

# On the Complexity of Abstract Categorical Grammars

In this abstract we investigate the respective complexities of the membership and the universal membership problems for Abstract Categorical Grammars [dG01]. This problem has already been addressed in [YK05] and we present here some more precise results and some new ones.

Abstract Categorical Grammars [dG01] are appealing since they can represent many well-known formalisms [dGP04] while using a small set of primitives. They use the linear  $\lambda$ -calculus which is associated to the intuitionistic implicative linear logic with proper axioms ( $\mathbf{ILL}_{ax}$ ) via the Curry-Howard isomorphism. The formulae of  $\mathbf{ILL}_{ax}$  are built from a finite set of *atoms*  $A$  and the binary connective  $\multimap$ .  $\mathcal{I}_A$  denotes the set formulae of  $\mathbf{ILL}_{ax}$  that can be built from  $A$ . In the linear  $\lambda$ -calculus, the proper axioms of  $\mathbf{ILL}_{ax}$  are represented by constants having the corresponding type. Thus linear  $\lambda$ -terms are built on *higher-order signatures* like  $\Sigma = (A, C, \tau)$ , where  $A$  is the finite set of types on which formulae are built,  $C$  is the set of constants and  $\tau$  is a function which associates a formula from  $\mathcal{I}_A$  to each constant of  $C$ . We adopt the convention that the signature  $\Sigma$  is the triple  $(A, C, \tau)$ , and the signature  $\Sigma_i$  is the triple  $(A_i, C_i, \tau_i)$  for any  $i \in \mathbb{N}$ . We assume that the reader is familiar to  $\lambda$ -calculus, the notions of free variables,  $\beta\eta$ -reduction *etc.*. In the following we assume that we are given an infinite enumerable set of variables  $\mathcal{V}$ . Given a higher-order signature  $\Sigma$  the family  $(\Lambda_\Sigma^\alpha)_{\alpha \in \mathcal{I}_A}$  of linear  $\lambda$ -terms built on  $\Sigma$  is defined as the smallest family verifying:

1. if  $c \in C$  then  $c \in \Lambda_\Sigma^{\tau(c)}$ ,
2. if  $x \in \mathcal{V}$  and  $\alpha \in \mathcal{I}_A$  then  $x^\alpha \in \Lambda_\Sigma^\alpha$
3. if  $t \in \Lambda_\Sigma^\alpha$  and  $x^\beta \in FV(t)$ <sup>1</sup> then  $\lambda x^\beta.t \in \Lambda_\Sigma^{\beta \rightarrow \alpha}$
4. if  $t_1 \in \Lambda_\Sigma^{\beta \rightarrow \alpha}$ ,  $t_2 \in \Lambda_\Sigma^\beta$  and whenever  $x^\gamma \in FV(t_1)$  (*resp.*  $x^\gamma \in FV(t_2)$ ), for any  $\gamma' \in \mathcal{I}_A$ ,  $x^{\gamma'} \notin FV(t_2)$  (*resp.*  $x^{\gamma'} \notin FV(t_1)$ ) then  $t_1 t_2 \in \Lambda_\Sigma^\alpha$ .

The set  $\bigcup_{\alpha \in \mathcal{I}_A} \Lambda_\Sigma^\alpha$  is denoted by  $\Lambda_\Sigma$ .

Given two higher-order signatures  $\Sigma_1$  and  $\Sigma_2$  a homomorphism between  $\Sigma_1$  and  $\Sigma_2$  is a pair  $\mathcal{H} = (f, g)$  such that  $f$  is a function from  $\mathcal{I}_{A_1}$  to  $\mathcal{I}_{A_2}$  such that  $f(\beta \multimap \alpha) = f(\alpha) \multimap f(\beta)$  and  $g$  is a function from  $\Lambda_{\Sigma_1}^\alpha$  to  $\Lambda_{\Sigma_2}^{f(\alpha)}$  verifying:

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<sup>1</sup> $FV(t)$  denotes the set of variables that are free in  $t$ .

1. if  $c \in C_1$  then  $g(c)$  is a closed term (i.e.  $FV(f(c)) = \emptyset$ ) of  $\Lambda_{\Sigma_2}^{f(\tau_1(c))}$ ,
2. if  $x \in \mathcal{V}$  then  $g(x^\alpha) = x^{f(\alpha)}$ ,
3. if  $\lambda x^\beta . t \in \Lambda_{\Sigma_1}^\alpha$  then  $g(\lambda x^\beta . t) = \lambda x^{f(\beta)} . g(t)$  and,
4. if  $t_1 t_2 \in \Lambda_{\Sigma_1}^\alpha$  then  $g(t_1 t_2) = g(t_1)g(t_2)$ .

It should be clear that whenever  $t \in \Lambda_{\Sigma_1}^\alpha$  then  $g(t) \in \Lambda_{\Sigma_2}^{f(\alpha)}$ . We will write  $\mathcal{H}(\alpha)$  and  $\mathcal{H}(t)$  instead of  $f(\alpha)$  and  $g(t)$ .

An ACG defined as a quadruple  $\mathcal{G}(\Sigma_1, \Sigma_2, \mathcal{L}, S)$  where  $\Sigma_1$  and  $\Sigma_2$  are higher-order signatures, respectively the *abstract vocabulary* and the *object vocabulary*,  $\mathcal{L}$  is a homomorphism between  $\Sigma_1$  and  $\Sigma_2$ , the *lexicon* and  $S$  is an element of  $A_1$ , the *accepting type*. Then  $\mathcal{G}$  defines two languages:

1. the *abstract language*:  $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G}) = \{M \in \Lambda_{\Sigma_1}^S \mid M \text{ is closed}\}$ ,
2. the *object language*:  $\mathcal{O}(\mathcal{G}) = \{M \in \Lambda_{\Sigma_2} \mid \exists N \in \mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G}). \mathcal{L}(N) =_{\beta\eta} M\}$ .

An ACG  $\mathcal{G} = (\Sigma_1, \Sigma_2, \mathcal{L}, S)$  is said *lexicalized* if for all  $c \in C_1$ ,  $\mathcal{L}(c)$  contains at least the occurrence of a constant in  $C_2$ . In [YK05], both membership and universal membership of lexicalized ACGs are shown to be in NP.

ACGs are classified into a hierarchy which is based on the notion of *order of a type*. The order of an atomic type  $\alpha$  is  $ord(\alpha) = 1$  and  $ord(\alpha \rightarrow \beta) = \max(ord(\alpha) + 1, ord(\beta))$ . The definition of order is extended to higher-order signatures and  $ord(\Sigma) = \max\{ord(\tau(c)) \mid c \in C\}$ ; and to homomorphisms between signatures. The order of a homomorphism  $\mathcal{H}$  between  $\Sigma_1$  and  $\Sigma_2$  is  $ord(\mathcal{H}) = \max\{ord(\mathcal{H}(\alpha)) \mid \alpha \in A_1\}$ . Then the set  $\mathbf{G}(n, m)$  is the set of ACGs  $\mathcal{G} = (\Sigma_1, \Sigma_2, \mathcal{L}, S)$  such that  $ord(\Sigma_1) \leq n$  and  $ord(\mathcal{L}) \leq m$ .

In what follows we show that the membership problem for the grammars of  $\mathbf{G}(2, n)$  is polynomial. We also show that the universal membership problem is NP-complete for lexicalized grammars of  $\mathbf{G}(2, 2)$  and we exhibit a lexicalized grammar of  $\mathbf{G}(3, 1)$  whose language is NP-complete. These last results are an improvement over [YK05] who shows that the universal membership problem is NP-complete for lexicalized ACGs of  $\mathbf{G}(4, 2)$  and exhibit a lexicalized ACG of  $\mathbf{G}(4, 3)$  whose language is NP-complete. Furthermore, if  $P \neq NP$ , these results are optimal with respect to the hierarchy  $\mathbf{G}(n, p)$ . Indeed, since we show that the membership problem for grammars of  $\mathbf{G}(2, n)$  is polynomial it is not possible (if  $P \neq NP$ ) to find a grammar whose language is NP-complete in  $\mathbf{G}(2, n)$ ; and, it is obvious that the universal membership is polynomial for grammars in  $\mathbf{G}(2, 1)$ .<sup>2</sup>

The proof that the membership problem for grammars of  $\mathbf{G}(2, n)$  is polynomial is based on a result of [Sal06]. In that paper, the subterms of a  $\lambda$ -term  $u$

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<sup>2</sup>The normal forms of terms in the language, noted with de Bruijn convention, can easily be shown to be recognized by a bottom-up tree automaton whose size is linear with respect to the size of the grammar. Since normalizing a linear  $\lambda$ -term can be done in polynomial time, this gives the result.

are denoted by the pairs  $(C[], t)$  (where  $C[]$  is a context<sup>3</sup>) such that  $C[t] = u$ . Furthermore, these subterms are used as atomic types in order to type linear  $\lambda$ -terms. So, given  $u$  an element of  $\Lambda_\Sigma$  which is in long normal form, the family of sets  $(\mathcal{D}_u^\alpha)_{\alpha \in \mathcal{I}_A}$  is defined as the smallest family verifying:

1. if  $\alpha \in A$  then  $\mathcal{D}_u^\alpha = \{(C[], t) \in \mathcal{S}_t \mid t \in \Lambda_\Sigma^\alpha\}$ ,
2.  $\mathcal{D}_u^{\beta \circ \alpha} = \mathcal{D}_u^\beta \times \mathcal{D}_u^\alpha$ .

The elements of  $\mathcal{D}_u^\alpha$  are then used to type terms of  $\Lambda_\Sigma^\alpha$ ; the rules used to type terms are the following:

$$\frac{d \in \mathcal{D}_u^\alpha}{u; x^\alpha : d \vdash x^\alpha : d} \text{Axiom} \quad \frac{(C[], a) \in \mathcal{S}_u}{u; \vdash a : \theta(C[], a)} \text{Constant}$$

$$\frac{u; \Gamma, x^\alpha : d \vdash t : e}{u; \Gamma \vdash \lambda x^\alpha. t : d \multimap e} \lambda\text{-abst.} \quad \frac{u; \Gamma_1 \vdash t_1 : d \multimap e \quad u; \Gamma_2 \vdash t_2 : d}{u; \Gamma_1, \Gamma_2 \vdash t_1 t_2 : e} \text{App.}$$

Given  $u$  an element of  $\Lambda_\Sigma^\alpha$  in long normal form and  $(C[], t) \in \mathcal{S}_u$ ,  $\theta(C[], t)$  is defined as follows:

1. if  $C[] = C'[[t']]$  then  $\theta(C[], t) = \theta(C'[t[]], t') \multimap \theta(C'[], tt')$ ,
2. if  $t = \lambda x. t'$  then  $\theta(C[], t) = \theta(C[\lambda x. C_{t', x}[]], x) \multimap \theta(C[\lambda x. []], t')$ ,
3.  $\theta(C[], t) = (C[], t)$  otherwise.

It is then proved that for  $u$  closed and in long normal form, we have  $u; \vdash v : \theta([], u)$  is derivable if and only if  $v =_{\beta\eta} u$ . Thus to prove that a term  $u$  of  $\Lambda_{\Sigma_2}$  is an element of  $\mathcal{O}(\mathcal{G})$  it suffices to construct a term  $t$  of  $\Lambda_{\Sigma_1}^S$  such that  $u; \vdash \mathcal{L}(t) : \theta([], u)$ . To this end we saturate a set  $\mathcal{H}$  of pairs  $(\alpha, d)$  of  $(\{\alpha\} \times \mathcal{D}_u^\alpha)_{\alpha \in A_1}$ . During one step, we transform the set  $\mathcal{H}$  into a set  $\mathcal{H}'$  in the following way:

1. if there is  $c \in C_1$  such that  $\tau_1(c) = \alpha$  with  $\alpha \in A_1$  and for  $d \in \mathcal{D}_u^{\mathcal{L}(\alpha)}$ ,  $u; \vdash \mathcal{L}(c) : d$  is derivable then we let  $\mathcal{H}' = \mathcal{H} \cup \{(\alpha, d)\}$
2. if there is  $c \in C_1$  such that  $\tau_1(c) = \alpha_1 \multimap \dots \multimap \alpha_n \multimap \alpha_0$  with  $\alpha_i \in A_1$  for all  $i \in [0, n]$  and for all  $i \in [1, n]$   $(d_i, \alpha_i) \in \mathcal{H}$  and  $u; \vdash \mathcal{L}(c) : d_1 \multimap \dots \multimap d_n \multimap d_0$ , then we let  $\mathcal{H}' = \mathcal{H} \cup \{(\alpha_0, d_0)\}$ .

It is obvious that, with these rules, one may build a set containing the pair  $(S, \theta([], u))$  if and only if there is  $t \in \Lambda_{\Sigma_1}^S$  such that  $u; \vdash \mathcal{L}(t) : \theta([], u)$  is derivable, *i.e.* such that  $\mathcal{L}(t) =_{\beta\eta} u$  or  $u \in \mathcal{O}(\mathcal{G})$ . This algorithm can easily be implemented in polynomial time (parameters of the grammar being allowed to appear as exponents), since, the size of an element of  $\mathcal{D}_u^{\mathcal{L}(\alpha)}$  is bounded by the product of the size of  $\alpha$  and of the size of  $u$ . This finally shows that the membership problem for ACGs of  $\mathbf{G}(2, n)$  is polynomial.

<sup>3</sup>That is to say that  $C[]$  is a  $\lambda$ -term with a hole.

We now show that the universal membership problem for grammars of  $\mathbf{G}(2, 2)$  is NP-complete. We reduce this problem to the X3C problem which is known to be NP-complete [GJ79]. X3C problems have as input a pair  $(X, B)$  where  $X = \{a_1; \dots; a_{3n}\}$  is a set of  $3n$  pairwise distinct elements and  $B = \{B_1; \dots; B_m\}$  is a set where  $B_i = \{a_{i_1}; a_{i_2}; a_{i_3}\}$  with  $1 \leq i_1 < i_2 < i_3 \leq 3n$ . Solving an X3C problem amounts to find  $C \subseteq B$  such that  $C$  is a partition of  $X$ . To prove the NP-hardness of the universal membership problem of lexicalized ACGs of  $\mathbf{G}(2, 2)$ , for any instance of an X3C problem  $(X, B)$  we give an ACG  $\mathcal{G}_{X,B}$  and a term  $t_{X,B}$  such that  $t_{X,B} \in \mathcal{O}(\mathcal{G}_{X,B})$  if and only if the X3C problem admits a solution. We let  $\mathcal{G}_{X,B} = (\Sigma_1, \Sigma_2, \mathcal{L}, D_0)$  where  $A_1 = \{D_0; \dots; D_n\}$ ,  $C_1 = \{E\} \cup \{E_{B_i, k_1, k_2, k_3, k} \mid B_i \in B \wedge 0 \leq k < n \wedge 1 \leq k_1 < k_2 < k_3 \leq k\}$ ,  $\tau_1(E) = D_n$  and  $\tau_1(E_{B_i, k_1, k_2, k_3, k}) = D_{k+1} \multimap D_k$ . We also let  $A_2 = \{\iota\}$ ,  $C_2 = \{e\} \cup X$  with  $g \notin X$ ,  $\tau_2(a_i) = \iota$  for  $1 \geq i \geq 3n$  and  $\tau_2(e) = \underbrace{\iota \multimap \dots \multimap \iota}_{3n} \multimap \iota$ . We then

let

1.  $\mathcal{L}(D_k) = \underbrace{\iota \multimap \dots \multimap \iota}_{3k} \multimap \iota$ ,
2.  $\mathcal{L}(E) = \lambda x_1 \dots x_{3n}. e x_1 \dots x_{3n}$  and,
3.  $\mathcal{L}(E_{B_i, k_1, k_2, k_3, k}) =$   
 $\lambda g x_1 \dots x_{k_1-1} x_{k_1+1} \dots x_{k_2-1} x_{k_2+1} \dots x_{k_3-1} x_{k_3+1} \dots x_{3k}.$   
 $g x_1 \dots x_{k_1-1} a_{i_1} x_{k_1+1} \dots x_{k_2-1} a_{i_2} x_{k_2+1} \dots x_{k_3-1} a_{i_3} x_{k_3+1} \dots x_{3k}$

It is then easy to prove that the term  $e a_1 \dots a_{3m}$  is in  $\mathcal{O}(\mathcal{G}_{X,B})$  if and only if  $(X, B)$  admits a solution.

We now construct a lexicalized ACG of  $\mathbf{G}(3, 1)$  whose language is NP-complete. The language recognized by this grammar contains an encoding of the set of 3-PARTITION problems that admit a solution. A 3-PARTITION problem is a pair  $(\{s_1; \dots; s_{3m}\}, n)$  where  $n$  is an integer and for all  $i \in [1, 3m]$   $s_i$  is an integer verifying  $\frac{n}{4} < s_i < \frac{n}{2}$ . Such a problem is said to admit a solution if there is a partition  $(S_i)_{i \in [1, m]}$  of  $\{s_1; \dots; s_{3m}\}$  such that for all  $i \in [1, m]$   $\sum_{s \in S_i} s = n$ . Remark that the  $S_i$  must exactly contain three elements. Determining whether a 3-PARTITION problem admits a solution is known to be NP-complete [GJ79]. We now build  $\mathcal{G} = (\Sigma_1, \Sigma_2, \mathcal{L}, S)$  with the desired properties. We let  $A_1 = \{B_1; B_2; B_3; C; D; E; L; S\}$ ,  $C_1 = \{e; e'; nil; f_1; f_2; f_3; nil; cons; h\}$  with:

1.  $\tau_1(e) = (B_1 \multimap B_2 \multimap B_3 \multimap C \multimap D) \multimap S$ ,
2.  $\tau_1(e') = L \multimap S$ ,
3.  $\tau_1(f_1) = \tau_1(f_2) = \tau_1(f_3) = (B_1 \multimap B_2 \multimap B_3 \multimap C \multimap D) \multimap (B_1 \multimap B_2 \multimap B_3 \multimap C \multimap D)$ ,
4.  $\tau_1(cons) = E \multimap L \multimap L$ ,
5.  $\tau_1(nil) = L$  and

$$6. \tau_1(h) = (E \multimap E \multimap E \multimap E \multimap S) \multimap (B_1 \multimap B_2 \multimap B_3 \multimap C \multimap D).$$

We let  $A_2 = \{*\}$ ,  $C_2 = \{a, b, c, d, o\}$  with  $\tau_2(a) = * \multimap * \multimap *$ ,  $\tau_2(b) = \tau_2(c) = \tau_2(d) = * \multimap *$  and  $\tau_2(o) = *$ . Finally we define the lexicon as follows:

1.  $\mathcal{L}(\alpha) = *$  for all  $\alpha \in A_1$ ,
2.  $\mathcal{L}(e) = \lambda f.f o o o o$
3.  $\mathcal{L}(e') = \lambda x.d x$
4.  $\mathcal{L}(f_1) = \lambda f x_1 x_2 x_3 y.f (b x_2) x_2 x_3 (c y)$
5.  $\mathcal{L}(f_2) = \lambda f x_1 x_2 x_3 y.f x_1 (b x_2) x_3 (c y)$
6.  $\mathcal{L}(f_3) = \lambda f x_1 x_2 x_3 y.f x_1 x_2 (b x_3) (c y)$
7.  $\mathcal{L}(cons) = \lambda x y.a x y$
8.  $\mathcal{L}(nil) = o$
9.  $\mathcal{L}(h) = \lambda f x_1 x_2 x_3 y.f (d x_1) (d x_2) (d x_3) (d y)$

The idea behind the reduction is that the abstract constant *cons* codes for a list constructor while *nil* represents the empty list, the constant *h* takes a list where there are four places which are not specified and give them the type of four kinds of stacks,  $B_1$ ,  $B_2$ ,  $B_3$  and  $C$ , the constant  $f_i$  pushes one  $b$  on the stack  $B_i$  and at the same time it pushes with a  $c$  on the stack  $C$  at the object level. The constants  $e$  closes the bottom of the stack with an  $o$  and the constant  $e'$  ends a list. Thus the grammar generates lists that contain integers of two kinds represented as monadic trees of  $b$ 's or monadic trees of  $c$ 's. The construction guaranties that the integers made of  $b$ 's can be partitionned in triples  $\{p_1; p_2; p_3\}$  which are put in bijection with the integers made of  $c$ 's such that if  $n$  is the integer associated to  $\{p_1; p_2; p_3\}$  we have  $n = p_1 + p_2 + p_3$ . Thus verifying that a certain 3-PARTITION problem  $(\{s_1; \dots; s_{3m}\}, n)$  has a solution amounts to check whether a list that contains each  $s_i$  represented with  $b$ 's and  $m$  times the integer  $n$  represented with  $c$ 's is an element of  $\mathcal{O}(\mathcal{G})$ .

## References

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