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# A new parametrization for independent set reconfiguration and applications to RNA kinetics 

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#### Abstract

In this paper, we study the Independent Set (IS) reconfiguration problem in graphs. An IS reconfiguration is a scenario transforming an IS $L$ into another IS $R$, inserting/removing vertices one step at a time while keeping the cardinalities of intermediate sets greater than a specified threshold. We focus on the bipartite variant where only start and end vertices are allowed in intermediate ISs. Our motivation is an application to the RNA energy barrier problem from bioinformatics, for which a natural parameter would be the difference between the initial IS size and the threshold.

We first show the para-NP hardness of the problem with respect to this parameter. We then investigate a new parameter, the cardinality range, denoted by $\rho$ which captures the maximum deviation of the reconfiguration scenario from optimal sets (formally, $\rho$ is the maximum difference between the cardinalities of an intermediate IS and an optimal IS). We give two different routes to show that this problem is in XP for $\rho$ : The first is a direct $O\left(n^{2}\right)$-space, $O\left(n^{2 \rho+2.5}\right)$-time algorithm based on a separation lemma; The second builds on a parameterized equivalence with the directed pathwidth problem, leading to a $O\left(n^{\rho+1}\right)$-space, $O\left(n^{\rho+2}\right)$-time algorithm for the reconfiguration problem through an adaptation of a prior result by Tamaki [20]. This equivalence is an interesting result in its own right, connecting a reconfiguration problem (which is essentially a connectivity problem within a reconfiguration network) with a structural parameter for an auxiliary graph.

We demonstrate the practicality of these algorithms, and the relevance of our introduced parameter, by considering the application of our algorithms on random small-degree instances for our problem. Moreover, we reformulate the computation of the energy barrier between two RNA secondary structures, a classic hard problem in computational biology, as an instance of bipartite reconfiguration. Our results on IS reconfiguration thus yield an XP algorithm in $O\left(n^{\rho+2}\right)$ for the energy barrier problem, improving upon a partial $O\left(n^{2 \rho+2.5}\right)$ algorithm for the problem.


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## 1 Introduction

Reconfiguration problems. Reconfiguration problems informally ask whether there exists, between two configurations of a system, a reconfiguration pathway entirely composed of legal intermediate configurations, connected by legal moves. In a thoroughly studied sub-category

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of these problems, configurations correspond to feasible solutions of some optimization problem, and a feasible solution is legal when its quality is higher than a specified threshold.

Examples of optimization problems for which reconfiguration versions have been studied include Dominating Set, Vertex Cover, Shortest Path or Independent Set, which is our focus in this article. Associated complexities range from polynomial (see [23] for examples) to NP-complete (for bipartite independent set reconfiguration [13]), and even PSPACE-complete for many of them [13, 9]. Such computational hardness motivates the study of these problems under the lens of parametrized complexity $[18,14,15,9]$, in the hope of identifying tractable sub-regimes. Typical parameters considered by these studies focus on the value of the quality threshold (typically a solution size bound) defining legal configurations and the length of the reconfiguration sequences.
Directed pathwidth. Directed pathwidth, originally defined in [1] and attributed to Robertson, Seymour and Thomas, represents a natural extension of the notions of pathwidth and path decompositions to directed graphs. Like its undirected restriction, it may alternatively be defined in terms of graph searching [24], path decompositions [4, 6] or vertex separation number $[11,20]$. An intuitive formulation can be stated as the search for a visit order of the directed graph, using as few active vertices as possible at each step, and such that no vertex may be deactivated until all its in-neighbors have been activated. Although an FPT algorithm is known for the undirected pathwidth [2], it remains open whether computing the directed pathwidth admits a FPT algorithm. XP algorithms [20, 11] are known, and have been implemented in practice [19, 12].

RNA energy barrier. RNAs are single-stranded biomolecules, which fold onto themselves into 2D and 3D structures through the pairing of nucleotides along their sequence [22]. Thermodynamics then favors low-energy structures, and the RNA energy barrier problem asks, given two structures, whether there exists a re-folding pathway connecting them that does not go through unlikely high-energy intermediate states [17, 21]. Interestingly, the problem falls under the wide umbrella of reconfiguration problems described above, namely the reconfiguration of solutions of optimization problems (here, energy minimization). An important specificity of the problem is that the probability of a refolding pathway depends on the energy difference between intermediate states and the starting point rather than the absolute energy value. Another aspect of this problem is that, since some pairings of the initial structure may impede the formation of new pairings for the target structure, it induces a notion of precedence constraints, and may therefore also be treated as a scheduling problem, as carried out in $[8,10]$.
Problem statement. In our work, we focus on independent set reconfigurations where only vertices from the start or end ISs ( $L$ and $R$ ) are allowed within intermediate ISs. This amounts to considering the induced subgraph $G[L \cup R]$, bipartite by construction. We write $\alpha(G)$ for the size of a maximum independent set of $G$ (recall that $\alpha(G)$ can be computed in polynomial time on bipartite graphs).

## Bipartite Independent Set Reconfiguration (BISR)

Input: Bipartite graph $G=(V, E)$ with partition $V=L \cup R$; integer $\rho$
Parameter: $\rho$
Output: True if there exists a sequence $I_{0} \cdots I_{\ell}$ of independent sets of $G$ such that

- $I_{0}=L$ and $I_{\ell}=R$;
- $\left|I_{i}\right| \geq \alpha(G)-\rho, \forall i \in[0, \ell]$;
- $\left|I_{i} \triangle I_{i+1}\right|=1, \forall i \in[0, \ell-1]$.

False otherwise.


Figure 1 Example of a bipartite independent set reconfiguration from vertices in $L$ (blue) to $R$ (red). Selected vertices at each step have a filled background. All intermediate ISs have size at least 3 , and the optimal IS has size 5 , so this scenario has a range of 2 ; it can easily be verified that it is optimal.

Figure 1 shows an example of an instance of BISR and a possible reconfiguration pathway. We introduce the cardinality range (or simply range) $\rho=\max _{1 \leq i \leq \ell} \alpha(G)-\left|I_{i}\right|$ as a natural parameter for this problem, since it measures a distance to optimality. As mentioned above, the related parameter in RNA reconfiguration is the barrier, denoted $k$, and defined as $k=\max _{1 \leq i \leq \ell}|L|-\left|I_{i}\right|$. Intuitively, $k$ measures the size difference from the starting point rather than from an "absolute" optimum. Note that $k=\rho-(\alpha(G)-|L|)$, so one has $0 \leq k \leq \rho$. Both parameters are obviously similar for instances where $L$ is close to being a maximum independent set, which is generally the case in RNA applications, but in theory the range $\rho$ can be arbitrarily larger than the barrier $k$.

Our results. We first prove that in general, the barrier $k$ may not yield any interesting parameterized algorithm, since BISR is Para-NP-hard for this parameter. We thus focus on the range parameter for Bipartite Independent Set Reconfiguration, and prove that it is in XP by providing two distinct algorithmic strategies to tackle it.

Our first algorithmic strategy stems from a parameterized equivalence we draw between BISR and the problem of computing the directed pathwidth of directed graphs. Within this equivalence, the range parameter $\rho$ maps exactly to the directed pathwidth. This allows to apply XP algorithms for Directed Pathwidth to BISR while retaining their complexity, such as the $O\left(n^{\rho+2}\right)$-time, $O\left(n^{\rho+1}\right)$-space algorithm from Tamaki [20] (with $n=|V|$ ). This equivalence between directed pathwidth and bipartite independent set reconfiguration is itself an interesting result, as it connects a structural problem, whose parameterized complexity is open, with a reconfiguration problem of the kind that is routinely studied in parameterized complexity [18, 14, 15, 9].

We also present another more direct algorithm for BISR, with a time complexity of $O\left(n^{2 \rho} \sqrt{n} m\right.$ ) (with $m=|E|$ ) but using only $O\left(n^{2}\right)$ space. It relies on a separation lemma involving, if it exists, a mixed maximum independent set of $G$ containing at least one vertex from both parts of the graph. In the specific case of bipartite graphs arising from RNA reconfiguration, we improve the run-time of the subroutine computing a mixed MIS to $O\left(n^{2}\right)$ (rather than $O(\sqrt{n} m)$ ), with a dynamic programming approach.

We present benchmark results for both algorithms, on random instances of general bipartite graphs as well as instances of the RNA Energy Barrier problem. The approach based on directed pathwidth yields reasonable solving times for RNA strings of length up to $\sim 150$.
Outline. To start with, Section 2 presents some previously known results related to BISR, as well as some alternative formulations or parameters. Then, Section 3 shows that BISR is in fact equivalent to the computation of directed pathwidth in directed graphs. We first present a parameterized reduction from bipartite independent set reconfiguration to an input-restricted version, on graphs allowing for a perfect matching. Then, this version of the problem is shown to be simply equivalent to the computation of directed pathwidth on general directed graphs.

Section 4 presents our direct algorithm for bipartite independent set reconfiguration. More precisely, Section 4.2 presents the separation lemma on which the divide-and-conquer approach of the algorithm is based, while Section 4.3 details the algorithm and its analysis.

To finish, Section 5 explains some optimizations specific to RNA reconfiguration instances, and presents our numerical results.

## 2 Preliminaries

Previous results. Bipartite Independent Set Reconfiguration was proven NPcomplete in [13], through the equivalent $k$-Vertex Cover Reconfiguration problem. Formulated in terms of RNAs, and restricted to secondary structures (i.e. the subset of bipartite graphs that can be obtained in RNA reconfiguration instances), it was independently proven NP-hard in [17]. To the authors' knowledge, its parameterized complexity remains open.

Independent set reconfiguration in an unrestricted setting (allowing vertices which are outside from the start or end independent sets, i.e. in possibly non-bipartite graphs) when parameterized by the minimum allowed size of intermediate sets has been proven $\mathrm{W}[1]$-hard $[18,9]$, and fixed-parameter tractable for planar graphs or graphs of bounded degree [14]. Whether this more general problem is in XP for this parameter remains open. We note that in this setting, parameter $\rho$ seems slightly less relevant since it involves computing a maximal independent set in a general graph (i.e. testing if there exists a reconfiguration from $\emptyset$ to $\emptyset$ with range $\rho$ is equivalent to deciding if $\alpha(G) \geq \rho$ ).

As for algorithms for BISR, the closest precedent is an algorithm by Thachuk et al. [21]. It is restricted to RNA secondary structure conflict graphs, and additionally to conflict graphs for which both parts $L$ and $R$ are maximum independent sets of $G$. In this restricted setting, although it is not stated as such, [21] provides an XP algorithm with respect to the barrier parameter $k$ which then coincides with the range parameter $\rho$ that we introduce.
Restriction to the monotonous case. A reconfiguration pathway for BIPARTITE INDEPENDENT SET RECONFIGURATION is called monotonous or direct if every vertex is added or removed exactly once in the entire sequence. The length of a monotonous sequence is therefore necessarily: $\ell=|L \cup R|=|L|+|R|$.

Theorem 2 from [13] tells us that if $G, \rho$ is a yes-instance of bipartite independent set reconfiguration, then there exists a monotonous reconfiguration between $L$ and $R$ respecting the constraints. We will therefore restrict without loss of generality our study to this simpler case. In the more restricted set studied in [21], this was also independently shown.
Hardness for the barrier parameter. In the general case where $L$ is not necessarily a maximal independent set, the range and barrier parameters (respectively $\rho$ and $k=$
$\rho-(\alpha(G)-|L|)$ may be arbitrarily different. The following result motivates our use of parameter $\rho$ for the parameterized analysis of BISR.

- Proposition 1. BISR is Para-NP-hard for the energy barrier parameter (i.e. NP-hard even with $k=0$ ).

Proof. We use additional vertices in $R$ to prove this result. Informally, such a vertex may always be inserted first in a realization: it improves the starting IS from $|L|$ to $|L|+1$, so the lower bound on the rest of the sequence is shifted from $|L|-k$ to $|L|-(k-1)$, effectively reducing the barrier without simplifying the instance. Thus, we build a reduction from the general version of BISR: given a bipartite graph $G$ with parts $L$ and $R$ and an integer $\rho$, we construct a new instance $G^{\prime}$ with parts $L^{\prime}=L$ and $R^{\prime}$ equal to $R \cup N_{R}$ and $\rho^{\prime}=\rho . N_{R}$ is composed of $|L|-(\alpha(G)-\rho)$ isolated vertices (we can assume without loss of generality that this quantity is non-negative, otherwise ( $G, \rho$ ) is a trivial no-instance), completely disconnected from the rest of the graph.

Note that $\alpha\left(G^{\prime}\right)=\alpha(G)+\left|N_{R}\right|=|L|+\rho$, so the barrier in $\left(G^{\prime}, \rho^{\prime}\right)$ is $k=\rho-\left(\alpha\left(G^{\prime}\right)-|L|\right)=$ 0 . A realization for $(G, \rho)$ can be transformed into a realization for $\left(G^{\prime}, \rho\right)$ by inserting vertices from $N_{R}$ first, and conversely, vertices from $N_{R}$ can be ignored in a realization for $\left(G^{\prime}, \rho\right)$ to obtain a realization for $(G, \rho)$. Therefore, since BISR is NP-Complete, it is also Para-NP-hard w.r.t the barrier $k$.

Permutation formulation and $\rho$-realizations. An equivalent representation of a monotonous reconfiguration pathway $I_{0} \ldots I_{\ell}$ from $L$ to $R$ for a graph $G$ is a permutation $P$ of $L \cup R$. The $i$-th vertex of the permutation is the vertex that is processed (i.e. added or removed) between $I_{i-1}$ and $I_{i}$ (this formulation lightens the representation of a solution, from a list of vertex sets to a list of vertices). Given a subset $X$ of vertices, we write $\delta(X)=|L \cap X|-|R \cap X|$ and $I(X)=(L \backslash X) \cup(R \cap X)=L \Delta X$ for the set obtained from $L$ after processing vertices from $X$. Then $|I(X)|=|L|-\delta(X)$. We say that $X$ is licit if $I(X)$ is an independent set. For any prefix $p$ of $P$ of length $i$, we write $V(p)$ (or simply $p$ if the context is clear) for the set of vertices appearing in $p$, and $I_{i}=I(V(p))$. Permutation $P$ is licit if $V(p)$ is licit for each prefix $p$ of $P$; note that $P$ is licit if and only if $\mathrm{f} \forall r \in R$, the neighborhood $N(r)$ of $r$ in $G$ appears before $r$ in $P$. Thus, permutation $P$ is a $\rho$-realization that is licit and such that for each prefix $p,|I(p)| \geq \alpha(G)-\rho$ (i.e. $\delta(V(p)) \leq \rho+|L|-\alpha(G)$.

## 3 Connection to Directed Pathwidth

### 3.1 Definitions

Parameterized reduction. In this section, we provide a definition of directed pathwidth, and then prove its parameterized equivalence to the bipartite independent set reconfiguration problem. We say two problems $\mathcal{P}_{1}$ and $\mathcal{P}_{2}$ are parametrically equivalent when there exists both a parameterized reduction from $\mathcal{P}_{1}$ to $\mathcal{P}_{2}$ and another from $\mathcal{P}_{2}$ to $\mathcal{P}_{1}$. A parameterized reduction [5] from problem $\mathcal{P}$ to problem $\mathcal{Q}$ is a function $\varphi$ from instances of $\mathcal{P}$ to instances of $\mathcal{Q}$ such that (i) $\varphi(x)$ is a yes-instance of $\mathcal{Q} \Leftrightarrow x$ is a yes-instance of $\mathcal{P}$, (ii) $\varphi(x)$ can be computed in time $f(k) \cdot|x|^{O(1)}$, where $k$ is the parameter of $x$, and (iii) if $k$ is the parameter of $x$ and $k^{\prime}$ is the parameter of $\varphi(x)$, then $k^{\prime} \leq g(k)$ for some (computable) function $g$.
Interval representation. Our definition of directed pathwidth relies on interval embeddings. Alternative definitions can be found, for instance in terms of directed path decomposition or directed vertex separation number [24, 20, 11].

- Definition 2 (Interval representation). An interval representation of a directed graph $H$ associates each vertex $u \in H$ with an interval $I_{u}=\left[a_{u}, b_{u}\right]$, with $a_{u}, b_{u}$ integers. An interval representation is valid when $(u, v) \in E \Rightarrow a_{u} \leq b_{v}$. I.e, the interval of $u$ must start before the interval of $v$ ends. If $m, M$ are such that $\forall u, m \leq a_{u}, b_{u} \leq M$, we define the width of an interval representation as $\max _{m \leq i \leq M}\left|\left\{u \mid i \in I_{u}\right\}\right|$
- Definition 3 (directed pathwidth). The directed pathwidth of a directed graph $H$ is the minimum possible width of a valid interval representation of $H$. We note this number dpw $(H)$.

Nice interval representation. An interval representation is said to be nice when no more than one interval bound is associated to any given integer, and the integers associated to interval bounds are exactly $[1 \ldots 2 \cdot|V(H)|]$. Any interval representation may be turned into a nice one without changing the width by introducing new positions and "spreading events". See Appendix B for more details.
Directed graph from perfect matching. Given a bipartite graph $G$ allowing for a perfect matching $M$, we construct an associated directed graph $H$ in the following way: the vertices of $H$ are the edges of the matching, and $(l, r) \rightarrow\left(l^{\prime}, r^{\prime}\right)$ is an arc of $H$ iff $\left(l, r^{\prime}\right) \in G$. Alternatively, $H$ is obtained from $G, M$ by orienting the edges of $G$ from $L$ to $R$, and then contracting the edges of $M$. We will denote this graph $H(G, M)$, and simply call it the directed graph associated to $G, M$. Such a construction is relatively standard and can be found in [7, 26], for instance.

### 3.2 Directed pathwidth $\Leftrightarrow$ Bipartite independent set reconfiguration

Perfect matching case. Our main structural result is the following. Its proof, relying on interval representations, is quite straightforward and postponed to appendix B:

- Proposition 4. Let $G$ be a bipartite graph allowing for a perfect matching M, and let $H(G, M)$ be the directed graph associated to $G, M$. Then $G$ allows for a $\rho$-realization iff $d p w(H(G, M)) \leq \rho$.
Conversely, given any directed graph $H$, there exists a bipartite graph $G$ allowing for a perfect matching $M$ such that $H=H(G, M)$ is the directed graph associated to $G, M$ and $G$ allows for a $\rho$-realization iff $d p w(H) \leq \rho$.

The first half of Proposition 4 is a parameterized reduction from an input-restricted version of BIPARTITE INDEPENDENT SET RECONFIGURATION to directed pathwidth. The restriction is on bipartite graphs allowing for a perfect matching. The second half is a parameterized reduction in the other direction. In both cases, the parameter value is directly transferred, which allows to retain the same complexity when transferring an algorithm from one problem to the other.
Non-perfect-matching case. In the case where $G$ does not allow for a perfect matching, we construct an equivalent instance $G^{\prime}$ allowing for a perfect matching $M^{\prime}$, through the addition of new vertices. Specifically, with a bipartite graph $G$ with sides $L, R$, a maximum matching $M$ of $G$, and the set $U$ of unmatched vertices in $G$, we extend $G$ with $|U|$ new vertices in two sets $N_{L}, N_{R}$, giving a new graph $G^{\prime}$, with sides $L^{\prime}=L \cup N_{L}, R^{\prime}=R \cup N_{R}$, in the following way ( $M^{\prime}$ is initialized to $M$ ):

- For each $u \in L \cap U$, we introduce a new vertex $r(u) \in N_{R}$, connect it to all vertices of $L^{\prime}$, and add the edge $(u, r(u))$ to $M^{\prime}$.
- Likewise, for each $v \in R \cap U$, we introduce $l(v) \in N_{L}$, connect it to all vertices of $R^{\prime}$ and add $(v, l(v))$ to $M^{\prime}$.

Note that $M^{\prime}$ is a perfect matching of the extended bipartite graph $G^{\prime}$.

- Proposition 5. With $G, G^{\prime}$ defined as above, we have that $G$ allows for a $\rho$-realization iff $G^{\prime}$ allows for a $\rho$-realization.

Proof. First note that by König's Theorem, $\alpha\left(G^{\prime}\right)=\left|M^{\prime}\right|=|M|+|U|=\alpha(G)$, so it suffices to ensure that any realization for $G$ can be transformed into a realization for $G^{\prime}$ where independent sets are lower-bounded by the same value, and vice versa.

Let $P$ be any $\rho$-realization of $G$, then $P^{\prime}=N_{L} \cdot P \cdot N_{R}$ is a $\rho$-realization for $G^{\prime}$, with $N_{L}$ and $N_{R}$ laid out in any order. Indeed, $P^{\prime}$ satisfies the precedence constraint, and any intermediate set $I$ in $P^{\prime}$ satisfies one of the following cases: $L \subseteq I, R \subseteq I$, or $I$ is an intermediate set from $P$, so in any case it has size at least $\alpha(G)-\rho=\alpha\left(G^{\prime}\right)-\rho$.

Conversely, because of the all-to-all connectivity between $N_{L}$ and $R$ and between $L$ and $N_{R}$, a realization for $G^{\prime}$ needs to have $N_{L}$ before any vertex from $R$, and have $N_{R}$ after all vertices from $L$. Without loss of generality, it is therefore of the form $N_{L} \cdot P \cdot N_{R}$ with $P$ a realization of $G$, and $G$ allows for a $\rho$-realization.

The construction above in fact yields a parameterized reduction from BIPARTITE INDEPENDENT SET RECONFIGURATION to its input-restricted version on bipartite graphs, allowing for a perfect matching. This input-restricted version is in turn parametrically equivalent to directed pathwidth by Proposition 4. Hence the following corollary:

- Corollary 6. Bipartite Independent Set Reconfiguration is parametrically equivalent to Directed Pathwidth


## 4 An XP algorithm for independent set reconfiguration

### 4.1 Definitions

We use the permutation representation of reconfiguration scenarios, i.e. licit permutations of vertices. Note that the intersection, as well as the union, of two licit set of vertices are licit. Given a realization $P$ of $G$ and a set of vertices $X$, we write $P \cap X$ for the sub-sequence of $P$ consisting of the vertices of $X$, without changing the order. Likewise, $P \backslash X$ denotes the sub-sequence of $P$ consisting of vertices not in $X$.

A mixed maximum independent set $I$ of $G$ is an independent set of $G$ of maximum cardinality containing at least a vertex from both parts. Note that not every bipartite graph contains such a set. A separator $X$ is a subset of $L \cup R$ such that $I(X)$ is a mixed maximum independent set of $G$.

### 4.2 Separation lemma

The separation lemma on which our algorithm is based is proved using the following "modularity" property of the imbalance functions. Interestingly, it is almost the same property (sub-modularity), on a different quantity (the in-degrees of vertices) on which rely the XP algorithm for directed pathwidth [20].

- Lemma 7 (modularity). The function associating a licit subset to its corresponding independent set $I(X)$ verifies:

$$
|I(X)|+|I(Y)|=|I(X \cup Y)|+|I(X \cap Y)|
$$

Proof. We have $I(X)=(L \backslash X) \cup(R \cap X)$. Therefore, $|I(X)|=|L \backslash X|+|R \cap X|=|L|-\mid L \cap$ $X|+|R \cap X|$. Furthermore, $|(X \cup Y) \cap L|=|(X \cap L) \cup(Y \cap L)|=|X \cap L|+|Y \cap L|-|X \cap Y \cap L|$, and likewise for $R$. The result stems from a substraction of one equation to the other, and an addition of $|L|$.

Based on this "modularity", the following separation lemma is shown by "re-shuffling" a solution into another one going through a mixed MIS.

- Lemma 8 (separation lemma). Let $X$ be a separator of $G$. If $P$ is a $\rho$-realization for $G$, then $(P \cap X) \cdot(P \backslash X)$ is also a $\rho$-realization for $G$.

Proof. Let $P$ be a $\rho$-realization for $G$ and $P^{\prime}=(P \cap X) \cdot(P \backslash X)$ a reshuffling, where $X$ is processed first.

Consider $p^{\prime}$ a prefix of $P^{\prime}$. There are two cases:

1. $p^{\prime}$ is included in (or equal to) $P \cap X$. In this case, $\exists p$ prefix of $P$ such that: $p^{\prime}=p \cap X$. We therefore have $\left|I\left(p^{\prime}\right)\right|=|I(p)|+|I(X)|-|I(p \cup X)|$, and since $|I(X)|$ is a maximum independent set of $G,\left|I\left(p^{\prime}\right)\right| \geq|I(p)| \geq \alpha(G)-\rho$.
2. $P \cap X$ is included in $p$. In that case, $\exists p$ prefix of $P$ such that $p^{\prime}=p \cup X$. We have, likewise, $\left|I\left(p^{\prime}\right)\right|=|I(p)|+|I(X)|-|I(p \cap X)|$ and conclude the same way.

The separation allows for a divide-and-conquer approach: if we identify a separator $X$ in $G$, i.e. a licit subset of $G$ such that $I(X)$ is a mixed independent set, then we may independently solve the problem of finding a $\rho$-realization from $L$ to $I(X)$ and then from $I(X)$ to $R$. If no solution is found for one of them, then the converse of Lemma 8 implies that no $\rho$-realizations exists for $G$. The algorithm of the following section is based on this approach.

### 4.3 XP algorithm

Algorithm details. We present here a direct algorithm for Bipartite Independent Set Reconfiguration, detailed in Algorithm 1. The main function Realize is recursive. Its sub-calls arise either from a split with a mixed MIS $I$ (in which case it is called on a smaller graph but with the same parameter), or from the loop over all possible starting points in the case where no separator is found (lines 13-18), in which case the parameter does reduce. The overall runtime is dominated by this loop, and is analyzed in Proposition 9 below.
Mixed MIS algorithm. The sub-routine allowing to find, if it exists, a maximum independent set intersecting both $L$ and $R$ is based on concepts from matching theory [16], namely the Dulmage-Mendelsohn decomposition [3,16], as well as the decomposition of bipartite graphs with a perfect matching into elementary subgraphs [16](part 4.1). Its full details are described in Appendix A.

- Proposition 9. Algorithm 1 runs in $O\left(|V|^{2 \rho} \sqrt{|V||E|)}\right.$ time, while using $O\left(|V|^{2}\right)$ space, where $\rho$ is the difference between the minimum allowed and maximum possible independent set size, along the reconfiguration.

Proof. Let us start with space: throughout the algorithm, one needs only to maintain a description of $G$ and related objects (independent set $I$, maximum matching $M$, associated directed graph $H(G, M)$ ) for which $O\left(|V|^{2}\right)$ is enough.

As for time, let $C\left(n_{1}, n_{2}, \rho\right)$ be the number of recursive calls of the function Realize of Algorithm 1 when initially called with $|L|=n_{1},|R|=n_{2}$, and some value of $\rho$. We will show

Algorithm 1 XP algorithm for Bipartite Independent Set Reconfiguration
Input : bipartite graph $G$ (with sides $L$ and $R$ ), integer $\rho$
Output: a $\rho$-realization for $G$, if it exists
Function Realize ( $G, \rho$ ):
if $|R|>|L|$ then swap $L$ and $R$
if $\rho<0$ then return $\perp$
if $L=\emptyset$ then return $R$ in any order
// Trying to find a separator (cf Algorithm 2)
$I=\operatorname{MixedMIS}(G)$
if $I \neq \perp$ then
$S=(L \backslash I) \cup(R \cap I) \quad / /$ intermediate point.
return Realize $(G[S], \rho) \cdot \operatorname{Realize}(G[V \backslash S], \rho)$
else
for $\ell \in L$ do
if Realize $(G \backslash\{\ell\}, \rho-1) \neq \perp$ then
return $(\ell) \cdot \operatorname{Realize}(G \backslash\{\ell\}, \rho-1)$
return $\perp$
by induction that $C\left(n_{1}, n_{2}, k\right) \leq\left(n_{1}+n_{2}\right)^{2 \rho}$. Since each call involves one computation of a maximum matching, this will prove our result.

Given $\left(n_{1}, n_{2}, k\right)$, suppose therefore that $\forall n_{1}^{\prime}<n_{1}, n_{2}^{\prime}<n_{2}, \rho^{\prime}<\rho$ we have $C\left(n_{1}^{\prime}, n_{2}^{\prime}, \rho^{\prime}\right)<$ $\left(n_{1}^{\prime}+n_{2}^{\prime}\right)^{2 \rho}$

1. If $G$ allows for a mixed maximum independent set, the instance is split into two smaller instances, yielding $C\left(n_{1}, n_{2}, k\right)=C\left(n_{1}^{\prime}, n_{2}, k^{\prime}\right)+C\left(n_{1}^{\prime \prime}, n_{2}^{\prime \prime}, k^{\prime \prime}\right)$ with $n_{1}^{\prime}+n_{1}^{\prime \prime}=n_{1}$ and $n_{2}=$ $n_{2}^{\prime}+n_{2}^{\prime \prime}$. And $C\left(n_{1}, n_{2}, k\right) \leq\left(\left(n_{1}^{\prime}+n_{2}^{\prime}\right)^{2 \rho}+\left(n_{1}^{\prime \prime}+n_{2}^{\prime \prime}\right)^{2 \rho}\right) \leq\left(n_{1}^{\prime}+n_{1}^{\prime \prime}+n_{2}^{\prime}+n_{2}^{\prime \prime}\right)^{2 \rho} \leq$ $\left(n_{1}+n_{2}\right)^{2 \rho}$.
2. else, we have the following relations: if $n_{1} \leq n_{2}$ then $C\left(n_{1}, n_{2}, \rho\right)=n_{1} \cdot C\left(n_{1}-1, n_{2}, \rho-1\right)$, and if $n_{2}<n_{1}$, then $C\left(n_{1}, n_{2}, \rho\right)=C\left(n_{2}, n_{1}, \rho\right)$. Let us treat the first case, as the second one falls back to it when applying the inversion:

$$
\begin{aligned}
C\left(n_{1}, n_{2}, \rho\right) & =n_{1} \cdot C\left(n_{1}-1, n_{2}, \rho-1\right) \\
& \leq n \cdot n^{2(\rho-1)} \quad \text { by induction hypothesis } \\
& \leq n^{2 \rho}
\end{aligned}
$$

The exponential part $\left(O\left(n^{2 \rho}\right)\right)$ of the worst case complexity of Algorithm 1 is in fact tight, as it is met with a complete bi-clique $K_{n, n}$ with sides of size $n$. Indeed, in this case, no mixed MIS is found in any of the recursive calls.

## 5 Benchmarks and Applications

In this section, we report benchmark results for both algorithmic approaches. We first explain some details about the algorithm we implemented for directed pathwidth. Then, we present a general benchmark of our algorithms on random (Erdös-Rényi) bipartite graphs. Last, we give some background related to RNA bioinformatics and the application of our algorithm


Figure 2 (top panel) Average run-time (seconds, log-scale) of our algorithms on random ErdösRényi bipartite graphs, with a probability of connection such that the average degree of a vertex is 5 (i.e $p=5 / n$ ). (bottom panel) Average parameter value of generated instances, as a function of input size.
to the barrier energy problem.

### 5.1 Implementation details

Directed pathwidth. We implemented and used an algorithm from Tamaki [20], with a runtime of $O\left(n^{\rho+2}\right)$. This algorithm was originally published in 2011 [20]. In 2015, H.Tamaki and other authors described this algorithm as "flawed" in [11], and replaced it with another XP algorithm for directed pathwidth, with a run-time of $O\left(\frac{m n^{2 \rho}}{(\rho-1)!}\right)$.

Upon further analysis from our part, and discussions with H. Tamaki and the corresponding author of [11], it appears a small modification allowed to make the algorithm correct. In a nutshell, the algorithm involves pruning actions, and these need to be carried out as soon as they are detected. In [20], temporary solutions were accumulated before a general pruning step. With this modification, the analysis presented in [20] applies without modification, and yields a time complexity of $O\left(n^{\rho+2}\right)$. The space complexity is unchanged at $O\left(n^{\rho+1}\right)$. For completeness, a detailed re-derivation of the results of [20] is included in Appendix C
Mixed-MIS algorithm implementation. On Figure 2, the "m-MIS"-curve, corresponds to our mixed-MIS-based algorithm in $O\left(n^{2 \rho} \sqrt{|V||E|}\right)$. Compared to the algorithm presented in Algorithm 1, a more efficient rule is used in the non-separable case: we loop over all possible $r \in R$ and add $N(r) \cdot r$ to the schedule (instead of a single vertex $\ell \in L$ ).

### 5.2 Random bipartite graphs

Benchmark details. Figure 2 shows, as a function of the number of vertices, the average execution time of both our algorithms (top panel), as well as the distribution of parameter values ( $\rho$ - bottom panel), on a class of random bipartite graphs. These graphs are generated according to an Erdös-Rényi distribution (each pair of vertices has a constant probability $p$ of forming an edge). We use a connection probability of $d / n$, dependent on the number

of vertices. It is such that the average degree of vertices is $d$. The data of our benchmark (Figure 2) has been generated with $d=5$.
Comments on Figure 2. The difference in trend between the execution times of the two algorithms is quite coherent with the difference in their exponents ( $n^{\rho+2}$ vs. $n^{2 \rho+2.5}$ ).

### 5.3 Computing energy barriers in RNA kinetics

In this section, we give more detail about how our algorithms may apply to a bioinformatics problem, the RNA barrier energy problem. We present benchmark results, on a random class of RNA instances, showing the practicality of our approach.

RNA basics. RiboNucleic Acids (RNAs) are biomolecules of outstanding interest for molecular biology, which can be represented as strings over an alphabet $\Sigma:=\{\mathrm{A}, \mathrm{C}, \mathrm{G}, \mathrm{U}\}$ (in this context, $n$ denotes the length of the string). Importantly, these strings may fold on themselves to adopt one or several conformation(s). A conformation is typically described by a set of base pairs $(i, j), i<j$. Then, a standard class of conformations to consider in RNA bioinformatics are secondary structures, which are pairwise non-crossing $(\nexists(i, j),(k, l) \in$ $S$ such that $i \leq k \leq j \leq l$, in particular, they involve distinct positions). In this section, we more precisely work on the problem of finding a reconfiguration pathway between two secondary structures (i.e conflict-free sets of base pairs). The reconfiguration may only involve secondary structures, and remain of energy as low as possible. We work with a simple energy model consisting of the opposite of number of base pairs in a configuration $\left(-N_{b p s}\right)$. The RNA Energy-Barrier problem can then be stated as such:

RNA Energy-Barrier
Input: Secondary structures $L$ and $R$; Energy barrier $k \in \mathbb{N}^{+}$
Output: True if there exists a sequence $S_{0} \cdots S_{\ell}$ of secondary structures such that

- $S_{0}=L$ and $S_{\ell}=R$;
- $\left|S_{i}\right| \geq|L|-k, \forall i \in[0, \ell]$;
- $\left|S_{i} \triangle S_{i+1}\right|=1, \forall i \in[0, \ell-1]$.

False otherwise.
Bipartite representation. Given two secondary structures $L$ and $R$, represented as sets of base pairs, we define a conflict graph $G(L, R)$ such that: the vertex set of $G(L, R)$ is $L \cup R$;


Figure 4 Execution time of our algorithms on random RNA reconfiguration instances (top panel). On the bottom panel, the distribution of the parameter value $(\rho)$ is plotted against the length of the RNA string. Error bars (top panel) are obtained using a bootstrapping method.
and two vertices $(i, j),(k, l)$ are connected if they are crossing (see Figure 3). Since base pairs in both $L$ and $R$ are both pairwise non-crossing, $G(L, R)$ is bipartite with parts $L$ and $R$. In this context, a maximum independent set of $G(L, R)$ is a minimum free-energy structure of the RNA, and we write $\operatorname{MFE}(L, R)=\alpha(G(L, R))$. We then see how the RNA Energy-Barrier problem is simply Bipartite Independent Set Reconfiguration restricted to a specific class of bipartite graphs: the conflict graphs of secondary structures, with a range of $\rho=k+\operatorname{MFE}(L, R)-|L|$.

Problem motivation. Since the number of secondary structures available to a given RNA grows exponentially with $n$, RNA energy landscapes are notoriously rugged, i.e. feature many local minima, and the folding process of an RNA from its synthesis to its theoretical final state (a thermodynamic equilibrium around low energy conformations) can be significantly slowed down. Consequently, some RNAs end up being degraded before reaching this final state. This observation motivates the study of RNA kinetics, which encompass all time-dependent aspects of the folding process. In particular, it is known (Arrhenius law) that the energy barrier is the dominant factor influencing the transition rate between two structures, with an exponential dependence.

Related works in bioinformatics. The problem was shown to be NP-hard by Maňuch et al [17]. Thachuk et al [21] also proposed an XP algorithm in $O\left(n^{2 k+2.5}\right)$ parameterized by the energy barrier $k$, restricted to instances such that the maximum independent set of $G(L, R)$ has cardinality equal to $|L|$ and $|L|=|R|$.

Benchmark details. Figure 4 shows (top panel) the average execution time of our algorithms on random RNA instances. The bottom panel shows the parameter distribution as a function of the length of the RNA string. Random instances are generated according to the following model: two secondary structures $L, R$ are chosen uniformly at random (within the space of all possible secondary structure). Base pairs are constrained to occur between nucleotides separated by a distance of at least $\theta=5$.

### 5.4 RNA specific optimizations

Dynamic Programming and RNA. Given two secondary structures $L$ and $R$, a mixed MIS of $G(L, R)$ is a maximum conflict-free subset of $L \cup R$, containing at least a base pair from $L$ and $R$. As is the case for many algorithmic problems involving RNA, the fact that RNAs are strings and that base pairs define intervals suggests a dynamic programming approach to the mixed maximum independent set problem in RNA conflict graphs. Subproblems will correspond to intervals of the RNA string. Let us start with a simple dynamic programming scheme allowing to compute an unconstrained MIS.

Unconstrained MIS DP scheme. A maximum conflict-free subset of $L \cup R$ can be computed by dynamic programming, using the following DP table: for each $1 \leq i \leq j \leq n$, let $M C F_{i, j}$ be the size of a maximum conflict-free subset of all base pairs included in $[i, j]$.

- Lemma 10. $M C F_{1, n}$ can be computed in time $O\left(n^{2}\right)$

Proof. We have the following recurrence formula:

$$
\begin{aligned}
M C F_{i, i^{\prime}} & =0, \forall i^{\prime}<i \\
M C F_{i, j} & =\max \left\{\begin{array}{l}
M C F_{i+1, j} \\
\max _{(i, k) \in L \cup R} 1+M C F_{i+1, k-1}+M C F_{k+1, j}
\end{array}\right.
\end{aligned}
$$

Note that the last max is over at most two possible pairs $(i, k)(1$ from $L$ and 1 from $R)$, per the fact that $L$ and $R$ are both conflict-free.

Mixed MIS DP scheme. The following modifications to the DP scheme above allow to compute a mixed MIS of $G(L, R)$ while retaining the same complexity. In addition to the interval, we index the table by Boolean $\alpha$ and $\beta$ which, when true, further restricts the optimization to subsets with $>0$ pair from $L$ (iff $\alpha=$ True) or $R$ (iff $\beta=$ True):

$$
\begin{aligned}
& M C F_{i, i^{\prime}}^{\alpha, \beta}= \begin{cases}0 & \text { if }(\alpha, \beta)=(\text { False, False }), \forall i^{\prime}<i \\
-\infty & \text { otherwise }\end{cases} \\
& M C F_{i, j}^{\alpha, \beta}=\max \begin{cases}M C F_{i+1, j}^{\alpha, \beta} \\
\max _{\substack{i, k) \in E \\
\alpha^{\prime}, \alpha^{\prime \prime}, \beta^{\prime}, \beta^{\prime \prime} \in \mathbb{B}^{4}}} 1+M C F_{i+1, k-1}^{\alpha^{\prime}, \beta^{\prime}}+M C F_{k+1, j}^{\alpha^{\prime \prime}, \beta^{\prime \prime}} & \text { if } \neg \alpha \vee \alpha^{\prime} \vee \alpha^{\prime \prime} \vee((i, k) \in L) \\
\text { and } \neg \beta \vee \beta^{\prime} \vee \beta^{\prime \prime} \vee((i, k) \in R)\end{cases}
\end{aligned}
$$

Through a suitable memorization, the system can be used to compute in $\mathcal{O}\left(n^{2}\right)$ the maximum cardinality $M C F_{1, n}^{\text {True, True }}$ of a subset over the whole sequence. A backtracking procedure is then used to rebuild the maximal subset.

## 6 Conclusion

Our work so far sheds a new light on both Bipartite Independent Set Reconfiguration and Directed Pathwidth problems. The former can thus be solved with a parameterized algorithm, having important applications in RNA kinetics since the range parameter is particularly relevant in this context. We hope the newly drawn connection will help settle the fixed parameter tractability of computing the directed pathwidth. A slightly more accessible open problem would be to design an FPT algorithm for BISR in the context of secondary structure conflict graphs (i.e. those graphs arising in RNA reconfiguration).

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## A Mixed MIS in bipartite graphs

Our Divide-and-Conquer strategy to the BISR problem relies on the computation of maximum independent sets containing at least one vertex in each part of the input bipartite graph.

We informally call mixed bipartite maximum independent set (Mixed-MIS) the problem of deciding whether an input bipartite graph $G$ has a maximum independent set intersecting both of its parts. It is trivially polynomial, as one may check for each pair $(l, r) \in L \times R$, whether $I^{\prime} \cup\{l, r\}$ is a maximum independent set of $G$; with $I^{\prime}$ maximum independent set of $G^{\prime}$, and $G^{\prime}$ obtained from $G$ by removing $l, r$ as well as their neighborhoods.

As a maximum independent set of a bipartite graph may be derived from a maximum matching, this simple strategy yield a $O\left(|V|^{2} \cdot \sqrt{|V||E|}\right)$ algorithm for our Mixed-MIS problem.

We present here a more efficient strategy, based on a decomposition taking place in two rounds. It results into Algorithm 2. The first round is based on the Dulmage-Mendelsohn decomposition of bipartite graphs. It yields a partition of the vertices of $G$ into three sets $D, A, C$, defined as such: for each vertex $v$ of $D$, there exists a maximum matching in which $v$ is not matched, $A=N(D)$ is the union of the neighborhoods of the vertices of $D$, and $C=V \backslash(D \cup A)$ contains the remaining vertices. $D, A, C$ verify the following result:

- Theorem 11 (Dulmage-Mendelsohn decomposition, Proposition 2.1 of [3], theorem 3.2.4 of [16]). Given $G$ bipartite graph and $D, A, C$ defined as above, we have that:
a. $=D$ is the intersection of all maximum independent sets of $G$.
- $A$ is the intersection of all minimum vertex covers of $G$.
- the subgraph $G[C]$ induced by $C$ has a perfect matching, which may be deduced from restricting any maximum matching of $G$ to $C$.
b. In addition, $D$ may be computed from any maximum matching $M$ of $G$ using the following characterization ([3], lemma 2.2): $D=\bar{W}$ where $\bar{W}$ is composed of the vertices left unmatched by $M$, as well as all vertices connected to an unmatched vertex through an alternating path of even length.

This decomposition may allow to conclude in some cases (see Algorithm 2). In general, however, a second round of decomposition is needed. In this second round, the set $C$, which allows for a perfect matching $M$, is further decomposed into elementary sub-graphs (section 4.1 of [16], theorem 4.1.1 and exercise 4.1.5) and [25]. It consists in computing the strongly connected components of a directed graph $H(M, C)$ associated to $M$ and $C$ (same construction as in Section 3). The vertices of $H$ are the edges of the matching, and $(l, r) \rightarrow\left(l^{\prime}, r^{\prime}\right)$ iff $l$ is connected to $r^{\prime}$ in $C$. The strongly connected components of $H$ constitute a decomposition of $G$ into elementary sub-graphs. A bipartite graph is elementary iff the sides $L, R$ are the only minimum vertex covers/maximum independent sets [16](theorem 4.1.1). If it is not elementary, then a mixed maximum independent set may be obtained by ordering the elementary sub-graphs $\left\{\left(L_{i}, R_{i}\right)\right\}_{1 \leq i \leq p}$ along a topological order induced by $H(C, M)$. Any set of the form $\left(\cup_{i \leq t} R_{i}\right) \cup\left(\cup_{i>t} L_{i}\right)$ for some $t>1$ is then a mixed maximum independent set of $C$.

The discussion above results in Algorithm 2, whose run-time is dominated by the computation of maximum matching in $O(\sqrt{|V|}|E|)$.

Algorithm 2 Mixed bipartite maximum independent set
Input : a bipartite graph $G$ with sides $L$ and $R$. We suppose w.l.o.g that
$|L| \geq|R|$.
Output: If it exists, a Maximum Independent Set $I$ of $G$ intersecting both $L$ and $R$.
// Compute a maximum matching of $G$
$M=\operatorname{MaximumMatching}(G) \quad \triangleright O(\sqrt{|V|} \cdot|E|)$
// Compute a Maximum Independent Set I from M (König's theorem).
$I=$ MaximumIndependentSet $(G, M) \quad \triangleright O(|E|)$
if $(I \cap L \neq \emptyset)$ and $(I \cap R \neq \emptyset)$ then return $I$
$/ /$ Now $|I|=\max (|L|,|R|)$ and $I=L$ or $I=R$
$D, A, C=$ DulmageMendelsohn $(M, G) \quad \triangleright O(|E|)$
if $|L|>|R|$ then
if $R \backslash A \neq \emptyset$ then
pick $r \in R \backslash A \quad / / A$ is the intersection of all minimum vertex covers
$G^{\prime}=G \backslash\{r \cup N(r)\}$
$M^{\prime}=$ MaximumMatching $\left(G^{\prime}\right)$
$I^{\prime}=$ MaximumIndependentSet ( $G^{\prime}, M^{\prime}$ )
return $I^{\prime} \cup\{r\}$
else return $\perp$; // Not possible, $L$ is the only MIS
if $|L|=|R|$ then
$/ / L$ and $R$ are two MIS. So necessarily $D=\emptyset, A=\emptyset, C=G$
$\left(L_{1}, R_{1}\right), \ldots,\left(L_{p}, R_{p}\right)=$ elementarySubgraphsDec $(M, C) \quad \triangleright O\left(|V|^{2}\right)$
if $p=1$ then return $\perp$
else
Topological sort of the SCCs of $H$
$s=$ TopologicalSort $\left(\left\{\left(L_{i}, R_{i}\right)\right\}\right) \quad \triangleright O(|V|+|E|)$
$\left(L_{i}, R_{i}\right)=s[0] \quad / /$ first in topological sort return $R_{i} \cup\left(\cup_{j \neq i} L_{j}\right)$

## B Delayed proofs

## B. 1 Making an interval representation nice

Let $\left\{\left(a_{u}, b_{u}\right) \mid u \in V\right\}$ be an interval representation for a directed graph $H$ with vertex set $V$. We explain here how to turn it into a nice interval representation:

If an integer $n$ is such that $a_{u_{0}}=\cdots=a_{u_{l}}=b_{v_{0}}=\cdots=b_{v_{p}}=n$, we may modify the representation as such:

- Interval bounds associated to integers $>n$ are increased by $p+l-1$, to make room for "spreading" $a_{u_{1}} \ldots a_{u_{\ell}}, b_{v_{1}} \ldots b_{v_{p}}$.
- $\forall i, a_{u_{i}}$ is set to $n+i$ and $b_{v_{i}}$ to $l+i$.

None of these modifications change the way intervals intersect one another, leaving the width unchanged. The representation is then "packed" into $[1 \ldots 2 .|V(H)|]$ by taking the interval bounds in order and setting them to their final position.

## B. 2 Proof of Proposition 4:

Proof. We start with the first statement, the equivalence between $\operatorname{dpw}(H(G, M)) \leq \rho$ and the existence of a $\rho$-realization for $G$. First note that, since $G$ allows for a perfect matching, we have $|L|=|R|$, and by König's theorem, if $K$ is a minimum vertex cover of $G$, $|K|=|L|=|R|$. Since $\alpha(G)=|L|+|R|-|K|$ we have $\alpha(G)=|L|=|R|$. I.e. $L$ and $R$ are maximum independent sets of $G$.
$\Rightarrow$ If $G$ allows for a $\rho$-realization, then $\exists P$ ordering of the vertices of $G$ such that every prefix $X_{i}$ of $P$ verifies $\left|I\left(X_{i}\right)\right|=|L|-\delta\left(X_{i}\right)=\alpha(G)-\delta\left(X_{i}\right) \geq \alpha(G)-\rho$. Therefore $\delta\left(X_{i}\right)=\left|X_{i} \cap L\right|-\left|X_{i} \cap R\right| \leq \rho$.
Consider a vertex $(l, r)$ of $H(G, M)$, with $(l, r)$ an edge of $M$. We associate to $(l, r)$ the interval $\left[a_{(l, r)}, b_{(l, r)}\right]$ where $a_{(l, r)}$ is such that $P\left[a_{(l, r)}\right]=l$. i.e, it corresponds to the step in the reconfiguration where $l$ is removed. Likewise, $b_{(l, r)}$ is such that $P\left[b_{(l, r)}\right]=r$.
For any edge $(l, r) \rightarrow\left(l^{\prime}, r^{\prime}\right)$ of $H$, necessarily $\left(l, r^{\prime}\right) \in G$, which implies that in the reconfiguration sequence, $l$ has to be removed before $r^{\prime}$ is added. $l$ appears therefore earlier than $l$ in $P$, and $a_{(l, r)} \leq b_{\left(l^{\prime}, r^{\prime}\right)}$. The intervals we have defined therefore form a valid interval representation of $H$.
In addition, the intervals intersecting a given position $i$ correspond to pairs $(l, r)$ where, at step $i, l$ has already been removed while $r$ is yet to be added.
Since the decrease in independent set size incurred by the removal of $l$ is compensated by the addition of its match $r$, the number of intervals intersecting position $i$ is exactly $\delta\left(X_{i}\right)$, the imbalance of the $i$-prefix of $P$, which by hypothesis is $\leq \rho$.
$\Leftarrow$ Suppose the directed graph $H(G, M)$ associated to $G, M$ has directed pathwidth $\leq \rho$. Consider an optimal nice interval representation for $H$.
In this representation, a vertex $(l, r)$ of $H$ is associated to an interval $\left[a_{(l, r)}, b_{(l, r)}\right]$. Thanks to the structure of nice interval representation, we simply define a permutation $P$ of $L \cup R$ with, $\forall(l, r) P\left[a_{(l, r)}\right]=l$ and $P\left[b_{(l, r)}\right]=r$.
If $\left(l, r^{\prime}\right)$ is an edge of $G$, with $r$ the match of $l$ and $l^{\prime}$ the match of $r^{\prime}$, then the construction above ensures that $l$ is before $r^{\prime}$ in $P$. For two matched vertices, this is also immediate. Then, as for two matched vertices $l, r$, the removal of $l$ is compensated by the addition of $r$, for any prefix $X_{i}$ of $P$, the imbalance $\delta\left(X_{i}\right)$ is exactly the number of intervals intersecting position $i$. By assumption, we therefore have $\delta\left(X_{i}\right) \leq \rho$ and $P$ is a $\rho$-realization.

For the second part of the statement, given a directed graph $H$, we construct a bipartite graph $G$ with sides $L, R$ allowing for a perfect matching $M$ in the following way: for each
vertex $u \in H$ we introduce two vertices $\left(l_{u}, r_{u}\right)$ in $G$. We assign $l_{u}$ to $L$ and $r_{u}$ to $R$, connect $l_{u}$ and $r_{u}$ and add the edge to the matching $M$. We now add an edge from $l_{u}$ to $r_{v}$ in $G$ for any $(u, v) \in E(H)$. $G$ now verifies $H=H(G, M)$, and by the result above, $d p w(H) \leq \rho$ iff $G$ allows for a $\rho$-realization.

## C Re-derivation of Tamaki's algorithm for directed pathwidth

For completeness, we include here a re-derivation of the results of [20], with the slight modification mentioned in the main text related to pruning. It results in an algorithm with a $O\left(n^{\rho+2}\right)$ complexity, slightly different from the $O\left(n^{\rho+1}\right)$ announced in [20]. The re-derivation follows the same strategy as in the original article, and re-uses most of the notations.

## C. 1 Commitment lemma - shortest non-expanding extensions (SNEKFEs)

Notations and definitions. In a directed graph, $d^{-}(u)$ denotes the in-degree of a node $u$. We work with layouts of vertices, i.e. ordered sequences of vertices, not necessarily containing all vertices. A partial layout $\sigma$ is called feasible/valid if $\forall$ prefix $p$ of $\sigma$ we have $d^{-}(p)=\left|N^{-}(p)\right| \leq k$. A partial layout which is completable into a valid full layout (for the entire digraph $G$ ) is called strongly feasible or just completable into a full solution. An extension $\tau$ of $\sigma$ is a valid partial layout with $\sigma$ as one of its prefixes. A shortest non-expanding extension of $\sigma$ is an extension $\tau$ such that $d^{-}(\tau) \leq d^{-}(\sigma)$ and $\forall \rho$ s.t. $V(\sigma) \subsetneq V(\rho) \subsetneq V(\tau)$, $d^{-}(\rho)>d^{-}(\sigma)$. In the rest of this note, we will write SNEKFE for shortest non-expanding extension.

Lemma 1 - Commitment Lemma - shortest non-expanding extensions. If $\sigma$ is completable into a full solution, and $\tau$ is a SNEKFE of $\sigma$, then $\tau$ is also completable into a full solution.

In fact, a more general version is true: $\rho$ could be allowed to be equal in $d^{-}$to $\tau$ before rising again. The proof relies on the fact that, for any two subsets $X, Y$ of vertices of $G$ :

$$
d^{-}(X \cup Y)+d^{-}(X \cap Y) \leq d^{-}(X)+d^{-}(Y)
$$

Proof. If $\sigma$ is completable into a full solution, then $\exists F$ such that $\sigma \cdot F$ is a valid layout for $G$. Let us reshuffle $F$ into $(\tau \backslash \sigma) \cdot F^{\prime}$. Within both parts, the ordering of elements is the same as in $F . \tau \cdot F^{\prime}$ is now a complete layout for $G$. Is it valid ?

Consider a prefix $P$ of $\tau \cdot F^{\prime}$. If $P$ is contained within $\tau, d^{-}(P) \leq k$ by the validity of $\tau$. Else, if $P$ contains some of $F^{\prime}$, then $P=P^{\prime} \cup \tau$ for $P^{\prime}$ a certain prefix of $\sigma \cdot F$. As for $P^{\prime} \cap \tau$, which we call $\rho$ it verifies $V(\sigma) \subset V(\rho) \subset V(\tau)$ and therefore $d^{-}(\rho) \geq d^{-}(\sigma) \geq d^{-}(\tau)$ by definition of a SNEKFE, with the equality only potentially happening if $\rho=\sigma$ or $\rho=\tau$.

We therefore have:

$$
\begin{aligned}
d^{-}(P) & =d^{-}\left(P^{\prime} \cup \tau\right) \\
& \leq d^{-}\left(P^{\prime}\right)+d^{-}(\tau)-d^{-}(\rho) \\
& \leq d^{-}\left(P^{\prime}\right) \leq k
\end{aligned}
$$

$\tau \cdot F^{\prime}$ is therefore a valid complete layout for $G$, and $\tau$ is completable into a full solution.
Let us now describe more precisely what SNEKFEs might look like. We show that they can only be of three types, and formalize it into the next lemma. Its proof relies on the
fact that, by adding a single vertex $u$ to a partial layout $\sigma$, we may only decrease $d^{-}(\sigma)$ by at most 1 , since $d^{-}(\sigma)=\left|N^{-}(\sigma)\right|$. We obtain this decrement of 1 if $u$ is a predecessor to a vertex of $\sigma$, and does not introduce any new predecessor itself when added.
Lemma 2-SNEKFE types. a SNEKFE $\tau$ of a partial layout $\sigma$ may only be of three types:

- type-(i): single-vertex "decreasing" extension: $\tau=\sigma \cdot u$ for some vertex $u$ and $d^{-}(\sigma \cdot u)=$ $d^{-}(\sigma)-1$
- type-(ii): single-vertex "non-decreasing" extension: $\tau=\sigma \cdot u$ for some vertex $u$ and $d^{-}(\sigma \cdot u)=d^{-}(\sigma)$
- type-(iii): several vertices "shortcut" extension: $\tau$ adds strictly more than one vertex to $\sigma$ and $d^{-}(\tau)=d^{-}(\sigma)$.

Proof. For single vertex extensions, the two possible types follow from the observation above that the addition of one vertex to a layout can only decrease $d^{-}$by at most 1 .

For SNEKFEs composed of more than one vertex, observe that if $d^{-}(\tau)<d^{-}(\sigma)$, then by considering the prefix $\rho$ of $\tau$ obtained by removing just 1 vertex to $\tau$, we would have $d^{-}(\rho) \leq d^{-}(\tau)+1 \leq d^{-}(\sigma)$. This stems from the observation above that $d^{-}$may only decrease by at most 1 when adding a vertex. $\rho$ would be a non-expanding extension of $\sigma$ shorter than $\tau$, yielding a contradiction.

## C. 2 Algorithm

In this section, we restrict ourselves to a pure description of the algorithm, delaying the justification of its correctness and complexity to the "Analysis" section below.
Tree of prefixes (trie). We will build a tree of prefixes of all possible layouts. We prune the tree during its construction thanks to the commitment lemma, as justified in the next section. We call $S_{i}$ the $i^{t h}$ level of the tree of prefixes. I.e. the elements of the tree of length i. $S_{0}=\{\emptyset\}$.

Algorithm. $S_{i+1}$ is generated in the following way given $S_{i}$ :
For each $\sigma \in S_{i}$ :

1. We generate all feasible immediate extensions to $\sigma$ and add them to the tree. I.e the node $\sigma$ now has the following children set: $\left\{\sigma \cdot u\right.$ s.t $\left.d^{-}(\sigma \cdot u) \leq k\right\}$
2. If some of these immediate extensions verify $d^{-}(\sigma \cdot u) \leq d^{-}(\sigma)$, then they are SNEKFEs of $\sigma$. In that case, we do the following:
a. We choose 1 arbitrarily and prune the others.
b. If the chosen element verifies $d^{-}(\sigma \cdot u)=d^{-}(\sigma)-1$ (the only possibility if $d^{-}(\sigma \cdot u)<$ $\left.d^{-}(\sigma)\right)$, then we in addition look for a prefix $\eta$ of $\sigma$ verifying $d^{-}(\eta)=d^{-}(\sigma \cdot u)$ and $d^{-}(\rho)>d^{-}(\eta) \forall \rho$ s.t. $\eta \sqsubseteq \rho \sqsubseteq \sigma \cdot u, \rho \neq \eta, \rho \neq \sigma \cdot u$.
If such an $\eta$ is found, then any part of tree branching off the path from $\eta$ to $\sigma \cdot u$ is removed. Note that this might shorten the overall loop over $\sigma \in S_{i}$.

## End Algorithm

## C. 3 Analysis

This section will be composed of three parts. In the first one, we define an invariant property ("internally pruned") for trees of prefixes of layouts of vertices. In the second one, we show that, in the algorithm presented in the previous section, the tree of prefixes verifies the invariant at all times, and prove the correctness of the algorithm. Finally, in the third part,
we analyze the size of trees of prefixes verifying the invariant, proving that each level $S_{i}$ of such a tree has a size $\leq n^{k}$, yielding a complexity analysis of the algorithm.

## C.3.1 Internally pruned trees of prefixes

Definition - Internally pruned. A tree $\mathcal{T}$ of prefixes of layouts of vertices (such as the one used in the algorithm in the previous section) is said to be internally pruned if for all pairs $(\sigma, \tau)$ of nodes of $\mathcal{T}$ such that $\tau$ is a shortest non-expanding extension of $\sigma$, all nodes on the path from $\tau$ (included) to $\sigma$ (excluded) in $\mathcal{T}$ have degree exactly 2. I.e. there are no sub-parts of the tree rooted on the path from $\tau$ (included) to $\sigma$ (excluded)

We use the term "internally" to emphasize the fact that, in a context where we apply the definition of "internally pruned" to a partially constructed $\mathcal{T}$ within the algorithm of the previous section, More ("external") pruning of the tree might be achieved further in the construction of the tree, as new SNEKFEs are discovered (see below for the justification of why new SNEKFEs are indeed discovered at step 2.b of the algorithm).

## C.3.2 Invariant and correctness

Lemma 3 - Invariant. Throughout the execution of the algorithm presented in the previous section, the tree $\mathcal{T}$ of prefixes of layouts of vertices remains "internally pruned" at all times

Proof. The tree $\mathcal{T}$ starts off with one node for the empty sequence. It is therefore internally pruned.

Suppose now that the tree of prefixes $\mathcal{T}$ is internally pruned at an intermediate step in the algorithm, then the next building step always consists in considering a leaf $\sigma$ and executing step 1. and 2 . of the algorithm. Several cases may arise:

- If all of the immediate extensions are such that $\left\{d^{-}(\sigma)<d^{-}(\sigma \cdot u) \leq k\right\}$, then no new SNEKFEs are generated when adding them to the tree. (if $\sigma \cdot u$ is a SNEKFE of some $\eta$ up the tree, then $\sigma$ is shorter and also non-expanding). After the addition of the immediate extension, the tree is therefore still internally pruned.
- If one of these immediate extensions verifies $d^{-}(\sigma \cdot u)=d^{-}(\sigma)$ but none of them verify $d^{-}(\sigma \cdot u)<d^{-}(\sigma)$, then one of these extensions is a SNEKFE of $\sigma$, and is kept while the others are pruned. However, this is the only SNEKFE introduced by the extension. Therefore, the pruning of immediate extensions other than the selected one is enough to keep the tree internally pruned.
- If one of the immediate extensions verifies $d^{-}(\sigma \cdot u)=d^{-}(\sigma)-1$, then one of the immediate extensions is selected and the others are pruned, as in the previous case. However, in addition, $\sigma \cdot u$ might be a new shortest non-expanding extension of a node $\eta$ up the tree. If this is the case, then there is only one such $\eta$, per the definition of shortest non-expanding extensions.
We argue that the conditions used in the algorithm indeed detect such an $\eta$.
If $\sigma \cdot u$ is a SNEKFE of $\eta$, then the conditions described in the algorithm (that $d^{-}(\sigma \cdot u)=$ $d^{-}(\eta)$, and $d^{-}(\rho)>d^{-}(\eta)$ for any $\rho$ on the path from $\eta$ to $\left.\sigma \cdot u\right)$ are verified.
Conversely, if the conditions are verified, then suppose $\eta$ has a shorter non-expanding extensions $\tau$. $\tau$ cannot be on the path from $\eta$ to $\sigma \cdot u$ as that would imply $d^{-}(\tau)>d^{-}(\eta)$. Since $\tau$ is shorter than $\sigma \cdot u, \tau$ has been generated in a previous step of the algorithm. At
this point, step 2.6 of the algorithm would have pruned the path to $\sigma$, which cannot be visited, leading to a contradiction.

Therefore, the potentially newly introduced SNEKFE is detected, and the corresponding pruning is carried out, leaving the tree internally pruned
Therefore, after each extension of the tree throughout the algorithm, the tree remains internally pruned.

We quickly finish this sub-section with a proof of correctness of the algorithm.
Lemma 4-correctness. If the graph $G$ allows for a full $k$-feasible solution, then there is such a solution among the leaves of the tree of prefixes $\mathcal{T}$ generated by the algorithm.

Proof. Denote the set of full solutions $S$, and suppose all solutions are absent from $\mathcal{T}$.
$\forall \sigma \in S$, there is some (possibly empty) prefix of $\sigma$ in $\mathcal{T}$.
We pick $\sigma \in S$ allowing for the largest prefix $\eta \in \mathcal{T}$, i.e:

$$
\sigma=\underset{\sigma^{\prime} \in S}{\operatorname{argmax}}\left[\max _{\eta \sqsubseteq \sigma^{\prime}, \eta \in \mathcal{T}}|\eta|\right]
$$

Take $\eta$ the largest prefix of $\sigma$ belonging to $\mathcal{T}$. If the path from $\eta$ to $\sigma$ has been pruned, it is because $\eta$ is on the path from $\eta^{\prime}$ to $\tau$, with $\tau$ shortest non expanding extension of $\eta^{\prime}$, and $\tau$ is not a prefix of $\sigma$.

The path from $\eta$ to $\sigma$ is pruned only when $\tau$ is visited. Hence $\tau \in \mathcal{T}$, otherwise, the path from

Per the commitment lemma, $\tau$ is the prefix of a full solution $\sigma^{\prime \prime}$. But $|\tau|>|\eta|$, contradicting the choice of $\sigma$.

## C.3.3 Signature analysis

We show here that, at any point in the algorithm, thanks to the pruning, $\forall i, \quad\left|S_{i}\right|=O\left(n^{k}\right)$.
Definition - signature . Consider $\sigma \in S_{i}$ for some $i$, within the internally pruned tree generated by the algorithm, valid partial layout. We call signature of $\sigma$ the set of vertices obtained from $V(\sigma)$ by removing, given any pair $(\eta, \rho)$ of prefixes of $\sigma$ such that $\rho$ is a SNEKFE of $\eta$, all vertices in $\rho \backslash \eta$.

Given $\sigma \in S_{i}$, its signature can be easily computed by looking at the path from the root to $\sigma$ : any vertex chosen out of several available possibilities is part of the signature, while any vertex that was the only possibility at the point of its choosing isn't.
Lemma 5 - Same signature same sequence. If $\operatorname{sgn}(\sigma)=\operatorname{sgn}(\tau)$ within the pruned tree of layouts and $|\tau|=|\sigma|$ then $\sigma=\tau$

Proof. When starting at the root and building $\tau$ and $\sigma$ by going down the tree, at every node, there are two cases:

- Either the next move is part of a SNEKFE. In this case there are no choices to be made, the added vertex is not part of the signature, and is the same for $\sigma$ and $\tau$.
- Or the next move is not part of a SNEKFE. In this case, several choices are possible, and the next added vertex will be part of the signature. Since the signatures of $\sigma$ and $\tau$ are the same, the same vertex is added to $\sigma$ and $\tau$.
At the end of this process, $\sigma$ and $\tau$ are therefore identical.
Lemma 6 - overall strictly decreasing $=$ SNEKFE only. Consider $\tau \in S_{i}$ for some $i$ partial valid layout, and $\sigma$ a prefix of $\tau$ such that:

```
    - \(d^{-}(\sigma)>d^{-}(\tau)\)
- For any \(\rho\) such that \(\sigma \sqsubseteq \rho \sqsubseteq \tau, \rho \neq \tau\), we also have \(d^{-}(\rho)>d^{-}(\tau)\).
Then, the suffix \(\tau \backslash \sigma\) of \(\tau\) corresponding to \(\sigma\) can be entirely partitioned into SNEKFEs. In
particular, none of its elements are part of the signature of \(\tau\).
Proof. We prove the lemma by induction on the length of the suffix \(\tau \backslash \sigma\). If \(|\tau \backslash \sigma|=1\),
then \(\tau=\sigma \cdot u\) and \(d^{-}(\tau)=d^{-}(\sigma)-1 . \tau\) is a type-(i) SNEKFE of \(\sigma\) and the lemma is true.
    If \(|\tau \backslash \sigma|>1\) and we assume the lemma true \(\forall l<|\tau \backslash \sigma|\), then let us distinguish two cases
related to the first element \(v\) of \(\tau \backslash \sigma\) :
- if \(\sigma \cdot v\) is a type-(i) or type-(ii) SNEKFE of \(\sigma\), then we apply the induction hypothesis to the suffix \(\tau \backslash(\sigma \cdot v)\) of \(\tau\) and we have the result.
- else, if \(d^{-}(\sigma \cdot v)>d^{-}(\sigma)\), we know, since \(d^{-}(\tau)<d^{-}(\sigma)\) and the \(d^{-}\)-curve only decreases by steps of -1 , that there must exist \(\rho\) such that \(d^{-}(\rho)=d^{-}(\sigma), \sigma \sqsubseteq \rho \sqsubseteq \tau\), and \(d^{-}\left(\rho^{\prime}\right)>d^{-}(\sigma)\) for any \(\rho^{\prime}\) such that \(\sigma \sqsubseteq \rho^{\prime} \subseteq \rho\) ( \(\rho\) is the shortest prefix of \(\tau\) which contains \(\sigma\) and has the same \(d^{-}\)value). \(\rho\) is then a type-(iii) SNEKFE of \(\sigma\) by Lemma 4, and we may apply the induction hypothesis to \(\tau \backslash \sigma\)
```

Lemma 7 - Signature size. $\forall \sigma \in S_{i}$ for some $i$ partial layout of vertices, $|\operatorname{sgn}(\sigma)| \leq d^{-}(\sigma)$
Proof. The proof is by induction on $|\sigma|$. Suppose $|\operatorname{sgn}(\sigma)| \leq d^{-}(\sigma)$, and consider the extension $\sigma \cdot u$, where $u$ is a vertex.

- If $\sigma \cdot u$ is not a SNEKFE of $\sigma$, then $|\operatorname{sgn}(\sigma \cdot u)|=|\operatorname{sgn}(\sigma) \cup\{u\}|=|\operatorname{sgn}(u)|+1 \leq$ $d^{-}(\sigma)+1 \leq d^{-}(\sigma \cdot u)$
- If $\sigma$ is a type-(ii) SNEKFE of $\sigma$, then $\operatorname{sgn}(\sigma)=\operatorname{sgn}(\sigma \cdot u)$ and $d^{-}(\sigma \cdot u)=d^{-}(\sigma)$.
- If $\sigma \cdot u$ is a type-(i) SNEKFE of $\sigma$, then consider $\eta$, the closest node (up the tree) such that $d^{-}(\eta)<d^{-}(\sigma \cdot u)$, and $\eta \cdot v$ its successor on the path to $\sigma \cdot u$. We have $d^{-}(\eta)<d^{-}(\sigma \cdot u) \leq d^{-}(\eta \cdot v)$, by definition of $\eta$. The path from $\eta \cdot v$ to $u$ is either a type-(iii) SNEKFE or overall-decreasing. Therefore $\operatorname{sgn}(\sigma \cdot u)=\operatorname{sgn}(\eta \cdot v)$. and $|\operatorname{sgn}(\sigma \cdot u)|=|\operatorname{sgn}(\eta)|+1 \leq d^{-}(\eta)+1$ by induction hypothesis, and $|\operatorname{sgn}(\sigma \cdot u)| \leq d^{-}(\sigma \cdot u)$.

In particular, $\forall \sigma$ partial layout, $d^{-}(\sigma) \leq k$. Since two different elements of $S_{i}$ need different signatures, we get the following corollary:
Corollary. $\forall i$, at any point in the algorithm, $\left|S_{i}\right|=O\left(n^{k}\right)$
The overall complexity of the algorithm is therefore $O\left(n^{k+O(1)}\right)$. More precisely, it is $O\left(n^{k+2}\right)$. (there are $n$ levels of the tree to fill, $\leq n^{k}$ nodes per level and $O(n)$ work per node to generate the next level).

## D Detailed RNA reconfiguration example

We provide in Figure 5 the intermediate sets of base pairs, and associated RNA secondary structures, for our running example, described in Figures 1 and 3.


Figure 5 Optimal (min barrier) refolding scenario between two RNA secondary structures. In each intermediate state, the conflict graph is given, featuring the selected independent set of base pairs (filled nodes), and the corresponding secondary structure.

