

On the Recognizability of Arrow and Graph Languages^{*}

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Abstract. In this paper we give a category-based characterization of recognizability. A recognizable subset of arrows is defined via a functor into the category of relations on sets, which can be seen as a straightforward generalization of a finite automaton. In the second part of the paper we apply the theory to graphs, and we show that our approach is a generalization of Courcelle’s recognizable graph languages.

1 Introduction

Regular languages have been studied extensively in computer science and they have a large number of applications. For instance, more recent approaches take advantage of regular languages for model-checking [1] and termination analysis [11]. The notion of regularity can be straightforwardly generalized to trees and tree automata. Hence one can talk about regular tree languages and exploit the convenient closure properties that these languages enjoy.

Hence, as a next step, it is natural to ask for a natural notion of regular graph languages. There have been several attempts to answer this question [23, 18, 22, 5], all arriving at slightly different notions of regularity (also called recognizability), of which the notion of Courcelle [5, 7] emerged as the one which is widely accepted. To our knowledge these notions of recognizability have not been applied extensively to verification and it is not entirely clear how they relate to graph transformation specified by double-pushout rewriting [4], one of the standard graph transformation approaches.

Courcelle focuses on the notion of recognizability—which is equivalent to regularity in the case of word languages—and which characterizes languages as the inverse image of a monoid morphism from the monoid of words (with concatenation) into a finite monoid. Specifically, he extends the more general notion of Mezei and Wright [17] from recognizability in one-sorted algebras to recognizability in many-sorted algebras by considering a specific algebra of graphs.

Here we compare the algebraic notion of recognizability by Courcelle with a categorical notion of recognizability, strongly related to composition-representative subsets introduced by Griffing [12].

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We show that if we use the notion of Griffing and work in the category of cospans of graphs, we recover exactly the notion of recognizability proposed by Courcelle. Although both approaches rely on the same basic ideas, the proof is non-trivial. Furthermore it gives us a close relation with the double-pushout approach which can be characterized as a reactive system over cospans [21].

In addition we extend the notion of Griffing with a so-called automaton functor that—when instantiated to the word case—specializes to the notion of deterministic or non-deterministic finite automaton. We show that standard constructions on finite automata such as determinization or minimization can also be performed on automaton functors.

We will proceed as follows: in Sect. 2 we will briefly introduce the necessary concepts of category theory, graphs and graph morphisms. In Sect. 3, we will introduce our category-theoretic notion of recognizable graph language, and in Sect. 4 we show that this enjoys useful properties, such as closure properties. In Sect. 5 we will apply our notion of recognizable arrow languages to define a notion of recognizable language of graphs, by considering the category of cospans of graphs, and we show that we can restrict ourselves to cospans between discrete graphs, i.e. graphs consisting of nodes only, without affecting the notion of recognizability. Finally, we show that our approach is equivalent to Courcelle’s notion of recognizability. All proofs which are not in the paper, are made available in an extended version, which can be obtained from the authors’ web pages.

2 Preliminaries

We briefly review the concepts from category theory, graphs and graph morphisms that will play a role in this paper. For more detailed introductions we refer to [16] and [10].

2.1 Category theory

We presuppose basic knowledge of category theory. The identity arrow of an object G will be denoted by id_G (or just by id if G is clear from the context). Furthermore, arrow composition will be denoted by either $;$, where the composed arrow which applies first f and then g is denoted by $f ; g$. The category \mathcal{Rel} is the category which has sets as objects, relations as arrows and relation composition as composition operator. The category \mathcal{Set} is the subcategory in which all arrows are in fact total functions.

In the rest of this section we define the more advanced concept of a cospan category, which will be used in Sect. 5. The idea of the cospan category is to have a category which has cospans as arrows.

Let \mathcal{C} be a category in which all pushouts exist. A cospan c is a pair of \mathcal{C} -arrows $\langle c_L, c_R \rangle$ with the same codomain:

$$c: J \xrightarrow{c_L} G \xleftarrow{c_R} K .$$

Above, J and K are the domain (or *inner interface*) and codomain (or *outer interface*) of the cospan c , resp., i.e., the cospan can be considered as an arrow from J to K . The identity cospan for an object G is the cospan consisting of twice the identity arrow of G : $\langle \text{id}_G, \text{id}_G \rangle: G \rightarrow G \leftarrow G$. Let $c: J \rightarrow G \leftarrow M$ and $d: M \rightarrow H \leftarrow K$ be cospans (where the codomain of c equals the domain of d): The composition of c and d is defined by the commuting diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} & & M & & \\ & c_R \swarrow & & \searrow d_L & \\ J & \xrightarrow{c_L} & G & & H & \xleftarrow{d_R} & K \\ & \searrow f & (PO) & \swarrow g & \\ & & M' & & \end{array}$$

where the middle diamond is a pushout, and the resulting composed cospan is defined as:

$$(c ; d): J \xrightarrow{c_L;f} M' \xleftarrow{d_R;g} K .$$

We want to form a category which has cospans as arrows, but in order to have the new category satisfy all axioms of category theory, we have to do some work. Let two cospans

$$c: J \xrightarrow{c_L} G \xleftarrow{c_R} K \quad \text{and} \quad d: J \xrightarrow{d_L} H \xleftarrow{d_R} K$$

with the same interfaces be given. We define the equivalence relation \sim as follows: $c \sim d$ if there exists an isomorphism k from G to H , such that $c_L ; k = d_L$ and $c_R ; k = d_R$. A *semi-abstract cospan* is a \sim -equivalence class of cospans. Note that all members of a semi-abstract cospan have the same domain and codomain, and we define the domain and codomain of the semi-abstract cospan to be the domain and codomain of its members.

Now, the category $\text{Cospan}(\mathcal{C})$ is defined as the category which has the objects of \mathcal{C} as objects, and semi-abstract cospans as arrows.

2.2 Graphs and graph morphisms

Let a set Σ of labels be given. A *hypergraph* G (in the following also called a *graph*) is a four-tuple $\langle V_G, E_G, \text{att}_G, \text{lab}_G \rangle$, where V_G is the set of nodes of G , E_G is the set of edges, $\text{att}_G: E_G \rightarrow V_G^*$ (where V_G^* is the set of sequences of elements of V_G) is the *attachment function* and $\text{lab}_G: E_G \rightarrow \Sigma$ is the *labeling function*. By \emptyset we denote the empty graph. A *graph morphism* f between two graphs G and H is a pair $\langle f_V, f_E \rangle$ of functions $f_V: V_G \rightarrow V_H$ and $f_E: E_G \rightarrow E_H$ such that the following hold:

$$f_E ; \text{lab}_H = \text{lab}_G \quad \text{and} \quad f_E ; \text{att}_H = \text{att}_G ; f_V^*$$

where f_V^* is the natural extension of f_V to sequences.

We define the category \mathcal{HGraph} of hypergraphs as the category which has as objects finite (hyper)graphs, and as arrows graph morphisms. Concretely,

taking a pushout of morphisms $f: U \rightarrow G$, $g: U \rightarrow H$ in the category of graphs means to take the disjoint union of G and H and to factor through the smallest equivalence \equiv (on nodes and edges) that satisfies $f(x) \equiv g(x)$ for all items (i.e., for all nodes and edges) x of U .

In particular, we will work with the category $\mathcal{Cospans}(\mathcal{HGraph})$. Cospans of graphs are intimately connected with the double-pushout (DPO) approach to graph rewriting [21]. DPO rewriting rules are spans of graphs of the form

$$p: L \xleftarrow{\varphi^L} I \xrightarrow{\varphi^R} R .$$

We consider the cospans $\ell: \emptyset \rightarrow L \xleftarrow{\varphi^L} I$ and $r: \emptyset \rightarrow R \xleftarrow{\varphi^R} I$ as left and right-hand sides. Now, for a graph G let $[G]: \emptyset \rightarrow G \leftarrow \emptyset$ be the cospan consisting of G with empty source and target. Then DPO rewriting can also be defined as follows: the graph G rewrites to H by applying rule p if and only if $[G] = \ell ; c$ and $[H] = r ; c$ for some cospan c .

3 Recognizable Languages of Arrows

We consider a fixed category \mathcal{C} . In order to be able to talk about sets, we will require that \mathcal{C} is *locally small*, i.e., for every two objects the class of arrows between them is a set, called *homset*. Furthermore in the following a subset of a homset will be called an (*arrow*) *language*.

Definition 3.1 (Recognizability). *Let \mathcal{C} be a category. We consider a functor $\mathcal{A}: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{Rel}$ where every object X of \mathcal{C} is mapped to a finite set $\mathcal{A}(X)$ (called the set of states of X) and every arrow $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is mapped to a relation $\mathcal{A}(f) \subseteq \mathcal{A}(X) \times \mathcal{A}(Y)$. We assume that every set $\mathcal{A}(X)$ contains a distinguished set $I_X^{\mathcal{A}}$ of start states and a distinguished set $F_X^{\mathcal{A}}$ of final states as subsets.*

The functor \mathcal{A} is also called automaton functor. It is called deterministic whenever every relation $\mathcal{A}(f)$ is a function and every $I_X^{\mathcal{A}}$ contains exactly one element; this element will be denoted by $i_X^{\mathcal{A}}$.

Let J, K be two objects. The (J, K) -language $L_{J,K}(\mathcal{A})$ (of arrows from J to K) is defined as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} f: J \rightarrow K \text{ is contained in } L_{J,K}(\mathcal{A}) \text{ if and only if there exist } s \in I_J^{\mathcal{A}}, \\ t \in F_K^{\mathcal{A}} \text{ which are related by } \mathcal{A}(f). \end{aligned}$$

A language $L_{J,K}$ of arrows from J to K is recognizable in \mathcal{C} if it is the (J, K) -language of an automaton functor $\mathcal{A}: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{Rel}$.

The intuition behind the definition is to have a mapping into a finite domain that respects compositionality and identities, that is, which is a functor. The functor property ensures that decomposing the arrow in different ways does not affect acceptance in any way. This is different from the case of words where there is essentially only one way to decompose a word into atomic components.

In a sense $\mathcal{A}(f)$ gives the transition relation of the finite automaton, only that here we do not have a single set of states, but a set of states for every object. This means that we have infinitely many sets (which corresponds to the infinitely many sorts in the case of [5]).

Example 3.2. Let \mathcal{F} be a nondeterministic finite automaton over the alphabet Σ , with state set Q , start states $I \subseteq Q$, final states $F \subseteq Q$ and transition relation $\delta \subseteq Q \times \Sigma \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(Q)$. We consider the free monoid of Σ , i.e., the category with one object X and words over Σ as arrows from X to X . We construct the following automaton functor \mathcal{A} which recognizes a language L if and only if L is accepted by \mathcal{F} .

- $\mathcal{A}(X) = Q$, with $I_X^{\mathcal{A}} = I$ and $F_X^{\mathcal{A}} = F$;
- for $w \in \Sigma^*$, $\mathcal{A}(w) = \{\langle s, t \rangle \mid t \in \hat{\delta}(s, w)\}$, where $\hat{\delta}$ is the extension of δ from letters to words given by
 - $\hat{\delta}(s, \epsilon) = \{s\}$;
 - $\hat{\delta}(s, wa) = \bigcup \{\delta(s', a) \mid s' \in \delta(s, w)\}$.

Example 3.3. Also tree automata can be seen as a special case of our notion of automaton functor: take as the category a Lawvere theory where objects are natural numbers and arrows from m to n are n -tuples of terms with m holes. Arrow composition is the usual term substitution.

As an example take two unary function symbols f, g , a binary function symbol h and a constant a . Now, the 3-tuple $\langle f(x_1), h(x_1, x_2), g(f(a)) \rangle$ has two holes, i.e., two variables x_1, x_2 . Hence it can be regarded as an arrow from 2 to 3. Then trees can be represented as arrows from 0 to 1, since they are single terms (or 1-tuples of terms) without variables.

Note that this specific instantiation has similarly been considered in [12].

Two automaton functors are equivalent if they recognize the same language. Sometimes we are mainly interested in languages of arrows which start at a fixed object, for instance the initial object; therefore we parametrize the notion of equivalence with a source object.

Definition 3.4. Let \mathcal{A} and \mathcal{B} be automaton functors. \mathcal{A} and \mathcal{B} are said to be J -equivalent if they recognize the same languages $L_{J,K}$ of arrows from J to K , for arbitrary K . They are equivalent if they are J -equivalent for all \mathcal{C} -objects J .

It is also possible to find a characterization of recognizable language in terms of congruence classes, similar to Myhill-Nerode equivalences in the case of regular string languages.

Definition 3.5 (Congruence). Let \mathcal{C} be a category. Let a family of relations

$$\equiv_R = \{R_{J,K} \mid J, K \text{ are objects of } \mathcal{C}\}$$

be given, where the components $R_{J,K}$ are equivalence relations on \mathcal{C} -arrows from J to K . We call \equiv_R a (right) congruence if the following holds for all arrows $a, a' : J \rightarrow K$, $b : K \rightarrow M$:

$$\text{If } a R_{J,K} a', \text{ then } (a ; b) R_{J,M} (a' ; b).$$

A congruence \equiv_R is locally finite if each $R_{J,K} \in \equiv_R$ is an equivalence relation of finite index (i.e., it has finitely many equivalence classes).

Let $a: J \rightarrow K$ be an arrow. In the following we will write $\llbracket a \rrbracket_{R_{J,K}}$, or simply $\llbracket a \rrbracket_R$ if J and K are clear from the context, to denote the congruence class of which a is a member. We will also usually write $a \equiv_R b$ instead of $a R_{J,K} b$.

Proposition 3.6. *Let \mathcal{C} be a category, J, K \mathcal{C} -objects and $L_{J,K}$ a set of \mathcal{C} -arrows from J to K . The language $L_{J,K}$ is recognizable in \mathcal{C} , if and only if there exists a locally finite congruence \equiv_R such that $L_{J,K}$ is the union of some equivalence classes of $R_{J,K}$.*

Note that the proof of Prop. 3.6 only works if we fix a specific start object. Dually it would also have been possible to fix a target object and to concentrate on left congruences. But for our examples and for the comparison to the work of Courcelle fixing a start object seems to be more natural.

The paper by Griffing [12] does not introduce the notion of an automaton functor, but it shows that composition-representative subsets (which are our recognizable languages) can be characterized via locally finite congruences. In addition the paper gives another—equivalent—characterization via a functor from \mathcal{C} into a category with finite homsets. The recognizable languages are then the preimages of subsets of a finite homset.

4 Determinism, Closure Properties and Minimization

One of the advantages of our characterization over characterizations utilizing finite homsets or congruences, is that we can talk explicitly about determinization and minimization. In this section we consider these two notions as well as closure properties. These results, different from the results in Sect. 5, are not particularly deep or surprising; usually they can be shown quite straightforwardly. We show them here for completeness and in order to illustrate that our notion of recognizability is reasonable.

Proposition 4.1. *For every automaton functor, there exists an equivalent deterministic automaton functor.*

Proof. (Sketch.) The construction is more or less equivalent to the case of finite automata: we replace every set of states by its powerset. \square

Proposition 4.2 (Closure under boolean operators). *Suppose we have two recognizable languages of arrows, $L_{J,K}^1$ and $L_{J,K}^2$. Then also $L_{J,K}^1 \cap L_{J,K}^2$, $L_{J,K}^1 \cup L_{J,K}^2$ and $(L_{J,K}^1)^C$ (the complement of $L_{J,K}^1$) are recognizable.*

Proof. (Sketch.) Again the construction resembles the case of finite automata: we work with deterministic automaton functors, take the cross product of the state sets and define the final states appropriately. \square

In the rest of this section we show that each deterministic automaton functor has a unique equivalent minimal one. The construction of a minimal automaton is analogous to the usual construction for finite automata: first we remove unreachable states, and then we fuse indistinguishable states.

The notion of minimality depends on the exact notion of equivalence we use. If we fix the source object in advance, the equivalence classes grow, and therefore smaller minimal automaton functors may be found. The constructions in the general case and the case with fixed source object are exactly the same, except for the fact that with a fixed source more states may be unreachable.

We give here two key definitions, of minimality and reachability, and mention the minimization result.

Definition 4.3. Let $\mathcal{A}: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{Rel}$ and $\mathcal{B}: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{Rel}$ be automaton functors. We define:

$$\mathcal{A} \leq \mathcal{B} \text{ if for all } G \in \text{Obj}(\mathcal{C}), |\mathcal{A}(G)| \leq |\mathcal{B}(G)|$$

An automaton functor \mathcal{A} is $(J\text{-})$ minimal if, for all $(J\text{-})$ equivalent automaton functors \mathcal{B} it holds that $\mathcal{A} \leq \mathcal{B}$.

Definition 4.4. Let $\mathcal{A}: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{Rel}$ be an automaton functor and K an object of \mathcal{C} . A state $s \in \mathcal{A}(K)$ is J -reachable, if there exists an arrow $c: J \rightarrow K$ such that $s \in \mathcal{A}(c)(I_J^{\mathcal{A}})$. The state s is reachable, if it is J -reachable for some J .

\mathcal{A} is said to be fully $(J\text{-})$ reachable if for all \mathcal{C} -objects K and states $s \in \mathcal{A}(K)$, s is $(J\text{-})$ reachable.

Proposition 4.5. For each deterministic automaton functor \mathcal{A} , there exists a minimal, $(J\text{-})$ equivalent, deterministic automaton functor \mathcal{A}^{\min} which recognizes the same language and which is unique up to isomorphism.

Note that the results of this section depend on the specific nature of the categories \mathcal{Rel} and Set . It would be interesting to find an abstract characterization which still allows the techniques and constructions of this section.

5 Recognizable Graph Languages

In this section we apply the theory of the previous sections to recognizing languages of graphs. First, we show how graph languages can be recognized by considering the category of (semi-abstract) cospans of graphs. Then we briefly introduce Courcelle's algebraic notion of recognizable graph languages, and finally we show that we can recognize the same graph languages as Courcelle.

5.1 Recognizing Languages of Graphs by Cospans

In the following, the category under consideration will be $\text{Cospan}(\mathcal{H}\text{Graph})$, i.e., the category of cospans of graphs, or put differently, the category of graphs with inner and outer interfaces. If we want to talk only about graphs without interfaces, we can restrict ourselves to languages of cospans with empty interfaces, i.e., cospans where the source and target is the empty graph.

Definition 5.1. A set L of graphs is recognizable whenever

$$L_{\emptyset, \emptyset} = \{[G]: \emptyset \rightarrow G \leftarrow \emptyset \mid G \in L\}$$

is a recognizable language in $\text{Cospan}(\mathcal{H}\text{Graph})$.

Below we give an example for a recognizable graph language. It is not surprising that it is recognizable since it is definable in monadic second-order graph logic and all such languages are recognizable in the sense of Courcelle [5, 7]. However, the example provides some intuition into the notion of recognizability.

Example 5.2 (k -Colorability). We set $\mathbb{N}_k = \{0, \dots, k-1\}$. Let G be a graph. A k -coloring of G is a function $f: V_G \rightarrow \mathbb{N}_k$ such that for all $e \in E_G$ and for all $v_1, v_2 \in \text{att}_G(e)$ it holds that $f(v_1) \neq f(v_2)$ if $v_1 \neq v_2$. We show that the language of all k -colorable graphs is recognizable, by considering the following automaton functor $\mathcal{A}: \text{Cospan}(\mathcal{H}\text{Graph}) \rightarrow \mathcal{R}\text{el}$:

- Every graph J is mapped to $\mathcal{A}(J)$, the set of all valid k -colorings of J :

$$\mathcal{A}(J) = \{f: V_J \rightarrow \mathbb{N}_k \mid f \text{ is a valid } k\text{-coloring of } J\}.$$

- For a cospan $c: J \rightarrow G \leftarrow K$ the relation $\mathcal{A}(c)$ relates two colorings f_J, f_K , whenever there exists a coloring f for G such that $f(c_L(v)) = f_J(v)$ for every node $v \in V_J$ and $f(c_R(v)) = f_K(v)$ for every node $v \in V_K$.

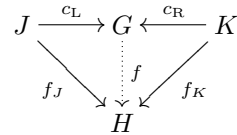
Specifically we have that $\mathcal{A}(\emptyset) = \{\emptyset\}$ where \emptyset is the empty coloring. Then in order to accept all k -colorable graphs with empty interfaces we take $I_\emptyset^{\mathcal{A}} = F_\emptyset^{\mathcal{A}} = \{\emptyset\}$: a graph $\emptyset \rightarrow G \leftarrow \emptyset$ is accepted whenever the two empty mappings are related.

Note that it is well known that k -colorability of graphs is an NP -complete property. Intuitively this manifests itself in the fact that interfaces may grow unboundedly, leading to an exponential explosion of the size of the state sets. However, if we restrict ourselves to graphs of bounded treewidth, there are efficient algorithms for k -colorability (see also the related discussion in the conclusion).

Example 5.3. Let H be a fixed graph. We consider the language L_H of all graphs G for which a morphism $f: G \rightarrow H$ exists. The language L_H is recognizable whenever H is finite.

The functor \mathcal{A} associates to every graph J the set of all morphisms $J \rightarrow H$. For a cospan $c: J \rightarrow G \leftarrow K$ it relates a morphism $f_J: J \rightarrow H$ to a morphism $f_K: K \rightarrow H$ whenever there exists a morphism $f: G \rightarrow H$ such that $c_L ; f = f_J$ and $c_R ; f = f_K$. All states are initial and final.

This is a weaker notion than recognizability and has been considered before (see for instance [14, 3]).



5.2 Robustness

We now show the robustness of recognizability by restricting ourselves to injective, edge-injective and discrete interfaces. These results will also be important for the comparison with Courcelle's notion of recognizability (see Sect. 5.4).

We use proof principles already explored in [9] where robustness proofs are based on the characterization of recognizable languages in terms of locally finite congruences (see Def. 3.5). The results and proofs all follow the same lines: let \mathcal{D}

be a subcategory of \mathcal{C} and let J, K be two objects of \mathcal{D} . We want to show that every language of arrows from J to K is recognizable in \mathcal{C} if and only if it is recognizable in \mathcal{D} . The direction from left to right is obvious, we simply restrict the congruence or the automaton functor accordingly. The real challenge is the direction from right to left. In this case take a congruence \equiv_R on \mathcal{D} and construct a congruence \equiv'_R on \mathcal{C} that is locally finite and refines \equiv_R when restricted to \mathcal{D} . Since \equiv'_R refines \equiv_R any union of equivalence classes can still be represented as a union of (possibly more) equivalence classes, and hence recognizability is preserved.

We now show the convenient fact that restricting our attention to cospans with injective interfaces does not limit the descriptive power of the formalism. Hence let $\mathcal{G} = \text{Cospan}(\mathcal{H}\text{Graph})$ be a cospan category and let \mathcal{G}_{inj} be its subcategory that consist only of the cospans with injective interface morphisms.

Proposition 5.4. *Let a class $L_{J,K}$ of graphs with injective interfaces J, K be called injectively recognizable whenever $L_{J,K}$ is recognizable in \mathcal{G}_{inj} . Then $L_{J,K}$ is recognizable in \mathcal{G} if and only if it is injectively recognizable.*

We now restrict our attention to the subcategory \mathcal{G}_{inj} of cospans with interface morphism which are injective on edges. The result is not that interesting in its own right, but it is a necessary auxiliary step for Prop. 5.6.

Corollary 5.5. *Let a class $L_{J,K}$ of graphs with edge-injective interfaces J, K be called edge-injectively recognizable whenever $L_{J,K}$ is recognizable in \mathcal{G}_{inj} . Then $L_{J,K}$ is recognizable in \mathcal{G} if and only if it is edge-injectively recognizable.*

Similar to the restriction to injective interfaces we now show the fact that restricting our attention to cospans with discrete interfaces does not limit the descriptive power of the formalism. This allows us to restrict our attention to discrete interfaces in the following. Let $\mathcal{G} = \text{Cospan}(\mathcal{H}\text{Graph})$ be a cospan category and let \mathcal{G}_{dis} be its subcategory that consist only of the cospans with discrete interfaces, i.e., with interface graphs that do not contain edges.

Proposition 5.6. *Let a class $L_{J,K}$ of graphs with discrete interfaces J, K be called discretely recognizable whenever $L_{J,K}$ is recognizable in \mathcal{G}_{dis} . Then $L_{J,K}$ is recognizable in \mathcal{G} if and only if it is discretely recognizable.*

In a sense the result above is mirrored in the fact that graph rewriting does not lose any expressive power if we restrict to discrete interfaces.

5.3 Courcelle's Algebra of Graphs

We will now give a short introduction to Courcelle's algebraic notion of recognizable graph languages [5, 7]. Courcelle's notion of recognizable graph language is widely accepted as a notion of regularity for graphs. Also, Courcelle showed that if a language is definable in monadic second-order logic then it is recognizable. In [13] Courcelle's notion has been found to be nearly identical to the notions

finite graph property and compatible graph property, which were developed in different contexts. For instance compatible properties arise in connection with hyperedge replacement grammars.

In [7] the relevant graph algebra is called HR-algebra (and in addition another algebra, called VR-algebra is investigated). However, here in this paper we use the algebra introduced in [5], since it is closer to our notion of cospan composition and hence yields simpler proofs.

Note that there are two major differences between cospan composition and the algebra of graphs introduced below: first the graph algebra considers only discrete interfaces, and we have already shown how to bridge this gap via Prop. 5.6. Second, cospans have two interfaces whereas graphs in the algebra have only one.

First, we give some preliminary definitions. We set $\mathbb{N}_k = \{0, \dots, k-1\}$. Let P, Q be arbitrary sets. For functions $f: \mathbb{N}_n \rightarrow P$ and $g: \mathbb{N}_m \rightarrow Q$, we define the function $f \odot g: \mathbb{N}_{n+m} \rightarrow P \cup Q$ as follows:

$$(f \odot g)(i) = \begin{cases} f(i) & \text{if } i < n \\ g(i - n) & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

An n -ary hypergraph is a pair $\mathbb{G} = \langle \text{base}_{\mathbb{G}}, \zeta_{\mathbb{G}} \rangle$ consisting of a hypergraph $\text{base}_{\mathbb{G}}$ and a mapping $\zeta_{\mathbb{G}}: \mathbb{N}_n \rightarrow V$, where V is the node set of $\text{base}_{\mathbb{G}}$. The function $\zeta_{\mathbb{G}}$ is called the *interface* of the graph, and its range the *external nodes*. Basically, an n -ary hypergraph corresponds to a graph with an empty internal and discrete external interface.

In [2], the following atomic operations on n -ary graphs are defined:

Redefinition of external nodes. Let an n -ary hypergraph \mathbb{G} be given, and let $\sigma: \mathbb{N}_m \rightarrow \mathbb{N}_n$ be a function. The redefinition of \mathbb{G} under σ is:

$$\text{redef}_{\sigma}(\mathbb{G}) = \langle \text{base}_{\mathbb{G}}, (\sigma ; \zeta_{\mathbb{G}}) \rangle .$$

Note that this means that $\text{redef}_{\sigma}(\mathbb{G})$ is an m -ary graph.

Fusion of external nodes. Let \mathbb{G} be an n -ary graph, and θ an equivalence relation on \mathbb{N}_n . The fusion of \mathbb{G} over θ , denoted $\text{fuse}_{\theta}(\mathbb{G})$, is obtained by fusing the nodes of \mathbb{G} according to θ . The result is again an n -ary graph.

Disjoint union. Let \mathbb{G} be an n -ary graph and \mathbb{H} an m -ary graph. The disjoint union of \mathbb{G} and \mathbb{H} is defined as:

$$\mathbb{G} \oplus \mathbb{H} = \langle \text{base}_{\mathbb{G}} \oplus \text{base}_{\mathbb{H}}, \zeta_{\mathbb{G}} \odot \zeta_{\mathbb{H}} \rangle$$

(we assume here that the node sets of $\text{base}_{\mathbb{G}}$ and $\text{base}_{\mathbb{H}}$ are disjoint and that \oplus denotes the disjoint union on base graphs.)

We will now define recognizability in the sense of Courcelle via congruences. There is an alternative, but equivalent, definition of recognizable subsets as preimages of algebra homomorphisms.

Definition 5.7. Let \equiv_C be an equivalence on n -ary hypergraphs that relates only hypergraphs with the same arity. It is called *locally finite* if for each n there are only finitely many equivalence classes. It is called a *congruence* if the following conditions hold:

- if $\mathbb{G} \equiv_C \mathbb{H}$, then $\text{redef}_\sigma(\mathbb{G}) \equiv_C \text{redef}_\sigma(\mathbb{H})$;
- if $\mathbb{G} \equiv_C \mathbb{H}$, then $\text{fuse}_\theta(\mathbb{G}) \equiv_C \text{fuse}_\theta(\mathbb{H})$;
- if $\mathbb{G}_1 \equiv_C \mathbb{H}_1$ and $\mathbb{G}_2 \equiv_C \mathbb{H}_2$, then $\mathbb{G}_1 \oplus \mathbb{G}_2 \equiv_C \mathbb{H}_1 \oplus \mathbb{H}_2$.

A set L of n -ary graphs is called *Courcelle-recognizable* if it is the union of finitely many equivalence classes of a locally finite congruence.

We will in the following show that the notion of recognizability of Courcelle coincides with our notion, hence the notion of “Courcelle-recognizability” is redundant. However, we will keep it for the moment in order to properly distinguish the two notions of recognizability.

5.4 Equivalence of the two Notions of Recognizability

In this subsection we show that our notion of recognizable graph language is equivalent to Courcelle’s. In Courcelle’s notion there is only one (discrete) interface. The role of cospan composition is played by the operators defined above.

Encouraged by the result of Prop. 5.6 we restrict our attention to cospans with discrete interfaces. The discrete graph with node set \mathbb{N}_n will be called canonical n -graph, and will be represented by Dis_n ; we make use of the fact that each discrete graph with n nodes is isomorphic to the canonical n -graph. To formalize the equivalence between both notions of recognizability, we must first associate (sets of) cospans of graphs with n -ary graphs.

Definition 5.8. For each discrete graph D with n nodes we fix in advance an isomorphism $\text{di}_D : \text{Dis}_n \rightarrow D$ such that $\text{di}_{D_1 \oplus D_2} = \text{di}_{D_1} \odot \text{di}_{D_2}$.

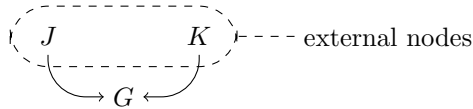
We define the function **bend** which maps a cospan

$$c: J \xrightarrow{c_L} G \xleftarrow{c_R} K$$

where J, K are discrete interfaces with n, m nodes, resp., to an $(n+m)$ -ary graph as follows:

$$\text{bend}(c) = \langle G, (\text{di}_J ; c_L) \odot (\text{di}_K ; c_R) \rangle .$$

The name **bend** is inspired by the fact that the function basically ‘bends’ a cospan so that its inner and outer interface are together, and then interprets the resulting figure as a $(m+n)$ -ary hypergraph, as illustrated below:



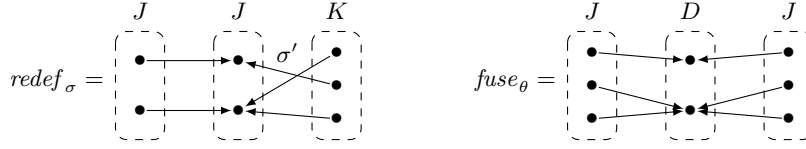


Fig. 1. *Simulating Courcelle's graph operation by cospans. On the left: example of cospan simulating redefinition of external nodes; on the right: example of cospan simulating fusion of external nodes.*

Theorem 5.9. *Let J be a discrete graph. A set of graphs L is the (\emptyset, J) -language of some automaton functor \mathcal{A} if and only if $\mathbf{bend}(L)$ is Courcelle-recognizable.*

Proof. (Sketch.) We prove the theorem by simulating Courcelle's operations by cospan composition, and cospan composition by Courcelle's operations, so that the congruences can be transferred. Suppose J has n nodes. The simulations of Courcelle's operations work as follows (see Fig. 1):

- Let $\sigma: \mathbb{N}_m \rightarrow \mathbb{N}_n$ be a function, and K a discrete graph with m nodes. It can be considered as a graph morphism from \mathbf{Dis}_m to \mathbf{Dis}_n . Then $\sigma' = \mathbf{di}_K^{-1}; \sigma$; \mathbf{di}_J is the corresponding graph morphism from K to J . Postcomposing a cospan c with the cospan

$$\mathbf{redef}_\sigma: J \xrightarrow{\mathbf{id}_J} J \xleftarrow{\sigma'} K$$

simulates performing the \mathbf{redef}_σ operation on c .

- Let θ be an equivalence relation on the elements of \mathbb{N}_n (i.e. an equivalence relation on the nodes of \mathbf{Dis}_n). Suppose θ_{map} is the morphism which maps each element of \mathbb{N}_n to its θ -equivalence class and let $\theta' = \mathbf{di}_J^{-1}; \theta_{\text{map}}$. Then

$$\mathbf{fuse}_\theta: J \xrightarrow{\theta'} D \xleftarrow{\theta'} J,$$

where D is the discrete graph with node set $\{\llbracket v \rrbracket_\theta \mid v \in \mathbb{N}_n\}$, simulates the \mathbf{fuse}_θ operation.

- Disjoint sum is simulated by disjoint sum in the category of graphs and we obtain the congruence property via the congruence property for cospan composition (see the extended proof in the extended version).

The simulation of cospan composition in Courcelle's algebra depends on the fact that $\mathbf{bend}(c; d) = \mathbf{redef}_\sigma(\mathbf{fuse}_\theta(\mathbf{bend}(c) \oplus \mathbf{bend}(d)))$ for appropriate σ and θ . In Fig. 2 this is depicted for cospans c, d where c has inner interface \emptyset . \square

Note that one of the reasons why the proof works is the fact that the category of cospans is compact-closed, which means that certain “bending” laws, similar to the one above, hold.

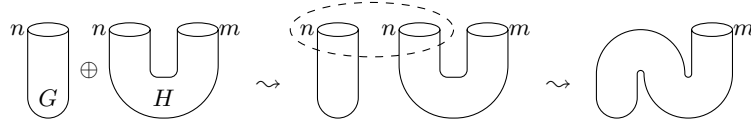


Fig. 2. *Simulating cospan composition with Courcelle’s operations.* First, we construct the disjoint union of the graphs. In the second step the indicated external nodes are fused and then removed from the external nodes by a redefinition.

6 Conclusion

We have shown that a very general categorical notion of recognizability via automaton functors (which is equivalent to a notion suggested by Griffing [12]) is equivalent to a notion of recognizability for graph languages by Courcelle whenever we consider the category of cospans of graphs. The proof of this equivalence is non-trivial.

Furthermore we investigated our notion of automaton functor and showed that it preserves several nice properties which are well-known for finite-state automata. Our main motivation behind this work is to provide automata-based techniques for verification and termination analysis of graph transformation systems. Some preliminary results on termination analysis are reported in [3].

Cospans of graphs were also investigated, in the context of gluing graph structures, by Rosebrugh, Sabadini and Walters [19, 20], but in [20] their graph structures represent automata which recognize word languages rather than graph languages. In the future we plan to explore the relations between their and our work in some more detail.

Naturally, efficiency questions arise. The automaton functor we are working with is only locally finite, i.e., the sets of states are finite for every interface, but interfaces might be arbitrarily large. This question has already been addressed by Courcelle, who characterized classes of graphs which can be recognized efficiently. He showed that for the HR-algebra of graphs a graph can be decomposed via interfaces whose size is bounded by $k + 1$ if and only if its treewidth is bounded by k [6, 7]. Hence a language L can be recognized efficiently (even in linear time!) if there is a bound on the treewidth of the graphs contained in L (see also [8]). This is also known as Courcelle’s theorem and applies to properties such as k -colorability that would be NP -complete on graphs of unbounded treewidth.

Since with cospans we have a different notion of interface and different operations, this result by Courcelle does not carry over directly, although we have the same notion of recognizability. This is a point which has to be investigated further, but in order to arrive at a similar result we believe that it is necessary to equip our category with a monoidal operation \oplus (which is the disjoint sum on cospans) and to require that an automaton functor preserves this monoidal operation. We conjecture that, at least in the case of graphs with empty inner interface, adding such a monoidal operation will not affect which sets of (cospans of) graphs are recognizable. Currently it seems that we can only guarantee linear-

time algorithms for graphs of bounded pathwidth, since cospans allow only to construct path decompositions of graphs.

Of course, in order to obtain practical algorithms for recognizability, we have to find reasonable ways to represent and handle automaton functors, at least in the case of graphs of bounded treewidth. We have some preliminary ideas how this can be achieved, but it is an interesting problem that has to be studied further.

In this paper we mainly considered cospans of graphs, but there is a more general notion of (DPO) rewriting based on adhesive categories [15, 10]. Our notion of recognizability can be easily generalized to this setting, whereas it is not entirely clear how to extend Courcelle’s algebra of graphs. One possible application of such a generalization provides us with a method to show that (recognizable) sets of objects in an adhesive category are invariant under DPO rewriting rules. Let $p: L \leftarrow I \rightarrow R$ be a DPO rule and let \equiv_R be a congruence¹ characterizing a language L of objects. We observe that whenever an object A is rewritten to B via p , $A \in L$ and $(0 \rightarrow L \leftarrow I) \equiv_R (0 \rightarrow R \leftarrow I)$ (for an initial object 0), then we can conclude that $B \in L$.

Finally, an important result in Courcelle’s work is that a language is recognizable whenever it is definable in monadic second-order logic [5, 7]. Currently we have no counterpart to this result, but it might be worthwhile to study it in a more categorical setting.

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¹ One is here actually interested in the weaker notion of a Myhill well-quasi order instead of a congruence, but we omit the details.

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