

Minimization

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1 Graphs and Regular Trees

So far, trees are defined formally as “tree domains” ($TDom \subseteq \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{L}(\mathbb{N}))$). Informally, we know that graphs can model some trees.

To reason about properties of trees, we define the following functions:

$$sub(T, i) \in TDom \times \mathbb{N} \rightarrow TDom := \{l \mid (i :: l) \in T\}$$

$$sub(T, p) \in TDom \times \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{N}) \rightarrow TDom := \{l \mid (p@l) \in T\}$$

$$Sub(T) \in TDom \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(TDom) := \{sub(T, p) \mid p \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{N})\}$$

These functions compute the n -th direct subtree, the subtree reached on path p , and the set of all subtrees of some tree domain T . This leads us to the central definition:

Definition 1.1 (Regular Tree) *A tree domain T is called regular iff $Sub(T)$ is finite, i.e. there are only finitely many different subtrees.*

To talk about graphs, we need to define them formally:

Definition 1.2 (Graph) *A graph $G = (V, E)$ consists of a set $V \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ of nodes and an edge function $E \in V \times \mathbb{N} \rightarrow V$ such that $\forall v \in V \exists n \in \mathbb{N} : \{m \in \mathbb{N} \mid (v, m) \in Dom(E)\} = \{0, \dots, n - 1\}$. A graph is called finite if its node set V is finite.*

You might know this definition of graphs from automata theory: V is usually called the set of *states*, and E the *transition function*.

Let’s connect our definitions of trees and graphs now.

We can define the *extension* of the transition function E :

$$\cdot \in V \times \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{N}) \rightarrow V \cup \{\perp\}$$

Let $m \in \mathbb{N}$, $p \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{N})$. Then

$$\begin{aligned}
v.\epsilon &:= v \\
v.(m :: p) &:= E(v, m).p \quad \text{if } (v, m) \in \text{Dom}(E) \\
&\quad \perp \quad \text{otherwise}
\end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow v.p$ is the node reached from v on path p

$\Rightarrow \{p \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{N}) \mid v.p \neq \perp\} \in T\text{Dom}$

Definition 1.3 (Closed Node Set) A set $X \subseteq V$ is called closed iff $\forall v \in X, p \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{N}) : v.p \neq \perp \Rightarrow v.p \in X$

Definition 1.4 (Tree defined by graph node) $\mathcal{T} \in (V \cup \{\perp\}) \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{L}(\mathbb{N}))$

$$\mathcal{T}(\perp) := \emptyset$$

$$\mathcal{T}(v) := \{p \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{N}) \mid v.p \neq \perp\}$$

For $U \subseteq V$, let $\mathcal{T}(U) := \{\mathcal{T}(u) \mid u \in U\}$.

Definition 1.5 (Graph Equivalence) Two graphs $G = (V, E)$ and $G' = (V', E')$ are equivalent iff $\mathcal{T}(V) = \mathcal{T}(V')$.

Now we can formulate the following

Proposition 1.1 Every regular tree can be represented by a node of a finite graph.

As a proof, we construct a graph $G = (V, E)$ for a regular tree T as follows:

Let $\text{Sub}(T) = \{t_1, \dots, t_n\}$ (finite, as T is regular). Then

$$V := \{1, \dots, n\}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
E(v, m) &:= i \quad \text{if } \text{sub}(t_v, m) = t_i \\
&\quad \text{undefined otherwise}
\end{aligned}$$

Then G is a finite graph, and $\mathcal{T}(i) = t_i$ for every i . One of the t_i must be T itself, so this node i in the graph represents the regular tree T .

Example:



The tree on the right is $\mathcal{T}(1)$.

Figure 1: Tree and Graph

2 Relations on Graphs

The canonical and natural relation we can define on graphs now is the following:

$$u \sim_T v \iff \mathcal{T}(u) = \mathcal{T}(v)$$

This relation is an equivalence relation on the nodes of the graph that puts those nodes in the same class which denote the same tree. This gives us a simple

Definition 2.1 (Minimal Graph) *A graph is called minimal iff $\forall u, v \in V : u = v \iff u \sim_T v$.*

Our goal will be to compute \sim_T for an arbitrary graph, and then transform that graph into an equivalent one which is minimal. For this we need to define some more relations:

Definition 2.2 (Congruence) *A congruence on a graph is an equivalence relation $\sim \in V \times V$ such that*

$$u \sim v \wedge u.n \neq \perp \implies v.n \neq \perp \wedge u.n \sim v.n$$

i.e., an equivalence relation that is “compatible” with E . Another formulation is

$$u \sim v \implies \mathcal{T}(u) = \mathcal{T}(v).$$

The set of all congruences is called Cong.

The finest congruence is $u \sim v \iff u = v$.

The opposite relation is the following:

Definition 2.3 (Distinction) *A distinction on a graph is an equivalence relation $\sim \in V \times V$ such that*

$$\forall \sim' \in \text{Cong} : \sim' \subseteq \sim$$

This is equivalent to

$$\mathcal{T}(u) = \mathcal{T}(v) \implies u \sim v.$$

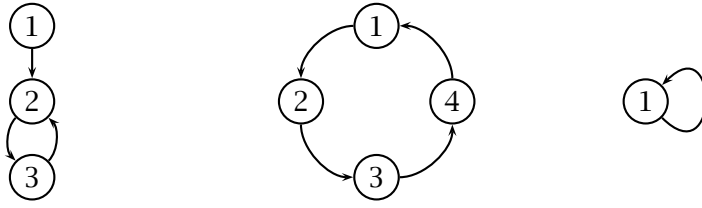
The set of all distinctions is called Dist.

The coarsest distinction is $\sim = V \times V$.

Proposition 2.1 \sim_T *is both the coarsest congruence and the finest distinction.*

3 Partition Refinement

Idea: Take any equivalence relation \sim and compute the coarsest congruence that is a refinement of \sim . As an equivalence relation can always be seen as a *partition* of the nodes into equivalence classes, this generic algorithm is called *partition refinement*.



These graphs are all equivalent, the rightmost graph is minimal.

Figure 2: Equivalent graphs

Historically, this is exactly *automaton minimization*, an algorithm developed by Hopcroft [3]. Cardon and Crochemore [1] generalize the idea to arbitrary graphs, and Habib et al. [2] describe a generic and efficient implementation. Mauborgne [4] gives a minimization algorithm that works incrementally. Horbach and Woop [6] give a good formal description of both the original and the incremental algorithm – these lecture notes are based on their work. The author [5] describes how graph minimization can be applied to arbitrary data structures.

3.1 Refinement

Definition 3.1 (Refinement) We define a function R computing the refinement of a relation on graph nodes:

$$R \in \mathcal{P}(V \times V) \times \mathcal{P}(V) \times \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(V \times V)$$

$$R(\sim, X, n) := (\sim) \cap \{(u, v) \in V \times V \mid u.n \in X \iff v.n \in X\}$$

If \sim, \sim' are equivalence relations, we define

$$\sim \succ \sim' \iff \exists X \in V_{/\sim}, n \in \mathbb{N} : \sim' = R(\sim, X, n) \neq \sim$$

Proposition 3.1 (Refinement preserves congruences) Let $X \in V_{/\sim}$. Then $\sim' \in \text{Cong} \wedge \sim' \subseteq \sim \implies \sim' \subseteq R(\sim, X, n)$.

The proof is left to you as an exercise.

Proposition 3.2 (The fixed point of R is a congruence) $(\forall X \in V_{/\sim}, n \in \mathbb{N} : R(\sim, X, n) = \sim) \implies \sim$ is a congruence

The proof is left to you as an exercise.

Corollary 3.1 (Partition refinement computes \sim_T) Let $\sim_0 \succ \sim_1 \succ \dots \succ \sim_n$ be a chain of distinction relations. Then

- this chain is finite.

- if there is no \sim_{n+1} such that $\sim_n \succ \sim_{n+1}$, then $\sim = \sim_T$.

3.2 Runtime

Let k be the maximum arity of all the nodes in V .

Pseudo-code of the generic algorithm:

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i = 0:   agenda0 = (V/~0) × {0, ..., k - 1}
i → i + 1: if agendai = ∅ then return ~i
              else [(Xi, ni), ...] = agendai
                let
                  ~i+1 = R(~i, Xi, ni)
                  agendai+1 = updated agendai

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The naive algorithm proceeds as follows: Every time an equivalence class Y is “split” into Y_1 and Y_2 , for every n remove (Y, n) from the agenda and put (Y_1, n) and (Y_2, n) on the agenda. This gives a complexity of $O(n^2)$, where $n = |V|$.

Hopcroft improved this to $O(kn \log n)$, for k the maximum arity of any node in the graph. He noticed that if (Y, n) is not on the agenda, only the smaller one of Y_1 and Y_2 has to be put there.

Both algorithms assume a clever representation of the graph and the equivalence classes to make computation of R efficient. Habib [2] gives a detailed and yet simple description of how to achieve this.

3.3 Minimization

Given a graph $G = (V, E)$ and the relation \sim_T on G , we can easily construct the minimal graph $G' = (V', E')$ that is equivalent to G .

Let $\{[v_1]_{\sim_T}, \dots, [v_n]_{\sim_T}\}$ be the equivalence classes of \sim_T .

$V' := \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$

$E'(v', m) := E(v, m)$ for $v \in [v']_{\sim_T}$

Convince yourself that this is well-defined.

3.4 Labelled Trees and Graphs

Adding labels to trees and graphs is easy. Assuming that we have a set Lab of labels, a tree now is a function $t \in Tree \subseteq TDom \rightarrow Lab$. Graphs become tripels: $G = (V, E, L)$, where $L \in V \rightarrow Lab$.

The denotation of a graph node has to be adjusted:

$$\mathcal{T}(\perp) = \emptyset$$

$$\mathcal{T}(v)(p) = L(v.p) \text{ if } v.p \neq \perp$$

The canonical equivalence relation of graph nodes has to be aware of labels:

$$u \sim_{TL} v \iff L(u) = L(v) \wedge u \sim_T v$$

The minimization algorithm doesn't have to be changed at all, only the initial distinction relation must be at least \sim_L , defined as $u \sim_L v \iff L(u) = L(v)$ (which is a distinction).

4 Application to Types

Recursive types can be seen as regular, labelled trees with the label set $Lab = \{+, \times, \rightarrow\}$, for example. They can therefore be modelled (and implemented!) as finite graphs.

Computing the minimal graph representing a type has some advantages:

- Type equivalence is decidable in $O(1)$.
- If the type is also needed at runtime, its representation is compact, i.e. memory-efficient.

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