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DNLC GRAMMARS

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ABSTRACT

There are (at least) three motivations to study the class of *regular directed node-label controlled graph grammars* (*regular DNLC grammars* for short): (1) it fits very well into the hierarchy of subclasses of DNLC grammars, (2) it generalizes naturally right-linear string grammars and (3) it provides a useful framework for the theory of concurrent systems based on the theory of traces.

The complexity of (the membership problem for) the class of regular DNLC grammars is investigated.

INTRODUCTION

The theory of graph grammars is a natural extension of the formal string language theory and it has become a well-established topic of research (see, e.g., Ehrig et al., 1983). The potential applicability of graph grammars in many fields of computer science provides substantial motivation for theoretical studies.

One of such fields is the theory of traces, initiated by Mazurkiewicz (1977), which has become quite popular as an approach to the theory of concurrent systems (see, e.g., Mazurkiewicz, 1984a, Mazurkiewicz 1984b, Bertoni et al., 1981, and Aalbersberg and Rozenberg, 1984b). In Aalbersberg and Rozenberg (1984a) the theory of traces was related to the theory of graph grammars through regular directed node-label controlled graph grammars (abbreviated regular DNLC grammars) - a subclass of the directed node-label controlled graph grammars (see, e.g., Janssens and Rozenberg, 1981). It also turns out that the class of regular DNLC grammars fits very well into the hierarchy of various subclasses of DNLC grammars - e.g., it is a very natural subclass of the (directed version of) boundary NLC grammars (see, Rozenberg and Welzl, 1984). Moreover the notion of a regular DNLC grammar transfers very nicely the notion of a right-linear grammar into the framework of graph grammars.

In this note we investigate the complexity of regular DNLC grammars and in particular we prove that the membership problem for regular DNLC grammars is NP-complete.

0. PRELIMINARIES

We assume the reader to be familiar with both, basic formal string language theory (see, e.g., Salomaa, 1973) and the theory of NP-Completeness (see, e.g., Garey and Johnson, 1979).

For sets A and B, $A - B$ denotes their *difference*; \emptyset denotes the *empty set*. For a set A, $\#A$ denotes the *cardinality* of A.

A *directed node labeled graph*, in the sequel simply called a *graph*, will be

specified in the form $\gamma = (V, E, \Sigma, \ell)$ where V is its set of *nodes*, $E \subseteq (V \times V) - \{(v, v) \mid v \in V\}$ is its set of *edges*, Σ is its *label alphabet* and $\ell : V \rightarrow \Sigma$ is its (*node*) *labeling function*. If graphs γ and γ' are isomorphic (and we consider only the node-label preserving isomorphisms), then we write $\gamma \cong \gamma'$. We will sometimes identify isomorphic graphs as equal (then we really consider the so-called *abstract graphs*). For an alphabet Σ , G_Σ denotes the set of all graphs with the label alphabet Σ .

For a graph γ , $\#\gamma$ denotes the number of nodes of γ . For a symbol c , a graph $\gamma = (V, E, \Sigma, \ell)$ such that $c \in \Sigma$, $V = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ for some $n \geq 1$, $\ell(v_i) = c$ for every $1 \leq i \leq n$, and $E = \{(v_i, v_{i+1}) \mid 1 \leq i \leq n-1\}$ is called a *c-path*. A graph γ is a *k-element c-path*, where $k \geq 1$, if γ is a *c-path* and $\#\gamma = k$. For graphs $\gamma = (V, E, \Sigma, \ell)$ and $\gamma' = (V', E', \Sigma', \ell')$ where $V \cap V' = \emptyset$, their *union* is the graph $(V \cup V', E \cup E', \Sigma \cup \Sigma', \ell \cup \ell')$. (Hence we consider unions of disjoint graphs only, or, if we consider abstract graphs, then disjoint representatives are chosen).

We recall now basic notions concerning regular DNLC grammars.

Definition 1. (1) A *directed node-label controlled graph grammar*, abbreviated DNLC *grammar*, is a system $G = (\Gamma, \Delta, P, C_{in}, C_{out}, Z)$, where: (i) Γ is an alphabet, called the *total alphabet* of G , (ii) $\Delta \subseteq \Gamma$ is called the *terminal alphabet* of G , (iii) $P \subseteq (\Gamma - \Delta) \times G_\Gamma$ is called the set of *productions* of G , (iv) $C_{in} \subseteq \Gamma \times \Gamma$ is called the *in-connection relation* of G and $C_{out} \subseteq \Gamma \times \Gamma$ is called the *out-connection relation* of G , and (v) Z , called the *axiom* of G , is a graph over Γ consisting of one node labeled by an element of $\Gamma - \Delta$.

(2) A DNLC grammar $G = (\Gamma, \Delta, P, C_{in}, C_{out}, Z)$ is called *regular*, if every production of G is either of the form $(X, \overset{a}{\bullet} \xrightarrow{Y} \bullet)$ or of the form $(X, \overset{a}{\bullet})$, with $a \in \Delta$ and $Y \in \Gamma - \Delta$. ■

Informally speaking, a DNLC grammar $G = (\Gamma, \Delta, P, C_{in}, C_{out}, Z)$ generates a set of graphs as follows. Given a graph γ to be rewritten and a production of the form (X, β) , where $X \in \Gamma - \Delta$ and $\beta \in G_\Gamma$, one chooses a node v of γ labeled by X and replaces it by (a graph isomorphic to) β . Then, in order to embed β in "the remainder of γ " (i.e., the graph resulting from γ by removing v), one uses relations C_{in} and C_{out} as follows. For every pair $(b, c) \in C_{in}$ one establishes an (incoming) edge from each direct neighbour node of v labeled c to each node of β labeled b . Analogously, for every pair $(b, c) \in C_{out}$ one establishes an (outgoing) edge from each node labeled b in β to each direct neighbour node of v labeled c . Every graph γ' isomorphic to the resulting graph is said to be *directly derived from γ in G* . Iterating the *direct derivation step* (starting with the axiom graph

Z of G) and choosing only those derived graphs that are labeled by labels from the terminal alphabet Δ one gets the (graph) language $L(G)$ of G.

These notions are defined formally in Janssens and Rozenberg (1981).

1. THE COMPLEXITY OF REGULAR DNLC GRAMMARS

We consider now the complexity of the membership problem for regular DNLC grammars.

Theorem 2.1. There exists a regular DNLC grammar G (with the empty out-connection relation) such that the membership problem for $L(G)$ is NP-complete.

Proof. Let $G = (\Gamma, \Delta, P, C_{in}, C_{out}, Z)$ be the regular DNLC grammar, such that:

- (i) $\Gamma = \{A_0, A_1, B_0, B_1, a, b\}$,
- (ii) $\Delta = \{a, b\}$,
- (iii) $P = \{(B_0, \overset{b}{\longrightarrow} A_0), (B_1, \overset{b}{\longrightarrow} A_0), (B_1, \overset{b}{\longrightarrow} A_1), (A_0, \overset{a}{\longrightarrow} B_0), (A_0, \overset{a}{\longrightarrow} B_1), (A_1, \overset{a}{\longrightarrow} B_0), (A_1, \overset{a}{\longrightarrow} B_1), (A_0, \overset{a}{\longrightarrow} \cdot), (A_1, \overset{a}{\longrightarrow} \cdot)\}$,
- (iv) $C_{in} = \{(a, a), (b, b), (B_1, b), (A_1, a)\}$,
- (v) $C_{out} = \emptyset$, and
- (vi) Z is a graph consisting of one node labeled by B_0 .

Informally speaking G works as follows. G generates sets of b-paths and a-paths by generating alternatively a b-labeled node and an a-labeled node ("b-generating" nonterminals B_0 and B_1 always introduce one of the "a-generating" nonterminals A_0 and A_1). In this way in each graph of $L(G)$ the number of b-labeled nodes equals the number of a-labeled nodes. Moreover, at any moment G can "decide" to break the paths it is generating, by introducing one of the "disconnecting" nonterminals A_0 and B_0 . However, after breaking

a b-path one has to break the "associated" a-path: $(B_0, \overset{b}{\longrightarrow} A_0)$ is the only production for the "breaking" nonterminal B_0 .

A "typical" graph in $L(G)$ looks as follows:

fig. 1

The following result follows directly from the construction of G.

Lemma 1. Let γ be a graph which is the non-empty union of a-paths and b-paths. Let, for $m \geq 0$, $S_b = \{\beta_1, \dots, \beta_m\}$ be the set of disjoint b-paths of γ and let S_a be the collection of a-paths of γ . Then $\gamma \in L(G)$ if and only if there exists a partition $\{S_a^1, \dots, S_a^m\}$ of S_a , such that, for every $1 \leq i \leq m$, $\#\beta_i = \sum_{\delta \in S_a^i} \#\delta$. ■

Lemma 2. The membership problem for $L(G)$ is NP-complete.

Proof. Obviously the membership problem for $L(G)$ is in NP.

In order to show that the membership problem for $L(G)$ is NP-hard, consider the following NP-complete problem (see Garey & Johnson, 1979, Problem SP15, page 224).

3 - PARTITION

Instance: A finite set S of $3n$ elements, where $n \geq 1$, a positive integer k and, for every $s \in S$, a positive integer $v(s)$, such that, for every $s \in S$,

$$k/4 < v(s) < k/2 \text{ and } \sum_{s \in S} v(s) = kn.$$

Question: Can S be partitioned into n sets S_1, \dots, S_n in such a way that, for every $1 \leq i \leq n$,

$$\sum_{s \in S_i} v(s) = k?$$

Let f be the function which maps every instance $I = (S, n, k, v)$ of 3-PARTITION into a graph $f(I)$ in G_Δ as follows. $f(I)$ is the union of (i) n k -element b -paths, and (ii) for every $s \in S$, a $v(s)$ -element a -path (hence, every $s \in S$ corresponds uniquely to an a -path in $f(I)$). (Thus, for every instance I of 3-PARTITION, $f(I)$ is the union of at least one a -path and at least one b -path.)

It is easily seen that f has a polynomial-bounded time-complexity. Furthermore, for every instance I of 3-PARTITION, I is a "yes"-instance of 3-PARTITION if and only if $f(I)$ is an element of $L(G)$; this can be seen as follows.

Assume that $I = (S, n, k, v)$ is a "yes" - instance of 3-PARTITION. Hence, there exists a partition (S_1, \dots, S_n) of S , such that, for every $1 \leq i \leq n$,

$$\sum_{s \in S_i} v(s) = k. \text{ Furthermore, since } f(I) \text{ is the union of at least one } a\text{-path and}$$

at least one b -path, we can partition $f(I)$ into $S_b = (\beta_1, \dots, \beta_m)$ and S_a , in the way described in the first part of the statement of Lemma 1 (note that now $m \geq 1$).

Let, for every $1 \leq i \leq n$, S_a^i be the set of a -paths in S_a corresponding to the elements of S_i . It is easily seen that: (1) $m = n$, and (2) for every $1 \leq i \leq n$,

$$\#\beta_i = k = \sum_{s \in S_i} v(s) = \sum_{\delta \in S_a^i} \#\delta.$$

Consequently, by Lemma 1, $f(I) \in L(G)$ which proves the "only if" - part of the claim.

Assume now that $I = (S, n, k, v)$ is an instance of 3-PARTITION, such that $f(I) \in L(G)$. Hence, because $f(I)$ is the union of at least one a -path and at least one b -path, it follows from Lemma 1 that $f(I)$ can be partitioned into $S_b = \{\beta_1, \dots, \beta_m\}$ consisting of b -paths, where $m \geq 1$, and S_a consisting of a -paths in such a way that there exists a partition (S_a^1, \dots, S_a^m) of S_a , such that for

every $1 \leq i \leq m$, $\beta_i = \sum_{\delta \in S_a^i} \delta$. Let, for every $1 \leq i \leq m$, S_i be the set of elements in S corresponding to the a -paths of S_a^i . It is easily seen that: (1) $m = n$, and (2) for every $1 \leq i \leq n$, $\sum_{s \in S_i} v(s) = \sum_{\delta \in S_a^i} \delta = \beta_i = k$.

Consequently, I is a "yes"-instance of 3-PARTITION, which proves the "if"-part of the claim.

Since 3-PARTITION is NP-hard, the membership problem for $L(G)$ is NP-hard, and consequently, the membership problem for $L(G)$ is NP-complete. ■

The theorem follows directly from Lemma 2. ■

This is a rather surprising result. A regular DNLC grammar (with the empty out-connection relation) can be considered as a right-linear string grammar in which during the (left-to-right) generation of (the graph representation of) a string (with all edges resulted by "transitivity" also added) some edges are removed (cutted) according to the in-connection relation. It is well-known that the membership problem for right-linear grammars is linear while the membership problem for regular DNLC grammars turns out to be so difficult!!!

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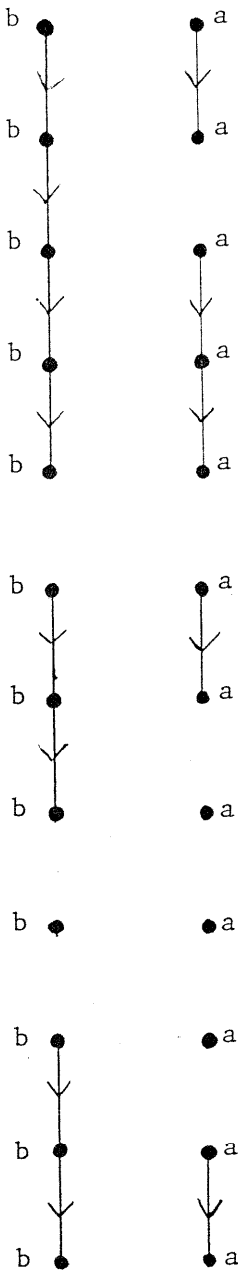


Figure 1. A "typical" graph in $L(G)$. ■