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ON THE STRUCTURE OF RECOGNIZABLE LANGUAGES
OF DEPENDENCE GRAPHS (*)

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Abstract. — Within the theory of traces a dependence graph represents a behaviour of a concurrent system (e.g., a safe Petri net) in a very much the same way that a string represents a behaviour of a sequential system (e.g., a finite automaton). A recognizable language of dependence graphs, RecDG language for short, represents the set of all behaviours of a concurrent system (with a "regular behaviour"). In this paper we characterize naked RecDG languages, i.e., the sets of unlabelled graphs obtained by erasing labels from graphs of RecDG languages.

Résumé. — Dans le cadre de la théorie des traces, un graphe de dépendance représente le comportement d'un système distribué (par exemple un réseau de Petri) par analogie avec la relation mot-automate dans le cas séquentiel. Un langage reconnaissable de graphes de dépendances représente ainsi l'ensemble de tous les comportements d'un système distribué satisfaisant des conditions de régularité. Dans cet article nous caractérisons les langages de graphes obtenus à partir des précédents par suppression des étiquettes sur les sommets.

1. INTRODUCTION

In the theory of traces (as introduced in [M1], see also [M2] and [AR1]) a concurrent system is represented by an alphabet Σ (representing the events of the system), a string language K (representing all sequential observations of the system), and a binary relation I on the set of events of the system (representing the independence between events). It is required that I is symmetric. In this paper we will consider regular string languages K. Given weK such that w = w₁ abw₂ for events a, b with (a, b) ∈ I, one infers that the order "first a then b" in w is a feature of the sequential observation and not of the system (because a and b are independent in the system). Hence w' = w₁ baw₂

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represents also a sequential observation of the system — actually an observation of “the same behaviour”. We say then that \( w \) is \( I \)-related to \( w' \) and write \( w =_I w' \). Then, words \( x \) and \( y \) are \( I \)-equivalent, written \( x =_I y \), if one may obtain \( y \) from \( x \) via a chain of \( I \)-related words (i.e., \( \equiv_I \) is the congruence relation generated by the equalities \( ab =_I ba \) with \( (a, b) \in I \)). An equivalence class of \( \equiv_I \) is referred to as a trace — hence a trace consists of all sequential observations of the same (concurrent) behaviour. We recall that the quotient of \( \Sigma^* \) under \( \equiv_I \) is a monoid (with concatenation as operation).

If one considers \( w = a_1 \ldots a_n \in K \), where \( n \geq 1 \) and \( a_1 \ldots, a_n \) are events of the system, and constructs a node labelled directed graph by creating a node \( i \) for each \( 1 \leq i \leq n \), labelling node \( i \) by the letter \( a_i \) and introducing an edge from node \( i \) to node \( j \) if and only if \( i < j \) and \( (a_i, a_j) \notin I \), then one gets the dependence graph of \( w \). It represents the partial order of events in the system that corresponds to the sequential observation \( w \).

It turns out that a dependence graph (a single object) may be identified with a trace (a set of strings) in the following sense: two strings from \( K \) have the same (i.e., isomorphic) dependence graphs if and only if they belong to the same trace. One can also reverse the situation and say that given a dependence graph, all (words corresponding to all) linear extensions of it constitute a trace.

The set of all dependence graphs corresponding to all words from \( K \) (the dependence graph language corresponding to \( K \)) represents then the behaviour of the system in much the same way as the language (of strings) of a finite automaton (modelling a sequential system) represents its behaviour.

In this way dependence graphs constitute fundamental objects in the theory of concurrent systems (see also [M2] and [AR1] where dependence graphs are used to represent the behaviour of condition-event systems in the sense of Petri).

Apart from [M1], independent origins of the theory of traces are [CF], [FR] and [K], while, e.g., [AW], [BMS], [CP], [Me] and [O] represent various research aspects of the theory; [AR1] and [P] are survey type papers covering (parts of) the theory of traces.

Another motivation for considering dependence graphs (and their languages) comes from the theory of graph grammars (see, e.g., [ENR]). One of the research areas of this theory is the search for graph grammars analogous to right-linear string grammars; one hopes in this way to isolate a class of graph languages as simple and fundamental for the theory of graph grammars as right-linear grammars (and regular languages) are for the theory of string grammars.

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Within the node label control (NCL) grammars this effort leads to the so-called BNLC grammars (see, e.g., [RW]) for generating undirected graphs and to RDNLC grammars (see, e.g., [AR2]) for generating directed graphs. In particular, it turns out that one can use a subclass of the class of RDNLC grammars (see [AR2]) to characterize rational languages of dependence graphs as used in the theory of traces. In this way dependence graphs are fundamental objects in the theory of graph grammars.

This paper investigates the structure of recognizable languages of dependence graphs, abbreviated RecDG languages, which are languages of dependence graphs as explained above. By the “structure” of a dependence graph \( g \) we understand its “naked” version, i.e., the unlabelled graph obtained from \( g \) by erasing the labels of nodes of \( g \).

In [ER] a characterization of naked dependence graphs is given — here we extend it to provide a characterization of naked RecDG languages.

The paper is organized as follows. In the preliminaries and in Section 3 we settle the basic notation and terminology (especially concerning graphs) to be used in this paper. In Section 4 we recall from [ER] basic notions and results concerning (special kinds of) labellings of graphs. These are then used in Section 5 to obtain a characterization of naked RecDG languages.

2. PRELIMINARIES

In this section we introduce some basic notation and terminology to be used in the paper.

For an equivalence relation \( \equiv \) on a set \( X \), \( [x]_\equiv \) denotes the equivalence class of \( \equiv \) containing \( x \in X \). The set of equivalence classes of \( \equiv \) is called the partition induced by \( \equiv \) on \( X \), and is denoted by \( P(\equiv) \).

For a function \( \varphi : X \to Y \), and \( Z \subseteq X \), \( \varphi(Z) = \{ y \in Y : \varphi(z) = y \ \text{for some} \ z \in Z \} \). The range of \( \varphi \) is the set \( \varphi(X) \). The composition of functions \( \varphi \) and \( \psi \) (first apply \( \varphi \), then \( \psi \)) is denoted by \( \psi \circ \varphi \).

For a word \( w \), \( \text{alph}(w) \) denotes the set of letters occurring in \( w \).

We move now to consider notations and terminology concerning graphs. We assume the reader to be familiar with basic notions of graph theory — the aim of this section is to settle the specific notation and terminology concerning graphs that we will use in this paper.

A (finite) directed graph is referred to simply as a graph. A graph \( g \) is specified in the form \( (V, E) \) where \( V \) is the set of nodes of \( g \) and \( E \subseteq V \times V \) is...
the set of (directed) edges of \( g \). We also use \( V_g \) and \( E_g \) to denote the sets of nodes and edges of a given graph \( g \).

Let \( g = (V, E) \) be a graph.

For \( U \subseteq V \), the subgraph of \( g \) induced by \( U \) is the graph \((U, E \cap (U \times U))\); in this paper a subgraph of \( g \) is always a subgraph of \( g \) induced by a subset of \( V \).

The symmetric and reflexive closure of \( g \), denoted \( \text{symr}(g) \), is the graph \((V, E')\), where for all \( u, v \in V \), \( (u, v) \in E' \) if and only if either \( u = v \) or \( (u, v) \in E \) or \( (v, u) \in E \). We say that \( g \) is a symmetric and reflexive graph, a symr graph for short, if \( g = \text{symr}(g) \). Note that \( \text{symr}(g) \) can be seen as the undirected version of the graph \( g \), with a loop for each node. These loops are convenient for a technical reason: their existence simplifies the definition of a homomorphism between graphs.

Let \( g_1 = (V_1, E_1) \), \( g_2 = (V_2, E_2) \) be graphs.

A function \( \psi : V_1 \to V_2 \) is a homomorphism of \( g_1 \) into \( g_2 \) if, for all \( u, v \in V_1 \), \( (u, v) \in E_1 \) if and only if \( (\psi(u), \psi(v)) \in E_2 \); \( \psi \) is an isomorphism if \( \psi \) is also bijective. If \( g_1 \) and \( g_2 \) are isomorphic, then we write \( g_1 = is g_2 \). An automorphism of \( g_1 \) is an isomorphism of \( g_1 \) into itself. We will use \( \text{AUT}(g) \) to denote the set of automorphisms of a graph \( g \).

A graph language is a set of graphs. For a graph \( g \) and a graph language \( K \) we write \( g \in is K \) if there exists an \( h \in K \) such that \( g = is h \). For graph languages \( K_1, K_2 \) we write \( K_1 = is K_2 \) if for every graph \( g \), \( g \in is K_1 \) if and only \( g \in is K_2 \).

A labelling of a graph \( g \) is a (total) function on \( V_g \). A node labelled graph, nl graph for short, is a system \((V, E, \varphi)\) where \((V, E)\) is a graph and \( \varphi \) is a labelling of \((V, E)\). For a nl graph \( h = (V, E, \varphi) \) we use \( V_h, E_h \) and \( \varphi_h \) to denote \( V, E, \) and \( \varphi \) respectively; the range \( \varphi(V) \) of \( \varphi \) is called the label alphabet of \( h \). The graph \((V, E)\), called the underlying graph of \( h \), is denoted by \( \text{und}(h) \).

Let \( h \) be a nl graph. The string language of \( h \), denoted \( \text{lan}(h) \), is the set \( \{ \varphi_h(v_1) \ldots \varphi_h(v_n) : v_1, \ldots, v_n \text{ is a topological ordering of } h \} \), where a topological ordering of the graph \( h \) is an ordering \( v_1, \ldots, v_n \) on the set of nodes \( V_h \), such that there is no edge \((v_i, v_j) \in E_h \) with \( i \geq j \). Note that such an ordering exists if and only if the graph is acyclic. Moreover, note that the string languages of isomorphic nl graphs are equal.

A nl graph language is a set of nl graphs. Most derived notions for nl graphs can be extended in a natural way to their languages. In particular, for a nl graph language \( K \), we set \( \text{und}(K) = \{ \text{und}(h) : h \in K \} \), and the string language of \( K \), denoted \( \text{lan}(K) \), is the set \( \bigcup_{g \in K} \text{lan}(g) \).
3. DEPENDENCE GRAPHS AND LANGUAGES

In this section we recall the definition of dependence graphs and their languages.

Given an alphabet \( \Sigma \), a dependence alphabet (over \( \Sigma \)) is a symmetric graph \( \Gamma = (\Sigma, D) \); \( D \) is called the dependence relation of \( \Gamma \). If \( (a, b) \in D \), then \( a \) and \( b \) are called dependent. For a word \( w = a_1 \ldots a_n \) over \( \Sigma \), \( n \geq 0 \) and \( a_i \in \Sigma \) for \( i \in \{1, \ldots, n\} \), the canonical \( \Gamma \)-dependence graph of \( w \), denoted \( \langle w \rangle_{\Gamma} \), is the labeled graph \( g = (V, E, \varphi) \) such that \( V = \{1, \ldots, n\} \), for all \( i, j \in V \), \( (i, j) \in E \) if and only if \( i < j \) and \( (a_i, a_j) \in D \), and \( \varphi(i) = a_i \). For \( w \in \Sigma^+ \), any labeled graph isomorphic with \( \langle w \rangle_{\Gamma} \) is called a \( \Gamma \)-dependence graph (of \( w \)).

A labeled graph is a dependence graph if it is a \( \Gamma \)-dependence graph for a dependence alphabet \( \Gamma \). A naked dependence graph is a (unlabelled) graph \( g \) such that \( g = \text{und}(h) \) for a dependence graph \( h \).

3.1. Example: Let \( \Sigma = \{a, b, c, d, e\} \) and let \( \Gamma = (\Sigma, D) \) be given by:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Figure 3.1}
\end{align*}
\]

\( i.e., \Gamma = \text{symr} (\Sigma, \{(a, b), (a, e), (b, c), (b, d), (d, e)\}) \).

Then \( \langle aedecba \rangle_{\Gamma} \) is the following labeled graph (for a node \( v \) we write the label of \( v \) inside the circle representing \( v \)):

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Figure 3.2}
\end{align*}
\]
Figure 3.3

is a naked dependence graph. □

Let $\Gamma$ be a dependence alphabet over $\Sigma$, and let $W \subseteq \Sigma^+$. $\langle W \rangle_\Gamma$ denotes the nl graph language $\{ \langle w \rangle_\Gamma : w \in W \}$. A language $K$ of dependence graphs is rational (or regular) if $K = \langle W \rangle_\Gamma$ for a dependence alphabet $\Gamma$ and a regular language $W$. If moreover lan($K$) is regular, then $K$ is recognizable (or consistent regular, as in [AR1]). The acronym a RecDG language stands for a recognizable language of dependence graphs. A language $K$ of graphs is a naked RecDG language if $K = \text{und}(L)$ for a RecDG language $L$.

3.2. Example: Let $\Sigma = \{ a, b \}$ and let $\Gamma = (\Sigma, D)$ be as follows:

![Figure 3.4](image-url)

Let $K = \{ ab \}^+$. Consider $w = (ab)^3 \in K$. Then $\langle w \rangle_\Gamma$ is as follows:

![Figure 3.5](image-url)
$\text{und}(\langle K \rangle_r)$ is the following set of graphs:

![Graphs](image_url)

$\langle K \rangle_r$ is not a RecDG language because $\text{lan}(\langle K \rangle_r)$

$$= \{ w \in \Sigma^+ : w \text{ contains an equal number of } a \text{'s and } b \text{'s } \}$$

is not regular. ■

3.3. Remark: We like to stress here once again the "natural regularity" (within the setting of dependence graphs) of RecDG languages. They can also be characterized by means of a congruence, yielding a "Nerode-type" theorem analogous to the one for regular string languages. Given a dependence alphabet $\Gamma = (\Sigma, D)$ one defines the $\Gamma$-concatenation $g_1 \cdot_{\Gamma} g_2$ of $\Gamma$-dependence graphs $g_1$ and $g_2$ as follows. The graph $g_1 \cdot_{\Gamma} g_2$ consists of the (disjoint) union of the graphs $g_1$ and $g_2$ together with all edges leading from a node $x$ in $g_1$ to a node $y$ in $g_2$ such that the labels of $x$ and $y$ are dependent (according to $\Gamma$). Then we have for all $w_1, w_2 \in \Sigma^*$,

$$\langle w_1 \rangle_{\Gamma} \cdot_{\Gamma} \langle w_2 \rangle_{\Gamma} = \langle w_1 \cdot w_2 \rangle_{\Gamma} \quad \text{(see [AR2]).}$$

For a dependence graph language $K$ over $\Gamma$ we define the congruence $\equiv_K$ by: $g_1 \equiv_K g_2$ if and only if [for all dependence graphs $g, g'$ over $\Gamma$, $g \cdot_{\Gamma} g_1 \cdot_{\Gamma} g' \equiv_{\Gamma} K$ iff $g \cdot_{\Gamma} g_2 \cdot_{\Gamma} g' \equiv_{\Gamma} K$].

Then one obtains the following characterization:

$K$ is recognizable if and only if $\equiv_K$ is of finite index.

The Nerode-congruence and characterization can be carried over from the string case to the dependence graph case like the concatenation of words can be carried over from strings to their dependence graphs; in particular, one has

$$w \cdot w_1 \cdot w' \in \text{lan}(K) \quad \text{iff} \quad \langle w \rangle_{\Gamma} \cdot_{\Gamma} \langle w_1 \rangle_{\Gamma} \cdot_{\Gamma} \langle w' \rangle_{\Gamma} \equiv_{\Gamma} K. \quad \blacksquare$$
4. LABELLINGS OF GRAPHS

In this section we recall from [ER] the basic notions and results concerning various kinds of labellings of (symr) graphs. We also prove some new results that will turn out to be useful in the sequel of this paper.

Obviously, two nodes in a dependence graph that have the same label are either both connected or both not connected to any other node in the graph; if they are both connected then the directions of the connecting arcs may differ. Hence two nodes, for which a third node can be found such that exactly one of the two nodes is connected to the third one, can't be both labelled by the same letter. Also two nodes that are not connected by an edge cannot be labelled by the same label. Using these observations it is possible to infer information concerning the structure of the dependence alphabet \( \Gamma \), by looking at the \textit{structure} of a \( \Gamma \)-dependence graph \( g \), \textit{i.e.} the graph that results after removing labels and directions of edges. Consequently, we will use the unlabelled, undirected version \( \text{symr}(\text{und}(g)) \) of a dependence graph to extract information about the dependence alphabet.

This leads to the following fundamental relation between nodes of a graph, which was introduced in [ER] (in a somewhat different notation).

4.1. \textsc{Definition:} Let \( g \) be a symr graph. The \textit{resemblance relation} of \( g \), denoted \( \text{res}_g \), is the binary relation on \( V \) defined by \((v_1, v_2) \in \text{res}_g\) if and only if

1. \((v_1, v_2) \in E_g\), and
2. for all \( v \in V \), \((v, v_1) \in E_g\) if and only if \((v, v_2) \in E_g\). \( \blacksquare \)

Actually the first requirement in the above definition follows from the second by taking \( v = v_1 \) and the observation that \((v, v_1)\) is an edge in the reflexive graph \( g \). We have chosen to keep (1) in the definition because it makes explicit the fact that two unconnected nodes are not allowed to resemble each other.

In a straightforward way one may verify that for a graph \( g \), \( \text{res}_g \) is an equivalence relation (cf. [ER]). Moreover connections in \( g \) are the same for equivalent nodes. More formally, if \( v_1 \text{res}_g v_2 \) and \( u_1 \text{res}_g u_2 \), then \((v_1, u_1) \in E_g\). Hence it is possible to define a quotient structure of a graph \( g \) with respect to the equivalence \( \text{res}_g \).

4.2. \textsc{Definition:} Let \( g \) be a symr graph. The \textit{type} of \( g \), denoted \( \hat{g} \), is the graph \((V, E)\) such that \( V = \mathcal{P}(\text{res}_g) \), and for all \( u, v \in V_g \), \(([u]_{\text{res}_g}, [v]_{\text{res}_g}) \in E\) if and only if \((u, v) \in E_{\text{symr}(g)}\). \( \blacksquare \)
As indicated above, $E_\tilde{g}$ is well defined: the definition is independent of the representative $u$ and $v$ of the equivalence classes of $\text{res}_g$.

Note that, for each graph $g$, $\hat{g}$ is a symr graph with set of nodes $P(\text{res}_g)$, and so it is a dependence alphabet over $P(\text{res}_g)$.

A surjective homomorphism of one symr graph onto another one can be seen as a "contraction" of the original graph: nodes that have the same connections to the other nodes in the graph (and are connected to each other) may be mapped by the homomorphism onto the same node in the image. Intuitively the type of a symr graph formalizes the maximal contraction possible. Indeed, the next result implies that the type $g$ of a symr graph $g$ is the smallest (with respect to the number of nodes) symr such that $g$ can be "contracted" onto that graph.

For a symr graph $g$ let $\text{cal}_g : V_g \rightarrow V_{\hat{g}}$, defined by $\text{cal}_g(u) = [u]_{\text{res}_g}$, be the canonical homorphism from $g$ onto $\hat{g}$. In [ER] it is called the canonical labelling of $g$.

4.3. **Lemma:** Let $g$, $h$ be symr graphs, and let $\varphi$ be a homomorphism from $g$ onto $h$. Then there exists an homomorphism $\psi$ from $h$ onto $\hat{g}$ such that $\text{cal}_g = \psi \circ \varphi$.

**Proof:** It is rather straightforward to verify that, for $u_1, u_2 \in V_g$, $\varphi(u_1) = \varphi(u_2)$ implies $u_1, \text{res}_g u_2$. This, together with the fact that $\varphi$ is surjective, makes $\psi : V_h \rightarrow P(\text{res}_g)$, defined by $\psi(v) = [u]_{\text{res}_g}$ for $v = \varphi(u)$ a well-defined mapping from $V_h$ onto $V_{\hat{g}}$. Using the fact that both $\text{cal}_g$ and $\varphi$ are homomorphisms, one easily shows that $\psi$ is an homomorphism; it satisfies $\text{cal}_g = \psi \circ \varphi$ by definition. $\blacksquare$

We give now two elementary consequences of the above result. First, homomorphisms of a symr graph into its type are all equal, up to symmetries of the type. Secondly, if one symr graph can be "contracted" onto another one, then their types are equal.

4.4. **Corollary:** Let $g$ be symr graph, and let $\varphi_1$ and $\varphi_2$ be homomorphisms from $g$ into $\hat{g}$. Then there exists an automorphism $\psi$ of $\hat{g}$ such that $\varphi_1 = \psi \circ \varphi_2$.

**Proof:** Let $h_i$ be the subgraph of $\hat{g}$ that is the image of $g$ under $\varphi_i$. By Lemma 4.3 there exists an homomorphism $\psi_i$ from $h_i$ onto $\hat{g}$. Obviously, this implies that $h_i$ cannot have less nodes than $\hat{g}$. Hence $h_i$ equals $\hat{g}$; $\varphi_i$ is surjective. Thus $\psi_1$ and $\psi_2$ are automorphisms of $\hat{g}$ that satisfy $\psi_1 \circ \varphi_1 = \text{cal}_g = \psi_2 \circ \varphi_2$. Consequently, $\varphi_1 = (\psi_1^{-1} \circ \psi_2) \circ \varphi_2$. $\blacksquare$

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4.5. **Corollary:** Let $g, h$ be symmetric graphs, such that there exists a homomorphism from $g$ onto $h$. Then $\hat{g} \cong \hat{h}$.

**Proof:** Applying Lemma 4.3 two consecutive times to the homomorphism from $g$ onto $h$, one obtains first a homomorphism from $h$ onto $\hat{g}$, and then one from $\hat{g}$ onto $\hat{h}$. On the other hand, the homomorphism from $g$ onto $h$ can easily be transformed into one mapping $g$ onto $\hat{h}$. Applying Lemma 4.3 to the latter homomorphism yields a homomorphism from $\hat{h}$ onto $\hat{g}$. Thus $\hat{g}$ and $\hat{h}$ are of equal size; consequently they are isomorphic.

In the remainder of this section we will more directly focus on dependence graphs. This means that the graphs we will consider are directed rather than symmetric (i.e., undirected) graphs. The notion of type is extended to these graphs by defining the type of an arbitrary graph $g$ to be the type of $\text{symr}(g)$.

We will recall now the main result of [ER] which characterizes the naked dependence graphs for a given dependence alphabet. First we will need a couple of additional notions.

Generalizing the notion of a dependence graph, for an unlabelled graph $g$ we consider the set of $\text{nl}$ graphs with $g$ as underlying graph, and having a labelling "compatible" with a given dependence alphabet (see also the remark following the definition).

4.6. **Definition:** Let $\Gamma = (\Sigma, D)$ be a dependence alphabet.

1. A labelling $\varphi$ of a graph $g$ is called a $\Gamma$-labelling if $\varphi$ is a homomorphism from $\text{symr}(g)$ into $\Gamma$.

2. A $\text{nl}$ graph $h$ is $\Gamma$-labelled if $\varphi_h$ is a $\Gamma$-labelling of $\text{und}(h)$.

3. Let $g = (V, E)$ be a graph. The set of $\Gamma$-labelled versions of $g$, denoted $g[\Gamma]$, is the set $\{(V, E, \varphi) : \varphi$ is a $\Gamma$-labelling of $g\}$.

Usually (as in [AR]), a $\Gamma$-labelling of a graph is defined in an "explicit way" by saying that two nodes are connected by an edge in $\text{symr}(g)$ if and only if their labels are dependent in $\Gamma$. It can be easily seen that this is equivalent to the definition we have given above. We have adopted our version of the definition because it seems to be more suitable in the present paper. Additionally, our definition of $\Gamma$-labelling is justified by the following, rather elementary, lemma. It formalizes the connection between the notions of $\Gamma$-labelling and of dependence graph.

Note that, for every word $w$ over the alphabet (i.e. the set of nodes) of $\Gamma$, the dependence graph $\langle w \rangle_\Gamma$ is a $\Gamma$-labelled graph. Conversely, an acyclic $\Gamma$-labelled graph turns out to be a $\Gamma$-dependence graph.
4.7. Observation: Let $g$ be an acyclic graph, and let $\Gamma = (\Sigma, D)$ be a dependence alphabet. Then every graph in $g[\Gamma]$ is a $\Gamma$-dependence graph.

Moreover, if $w \in \Sigma^*$, then $w \in \text{lan}(g[\Gamma])$ if and only if $\langle w \rangle_\Gamma \in _ig[\Gamma]$.

Proof: (1) Let $h \in g[\Gamma]$. Since $h$ is acyclic there exists a topological ordering of $h$, and so $\text{lan}(h)$ is nonempty. Choose an arbitrary $w \in \text{lan}(h)$; we will show that $h$ is a $\Gamma$-dependence graph of $w$. Consider a topological ordering $v_1, \ldots, v_n$ of the nodes of $h$ such that $a_i = \phi_h(v_i)$ for $i \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$, where $w = a_1 \ldots a_n$. Since $\phi_h$ is a $\Gamma$-labelling of $h$, $v_i$ and $v_j(i < j)$ are connected by an edge in $\text{symr}(h)$ if and only if $(a_i, a_j) \in D$. The direction of this edge in $h$ is determined by the fact that $v_1, \ldots, v_n$ is a topological ordering of $h$. Hence $(v_i, v_j) \in E_h$ if and only if $i < j$ and $(a_i, a_j) \in D$. Consequently $h = _ig \langle w \rangle_\Gamma$.

(2) Clearly the above reasoning shows that if $w \in \text{lan}(h)$ for some $h \in g[\Gamma]$, then $h = _ig \langle w \rangle_\Gamma$, and consequently $\langle w \rangle_\Gamma \in _ig[\Gamma]$. On the other hand, if $\langle w \rangle_\Gamma \in _ig[\Gamma]$, then $\text{lan}(\langle w \rangle_\Gamma) \subseteq \text{lan}(g[\Gamma])$ follows from the observation that $w \in \text{lan}(\langle w \rangle_\Gamma)$.

The existence of $\Gamma$-labellings for a graph $g$ (in terms of the structure of $g$) was investigated in [ER]. The following characterization was obtained—it shows that the type of a graph is the smallest (up to isomorphism) dependence alphabet $\Gamma$ for which there exists a $\Gamma$-labelling of the graph. [Recall that the type of an arbitrary graph $g$ is the type of its symmetric and reflexive closure $\text{symr}(g)$.]

4.8. Proposition [ER]: Let $g$ be an acyclic graph and let $\Gamma$ be a dependence alphabet. Then $g$ is a naked $\Gamma$-dependence graph (i.e., $g[\Gamma] \neq \emptyset$) if and only if $\hat{g}$ is isomorphic to a subgraph of $\Gamma$.

We would like to note that it is an easy exercise to reobtain the above characterization using Lemma 4.3.

4.9. Theorem: Let $g$ be an acyclic graph, let $\Gamma$ be a dependence alphabet such that $\Gamma = _ig \hat{g}$, and let $h \in g[\Gamma]$.

(1) $g[\Gamma] = \{(V_g, E_g, \psi \circ \phi_h) : \psi \in \text{AUT}(\Gamma)\}$, and

(2) $\text{lan}(g[\Gamma]) = \bigcup_{\psi \in \text{AUT}(\Gamma)} \psi(\text{lan}(h))$.

Proof: Note that, due to Proposition 4.8, $g[\Gamma]$ is not empty.

(1) Observe that $\phi$ is a $\Gamma$-labelling of $g$ if and only if $\phi = \psi \circ \phi_h$ for some $\psi \in \text{AUT}(\Gamma)$. The "if-part" of this statement is obvious: the composition of $\psi \in \text{AUT}(\Gamma)$ and the $\Gamma$-labelling $\phi_h$ yields a $\Gamma$-labelling. In order to see the "only-if-part" we observe that Corollary 4.4 remains valid if one replaces...
“homomorphisms into \( g \)” by “homomorphisms into \( \Gamma \)” when \( \Gamma \) is isomorphic to \( g \).

(2) This follows from (1). Note that, for any “renaming” \( \psi \) of the label alphabet of a \( nl \) graph \( h \), \( \text{lan}(\psi(h)) = \psi(\text{lan}(h)) \), where \( \psi(h) \) is the graph \( (V_h, E_h, \psi \circ \varphi_h) \).

5. LABELLINGS OF LANGUAGES

The notions, terminology, and results from the previous section extend to graph languages in a natural way.

5.1. DEFINITION: Let \( K \) be a graph language.

(1) \( K \) is typed if and only if there exists a graph \( \Gamma \) such that for all \( g \in K \), \( g = \hat{\psi} \Gamma \); \( \Gamma \) is called a type of \( K \).

(2) Let \( \Gamma \) be a dependence alphabet. The set of \( \Gamma \)-labelled versions of \( K \), denoted \( K[\Gamma] \), is the set \( \bigcup_{g \in K} g[\Gamma] \).

Note that it seems not be possible to extend Proposition 4.8 to sets of graphs in a straightforward way. Consider a graph language with graphs of two different types, as given in Figure 5.1 (where we have omitted the transitive edges for clarity). They can be labelled by a dependence alphabet similar to Figure 5.1 (i.e., the single graph consisting of two components, but also by a dependence alphabet like the one in Figure 5.2. Note that neither of the two graphs is a subgraph of the other.

\[
\text{Figure 5.1}
\]

\[
\text{Figure 5.2}
\]

5.2. LEMMA: Let \( K \) be a language of acyclic graphs, and let \( \Gamma = (\Sigma, D) \) be a dependence alphabet.
(1) Let $W = \text{lan}(K[\Gamma])$. Then $\langle W \rangle_\Gamma = _{\text{is}} K[\Gamma]$.

(2) If $K$ is a typed language and $\Gamma$ is a type of $K$, then $K = \text{und}(K[\Gamma])$.

Proof: (1) According to Observation 4.7, every graph in $K[\Gamma]$ is a $\Gamma$-dependence graph. So if $h \in _{\text{is}} K[\Gamma]$, then $h = _{\text{is}} \langle w \rangle_\Gamma$ for some $w \in \Sigma^+$. Moreover, $w \in \text{lan}(K[\Gamma])$ if and only if $h \in _{\text{is}} K[\Gamma]$. Hence

$$\langle W \rangle_\Gamma = \{ \langle w \rangle_\Gamma : w \in \text{lan}(K[\Gamma]) \} = _{\text{is}} K[\Gamma].$$

(2) The inclusion $K \supseteq \text{und}(K[\Gamma])$ is obvious. The reverse inclusion follows from Proposition 4.8. Every graph $g$ in $K$ admits a $\Gamma$-labelling, i.e. $g[\Gamma] \neq \emptyset$, because $g = _{\text{is}} \Gamma$. Note that the statement holds under a weaker requirement: the type of every graph in $K$ should be isomorphic with a subgraph of $\Gamma$ (rather than with $\Gamma$ itself).

We now are able to prove our main result on naked recognizable dependence graph languages.

5.3. Theorem: Let $K$ be a language of acyclic graphs. $K$ is a naked RecDG language if and only if it is a finite union $K_1 \cup \ldots \cup K_n$ such that

(a) for each $1 \leq i \leq n$, $K_i$ is typed, and

(b) for each $1 \leq i \leq n$, $\text{lan}(K_i[\Omega])$ is regular, where $\Omega$ is a type of $K_i$.

Proof: (1) Assume that $K$ is a naked RecDG language. Thus $K = \text{und}(\langle W \rangle_\Gamma)$ for a dependence alphabet $\Gamma = (\Sigma, D)$ and $W \subseteq \Sigma^*$ such that $\text{lan}(\langle W \rangle_\Gamma)$ is regular. Let $\Gamma_\Delta$ be the subgraph of $\Gamma$ induced by $\Delta$, i.e. the dependence alphabet $(\Delta, D \cap (\Delta \times \Delta))$, let $W_\Delta = \{ w \in W : \text{alph}(w) = \Delta \}$, and let $K_\Delta = \text{und}(\langle W_\Delta \rangle_\Gamma)$. It is clear that $K$ is the (finite) union of the languages $K_\Delta$, $\Delta \subseteq \Sigma$.

Each of these languages is typed; the type of $K_\Delta$ is $\Gamma_\Delta$. This is seen as follows. Each graph $g$ in $K_\Delta$ can be labelled to become the dependence graph of a word from $W_\Delta$. This labelling is a (surjective) homomorphism from $g$ onto $\Gamma_\Delta$. Hence by Corollary 4.5, $\Gamma_\Delta = _{\text{is}} g$.

It remains to be shown that $\text{lan}(K_\Delta[\Gamma_\Delta])$ is regular. To this aim, let $g = \text{und}(\langle w \rangle_\Gamma)$ for some $w \in W_\Delta$. As we have seen $g = _{\text{is}} \Gamma_\Delta$. Hence we may apply Theorem 4.9 to obtain

$$\text{lan}(g[\Gamma_\Delta]) = \bigcup_{\psi \in \text{AUT}(\Gamma_\Delta)} \psi(\text{lan}(\langle w \rangle_\Gamma)).$$
Since the types of the underlying graphs of dependence graphs of the words in $W_\Delta$ are isomorphic to $\Gamma_\Delta$, we may take the union over $w \in W_\Delta$ to obtain

$$lan(K_\Delta[\Gamma_\Delta]) = \bigcup_{w \in W_\Delta} \bigcup_{\psi \in \text{AUT}(\Gamma_\Delta)} \psi(lan(\langle w \rangle_\Gamma)) = \bigcup_{\psi \in \text{AUT}(\Gamma_\Delta)} \psi(lan(\langle W_\Delta \rangle_\Gamma))$$

Being a finite union of homomorphic images of a regular language, this language is regular. This completes the proof of the "only-if-part" of the theorem.

(2) First assume that $L$ is a typed language of acyclic graphs, such that $lan(L[\Omega])$ is regular, where $\Omega$ is a type of $L$. Let $W = lan(L[\Omega])$, then by Lemma 5.2 $\langle W \rangle_\Omega = \iota[L[\Omega]]$. Hence $L[\Omega]$ is a RecDG language, and consequently $L = und(L[\Omega])$ is a naked RecDG language.

In order to prove the ("if-part" of the) statement it suffices to show that naked RecDG languages are closed under (finite) union. So assume that, for $i \in \{1, 2\}$, $K_i = und(\langle W_i \rangle_{\Gamma_i})$ for a dependence alphabet $\Gamma_i = (\Sigma_i, D_i)$ and $W_i \subseteq \Sigma_i^*$ such that $lan(\langle W_i \rangle_{\Gamma_i})$ is regular. We may assume that $\Sigma_1$ and $\Sigma_2$ are disjoint (perhaps after renaming some of the elements - this does not influence the naked languages $K_i$). Note that $\langle W_i \rangle_{\Gamma_i} = \langle W_i \rangle_{\Gamma}$ for $i \in \{1, 2\}$, where $\Gamma = (\Sigma_1 \cup \Sigma_2, D_1 \cup D_2)$. Also

$$lan(\langle W_1 \cup W_2 \rangle_{\Gamma}) = lan(\langle W_1 \rangle_{\Gamma_1}) \cup lan(\langle W_2 \rangle_{\Gamma_2})$$

is regular, and consequently $K_1 \cup K_2 = und(\langle W_1 \cup W_2 \rangle_{\Gamma})$ is a naked RecDG language.

5.4. Remark: By deleting the references to regularity in the proof of Theorem 5.3 one obtains a (rather short) proof of the following characterization of naked dependence graph languages:

Let $K$ be a language of acyclic graphs. $K$ is a naked dependence graph language if and only if it is a finite union of typed languages.

DISCUSSION

In this paper we have succeeded in characterizing naked RecDG languages. As we have explained in the introduction, dependence graphs and their languages play a fundamental role in the theory of concurrent systems and in the theory of graph grammars. Hence we feel that the present paper together with [ER] (where naked dependence graphs where characterized) constitutes a contribution to both theories.

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There are (at least) two important directions that one may take continuing the research presented in this paper.

(1) Clearly one would like to obtain a characterization of (labelled) RecDG languages. The difficulty in extending Theorem 3.2 (characterizing naked RecDG languages) in this direction is that one may have a partition of a language $K$ of nl graphs into classes $K_1, \ldots, K_n$, $n \geq 1$, where, for each $1 \leq i \leq n$, $\text{und}(K_i)$ is typed, but, while some of $\text{lan}(K_i)$ are not regular, their union will yield a regular language.

(2) In the theory of concurrent systems one is often interested in transitive closures of dependence graphs (hence partial orders) rather than in dependence graphs themselves—see, e.g., [AR1], where it is shown that after taking transitive closures dependence graphs of condition-event systems yield precisely their elementary event structures. Hence one should also aim at a characterization of languages of partial orders resulting from transitive closures of naked RecDG languages.

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