \le j < k \le m-1$, (j,k) is a bonding pair as well and vice versa. Note that the existence of some bonding pair $(i+j, i+k)$, where $0 \le j < k$ and $k > m-1$ does not affect p occurring in t at i. Similarly for bonding pairs $(i+j, i+k)$, where $0 \le k \le m-1$ and $j < 0$.

Containment Exact Matching.(CEM) It is defined just as SEM except that the secondary structure of p and that of the substring of t of length m beginning at i need not be identical. It is only required that the secondary structure of p contained in the latter. Formally, p occurs in t at i if strings match as before and

2. For any bonding pair (j,k), $1 \le j < k \le m$, $(i+j-1, i+k-1)$ is a bonding pair as well, but not necessarily vice versa.

The other basic problem we consider is the k-mismatches problem for the RNA strings defined as below.

Symmetric K-mismatches problem.(SKM) Given a text RNA string t and a pattern RNA string p of length n and m respectively, and a parameter k, determine all those positions where p occurs in t with at most K mismatches. We say that p occurs in t with at most K mismatches at i in t if there exist integers K_1 and K_2 such that $K_1 + K_2 \le K$ and in addition,

1. *There are K_1 string mismatches.* That is, $t[i]\cdots t[i+m-1]$ and $p[1]\cdots p[m]$ differ in K_1 positions.

2. *There are K_2 secondary structures mismatches.* That is, there are K_2 pairs of text and pattern positions $i+j-1, i+k-1$, $0 \le j < k \le m-1$ and j, k where precisely one of $(i+j-1, i+k-1)$ or (j,k) is a bonding pair. Note again that the existence of some bonding pair $(i+j, i+k)$, where $0 \le j < k$ and $k > m-1$ does not affect the number of mismatches between the secondary structure of p and that of $t[i]\cdots t[i+m-1]$. Similarly for bonding pairs $(i+j, i+k)$, where $0 \le k \le m-1$ and $j < 0$.

Containment K-mismatches problem.(CKM) The CKM problem is defined the same way as SKM except for the mismatches in the secondary structure. Here we only consider the number of bonding pairs in p which mismatch, that is, those that do not fall on bonding pairs in t; the bonding pairs in t that do not fall on a bonding pair in p are not counted as mismatches.

2.1 Exact Matching with RNA strings

In this section, we sketch our results for SEM and CEM problems.

Theorem 2.1 The CEM problem can be solved in $O(n \operatorname{polylog} m)$ time.

Proof.(Sketch) Our algorithm works as follows. First we perform standard string matching (using, say [9]) to find all locations where p does not occur in t since the strings mismatch. This takes $O(n + m)$ time.

Now we look for mismatches in the secondary structure. We construct an instance of string matching with wild cards to solve this problem. Assume that the RNA strings are strings drawn from $\{A, C, G, U\}$; the strings we generate for string matching with wild cards will contain symbols from $\{A, C, G, U\}$ as well as integers. We generate a text string t' from t by replacing each position i by $k - i$ if (i, k) or (k, i) is a bonding pair, and by the character $t[i]$ if there is no bonding pair involving i. Generate p' from p by replacing each position i by $k - i$ if (i, k) or (k, i) is a bonding pair, and by the wild card ϕ if there is no bonding pair involving i.

We claim that matching p' in t' gives all mismatches between the secondary structure of p and that of the substrings of t. The proof, a case analysis, is omitted here. The algorithm therefore takes time $O(n \operatorname{polylog} m)$ using the bound in [5]. $\square$

Theorem 2.2 The SEM problem can be solved in $O(n + m)$ time.

Proof. We prove that a simple modification of the Knuth-Morris-Pratt algorithm [9] suffices to solve the SEM problem. Let the match operation between two strings as defined for the SEM problem be denoted by $\cong$.

Lemma 2.3 The $\cong$ relation is transitive, that is, if $t[i] \cdots t[i + k - 1]$ matches $p[1] \cdots p[k]$, and some prefix $p[1] \cdots p[j]$, $j < k$, matches the suffix of $t[i] \cdots t[i + k - 1]$, then the string $p[1] \cdots p[j]$, matches the suffix of $p[1] \cdots p[k]$.

Proof. Follows from the definition of the $\cong$ relation. $\square$

Now we modify the comparisons in the KMP algorithm to perform SEM. Note that in standard KMP, comparing two locations is merely testing for equality. The following subroutines for Compare($p[i]$,$t[j]$) for $j \geq i$, and Compare($p[i]$,$p[j]$) for $i \leq j$ implement our $\cong$ relation. Compare($p[i]$,$t[j]$)

if $p[i] \neq t[j]$ return *unequal*
if $p[i] = t[j]$, $(i - k, i)$ is a bonding pair in t, $0 \leq k \leq i$ but $(j - k, j)$ is not a bonding pair in p then return *unequal*
if $p[i] = t[j]$, $(j - k, j)$ is a bonding pair in p, $0 \leq k \leq i$ but $(i - k, i)$ is not a bonding pair in t then return *unequal*
else return *equal*
end

The Compare($p[i]$,$p[j]$) for $i \leq j$ operation is implemented the same way. That completes the description of the algorithm. We omit the proof of the correctness except to invoke Lemma 2.3 and to remark that the following is preserved in the preprocessing using the $\cong$ operation above: The largest prefix of $p[1] \cdots p[i+1]$ that matches its suffix under $\cong$ is the largest prefix $p[1] \cdots p[k]$ of $p[1] \cdots p[i]$ that matches $p[i=k+1] \cdots p[i]$ and also answers Compare($p[i+1]$,$p[k+1]$) equal. It is easy to see that the entire algorithm works in $O(n+m)$ time.   □

2.2 K–mismatches with RNA strings

We will sketch algorithms for the SKM and the CKM problem.

Theorem 2.4 The CKM problem can be solved in $O(n\sqrt{m}\text{polylog}m)$ time.

Proof. As usual we solve the version of the problem in which for each text location we return the number of mismatches (in the string and the secondary structure) between p and the substring of t of length m. The case when the string considered by itself is easy; this is simply the standard problem of counting mismatches with strings and it takes $O(n\sqrt{m}\text{polylog}m)$ time [1]. In order to consider the secondary structure by itself, recall the reduction in Theorem 2.1. We generate t' and p' (with wild cards) as described there. It follows from an argument based on (nontrivial) case analysis (which we omit here) that our problem is reduced to solving the problem of counting the mismatches between p' and the substrings of t' (the number of mismatches of p' at a location i in t' is *exactly twice* the number of mismatches of p at i in t). This problem in turn can be solved in $O(n\sqrt{m}\text{polylog}m)$ time [1]. Finally, we can combine the number of mismatches in the two parts above in linear time and detect all locations in t where the total number of mismatches is at most K.   □

Theorem 2.5 The SKM problem can be solved in $O(nm^{2/3}\text{polylog}m)$ time.

Proof. Suppose as usual without loss of generality that $n \leq 2m$. We will again determine for each position the number of mismatches between p and t. Doing this considering t and p as a string can be easily done in $O(nm^{1/2}\text{polylog}m)$ time; henceforth we only consider counting mismatches due to the secondary structure. We give a reduction from this problem to that of counting the mismatches between a text t' and pattern p' where t' contains symbols from an ordered alphabet set Σ and each position of p' matches sets of ranges of the symbols from Σ. We call this the *sets of ranges* problem.

An example of the sets of ranges problem. Let $p = a\langle[a-c]+[f-g]+[z]\rangle c$ and $t = ababcda$. The second position in p from the left matches symbols a, b, c, f, g, z. Therefore, the number of mismatches between p and t at the leftmost position is 1 and that at the 5th position from the left is 3.   □

Now we describe the reduction. We generate t' from t by replacing each position i by $k-i$ if (i,k) or (k,i) is a bonding pair, and by the character X_t

if there is no bonding pair involving i. We generate p' from p by replacing each position i by $k - i$ if (i, k) or (k, i) is a bonding pair, and by

$$\langle [(m - i) \cdots (2m)] + [(-2m) \cdots (-i)] + X_t \rangle$$

if there is no bonding pair involving i.

We omit the lengthy case analysis proving that p' occurs at i in t' with $2k$ mismatches if and only if p occurs in t with k edge mismatches. This problem can be solved in $O(nm^{2/3}\text{polylog}m)$ time [12]. $\quad\square$

3 Computing Alignment for RNA strings

In this section, we look at sequence-alignment problems in the context of RNA strings. Specifically, we will consider variants of the edit-distance, longest-common-subsequence and shortest-common-supersequence problems.

Following Zuker[27, 28, 29], assume a model in which there are no knots in the secondary structure. A secondary structure is denoted by the set S of all base-pairs which have formed bonds. For $(i, j) \in S$, h is accessible from (i, j) if $i < h < j$, and there is no pair $(k, l) \in S$, s.t. $i < k < h < l < j$. Define $(i, j) \in S$ as the *parent* of $(k, l) \in S$ if k, l are accessible from (i, j). Observe that each $(i, j) \in S$ has at most one parent, implying a forest on the elements of S. The definitions of sibling, child, leaf follow naturally.

Let $s[1 \ldots n]$ and $t[1 \ldots m]$ be two RNA strings over the alphabet $\sum = \{A, C, G, U\}$ with structure S_1 and S_2 respectively. For technical reasons, let $s[0] = t[0] =' -'$. An *alignment* of s and t is defined by a $2 \times m'$ matrix A, in which each row contains a string interspersed with spaces, and for all columns j, either $A[1, j] \neq' -'$ or $A[2, j] \neq' -'$. For $i \in \{1, 2\}$, define

$$gap[i, j] = \begin{cases} j & \text{if } A[i, j] =' -' \\ |\{l < j \text{ s.t. } A[i, l] =' -'\}| & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Intuitively, if $A[i, j] \neq' -'$, then $gap[i, j]$ is the number of gaps that were inserted in the *ith* string till position j in alignment A. Following standard terminology, position i in A has a *match* if $A[1, i] = A[2, i] \neq' -'$, an *insertion* if $A[1, i] =' -'$, a *deletion* if $A[2, i] =' -'$ and a *mismatch* otherwise. Additionally, for RNA strings a bonding pair occurs at positions i, j if $(i - gap[1, i], j - gap[1, j]) \in S_1$ and $(i - gap[2, i], j - gap[2, j]) \in S_2$. Intuitively, we would like to compute an alignment which maximizes both symbol and base-pair matches.

Formally, for elements $u, v \in \sum \cup \{'-'\}$, define $\gamma(u, v)$ to be the score associated with aligning u against v. For $1 \leq i < j \leq m$ and $1 \leq k < l \leq n$, let $\delta(i, j, k, l)$ be the score associated with aligning base-pairs (i, j) with (k, l).

Definition 3.1 The Global Alignment problem for RNA strings is defined as follows: Given RNA strings s and t, compute an alignment A (and the associated function *gap*) that maximizes

$$\sum_{1 \leq i \leq m+n} \gamma(s[i - gap[1, i]], t[i - gap[2, i]]) \quad + $$
$$\sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq m+n} \delta(i - gap[1, i], j - gap[1, j], i - gap[2, i], j - gap[2, j])$$

Theorem 3.2 Algorithm AlignRNA (fig. 2) computes an optimum global alignment for Two RNA strings in $O(n^2 m^2)$ time.

Note that edit-distance is the inverse problem of computing an alignment with a minimum number of insertions, deletions, mismatches and bonding pair mismatches. It follows that edit-distance can be computed in $O(n^2 m^2)$ time.

Procedure *AlignRNA()*
begin
  for intervals (i_1, j_1), $1 \leq i_1 < j_1 \leq m$
    and (i_2, j_2), $1 \leq i_2 < j_2 \leq n$
(* Assume that the intervals are examined in lexicographically
  increasing order of widths *)

$$Align[i_1, j_1, i_2, j_2] = \max \left\{ \begin{array}{l} Align[i_1, j_1 - 1, i_2, j_2] + \gamma(s[j_1], '-') \\ Align[i_1, j_1, i_2, j_2 - 1] + \gamma('-', t[j_2]) \\ Align[i_1, j_1 - 1, i_2, j_2 - 1] + \gamma(s[j_1], t[j_2]) \end{array} \right.$$

  if there exist $i_1 \leq k_1 < j_1, i_2 \leq k_2 < j_2$
    s.t. $(k_1, j_1) \in S_1, (k_2, j_2) \in S_2$

$$Align[i_1, j_1, i_2, j_2] = \max \left\{ \begin{array}{l} Align[i_1, j_1, i_2, j_2], \\ Align[i_1, k_1 - 1, i_2, k_2 - 1] + \\ Align[k_1 + 1, j_1 - 1, k_2 + 1, j_2 - 1] \\ + \delta(k_1, j_1, k_2, j_2) + \gamma(s[k_1], t[k_2]) + \gamma(s[j_1], t[j_2]) \end{array} \right.$$

end

Figure 2: Computing optimal alignment for RNA strings

3.1 LCS and SCS of RNA strings

For sequences, LCS and SCS can easily be deduced from an alignment in which no mismatches occur. For i varying from 1 to $m + n$, the LCS is simply the sequence formed by concatenating non-space symbols that appear in both $A[1, i]$ and $A[2, i]$, while the SCS is the concatenation of non-space symbols that appear in $A[1, i]$ or $A[2, i]$. It is also easy to see that for strings of length m and n, if l is the length of the longest common subsequence and s is the length of the shortest common supersequence, then $l = m + n - s$. Therefore for sequences, the two problems are virtually identical.

The notion of a subsequence and supersequence can be extended naturally to RNA strings as follows:

Definition 3.3 Let s and t be two RNA strings with structure S_1 and S_2 respectively. s is an RNA-supersequence of t if there exists an alignment A of s and t, such that for all i, $A[1, i] = s[i]$, and for all i, j $(i - gap[2, i], j - gap[2, j]) \in S_2$ implies $(i, j) \in S_1$. s is an RNA-subsequence of t if t is an RNA-supersequence of s.

Definition 3.4 Let s be an RNA string with structure S. Define the 'length' of s, denoted by $len(s)$, to be $|s| + |S|$.

From this, the definition of a shortest common RNA-supersequence (RSCS) and a longest common RNA-subsequence (RLCS) of two or more RNA sequences follows.

Theorem 3.5 Let s, t be two RNA strings over $\sum$ with structure S_1 and S_2 respectively. RLCS of s, t can be computed in $O(n^2 m^2)$ time.

Proof. (sketch): For elements $u, v \in \sum \cup \{'-'\}$, define

$$
\gamma(u, v) = \begin{cases} 1 & u = v \\ 0 & u =' -' \text{ or } v =' -' \\ -\infty & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}
$$

and

$$
\delta(i, j, k, l) = \begin{cases} 1 & s[i] = t[k] \wedge s[j] = t[l] \\ & \wedge (i, j) \in S_1 \wedge (k, l) \in S_2 \\ -\infty & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}
$$

We claim without proof that for these definitions of γ and δ, algorithm AlignRNA computes the length of RLCS of two strings. The claim on running time follows from theorem 3.2. $\square$

Note that the alignment obtained in the LCS computation does not always yield a common RNA supersequence. In fact, it is possible that for the alignment obtained, there exist indices $1 \le i < j < k < l \le m+n$ such that $(i - gap[1, i], k - gap[1, k]) \in S_1$ and $(j - gap[2, j], l - gap[2, l]) \in S_2$. Clearly a common RNA supersequence must have both base-pairs but they cannot be interleaved because of our assumption of an unknotted structure.

Our algorithm for computing RSCS must therefore enforce this condition. For an RNA-string s with structure S, define a spanning-interval $[i, j]$ as a substring $s[i \ldots j]$, such that no pair $(k, l) \in S$ satisfies $i \le k \le j < l$ or $k < i \le l \le j$. We compute the RSCS for each pair of spanning interval $[i_1, j_1]$ and $[i_2, j_2]$ in the two strings. If both j_1 and j_2 do not form bonds with another base-pair, then

$$
RSCS[i_1, j_1, i_2, j_2] = \min \begin{cases} RSCS[i_1, j_1 - 1, i_2, j_2] + 1 \\ RSCS[i_1, j_1, i_2, j_2 - 1] + 1 \\ RSCS[i_1, j_1 - 1, i_2, j_2 - 1] + \gamma(s[j_1], t[j_2]) \end{cases}
$$

where γ is defined as in RLCS. Otherwise, let $(k_1, j_1) \in S_1$ and $(k_2, j_2) \in S_2$. Then we have different cases depending whether (k_1, j_1) and (k_2, j_2) match or not in the RSCS of the two strings. (k_1, j_1) and (k_2, j_2) are matched only if $s[k_1] = t[k_2]$, and $s[j_1] = t[j_2]$. In that case,

$$
\begin{aligned}
RSCS[i_1, j_1, i_2, j_2] &= RSCS[i_1, k_1 - 1, i_2, k_2 - 1] + \\
& RSCS[k_2 + 1, j_1 - 1, k_2 + 1, j_2 - 1] + 3
\end{aligned}
$$

If (k_1, j_1) and (k_2, j_2) are not matched then (k_1, j_1) could be aligned against an arbitrary interval in $[i_2, j_2]$. Then,

$$RSCS[i_1, j_1, i_2, j_2] = \min_{x,y} \quad \{RSCS[i_1, k_1 - 1, i_2, x - 1] + \\ RSCS[k_1, j_1, x, y] + len(t[y + 1 \ldots j_2])\}$$

where the minimization is over all $i_2 \leq x < y \leq j_2$ such that $[x, y]$ is a spanning interval of t. Likewise,

$$RSCS[i_1, j_1, i_2, j_2] = \min_{x,y} \quad \{RSCS[i_1, x - 1, i_2, k_2 - 1] + \\ RSCS[x, y, k_2, j_2] + len(s[y + 1 \ldots j_1])\}$$

where $i_1 \leq x < y \leq j_1$ and $[x, y]$ is a spanning interval of s. Clearly, for each pair of spanning intervals, the complexity of computing RSCS is $O(n^2 + m^2)$, which implies theorem 3.6.

Theorem 3.6 Let s, t be two RNA strings over $\sum$ with structure S_1 and S_2 respectively. An RSCS of s, t can be computed in $O(n^2 m^2 (n^2 + m^2))$ time.

4 Inferring RNA structure via Alignment

Given two sequences $s[1 \ldots n]$ and $t[1 \ldots m]$, where s has a known structure S_1, we infer the structure of t by aligning the two sequences. This approach is useful if we know that the two sequences are functionally related and have similar structure. For all $1 \leq i < j \leq m+n$, base-pairs $i - gap[2, i]$ and $j - gap[2, j]$ form a bond in t only if they are complementary and $(i - gap[1, i], j - gap[1, j]) \in S$. We would like to find an alignment that maximizes the sequence alignment score as well as the number of bonds formed in t. The algorithm for computing RNA alignment can be easily modified to accomplish this.

Consider the algorithm *AlignRNA* (fig. 2). Note that when we are comparing intervals $[i_1, j_1]$ and $[i_2, j_2]$, and there exists $(k_1, j_1) \in S$, there may be $\Omega(m)$ complementary pairs (k_2, j_2) that (k_1, j_1) can align against, and we need to pick the pair that gives the best alignment. Therefore, the naive algorithm has complexity $O(n^2 m^3)$. In the following, we take advantage of the tree structure S of s to obtain an $O(n^2 m^2 + nm^3)$ algorithm.

Consider the forest defined by the elements of S and the function *parent*. First, we *binarize* the forest by introducing additional base-pairs in S to get S', so that each node in S' has at most 2 children. Procedure Binarize (fig. 3) accomplishes this, for a tree rooted at $(i, j) \in S$.

For the algorithm *InferStructure*(fig. 4), we assume that we already have the sets S and S' for s. Functions γ and δ are the costs for aligning bases and base-pairs respectively, as defined for RNA Alignment.

Theorem 4.1 The algorithm InferStructure() computes the optimal alignment for inferring structure in $O(m^2 n^2 + nm^3)$ time.

Procedure $Binarize(i,j)$
(* Assume that $(i,j) \in S$ has k children $\{(i_1,j_1),\ldots,(i_k,j_k)\}$ *)
begin
    for $1 \le u < k$ **do**
        $Binarize(i_u,j_u)$
        $S' = S' \cup \{(i_1,j_u)\}$
        if $(u > 1)$
            $parent((i_1,j_{u-1})) = (i_1,j_u)$
            $parent((i_u,j_u)) = (i_1,j_u)$
    $parent(i_1,j_k) = (i,j)$
end

Figure 3: Binarizing an RNA structure tree

Procedure $InferStructure()$
begin
 for intervals (i_1,j_1), $1 \le i_1 < j_1 \le n$
    and intervals (i_2,j_2), $1 \le i_2 < j_2 \le m$
(* Assume that the intervals are examined in lexicographically
  increasing order of widths*)

$$Align[i_1,j_1,i_2,j_2] = \max \begin{cases} Align[i_1+1,j_1,i_2,j_2] + \gamma(s[i_1],'-') \\ Align[i_1,j_1,i_2+1,j_2] + \gamma('-',t[i_2]) \\ Align[i_1+1,j_1,i_2+1,j_2] + \gamma(s[i_1],t[i_2]) \\ Align[i_1,j_1-1,i_2,j_2] + \gamma(s[j_1],'-') \\ Align[i_1,j_1,i_2,j_2-1] + \gamma('-',t[j_2]) \\ Align[i_1,j_1-1,i_2,j_2-1] + \gamma(s[j_1],t[j_2]) \end{cases}$$

    if $(i_1,j_1) \in S$ and
        $t[i_2]$ and $t[j_2]$ are complementary base-pairs

$$Align[i_1,j_1,i_2,j_2] = \max \begin{cases} Align[i_1,j_1,i_2,j_2], \\ \delta(i_1,j_1,i_2,j_2) + \gamma(s[i_1],t[i_2]) + \gamma(s[j_1],t[j_2]) \\ +Align[i_1+1,j_1-1,i_2+1,j_2-1] \end{cases}$$

    else if $(i_1,j_1) \in S' - S$ and
        $(k,j_1)) = rightchild(i_1,j_1)$

$$Align[i_1,j_1,i_2,j_2] = \max \begin{cases} Align[i_1,j_1,i_2,j_2], \\ \max_{i_2 < l < j_2}\{Align[i_1,k-1,i_2,l-1]+ \\ \qquad\qquad Align[k,j_1,l,j_2]\} \end{cases}$$

end

Figure 4: Inferring structure of an RNA string

Proof. (sketch): Observe that $|S'| = O(|S|)$, which implies that $|S'| = O(n)$. The first two conditional statements each take constant time and are executed for all possible $O(n^2m^2)$ intervals. The last conditional statement takes time $O(m)$, but is executed $O(|S'|m^2) = O(nm^2)$ times. □

5 Conclusions

We have formulated and provided efficient algorithms for a number of problems on computing similarity between RNA strings. Among possible extensions, we mention two: careful modeling of energies of secondary structure primitives such as multiloops, bulges etc., and defining models that capture more general structures such as proteins. It is worthwhile to note that our algorithms for RNA string matching extend to structures that allow crossing edges as long as every base forms at most one bond.

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