

On Context-free Graph Grammars

Bruno Courcelle

Université Bordeaux 1, LaBRI, and Institut Universitaire de France



Reference : Graph structure and monadic second-order logic, book to be published by Cambridge University Press, readable on :

http://www.labri.fr/perso/courcell/ActSci.html

An overview chart



Grammars as mathematical objects

Linguistics : Chomsky's Hierarchy (can be refined)

Regular \subset Context-free \subset Context-sensitive \subset Recursively enumerable

Compilation : Programming languages are described by context-freegrammars + constraints(type checking etc ...)

(The official motivation of lots of articles on context-free languages *unrelated* with compilation.)

Other motivations (some will apply to graphs) : Counting objects in bijection with the words of a context-free unambiguous grammar. Finite (compact) description of infinite (finite) sets of words, graphs, combinatorial objects.

Objects come with a structure (a derivation tree) : what is important is *not* the language but the mapping from words to derivation trees. These trees are essential in compilation but may also be used for drawing graphs generated by a context-free graph grammar.

Inductive proof methods can be based on grammars. (Students are reluctant to prove that the grammars they produce are correct, but authors too : they never discuss how to prove that a grammar is correct). Links with program schemes (formalization of program semantics)

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What is a context-free graph grammar?

What means " context-free "?

1) Some "nonterminal" symbols S can be replaced according to a list of rules.

2) All rules $S \rightarrow m$ can be used independently of the context of S

3) The context is not modified by the replacement.

In context-free grammars, the context is the pair of words around a nonterminal

This "axiomatic" definition can be made formal.

What for graphs?

Option 1 : Nonterminal vertices.

Application of rule

 $S \rightarrow m$

The context : A graph with particular vertices, those linked to the nonterminal vertex.

S C	m 2 C
	? C

How to link the context **C** to the replacing graph **m**?

By labels attached to vertices and edges, and some complicated mechanisms Difficulty : How to guarantee context-freeness ?

A nontrivial question (lots of articles) ; below a simple solution.

Option 2 : Nonterminal edges.

All such grammars are context-free.



Drawback : Limited generative power

Example : Series-Parallel graphs.

Graphs with distinguished vertices (*boundary vertices* or *sources*) 1 and 2, generated from $\mathbf{e} = 1 \longrightarrow 2$ and the operations // (parallel-composition) and *series-composition*.



Equation: $S = S //S \cup S \bullet S \cup e$



Limitation (all 3 options): All finite (even planar) graphs : not a context-free set.

Equational sets of an algebra = the context-free sets. Equation systems → Context-Free (Graph) Grammars in an algebraic setting

In the case of words, the set of context-free rules

 $S \rightarrow a ST; S \rightarrow b; T \rightarrow cTTT; T \rightarrow a$

is equivalent to the system of two set equations:

 $S = a S T \qquad \cup \qquad \{b\}$ $T = c T T T \qquad \cup \qquad \{a\}$

where S is the language generated by S (idem for T and T).

For graphs (or other objects) we consider systems of equations like:

$$S = f(k(S), T) \cup \{b\}$$

$$T = f(T, f(g(T), m(T))) \cup \{a\}$$

where :

- f is a binary operation,
- g, k, m are unary operations on graphs,
- a, b denote basic graphs (up to isomorphism).

An *equational set* is a component of the least (unique) solution of such an equation system. This is well-defined in any algebra (Least Fixed Point Theorem).

Many properties are valid at the general algebraic level.

Two graph algebras

HR operations : Hyperedge Replacement hypergraph grammars ; (associated complexity measure : tree-width)

Graphs have distinguished vertices called *sources*, (or terminals or boundary vertices) pointed to by labels from a finite set : $\{a, b, c, ..., h\}$.

Binary operation(s) : Parallel composition

G // H is the disjoint union of G and H and sources with same label are fused.

(If G and H are not disjoint, one first makes a copy of H disjoint from G).



Unary operations :

Forget a source label

Forget_a(G) is G without a-source : the source is no longer distinguished ;

(it is made "internal").

Source renaming :

 $Ren_{a \leftarrow b}(G)$ exchanges source labels *a* and *b*

(replaces a by b if b is not the label of a source)

Constant symbols denote basic graphs : the connected graphs with at most

one edge.

Remark : For generating hypergraphs, one takes more constant symbols for denoting hyperedges. The operations are the same.

Construction of trees :

with two source labels, *r* (root) and *n* (new root): Fusion of two trees at their roots :



Equation : $T = T //T \cup Ext(T) \cup r$

Series-parallel graphs,

They are generated by the constant $e = 1 \longrightarrow 2$,

// (parallel-composition) and series-composition defined from other operations by :

 $G \bullet H = Forget_3(Ren_2 \leftrightarrow_3 (G) // Ren_1 \leftrightarrow_3 (H))$

Example :



The defining equation (equivalent to the grammar described above):

 $S = S//S \cup S \bullet S \cup e$

VR operations : Another graph algebra

Origin : Vertex Replacement graph grammars Associated complexity measure: clique-width.

Graphs are simple, directed or not.

k labels : a, b, c, ..., h. Each vertex has one and only one label;

a label *p* may label several vertices, called the *p-ports*.

One binary operation: disjoint union : \oplus

Unary operations: Edge addition denoted by $Add-edg_{a,b}$

Add-edg_{a,b}(G) is G augmented with directed or undirected edges from every *a*-port to every *b*-port.



 $H = Add - edg_{a,b}(G)$; only 5 new edges added

The number of added edges depends on the argument graph.

Vertex relabellings :

Relaba $\rightarrow b(G)$ is G with every vertex labelled by a relabelled into b

Basic graphs are those with a single vertex.



 K_n is defined by t_n where $t_{n+1} = Relab_{b \to a}(Add-edg_{a,b}(t_n \oplus b))$

Two algebras of graphs HR and VR

Hence, two notions of context-free sets, defined as the equational sets of the algebras **HR** and **VR**.

Why not a third algebra ? :

We have robustness results :

Independent logical characterizations, stability under certain logically defined transductions, generation from trees.

Which properties follow from the algebraic setting ?

Answers : Closure under union, //, ⊕ and the unary operations.
 Emptiness and finiteness are decidable (finite sets are computable)
 Parikh's Theorem
 Derivation trees, denotation of generated graphs by terms,
 Upper bounds to tree-width and clique-width.

Which properties do not hold as we could wish?

Answers : The set of all (finite) graphs is neither HR- nor VR-equational.

Not even is the set of all square grids (planar graphs of degree 4)

Parsing is sometimes NP-complete.

Comparison of the two classes :

 $Equat(HR) \subseteq Equat(VR)$

= sets in Equat(VR), all graphs of which are without some fixed $K_{n,n}$ as subgraph.

 $K_{n,p}$: All edges between a set of *n* vertices and a set of *p* vertices.

Compact descriptions of finite sets

Set T_2



What do they come from?

Graphs described by "forbidden subgraphs or minors"

Planar graphs = graphs without K_5 and $K_{3,3}$ as "minors" (some notion of subgraph).



Theory developped by Robertson, Seymour and many others.

In many cases finite but very large numbers of forbidden configurations.

Graphs on the torus ("doughnut") : *thousands* of forbidden graphs. Certainly not random sets.

Grammars should be able to enlighten the regularities.

The set T_2 : the *trees* that are the forbidden minors for the property "pathwidth ≤ 2 " (graphs having a kind of linear decomposition). T_k is the corresponding set for "path-width $\leq k$ " where :



Each set T_k has more than $(k!)^2$ graphs, all with $(5/2).(3^k-1)$ vertices, but has an HR grammar (equation system) of size O(k).

Other example : the forbidden induced subgraphs for *interval graphs*. There are infinitely many, but they form an equational set of the HR algebra.



Open problem :

Design systematic methods to construct "small" context-free HR- or VRgrammars (or of other types) to represent sets of forbidden configurations. Tools : Monadic second-order logic + algebraic notions (equational and recognizable sets) + graph theoretic arguments. Inductive proofs based on context-free grammars / equation systems

Example

 $T \rightarrow aTb$; $T \rightarrow c$ / $T = aTb \cup c$

Property 1 : Every word generated by T has odd length. From grammar : For every word w in $\{a,b,c\}^*$, by induction on n such that T \rightarrow^n w (n derivation steps).

From equation system : Let K be the set of words of odd length. Fact : $aKb \subseteq K$ and $c \in K$.

This gives the result by the Least Fixed-Point Theorem.

Same equation : $T = aTb \cup c$

Property 2: T \subseteq K' := X* - X*abX* (no factor ab; X ={a,b,c}*)

False that : a K' b \subseteq K'

A stronger inductive property is needed. One can use

$$\mathsf{K}":=\mathsf{K}' \ \cap \ (\mathsf{X}^*-\mathsf{X}^*\mathsf{a}) \ \cap \ (\mathsf{X}-\mathsf{b}\mathsf{X}^*)$$

Theorem : Let G be a context-free grammar defined by equations :

$$X_1 = p_1, \dots, x_n = p_n.$$

Let K be a regular language. Then $L(G, X_1) \subseteq K$

 \Leftrightarrow there exist regular languages $K_1, ..., K_n$ such that :

 $K_1 \subseteq K$ and $p_i(K_1,...,K_n) \subseteq K_i$ for each i.

The property $L(G, X_1) \subseteq K$ can be proved by lemmas concerning only regular languages.

A similar situation holds for graphs, where "regular language" is replaced by "set of graphs characterized by a monadic secondorder sentence."

Attribute grammars

Motivation from compilation

Nonterminal symbols are equipped with "attributes" taking values in "types" (integer, real, array, etc...) or "register" (for code generation). Context-free rules are equipped computation rules of attributes.

Principle : For every derivation tree, the dependency graph of attributes must have no circuits. Rather than giving (too strong) syntactic restrictions guaranteeing

that, the non-circularity test is performed after attribute dependencies are defined.

Example :

 $S \rightarrow variable$

 $S \rightarrow S + S$

ry . s code 5 in

Two attributes and their depencies.

The dependency graph for the expression :

x + y + z

(x,y,z are variables).



The Hyperedge Replacement grammar generating the dependencies for all words generated by S.



The non-circularity checking algorithm

(exponential in extreme cases but practically usable)

There is a circularity if some dependency graph of T has a path from **b** to **x** ("root attributes") and some dependency graph of U has one from a to y.

The

algorithm

For T we may have :

between its root attributes.



Generalization

To all HR and VR graph grammars, To all properties expressed in monadic second-order logic (extending the non-circularity question), Auxiliary properties (extending the possible "types" of dependencies) i.e., "stronger inductive assertions" can be generated by an algorithm, (no need to "guess" the right inductive property).

Consequence : linear time verification from the "derivation tree".
Difficulties : 1) Huge numbers of auxiliary properties.
2) Parsing is sometimes NP-complete, anyway difficult.

Other examples of inductive proofs

Example : Series-parallel graphs

- 1) G, H connected implies : G //H and $G \bullet H$ are connected, (induction)
 - e is connected (basis) : \Rightarrow All series-parallel graphs are connected.
- 2) It is not true that :

G and H planar implies : G//H is planar ($K_5 = H//e$).

A stronger property for induction :

G has a planar embedding with the sources in the same "face"

 \Rightarrow All series-parallel graphs are planar.

Inductive computation : Test for 2-colorability of series-parallel graphs

Not all series-parallel graphs are 2-colorable. Example : K₃

G, H 2-colorable does not imply that G//H is 2-colorable (because $K_3 = P_3//e$). One can check 2-colorability with 2 auxiliary properties :

Same(G) = G is 2-colorable with sources of the same color, Diff(G) = G is 2-colorable with sources of different colors by using rules : Diff(e) = True ; Same(e) = False Same(G//H) \Leftrightarrow Same(G) \land Same(H) Diff(G//H) \Leftrightarrow Diff(G) \land Diff(H) Same(G•H) \Leftrightarrow (Same(G) \land Same (H)) \lor (Diff(G) \land Diff(H)) Diff(G•H) \Leftrightarrow (Same(G) \land Diff(H)) \lor (Diff(G) \land Same(H))

We can compute for every SP-term t, by induction on the structure of t the pair of Boolean values (Same(Val(t)), Diff(Val(t))).

We get the answer for G = Val(t) (the graph that is the *value* of t) regarding 2-colorability.

Application 1 : Linear algorithm

For every SP-term t, we can compute, by running a finite deterministic bottomautomaton on t, the pair of Boolean values (Same(Val(t)), Diff(Val(t))).

We get the answer for G = Val(t) (the graph that is the *value* of t) regarding 2-colorability.

Example : σ at node u means that Same(Val(t/u)) is true, $\overline{\sigma}$ that it is false, δ that Diff (Val(t/u)) is true, etc... Computation is **done bottom-up** with the rules :



Application 2 : Equation system for 2-colorable series-parallel graphs

We let $S_{\sigma,\delta}$ be the set of series-parallel graphs that satisfy Same (σ) and Diff (δ) $S_{\sigma,\overline{\delta}}$ be the set of those that satisfy Same and not Diff , etc ...

From the equation : $S = S // S \cup S \bullet S \cup e$ we get the equation system :

In equation

(a)
$$S_{\sigma,\delta} = \frac{S_{\sigma,\delta}}{S_{\sigma,\delta}} \cup \frac{S_{\sigma,\delta} \cup S_{\sigma,\delta} \cup S_{\sigma,\delta$$

Fact: No series-parallel graph satisfies Same and Diff.

We can simplify the system {(a), (b), (c), (d)} into :

 $(b') \quad S_{\bar{\sigma},\delta} = e \ \cup \ S_{\bar{\sigma},\delta} / / S_{\bar{\sigma},\delta} \ \cup \ S_{\sigma,\bar{\delta}} \bullet S_{\bar{\sigma},\delta} \ \cup \ S_{\bar{\sigma},\delta} \bullet S_{\sigma,\bar{\delta}}$

$$(c') \quad S_{\sigma,\bar{\delta}} = S_{\sigma,\bar{\delta}} / / S_{\sigma,\bar{\delta}} \ \cup \ S_{\sigma,\bar{\delta}} \bullet S_{\sigma,\bar{\delta}} \ \cup \ S_{\bar{\sigma},\delta} \bullet S_{\bar{\sigma},\delta}$$

By replacing $S_{\sigma,\overline{\delta}}$ by T_{σ} , $S_{\overline{\sigma},\delta}$ by T_{δ} , by using commutativity of //, we get the system

$$\begin{cases} T = T_{\sigma} \cup T_{\delta} & \text{(defining 2-colorable series-parallel graphs)} \\ T_{\sigma} = T_{\sigma} / / T_{\sigma} & \cup T_{\sigma} \bullet T_{\sigma} & \cup T_{\delta} \bullet T_{\delta} \\ T_{\delta} = e & \cup T_{\delta} / / T_{\delta} & \cup T_{\sigma} \bullet T_{\delta} & \cup T_{\delta} \bullet T_{\sigma} \end{cases}$$

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Recognizability and inductive properties

Definitions : A set P of properties on an F-algebra **M** is F-inductive if, for every $p \in P$ and $f \in F$, there exists a (known) Boolean formula B such that :

 $p(f_M(a,b)) = B[...,q(a),...,q'(b),...]$ for all a and b in M

(here $q, q' \in P$, $q(a), \dots, q(b) \in \{True, False\}$).

A subset L of **M** is recognizable if and only if it is the set of elements that satisfy a property belonging to a <u>finite</u> inductive set P of properties.

This generalizes the characterization of regular languages in terms of <u>finite</u> congruences (or of their <u>finite</u> syntactical monoid).

Inductive properties and automata on terms

The simultaneous computation of m inductive properties can be implemented by a *finite deterministic bottom-up automaton* with 2^m states, running on terms t.

This computation takes time O(|t|): the key to *fixed-parameter tractable* algorithms

An inductive set of properties can be effectively constructed (at least theoretically) from every monadic-second order formula.

Open Problem : How to make this technique usable ?

One idea is to design logical languages with "strong primitives" in order to express useful graph properties with few quantifications.

