# On the Equivalence, Containment, and Covering Problems for the Regular and Context-Free Languages* 

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We consider the complexity of the equivalence and containment problems for regular expressions and context-free grammars, concentrating on the relationship between complexity and various language properties. Finiteness and boundedness of languages are shown to play important roles in the complexity of these problems. An encoding into grammars of Turing machine computations exponential in the size of the grammar is used to prove several exponential lower bounds. These lower bounds include exponential time for testing equivalence of grammars generating finite sets, and exponential space for testing equivalence of non-self-embedding grammars. Several problems which might be complex because of this encoding are shown to simplify for linear grammars. Other problems considered include grammatical covering and structural equivalence for right-linear, linear, and arbitrary grammars.

## 1. Introduction

There are many problems of interest concerning language descriptors such as regular expressions and context-free grammars (cfg's). These problems include the equivalence problem (Given two language descriptors, do they describe the

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same language ?), the containment problem (Given two descriptors, does the language described by the first contain the language described by the second?), the grammatical covering problem [10], and the structural equivalence of grammars [21, 25]. In this paper we study the computational complexity of these and other problems. The complexity is analyzed as a function of simply stated properties of the descriptors or languages involved.

Section 2 concentrates on regular expression equivalence, and Section 3 on cfg equivalence. As an example of how complexity is related to language properties, testing a regular expression for inequivalence to a fixed regular language can be done in polynomial time if the fixed language is finite, is NP-complete if the fixed language is infinite but bounded, and is PSPACE-complete if the fixed language is unbounded. Testing two regular expressions for inequivalence is shown to be NP-complete for star-free regular expressions and PSPACE-complete for regular expressions of any fixed star height $\geqslant 1$. Testing both arbitrary and linear grammars for inequivalence to a fixed language can be done in polynomial time if the fixed language is finite, is NP-hard if the fixed language is infinite, is PSPACE-hard if the fixed language is unbounded, and is undecidable if the fixed language contains an unbounded regular subset.

In Section 4, exponential lower time bounds are proved for a variety of problems, including the equivalence problem for cfg's generating finite languages. Exponential lower space bounds are also proved for a variety of problems, including the equivalence problem for non-self-embedding cfg's. The results utilize an encoding, of Turing machine computations into grammars, based upon a "squaring" capability of cfg's that allows one to obtain cfg's for which the shortest or longest string in the generated language is exponential in the size of the grammar. This capability implies that decision algorithms which depend on the length of the shortest string will be exponential, and therefore complicates such problems as structural equivalence, equivalence of $L L(k)$ grammars and boundedness of cfg's. We show simplications when the grammars involved in these problems are restricted to be linear cfg's, so that the shortest string generated is linear in the size of the grammar.

In Section 5 we study grammatical covering and structural equivalence. We show these problems are PSPACE-complete for right-linear and for linear cfg's. Also for arbitrary cfg's, covering is undecidable, while structural equivalence is decidable, but PSPACE-hard.

We use two main approaches to establishing lower bounds on the complexity of various problems. One approach is to encode Turing machine computations of a given complexity into a particular problem of interest. This approach has been used by Stockmeyer and Meyer [24, 29, 30]. The other approach is to encode into the problem of interest, the problem of determining whether a given language descriptor describes the set of all strings over a fixed finite alphabet. This latter approach has been used by Greibach [11], Hopcroft [12], and Hunt [14].

Several preliminary definitions are needed to read this paper. We use $|x|$ to denote the length of $x$ if $x$ is a string, and the cardinality of $x$ if $x$ is a set.

See [13] for definitions of a regular set, regular or type-3 grammar, finite automaton, nondeterministic finite automaton (ndfa), context-free grammar (cfg), context-free language (cf), derivation, leftmost derivation, Turing machine (Tm), and linear bounded automaton (lba).

Definition 1.1. We use $\lambda$ to denote the empty string and $\phi$ to denote the empty language.

Regular expressions over finite alphabet $\Sigma$ are defined recursively as follows.
(a) $\lambda, \phi$, and each $a$ in $\Sigma$ are regular expressions.
(b) If $A$ and $B$ are regular expressions, then so are $(A) \cup(B),(A) \cdot(B)$, and $(A)^{*}$.
(c) Nothing else is a regular expression.

The language denoted by regular expression $R$ is written $L(R)$.
The star height $S H$ of a regular expression is defined recursively:

$$
\begin{aligned}
S H(a) & =0 \quad \text { for } \quad a \text { in } \Sigma, \\
S H(\lambda) & =0, \quad S H(\phi)=0, \\
S H((A) \cup(B)) & =\max \{S H(A), S H(B)\}, \\
S H((A) \cdot(B)) & =\max \{S H(A), S H(B)\}, \\
S H\left((A)^{*}\right) & =S H(A)+1 .
\end{aligned}
$$

The star height of a regular set is the minimum of the star heights of the regular expressions denoting it. We call a regular expression of star height zero (i.e., with no occurrences of ${ }^{*}$ ) a ( $U, \cdot$-expression.

The star height of a regular set can be viewed as a measure of the complexity of its looping structure.

For convenience, in writing regular expressions we frequently remove redundant parenthesis when no ambiguity can arise. However, the fully parenthesized version of these regular expressions are assumed to be processed by algorithms.

For cfg's, we use $\stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow}$ to mean derives (via a sequence of zero or more steps) and $\stackrel{*}{=}_{L}$ to mean derives via a leftmost derivation. For a sequence of productions $\pi$, we write $\Rightarrow \pi$ or $\Rightarrow_{\mathrm{L}}^{\pi}$ to indicate that $\pi$ is the production sequence used in the derivation.

Definition 1.2. For $\operatorname{cfg} G=(N, \Sigma, P, S)$ and nonterminal $A$ in $N, L(A)=$ $\left\{w \mid w\right.$ is in $\Sigma^{*}$ and $\left.A \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} w\right\}$. The language generated by the grammar, $L(G)$, is defined to be $L(S)$.
$G$ is called linear if the right side of each production is in $\Sigma^{*} \cup \Sigma^{*} N \Sigma^{*}$, and rightlinear if the right side of each production is in $\Sigma^{*} \cup \Sigma^{*} N . G$ is reduced if every nonterminal not equal to $S$ can be used in some derivation of some string in $L(G)$. A language is called linear if it can be generated by some linear cfg.

In discussing cfg's we generally make the following notational conventions. Let $G=(N, \Sigma, P, S)$ be a cfg. Then $a, b, c$, etc., denote elements of $\Sigma ; u, v, w$, etc., denote elements of $\Sigma^{*} ; A, B, C$, etc., denote elements of $N ; X, Y, Z$, etc., denote elements of $N \cup \Sigma$; and $\alpha, \beta, \gamma$, etc., denote elements of $(N \cup \Sigma)^{*}$.

Definition 1.3. For grammar $G=(N, \Sigma, P, S)$, the size of grammar $G$, denoted $|G|$, is

$$
|G|=\left(|N|+|\Sigma|+\sum_{A \rightarrow \alpha \mathrm{in} P}|A \alpha|\right) \cdot(\log (|N|+|\Sigma|))
$$

Definition 1.4. A language $L \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$ is said to be bounded if and only if there exist strings $w_{1}, \ldots, w_{k}$ in $\Sigma^{*}$ such that $L \subseteq w_{1}{ }^{*} \cdots w_{k}{ }^{*}$. A language that is not bounded is said to be unbounded.

A language $L \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$ is said to be cofinite if $\Sigma^{*}-L$ is finite.
A language $L \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$ is said to be commutative if and only if for all words $u$ and $v$ in $L, u \cdot v=v \cdot u$.

Definition 1.5. Let $L \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$ and $x$ be in $\Sigma^{*}$. Then

$$
x \backslash L=\{y \mid x \cdot y \in L\} \quad \text { and } \quad L / x=\{y \mid y \cdot x \in L\}
$$

Definition 1.6. $P, N P, P S P A C E$, and $C S L$ are the classes of languages recognized by deterministic polynomially time bounded Tm , nondeterministic polynomially time bounded Tm, nondeterministic polynomially space bounded Tm , and nondeterministic lba, respectively. A language in $P$ is said to be $p$-decidable. Ndtime $(T(n))$ and $\operatorname{Ndtape}(T(n))$ are the classes of languages recognized by nondeterministic $T(n)$ time bounded Tm and nondeterministic $T(n)$ space bounded Tm , respectively.

Definition 1.7. $L$ is polynomially reducible to $M$ if there exists a function $f$ computable by some deterministic polynomially time bounded $\operatorname{Tm}$ such that $x$ is in $L$ if and only if $f(x)$ is in $M$. A language is $N P$-hard if all languages in NP are polynomially reducible to it. A language is NP-complete if it is in NP and is NP-hard. A language is PSPACE-hard if all languages in PSPACE are polynomially reducible to it. A language is PSPACE-complete if it is in PSPACE and is PSPACE-hard.

A language which is NP-hard can be considered to be "computationally intractable."

The complement of every language in $P$ is also in $P$. We will use the following lemma, the first two parts of which are from [27].

Lemma 1.8. (1) Every language recognized by some nondeterministic polynomially space bounded Tm is also in PSPACE.
(2) Let $M$ be in PSPACE. Then $\bar{M}$ is in PSPACE.
(3) Let $M$ be PSPACE-complete. Then $\bar{M}$ is PSPACE-complete.

Proof of (3). From (2), $\bar{M}$ is in PSPACE. Since $M$ is PSPACE-complete, there exists a polynomially time bounded function $g$ such that $y$ is in $\bar{M}$ if and only if $g(y)$ is in $M$. Therefore, $y$ is in $M$ if and only if $g(y)$ is in $\bar{M}$. Now let $L$ be any language in PSPACE. By the completeness of $M$, there exists a polynomially time bounded function $f$ such that $x$ is in $L$ if and only if $f(x)$ is in $M$. But then $x$ is in $L$ if and only if $g(f(x))$ is in $\bar{M}$. Since $g \circ f$ is clearly a polynomially time bounded function, we conclude that $\bar{M}$ is PSPACE-hard. 区

Definition 1.9. A function $f$ is $\log$-space computable if there exists a deterministic Tm with a two-way read-only input tape, a one-way output tape and one two-way read-write working tape, which started with a string $x$ on its input tape, will halt having written $f(x)$ on its output tape and having visited at most $\log (|x|)$ working tape squares. A function $f$ is $\log$-lin computable if it is log-space computable and there exists a constant $c>0$ such that $|f(x)| \leqslant c \cdot|x|$. A Tm corresponding to a $\log$-lin computable function is called a log-lin transducer. $L$ is $\log$-lin reducible to $M$ if there exists a $\log$-lin computable function $f$ such that $x$ is in $L$ if and only if $f(x)$ is in $M$. A language is CSL-hard if all languages in CSL are $\log$-lin reducible to it. A language is CSL-complete if it is in CSL and is CSL-hard.

Lemma 1.10. (1) A language that is CSL-hard is also PSPACE-hard.
(2) A language that is CSL-complete is also PSPACE-complete.

Proof. Part (1) follows from a proof technique used in [4, 32]. Let $M$ be CSL-hard and let $L$ in PSPACE be recognizable in space $n^{m}$. Let $c$ be a new symbol and $L^{\prime}$ be the language

$$
L^{\prime}=\left\{x c^{p} \mid x \in M \text { and }\left|x c^{p}\right|=|x|^{m}\right\} .
$$

Then $L^{\prime}$ is in CSL and hence $\log$-lin reducible to $M . L$ is polynomially reducible to $M$ by the function that first maps a string $x$ into $x c^{p}$ such that $\left|x c^{p}\right|=|x|^{m}$, and then applies to the resulting string the $\log$-lin map from $L^{\prime}$ to $M$.

Part (2) follows from (1) and the fact that CSL $\subseteq$ PSPACE. $\boxtimes$
The concepts of CSL-hard and CSL-complete are thus special case of PSPACE-hard
and PSPACE-complete. The CSL-hard languages require essentially linear space on any nondeterministic Tm , as indicated by the following simple fact.

Proposition 1.11. Let $r$ be any positive rational $<1$. Let $L$ be CSL-hard. Then $L$ is not accepted by any $n^{r}$ tape-bounded nondeterministic $T m$.

Proof. Ibarra [18] has shown that for all positive integers $p, q \geqslant 1$,

$$
\operatorname{Ndtape}\left(n^{w / q}\right) \supsetneq \operatorname{Ndtape}\left(n^{p /(q+1)}\right) .
$$

This implies that for all positive rationals $r<1$, $\operatorname{Ndtape}\left(n^{r}\right) \subsetneq$ CSL. But if $L$ is an element of $\operatorname{Ndtape}\left(n^{r}\right)$, then CSL $=\operatorname{Ndtape}\left(n^{r}\right)$.

Let $M$ be a nondeterministic $T m$ with state set $S$, tape alphabet $T$, start state $q_{0}$ in $S$, and set of final accepting states $F \subseteq S$. Let $\Sigma=T \cup(S \times T) \cup\{\#\}$, where $\#$ is not in $T \cup(S \times T)$. Let $T(n)$ be a function such that $T(n) \geqslant n$ for all $n$.

Definition 1.12. Let $M$ be a $T(n)$ tape-bounded nondeterministic Tm as described above. Let $x=x_{1} \cdots x_{n}$ be an input to $M$. An instantaneous description (of $M$ on $x$ ), abbreviated i.d., is any word in $T^{*} \cdot(S \times T) \cdot T^{*}$ of length $T(n)$. The word $\left(q_{0}, x_{1}\right) x_{2} \cdots x_{n} b^{T(n)-n}$, where $\nRightarrow$ is a special symbol denoting the blank tape square, is an initial i.d. Any i.d. (of $M$ on $x$ ) that contains an accepting state is called a final i.d. We assume, without loss of generality, that $M$ cannot make a move from a final i.d. Instantaneous description $I D_{i+1}$ follows from i.d. $I D_{i}$ if and only if there exists a move of $M$ which changes $I D_{i}$ into $I D_{i+1}$ in one operation. A valid computation (of $M$ on $x$ ) is a sequence of i.d.'s $\# I D_{0} \# \cdots \# I D_{t} \#$, where $I D_{i+1}$ follows from $I D_{i}$ for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant t, I D_{0}$ is an initial i.d., $I D_{t}$ is a final i.d., and $t \leqslant T(n)$. A string in $\Sigma^{*}$ is an invalid computation (of $M$ on $x$ ) if it is not a valid computation.

The transition function of $M$ determines a certain function $f_{M}$ from $\Sigma^{3}$ into $2^{\Sigma^{3}}$, which we call the i.d. transition function and which is defined precisely in [14]. Roughly speaking, for three consecutive symbols in an i.d. delimited by \#'s, $f_{M}$ specifies what the corresponding three symbols in a following i.d. can be.

## 2. Regular Expression Equivalence

In this section, we study the complexity of various equivalence problems involving regular expressions. The regular expressions in this section are assumed to be over alphabet $\{0,1\}$ unless we state otherwise. We use the following abbreviations for several predicates involving testing pairs of regular expressions for inequivalence:

RINEQ $=\{(R, S) \mid R$ and $S$ are inequivalent regular expressions $\}$,
RINEQ-( $\cup, \cdot)=\{(R, S) \mid R$ and $S$ are inequivalent $(\cup, \cdot)$-expressions $\}$,

RINEQ-(over 0$)=\{(R, S) \mid R$ and $S$ are inequivalent regular expressions over $\{0\}\}$,
RINEQ-(one bounded) $=\{(R, S) \mid R$ and $S$ are inequivalent regular expressions and at least one of $L(R)$ and $L(S)$ is a bounded language $\}$,

RINEQ-(both bounded) $=\{(R, S) \mid R$ and $S$ are inequivalent regular expressions denoting bounded languages\},

RINEQ-(star height $k)=\{(R, S) \mid R$ and $S$ are inequivalent regular expressions of star height $k\}$,

RINEQ-cofinite $=\{(R, S) \mid R$ and $S$ are inequivalent regular expressions denoting cofinite sets $\}$.

For any fixed regular language $L_{0}$, there is a set of regular expressions that do not denote $L_{0}$. Membership of an arbitrary regular expression in this set of regular expressions is a predicate which we abbreviate as follows.

$$
\operatorname{RINEQ}\left(L_{0}\right)=\left\{R \mid R \text { is a regular expression and } L(R) \neq L_{0}\right\} .
$$

The results in this section on the complexity of inequivalence problems are summarized below.


Note that boundedness plays a major role in these results. In particular, the complexity of $\operatorname{RINEQ}\left(L_{0}\right)$ is completely characterized by whether $L_{0}$ is finite, infinite but bounded, or infinite.

First we explicitly state some well-known facts about regular expressions and regular sets.

Lemma 2.1. (1) Given an arbitrary regular expression $R$, a ndfa $M$ such that $L(M)=L(R)$ can be constructed deterministically in time bounded by a polynomial in $|R|$.
(2) Given two arbitrary regular expressions $R$ and $S$, the predicate " $L(R) \cap L(S)=\phi$ " can be decided deterministically in time bounded by a polynomial in $|R|+|S|$.
(3) Given two inequivalent regular expressions $R$ and $S$, there exists a string $x$ such that $x$ is in $L(R) \cap \overline{L(S)}$ or $x$ is in $\overline{L(R)} \cap L(S)$ and such that $|x| \leqslant 2^{c|R|+|S|), ~ w h e r e ~}$ $c$ is a constant independent of $R$ and $S$.
(4) Given an arbitrary string $x$ in $\{0,1\}^{*}$ and an arbitrary regular expression $R$, membership of $x$ in $L(R)$ can be decided deterministically in time bounded by a polynomial in $|x|+|R|[1]$.
(5) A regular set $R$ is infinite if and only if there exist strings $u_{1}, u_{2}, u_{3}$ in $\{0,1\}^{*}$ with $u_{2}$ nonnull such that $u_{1} \cdot u_{2}{ }^{*} \cdot u_{3} \subseteq R$ [13].
(6) A regular set $R$ over $\Sigma$ is unbounded if and only if there exist strings $r, s, x$, and $y$ in $\Sigma^{*}$ and distinct $a, b$ in $\Sigma$ such that $r \cdot\{a x, b y\}^{*} \cdot s \subseteq R$.
(7) Let $\Sigma$ and $\Delta$ be nonempty finite alphabets, and let $h: \Sigma^{*} \rightarrow \Delta^{*}$ be a homomorphism. Then there exists a log-lin transducer that given as input a regular expression $R$ over $\Sigma$, outputs a regular expression $S$ such that $L(S)=h(L(R))$.

Proof. (1) In [1, p. 322], after taking into account a variation in the definition of ndfa.
(2) Construct in polynomial time ndfa's $M_{R}=\left(K_{1},\{0,1\}, \delta_{1}, q_{1}, F_{1}\right)$ and $M_{S}=\left(K_{2},\{0,1\}, \delta_{2}, q_{2}, F_{2}\right)$ accepting $L(R)$ and $L(S)$, respectively. Construct a directed graph whose set of nodes is $K_{1} \times K_{2}$. The graph has an edge from node ( $p_{1}, p_{2}$ ) to ( $r_{1}, r_{2}$ ) if and only if either $r_{1}$ is in $\delta_{1}\left(p_{1}, 0\right)$ and $r_{2}$ is in $\delta_{2}\left(p_{2}, 0\right)$, or if $r_{1}$ is in $\delta_{1}\left(p_{1}, 1\right)$ and $r_{2}$ is in $\delta_{2}\left(p_{2}, 1\right)$. Then $L(R) \cap L(S)$ is nonnull if and only if the graph has a path from node $\left(q_{1}, q_{2}\right)$ to a node consisting of a pair of accepting states. The graph can be constructing and the path question answered in deterministic polynomial time.
(3) This follows from the fact that a ndfa with $n$ states can be converted into a deterministic finite automaton with $2^{n}$ states that recognizes the same language. Therefore, there exist finite automata exponential in $|R|+|S|$ for recognizing $L(R) \cap \overline{L(S)}$ and $\overline{L(R)} \cap L(S)$.
(6) If: The proof in [8, pp. 142-143], that $\Sigma^{*}$ is unbounded when $\Sigma$ contains at least two elements, can be applied to show that $R$ is unbounded when it contains $r \cdot\{a x, b y\}^{*} \cdot s$.
Only if: From [12, Lemma 3.1].
(7) Let $S$ be the regular expression that results from replacing each occurrence in $R$ of each symbol $a$ in $\Sigma$ with $h(a)$. 区

We next present without proof a result of Stockmeyer and Meyer [30].

Proposition 2.2. $\left\{R \mid R\right.$ is a regular expression over $\{0\}$ and $\left.L(R) \neq 0^{*}\right\}$ is $N P$ complete.

We also note the following proposition, which is implicitly proved in [24].
Proposition 2.3. RINEQ is in CSL.
The next proposition also is from [24]. Since we make several observations below about the regular expressions involved in the proof of this proposition, we sketch its proof.

Proposition 2.4. RINEQ( $\left.\{0,1\}^{*}\right)$ is CSL-complete.
Proof. Observe that from Proposition 2.3, RINEQ $\left(\{0,1\}^{*}\right)$ is in CSL.
The proof that $\operatorname{RINEQ}\left(\{0,1\}^{*}\right)$ is CSL-hard consists of two parts. First, for each lba $M$ there exists a deterministic log-lin transducer that when given a string $y=a_{1} \cdot \cdots \cdot a_{n}$ as input, outputs a regular expression $\beta_{y}$ over a finite alphabet $\Sigma$ such that $L\left(\beta_{y}\right)=\Sigma^{*}$ if and only if $M$ does not accept $y$.

Let the tape alphabet, state set, accepting states, and start state of $M$ be denoted by $T, S, F$, and $q_{0}$, respectively. Let \# be a new symbol not an element of $T \cup(S \times T)$ and let $f_{M}$ be the i.d. transition function for $M$. Then $\Sigma=\{\#\} \cup T \cup(S \times T)$ and $\beta_{y}=\beta_{1}+\beta_{2}+\beta_{3}$, where

$$
\begin{aligned}
\beta_{1}= & \left(( \Sigma - \{ \# \} ) \cup \# \cdot \left(( \Sigma - \{ ( q _ { 0 } , a _ { 1 } ) \} ) \cup ( q _ { 0 } , a _ { 1 } ) \cdot \left(\left(\Sigma-\left\{a_{2}\right\}\right)\right.\right.\right. \\
& \left.\left.\cup a_{2} \cdot\left(\cdots \cup a_{n} \cdot((\Sigma-\{\#\})) \cdots\right)\right)\right) \cdot \Sigma^{*} ; \\
\beta_{2}= & \left(\Sigma-\left(\bigcup_{q \in F}\{q\} \times T\right)\right)^{*} ;
\end{aligned}
$$

and

$$
\beta_{3}==\bigcup_{\sigma_{1}, \sigma_{2}, \sigma_{3} \in \Sigma} \Sigma^{*} \cdot \sigma_{1} \cdot \sigma_{2} \cdot \sigma_{3} \cdot \Sigma^{|y|-2} \cdot\left(\Sigma^{3}-f_{M}\left(\sigma_{1}, \sigma_{2}, \sigma_{3}\right)\right) \cdot \Sigma^{*} .
$$

The construction of $\beta_{y}$ has an interpretation in terms of Definition 1.12 (with $T(n)=n) . L\left(\beta_{y}\right)$ is the set of invalid computations of $M$ on $x$. Expressions $\beta_{1}, \beta_{2}$, and $\beta_{3}$, respectively, denote strings that do not begin with the initial i.d. for $y$ (bracketed by \#), that do not contain an accepting state, and that are not of the form of a sequence of i.d.'s (separated by \#) each of which (except for the first) follows from the previous i.d. The reader should note that the regular expression $\beta_{y}$ has no nested occurrences of "*'s." Also, $\left|\Sigma^{*}-L\left(\beta_{y}\right)\right|$ equals the number of distinct sequences of moves of $M$ that result in the acceptance of $y$.

Second, the regular expression $\beta_{y}$ over $\Sigma$ can be encoded into a regular expression $\hat{\beta}_{y}$ over $\{0,1\}$ in such a way that $L\left(\hat{\beta}_{y}\right)=\{0,1\}^{*}$ if and only if $L\left(\beta_{y}\right)=\Sigma^{*}$ and the encoding process is accomplished by a deterministic $\log$-lin space transducer. More-
over, this encoding can be accomplished in such a way that $\hat{\beta}_{y}$ also has no nested occurrences of "*'s" and $\left|\{0,1\}^{*}-L\left(\hat{\beta}_{y}\right)\right|=\left|\Sigma^{*}-L\left(\beta_{y}\right)\right|$. The details of the encoding are standard and are left to the reader. $\boxtimes$

Combining Propositions 2.3 and 2.4 gives the following result from [24].

## Theorem 2.5. RINEQ is CSL-complete.

We now characterize the complexity of $\operatorname{RINEQ}\left(L_{0}\right)$ in terms of the complexity of $L_{0}$. Note that an algorithm to test for membership in $\operatorname{RINEQ}\left(L_{0}\right)$ has as its input a single regular expression $R$, and determines if $L(R) \neq L_{0}$. The time and space required by the algorithm are functions of the length of the input string, viz. $|R|$; these functions may involve constants that depend on $L_{0}$. The algorithm can be designed to incorporate implicitly properties of $L_{0}$. For instance, even though the algorithm does not receive a regular expression denoting $L_{0}$ as input, the algorithm can be designed to incorporate such a regular expression.

Theorem 2.6. Let $L_{0}$ be any fixed regular set.

(2) If $L_{0}$ is infinite but bounded, then RINEQ( $L_{0}$ ) is NP-complete.
(3) If $L_{0}$ is unbounded, then RINEQ $\left(L_{0}\right)$ is CSL-complete.

Proof. There exist regular expressions $E$ and $F$ such that $L(E)=L_{0}$ and $L(F)=\overline{L_{0}}$. An algorithm for $\operatorname{RINEQ}\left(L_{0}\right)$ can begin by testing if $L(R) \subseteq L_{0}$. By Lemma 2.1(2), this can be decided deterministically in time bounded by a polynomial in $|R|$ by deciding if $L(R) \cap L(F)=\phi$. The remainder of the proof diverges for the three parts of the theorem.
(1) $L(R)$ contains $L_{\mathbf{0}}$ if and only if each of the finite number of strings in $L_{\mathbf{0}}$ is also in $L(R)$. From Lemma 2.1(4), membership in $L(R)$ of each of these strings can be tested in time polynomial in the input to the algorithm, $|R|$. Therefore, " $L(R) \subseteq L_{0}$ " and " $L(R) \supseteq L_{0}$ " can each be tested deterministically in time bounded by a polynomial in $|R|$.
(2) Assume the algorithm has determined that $L(R) \subseteq L_{0}$. Since $L_{0}$ is fixed, we may assume that strings $w_{1}, \ldots, w_{k}$ are known such that $L_{0} \subseteq w_{1} * \cdots \cdot w_{k}{ }^{*}$. From Lemma 2.1(3), $L_{0}$ is not a subset of $L(R)$ if and only if there exists a string in $L_{0} \cap \overline{L(R)}$ of length $\leqslant 2^{c|R|}$. Here $c$ is a constant that depends on $L_{0}$. Therefore $L_{0}$ is inequivalent to $L(R)$ if and only if there exist $k$ integers $i_{1}, \ldots, i_{k}$ each $\leqslant 2^{e|R|}$ such that the string $x=w_{1}^{i_{1}} \cdots \cdots w_{k_{k}}^{i_{k}}$ is in $L_{0} \cap \overline{L(R)}$. These $k$ integers can be represented as $k$ binary strings $\nu_{1}, \ldots, \nu_{k}$ each of length $\leqslant c|R|$. A nondeterministic polynomially time bounded algorithm can verify that $L_{0}$ is not a subset of $L(R)$ by working as follows.

Step 1 . The algorithm nondeterministically guesses $k$ binary strings $\nu_{1}, \ldots, \nu_{k}$ each of length $\leqslant c \cdot|R|$. These strings are to be interpreted as representing integers $i_{1}, \ldots, i_{k}$.

Step 2. The algorithm constructs an ndfa $M_{R}$ such that $L\left(M_{R}\right)=L(R)$. From Lemma 2.1(1), this can be done deterministically in time polynomial in $|R|$.

Step 3. Let $\delta$ be the transition function of $M_{R}$. For all positive integers $i$ and for $1 \leqslant j \leqslant k$, define a Boolean matrix $A_{w_{j}}^{i}$ whose element in row $m$ and column $n$ equals 1 if $q_{n}$ is in $\delta\left(q_{m}, w_{j}{ }^{i}\right)$, and equals 0 otherwise. Also, let $B$ be the Boolean matrix defined by the Boolean matrix product

$$
B=A_{w_{1}}^{i_{1}} \cdot A_{w_{g}}^{i_{2}} \cdot \cdots \cdot A_{w_{k}}^{i_{k}}
$$

so that the element in row $m$ and column $n$ of $B$ equals 1 if and only if $q_{n}$ is in $\delta\left(q_{m}, x\right)$. The algorithm calculates each of $A_{w_{1}}^{i_{1}}, A_{w_{2}}^{i_{2}}, \ldots, A_{w_{k}}^{2_{k}}$ by successive squaring. The algorithm then multiplies these matrices together to compute the matrix $B$. By inspection of $B$, the algorithm verifies that $x$ is not in $L(R)$.

Step 4. Let $N$ be some fixed ndfa such that $L(N)=L_{0}$. The algorithm verifies that $x$ is in $L_{0}$ by a method analogous to that used in Step 3.

The number of matrix multiplications in Steps 3 and 4 is $O\left(\left|\nu_{\mathbf{1}}\right|+\cdots+\left|\nu_{k}\right|\right) \leqslant$ $O(k \cdot c \cdot|R|)$. The dimensions of the matrices calculated in Step 3 equal the number of states of $M_{R}$. Both $k$ and the dimensions of the matrices calculated in Step 4 depend on $L_{0}$, and are independent of $R$. Therefore the algorithm operates in polynomial time, and so $\operatorname{RINEQ}\left(L_{0}\right)$ is in NP.

Now we show that $\operatorname{RINEQ}\left(L_{0}\right)$ is NP-hard. Since $L_{0}$ is infinite, from Lemma 2.1(5) there exist strings $u_{1}, u_{2}$, and $u_{3}$ in $\{0,1\}^{*}$ with $u_{2}$ nonnull such that $u_{1} \cdot u_{2}{ }^{*} \cdot u_{3} \subseteq L_{0}$. Let $h: 0^{*} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{*}$ be the lambda-free homomorphism defined by $h(0)=u_{2}$. By Lemma 2.1(7), for any regular expression $R$ over $\{0\}$, a regular expression $S$ over $\{0,1\}$ can be constructed deterministically in time bounded by a polynomial in $|R|$ such that

$$
L(S)=u_{1} \cdot h(L(R)) \cdot u_{3} \cup\left(L_{0}-u_{1} \cdot u_{2}^{*} \cdot u_{3}\right)
$$

But $L(S)=L_{0}$ if and only if $L(R)=0^{*}$. Therefore, from Proposition 2.2, $\operatorname{RINEQ}\left(L_{0}\right)$ is NP-hard.
(3) RINEQ $\left(L_{0}\right)$ is easily seen to be in CSL. The lba corresponding to Proposition 2.3 can be supplied as input $(R, E)$ where $E$ is a regular expression such that $L(E)=L_{0}$.

We now show that $\operatorname{RINEQ}\left(L_{0}\right)$ is CSL-hard. Since $L_{0}$ is unbounded, by Lemma 2.1(6) there exist strings $r, s, x$, and $y$ in $\{0,1\}^{*}$ such that $r \cdot\{0 x, 1 y\}^{*} \cdot s \subseteq L_{0}$. Let
$h:\{0,1\}^{*} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{*}$ be the lambda-free homomorphism defined by $h(0)=0 x$ and $h(1)=1 y$. By Lemma $2.1(7)$ there exists a log-lin transducer that given as input any regular expression $R$, produces as output a regular expression $S$ such that

$$
L(S)=r \cdot h(L(R)) \cdot s \cup\left(L_{0} \cap \overline{\left.r \cdot\{0 x, 1 y\}^{*} \cdot s\right)}\right.
$$

But $L(S)=L_{0}$ if and only if $L(R)=\{0,1\}^{*}$. Thus, by Proposition 2.4 and the transitivity of log-lin reducibility, $\operatorname{RINEQ}\left(L_{0}\right)$ is CSL-hard.

The proof in (2) above that $\operatorname{RINEQ}\left(L_{0}\right)$ is in NP is an extension of the proof in [30] that " $L(R) \neq 0 *$ " is in NP.

Next we consider the effect on the complexity of the regular expression equivalence problem of cofiniteness and fixed star height, two properties of the regular sets extensively studied in the literature (see [6, 22, 23]). We note that part (1) of the following theorem has been stated in $[15,30]$.

Theorem 2.7. (1) RINEQ-( $\cup, \cdot)$ is $N P$-complete.
(2) For all $k \geqslant 1$, RINEQ-(star height $k$ ) is CSL-complete.
(3) RINEQ-cofinite is CSL-hard.

Proof. (1) Cook [7] has shown that the set of nontautological $D_{3}$ Boolean forms, i.e., nontautological Boolean forms in disjunctive normal form with at most three literals per clause, is NP-complete. Let $f=c_{1} \vee c_{2} \vee \cdots \vee c_{m}$ be any arbitrary $D_{3}$-Boolean form. Then each clause $c_{i}$ is the Boolean product of at most three literals. Let the number of variables appearing in $f$ be $n$.

Without loss of generality, we assume that no variable occurs both complemented and uncomplemented in the same clause. For each $c_{i}$ let $\beta_{i}=\beta_{i 1} \cdot \beta_{i 2} \cdots \cdot \beta_{i n}$, where

$$
\begin{aligned}
\beta_{i j} & =(0 \cup 1), & & \text { if } \quad x_{j} \text { and } \bar{x}_{j} \text { are not literals in } c_{i}, \\
& =(0), & & \text { if } \quad \bar{x}_{j} \text { is a literal in } c_{i}, \\
& =(1), & & \text { if } \quad x_{j} \text { is a literal in } c_{i} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Let $\beta=\left(\beta_{1}\right) \cup\left(\beta_{2}\right) \cup \cdots \cup\left(\beta_{m}\right)$. Then $L(\beta)=\{0,1\}^{n}$ if and only if $f$ is a tautology. Clearly $\beta$ and a ( $\cup, \cdot)$-expression denoting $\{0,1\}^{n}$ can be constructed deterministically in time bounded by a polynomial in $|f|$. Thus, $\{(R, S) \mid R$ and $S$ are inequivalent ( $\cup, \cdot$ ) expressions\} is NP-hard. But this set is easily seen to be in NP.
(2) The regular expressions constructed in the proof of Proposition 2.4 are all of star height equal to 1 . For any $k \geqslant 1$ it is easy to modify $\hat{\beta}_{y}$ of the proof of Proposition 2.4 in such a way that the resulting regular expression has star height equal to $k$ and the language denoted by the resulting expression equals $L\left(\hat{\beta}_{y}\right)$.
(3) Every context-sensitive language is accepted by some lba $M$ such that for any input $y$ all computations of $M$ on $y$ terminate in time $\leqslant 2^{c|y|}$, where $c$ is a constant independent of $y$. Therefore, there are only a finite number of distinct sequences of moves of $M$ that result in the acceptance of $y$. Consequently, $L\left(\beta_{y}\right)$ of the proof of Proposition 2.4 is a cofinite set. $⿴$

Note that in the proof of Theorem 2.7(3), the regular expressions involved are known to denote cofinite sets. Thus, testing for inequivalence is hard even when one is told that the input regular expressions denote cofinite sets.

Next we consider the inequivalence problem when bounded languages are involved. Note the following simple relationship between star height and boundedness.

Proposition 2.8. The star height of any infinite but bounded regular set is equal to 1.
Proof. This result follows trivially from the result in [9] that every bounded regular set is a member of the smallest family of sets which contain all finite sets, all sets of the form $w^{*}$ ( $w$ a finite length string), and which is closed with respect to finite union and finite product.

We next use the following lemma, from [8], relating commutativity and boundedness for the regular sets.

Lemma 2.9. (1) A language $L$ is commutative if and only if there exists a word $w$ such that $L \subseteq w^{*}$.
(2) A language of the form $A^{*}$ is bounded if and only if $A$ is commutative.

Proof. For a proof of (1), see [8, p. 169]. Statement (2) follows from the fact in [8, p. 171] that, letting $u, v$ be strings over $\{0,1\}, u \cdot v \neq v \cdot u$ implies $\{u, v\}^{*}$ is not bounded. $\boxtimes$

Theorem 2.10. There exists a deterministic polynomially time bounded Tm $M$ such that $M$, when given a regular expression $R$ as input, determines if $L(R)$ is bounded and if so outputs strings $w_{1}, w_{2}, \ldots, w_{k}$ such that $L(R) \subseteq w_{1} * \cdot w_{2}^{*} \cdot \cdots \cdot w_{k}{ }^{*}$ and such that $\left|w_{1}\right|+\left|w_{2}\right|+\cdots+\left|w_{k}\right| \leqslant|R|$.

Proof. The proof is by induction on the depth $d$ of nesting of regular operators in the regular expression $R$. If $d=0$, then $L(R)=\phi, \lambda, 0$, or 1 ; and $L(R) \subseteq 0^{*}, 0^{*}$, $0^{*}$, or $1^{*}$, respectively. Assume that the theorem holds for all regular expressions of depth $\leqslant k$. Let $d=k+1$. Then $R=(A) \cup(B),(A) \cdot(B)$, or $(A)^{*}$.

Case 1. If $R=(A) \cup(B)$, then $L(R)$ is bounded if and only if both $L(A)$ and $L(B)$ are bounded. If $L(A) \subseteq x_{1} * \cdots \cdot x_{m}{ }^{*}$ and $L(B) \subseteq y_{1} * \cdots \cdot y_{n}{ }^{*}$ with

$$
\left|x_{1}\right|+\cdots+\left|x_{m}\right| \leqslant|A| \quad \text { and } \quad\left|y_{1}\right|+\cdots+\left|y_{n}\right| \leqslant|B|
$$

then $L(R) \subseteq x_{1}{ }^{*} \cdots \cdots x_{m}{ }^{*} \cdot y_{1}{ }^{*} \cdots \cdots \cdot y_{n}{ }^{*}$ and

$$
\left|x_{1}\right|+\cdots+\left|x_{m}\right|+\left|y_{1}\right|+\cdots+\left|y_{n}\right| \leqslant|R|
$$

Case 2. If $R=(A) \cdot(B)$, then $L(R)$ is bounded if and only if $L(A)$ is empty, $L(B)$ is empty, or both $L(A)$ and $L(B)$ are bounded. But the emptiness problem for regular expressions is trivially $p$-decidable. If neither $L(A)$ nor $L(B)$ is empty, then the proof is similar to that of Case 1.

Case 3. If $R=(A)^{*}$, by Lemma 2.9(2) $L(R)$ is bounded if and only if $L(A)$ is commutative. If $L(A)=\phi$ or $\lambda$, then $L(A)$ is trivially commutative. Otherwise a nonempty string $x$ in $L(A)$ can be found deterministically in time bounded by a polynomial in $|A|$ such that $|x| \leqslant|A|$. But by Lemma $2.9(1), L(A)$ is commutative if and only if there exists a string $w$ such that $L(A) \subseteq w^{*}$. But any such $w$ must have the property that $x=w^{n}$ for some nonnegative integer $n . M$ finds each of the prefixes $w$ of $x$, such that $x=w^{n}$ for some $n$. For each such $w, M$ tests whether $L(A) \cap \overline{w^{*}}=\phi$. From Lemma 2.1(2), this test can be done deterministically in time bounded by a polynomial in $|A|$. $\mathbb{X}$

We can now state our results on inequivalence of bounded languages.
Theorem 2.11. (1) RINEQ-(one bounded) is NP-complete.
(2) RINEQ-(both bounded) is NP-complete.
(3) RINEQ-(over 0) is NP-complete.

Proof. By Proposition 2.2, these languages are NP-hard. That they are in NP can be seen by combining Theorem 2.10 and the proof of Theorem 2.6(2). 区

We note that all of our results about equivalence apply equally to containment. For example, the following analogs of Theorems 2.6 and 2.11 hold.

Theorem 2.12. Let $L_{0}$ be any fixed regular set.
(a) If $L_{0}$ is finite, then $\left\{R \mid R\right.$ is a regular expression and $\left.L(R) \supseteq L_{0}\right\}$ is in $P$.
(b) If $L_{0}$ is infinite but bounded, then $\left\{R \mid R\right.$ is a regular expression and $\left.\neg\left[L(R) \supseteq L_{0}\right]\right\}$ is $N P$-complete.
(c) If $L_{0}$ is unbounded, then $\left\{R \mid R\right.$ is a regular expression and $\left.\neg\left[L(R) \supseteq L_{0}\right]\right\}$ is CSL-complete.

Theorem 2.13. $\{(R, S) \mid R$ and $S$ are regular expressions, at least one of $L(R)$ and $L(S)$ is bounded, and $\neg[L(R) \supseteq L(S)]\}$ is $N P$-complete.

The proofs are almost identical to those of Theorems 2.6 and 2.11 and are left to the reader.

The results in this section and [16] suggest that the reason there has been little success in finding "canonical" forms for arbitrary regular expressions may be due to the difficulty of testing for equivalence. Moreover, our results here and in [16] show that the equivalence problem for most of the subclasses of the regular sets or regular expressions studied in the literature are as hard as the equivalence problem for arbitrary regular expressions. However, the equivalence problem may be simpler for unambiguous regular expressions, i.e., regular expressions for which every string in the denoted language is described by the regular expression in only one way (see [5]). We note that all of the proofs in this section involve highly ambiguous regular expressions. Moreover, we are unable to show anything about the complexity of the equivalence problem for unambiguous regular expressions. We feel that the unambiguous regular expressions are a reasonable candidate for a nontrivial subclass of the regular expressions with a deterministic polynomially time bounded equivalence problem.

Open Problem 1. Is the equivalence problem for the unambiguous regular expressions in $P$, NP-complete, etc.?

## 3. Context-Free Language Equivalence

In this section, we concentrate on the complexity of testing a cfg to determine if it generates some fixed cfl. For any fixed cf $L_{0}$ we define

$$
\operatorname{GINEQ}\left(L_{0}\right)=\left\{G \mid G \text { is a cfg and } L(G) \neq L_{0}\right\}
$$

Also, for any fixed linear cfl $L_{0}$, we define

$$
\operatorname{LGINEQ}\left(L_{0}\right)=\left\{G \mid G \text { is a linear cfg and } L(G) \neq L_{0}\right\}
$$

The main result of this section is that:
(1) If $L_{0}$ is finite, then $\operatorname{GINEQ}\left(L_{0}\right)$ is in $P$.
(2) If $L_{0}$ is infinite, then $\operatorname{GINEQ}\left(L_{0}\right)$ is NP-hard.
(3) If $L_{0}$ is unbounded, then $\operatorname{GINEQ}\left(L_{0}\right)$ is PSPACE-hard.
(4) If $L_{0}$ contains an unbounded regular subset, then $\operatorname{GINEQ}\left(L_{0}\right)$ is not recursive.

This result is analogous to Theorem 2.6, except that (2) and (3) above give only lower bounds on complexity. Obtaining upper bounds is an open problem.

Identical results hold for $\operatorname{LGINEQ}\left(L_{0}\right)$. Moreover, for the linear cfg's, these lower bounds are "tight" in the sense that they are exact for certain fixed languages. For
the infinite but bounded linear language $0^{*}$, LGINEQ( $0^{*}$ ) is in NP. For the unbounded linear language $L=\left\{w \# w^{\mathrm{rev}} \mid w\right.$ in $\left.\{0,1\}^{*}\right\}$, LGINEQ $(L)$ is in PSPACE.

We also show that if a cfg $L_{0}$ contains an infinite regular subset, then $\operatorname{GINEQ}\left(L_{0}\right)$ is as hard as GINEQ( $0^{*}$ ).

We now explicitly state some well-known facts about cfg's. We assume in this section that the grammars involved have some finite nonnull terminal set $\Sigma$.

Lemma 3.1. (1) Given an arbitrary regular expression $R$, a right-linear $\operatorname{cfg} G$ can be found deterministically in time bounded by a polynomial in $|R|$ such that $L(G)=L(R)[2]$.
(2) Given an arbitrary $\mathrm{cfg} G$ and an arbitrary $\mathrm{ndfa} M, a \mathrm{cfg} G^{\prime}$ can be found deterministically in time bounded by a polynomial in $|G|+|M|$ such that $L\left(G^{\prime}\right)=$ $L(G) \cap L(M)$. Furthermore, if $G$ is linear, then so is $G^{\prime}$.
(3) There exists a deterministic polynomially time bounded Tm that decides whether an arbitrary cfg generates the empty set [2].
(4) There exists a deterministic polynomially time bounded Tm that, given an arbitrary $\operatorname{cfg} G$ and an arbitrary string $w$, decides if $w$ is in $L(G)$.
(5) Let $\Sigma$ and $\Delta$ be nonempty finite alphabets, and let $h: \Sigma^{*} \rightarrow \Delta^{*}$ be a homomorphism. Then there exists a log-lin transducer that given as input a $\mathrm{cfg} G$ with terminal set $\Sigma$, outputs a $\mathrm{cfg} G^{\prime}$ with terminal set $\Delta$ such that $L\left(G^{\prime}\right)=h(L(G))$.
(6) Given an arbitrary $\operatorname{cfg} G$, an equivalent reduced $\operatorname{cfg} G^{\prime}$ can be found deterministically in time bounded by a polynomial in $G$. Furthermore, if $G$ is linear, then so is $G^{\prime}$ [2].
(7) Let $G$ be a $\operatorname{cfg}$ for which $L(G)$ is infinite. Then there exist strings $u, v, w, x, y$ in $\Sigma^{*}$ with $v \cdot x$ nonnull, such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\{u \cdot v^{i} \cdot w \cdot x^{i} \cdot y \mid i \geqslant 0\right\} \subseteq L(G) \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

(8) $\operatorname{GINEQ}\left(\{0,1\}^{*}\right)$ and $\operatorname{LGINEQ}\left(\{0,1\}^{*}\right)$ are both not recursive.
(9) Let $G$ be a reduced cfg with $L(G) \neq \phi$. Then $L(G)$ is bounded if and only if for all nonterminals $A$ of $G$, both $L_{A}(G)=\{u \mid A \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} u A v\}$ and $R_{A}(G)=\{v \mid A \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} u A v\}$ are commutative [8].

Proof. (2) In polynomial time, modify $G$ so that the maximum length of the right-hand side of any production is 2 . Then obtain $G^{\prime}$ by using the method of [8, p. 88], with the extension that for each production $A \rightarrow \lambda$ in $G$ and each state $p$ in $M, G^{\prime}$ has the production

$$
(p, A, p) \rightarrow \lambda .
$$

(4) If $w=\lambda$, check if $w$ is in $L(G)$ by testing for emptiness the grammar obtained from $G$ by deleting all productions with a terminal in the right-hand side.

If $w \neq \lambda$, then modify $G$ to eliminate lambda-productions, as follows. Let $G=$ ( $N, \Sigma, P, S$ ). Find the set $N_{\lambda}$ of nonterminals whose generated languages contain $\lambda$. Consider the production

$$
A \rightarrow \alpha_{0} B_{1} \alpha_{1} B_{2} \cdots B_{k} \alpha_{k}, \quad k \geqslant 0
$$

where each $B_{i}$ is in $N_{\lambda}$ and each $\alpha_{i}$ is in $\left(\left(N-N_{\lambda}\right) \cup \Sigma\right)^{*}$. For this production, new nonterminals $X_{1}, X_{2}, \ldots, X_{k}$ are introduced and the production is replaced by the set of productions

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
A \rightarrow \alpha_{0} \alpha_{1} \cdots \alpha_{k} & \text { if } \quad \alpha_{0} \alpha_{1} \cdots \alpha_{k} \neq \lambda, \\
A \rightarrow \alpha_{0} X_{1}, & \\
X_{i} \rightarrow \alpha_{i} X_{i+1}, & 1 \leqslant i<k \\
X_{i} \rightarrow B_{i} \alpha_{i} X_{i+1}, & 1 \leqslant i<k \\
X_{i} \rightarrow B_{i} \alpha_{i} \alpha_{i+1} \cdots \alpha_{k} & 1 \leqslant i \leqslant k
\end{array}
$$

We note that a polynomial time procedure for eliminating lambda-productions has been independently obtained by Yehudai [31].

The grammar is then converted to Chomsky normal form by the methods of [2], and membership of $w$ in the language generated by the grammar is determined by the Cocke-Younger-Kasami algorithm [2].
(5) Let $G^{\prime}$ be the cfg that results from replacing each occurrence in $G$ of each symbol $a$ in $\Sigma$ with $h(a)$.
(8) $\operatorname{GINEQ}\left(\{0,1\}^{*}\right)$ is shown not to be recursive in [13]. The languages involved in that proof are all linear, and so the same construction also proves that $\operatorname{LGINEQ}\left(\{0,1\}^{*}\right)$ is not recursive.

We now prove a series of technical lemmas. We begin with a cfl analog of Lemma 2.1(6). A result closely related to Proposition 3.2 appears in [12].

Proposition 3.2. $A$ cfl $L$ is unbounded if and only if there exist strings $z, x$, and $y$ in $\Sigma^{*}$ and distinct $a, b$ in $\Sigma$ such that every string in $w \cdot\{a x, b y\}^{*}$ is a prefix of some string in $L$, or every string in $\{x a, y b\}^{*} \cdot w$ is a suffix of some string in $L$.

Proof. Only if: Assume $L$ is unbounded. From Lemma 3.1(9), for some reduced cfg $G$ with start symbol $S$ generating $L$, there is a nonterminal $A$ such that $L_{A}(G)=$ $\{u \mid A \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} u A v\}$ or $R_{A}(G)=\{v \mid A \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} u A v\}$ is noncommutative. Assume $L_{A}(G)$ is noncommutative. Then there exist strings $u_{1}, u_{2}$ in $L_{A}(G)$ such that $u_{1} \cdot u_{2} \neq u_{2} \cdot u_{1}$. By Lemma 2.9(2), $\left\{u_{1}, u_{2}\right\}^{*}$ is an unbounded regular set. Thus by Lemma 2.1(6) there exist strings $r, s, x$, and $y$ in $\Sigma^{*}$ and distinct $a, b$ in $\Sigma$ such that $r \cdot\{a x, b y\}^{*} \cdot s \subseteq$ $\left\{u_{1}, u_{2}\right\}^{*} \subseteq L_{A}(G)$. Since $G$ is reduced, there exist strings $z_{1}, z_{2}$ in $\Sigma^{*}$ such that
$S \xrightarrow{*} z_{1} A z_{2}$. Let $w=z_{1} \cdot r$. Then every string in $w \cdot\{a x, b y\}^{*}$ is a prefix of some string in $L$. If $R_{A}(G)$ is noncommutative, the proof is similar.

If: This follows from an application of the proof in [8, pp. 142-143] that if $\Sigma$ contains at least two elements, then $\Sigma^{*}$ is unbounded. $⿴$

Definition 3.3. A cfl $L_{0}$ is said to be deciperable if and only if for all strings $u, v, w, x$ and $y$ in $\Sigma^{*}$ such that $v \cdot x \neq \lambda$ and such that $\left\{u \cdot v^{i} \cdot w \cdot x^{i} \cdot y \mid i \geqslant 0\right\} \subseteq L_{0}$,

$$
u \cdot v^{i} \cdot w \cdot x^{i} \cdot y=u \cdot v^{j} \cdot w \cdot x^{k} \cdot y \quad \text { implies } \quad i=j=k
$$

for all integers $i, j, k \geqslant 0$.
We now prove several lemmas, culminating in the result that every infinite cfl either has an infinite regular subset, or is decipherable.

Lemma 3.4. Consider $x, y, z$ in $\Sigma^{*}$ with $x$ nonnull. If $x \cdot y=y \cdot z$, then there exist strings $r, \sin \Sigma^{*}$ and integer $p \geqslant 0$ such that $x=r \cdot s, z=s \cdot r$, and $y=(r \cdot s)^{p} \cdot r$.

Proof. The proof is by induction on the length of $|x \cdot y|$. If $|x \cdot y|=1$, then since $x$ is nonnull, $x=z$ and $y=\lambda$. Let $r=\lambda, s=x$, and $p=0$.

Let $|x \cdot y|=k>1$ and assume that the lemma holds for all strings $x^{\prime}, y^{\prime}, z^{\prime}$ in $\Sigma^{*}$ with $x^{\prime} \cdot y^{\prime}=y^{\prime} \cdot z^{\prime}$ and $\left|x^{\prime} \cdot y^{\prime}\right|<k$.

Case 1. If $|x|=|y|$, then $x=y=z$. Let $r=x, s=\lambda$, and $p=0$.
Case 2. If $|x|>|y|$, then $x=y \cdot d$ for some $d$ in $\Sigma^{+}$. But $x \cdot y=y \cdot z$ implies $y \cdot d \cdot y=y \cdot z$, which implies $z=d \cdot y$. Let $r=y, s=d$, and $p=0$.

Case 3. If $|x|<|y|$, then $y=x \cdot d$ for some string $d$ in $\Sigma^{+}$. But $x \cdot y=y \cdot z$ implies $x \cdot x \cdot d=x \cdot d \cdot z$, which implies $x \cdot d=d \cdot z$. Since $x$ is nonnull by assumption, $|x \cdot d|<|x \cdot y|$. Thus by the inductive hypothesis, there exist strings $r, s$ in $\Sigma^{*}$ and integer $p^{\prime} \geqslant 0$ such that $x=r \cdot s, z=s \cdot r$, and $d=(r \cdot s)^{p^{\prime}} \cdot r$. Let $y=(r \cdot s)^{p^{\prime}+1} \cdot r$. 区

Lemma 3.5. Consider $u, v, w, x, y$ in $\Sigma^{*}$ with both $v$ and $x$ nonnull. If there exist integers $i, j, k \geqslant 0$ such that $u \cdot v^{i} \cdot w \cdot x^{i} \cdot y=u \cdot v^{j} \cdot w \cdot x^{k} \cdot y$ with $i \neq j$ or $i \neq k$, then there exist strings $r$, $\sin \Sigma^{*}$ and integers $m, n, p \geqslant 0$ such that $v^{m}=r \cdot s, x^{n}=s \cdot r$, and $w=(r \cdot s)^{p} \cdot r$.

Proof. Assume $u \cdot z^{i} \cdot w \cdot x^{i} \cdot y=u \cdot v^{j} \cdot w \cdot x^{k} \cdot y$. Then $v^{i} \cdot w \cdot x^{i}=w^{j} \cdot w \cdot x^{k}$. Since both $v$ and $x$ are nonnull, $i \neq j$ if and only if $i \neq k$.

Case 1. If $i>j$, then $i=j+m$ with $m>0$. Then $k>i$. Thus $k=i+n$ with $n>0$. Thus $v^{j+m} \cdot w \cdot x^{i}=v^{i} \cdot w \cdot x^{i+n}$ implies $v^{m} \cdot w=w \cdot x^{n}$, and the conclusion follows from Lemma 3.4.

Case 2．If $j>i$ ，then $j=i+m$ with $m>0$ and $k<i$ ．Thus $i=k+n$ with $n>0$ ．Thus $v^{i} \cdot w \cdot x^{k+n}=v^{i+m} \cdot w \cdot x^{k}$ implies $v^{m} \cdot w=w \cdot x^{n}$ ，and the conclusion follows from Lemma 3．4．区

Lemma 3．6．Consider $u, v, w, x, y$ in $\Sigma^{*}$ with both $v$ and $x$ nonnull．If there exist integers $i, j, k \geqslant 0$ such that $u \cdot v^{i} \cdot w \cdot x^{i} \cdot y=u \cdot v^{j} \cdot w \cdot x^{k} \cdot y$ with $i \neq j$ or $i \neq k$ ， then $\left\{u \cdot v^{l} \cdot w \cdot x^{l} \cdot y \mid l \geqslant 0\right\}$ is regular．

Proof．Suppose there exist integers $i, j, k>0$ such that $u \cdot v^{i} \cdot w \cdot x^{i} \cdot y=$ $u \cdot w^{j} \cdot w \cdot x^{k} \cdot y$ with $i \neq j$ or $i \neq k$ ．From Lemma 3.5 there exist integers $m, n, p \geqslant 0$ and strings $r, s$ in $\Sigma^{*}$ such that $v^{m}=r \cdot s, x^{n}=s \cdot r$ ，and $w=(r \cdot s)^{p} \cdot r$ ．Thus，

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left\{u \cdot v^{l} \cdot w \cdot x^{l} \cdot y \mid l \geqslant 0\right\} & =\bigcup_{0 \leqslant a<m n}\left\{u \cdot v^{a+b \cdot m n} \cdot w \cdot x^{a+b \cdot m n} \cdot y \mid b \geqslant 0\right\} \\
& =\bigcup_{0 \leqslant a<m n}\left\{u \cdot v^{a} \cdot(r \cdot s)^{b n} \cdot(r \cdot s)^{p} \cdot r \cdot(s \cdot r)^{b m} \cdot x^{a} \cdot y \mid b \geqslant 0\right\} \\
& =\bigcup_{0 \leqslant a<m n}\left\{u \cdot v^{a} \cdot(r \cdot s)^{p} \cdot\left((r \cdot s)^{m+n}\right)^{b} \cdot r \cdot x^{a} \cdot y \mid b \geqslant 0\right\} \\
& =\bigcup_{0 \leqslant a<m n} u \cdot v^{a} \cdot(r \cdot s)^{p} \cdot\left((r \cdot s)^{m+n}\right)^{*} \cdot r \cdot x^{a} \cdot y,
\end{aligned}
$$

which is a finite union of regular sets and hence is regular．区
Theorem 3．7．Let $L$ be any infinite cfl．Then either $L$ has an infinite regular subset， or $L$ is decipherable．

Proof．Suppose $L$ is not decipherable．Then there exist strings $u, v, w, x$ and $y$ in $\Sigma^{*}$ with $v \cdot x \neq \lambda$ such that $\left\{u \cdot v^{l} \cdot w \cdot x^{l} \cdot y \mid l \geqslant 0\right\} \subseteq L_{0}$ ，and there exist integers $i, j, k \geqslant 0$ such that $u \cdot v^{i} \cdot w \cdot x^{i} \cdot y=u \cdot v^{j} \cdot w \cdot x^{k} \cdot y$ with $i \neq j$ or $j \neq k$ ．If either $v=\lambda$ or $x=\lambda$ ，then $\left\{u \cdot v^{l} \cdot w \cdot x^{l} \cdot y \mid l \geqslant 0\right\}$ is an infinite regular set and $L$ has an infinite regular subset．If both $v$ and $x$ are nonnull，then by Lemma 3．6， $\left\{u \cdot v^{l} \cdot w \cdot x^{l} \cdot y \mid l \geqslant 0\right\}$ is an infinite regular set and $L$ has an infinite regular subset．区

We now prove a result on the complexity of $\operatorname{GINEQ}\left(L_{0}\right)$ ．
Theorem 3．8．Let $L_{0}$ be any efl that contains an infinite regular subset．Then GINEQ（0＊）is polynomially reducible to GINEQ（ $\left.L_{0}\right)$ ．

Proof．Since $L_{0}$ has an infinite regular subset，there exist strings $w_{1}, w_{2}$ ，and $w_{3}$ in $\Sigma^{*}$ with $w_{2}$ nonnull such that $w_{1} \cdot w_{2}{ }^{*} \cdot w_{3} \subseteq L_{0}$ ．Thus，$L_{0}$ is the disjoint union of $w_{1} \cdot w_{2}^{*} \cdot w_{3}$ and $L_{1}=L_{0} \cap\left(\Sigma^{*}-w_{1} \cdot w_{2}{ }^{*} \cdot w_{3}\right)$ ．Let $h: 0^{*} \rightarrow \Sigma^{*}$ be the lambda－
free homomorphism defined by $h(0)=w_{2}$. Since $w_{1}, w_{2}$, and $w_{3}$ are fixed strings and $L_{1}$ is a fixed cfl, by Lemma 3.1(5) given any cfg $G$, a cfg $G^{\prime}$ can be found deterministically in time bounded by a polynomial in $|G|$ such that

$$
L\left(G^{\prime}\right)=w_{1} \cdot h(L(G)) \cdot w_{3} \cup L_{1}
$$

But $L\left(G^{\prime}\right)=L_{0}$ if and only if $L(G)=0^{*}$. $\boxtimes$
It follows immediately from Proposition 2.2 and Lemma 3.1(1) that GINEQ(0*) is NP-hard. However, we do not know if it is an element of either NP or PSPACE. If GINEQ $\left(0^{*}\right)$ is a member of neither of these classes, then by Theorem 3.8, neither is $\operatorname{GINEQ}\left(L_{0}\right)$ whenever $L_{0}$ has an infinite regular subset. The proof in [8] that every cfl contained in $0^{*}$ is regular implies that $\operatorname{GINEQ}\left(0^{*}\right)$ is decidable, but does not directly address its complexity.

Open Problem 2. Is GINEQ( $0^{*}$ ) an element of either NP or PSPACE?
We now prove the main result of this section.
Theorem 3.9. Let $L_{0}$ be an arbitrary cfl .
(1) If $L_{0}$ is finite, then $G I N E Q\left(L_{0}\right)$ is in $P$.
(2) If $L_{0}$ is infinite, then $\operatorname{GINEQ}\left(L_{0}\right)$ is NP-hard.
(3) If $L_{0}$ is unbounded, then GINEQ $\left(L_{0}\right)$ is PSPACE-hard.
(4) If $L_{0}$ contains an unbounded regular subset, then $G I N E Q\left(L_{0}\right)$ is not recursive.

Proof. Throughout the proof the reader is reminded that $L_{0}$ is considered to be a fixed cfl. (1) There exists an ndfa $M$ such that $L(M)=\overline{L_{0}}$. If $L(G) \cap L(M)$ is not empty, then $L(G) \neq L_{0}$. By Lemma 3.1(2) and (3), this can be determined deterministically in time bounded by a polynomial in $|G|$. If $L(G) \cap L(M)=\phi$, then $L(G) \subseteq L_{0}$. Thus, to verify that $L(G)=L_{0}$ it suffices to check that all strings $w$ in $L_{0}$ are also elements of $L(G)$. Since there are only a finite number of such strings, Lemma 3.1(4) implies that this can be accomplished deterministically in time bounded by a polynomial in $|\boldsymbol{G}|$.
(2) If $L_{0}$ has an infinite regular subset, then Theorem 3.8, Lemma 3.1(1) and Proposition 2.2 imply that $\operatorname{GINEQ}\left(L_{0}\right)$ is NP-hard. If $L_{0}$ has no infinite regular subsets, then by Proposition 3.7 it is decipherable. Since $L_{0}$ is an infinite cff, from Lemma 3.1(7) there exist strings $u, v, w, x, y$ in $\Sigma^{*}$ with $v \cdot x$ nonnull, such that $\left\{u \cdot z^{i} \cdot w \cdot x^{i} \cdot y \mid i \geqslant 0\right\} \subseteq L_{0}$. Since $L_{0}$ contains no infinite regular subsets, both $v$ and $x$ are nonnull.

Let $h: 0^{*} \rightarrow \Sigma^{*}$ be the lambda-free homomorphism defined by $h(0)=v$. For any regular expression $R$ over $\{0\}$, by Lemma $2.1(1)$ and (7), a ndfa accepting the language $u \cdot h(L(R)) \cdot w \cdot x^{*} \cdot y$ can be found deterministically in time bounded
by a polynomial in $|R|$. Therefore, from Lemma 3.1(2), a cfg $G$ can be found deterministically in time bounded by a polynomial in $|R|$, such that

$$
L(G)=\left(u \cdot h(L(R)) \cdot w \cdot x^{*} \cdot y \cap L_{0}\right) \cup\left(L_{0} \cap\left(\Sigma^{*}-u \cdot v^{*} \cdot w^{*} \cdot x^{*} \cdot y\right)\right)
$$

We now show that $L(G)=L_{0}$ if and only if $L(R)=0^{*}$.
If $L(R)=0^{*}$, then $h(L(R))=v^{*}$ and $L(G)$ clearly equals $L_{0}$. If $L(R) \subsetneq 0^{*}$, then there exists a nonnegative integer $i$ such that $0^{i}$ is not in $L(R)$. Let $z=u \cdot v^{i} \cdot w \cdot x^{i} \cdot y$ and suppose $z$ is in $L(G)$. Then since $z$ is clearly not an element of

$$
L_{0} \cap\left(\Sigma^{*}-u \cdot v^{*} \cdot w \cdot x^{*} \cdot y\right)
$$

$z$ is in $u \cdot h(L(R)) \cdot w \cdot x^{*} \cdot y$. Thus there exist nonnegative integers $j$ and $k$ with $i \neq j$ such that $z=u \cdot v^{i} \cdot w \cdot x^{i} \cdot y=u \cdot v^{j} \cdot w \cdot x^{k} \cdot y$. But this contradicts the decipherability of $L_{0}$. Thus $z$ is not in $L(G)$ and $L(G) \neq L_{0}$. Therefore, RINEQ $\{R \mid R$ is a regular expression over 0 and $\left.L(G) \neq 0^{*}\right\}$ is polynomially reducible to $\operatorname{GINEQ}\left(L_{0}\right)$. From Proposition 2.2, $\operatorname{GINEQ}\left(L_{0}\right)$ is therefore NP-hard.
(3) By Proposition 3.2, we assume there exist strings $w, r, s$ in $\Sigma^{*}$ and distinct $a, b$ in $\Sigma$ such that every string in $w \cdot\{a x, b y\}^{*}$ is a prefix of some string in $L_{0}$. An analogous proof holds for the suffix case. Let $h:\{0,1\}^{*} \rightarrow \Sigma^{*}$ be the lambda-free homomorphism defined by $h(0)=a x a x$ and $h(1)=a x b y$. By Lemma 2.1(1) and (7) and Lemma 3.1(2), for every regular expression $R$, a cfg $G$ can be found deterministically in time bounded by a polynomial in $|R|$ such that
$L(G)=\left(w \cdot h(L(R)) \cdot\right.$ byax $\left.\cdot \Sigma^{*} \cap L_{0}\right) \cup\left(L_{0} \cap\left(\Sigma^{*}-w \cdot\{a x a x, \text { axby }\}^{*} \cdot\right.\right.$ byax $\left.\left.\cdot \Sigma^{*}\right)\right)$.
We now show that $L(G)=L_{0}$ if and only if $L(R)=\{0,1\}^{*}$.
If $L(R)=\{0,1\}^{*}$, then $h(L(R))=\{a x a x, a x b y\}^{*}$ and $L(G)$ clearly equals $L_{0}$. If $L(R) \subsetneq\{0,1\}^{*}$, then there exists $z$ in $\{0,1\}^{*}-L(R)$. Suppose $w \cdot h(z) \cdot$ byax is a prefix of some string in $L(G)$. Then there exists a string $v$ in $\Sigma^{*}$ such that $w \cdot h(z) \cdot$ byax $\cdot v$ is in $L(G)$. Since $w \cdot h(z) \cdot$ byax $\cdot v$ is not in

$$
L_{0} \cap\left(\Sigma^{*}-w \cdot\{a x a x, a x b y\}^{*} \cdot b y a x \cdot \Sigma^{*}\right),
$$

$w \cdot h(z) \cdot$ byax $\cdot v$ is in

$$
w \cdot h(L(R)) \cdot \text { byax } \cdot \Sigma^{*} \cap L_{0} .
$$

But this implies $h(z)$ is in $h(L(R)$ ), which implies $z$ is in $L(R)$. Thus $w \cdot h(z) \cdot$ byax is not a prefix of any string in $L(G)$; and $L(G) \neq L_{0}$. Therefore, RINEQ $\left(\{0,1\}^{*}\right)$ is polynomially reducible to $\operatorname{GINEQ}\left(L_{0}\right)$. Hence from Proposition 2.4, $\operatorname{GINEQ}\left(L_{0}\right)$ is PSPACE-hard.
(4) Since $L_{0}$ contains an unbounded regular subset, by Lemma 2.1(6) there exist strings $r, s, x$, and $y$ in $\Sigma^{*}$ and distinct $a, b$ in $\Sigma$ such that $r \cdot\{a x, b y\}^{*} \cdot s \subseteq L_{0}$. Thus $L_{0}$ can be expressed as the disjoint union

$$
L_{0}=r \cdot\{a x, b y\}^{*} \cdot s \cup\left(L_{0} \cap\left(\Sigma^{*}-r \cdot\{a x, b y\}^{*} \cdot s\right)\right)
$$

Let $h:\{0,1\}^{*} \rightarrow \Sigma^{*}$ be the lambda-free homomorphism defined by $h(0)=a x$ and $h(1)=b y$. By Lemma 3.1(5) and (2), given any cfg $G$ with terminal alphabet $\{0,1\}$, a $\operatorname{cfg} G^{\prime}$ can be found effectively such that

$$
L\left(G^{\prime}\right)=r \cdot h(L(G)) \cdot s \cup\left(L_{0} \cap\left(\Sigma^{*}-r \cdot\{a x, b y\}^{*} \cdot s\right)\right) .
$$

But $L\left(G^{\prime}\right)=L_{0}$ if and only if $L(G)=\{0,1\}^{*}$, which from Lemma 3.1(8) is undecidable. $\boxtimes$

Theorem 3.9(4) extends Hopcroft's result in [12] that GINEQ $\left(L_{0}\right)$ is undecidable if $L_{0}$ is any unbounded regular set. We also note the result [8] that it is decidable to test equivalence of a pair of cfg's when one of them generates a bounded language.

The proofs of Theorems 3.8 and 3.9 go through for several proper subclasses of the cfl's as well. These subclasses include the linear cfl's, the metalinear cfl's [8], and the languages accepted by nondeterministic 1 -reversal bounded 1 -counter machines (see [3]). In particular, the following two theorems have proofs identical to those of Theorems 3.8 and 3.9.

Theorem 3.10. Let $L_{0}$ be any linear cfl that contains an infinite regular subset. Then LGINEQ(0*) is polynomially reducible to $L G I N E Q\left(L_{0}\right)$.

Theorem 3.11. Let $L_{0}$ be an arbitrary linear cf .
(1) If $L_{0}$ is finite, then $L \operatorname{GINEQ}\left(L_{0}\right)$ is in $P$.
(2) If $L_{0}$ is infinite, then $L G I N E Q\left(L_{0}\right)$ is NP-hard.
(3) If $L_{0}$ is unbounded, then LGINEQ $\left(L_{0}\right)$ is PSPACE-hard.
(4) If $L_{0}$ contains an unbounded regular subset, then LGINEQ( $\left.L_{0}\right)$ is undecidable.

Moreover, for linear cfl's the "lower bounds" in Theorem 3.11 are "tight" as discussed above.

Proposition 3.12. LGINEQ(0*) is in NP.
Proof. For a linear cfg $G$ with terminal alphabet $\{0\}$, an equivalent right-linear $\mathrm{cfg} G^{\prime}$ can be found by replacing every production $A \rightarrow u B v$ of $G$, where $A$ and $B$ are nonterminals, by $A \rightarrow u \cdot v B$. Moreover, given any right-linear grammar $G$, a ndfa $M$ such that $L(M)=L(G)$ can be found deterministically in time bounded
by a polynomial in $|G|$. But $L(M) \neq 0^{*}$ can be verified nondeterministically in time bounded by a polynomial in $|M|$ as in the proof of Theorem 2.6(2). 区

Hopcroft [12] has presented an algorithm for deciding GINEQ(\{w \# wrev $\mid w$ in $\left.\{0,1\}^{*}\right\}$ ) for arbitrary cfg's $G$. This algorithm can be modified to show that $\operatorname{GINEQ}\left(L_{0}\right)$ is decidable for a variety of different unbounded cfl's $L_{0}$. We do not know if any equivalent algorithm is executable by some polynomially space-bounded Tm. However, such a polynomially space-bounded algorithm does exist for the linear cfg's.

Proposition 3.13. Let $L_{0}=\left\{w \# w \mid w\right.$ in $\left.\{0,1\}^{*}\right\}$. Then $\operatorname{LGINEQ}\left(L_{0}\right)$ is in PSPACE.

Proof. The polynomially space-bounded algorithm that tests a given linear $\operatorname{cfg} G=\left(N_{1}, \Sigma, P_{1}, S\right)$ for membership in $\operatorname{LGINEQ}\left(L_{0}\right)$ is presented below.

Step 1. Determine whether $\lambda$ is in $L(G)$. If so, $G$ is in $\operatorname{LGINEQ}\left(L_{0}\right)$ and the algorithm halts.

Step 2. Verify that $L(G)$ is infinite. If not, $G$ is in $\operatorname{LGINEQ}\left(L_{0}\right)$.
Step 3. Rewrite $G$ if necessary so that it is reduced, has no lambda-productions, and has no production whose right side is a single nonterminal. Call the resulting linear cfg $G_{2}=\left(N_{2}, \Sigma, P_{2}, S\right)$.

Step 4. Verify that $L\left(G_{2}\right) \cap\left(\Sigma^{*}-\{0,1\}^{*} \cdot \# \cdot\{0,1\}^{*}\right)$ is empty. Otherwise $G$ is in $\operatorname{LGINEQ}\left(L_{0}\right)$.

Comment. If $L(G)=L_{0}$, then for each $A$ in $N_{2}$, either $L(A) \subseteq\{0,1\}^{*} \cdot \# \cdot\{0,1\}^{*}$ or $L(A)$ equals a unique terminal string.

Step 5. For each $A$ in $N_{2}$ verify that $L(A) \subseteq\{0,1\}^{*} \cdot \# \cdot\{0,1\}^{*}$ or that $|L(A)|=1$. Otherwise $G$ is in LGINEQ $\left(L_{0}\right)$.

Step 6. For each $A$ in $N_{2}$ such that $|L(A)|=1$, substitute the unique terminal string in $L(A)$ for every occurrence of $A$ in the right side of a production of $G_{2}$. From $G_{2}$, delete $A$ and every production whose left side is $A$. Call the resulting linear $\mathrm{cfg} G_{3}$.

Comment. $\quad G_{3}=\left(N_{3}, \Sigma, P_{3}, S\right)$ and each production of $G_{3}$ has the form $A \rightarrow t$ or $A \rightarrow t_{1} B t_{2}$, with $A, B$ in $N_{3}, t$ in $\{0,1\}^{*} \cdot \# \cdot\{0,1\}^{*}$, and $t_{1}, t_{2}$ in $\{0,1\}^{*}$.

Step 7. For each $A$ in $N_{3}$ find a string in $L(A)$ and call this string $X_{A}$. If $L\left(G_{3}\right)=$ $L_{0}$, then $X_{A}$ must be of the form $u \# u^{\mathrm{rev}} \boldsymbol{v}^{\mathrm{rev}}$ or $v u \# u^{\mathrm{rev}}$, for $u, v$ in $\{0,1\}^{*}$. Verify that each $X_{A}$ has one of the two above forms. Otherwise $G$ is in $\operatorname{LGINEQ}\left(L_{0}\right)$.

Comment. If $X_{A}=u \# u^{\mathrm{rev}_{q}}{ }^{\mathrm{rev}}$ and $L\left(G_{3}\right)=L_{0}$, then $A$ can only appear in sentential forms of form $z v A z^{\mathrm{rev}}$. Similarly if $X_{A}=v u \# u^{\mathrm{rev}}$ and $L\left(G_{3}\right)=L_{0}$, then $A$ can only appear in sentential forms of form $z A v^{\mathrm{rev}} z^{\mathrm{rev}}$.

Step 8. For each production $A \rightarrow t$ such that $X_{A}=u \# u^{r e v} v_{v}$ rev, verify that $t=w \# w^{\text {rev }}{ }^{\mathrm{rev}}$, for some $w$ in $\{0,1\}^{*}$; and for each production $A \rightarrow t$ such that $X_{A}=v u \# u^{\mathrm{rev}}$, verify that $t=v w^{2} w^{\mathrm{rev}}$, for some $w$ in $\{0,1\}^{*}$. Otherwise $G$ is in LGINEQ $\left(L_{0}\right)$.

Step 9. For each production $A \rightarrow t_{1} B t_{2}$ such that $X_{A}=u \# u^{\text {rev }} v^{\text {rev }}$, verify that $t_{1} X_{B} t_{2}=w \# w^{\mathrm{rev}} \boldsymbol{v}^{\mathrm{rev}}$, and for each production $A \rightarrow t_{1} B t_{2}$ such that $X_{A}=v u \# u^{\mathrm{rev}}$, verify that $t_{1} X_{B} t_{2}=v w \# w^{\text {rev }}$, for some $w$ in $\{0,1\}^{*}$. Otherwise $G$ is in $\operatorname{LGINEQ}\left(L_{0}\right)$.

Step 10. Verify that $X_{S}=u \# u^{r e v}$. Otherwise $G$ is in $\operatorname{LGINEQ}\left(L_{0}\right)$.
Comment. If $G_{3}$ satisfies the tests in Steps 8-10, then $L\left(G_{3}\right) \subseteq L_{0}$. This can be verified by induction; the inductive hypothesis is: If $X_{A}=u \# u^{\mathrm{rev}}{ }_{q} \mathrm{rev}$, then $L(A) \subseteq$ $\left\{w \# w^{\mathrm{rev}} v^{\mathrm{rev}} \mid w \in\{0,1\}^{*}\right\}$ and if $X_{A}=v u \# u^{\mathrm{rev}}$ then $L(A) \subseteq\left\{v w \# w \mathrm{rev} \mid w \in\{0,1\}^{*}\right\}$ for all nonterminals $A$ of $G_{3}$.

Step 11. Construct the right-linear grammar $G_{4}=\left(N_{3}, \Sigma, P_{4}, S\right)$, where $A \rightarrow y B$ is in $P_{4}$ if and only if $A \rightarrow y B y^{\prime}$ is in $P_{3}$ and $A \rightarrow y$ is in $P_{4}$ if and only if $A \rightarrow y \# y^{\prime}$ is in $P_{3}$, where $A, B$ are in $N_{3}$ and $y, y^{\prime}$ are in $\{0,1\}^{*}$.

Step 12. Construct a nondeterministic finite automaton $M$ such that $L(M)=$ $L\left(G_{4}\right)$.

Step 13. Verify that $L(M)=\{0,1\}^{*}$. If so, then $L(G)=L_{0}$; otherwise $G$ is in LGINEQ $\left(L_{0}\right)$.

Since $G$ is linear, each of Steps 1-13 is executable in space bounded by a polynomial in $|G|$. Note that Steps 1-12 are executable in time bounded by a polynomial in $|\boldsymbol{G}|$. From Proposition 2.3, Step 13 can be done in polynomial space.

This algorithm can be modified to show that such sets as LGINEQ( $\left.\left\{a^{n} b^{n} \mid n \geqslant 1\right\}\right)$ are elements of NP.

Open Problem 3. (1) Does there exist an infinite but bounded eff $L_{0}$ such that $\operatorname{GINEQ}\left(L_{0}\right)$ is an element of NP ?
(2) Does there exist an unbounded cfl $L_{0}$ such that $\operatorname{GINEQ}\left(L_{0}\right)$ is an element of PSPACE ?

Finally, as in Section 2, analogous results hold for containment as well.

## 4. An Exponential Combinatorial Structure

A natural analog of the "squaring" operator introduced in [24] that complicates several problems related to the cfg's is presented. We exploit this structure to prove that the equivalence and containment problems for cfg's generating finite sets require time at least $2^{c n /(\log n)}$ on any nondeterministic Tm . We also prove that the equivalence and containment problems for non-self-embedding cfg's require tape at least $2^{c n /(\log n)}$.

The exponential lower time bounds for equivalence and containment immediately apply to cfg's generating bounded languages. We also prove a metatheorem that implies an exponential lower time bound for a variety of predicates on cfg's generating bounded languages.

We present several problems that may be exponential due to the cfg "squaring" structure. These problems include structural equivalence of cfg's [21, 25], s-grammar equivalence [20], and $L L(k)$ grammar equivalence [26]. We note subexponential upper bounds on certain of these problems when restricted to the linear cfg's.

We now illustrate the cfg "squaring" structure with the grammar $G_{4}$ generating the language

$$
L\left(G_{4}\right)=\left\{w \mid w \in\{0,1\}^{*} \text { and }|w| \leqslant 2^{4}\right\}
$$

The grammar has start symbol $S_{4}$ and contains the following productions.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& S_{4} \rightarrow S_{3} S_{3} \\
& S_{3} \rightarrow S_{2} S_{2} \\
& S_{2} \rightarrow S_{1} S_{1} \\
& S_{1} \rightarrow S_{0} S_{0} \\
& S_{0} \rightarrow 0|1| \lambda .
\end{aligned}
$$

Proposition 4.1. There exists a constant $c>0$ such that for all integers $n \geqslant 1$, there exists a cfg $G_{n}$ with $L\left(G_{n}\right)=\left\{w \mid w\right.$ in $\{0,1\}^{*}$ and $\left.|w| \leqslant 2^{n}\right\}$ and $\left|G_{n}\right| \leqslant$ $c \cdot n \cdot(\log n)$.

Proof. The productions of $G_{n}$ are $S_{n} \rightarrow S_{n-1} S_{n-1}, S_{n-1} \rightarrow S_{n-2} S_{n-2}, \ldots$, and $S_{0} \rightarrow 0|1| \lambda$

Definition 4.2 [28]. A function $T(m)$ is said to be a running time if there is a deterministic Tm $M$ such that, for each input word $x$ to $M, M$ computes on $x$ for precisely $T(|x|)$ steps.

Theorem 4.3 [28]. Ndtime $\left(T_{2}(n)\right)-\operatorname{Ndtime}\left(T_{1}(n)\right) \neq \phi$, whenever $T_{2}(n)$ is a running time and $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty}\left(T_{2}(n) / T_{1}(n+1)\right)=\infty$.

We next present an encoding of $T m$ computations into cfg's generating finite sets. This encoding is the basis of our exponential time lower bounds.

Proposition 4.4. Let $M$ be any arbitrary nondeterministic $2^{c n}$ time bounded single tape Tm, for some integer constant $c>0$. Let the state set, tape alphabet, start state, and set of accepting states of $M$ be denoted by $S, T, q_{0}$, and $F$, respectively. Let $\Sigma=$ $T \cup(S \times T) \cup\{\#\}$, where \# is a symbol not in $T \cup(S \times T)$. Then there exists a deterministic $\log$-space transducer $M^{\prime}$ such that $M^{\prime}$, when given a nonnull input $x=$ $a_{1} \cdots \cdot a_{n}$, outputs a $\operatorname{cfg} G_{x}$ such that
(i) $L\left(G_{x}\right) \subseteq(\Sigma \cup\{\lambda\})^{2^{2 c n+1}+3 \cdot 2^{e n}+8}$;
(ii) $L\left(G_{x}\right)=(\Sigma \cup\{\lambda\})^{20 n+1}+3 \cdot 2^{c n}+8$ if and only if $x$ is not in $L(M)$;
(iii) $\left|G_{x}\right| \leqslant c_{M} \cdot n \cdot(\log n)$, where $c_{M}$ is a constant depending only upon $M$ not $x$; and
(iv) $M^{\prime}$ is $O(n \cdot(\log n))$ time bounded.

Proof. We refer to the instantaneous descriptions defined in Definition 1.12, taking $T(n)=2^{c n}$. Also we let $(\Sigma)^{* *}(k)$ denote $\Sigma^{[k]}$, where $\Sigma$ is a finite alphabet and $k$ is an expression denoting the positive integer [ $k$ ].
$G_{x}$ is constructed so that $L\left(G_{x}\right)$ equals the set of invalid computations of $M$ on $x$ of length $\leqslant 2^{2 c n+1}+3 \cdot 2^{c n}+8$. Any valid computation of $M$ on $x$ is a string over $\Sigma$ of the form \#•[[( $\left.\left.\Sigma\{\#\})^{* *} 2^{c n}\right] \cdot \#\right]^{k}$, where $k \leqslant 2^{c n}+1$. Thus all valid computations of $M$ on $x$ have length $\leqslant 1+\left(2^{c n}+1\right) \cdot\left(2^{c n}+1\right)=2^{2 c n}+2^{c n+1}+2$.

A string $\gamma$ of length $\leqslant 2^{2 e n+1}+3 \cdot 2^{e n}+8$ is an invalid computation if and only if
(1) $|\boldsymbol{\gamma}|$ is less than the length of the initial i.d., i.e.,

$$
\gamma \in S_{1}=(\Sigma \cup\{\lambda\})^{* *}\left(2^{c n}+1\right)
$$

$$
\begin{align*}
& 2^{2 c n}+2^{c n+1}+3 \leqslant|\gamma| \leqslant 2^{2 c n+1}+3 \cdot 2^{c n}+8, \text { i.e. }  \tag{2}\\
& \gamma \in S_{2}=\left[\Sigma^{* *}\left(2^{2 c n}+2^{c n+1}+3\right)\right] \cdot\left[(\Sigma \cup\{\lambda\})^{* *}\left(2^{2 c n}+2^{c n}+5\right)\right]
\end{align*}
$$

(3) $|\gamma| \leqslant 2^{2 c n}+2^{c n+1}+2$ but $\gamma$ does not end in "\#", i.e.,

$$
\gamma \in S_{3}=\left[(\Sigma \cup\{\lambda\})^{* *}\left(2^{2 c n}+2^{c n+1}+1\right)\right] \cdot(\Sigma-\{\#\}) ;
$$

(4) $\gamma$ contains an error between two consecutive i.d.'s, i.e.,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\gamma \in S_{4}= & \bigcup_{\sigma_{1}, \sigma_{2}, \sigma_{3} \in \Sigma}\left[(\Sigma \cup\{\lambda\})^{* *}\left(2^{2 c n}+2^{c n}+1\right)\right] \cdot \sigma_{1} \cdot \sigma_{2} \cdot \sigma_{3} \\
& \cdot\left[\Sigma^{* *}\left(2^{c n}-2\right)\right] \cdot\left(\Sigma^{3}-f_{M}\left(\sigma_{1}, \sigma_{2}, \sigma_{3}\right)\right) \cdot\left[(\Sigma \cup\{\lambda\})^{* *}\left(2^{z c n}+2^{c n}+1\right)\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

(5) $|\gamma| \leqslant 2^{2 c n}+2^{c n+1}+2$ but $\gamma$ contains no symbol of form $\left(q_{f}, t\right)$ with $q_{j} \in F$ and $t \in T$, i.e.,

$$
\gamma \in S_{5}=\left(\left(\Sigma-\bigcup_{\substack{q_{f} \in F \\ t \in T}}\left\{\left(q_{f}, t\right)\right\}\right) \cup\{\lambda\}\right)^{* *}\left(2^{2 c n}+2^{c n+1}+2\right)
$$

or
(6) $|\gamma| \leqslant 2^{2 c n}+2^{c n+1}+2$ but $\gamma$ does not begin with

$$
\# \cdot\left(q_{0}, x_{1}\right) \cdot x_{2} \cdot \cdots \cdot x_{n} \cdot\left[(\nmid)^{* *}\left(2^{c n}-n\right)\right] \cdot \#
$$

If $\gamma$ satisfies (6), then
(6.1) $\gamma$ does not begin with $\# \cdot\left(q_{0}, x_{1}\right) \cdot x_{2} \cdot \cdots \cdot x_{n}$; or
(6.2) $\gamma$ does not contain two occurrences of \#; or
(6.3) $\gamma$ does contain two occurrences of \#, but the first and second \#'s in $\gamma$ are not separated by $2^{\text {cn }}$ characters; or
(6.4) $\gamma$ has a nonblank character in its $j$ th position, where $n+2 \leqslant j \leqslant$ $2^{c n}+1$.

All strings satisfying (6.1) are elements of

$$
\begin{aligned}
S_{6}= & {\left[( \Sigma - \{ \# \} ) \cup \# \cdot \left[( \Sigma - \{ ( q _ { 0 } , x _ { 1 } ) \} ) \cup ( q _ { 0 } , x _ { 1 } ) \cdot \left[\left(\Sigma-\left\{x_{2}\right\}\right) \cup x_{2} \cdot[\cdots\right.\right.\right.} \\
& \left.\left.\left.\cdot\left[\left(\Sigma-\left\{x_{n-1}\right\}\right) \cup x_{n-1} \cdot\left[\left(\Sigma-\left\{x_{n}\right\}\right)\right]\right] \cdots\right]\right]\right] \\
& \cdot\left[(\Sigma \cup\{\lambda\})^{* *}\left(2^{2 c n}+2^{c n+1}+1\right)\right] .
\end{aligned}
$$

All strings satisfying (6.2) also satisfy (1), (3), or (6.1). All strings satisfying (6.3) are elements of

$$
\begin{aligned}
S_{7}= & \# \cdot\left[(\Sigma \cup\{\lambda\})^{* *}\left(2^{c n}-1\right)\right] \cdot \# \cdot\left[(\Sigma \cup\{\lambda\})^{* *}\left(2^{2 e n}+2^{c n+1}+1\right)\right] \\
& \cup \# \cdot\left[(\Sigma-\{\#\})^{* *}\left(2^{c n}+1\right)\right] \cdot\left[(\Sigma \cup\{\lambda\})^{* *}\left(2^{2 c n}+2^{c n}\right)\right] .
\end{aligned}
$$

All strings satisfying (6.4) are elements of

$$
\begin{aligned}
S_{8}= & \Sigma^{n+1} \cdot\left[(\Sigma \cup\{\lambda\})^{* *}\left(2^{c n}-n-1\right)\right] \cdot(\Sigma-\{\phi\}) \\
& \cdot\left[(\Sigma \cup\{\lambda\})^{* *}\left(2^{2 c n}+2^{c n+1}\right)\right] .
\end{aligned}
$$

We note that all strings in $S_{1} \cup \cdots \cup S_{8}$ have length $\leqslant 2^{2 c n+1}+3 \cdot 2^{c n}+8$. All strings in $S_{6} \cup S_{7} \cup S_{8}$ that do not satisfy (6.1), (6.2), or (6.3) have length greater than $2^{2 c n}+2^{c n+1}+2$; and thus they are not valid computations. Finally, any string of length $\leqslant 2^{2 c n+1}+3 \cdot 2^{c n}+8$ not in $S_{1} \cup \cdots \cup S_{8}$ is a valid computation of $M$ on $x$.

For fixed Tm $M$ and variable $x$ with $n=|x|$, cfg's $G_{1}, \ldots, G_{8}$ can be constructed such that $G_{i}=\left(N_{i}, \Sigma, \Pi_{i}, S\right) ; L\left(G_{i}\right)=S_{i} ;\left|G_{i}\right| \leqslant k \cdot n \cdot(\log n)$, where $k$ depends only upon $M ; N_{i} \cap N_{j}=\{S\}$ for $1 \leqslant i<j \leqslant 8$; and $S$ does not occur on the right side of any production. We only present $G_{1}$ and $G_{6}$. The other cfg's are constructed analogously.
$\Pi_{1}$ is defined by

$$
\begin{aligned}
S & \rightarrow A_{0}^{(1)} A_{c n}^{(1)}, \\
A_{c n}^{(1)} & \rightarrow A_{c n-1}^{(1)} A_{c n-1}^{(1)}, \\
A_{c n-1}^{(1)} & \rightarrow A_{c n-2}^{(1)} A_{c n-2}^{(1)}, \\
& \cdots \\
A_{0}^{(1)} & \rightarrow \lambda\left|\sigma_{1}\right| \cdots \mid \sigma_{m}, \quad \text { where } \quad \Sigma=\left\{\sigma_{1}, \ldots, \sigma_{m}\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

$\Pi_{6}$ is defined by

$$
\begin{aligned}
& S \rightarrow A_{0}^{(6)} B_{0}^{(6)}, \\
& A_{0}^{(6)} \rightarrow \sigma_{i} \mid \# A_{1}^{(6)} \quad \text { for } \quad \sigma_{i} \in \Sigma \text { and } \sigma_{i} \neq \#, \\
& A_{1}^{(6)} \rightarrow \sigma_{j} \mid\left(q_{0}, x_{1}\right) A_{2}^{(6)} \quad \text { for } \quad \sigma_{j} \in \Sigma \text { and } \sigma_{j} \neq\left(q_{0}, x_{1}\right), \\
& \cdots \\
& A_{n-1}^{(6)} \rightarrow \sigma_{k} \mid x_{n-1} A_{n}^{(6)} \quad \text { for } \quad \sigma_{k} \in \Sigma \text { and } \sigma_{k} \neq x_{n-1}, \\
& A_{n}^{(6)} \rightarrow \sigma_{l} \quad \text { for } \quad \sigma_{l} \in \Sigma \text { and } \sigma_{l} \neq x_{n}, \\
& B_{0}^{(6)} \rightarrow C_{2 c n}^{(6)} C_{c n+1}^{(6)} C_{0}^{(6)}, \\
& C_{2 e n}^{(6)} \rightarrow C_{2 c n-1}^{(6)} C_{2 c n-1}^{(6)}, \\
& \cdots \\
& C_{0}^{(6)} \rightarrow \lambda\left|\sigma_{1}\right| \cdots \mid \sigma_{m} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Let $G_{x}=\left(N_{1} \cup \cdots \cup N_{8}, \Sigma, \Pi_{1} \cup \cdots \cup \Pi_{8}, S\right)$. Then $L\left(G_{x}\right)=S_{1} \cup \cdots \cup S_{8}$; $L\left(G_{x}\right) \subseteq(\Sigma \cup\{\lambda\})^{* *}\left(2^{2 e n+1}+3 \cdot 2^{c n}+8\right) ; L\left(G_{x}\right)=(\Sigma \cup\{\lambda\})^{* *}\left(2^{2 c n+1}+3 \cdot 2^{e n}+8\right)$ if and only if $x$ is not in $L(M)$; and $\left|G_{x}\right| \leqslant c_{M} \cdot n(\log n)$, where $c_{M}$ is a constant depending only upon $M$ not $x$. We leave the proof that (iv) also holds to the reader. $\boxtimes$

Theorem 4.5. There exists a constant $c>0$ such that both the equivalence problem and the containment problem for cfg's generating finite sets require time at least $2^{\text {cn }} /(\log n)$ infinitely often (i.o.) on any nondeterministic multitape $T$.

Proof. By Theorem 4.3 and the fact that a $2^{d_{1} n}$ time bounded nondeterministic multitape Tm can be converted into a $2^{d_{2} n}$ time bounded nondeterministic single-tape Tm with $d_{2} \geqslant d_{1}$, there exists a constant $d>1$ and a $2^{d n}$ time bounded nondeterministic single-tape $\operatorname{Tm} M$ such that the recognition of $L(M)$ on any nondeterministic multitape Tm requires time $\geqslant 2^{n}$ i.o. By Proposition 4.4 there exists an $O(n(\log n))$ time bounded deterministic $\log$-space transducer $M^{\prime}$ such that $M^{\prime}$, when given an input $x$ to $M$ with $|x|=n$, outputs a $\operatorname{cfg} G_{x}$ such that $L\left(G_{x}\right) \subseteq L(n)=$ $(\Sigma \cup\{\lambda\})^{2^{2 d n+1}+3 \cdot 2^{d n}+8}$, where $\Sigma$ is a fixed finite alphabet depending upon $M$ not $x$. Moreover, $L\left(G_{x}\right) \neq L(n)$ if and only if $x$ is in $L(M)$. Thus $L(n)$ is not a subset of $L\left(G_{x}\right)$ if and only if $x$ is in $L(M)$.

The following nondeterministic algorithm verifies that $x$ is in $L(M)$, if this is true.
Step 1. Apply $M^{\prime}$ to $x$, outputting $G_{x}$.
Step 2. Verify that $L\left(G_{x}\right)=L\left(G_{n}\right)$, where $L\left(G_{n}\right)=L(n)$ and $G_{n}$ contains the following productions (where an obvious shorthand is used to represent the productions whose righthand sides are terminal strings).

$$
\begin{gathered}
A \rightarrow A_{2 d n+1} A_{d n} A_{d n} A_{d n} A_{3}, \quad A_{2 d n+1} \rightarrow A_{2 d n} A_{2 d n}, \ldots, \\
A_{1} \rightarrow A_{0} A_{0}, \quad A_{0} \rightarrow \Sigma \mid \lambda .
\end{gathered}
$$

Clearly $n \cdot(\log n) \leqslant\left|G_{x}\right|+\left|G_{n}\right| \leqslant c_{1} \cdot n \cdot(\log n)$, where $c_{1}$ is a constant depending only upon $M$ not $x$. Let $m=\left|G_{x}\right|+\left|G_{n}\right|$. The time required to execute this algorithm nondeterministically is no greater than $c_{2} \cdot n \cdot(\log n)$, the time to execute Step 1, plus the time to test $G_{x}$ and $G_{n}$ for equivalence or containment.

Let $T(k)$ be the time required by some fixed nondeterministic multitape Tm to test for equivalence or containment of two cfg's $G$ and $H$ that generate finite sets, where $k=|G|+|H|$. Because time $2^{n}$ is required for verifying membership in $L(M), 2^{n} \leqslant c_{2} \cdot n \cdot(\log n)+T(m)$ i.o. Thus, $T(m) \geqslant 2^{c_{3} n}$ i.o. for some $c_{3}$ greater than zero. The fact that $m \leqslant c_{1} \cdot n \cdot(\log n)$ implies $n \geqslant\left(1 / c_{1}\right) \cdot(m / \log n)$. The fact that $n \cdot(\log n) \leqslant m$ implies $\log n \leqslant \log m$, so that $n \geqslant\left(1 / c_{1}\right) \cdot(m / \log m)$. Letting $c_{4}=c_{3} / c_{1}$, we conclude that

$$
T(m) \geqslant 2^{c_{4} m /(\log m)} \quad \text { i.o. } \quad \text { 区 }
$$

Since all finite cfl's are bounded, the following immediate corollary of Theorem 4.5 holds.

Theorem 4.6. There exists a constant $c>0$ such that determining if
(a) $L(G) \subseteq L(H)$, or
(b) $L(G) \supseteq L(H)$, or
(c) $L(G)=L(H)$,
where $G$ is an arbitrary cfg and $H$ is a cfg generating a bounded language, requires time at least $2^{e n / \log n}$ i.o. on any nondeterministic multitape $T m$.

These problems are shown to be decidable in [8].
Another analog of Theorem 4.5 holds for the non-self-embedding cfg's.

Definition 4.7. A reduced $\mathrm{cfg} G$ is said to be self-embedding if there exists a nonterminal $A$ of $G$ such that $A \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} u A v$, where both $u$ and $v$ are nonnull strings of terminals. A cfg that is not self-embedding is said to be non-self-embedding.

Proposition 4.8. Let $M$ be any arbitrary nondeterministic $2^{c n}$ tape bounded Tm, for some constant $c>0$. Let the state set, tape alphabet, start state, and set of accepting states of $M$ be denoted by $S, T, q_{0}$, and $F$, respectively. Let $\Sigma=T \cup(S \times T) \cup\{\#\}$, where \# is a symbol not in $T \cup(S \times T)$. Then there exists a deterministic $\log$-space transducer $M^{\prime}$ such the $M^{\prime}$, when given a nonnull input $x=x_{1} \cdots \cdot x_{n}$, outputs a non-self-embedding $\mathrm{cfg} G_{x}$ such that
(i) $L\left(G_{x}\right)=\Sigma^{*}$ if and only if $x$ is not in $L(M)$;
(ii) $\left|G_{x}\right| \leqslant C_{M} \cdot n \cdot(\log n)$, where $C_{M}$ is a constant depending only upon $M$ not $x$; and
(iii) $M^{\prime}$ is $O(n \cdot(\log n))$ time bounded.

Proof. $G_{x}$ is constructed so that $L\left(G_{x}\right)$ equals the set of invalid computations of $M$ on $x$. We note that any valid computation of $M$ on $x$ is a string over $\Sigma$ of the form \# $\cdot\left[\left[(\Sigma-\{\#\})^{* *} 2^{c n}\right] \cdot \#\right]^{k}$ with $k \geqslant 1$.

A string $\gamma$ in $\Sigma^{*}$ is an invalid computation of $M$ on $x$ if and only if
(1) no \#'s appear or only one \# appears in $\gamma$, i.e.,

$$
\gamma \in S_{1}=(\Sigma-\{\#\})^{*} \cup(\Sigma-\{\#\})^{*} \cdot \# \cdot(\Sigma-\{\#\})^{*} ;
$$

(2) two consecutive \#'s in $\gamma$ are separated by less than or greater than $2^{\text {cn }}$ characters, i.e.,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\gamma \in S_{2}= & \Sigma^{*} \cdot \# \cdot\left[((\Sigma-\{\#\}) \cup\{\lambda\})^{* *}\left(2^{c n}-1\right)\right] \cdot \# \cdot \Sigma^{*} \\
& \cup \Sigma^{*} \cdot \# \cdot\left[\left(\Sigma-\{\#\}^{* *}\left(2^{c n}+1\right)\right] \cdot(\Sigma-\{\#\})^{*} \cdot \# \cdot \Sigma^{*}\right.
\end{aligned}
$$

(3) $\gamma$ does not end in \#, i.e., $\gamma \in S_{3}=\Sigma^{*} \cdot(\Sigma-\{\#\})$;
(4) $\gamma$ does not contain any symbols $\left(q_{f}, t\right) \in F \times T$, i.e.,

$$
\gamma \in S_{4}=(\Sigma-(F \times T))^{*} ;
$$

(5) $\gamma$ contains an error between two consecutive i.d.'s, i.e.,

$$
\gamma \in S_{5}=\bigcup_{\sigma_{1}, \sigma_{2}, \sigma_{3} \in \Sigma} \Sigma^{*} \cdot \sigma_{1} \cdot \sigma_{2} \cdot \sigma_{3} \cdot\left[\Sigma^{* *}\left(2^{c n}-2\right)\right] \cdot\left(\Sigma^{3}-f_{M}\left(\sigma_{1}, \sigma_{2}, \sigma_{3}\right)\right) \cdot \Sigma^{*} ;
$$

or
(6) $\gamma$ does not begin with $\# \cdot\left(q_{0}, x_{1}\right) \cdot x_{2} \cdot \cdots \cdot x_{n} \cdot\left[b^{* *}\left(2^{c n}-n\right)\right] \cdot \#$. Any string satisfying (6) that does not satisfy (1) or (2) must be of the form $x \cdot y \cdot \# \cdot w$, where $|x|=n+1$ and $x \neq \# \cdot\left(q_{0}, x_{1}\right) \cdot x_{2} \cdots \cdots x_{n}$, or $|y|=2^{\text {cn }}-n$ and $y \neq b^{* *}\left(2^{c n}-n\right)$ with $x, y, w$ in $\Sigma^{*}$. If $x \neq \# \cdot\left(q_{0}, x_{1}\right) \cdot x_{2} \cdots \cdot x_{n}$ then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\gamma \in S_{6}= & {\left[( \Sigma - \{ \# \} ) \cup \# \cdot \left[\left(\Sigma-\left\{\left(q_{0}, x_{1}\right)\right\}\right) \cup\left(q_{0}, x_{1}\right)\right.\right.} \\
& \left.\left.\cdot\left[\cdots\left[\left(\Sigma-\left\{x_{n-1}\right\}\right) \cup x_{n-1} \cdot\left[\left(\Sigma-\left\{x_{n}\right\}\right)\right]\right] \cdots\right]\right]\right] \cdot \Sigma^{*} .
\end{aligned}
$$

If $y \neq \phi^{* *}\left(2^{c n}-n\right)$ then

$$
\gamma \in S_{7}=\# \cdot \Sigma^{n} \cdot(\Sigma-\{\#\})^{*} \cdot(\Sigma-\{b, \#\}) \cdot(\Sigma-\{\#\})^{*} \cdot \# \cdot \Sigma^{*}
$$

But non-self-embedding cfg's $G_{1}, \ldots, G_{7}$ can be constructed such that $G_{i}=$ $\left(N_{i}, \Sigma, \Pi_{i}, S\right) ; L\left(G_{i}\right)=S_{i} ;\left|G_{i}\right| \leqslant k \cdot n(\log n) ; N_{i} \cap N_{j}=\{S\}$ for $1 \leqslant i<$ $j \leqslant 7$, and $S$ does not occur on the right side of any production. The construction of the grammars is straightforward and is left to the reader.

$$
G_{x}=\left(N_{1} \cup \cdots \cup N_{7}, \Sigma, \Pi_{1} \cup \cdots \cup \Pi_{7}, S\right) ; \quad L\left(G_{x}\right)=S_{1} \cup \cdots \cup S_{7}
$$

$L\left(G_{x}\right) \neq \Sigma^{*}$ if and only if $x$ is not in $L(M)$; and $\left|G_{x}\right| \leqslant C_{M} \cdot n \cdot(\log n)$, where $C_{M}$ is a constant depending only upon $M$ not $x$. We leave the remainder of the proof to the reader. $\mathbb{Q}$

Theorem 4.9. There exists a constant $c>0$ such that both the equivalence problem and the containment problem for the non-self-embedding cfg's require tape at least $2^{\text {cn/( } \log n)}$ i.o. on any Tm .

Theorem 4.9 follows from Proposition 4.8 and known space hierarchy results (see [13]) by an argument very similar to that of the proof of Theorem 4.5. Therefore, it is left to the reader.

It is well known (see [13]) that non-self-embedding cfg's only generate regular sets. Moreover, given a non-self-embedding $\operatorname{cfg} G$, an equivalent regular grammar $H$ can be effectively obtained. Thus the equivalence and containment problems for the non-self-embedding cfg's are easily seen to be decidable. Analogous to Theorem 2.6(3), the following corollary of Proposition 4.8 holds.

Proposition 4.10. There exists a constant $c>0$ such that for any fixed unbounded
regular set $L_{0},\left\{G \mid G\right.$ is a non-self-embedding $\operatorname{cfg}$ and $\left.L(G) \neq L_{0}\right\}$ requires tape at least $2^{\text {cn } /(\log n)}$ i.o. on any nondeterministic multitape Tm.

The proof is exactly analogous to the proof in Theorem 2.6(3) that $\operatorname{RINEQ}\left(L_{0}\right)$ is CSL-hard and is left to the reader.

Another corollary of Theorem 4.5 is the following metatheorem about the complexity of predicates on the bounded cfl's.

Theorem 4.11. Let $P$ be any nontrivial predicate on the bounded cfl's such that
(a) $P$ is true for all bounded regular sets, and
(b) either $\mathscr{L}=\left\{L^{\prime}\left|L^{\prime}=x\right| L, x \in\{0,1\}^{*}, P(L)\right.$ is true $\}$ or $\mathscr{R}=\left\{L^{\prime} \mid L^{\prime}=L / x\right.$, $x \in\{0,1\}^{*}, P(L)$ is true $\}$ is a proper subset of the bounded cfl's.

Then there exists a constant $c>0$ such that any nondeterministic multitape Tm that recognizes $\{G \mid G$ is a cfg generating a bounded language and $P(L(G))$ is false $\}$ requires time at least $2^{c n /(\log n)}$ i.o.

Proof. We only prove the theorem for the case when $\mathscr{L}$ is a proper subset of the bounded cff's. The proof when $\mathscr{R}$ is a proper subset of the bounded cfl's is similar.

Let $L$ be a bounded cfl not in $\mathscr{L}$. Since $L$ is bounded, there exist strings $w_{1}, \ldots, w_{k}$ in $\{0,1\}^{+}$such that $L \subseteq w_{1}{ }^{*} \cdots \cdots w_{k}{ }^{*}$. Let $\Sigma, G_{x}$, and $G_{n}$ be as in the proofs of Proposition 4.4 and Theorem 4.5. Let $\$$ be a symbol not in $\Sigma$. Let $\rho: \Sigma \cup\{\$\} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{+}$ be some 1-1 function with the property that for all $s$ in $\Sigma \cup\{\$\},|\rho(s)|$ is a constant. Let $\hat{\rho}:(\Sigma \cup\{\$\})^{*} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{*}$ be the homomorphic extension of $\rho$. Let

$$
L_{x}=\hat{\rho}\left(L\left(G_{x}\right)\right) \cdot \rho(\$) \cdot w_{1} * \cdots \cdot w_{k} * \cup \hat{\rho}\left(L\left(G_{n}\right)\right) \cdot \rho(\$) \cdot L
$$

If $L\left(G_{x}\right)=L\left(G_{n}\right)$, then $L_{x}=\hat{\rho}\left(L\left(G_{n}\right)\right) \cdot \rho(\$) \cdot w_{1}{ }^{*} \cdots \cdots v_{k}{ }^{*}$. Thus $L_{x}$ is a regular bounded language; and by (a), $P\left(L_{x}\right)$ is true. Otherwise let $z$ be in $L\left(G_{n}\right)-L\left(G_{x}\right)$. By the properties of $\hat{\rho}, \hat{\rho}(z) \cdot \rho(\$) \backslash L_{x}=L$. Thus by (b), $P\left(L_{x}\right)$ is false. Hence $P\left(L_{x}\right)$ is true if and only if $L\left(G_{x}\right)=L\left(G_{n}\right)$. Finally, given $L, G_{x}$, and $G_{n}$, a cfg $G_{x}^{\prime}$ can be constructed deterministically in $O\left(\left|G_{x}\right|+\left|G_{n}\right|\right)$ time such that $L\left(G_{x}{ }^{\prime}\right)=L_{x}$. Clearly $L_{x}$ is bounded. The remainder of the proof exactly parallels that of Theorem 4.5 and is left to the reader.
'Thus, such predicates as regularity, linearity, inherent ambiguity, and " $L(G)$ is a deterministic cfl" for the bounded cfl's all require at least exponential time on any nondeterministic multitape Tm. Moreover the proof of Theorem 4.11 shows that these lower bounds hold even for cfg's that are known in advance to generate bounded languages.

A similar theorem holds for the bounded linear cfl's as well.

Theorem 4.12. Let P be any nontrivial predicate on the bounded linear cff's such that
(a) $P$ is true for all bounded regular sets, and
(b) either $\mathscr{L}=\left\{L^{\prime} \mid L^{\prime}=x \backslash L, x \in\{0,1\}^{*}, P(L)\right.$ is true $\}$ or $\mathscr{R}=\left\{L^{\prime} \mid L^{\prime}=L / x\right.$, $x \in\{0,1\}^{*}, P(L)$ is true $\}$ is a proper subset of the bounded linear cfl's.

Then $\{G \mid G$ is a linear cfg generating a bounded language and $P(L(G))$ is false $\}$ is $N P$-hard.

Proof. We only sketch the proof for the case when $\mathscr{L}$ is a proper subset of the bounded linear cfl's.

Let $L$ be a bounded linear cff not in $\mathscr{L}$. Then there exist strings $w_{1}, \ldots, w_{k}$ in $\{0,1\}^{+}$ such that $L \subseteq w_{1} * \cdots \cdot w_{k}$. Let $f$ be a $D_{3}$-Boolean form with $m$ clauses and $n$ variables. Then as in the proof of Theorem 2.7(1), a ( $\cup, \cdot$ ) regular expression $\beta$ can be constructed deterministically in time bounded by a polynomial in $|f|$ such that $L(\beta) \subseteq$ $\{0,1\}^{n}$ and $L(\beta)=\{0,1\}^{n}$ if and only if $f$ is a tautology.

Let the homomorphism $\rho:\{0,1\} \rightarrow\{0,1\}$ be defined by $\rho(0)=00$ and $\rho(1)=01$. Let

$$
L_{\beta}=\rho(L(\beta)) \cdot 10 \cdot w_{1} * \cdots \cdot w_{k} * \cup\{00,01\}^{n} \cdot 10 \cdot L
$$

Then $P\left(L_{\beta}\right)$ is true if and only if $L(\beta)=\{0,1\}^{n}$, which is true if and only if $f$ is a tautology. Clearly, given $\beta$ (as constructed in the proof of Theorem 2.7(1)), a linear grammar $G_{\beta}$ can be constructed deterministically in time bounded by a polynomial in $|\beta|$ such that $L\left(G_{\beta}\right)=L_{\beta}$. Again, clearly $L_{\beta}$ is a bounded cfl. ख

Finally, we list several other problems which might be exponential in time or space due to the cfg "squaring" structure. Since this combinatorial structure is the essence of nonlinearity for cfg's, we also study the complexity of several of these problems when restricted to the linear cfg's.

1. Structural equivalence of cfg 's (for the definition see Definition 5.3 below):

Open Problem 4. Is structural equivalence of cfg's decidable by some polynomially space bounded Tm?

We show in Section 5 that for linear cfg's, structural equivalence is decidable in polynomial space.

## 2. Boundedness of cfg's:

Open Problem 5. Is the predicate " $L(G)$ is bounded" for cfg's $p$-decidable?
Proposition 4.13. Boundedness for linear cfg's is decidable by some deterministic polynomially time bounded Tm.

Proof. Let $G$ be reduced with $L(G) \neq \phi$. From [9, Lemma 3.1], $L(G)$ is bounded if and only if for each nonterminal $A$ of $G$, both $L_{A}(G)=\{u \mid A \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} u A v\}$ and $R_{A}(G)=\{v \mid A \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} u A v\}$ are commutative. For linear cfg $G$ and nonterminal $A$ of $G$, cfg's $\mathscr{L}_{A}$ and $\mathscr{R}_{A}$ such that $L\left(\mathscr{L}_{A}\right)=L_{A}(G)$ and $L\left(\mathscr{R}_{A}\right)=R_{A}(G)$ are constructible in time polynomial in $|G|$. Moreover, if $G$ is linear, then so are $\mathscr{L}_{A}$ and $\mathscr{R}_{A}$.

The following algorithm tests a cfg $G$ for commutativity.
Step 1. Reduce $G$. Let $G^{\prime}$ be the resulting reduced grammar.
Step 2. Test if $L\left(G^{\prime}\right)=\phi$. If $L\left(G^{\prime}\right)=\phi$; then $L(G)$ is commutative.
Step 3. Find a string $x$ in $L\left(G^{\prime}\right)$. By Lemma 2.9(1), $L\left(G^{\prime}\right)$ is commutative if and only if there exists a string $w$ such that $L(A) \subseteq w^{*}$. But any such $w$ must have the property that $x=w^{n}$ for some nonnegative integer $n$. Find each of the prefixes $w$ of $x$, such that $x=w^{n}$ for some $n$. For each such $w$, test whether $L\left(G^{\prime}\right) \cap \overline{w^{*}}$ is empty.

From Lemma 3.1(6) and (3), Steps 1 and 2 are executable in polynomial time. For a nonempty linear grammar $G$, there exists an $x$ in $L(G)$ such that $|x| \leqslant|\boldsymbol{G}|$ and $x$ can be found in polynomial time. For each $w$ to be tested in Step 3, a deterministic finite automaton recognizing $w^{*}$ can be constructed in polynomial time. Therefore, a ndfa recognizing $\bar{w}^{*}$ can be found in polynomial time. From Lemma $3.1(2)$ and (3), Step 3 is therefore executable in polynomial time. $\mathbb{}$

Analogs of Proposition 4.13 also hold for other classes of "linear-like" cfg's such as the metalinear cfg's. However, for arbitrary cfg's $G$, the length of the shortest string $x$ in $L(G)$ is not polynomially bounded in $|G|$.
3. Equivalence of $s$ and $L L$ grammars [20,26]:

Ofen Problem 6. Are the equivalence problems for $s$-grammars or $L L(k)$ grammars $p$-decidable?

Definition 4.15. A cfg is an s-grammar (simple grammar) if and only if
(1) The right side of every production begins with a terminal symbol; and
(2) if $A \rightarrow a \alpha$ and $B \rightarrow a \beta$ are distinct productions, where $a$ is a terminal symbol, then $A \neq B$.

The following result is shown in [17].
Theorem 4.16. The equivalence problem for linear s-grammars is p-decidable.
In each of Open Problems (4)-(6) the nonlinear structure of Proposition 4.1 causes the known algorithms to be exponential.

## 5. Grammatical Covering and Structural Equivalence

In Sections 2 and 3 we saw that for all infinite $L_{0}, \operatorname{RINEQ}\left(L_{0}\right)$ and $\operatorname{GINEQ}\left(L_{0}\right)$ are computationally intractable even when decidable. In this section we show that these results carry over to several more practically significant problems about cfg's, especially grammatical covering and structural equivalence. We investigate the complexity of grammatical covering and structural equivalence for the right-linear, linear, and arbitrary cfg's.

The main results of this section are summarized in Table I.

TABLE I

|  |  | Problem |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Class | Language |  |  |
| equivalence |  |  |  |$\quad$ Covering $\quad$| Structural |
| :---: |
| equivalence |

Definition 5.1 [10]. Let $G_{1}=\left(N_{1}, \Sigma, P_{1}, S_{1}\right)$ and $G_{2}=\left(N_{2}, \Sigma, P_{2}, S_{2}\right)$ be cfg's. Let $h$ be a map from $P_{1}$ to $P_{2} \cup\{\lambda\}$. Let $h$ be extended to a map from $P_{1}{ }^{*}$ to $P_{2}{ }^{*}$ by defining $h(\lambda)=\lambda$ and $h(\pi p)=h(\pi) h(p)$ for all $\pi$ in $P_{1}^{*}$ and $p$ in $P_{1}$. We say that $G_{1}$ left covers $G_{2}$ under $h$ if for all $w$ in $\Sigma^{*}$
(1) whenever $S_{1} \Rightarrow{ }_{L}^{\pi} w$, then $S_{2} \Rightarrow_{L}^{h(\pi)} w$; and
(2) whenever $S_{2} \Rightarrow_{L}^{\pi} w$ then there exists a $\pi^{\prime}$ such that $h\left(\pi^{\prime}\right)=\pi$ and $S_{1} \Rightarrow_{L}^{\pi^{\prime}} w$.

The notion of right covers is defined analogously except rightmost rather than leftmost deviations are considered.

Throughout this section we frequently use the word cover as a generic term referring to both kinds of covering. We note the following obvious facts.

Proposition 5.2. (1) If $G_{1}$ covers $G_{2}$, then $L\left(G_{1}\right)=L\left(G_{2}\right)$.
(2) If $G_{1}$ covers $G_{2}$, then for any $x$ in $\Sigma^{*}$, the number of leftmost derivations of $x$ in $G_{1}$ is greater than or equal to the number of derivations of $x$ in $G_{2}$.

The notion of covering arose from the fact that compiler writers are frequently forced to parse according to a grammar more complex than the one they are actually
interested in. A covering map allows them to parse according to one grammar, but build a tree or call semantic routines according to another.

Another notion of similarity of cfg's is provided by
Definition 5.3. Let $G=(N, \Sigma, P, S)$ be a cfg. Define the parenthesized grammar corresponding to $G$ by

$$
\mathscr{P}(G)=\left(N, \Sigma \cup\{[,]\}, P^{\prime}, S\right),
$$

where " $\left[\right.$ " and "]" are new symbols and $P^{\prime}=\{A \rightarrow[\alpha] \mid A \rightarrow \alpha \in P\}$. Two grammars $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ are called structurally equivalent if $L\left(\mathscr{P}\left(G_{1}\right)\right)=L\left(\mathscr{P}\left(G_{2}\right)\right)$.

Proposition 5.4 [25]. If $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ are structurally equivalent, then $L\left(G_{1}\right)=L\left(G_{2}\right)$.
Structural equivalence essentially says that if you examine the sets of trees generated by the grammars in question, then these sets of trees are identical if intermediate nodes are considered to be unlabeled. The following result has appeared several times in the literature [19, 21, 25].

Proposition 5.5. It is decidable whether two arbitrary cfg's are structurally equivalent.

A moment's reflection will reveal that these concepts (structural equivalence and grammatical covering) are less general than language equivalence. Consider the grammars of

$$
\begin{array}{rlrl}
G_{1}: S & \rightarrow A \mid B & G_{2}: & S \rightarrow C 0 \mid 0 \\
A & \rightarrow 0 A \mid 0 & C & \rightarrow D 0 \mid 0 \\
B & \rightarrow 0 B \mid 0, & & D \rightarrow E 0 \mid 0 \\
& & E \rightarrow S 0 \mid 0 .
\end{array}
$$

$G_{1}$ generates right-linear trees and $G_{2}$ generates left-linear trees so $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ cannot be structurally equivalent. Moreover, since $G_{1}$ has fewer productions than $G_{2}$ and every production of $G_{2}$ is used in some derivation, $G_{1}$ cannot cover $G_{2}$. Finally, note that $G_{1}$ is ambiguous but $G_{2}$ is not; hence $G_{2}$ cannot cover $G_{1}$. Thus, neither of the concepts of covering and structural equivalence applies to $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ even though $L\left(G_{1}\right)=L\left(G_{2}\right)=0^{+}$.

In this section, we reduce several problems to the equivalence problem for rightlinear grammars. Let

EQUIV-(right-linear)
$=\left\{\left(G_{1}, G_{2}\right) \mid G_{1}\right.$ and $G_{2}$ are equivalent right-linear grammars $\}$.
INEQUIV-(right-linear)
$=\left\{\left(G_{1}, G_{2}\right) \mid G_{1}\right.$ and $G_{2}$ are inequivalent right-linear grammars $\}$.

We use the following lemma.
Lemma 5.6. EQUIV-(right-linear) and INEQUIV-(right-linear) are both in PSPACE.

Proof. Inequivalence of two right-linear grammars can be verified (in a manner similar to the verification procedure in [24] for inequivalence of ndfa's) by a nondeterministic lba that guesses a string which is in one language, but not in the other. Therefore, from Lemma 1.8(1), INEQUIV-(right-linear) is in PSPACE. From Lemma 1.8(2), EQUIV-(right-linear) is also in PSPACE.

We now consider the complexity of problems involving covering. We first establish several upper bounds, using the equivalence test for linear $s$-grammars (Theorem 4.16) as a chief tool.

Lemma 5.7. $\left\{\left(G_{1}, G_{2}, h\right) \mid G_{1}\right.$ and $G_{2}$ are right-linear cfg's and $G_{1}$ covers $G_{2}$ under $h\}$ is an element of PSPACE.

Proof. Let $G_{1}=\left(N_{1}, \Sigma, P_{1}, S_{1}\right)$ and $G_{2}=\left(N_{2}, \Sigma, P_{2}, S_{2}\right)$. We need efficient tests for
$\left(^{*}\right)$ For all $\pi\left(S_{1} \Rightarrow^{\pi} w\right.$ implies $\left.S_{2} \Rightarrow^{h(\pi)} w\right)$,
and
(**) For all $\pi\left(S_{2} \Rightarrow^{\pi} w\right.$ implies there exists $\pi^{\prime}$ such that $S_{1} \Rightarrow \pi^{\prime} w$ and $\left.h\left(\pi^{\prime}\right)=\pi\right)$.

First we will show how (*) may be reduced to linear s-grammar equivalence. Define $G^{\prime}=\left(N_{1}, P_{1} \cup \Sigma, P^{\prime}, S_{1}\right)$, where

$$
\begin{aligned}
P^{\prime}= & \left\{A \rightarrow p B w^{\mathrm{rev}} \mid p \in P_{1} \text { and } p=A \rightarrow w B\right\} \\
& \cup\left\{A \rightarrow p w \mathrm{rev} \mid p \in P_{1} \text { and } p=A \rightarrow w\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, $L\left(G^{\prime}\right)=\left\{\pi w^{\text {rev }} \mid S_{1} \Rightarrow^{\pi} w\right\}$.
Next define $G^{\prime \prime}=\left(N_{1} \times\left(N_{2} \cup\{\lambda\}\right), P_{1} \cup \Sigma, P^{\prime \prime},\left(S_{1}, S_{2}\right)\right)$, where

$$
\begin{gathered}
P^{\prime \prime}=\left\{(A, B) \rightarrow p(C, D) w^{\mathrm{rev}} \mid p \in P_{1}, \text { there exists } y\right. \text { such that } \\
p=A \rightarrow y C \text { and } h(p)=B \rightarrow w D\} \\
\cup\left\{(A, B) \rightarrow p(C, B) \mid p \in P_{1}, \text { there exists } y\right. \text { such that } \\
p=A \rightarrow y C \text { and } h(p)=\lambda\} \\
\cup\left\{(A, B) \rightarrow p(C, \lambda) w^{\mathrm{rev}} \mid p \in P_{\mathbf{1}}, \text { there exists } y\right. \text { such that } \\
p=A \rightarrow y C \text { and } h(p)=B \rightarrow w\} \\
\cup\left\{(A, \lambda) \rightarrow p(C, \lambda) \mid p \in P_{1}, \text { there exists } y\right. \text { such that } \\
p=A \rightarrow y C \text { and } h(p)=\lambda\}
\end{gathered}
$$

$\cup\left\{(A, B) \rightarrow p w^{\mathrm{rev}} \mid p \in P_{1}\right.$, there exists $y$ such that $p=A \rightarrow y$ and $h(p)=B \rightarrow w\}$
$\cup\left\{(A, \lambda) \rightarrow p \mid p \in P_{1}\right.$, there exists $y$ such that $p \therefore A \rightarrow y$ and $h(p)=:=\lambda\}$.

Thus,

$$
L\left(G^{\prime \prime}\right) \quad\left\{\pi w^{\mathrm{rev}} \mid S_{2} \stackrel{h(\pi)}{\Rightarrow} w \text { and there exists } y \text { such that } S_{1} \stackrel{\pi}{\Rightarrow} y\right\}
$$

Observe that $G^{\prime}$ and $G^{n}$ are linear $s$-grammars and that

$$
G^{\prime}:-\left|G^{\prime \prime}\right|=O\left(n^{2}\right), \quad \text { where } \quad n=G_{1}\left|+G_{2}\right|+|h|
$$

We claim that

$$
L\left(G^{\prime}\right)=L\left(G^{\prime \prime}\right) \quad \text { if and only if }\left({ }^{*}\right)
$$

Proof of claim. Only if: Let $S_{1} \Rightarrow{ }^{\pi} w$ be a derivation of $G_{1}$. Then $\pi w^{\mathrm{rev}}$ is in $L\left(G^{\prime}\right)$ and hence $\pi v^{r e v}$ is in $L\left(G^{\prime \prime}\right)$. By the definition of $G^{n}$ this implies $S_{2} \Rightarrow^{h(\pi)} w$.

If: $L\left(G^{\prime}\right) \neq L\left(G^{n}\right)$ if and only if there exists $\pi$ such that $S_{1} \rightarrow^{\pi} w$ but not $S_{2} \Rightarrow h(\pi) w$, which would violate (*).

Hence, ( ${ }^{( }$) is polynomially reducible to linear s-grammar equivalence, which in turn by Theorem 4.16 is in P. Thus, (*) can be tested in PSPACE. Second, we will show how ( ${ }^{* *}$ ) can be reduced to containment of right-linear grammars.

Define $\bar{G}=\left(N_{1}, P_{2}, \bar{P}, S_{1}\right)$, where
$\bar{P}=\left\{A \rightarrow p B \mid\right.$ there exists $y$ such that $A \rightarrow y B$ is in $P_{1}$ and $\left.p=h(A \rightarrow y B)\right\}$ $\cup\left\{A \rightarrow p\right.$ there exists $y$ such that $A \rightarrow y$ is in $P_{1}$ and $\left.p-h(A \rightarrow y)\right\}$.

Clearly $L(\dot{G})==\left\{h(\pi) \mid\right.$ there exists $w$ such that $\left.S_{\mathbf{1}} \rightarrow^{\pi} w\right\}$.
Define $\dot{G}==\left(N_{2}, P_{2}, \check{P}, S_{2}\right)$, where

$$
\begin{aligned}
\dot{P}: & \left\{A \rightarrow p B \mid p \in P_{2} \text { and there exists } y \text { such that } p=A \rightarrow y B\right\} \\
& \cup\left\{A \rightarrow p: p \in P_{2} \text { and there exists } y \text { such that } p=A \rightarrow y\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Clearly $L(G)=\left\{\pi \mid\right.$ there exists $w$ such that $\left.S_{2}=>^{\pi} w\right\}$.
The reader may easily verify that $\bar{G}$ and $\bar{G}$ are right-linear and that: $\bar{G}:|\bar{G}|=$ $O\left(\left|G_{1}\right| \vdots-G_{2}\right)$.

We claim that once ( ${ }^{*}$ ) is established,

$$
L(\bar{G}) \supseteq L(\bar{G}) \quad \text { if and only if }\left({ }^{* *}\right) .
$$

Proof of claim. Only if: Suppose $S_{2} \Rightarrow^{\pi} w$. Then $\pi$ is in $L(\bar{G})$ and thus $\pi$ is in $L(\bar{G})$. Hence by definition of $\bar{G}$, there exist $\pi^{\prime}, y$ such that $h\left(\pi^{\prime}\right)=\pi$ and $S_{1} \Rightarrow^{\pi^{\prime}} y$. But by ( ${ }^{*}$ ), $y$ must be $w$.

If: Suppose $\pi$ is in $L(\bar{G})$. By definition of $\bar{G}$, there exists $w$ such that $S_{2} \Rightarrow^{\pi} w$. By $\left({ }^{* *}\right)$, there exists $\pi^{\prime}$ such that $h\left(\pi^{\prime}\right)=\pi$ and $S_{1} \Rightarrow^{\pi^{\prime}} w$. By definition of $\bar{G}, h\left(\pi^{\prime}\right)$ is in $L(\bar{G})$ and so $\pi$ is in $L(\bar{G})$.
Thus ( ${ }^{* *}$ ) is polynomially reducible to right-linear grammar containment. $L(\bar{G}) \supseteq$ $L(\bar{G})$ if and only if $L(\bar{G}) \cup L(\bar{G})=L(\bar{G})$. A right-linear grammar generating $L(\bar{G}) \cup L(\bar{G})$ can be found in polynomial time. From Lemma 5.6, the equivalence problem can be solved in polynomial space. Thus ( ${ }^{* *}$ ) can be tested in polynomial space.

A more detailed argument is used in [17] to show the stronger result:
Lemma 5.8. $\left\{\left(G_{1}, G_{2}, h\right) \mid G_{1}\right.$ and $G_{2}$ are linear cfg's and $G_{1}$ covers $G_{2}$ under $\left.h\right\}$ is in PSPACE.

Since any map between the sets of productions of two grammars can be expressed in an amount of space proportional to the sizes of the grammars, we have

Corollary 5.9. $\left\{\left(G_{1}, G_{2}\right) \mid G_{1}\right.$ and $G_{2}$ are linear cfg's and $G_{1}$ covers $G_{2}$ under some map $h\}$ is in PSPACE.

Proof. We simply test all possible maps from $P_{1}$ to $P_{2} \cup\{\lambda\}$ using the polynomially space-bounded algorithm of Lemma 5.8 as a "subroutine." |

In the next lemma, we provide a lower bound on the complexity of covering problems.

Lemma 5.10. $\left\{\left(G_{1}, G_{2}, h\right) \mid G_{1}\right.$ and $G_{2}$ are type-3 grammars over $\{0,1\}$ and $G_{1}$ covers $G_{2}$ under h\} is PSPACE-hard.

Proof. Let $G=\left(N,\{0,1\}, P, S_{1}\right)$ be an arbitrary type-3 grammar. Let $\bar{G}=$ $(\{S\},\{0,1\}, \bar{P}, S)$ with

$$
\stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{P}=\{S \rightarrow 0 S, S \rightarrow 1 S, S \rightarrow 0, S \rightarrow 1\} .
$$

Let $h: P \rightarrow \vec{P}$ be defined by

$$
\begin{aligned}
h(A \rightarrow \alpha) & =S \rightarrow 0 S & & \text { if } \quad \alpha \in\{0\} \cdot N, \\
& =S \rightarrow 1 S & & \text { if } \quad \alpha \in\{1\} \cdot N, \\
& =S \rightarrow 0 & & \text { if } \quad \alpha \in\{0\}, \\
& =S \rightarrow 1 & & \text { if } \quad \alpha \in\{1\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

We claim that $G$ covers $\bar{G}$ under $h$ if and only if $L(G)=\{0,1\}^{*}$. There are two distinct cases to consider.

Case 1. $L(G) \neq\{0,1\}^{*}$. Since $L(\bar{G})=\{0,1\}^{*}$, Proposition 5.2 guarantees that no covering map exists.

Case 2. $L(G)=\{0,1\}^{*}$. By induction on the number of steps in a derivation,

$$
S_{1} \stackrel{\pi}{\Rightarrow} w A \text { for some nonterminal } A \text { implies } S \stackrel{h(\pi)}{\Rightarrow} w S
$$

Thus,

$$
\begin{equation*}
S_{1} \stackrel{\pi}{\Rightarrow} w \text { implies } S \stackrel{h(\pi)}{\Rightarrow} w \tag{}
\end{equation*}
$$

Next, suppose $S \Rightarrow^{\pi}$ w. Since $L(G)=L(\bar{G})$, there exists $\pi^{\prime}$ such that $S_{1} \Rightarrow \pi^{\pi^{\prime}} w$. By ( ${ }^{*}$ ), $S \Rightarrow^{h\left(\pi^{\prime}\right)} w$. Since $\bar{G}$ is unambiguous $h\left(\pi^{\prime}\right)=\pi$ and we have
$\left({ }^{* *}\right) S \stackrel{\pi}{\Rightarrow} w$ implies there exists $\pi^{\prime}$ such that $h\left(\pi^{\prime}\right)=\pi$ and $S_{1} \stackrel{\pi^{\prime}}{\Rightarrow} w$.
Thus, $G$ covers $\bar{G}$ under $h$.
Since $|G|+|\bar{G}|=O(|G|)$ and the equivalence to $\{0,1\}^{*}$ problem is PSPACEhard (Proposition 2.4 and Lemma 1.10), the covering problem is also PSPACE-hard.

Next, we show that freedom to choose the map $h$ in any possible way does not make this problem easier.

Corollary 5.11. $\left\{G_{1}, G_{2}\right) \mid G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ are type-3 grammars and $G_{1}$ covers $\left.G_{2}\right\}$ is PSPACE-hard.

Proof. In the proof of the previous lemma we saw that if $L(G) \neq L(\bar{G})$ then no covering map exists. On the other hand, if $L(G)=\{0,1\}^{*}=L(\bar{G})$, then there exists a covering map, namely, $h$ of the proof of Lemma 5.10. Thus, a cover exists if and only if $L(G)=\{0,1\}^{*}$.

These results can be combined to show that all of our bounds are tight.

Theorem 5.12. Let $\mathscr{S}_{1}(T)=\left\{\left(G_{1}, G_{2}, h\right) \mid G_{1}, G_{2} \in T\right.$ and $G_{1}$ covers $G_{2}$ under $\left.h\right\}$. Let $\mathscr{S}_{2}(T)=\left\{\left(G_{1}, G_{2}\right) \mid G_{1}, G_{2} \in T\right.$ and $G_{1}$ covers $\left.G_{2}\right\}$. Then $\mathscr{S}_{1}(T)$ and $\mathscr{S}_{2}(T)$ are PSPACE-complete for
(a) $T=\{G \mid G$ is type- 3$\}$,
(b) $T=\{G \mid G$ is right-linear $\}$,
(c) $T=\{G \mid G$ is linear $\}$.

Proof. Lemma 5.10 and Corollary 5.11 establish lower bounds for $\mathscr{S}_{1}$ and $\mathscr{S}_{2}$, respectively. Lemma 5.8 and Corollary 5.9 provide the necessary upper bounds.

Let us next consider the general case of determining whether an arbitrary cfg covers another arbitrary cfg. Using a technique reminiscent of that employed in the proof of Lemma 5.10, we show Theorem 5.13. The proof of Theorem 5.13 assumes that "cover" means left cover; an analogous proof holds for right cover.

Theorem 5.13. Let $\mathscr{S}=\left\{\left(G_{1}, G_{2}, h\right) \mid G_{1}\right.$ and $G_{2}$ are arbitrary cfg's over $\{0,1\}$ and $G_{1}$ covers $G_{2}$ under $\left.h\right\}$. Then $\mathscr{S}$ is not recursively enumerable.

Proof. Let $G$ be any cfg. We will construct $G^{\prime}, G^{\prime \prime}$, and $h$ such that $G^{\prime}$ covers $G^{\prime \prime}$ under $h$ if and only if $L(G)=\{0,1\}^{*}$. Since this latter problem is well known to be undecidable and the complement of $\mathscr{S}$ is clearly recursively enumerable we can conclude that $\mathscr{S}$ is not recursively enumerable.

An arbitrary cfg can be converted in polynomial time into an equivalent $\operatorname{cfg} G=$ $(N,\{0,1\}, P, S)$, for which the right side of each production is in $(0+1+\lambda) N^{*}$.

Define $G^{\prime}=\left(N \cup\left\{S^{\prime}, A\right\},\{0,1\}, P^{\prime}, S^{\prime}\right)$, where $S^{\prime}$ and $A$ are new characters and $P^{\prime}=P_{0} \cup P_{1} \cup P_{2} \cup P_{3} \cup P_{4}$, with

$$
\begin{aligned}
& P_{0}=\{X \rightarrow 0 \alpha \mid X \rightarrow 0 \alpha \in P\}, \\
& P_{1}=\{X \rightarrow 1 \alpha \mid X \rightarrow 1 \alpha \in P\}, \\
& P_{2}=\left\{X \rightarrow \alpha \mid X \rightarrow \alpha \in P \text { and } \alpha \in N^{*}\right\}, \\
& P_{3}=\{A \rightarrow 1\}, \\
& P_{4}=\left\{S^{\prime} \rightarrow S A\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

(Note that $P=P_{0} \cup P_{1} \cup P_{2}$ ).
Define $G^{\prime \prime}=\left(\left\{S^{\prime \prime}\right\},\{0,1\}, P^{\prime \prime}, S^{\prime \prime}\right)$, where $P^{\prime \prime}=\left\{S^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0 S^{\prime \prime}, S^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 1 S^{\prime \prime}, S^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 1\right\}$.
Finally, define $h: P^{\prime} \rightarrow P^{\prime \prime} \cup\{\lambda\}$ by

$$
\begin{aligned}
h(p) & =S^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0 S^{\prime \prime} & & \text { if } \quad p \in P_{0}, \\
& =S^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 1 S^{\prime \prime} \quad & & \text { if } p \in P_{\mathbf{1}}, \\
& =S^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 1 & & \text { if } p \in P_{3}, \\
& =\lambda & & \text { if } \quad p \in P_{2} \cup P_{4} .
\end{aligned}
$$

We claim that $G^{\prime}$ covers $G^{\prime \prime}$ under $h$ if and only if $L(G)=\{0,1\}^{*}$.
Case 1. $L(G) \neq\{0,1\}^{*}$. Then $L\left(G^{\prime}\right)=L(G) \cdot\{1\} \neq\{0,1\}^{*} \cdot\{1\}=L\left(G^{\prime \prime}\right)$. Thus by Proposition 5.2, $G^{\prime}$ cannot cover $G^{\prime \prime}$.

Case 2. $L(G)=\{0,1\}^{*}$. Then $L\left(G^{\prime}\right)=L\left(G^{\prime \prime}\right)=\{0,1\}^{*} \cdot\{1\}$. It is readily seen by induction on the number of steps in a leftmost derivation that

$$
S^{\prime} \stackrel{\pi}{\Rightarrow} w A \text { implies } S^{\prime \prime} \stackrel{h(\pi)}{\Rightarrow} w S^{\prime \prime} .
$$

This in turn yields

$$
\begin{equation*}
S^{\prime} \stackrel{\pi}{\Rightarrow} w \text { implies } S^{\prime \prime} \stackrel{h(\pi)}{\Rightarrow} w . \tag{}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus every derivation of $G^{\prime}$ maps onto a derivation of $G^{\prime \prime}$. We must next show that every derivation in $G^{\prime \prime}$ is mapped onto by some derivation in $G^{\prime}$.

Suppose $S^{\prime \prime} \Rightarrow^{\pi} w$ for some $\pi$. Since $L\left(G^{\prime}\right)=L\left(G^{\prime \prime}\right)$ there exists a derivation $\pi^{\prime}$ of $w$ in $G^{\prime}$. Moreover, by $\left(^{*}\right), h\left(\pi^{\prime}\right)$ is a derivation of $w$ in $G^{\prime \prime}$. Finally, since $G^{\prime \prime}$ is unambiguous, we conclude that $h\left(\pi^{\prime}\right)=\pi$. We thus conclude
$(* *) S^{\prime \prime} \stackrel{\pi}{\Rightarrow} w$ implies there exists $\pi^{\prime}$ such that $h\left(\pi^{\prime}\right)=\pi$ and $S^{\prime} \stackrel{\pi^{\prime}}{\Rightarrow} w$.
Thus $G^{\prime}$ covers $G^{\prime \prime}$ under $h$.
Since the map $h$ described above works as a cover if any map does, we have the following

Corollary 5.14. The set $\mathscr{S}=\left\{\left(G_{1}, G_{2}\right) \mid G_{1}\right.$ and $G_{2}$ are arbitrary cfg's over $\{0,1\}$ and $G_{1}$ covers $\left.G_{2}\right\}$ is not recursively enumerable.

In summary then, the covering problem is PSPACE-complete for type-3, rightlinear, and linear grammars, but is undecidable for arbitrary cfg's.

Next we consider structural equivalence.
We first dispose of a degenerate case, namely, structural equivalence of type-3 grammars. Recall that every production of such a grammar is either of the form $A \rightarrow b C$ or $A \rightarrow b$. Thus the tree structure corresponding to any particular string is preordained by the fact that the grammar is type-3 and completely independent of the structure of the grammar itself! We thus are led to

Lemma 5.15. Two type-3 grammars are structurally equivalent if and only if their generated languages are equivalent.

Proof. The "only if" portion is simply a restatement of Proposition 5.4. To establish the "if" portion, let $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ be the relevant grammars and $\mathscr{P}\left(G_{1}\right)$ and $\mathscr{P}\left(G_{2}\right)$ their parenthesis grammars. Observe that $a_{1} \cdots a_{n}$ is in $L\left(G_{i}\right)$ if and only if $\left[a_{1}\left[a_{2}\left[a_{3} \cdots\left[a_{n}\right]^{n}\right.\right.\right.$ is in $L\left(\mathscr{P}\left(G_{i}\right)\right)$. Thus $L\left(G_{1}\right)=L\left(G_{2}\right)$ implies $L\left(\mathscr{P}\left(G_{1}\right)\right)=L\left(\mathscr{P}\left(G_{2}\right)\right)$, which is simply the definition of structural equivalence.

An immediate consequence of the preceding lemma is
Theorem 5.16. Let $\mathscr{S}_{1}=\left\{\left(G_{1}, G_{2}\right) \mid G_{1}\right.$ and $G_{2}$ are structurally inequivalent type-3 grammars over $\{0\}\}$. Let $\mathscr{S}_{2}=\left\{\left(G_{1}, G_{2}\right) \mid G_{1}\right.$ and $G_{2}$ are structurally inequivalent type-3 grammars over $\{0,1\}\}$. Then
(1) $\mathscr{S}_{1}$ is NP-complete.
(2) $\mathscr{S}_{2}$ is PSPACE-complete.

Proof. (1) By Lemma 5.15, $\mathscr{S}_{1}=\left\{\left(G_{1}, G_{2}\right) \mid G_{1}\right.$ and $G_{2}$ are type- 3 grammars over $\{0\}$ and $\left.L\left(G_{1}\right) \neq L\left(G_{2}\right)\right\}$. From Lemma 3.1(1) a regular expression can be converted in polynomial time into a right-linear cfg generating the same language. This right-linear grammar can be converted in polynomial time into an equivalent type-3 grammar. Therefore RINEQ-(over 0 ) is polynomially reducible to $\mathscr{S}_{1}$. Since RINEQ-(over 0) is NP-hard (from Theorem 2.11(3)), $\mathscr{S}_{1}$ is also NP-hard. In [30] it is shown that the inequivalence problem for ndfa's over $\{0\}$ is solvable in nondeterministic polynomial time. Since type- 3 grammars are clearly transformable to equivalent ndfa's in polynomial time, we conclude that $\mathscr{S}_{1}$ is in NP.
(2) The proof of (2) is similar, using Proposition 2.3 to establish that $\mathscr{S}_{2}$ is PSPACE-hard. From Lemmas 5.15 and 5.6, $\mathscr{S}_{2}$ is a member of PSPACE.

Next let us consider the more interesting cases, namely, right-linear, linear, and arbitrary context-free grammar structural equivalence. It turns out that the size of the terminal alphabet is irrelevant to the complexity of these problems because arbitrary symbols can be encoded by subtrees using a single terminal symbol.

Lemma 5.17. Let $\mathscr{S}=\left\{\left(G_{1}, G_{2}\right) \mid G_{1}\right.$ and $G_{2}$ are structurally equivalent rightlinear grammars over $\{0\}\}$. Then $\mathscr{S}$ is PSPACE-hard.

Proof. Let

$$
\mathscr{T}=\left\{\boldsymbol{G} \mid \boldsymbol{G} \text { is a type-3 grammar and } L(G)=\{1,2\}^{+}\right\} .
$$

We will show that $\mathscr{T}$ is polynomially reducible to $\mathscr{S}$. Let $G=(N,\{1,2\}, P, S)$ be an arbitrary type-3 grammar. Define $G^{\prime}=\left(N,\{0\}, P^{\prime}, S\right)$, where

$$
\begin{aligned}
P^{\prime}= & \{A \rightarrow 0 B \mid A \rightarrow 1 B \in P\} \\
& \cup\{A \rightarrow 00 B \mid A \rightarrow 2 B \in P\} \\
& \cup\{A \rightarrow 0 \mid A \rightarrow 1 \in P\} \\
& \cup\{A \rightarrow 00 \mid A \rightarrow 2 \in P\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Define $G^{\prime \prime}=\left(\left\{S^{\prime \prime}\right\},\{0\}, P^{\prime \prime}, S^{\prime \prime}\right)$, where

$$
P^{\prime \prime}=\left\{S^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0 S^{\prime \prime}, S^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 00 S^{\prime \prime}, S^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0, S^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 00\right\}
$$

Observe that $a_{1} a_{2} \cdots a_{n}$ is in $L(G)$ if and only if $\left[0^{a_{1}}\left[0^{a_{2}}\left[\cdots\left[0^{a_{n}}\right]^{n}\right.\right.\right.$ is in $L\left(\mathscr{P}\left(G^{\prime}\right)\right)$. Moreover, $a_{1} a_{2} \cdots a_{n}$ is in $\{1,2\}^{+}$if and only if $\left[0^{a_{1}}\left[0^{a_{2}}\left[\cdots\left[0^{\alpha_{n}}\right]^{n}\right.\right.\right.$ is in $L\left(\mathscr{P}\left(G^{\prime \prime}\right)\right)$. This means that $L(G)=\{1,2\}^{+}$if and only if $L\left(\mathscr{P}\left(G^{\prime}\right)\right)=L\left(\mathscr{P}\left(G^{\prime \prime}\right)\right.$ ), which is true if and only if $G^{\prime}$ and $G^{\prime \prime}$ are structurally equivalent. Since $\left|G^{\prime}\right|+\left|G^{\prime \prime}\right|=O(|G|)$ and
the translation is quite obviously executable in polynomial time, we conclude that $\mathscr{T}$ is polynomially reducible to $\mathscr{S}$. But $\mathscr{T}$ is PSPACE-hard, by Proposition 2.4, Lemma 1.10(1), and Lemma 1.8(2). Thus $\mathscr{S}$ is also PSPACE-hard.

Lemma 5.18. Let $\mathscr{P}=\left\{\left(G_{1}, G_{2}\right) \mid G_{1}\right.$ and $G_{2}$ are structurally equivalent linear cfg's). Then $\mathscr{S}$ is in PSPACE.

Proof. We can reduce the membership problem for $\mathscr{S}$ to the equivalence problem for right-linear grammars in polynomial time. Let $G_{i}=\left(N_{i}, \Sigma, P_{i}, S_{i}\right)$ for $i=1,2$ be the relevant input grammars. Define $G_{i}{ }^{\prime}=\left(N_{i}, \Sigma \cup\{\$, \notin\}, P_{i}{ }^{\prime}, S_{i}\right)$, in which

$$
P_{i}^{\prime}=\left\{A \rightarrow \$ u \notin B \mid A \rightarrow u B v \in P_{i}\right\} \cup\left\{A \rightarrow \$ u \mid A \rightarrow u \in P_{i}\right\} .
$$

Observe that

$$
L\left(P_{i}\right) \subseteq\left(\$ \Sigma^{*} \not \Sigma^{*}\right)^{*} \cdot\{\$\} \cdot \Sigma^{*} .
$$

Moreover,

$$
\left[u_{1}\left[u_{2}\left[\cdots\left[u_{n}[v] w_{n}\right] \cdots w_{2}\right] w_{1}\right] \in L\left(\mathscr{P}\left(G_{i}\right)\right)\right.
$$

if and only if

$$
\$ u_{1} \phi w_{1} \$ u_{2} \Varangle w_{2} \$ \cdots \$ u_{n} 火 w_{n} \$ v \in L\left(G_{i}{ }^{\prime}\right) .
$$

It immediately follows that $L\left(G_{1}{ }^{\prime}\right)=L\left(G_{2}{ }^{\prime}\right)$ if and only if $L\left(\mathscr{P}\left(G_{1}\right)\right)=L\left(\mathscr{P}\left(G_{2}\right)\right)$, which is true if and only if $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ are structurally equivalent.

Since $\left|G_{1}{ }^{\prime}\right|+\left|G_{2}{ }^{\prime}\right|=O\left(\left|G_{1}\right|+\left|G_{2}\right|\right)$ and the translation is clearly polynomial in time, we can apply Lemma 5.6 to see that $\mathscr{S}$ is in PSPACE.

We combine the previous two lemmas, yielding

Theorem 5.19. The following sets are PSPACE-complete:
(a) $\left\{\left(G_{1}, G_{2}\right) \mid G_{1}\right.$ and $G_{2}$ are structurally equivalent type-3 grammars over $\Sigma$ with $|\Sigma| \geqslant 2\}$,
(b) $\left\{\left(G_{1}, G_{2}\right) \mid G_{1}\right.$ and $G_{2}$ are structurally equivalent right-linear grammars over $\Sigma$ with $|\Sigma| \geqslant 1\}$,
(c) $\left\{\left(G_{1}, G_{2}\right) \mid G_{1}\right.$ and $G_{2}$ are structurally equivalent linear cfg's over $\Sigma$ with $|\Sigma| \geqslant 1\}$.

Proof. The lower bounds on the complexity of these sets are provided by Theorem 5.16 (and Lemma 1.8), Lemma 5.17, and Lemma 5.17, respectively. The upper bound in each case is provided by Lemma 5.18.

We have not been able to find a polynomially space-bounded algorithm for structural equivalence of arbitrary cfg's. The problem is clearly PSPACE-hard and is known to be decidable (Proposition 5.5); but an exact characterization of the complexity of this problem remains open. Related results appear in [33]. We conjecture, however, that no such polynomially space-bounded algorithm exists.

## 6. Conclusion

We have seen that the complexity of a variety of decidable questions about regular expressions and context-free grammars can be understood in terms of very simple underlying properties. A natural combinatorial structure for the context-free grammars was presented, which complicates several related problems including structural equivalence of context-free grammars and $L L$-equivalence. Several problems were presented whose time and space complexity is provably exponential due to this structure. As a corollary we showed that many predicates on the bounded contextfree languages require exponential time, even on nondeterministic machines.

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