Pumping and Counting on the Regular Post Embedding Problem*

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Abstract. The Regular Post Embedding Problem is a variant of Post's Correspondence Problem where one compares strings with the subword relation and imposes additional regular constraints on admissible solutions. It is known that this problem is decidable, albeit with very high complexity.

We consider and solve variant problems where the set of solutions is compared to regular constraint sets and where one counts the number of solutions. Our positive results rely on two non-trivial pumping lemmas for Post-embedding languages and their complements.

1 Introduction

Post's Correspondence Problem, or shortly PCP, is the question whether two morphisms $u, v : \Sigma^* \to \Gamma^*$ agree non-trivially on some input, i.e., whether $u(\sigma) = v(\sigma)$ for some non-empty $\sigma \in \Sigma^+$. Post's *Embedding* Problem, shortly PEP, is a variant of PCP where one asks whether $u(\sigma)$ is a (scattered) subword of $v(\sigma)$ for some σ . The subword relation, also called embedding, is denoted " \sqsubseteq ": $x \sqsubseteq y \stackrel{\text{def}}{\Leftrightarrow} x$ can be obtained from y by erasing some letters, possibly all of them, possibly none. The *Regular* Post Embedding Problem, or PEP^{reg}, is an extension of PEP where one adds the requirement that only solutions σ belonging to a given regular language $R \subseteq \Sigma^*$ are admitted. PEP and PEP^{reg} were introduced, and shown decidable, in [2,3].

Regular constraints and the set of PEP-solutions. The decidability of PEP^{reg} can be restated under the following form: it is decidable, given two morphisms $u, v : \Sigma^* \to \Gamma^*$ and a regular language $R \subseteq \Sigma^*$, whether the following holds:

$$\exists x \in R : u(x) \sqsubseteq v(x).$$
 (Existence)

In other words, and letting $PE(u,v) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{x \in \Sigma^* \mid u(x) \sqsubseteq v(x)\}$, one can decide whether $R \cap PE(u,v) \neq \emptyset$. However, this problem has very high complexity. Here the regular language R, acting as a constraint on the form of solutions, plays a key role. Indeed, in the special case where $R = \Sigma^+$, the problem becomes trivial (if there are solutions, in particular length-one solutions exist) which probably explains why PEP and PEP^{reg} had not been investigated earlier.

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In this paper, we prove the decidability of the following questions:

$$\forall x \in R : u(x) \sqsubseteq v(x), \qquad \text{(Universality)}$$

$$\exists^{\infty} x \in R : u(x) \sqsubseteq v(x), \qquad \text{(Infinity)}$$

$$\neg \exists^{\infty} x \in R : u(x) \not\sqsubseteq v(x). \qquad \text{(Cofiniteness)}$$

"Universality" asks whether all words in R are solutions. "Infinity" asks whether R contains infinitely many solutions x, while dually "Cofiniteness" asks whether all but finitely many $x \in R$ are solutions. Equivalently, these questions ask whether $R \subseteq PE(u,v)$, whether $R \cap PE(u,v) =_a \varnothing$, and whether $R \setminus PE(u,v) =_a \varnothing$, writing $S =_a S'$ to denote the "quasi-equality" of two sets, i.e., equality up to a finite subset. As a consequence of these decidability results we can compute the number of words in R that are (respectively, that are not) solutions.

These results are obtained with the help of two pumping lemmas, one for sets of solutions and one for sets of "antisolutions", i.e., words x such that $u(x) \not\sqsubseteq v(x)$. These pumping lemmas are the more technically involved developments of this paper. Proving them relies on two kinds of techniques: (1) combinatorics of words in presence of the subword relation and associated operations, and (2) a miniaturisation of Higman's Lemma that gives effective bounds on the length of bad sequences.

Related work. The Regular Post Embedding Problem was introduced in [2,3] where its decidability was proved. These papers also showed that PEP^{reg} is expressive enough to encode problems on lossy channel systems, or LCS's. In fact, encoding in both directions exist, hence PEP^{reg} is exactly at level $\mathcal{F}_{\omega^{(0)}}$ in the Fast Growing Hierarchy. Thus, although it is decidable, PEP^{reg} is not primitive-recursive, and not even multiply-recursive (see [4] and the references therein).

A consequence of the above encodings is that PEP^{reg} is an abstract problem that is inter-reducible with a growing list of decision problems that have the same $\mathcal{F}_{\omega^{\omega}}$ complexity: metric temporal logic [14], products of modal logics [8], leftist grammars [9,6], data nets [11], alternating one-clock timed automata [1,10], etc.

On complexity. Aiming at simplicity, our main decidability proofs do not come with explicit statements regarding the computational complexity of the associated problems. The decidability proofs can be turned into deterministic algorithms with complexity in $\mathcal{F}_{\omega^{\omega}}$, providing the same upper bound that already applies to PEP^{reg}. Regarding lower bounds, it is clear that "Infinity" is at least as hard as PEP^{reg}. We do not know if the same lower bound holds for "Universality" and "Cofiniteness".

Outline of the paper. Section 2 recalls the necessary definitions and notations. Section 3 deals with combinatorics on words with subwords. Section 4 proves the decidability of comparisons with regular sets. Then our pumping lemma is stated in Section 5 and used in Section 6 for deciding finiteness, counting, and quasi-regular questions. Sections 7 and 8 prove the two halves of the pumping lemma. Proofs omitted in the main text can be found in the full version of this extended abstract.

2 Notations and Definitions

Words and morphisms. We write $x,y,z,t,\sigma,\rho,\alpha,\beta,\ldots$ for words, i.e., finite sequences of letters such as a,b,c,i,j,\ldots from alphabets Σ,Γ,\ldots , and denote with x.y, or xy, the concatenation of x and y. We let ε denote the empty word. The *length* of x is written |x|. A morphism from Σ^* to Γ^* is a map $u:\Sigma^*\to\Gamma^*$ that respects the monoidal structure, i.e., with $u(\varepsilon)=\varepsilon$ and u(x.y)=u(x).u(y). A morphism u is completely defined by its image $u(a),u(b),\ldots$, on $\Sigma=\{a,b,\ldots\}$. We often simply write u_a,u_b,\ldots , and u_x , instead of $u(a),u(b),\ldots$, and u(x). Finally, for a morphism $u:\Sigma^*\to\Gamma^*$, we let $K_u=\max_{a\in\Sigma}|u_a|$ denote the *expansion factor* of u, thus called because clearly $|u_x|\leq K_u\times|x|$.

The *mirror image* of a word x is denoted \widetilde{x} , e.g., abc = cba. The mirror image of a language L is $\widetilde{L} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{\widetilde{x} \mid x \in L\}$. It is well-known that the mirror image of a regular language is regular. For a morphism $h: \Sigma^* \to \Gamma^*$, the mirror morphism \widetilde{h} is defined by $\widetilde{h}(x) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \widetilde{h(\widetilde{x})}$, ensuring $\widetilde{h}(\widetilde{x}) = \widetilde{h(x)}$.

Syntactic congruence. For a language L, we let \sim_L denote the syntactic congruence induced by L: $x \sim_L y \stackrel{\text{def}}{\Leftrightarrow} \forall w, w'(wxw' \in L \Leftrightarrow wyw' \in L)$. The Myhill-Nerode Theorem states that \sim_L has finite index iff L is a regular language. For a regular L, we let n_L denote the number of equivalence classes w.r.t. \sim_L .

Subwords and Higman's Lemma. Given two words x and y, we write $x \sqsubseteq y$ when x is a *subword* of y, i.e., when x can be obtained by erasing some letters (possibly none) from y. For example, $abba \sqsubseteq \underline{abracadabra}$. The subword relation, aka *embedding*, is a partial ordering on words. It is compatible with the monoidal structure:

$$\varepsilon \sqsubseteq x$$
, $(x \sqsubseteq y \land x' \sqsubseteq y') \Rightarrow xx \sqsubseteq yy'$.

It is well-known (Higman's Lemma) that the subword relation is a well-quasi-ordering when we consider words over a fixed finite alphabet. This means that any set of words has a finite number of minimal elements (minimal w.r.t. \sqsubseteq).

We say that a sequence x_1, \ldots, x_l, \ldots of words in Σ^* is n-good if there exists indexes $i_1 < i_2 < \ldots < i_n$ such that $x_{i_1} \sqsubseteq x_{i_2} \sqsubseteq \ldots \sqsubseteq x_{i_n}$, i.e., if the sequence contains a subsequence of length n that is increasing w.r.t. embedding. It is n-bad otherwise. Higman's Lemma states that every infinite sequence is 2-good, and even n-good for any $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Hence n-bad sequences are finite.

Higman's Lemma is often described as being "non-effective" in that it does not give any information on the length of bad sequences. Indeed, arbitrarily long bad sequences exist. However, upper bounds on the length of bad sequences can certainly be given when one restricts to "simple" sequences. Such finitary versions of well-quasi-ordering properties are called "miniaturisations" in proof-theoretical circles.

In this paper we consider a very simple miniaturisation that applies to "controlled" sequences [7]. Formally, and given $k \in \mathbb{N}$, we say that a sequence x_1, \ldots, x_l of words in Σ^* is k-controlled if $|x_i| \le i \times k$ for all $i = 1, \ldots, l$. We shall use the following result:²

If the minimal complete DFA that accepts L has q states, then n_L can be bounded by q^q .

² For a proof, see [7] or the long version of this paper.

Lemma 2.1. There exists a bounding function $H : \mathbb{N}^3 \to \mathbb{N}$ such that, for any $n, k \in \mathbb{N}$ and $l \ge H(n, k, |\Sigma|)$, any k-controlled sequence of l words in Σ^* is n-good.

The lemma states that if a k-controlled sequence is long enough, it is n-good. Equivalently, n-bad sequences are shorter that $H(n,k,|\Sigma|)$ or are not k-controlled.

3 Composing, Decomposing, and Iterating Words and Subwords

This section is devoted to the subword ordering and the way it interacts with concatenations and factorizations. It proves a few basic results, e.g., Lemma 3.7, that we have been unable to find in the technical literature [12,13].

3.1 Available Suffixes

When $x \sqsubseteq y$, we decompose y as a concatenation $y = y_1y_2$ such that y_1 is the *shortest* prefix of y with $x \sqsubseteq y_1$. We call y_1 the "used prefix" and y_2 the "available suffix". We use $y \oslash x$ to denote the available suffix. For example, $a\underline{b}c\underline{a}bc \oslash \underline{b}a = bc$. Note that $y \oslash x$ is only defined when $x \sqsubseteq y$.

Lemma 3.1. $x \sqsubseteq y$ and $x' \sqsubseteq (y \oslash x)y'$ imply $xx' \sqsubseteq yy'$.

Corollary 3.2. $x \sqsubseteq y$ *implies* $x(y \oslash x) \sqsubseteq y$.

Lemma 3.3. $x \sqsubseteq y$ and $xx' \sqsubseteq yy'$ imply $x' \sqsubseteq (y \oslash x)y'$.

3.2 Unmatched Suffixes

When $x \not\sqsubseteq y$, we decompose x as a concatenation $x = x_1x_2$ such that x_1 is the *longest* prefix of x with $x_1 \sqsubseteq y$. We call x_1 the "matched prefix" and x_2 the "unmatched suffix". We use $x \ominus y$ to denote the unmatched suffix. For example $\underline{aabcabc} \ominus \underline{baca} = \underline{bcabc}$. Note that $x \ominus y$ is only defined when $x \not\sqsubseteq y$ (hence $x \ominus y \ne \varepsilon$).

Lemma 3.4. $x \not\sqsubseteq y$ and $xx' \not\sqsubseteq yy'$ imply $[(x \ominus y)x'] \ominus y' = xx' \ominus yy'$.

Corollary 3.5. $x \not\sqsubseteq y$ and $xx' \not\sqsubseteq yy'$ imply $(x \ominus y)x' \not\sqsubseteq y'$.

Lemma 3.6. $x \not\sqsubseteq y$ and $xx' \sqsubseteq yy'$ imply $(x \ominus y)x' \sqsubseteq y'$.

3.3 Iterating Factors

Lemma 3.7. $xy \sqsubseteq yz$ if, and only if, $x^ky \sqsubseteq yz^k$ for all $k \in \mathbb{N}$.

Proof. We only need to prove the " \Rightarrow " direction. This is done by induction on the length of y. The cases where $y = \varepsilon$ or $x = \varepsilon$ or k = 0 are obvious, so we assume that |y|, |x| and k are strictly positive. There are now two cases:

- 1. If $x \sqsubseteq y$, we consider a factorization $y = y_1y_2$ (e.g., $y_2 = y \oslash x$ is convenient) with $x \sqsubseteq y_1$ (hence $x^k \sqsubseteq y_1^k$) and $y \sqsubseteq y_2z$. Since $|y_2| < |y|$ (because $x \ne \varepsilon$ and hence $y_1 \ne \varepsilon$), the induction hypothesis applies and from $y_1y_2 = y \sqsubseteq y_2z$ one gets $y_1^ky_2 \sqsubseteq y_2z^k$. Now $x^ky \sqsubseteq y_1^ky = y_1y_1^ky_2 \sqsubseteq y_1y_2z^k = yz^k$.
- 2. If $x \not\sqsubseteq y$, we write $x = x_1x_2$ with $x_2 = x \ominus y$. Thus $x_1 \sqsubseteq y$ and $x_2y \sqsubseteq z$. Thus there exists a factorization $z = z_1z_2$ s.t. $x_2 \sqsubseteq z_1$ (entailing $x \sqsubseteq yz_1$) and $y \sqsubseteq z_2$. Now $x^ky \sqsubseteq (yz_1)^k z_2 = yz_1(yz_1)^{k-1}z_2 \sqsubseteq yz_1(z_2z_1)^{k-1}z_2 = yz^k$.

Lemma 3.8. Assume $x \not\sqsubseteq y$, $xz \not\sqsubseteq yt$, and $x \ominus y \sqsubseteq xz \ominus yt$. Then for all $k \in \mathbb{N}$:

$$xz^k \not\sqsubseteq yt^k.$$
 (Z_k)

Furthermore, if we let $r_k \stackrel{def}{=} xz^k \ominus yt^k$, then for all $k \in \mathbb{N}$:

$$r_0 \sqsubseteq r_k \sqsubseteq r_{k+1}.$$
 (R_k)

Proof. The hypothesis for the Lemma are that (Z_0) , (Z_1) and (R_0) hold. We prove, by induction on k, that (Z_k) and (R_{k-1}) imply (Z_{k+1}) and (R_k) .

Proof of (Z_{k+1}) : applying Coro. 3.5 on (Z_0) and (Z_1) yields $r_0z \not\sqsubseteq t$, hence a fortiori $r_kz \not\sqsubseteq t$ using (R_{k-1}) . Combining with (Z_k) and applying Lemma 3.6 contrapositively entails $xz^kz \not\sqsubseteq yt^kt$, i.e., (Z_{k+1}) .

Proof of (R_k) : r_{k+1} is $xz^{k+1} \ominus yt^{k+1}$. By Lemma 3.4, this is $[(xz^k \ominus yt^k)z] \ominus t$, i.e., $r_kz \ominus t$. From (R_{k-1}) we get $r_{k-1}z \ominus t \sqsubseteq r_kz \ominus t$. However $r_{k-1}z \ominus t = r_k$ (Lemma 3.4). Finally $r_k \sqsubseteq r_{k+1}$.

4 Regular Properties of Sets of PEP Solutions

Given two morphisms $u, v : \Sigma^* \to \Gamma^*$, a word $x \in \Sigma^*$ is called a "solution" (of Post's Embedding Problem) when $u_x \sqsubseteq v_x$. Otherwise it is an "antisolution". We let PE(u, v) denote the set of solutions (for given u and v). Note that ε is always a solution.

We consider questions where we are given a PEP instance u, v with $u, v : \Sigma^* \to \Gamma^*$ and a regular language $R \subseteq \Sigma^*$. The considered problems are

PEP_Inclusion: does $PE(u, v) \subseteq R$?

PEP_Containment: does $PE(u, v) \supseteq R$?

PEP_Equality: does PE(u, v) = R?

It is tempting to compare PE(u, v) with another Post-embedding set, however:

Theorem 4.1. The questions "does $PE(u,v) \cap PE(u',v') = \{\epsilon\}$?" and "does $PE(u,v) \subseteq PE(u',v')$?" are Π_1^0 -complete.

Proof. Π_1^0 -hardness can be shown directly by reduction from PCP. For the first question, simply let u' = v and v' = u. Then a common solution has $u_x \sqsubseteq v_x = u'_x \sqsubseteq v'_x = u_x$, i.e., $u_x = v_x$.

For the second question we use a more subtle encoding: assume w.l.o.g. that Γ contains two distinct symbols a,b and that $u_x \neq \varepsilon$ when $x \neq \varepsilon$. Let now $u_x' \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (ab)^{|u_x|}$ and $v_x' \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (ba)^{|v_x|}$. Thus $u_x' \sqsubseteq v_x'$ if, and only if, $x = \varepsilon$ or $|u_x| < |v_x|$. Finally, $PE(u,v) \setminus PE(u',v')$ contains the non-trivial PCP solutions.

Theorem 4.2. PEP_Inclusion, PEP_Containment and PEP_Equality are decidable.

Note that, while comparisons with a regular language are decidable, regularity itself is undecidable, at least in the more general form stated here:

Proposition 4.3 (Regularity is undecidable [5]). The question "is $R \cap PE(u, v)$ a regular language?" is Σ_1^0 -complete.

The remainder of this section proves Theorem 4.2.

We first observe that PEP_Inclusion and PEP^{reg} are inter-reducible since (u, v, R) is a positive instance for PEP_Inclusion if, and only if, $(u, v, \Sigma^* \setminus R)$ is a negative instance for PEP^{reg}. Hence the decidability of PEP_Inclusion follows from the decidability of PEP^{reg}, proved in [2,3].

For the decidability of PEP_Containment (and then of PEP_Equality), we fix an instance (u, v, R).

For a word $x \in \Sigma^*$, we say that x is good if $u_x \sqsubseteq v_x$ and then we let $w_x \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} v_x \oslash u_x$, otherwise it is bad and then we let $r_x \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} u_x \ominus v_x$. We say that x is alive if $xy \in R$ for some y, otherwise it is dead. Finally, we write |R| for the number of states of a FSA for R, and let $L \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} K_y \times |R|$ be a size threshold (more details in the proof of Lemma 4.5).

A word x is a *cut-off* if, and only if, one of the following conditions holds:

dead cut-off: x is dead;

subsumption cut-off: there exists a strict prefix x' of x such that $x' \sim_R x$, and either

- 1. both x and x' are good, with $w_{x'} \sqsubseteq w_x$,
- 2. or both x and x' are bad, with $r_x \sqsubseteq r_{x'}$;

big cut-off: x is alive, bad and $|r_x| > L$.

Let $T \subseteq \Sigma^*$ be the set of all words that do not have a cut-off as a (strict) prefix. T is prefix-closed and can be seen as a tree.

Lemma 4.4. *T is finite.*

Proof. We show that T, seen as a tree, has no infinite branch. Hence, and since it is finitely branching, it is finite (Kőnig's Lemma).

Assume, by way of contradiction, that T has an infinite branch labeled by some x_0, x_1, x_2, \ldots (and recall that every x_i is a prefix of all the x_{i+k} 's). We show that one of the x_i must be a cut-off, which contradicts the assumption.

Since the syntactic congruence \sim_R has finite index, there exists an infinite subsequence x_0, x_1, x_2, \ldots (renumbered for convenience) of \sim_R -equivalent x_i 's. If infinitely many of the x_i 's are good, one of them must be a subsumption cut-off since, by Higman's Lemma, the infinite sequence of the w_{x_i} 's (for good x_i 's) must have some $w_{x'} \sqsubseteq w_x$. If only finitely many of the x_i 's are good, then infinitely many of them are bad and either some r_{x_i} has size larger than L (hence x_i is a big cut-off), or all r_{x_i} 's have size at most L, hence belong to a finite set $\Gamma^{\leq L}$, and two of them must be equal (hence there must be a subsumption cut-off).

With the next two lemmas, we show that T contains enough information to decide whether $R \subseteq PE(u,v)$.

Lemma 4.5. If T contains a big cut-off, then $R \not\subseteq PE(u,v)$.

Proof. Assume x is a big cut-off (i.e., is alive, bad, and with $|r_x| > L$) in T. It is alive so $xy \in R$ for some y. We pick the smallest such y, ensuring that |y| < |R| (the number of states of an FSA for R). Since x is bad, we know that $u_x \not\subseteq v_x$. Note that $|v_y| \le K_v \times |y| \le K_v \times |R| \le L$ so that $|v_y| < |r_x|$ and, consequently, $r_x \not\subseteq v_y$. Thus, and since $r_x = u_x \ominus v_x$, applying Lemma 3.6 contrapositively gives $u_x \not\subseteq v_x v_y$ and, a fortiori, $u_{xy} \not\subseteq v_{xy}$. Finally $xy \notin PE(u,v)$. Since $xy \in R$, we conclude $R \not\subseteq PE(u,v)$.

There is a reciprocal.

Lemma 4.6. Assume that T has no big cut-offs and that $(R \cap T) \subseteq PE(u, v)$. Then $R \subseteq PE(u, v)$.

Proof. Consider some $x \in R$: we show that $u_x \sqsubseteq v_x$ by induction on the size of x. If $x \in T$ then $x \in (R \cap T) \subseteq PE(u, v)$ and we are done. If $x \notin T$, then a prefix of x is a cut-off. This cannot be a big cut-off (we assumed T has none) or a dead cut-off (the prefix is alive since $x \in R$). Hence this is a subsumption cut-off, caused by one of its prefixes. Finally, x can be written under the form $x = x_1x_2x_3$ with x_1x_2 the subsumption cut-off, and x_1 the prefix justifying the subsumption. We know $x_2 \neq \varepsilon$ (x_1 is a strict prefix of the cut-off) and $x_1 \sim_R x_1x_2$. Hence $x_1x_3 \in R$ (since $x_1x_2x_3 \in R$) and $u_{x_1x_3} \sqsubseteq v_{x_1x_3}$ by induction hypothesis.

There are now two cases, depending on what kind of subsumption is at hand.

- 1. If x_1 is good then $u_{x_1} \sqsubseteq v_{x_1}$. Combining with $u_{x_1x_3} \sqsubseteq v_{x_1x_3}$ entails $u_{x_3} \sqsubseteq w_{x_1}v_{x_3}$ (Lemma 3.3). From $w_{x_1} \sqsubseteq w_{x_1x_2}$ (condition for subsumption) we deduce $u_{x_3} \sqsubseteq w_{x_1x_2}v_{x_3}$. Combining with $u_{x_1x_2} \sqsubseteq v_{x_1x_2}$ (x_1x_2 too is good), Lemma 3.1 yields $u_{x_1x_2}u_{x_3} \sqsubseteq v_{x_1x_2}v_{x_3}$.
- 2. If x_1 is bad, then $u_{x_1x_3} \sqsubseteq v_{x_1x_3}$ and $u_{x_1} \not\sqsubseteq v_{x_1}$ entail $r_{x_1}u_{x_3} \sqsubseteq v_{x_3}$ (Lemma 3.6). From $r_{x_1x_2} \sqsubseteq r_{x_1}$ (condition for subsumption) we deduce $r_{x_1x_2}u_{x_3} \sqsubseteq v_{x_3}$. Combined with $u_{x_1x_2} \not\sqsubseteq v_{x_1x_2}$ (x_1x_2 too is bad), applying Coro. 3.5 contrapositively yields $u_{x_1x_2}u_{x_3} \sqsubseteq v_{x_1x_2}v_{x_3}$.

In both cases we proved that $x_1x_2x_3 \in PE(u, v)$ as requested. \Box

We can now prove the decidability of PEP_Containment: the tree T can be built effectively starting from the root since it is easy to see whether a word is a cut-off. The construction terminates thanks to Lemma 4.4. Once T is at hand, Lemmas 4.5 and 4.6 gives an effective criterion for deciding whether $R \subseteq PE(u, v)$: it is enough to check that T has no big cut-off and that all the words $x \in T$ satisfy $u_x \sqsubseteq v_x$ or do not belong to R.

5 Pumpable Solutions and Antisolutions

Let $u, v : \Sigma^* \to \Gamma^*$ be a given PEP instance.

Definition 5.1. A triple of words $(x,y,z) \in \Sigma^*$ with $y \neq \varepsilon$ is a pumpable solution if $xy^kz \in PE(u,v)$ for all $k \in \mathbb{N}$.

It is a pumpable antisolution if $xy^kz \notin PE(u,v)$ for all $k \in \mathbb{N}$.

In other words, a pumpable solution denotes an infinite subset of PE(u,v) of the form xy^*z , while a pumpable antisolution denotes an infinite subset of its complement. Our interest in pumpable solutions and antisolutions is that they provide simple witnesses proving that PE(u,v) (or its complement) is infinite.

We observe that these witnesses are effective:

Proposition 5.2 (Decidability of pumpability). It is decidable whether (x, y, z) is a pumpable solution, and also whether it is a pumpable antisolution.

Proof. Checking that (x, y, z) is a pumpable solution reduces to the PEP_Containment problem, while checking that it is not a pumpable antisolution reduces to the PEP^{reg} problem (or, equivalently, PEP_Inclusion).

We can now state our main technical result. Here (and below) we speak loosely of "a pumpable solution", when we mean "the language denoted by a pumpable solution".

Lemma 5.3 (Pumping Lemma). *Let* $R \subseteq \Sigma^*$ *be a regular language.*

- 1. If $R \cap PE(u, v)$ is infinite, it contains a pumpable solution.
- 2. If $R \setminus PE(u, v)$ is infinite, it contains a pumpable antisolution.

Section 7 is devoted to a proof of the Pumping Lemma for solutions, while Section 8 proves the Pumping Lemma for antisolutions. Without waiting for that, we list the main consequences on our questions.

6 Quasi-Regular Properties and Counting Properties

For two languages L, L, we say that L is *quasi-included* in L', written $L \subseteq_a L'$, when $L \setminus L'$ is finite, and that they are *quasi-equal*, written $L =_a L'$, when $L \subseteq_a L'$ and $L' \subseteq_a L$. We consider the following questions, where we are given a PEP instance u, v and a regular $R \subseteq \Sigma^*$:

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PEP_Quasi_Inclusion: does PE(u,v) \subseteq_a R?
PEP_Quasi_Containment: does PE(u,v) \supseteq_a R?
PEP_Quasi_Equality: does PE(u,v) =_a R?
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Theorem 6.1. PEP_Quasi_Inclusion, PEP_Quasi_Containment *and* PEP_Quasi_Equality *are decidable*.

Proof. We start with PEP_Quasi_Inclusion. This problem is co-r.e. since when $PE(u,v) \setminus R$ is infinite, there is a pumpable solution in $\Sigma^* \setminus R$ (Pumping Lemma) that can be guessed and checked (Prop. 5.2). It is also r.e. since $PE(u,v) \subseteq_a R$ iff there is a finite language $F \subseteq \Sigma^*$ s.t. $PE(u,v) \subseteq R \cup F$, which can be checked (Theo. 4.2) since $R \cup F$ is a regular language. Thus PEP_Quasi_Inclusion, being r.e. and co-r.e., is decidable.

We use the same reasoning to show that PEP_Quasi_Containment is decidable. Then PEP_Quasi_Equality is obviously decidable as well.

We also consider counting questions where the answer is a number in $\mathbb{N} \cup \{\omega\}$: PEP_NbSol: what is the cardinality of $R \cap PE(u,v)$? PEP_NbAntisol: what is the cardinality $R \setminus PE(u,v)$?

Theorem 6.2. PEP_NbSol and PEP_NbAntisol are decidable (more precisely, the associated counting functions are recursive).

Proof. We start with PEP_NbSol. We can first check whether the cardinality of $R \cap PE(u,v)$ is finite by deciding whether $PE(u,v) \subseteq_a (\Sigma^* \setminus R)$ (using the decidability of PEP_Quasi_Inclusion). If we find that the cardinality is infinite, we are done. Otherwise we can enumerate all words in R and check whether they are solutions. At any given stage during this enumeration, we can check whether the current set F of already found solutions is complete by deciding whether $PE(u,v) \cap (R \setminus F) = \emptyset$ (using the decidability of PEP_Inclusion). We are bound to eventually find a complete set since we only started enumerating solutions in R knowing there are finitely many of them.

The same method works for PEP NbAntisol, this times using the decidability of PEP_Containment and PEP_Quasi_Containment.

7 **Pumping in Long Solutions**

We start with a sufficient condition for pumpability of solutions.

Definition 7.1. A triple $x, y, z \in \Sigma^*$ with $y \neq \varepsilon$ is positive if the following four conditions are satisfied:

$$u_x \sqsubseteq v_x,$$
 (C1) $u_x u_y \sqsubseteq v_x v_y,$ (C2)

$$u_x \sqsubseteq v_x,$$
 (C1) $u_x u_y \sqsubseteq v_x v_y,$ (C2) $u_x u_y u_z \sqsubseteq v_x v_y v_z,$ (C3) $(v_x \oslash u_x) \sqsubseteq (v_x v_y \oslash u_x u_y).$ (C4)

Lemma 7.2. If (x, y, z) is positive then (x, y, yz) is a pumpable solution.

Proof. Assume that (x,y,z) is positive, so that (C1–4) hold. Write shortly w for $v_x \oslash u_x$ and w' for $v_{xy} \oslash u_{xy}$. From (C1) and the definition of w, Coro. 3.2 yields:

$$u_x w \sqsubseteq v_x$$
. (C5)

From (C2), it further yields $u_x u_y w' \sqsubseteq v_x v_y$, from which (C4) entails:

$$u_x u_y w \sqsubseteq v_x v_y.$$
 (C6)

Applying Lemma 3.3 on (C1) and (C3) (respectively on (C1) and (C6)) yields:

$$u_{\nu}u_{z} \sqsubseteq wv_{\nu}v_{z},$$
 (C7) $u_{\nu}w \sqsubseteq wv_{\nu}.$ (C7')

Applying Lemma 3.7 on (C7') gives

$$u_{v^k}w = (u_y)^k w \sqsubseteq w(v_y)^k = wv_{v^k} \text{ for all } k \in \mathbb{N}.$$
 (C8)

With (C5) and (C8), Lemma 3.1 entails

$$u_{x}u_{yk}w \sqsubseteq v_{x}v_{yk} \text{ for all } k \in \mathbb{N}.$$
 (C9)

With (C7) and (C9), it then entails

$$u_x u_{y^k} u_{yz} \sqsubseteq v_x v_{y^k} v_{yz} \text{ for all } k \in \mathbb{N},$$
 (C10)

which just states that (x, y, yz) is a pumpable solution.

We now let n_R denote the number of equivalence classes induced by \sim_R (Section 2). Finally, we let H_u and H_v denote, respectively, $H(n_R+1, K_u, |\Gamma|)$ and $H(n_R+1, K_v, |\Gamma|)$. Recall that, by definition of the H function (Lemma 2.1), any K_u -controlled sequence of at least H_u Γ -words is $(n_R + 1)$ -good.

Lemma 7.3. If R contains a solution $\sigma \in PE(u,v)$ of length $|\sigma| \ge 2H_v$ then it contains a pumpable solution.

(Observe that this will entail, as a corollary, the first half of the Pumping Lemma since, if $R \cap PE(u, v)$ is infinite, it contains solutions σ of arbitrarily large length.)

Proof. Let $\sigma \in PE(u,v)$ be a solution of length L: σ has L+1 prefixes x_0,x_1,\ldots,x_L . We consider the subsequence $x_{i_1}, x_{i_2}, \dots x_{i_l}$ of all prefixes of σ that satisfy $u_{x_{i_i}} \sqsubseteq v_{x_{i_i}}$ (called good prefixes) and split the proof in three main steps.

1. We show, by induction over j, that the sequence $(v_{x_{i_j}} \otimes u_{x_{i_j}})_{j=1,...,l}$ is K_{ν} -controlled, i.e., writing w_j for $v_{x_{i_j}} \otimes u_{x_{i_j}}$, that $|w_j| \leq j \times K_v$ for all $j = 1, \dots, l$. The base case is obvious since $i_1 = 0$ and $w_1 = \varepsilon$. For the inductive case, we consider j > 0 so that $x_{i_j}=x_{i_j-1}.a$ for some $a\in\Sigma$ (the i_j -th letter in σ). If $u_{x_{i_j-1}}\sqsubseteq v_{x_{i_j-1}}$ (hence $i_{(j-1)}=$ $(i_j)-1$) then $w_j=v_{x_{i_j}}\otimes u_{x_{i_j}}$ is $(v_{x_{i_j-1}}.v_a)\otimes (u_{x_{i_j-1}}.u_a)$ which cannot be longer than $(v_{x_{i,-1}}.v_a) \oslash u_{x_{i,-1}}$, itself not longer than $(v_{x_{i,-1}} \oslash u_{x_{i,-1}}).v_a$. Thus $|w_j| \le |w_{j-1}| + K_v$ and we conclude with the induction hypothesis. If on the other hand $u_{x_{i_i-1}} \not\subseteq v_{x_{i_i-1}}$, then w_i is a suffix of v_a hence $|w_i| \leq K_v$.

2a. Assume now that $l \ge H_{\nu}$. Then, using Lemma 2.1, we conclude that there is a further subsequence $(x_{i_{j_r}})_{r=0,\dots,n_R}$ of n_R+1 prefixes of σ such that $w_{j_0} \sqsubseteq w_{j_1} \sqsubseteq \cdots \sqsubseteq$ $w_{j_{n_R}}$. Since n_R is the index of \sim_R , we deduce that there exists two such prefixes $x_{i_{j_R}}$ (shortly, x) and $x_{i_{j_{n'}}}$ (shortly, x') with $x \sim_R x'$. If we write x' under the form xy (NB: $y \neq$ ε) and σ under the form xyz, we have found a positive triple (x,y,z). Then Lemma 7.2 applies and shows that xy^*yz is a pumpable solution. Finally, since $x \sim_R xy$, we know that xy^*yz is a subset of R.

2b. Observe that if a prefix x_i of $\sigma = x_i y_i$ is not good, then \tilde{y}_i is a good prefix of the solution $\widetilde{\sigma} \in PE(\widetilde{u}, \widetilde{v})$ of the mirror PEP problem. Hence if σ has $l < H_v$ good prefixes, $\widetilde{\sigma}$ has $l' \ge 2H_{\nu} - l > H_{\nu}$ good ones. Then the mirror problem falls in case 2a above (we note that \sim_R , n_R , and K_v do not have to be adjusted when mirroring). We deduce that there is a pumpable solution in $R \cap PE(\widetilde{u}, \widetilde{v})$, whose mirror is a pumpable solution in $R \cap PE(u, v)$.

Pumping in Long Antisolutions

As with pumpable solutions, there is a sufficient condition for pumpability of antisolutions.

Definition 8.1. A triple $x, y, z \in \Sigma^*$ with $y \neq \varepsilon$ is negative if the following four conditions are satisfied:

$$u_x \not\sqsubseteq v_x,$$
 (D1) $u_x u_y \not\sqsubseteq v_x v_y,$ (D2) $u_x u_z \not\sqsubseteq v_x v_z$ (D3) $u_x \ominus v_x \sqsubseteq u_{xy} \ominus v_{xy}$ (D4)

$$u_x u_z \not\sqsubseteq v_x v_z$$
 (D3) $u_x \ominus v_x \sqsubseteq u_{xy} \ominus v_{xy}$ (D4)

Lemma 8.2. If (x, y, z) is negative then (x, y, z) is a pumpable antisolution.

Proof. Assume that (x, y, z) is negative, so that (D1–4) hold. Write shortly r for $u_x \ominus v_x$ and r' for $u_{xy} \ominus v_{xy}$. With (D1), (D2) and (D4), Lemma 3.8 applies and yields

$$u_{xy^k} \not\sqsubseteq v_{xy^k} \text{ for all } k \in \mathbb{N},$$
 (D5)

with furthermore

$$u_{xy^k} \ominus v_{xy^k} \sqsubseteq u_{xy^{k+1}} \ominus v_{xy^{k+1}}.$$
 (D6)

On the other hand, (D1) and (D3) entail $ru_z \not\sqsubseteq v_z$ by Coro. 3.5, hence $(u_{xy^k} \ominus v_{xy^k})u_z \not\sqsubseteq v_z$ by (D6). We deduce that $u_{xy^kz} \not\sqsubseteq v_{xy^kz}$.

Lemma 8.3. If R contains an antisolution $\sigma \notin PE(u,v)$ of length $|\sigma| \ge 2H_u$ then it contains a pumpable antisolution.

(As a corollary, we obtain the second half of the Pumping Lemma.)

Proof (Sketch). We proceed as with Lemma 7.3. Write L for $|\sigma|$, and x_0, x_1, \ldots, x_L for the prefixes of σ . Consider the subsequence $x_{i_1}, x_{i_2}, \ldots x_{i_l}$ of all *bad prefixes* of σ , i.e., such that $u_{x_{i_j}} \not\sqsubseteq v_{x_{i_j}}$ and define $r_j = u_{x_{i_j}} \ominus v_{x_{i_j}}$. The sequence $(r_j)_{j=1,\ldots,l}$ is K_u -controlled.

If $l \ge H_u$, we find two positions $1 \le p < p' \le l$ such that $x_{i_{j_p}} \sim_R x_{i_{j_{p'}}}$ and $r_{j_p} \sqsubseteq r_{j_{p'}}$, so that, writing x for $x_{i_{j_p}}$, x' for $x_{i_{j_{p'}}}$, writing x' under the form xy, and σ under the form xyz, we can apply Lemma 8.2 and deduce that (x,y,z) is a pumpable antisolution. Furthermore xy^*z is a subset of R since $xyz = \sigma \in R$ and $xy \sim_R x$.

Observe that if a prefix x_i is not bad, then, writing σ under the form x_iy_i , $\widetilde{y_i}$ is a bad prefix of the antisolution $\widetilde{\sigma} \notin PE(\widetilde{u}, \widetilde{v})$ of the mirror problem. Thus, if $l < H_u$, then $\widetilde{\sigma}$ has $\geq H_u$ bad prefixes in the mirror problem. Hence $R \setminus PE(\widetilde{u}.\widetilde{v})$ contains a pumpable antisolution, whose mirror is a pumpable antisolution in $R \cap PE(u,v)$.

Remark 8.4. Lemmas 7.3 and 8.3 show that one can strengthen the statement of the Pumping Lemma. Rather than assuming that $R \cap PE(u,v)$ (respectively, $R \setminus PE(u,v)$) is infinite, we only need to assume that they contain a large enough element.

9 Concluding Remarks

The decidability of the Regular Post Embedding Problem means that one can find out whether the inequation $u(x) \sqsubseteq v(x)$ has a solution in a given regular R. In this paper, we investigated more general questions pertaining to the set of solutions PE(u,v). We developed new techniques showing how one can decide regular questions (does PE(u,v) contain, or is it included in, a given R?), finiteness and quasi-regular questions (does PE(u,v) satisfy a regular constraint except perhaps for finitely many elements?), and counting questions (how many elements in some R are — or are not — solutions?).

It is not clear how to go beyond these positive results. One avenue we have started to explore [5] is to consider Post-embedding questions with two variables, e.g.,

$$\exists x \in R_1 \, \forall y \in R_2 : u(xy) \sqsubseteq v(xy).$$

Another direction is suggested by the pumpings lemmas we developed here. These lemmas have applications beyond the finiteness problems we considered. For example, they are useful in the study of the expressive power of PEP^{reg}-languages, i.e., languages of the form $R \cap PE(u, v)$ for some R, u, v. For example, using the pumping lemma we

can show that $L_0 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{a^nb^n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ is not a PEP^{reg}-language. Now, and since $L_1 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{a^nb^{n+m} \mid n,m \in \mathbb{N}\}$ and $L_2 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{a^{n+m}b^n \mid n,m \in \mathbb{N}\}$ clearly are PEP^{reg}-languages, we conclude that PEP^{reg}-languages are not closed under intersection!

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