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TECHNICAL CONTRIBUTIONS

ON CONSTRUCTING OBSTRUCTION SETS OF WORDS

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INTRODUCTION

The graph minor theorem (Robertson and Seymour [11]) states that every minor-closed set of finite graphs is characterized by a finite, canonical set of forbidden configurations called its obstruction set. (This definition is relative to an ordering on graphs called minor inclusion that we shall denote by \leq ; see the appendix for a quick review of definitions). The proof of the theorem does not indicate how the obstruction set of a given minor-closed set of graphs can be computed. The obstruction sets of the sets of partial k-trees are explicitly known for k at most 3 (Arnborg et al [1]). For general k, they consist of partial (k+1)-trees. The results of Lagergren [10] provide an algorithm for obtaining them. However, this algorithm seems hard to implement.

In the present note, we briefly survey several equivalent ways of specifying minor-closed subclasses of partial k-trees, and we discuss some effectivity problems concerning these characterizations. We then consider these problems in the case of sets of words (we can consider words as graphs of a special form).

We denote by OBST(L) the obstruction set of a minor-closed set of graphs L. Hence, for instance, $OBST(PLANAR) = \{K_5, K_{3,3}\}$. (See the appendix for definitions.)

Theorem 1 [11, 4]: Let L be a minor-closed set of partial k-trees.

- (1) OBST(L) is finite.
- (2) L is definable by a formula ϕ of monadic-second order (MS) logic, and also by a hyperedge replacement (HR) graph-grammar Γ .
 - (3) From OBST(L), one can construct φ and Γ .
 - (4) From φ one can construct **OBST**(L) and Γ .

Assertion (1) does not use the full power of the graph minor theorem: see [11, Graph minors IV, 1990]. Assertion (4) can also be obtained by the technique of Fellows and Langston [6].

It is not known whether one can construct OBST(L) (or equivalently ϕ) from Γ . (It is known that one cannot construct OBST(L) when L is "only" given by a membership algorithm [5]; the proof of this fact that is given by Van Leeuwen [13, Theorem 1.21] for arbitrary sets of graphs can be adapted so as to work for sets of partial 2-trees.)

Theorem 1 seems to indicate that a MS formula contains at least as much information as a HR grammar for describing a minor-closed set of partial k-trees, and perhaps strictly more. This is actually not too surprizing. The following theorem states that a finite-state automaton contains (in general) strictly more information than a context-free grammar for describing the same regular language (and the results of Courcelle [3] show that a MS formula is somewhat like a finite-state automaton for defining sets of graphs.)

Theorem 2 (Ullian [12], Harrison [9, Section 8.4]): There is no algorithm that, given an arbitrary context-free grammar Γ produces a finite-state automaton A such that, if $\mathbf{L}(\Gamma)$ is regular, then $\mathbf{L}(A) = \mathbf{L}(\Gamma)$.

We now consider the effectivity questions raised by Theorem 1, in the special case of words. A word w can be considered as a directed graph consisting of a unique path, the edges of which are labelled by the letters of the word. We shall identify the word abbc with the graph:

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$$a \qquad b \qquad b \qquad c$$

and the empty word with the single vertex graph.

For every two words w and x, $w \le x$ iff w is a subword of x, i.e., if w is obtained from x by erasing some letters (contracting an edge corresponds to erasing a letter; the labels and directions of the noncontracted edges are of course preserved).

We shall denote by $\mathbf{sh}(L,L')$ the *shuffle* of two languages L and L', i.e., the set of words $u_1v_1 \dots u_nv_n$ such that $u_1,\dots,u_n,v_1,\dots,v_n$ are words such that $u_1\dots u_n\in L$ and $v_1\dots v_n\in L'$. We define from any language L the following language:

$$OBST(L) := (X^*-L)-sh(X^*-L,X^+)$$
 (1)

Let us now assume that L is *subword-closed* (i.e., contains all the subwords of all its words). Then we have:

$$L = \{w \in X^{\bullet} / \text{ no subword of } w \text{ belongs to } OBST(L)\},$$
 (2)

and by Higman's theorem, **OBST**(L) is finite (because any two words in this language are incomparable under the subword ordering). We get from equality (2) that L is rational whenever it is subword-closed, and, since the shuffle operation preserves rationality, we obtain from equality (1) that **OBST**(L) can be computed from a finite-state automaton defining L. (This result is already known from Hains [8].)

We now assume that L is given as $\unlhd(L')$ where L' is defined by a *context-free* grammar Γ' . (We denote by $\unlhd(L')$ the language L' augmented with all the subwords of its words.) One can easily construct a context-free grammar Γ generating L. One can also construct **OBST**(L) from Γ' (or from Γ) by equation (1) and the following result. (The algorithm given in its proof answers a question raised in [8], and is new, to the author's knowledge.)

Theorem 3: From a context-free grammar defining a language L, one can construct a regular expression defining $\triangle(L)$.

Proof: We first give a few definitions and state a few facts concerning sets of letters and subwords of words of L.

Let $L = L(\Gamma,S)$ where Γ is a context-free grammar $\langle X,N,P,S \rangle$ (terminal alphabet, nonterminal alphabet, production rules, axiom). We assume that $L(\Gamma,A) \neq \emptyset$ for all $A \in N$. For every language L we let:

 $\alpha(L)$ = the set of letters (terminal symbols) occurring in L (hence $\alpha(L) = \emptyset$ iff $L \subseteq \{\epsilon\}$).

For L, L' \subseteq X $^{\bullet}$ we have:

$$\alpha(L \cup L') = \alpha(LL') = \alpha(L) \cup \alpha(L')$$

 $\underline{\triangleleft}(L \cup L') = \underline{\triangleleft}(L) \cup \underline{\triangleleft}(L')$
 $\underline{\triangleleft}(LL') = \underline{\triangleleft}(L)\underline{\triangleleft}(L').$

For $m \in (X \cup N)^{\bullet}$, we let $L(\Gamma, m)$ denote the language generated by Γ from m taken as axiom, and we define:

$$\alpha(m) := \alpha(\mathbf{L}(\Gamma, m))$$

and

$$\underline{\triangleleft}$$
(m) := $\underline{\triangleleft}$ (L(Γ , m)).

For A, B \in N, we let

$$B <_1 A \text{ iff } A \xrightarrow{+} mBm'$$

for some $m,m' \in (X \cup N)^*$,

$$B <_2 A \text{ iff } A \xrightarrow{+} mBm'Bm''$$

for some $m,m',m'' \in (X \cup N)^*$, and

$$B \equiv_1 A$$
 iff $A=B$ or $A <_1 B <_1 A$.

Fact 1: If $A <_2 A$ then $\leq (A) = \alpha(A)^*$.

Fact 2: If
$$A \equiv_1 B$$
 then $\unlhd(A) = \unlhd(B)$.

We now explain how \triangleleft (A) can be computed for any given A \in N.

If A $<_2$ A (which is decidable), then Fact 1 yields the answer.

Otherwise, we compute \unlhd (A) in terms of the languages \unlhd (B) for B <1 A, B $\not=$ 1A, that we may assume to be given by previously computed regular expressions.

Let $p:A\longrightarrow m$ be a production rule. We let $R_0(p)$, $R_1(p)$, $R_2(p)$ be words defined as follows:

First case: m does not contain any nonterminal B such that $B \equiv_1 A$. We let $R_0(p) := m$, and $R_1(p)$, $R_2(p)$ be the empty word.

Second case: m contains a unique nonterminal B with $B \equiv_1 A$ and m = m'Bm''. We let $\mathbf{R_1}(p) := m'$ and $\mathbf{R_2}(p) := m''$. (Since we assume that $A \not<_2 A$, the word m cannot contain two occurrences of nonterminals \equiv_1 -equivalent to A.) In this case $\mathbf{R_0}(p)$ is the empty word.

Fact 3: For every A such that A $\not\downarrow_2$ A, we have:

$$\underline{\triangleleft}(A) = (\bigcup \alpha(\mathbf{R_1}(p)))^*(\bigcup \underline{\triangleleft}(\mathbf{R_0}(p))) \ (\bigcup \alpha(\mathbf{R_2}(p)))^*$$

where the unions extend to all production rules $\,p\,$ with lefthand side $\,B\,$ such that $\,B\equiv_1 A.$

Since the words $R_0(p)$, $R_1(p)$, $R_2(p)$ contain only nonterminals C with C <1 A and C $\neq 1$ A, we have achieved our goal. \square

Example: We let $N = \{A,B,C,D,E,S\}$, $X = \{a,b,c,d,e,f,g\}$ and Γ be the following grammar, written as a system of equations:

 $S = aAb \cup bSca \cup B$

 $A = ESE \cup D$

 $B = cDd \cup de \cup EBa \cup cCa$

 $C = aBe \cup E$

D = aBde

 $E = fEgEh \cup f$

We have:

$$A \equiv_1 S >_1 R \equiv_1 C \equiv_1 D >_1 E >_2 E$$
.

We get successively:

$$\triangleleft$$
(E) = (f \cup g \cup h)*

$$\underline{\triangleleft}(B) = \underline{\triangleleft}(C) = \underline{\triangleleft}(D) = (a \cup c \cup f \cup g \cup h)^*(\underline{\triangleleft}(de) \cup \underline{\triangleleft}(E))(a \cup d \cup e)^*$$
(and clearly, $\underline{\triangleleft}(de) = \varepsilon \cup d \cup e \cup de$)

$$\triangleleft$$
(S) = \triangleleft (A) = (a \cup b \cup f \cup g \cup h)* \triangleleft (B) (a \cup b \cup c \cup f \cup g \cup h)*

If we know that a language L given by a context-free Γ is subword-closed, then we obtain **OBST**(L) from Γ by the above theorem. Is this property decidable? Certainly not because of the following: one can construct a countable family of context-free grammars Γ that generate languages of the form either X* or X*-{w} (where w is a word depending on Γ) but such that one cannot decide whether $\mathbf{L}(\Gamma) = X^*$. (See [12].) Yet, $\mathbf{L}(\Gamma)$ is subword-closed iff $\mathbf{L}(\Gamma) = X^*$.

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APPENDIX

A graph H is a minor of a graph G (or is included in G as a minor) if it can be obtained from G by a sequence of edge contractions, of edge deletions, and of deletions of isolated vertices. We denote this by $H \subseteq G$. Since we only consider finite graphs up to isomorphisms (i.e., any two isomorphic graphs are considered as equal), this relation is a partial order. A set of graphs L is minor-closed if it contains all minors of all its elements. If this is the case:

 $L = \{G \mid \text{no graph H in OBST}(L) \text{ is a minor of } G\}$

where:

The set **OBST**(L) is called the obstruction set of L. The graph minor theorem (Robertson and Seymour [11]) states that **OBST**(L) is finite for every minor-closed set of graphs.

A partial k-tree is any subgraph of a k-tree; k-trees are constructed recursively as follows: the clique with k vertices is a k-tree; in order to form a k-tree with n vertices, one adds a new vertex to a k-tree T with n-1 vertices, and edges linking this new vertex to the vertices of a clique of T having k vertices. Partial k-trees can be also characterized in terms of tree-decompositions ([11]; see Van Leeuwen [13] for a proof of the equivalence of the two characterizations). Partial k-trees are important in the theory of graph algorithms (see [13]) and also because of their relations to hyperedge replacement graph-grammars. We refer the reader to Courcelle [2,3,4] or Habel and Kreowski [7] for hyperedge replacement graph-grammars. Let us only mention that they can be considered as an extension to graphs of context-free (word) grammars, and that every context-free set of graphs is a set of partial k-trees for some fixed k, up to loops, multiple edges and labels.

The use of monadic second-order logic for describing graph properties is explained in Courcelle [2,3,4].