# Characterizing $\mathsf{NC}^1$ with Typed Monoids

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#### 6 — Abstract -

- $_{7}$  Krebs et al. (2007) gave a characterization of the complexity class  $\mathrm{TC}^{0}$  as the class of languages
- 8 recognized by a certain class of typed monoids. The notion of typed monoid was introduced to
- extend methods of algebraic automata theory to infinite monoids and hence characterize classes
- beyond the regular languages. We advance this line of work beyond TC<sup>0</sup> by giving a characterization
- of NC<sup>1</sup>. This is obtained by first showing that NC<sup>1</sup> can be defined as the languages expressible in an
- extension of first-order logic using only unary quantifiers over regular languages. The expressibility
- result is a consequence of a general result showing that finite monoid multiplication quantifiers of higher dimension can be replaced with unary quantifiers in the context of interpretations over
- strings, which also answers a question of Lautemann et al. (2001).
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# 1 Introduction

Much work in theoretical computer science is concerned with studying classes of formal languages, whether these are classes defined in terms of grammars and expressions, such as the class of regular or context-free languages, or whether they are *complexity classes* such as P and NP, defined by resource bounds on machine models. Indeed, the distinction between these are largely historical as most classes of interest admit different characterizations based on machine models, grammars, logical definability, or algebraic expressions. The class of regular languages can be characterized as the languages accepted by linear-time-bounded single-tape Turing machines [9] while P can be characterized without reference to resources as the languages recognized by multi-head two-way pushdown automata [6]. The advantage of the variety of characterizations is, of course, the fact that these bring with them different mathematical toolkits that can be brought to the study of the classes.

The class of regular languages has arguably the richest theory in this sense of diversity of characterizations. Virtually all students of computer science learn of the equivalence of deterministic and nondeterministic finite automata, regular languages and linear grammars and many also know that the regular languages are exactly those definable in monadic second-order logic with an order predicate. Perhaps the most productive approach to the study of regular languages is via their connection to finite monoids. Every language L has a syntactic monoid, which is finite if, and only if, L is regular. Moreover, closure properties of classes of regular languages relate to natural closure properties of classes of monoids, via Eilenberg's Correspondence Theorem [8]. This, together with the tools of Krohn-Rhodes theory, gives rise to algebraic automata theory—which leads to the definition of natural subclasses of the class of regular languages, to effective decision procedures for automata recognizing such classes, and to separation results.

When it comes to studying computational complexity, we are mainly interested in classes of languages richer than just the regular languages. Thus the syntactic monoids of the languages are not necessarily finite any longer and the extensive tools of Krohn-Rhodes theory are not available to study them. Nonetheless, some attempts have been made to extend the methods of algebraic automata theory to classes beyond the regular languages. Most significant is the work of Krebs and collaborators [2, 3, 11, 10, 5], which introduces the notion of typed monoids. The idea is to allow for languages with infinite syntactic monoids, but limit the languages they recognize by associating with them a finite collection of types. This allows for the formulation of a version of Eilenberg's Correspondence theorem associating closure properties on classes of typed monoids with corresponding closure properties of classes of languages. In particular, this implies that most complexity classes of interest can be uniquely characterized in terms of an associated class of typed monoids [3]. An explicit description of the class characterizing DLogTime-uniform TC<sup>0</sup> is given in [11, 10]. This is obtained through a general method which allows us to construct typed monoids corresponding to unary quantifiers defined from specific languages [10] (see also Theorem 22 below).

In this paper, we extend this work to obtain a characterization of DLogTime-uniform  $NC^1$  as the class of languages recognized by the collection of typed monoids obtained as the closure under ordered strong block products of three typed monoids: the group of integers with types for positive and negative integers; the group of natural numbers with types for the square numbers and non-square numbers; and a finite non-solvable group such as  $S_5$  with a type for each subset of the group. Full definitions of these terms follow below. Our result is obtained by first characterizing DLogTime-uniform  $NC^1$  in terms of logical definability in an extension of first-order logic with only unary quantifiers. It is known that any regular

language whose syntactic monoid is a non-solvable group is complete for  $NC^1$  under reductions definable in first-order logic with arithmetic predicates  $(FO(+, \times))$  [1]. From this, we know we can describe  $NC^1$  as the class of languages definable in an extension of  $FO(+, \times)$  with quantifiers (of arbitrary arity) associated with the regular languages recognized by the monoid  $S_5$ . Our main technical contribution is to show that the family of such quantifiers associated with any finite monoid can be replaced with just the unary quantifiers. This also answers a question left open in [13].

In Section 2, we cover the relevant background material on semigroup theory, typed monoids, and multiplication quantifiers. In Section 3, we establish the main technical result showing that quantifiers of higher arity over a regular language L can be defined using just unary quantifiers over the syntactic monoid of L. Finally, in Section 4, we apply this to obtain the algebraic characterization of DLogTime-uniform  $NC^1$ .

### 2 Preliminaries

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We assume the reader is familiar with basic concepts of formal language theory, automata theory, complexity theory, and logic. We quickly review definitions we need to fix notation and establish conventions.

We write  $\mathbb{Z}$  for the set of integers,  $\mathbb{N}$  for the set of natural numbers (including 0), and  $\mathbb{Z}^+$  for the set of positive integers. We write [n] for the set of integers  $\{1, \ldots, n\}$  and  $\mathbb{S}$  for the set of square integers. That is,  $\mathbb{S} = \{x \in \mathbb{Z}^+ \mid x = y^2 \text{ for some } y \in \mathbb{Z}\}.$ 

For a fixed  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  and an integer  $i \in [n]$ , we define the *n-bit one-hot encoding* of *i* to be the binary string  $b \in \{0,1\}^n$  such that  $b_j = 1$  if, and only if, j = i.

### 2.1 Semigroups, Monoids and Groups

A semigroup  $(S, \cdot)$  is a set S equipped with an associative binary operation. We call a semigroup finite if S is finite. Context permitting, we may refer to a semigroup  $(S, \cdot)$  simply by its underlying set S. A monoid  $(M, \cdot)$  is a semigroup with a distinguished element  $1_M \in M$  such that for all  $m \in M$ ,  $1_M \cdot m = m \cdot 1_M = m$ . We call  $1_M$  the identity or neutral element of M. A group  $(G, \cdot)$  is a monoid such that for every  $g \in G$ , there exists an element  $g^{-1} \in G$  such that  $g \cdot g^{-1} = g^{-1} \cdot g = 1$ . We call  $g^{-1}$  the inverse of g.

Note that  $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$  is a group,  $(\mathbb{N}, +)$  is a monoid but not a group and  $(\mathbb{Z}^+, +)$  is a semigroup but not a monoid. In the first two cases, the identity element is 0. When we refer to the monoids  $\mathbb{Z}$  or  $\mathbb{N}$  we assume that the operation referred to is standard addition.

For a semigroup  $(S, \cdot)$ , we say that a set  $G \subseteq S$  generates S if S is equal to the closure of G under  $\cdot$ ; we denote this by  $S = \langle G \rangle$ , or, simply,  $\langle G \rangle$  if the operation is clear from context, and call G a generating set of S. We say that S is finitely generated if there exists a finite generating set of S. All semigroups we consider are finitely generated. Note that  $\mathbb{Z}^+$  is generated by  $\{1\}$ ,  $\mathbb{N}$  by  $\{0,1\}$  and  $\mathbb{Z}$  by  $\{1,-1\}$ .

We write  $U_1$  for the monoid  $(\{0,1\},\cdot)$  where the binary operation is the standard multiplication. Note that 1 is the identity element here. For any set S, we denote by  $S^+$  the set of non-empty finite strings over S and by  $S^*$  the set of all finite strings over S. Equipped with the concatenation operation on strings, which we denote by either  $\circ$  or simply juxtaposition,  $S^*$  is a monoid and  $S^+$  is a semigroup but not a monoid. We refer to these as the *free monoid* and *free semigroup* over S, respectively. Note that S is a set of generators for  $S^+$  and  $S \cup \{\epsilon\}$  is a set of generators for  $S^*$ .

A monoid homomorphism from a monoid  $(S, \cdot_S)$  to a monoid  $(T, \cdot_T)$  is a function  $h: S \to T$  such that for all  $s_1, s_2 \in S$ ,  $h(s_1 \cdot_S s_2) = h(s_1) \cdot_T h(s_2)$  and  $h(1_S) = 1_T$ . A congruence on

a monoid  $(M,\cdot)$  is an equivalence relation  $\sim$  on M such that for all  $a,b,c,d\in M$ , if  $a\sim b$  and  $c\sim d$ , then  $a\cdot c\sim b\cdot d$ . We denote by  $M/\sim$  the set of equivalence classes of  $\sim$  on M.

We denote by  $[a]_{\sim}$ , or simply [a], the equivalence class of  $a\in M$  under  $\sim$ . Any congruence  $\sim$  gives rise to the *quotient monoid* of M by  $\sim$ , namely the monoid  $(M/\sim,\star)$  where for  $[a],[b]\in M/\sim,[a]\star[b]=[a\cdot b]$ . The map  $\eta:M\to M/\sim$  defined by  $\eta(a)=[a]$  is then a homomorphism, known as the *canonical homomorphism* of M onto  $M/\sim$ .

For future reference, we formally define the syntactic congruence associated with a language L.

Definition 1. Let  $L \subseteq \Sigma^*$  be a language. We define the syntactic congruence of L as the equivalence relation  $\sim_L$  on  $\Sigma^*$  such that for all  $x, y \in \Sigma^*$ ,  $x \sim_L y$  if and only if for all  $w, v \in \Sigma^*$ ,  $wxv \in L$  iff  $wyv \in L$ .

It is easily seen that this relation is a congruence on the free monoid  $\Sigma^*$ . The quotient monoid  $\Sigma^*/\sim_L$  is known as the *syntactic monoid* of L. More generally, we say that a monoid M recognizes the language L if there is a homomorphism  $h: \Sigma^* \to M$  and a set  $A \subseteq M$  such that  $L = h^{-1}(A)$ . It is easily seen that the syntactic monoid of L recognizes L. A language is regular if, and only if, its syntactic monoid is finite.

### 2.2 Logics and Quantifiers

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We assume familiarity with the basic syntax and semantics of first-order logic. In this paper, the logic is always interpreted in finite relational structures. We generally denote structures by Fraktur letters,  $\mathfrak{A}$ ,  $\mathfrak{B}$ , etc., and the corresponding universe of the structure is denoted  $|\mathfrak{A}|$ ,  $|\mathfrak{B}|$ , etc. We are almost exclusively interested in *strings* over a finite alphabet. Thus, fix an alphabet  $\Sigma$ . A  $\Sigma$ -string is then a structure  $\mathfrak{A}$  whose universe A is linearly ordered by a binary relation < and which interprets a set of unary relation symbols  $(R_{\sigma})_{\sigma \in \Sigma}$ . For each element  $a \in |\mathfrak{A}|$  there is a unique  $\sigma \in \Sigma$  such that a is in the interpretation of  $R_{\sigma}$ .

More generally, let  $\tau$  be any relational vocabulary consisting of a binary relation symbol < and unary relation symbols  $R_1, \ldots, R_k$ . We can associate with any  $\tau$ -structure in which < is a linear order a string over an alphabet of size  $2^k$  as formalized in the following definition.

▶ **Definition 2.** For  $\tau$  a relational vocabulary consisting of a binary relation symbol < and unary relation symbols  $R_1, \ldots, R_k$ , and  $\mathfrak{A}$  a  $\tau$ -structure with n elements that interprets the symbol < as a linear order of its universe, we define the string  $w_{\mathfrak{A}}$  associated with  $\mathfrak{A}$  as the string of length n over the alphabet  $\Sigma_k = \{0,1\}^k$  of size  $2^k$  so that if a is the ith element of  $w_{\mathfrak{A}}$ , then a is the k-tuple where  $a_j = 1$  if, and only if,  $R_j$  holds at the ith element of  $\mathfrak{A}$ .

This way, we can associate a language with any isomorphism-closed class of structures over the vocabulary  $\tau$ . We formalize this definition for future use.

▶ Definition 3. For  $\tau$  a relational vocabulary consisting of a binary relation symbol < and unary relation symbols  $R_1, \ldots, R_k$ , and A a class of  $\tau$ -structures, we define the language  $L_A$  over the alphabet  $\Sigma_k = \{0,1\}^k$  to be

$$L_{\mathcal{A}} = \{ w_{\mathfrak{A}} \mid \mathfrak{A} \in \mathcal{A} \}.$$

Conversely, for any language L over the alphabet  $\Sigma_k$ , we define the class of  $\tau$ -structures  $\mathcal{S}_L$  to be

$$\mathcal{S}_L = \{ \mathfrak{A} \mid w_{\mathfrak{A}} \in L \}.$$

As the elements of a string  $\mathfrak A$  are linearly ordered, we can identify them with an initial segment  $\{1,\ldots,n\}$  of the positive integers. In other words, we treat a string with universe  $\{1,\ldots,n\}$  and the standard order on these elements as a canonical representative of its isomorphism class. In addition to the order predicate, we may allow other numerical predicates to appear in formulas of our logics. These are predicates whose meaning is completely determined by the size n of the structure and the ordering of its elements. In particular, we have ternary predicates + and  $\times$  for the partial addition and multiplication functions

An insight due to Lindström allows us to define a quantifier from any isomorphism-closed class of structures (see [7]). Specifically, let Q be any isomorphism-closed class of structures in a relational vocabulary  $\tau = \{R_1, \ldots, R_l\}$ , where for each i,  $R_i$  is a relation symbol of arity  $r_i$ . For any vocabulary  $\sigma$  and positive integer d, an interpretation of  $\tau$  in  $\sigma$  of dimension d is a tuple of formulas  $I = (\phi_1(\overline{x}_1), \ldots, \phi_l(\overline{x}_l))$  of vocabulary  $\sigma$  where  $\phi_i$  is associated with a tuple  $\overline{x}_i$  of variables of length  $dr_i$ . Suppose we are given a  $\sigma$ -structure  $\mathfrak A$  and an assignment  $\alpha$  that takes variables to elements of  $\mathfrak A$ . Then let  $\phi_i^{\mathfrak A,\alpha}$  denote the relation of arity  $dr_i$  consisting of the set of tuples  $\{\overline{a} \in |\mathfrak A|^{dr_i} \mid \mathfrak A \models \phi_i[\alpha[\overline{a}/\overline{x}_i]]\}$ . Then, the interpretation I defines a map that takes a  $\sigma$ -structure  $\mathfrak A$ , along with an assignment  $\alpha$  to the  $\tau$ -structure  $I(\mathfrak A,\alpha)$  with universe  $|\mathfrak A|^d$  where the interpretation of  $R_i$  is the set  $\phi_i^{\mathfrak A,\alpha}$ , seen as a relation of arity  $r_i$  on  $|\mathfrak A|^d$ .

Then, in a logic with quantifier Q, we can form formulas of the form

$$Q\overline{x}_1\cdots\overline{x}_l(\phi_1,\ldots,\phi_l)$$

in which occurrences in the subformula  $\phi_i$  of variables among  $x_i$  are bound. The semantics of this quantifier are given by the rule that  $Q\overline{x}_1\cdots\overline{x}_l(\phi_1,\ldots,\phi_l)$  is true in a structure  $\mathfrak A$  under some interpretation  $\alpha$  of values to the free variables if the  $\tau$ -structure  $I(\mathfrak A,\alpha)$  is in Q. Note, we have defined what are usually called *vectorized quantifiers*, in that they can take interpretations of any dimension. Another way of formulating this is to have a separate quantifier  $Q_d$  for each dimension d. We switch between these notations when it causes no confusion and we call  $Q_d$  the *vectorization* of Q of dimension d.

We are particularly interested in interpretations I where both  $\sigma$  and  $\tau$  are vocabularies of strings. These are also known in the literature as string-to-string tranducers (see [4] for an example of how transducers may have many representations.) We further restrict ourselves to interpretations in which the definition of the linear order in  $I(\mathfrak{A}, \alpha)$  is always the lexicographic order on d-tuples of  $\mathfrak{A}$  induced by the order in  $\mathfrak{A}$ . This order is easily defined by a (quantifier-free) first-order formula, and we simply omit it from the description of I. Hence, we only need to specify the interpretation giving the unary relations in  $\tau$  and an interpretation of dimension d has the simple form  $(\phi_1(\overline{x}_1), \ldots, \phi_l(\overline{x}_l))$ , where all tuples of variables have length d. We can then assume, without loss of generality, that they are all the same tuple  $\overline{x}$  and we thus write a formula with a string quantifier Q as

$$Q\overline{x}(\phi_1,\ldots,\phi_l).$$

Observe that a quantifier applied to an interpretation of dimension d will then bind d variables.

We say that an interpretation is *unary* if it has dimension 1. We now introduce some notation we use in the rest of the paper for various logics formed by combining particular choices of quantifiers and numerical predicates.

▶ Definition 4. For a set of quantifiers  $\mathfrak Q$  and numerical predicates  $\mathfrak N$ , we denote by  $(\mathfrak Q)[\mathfrak N]$  the logic constructed by extending quantifier-free first-order logic with the quantifiers in  $\mathfrak Q$  and allowing the numerical predicates in  $\mathfrak N$ .

We denote by FO the set of standard first-order quantifiers:  $\{\exists, \forall\}$ .

For a singleton set of quantifiers  $\mathfrak{Q} = \{Q\}$ , we sometimes denote  $(\mathfrak{Q})[\mathfrak{N}]$  as  $(Q)[\mathfrak{N}]$ . We use similar notation for the sets of numerical predicates. We use  $\mathcal{L}((\mathfrak{Q})[\mathfrak{N}])$  to denote the languages expressible by the logic  $(\mathfrak{Q})[\mathfrak{N}]$ . We also use  $(\mathfrak{Q}_1)[\mathfrak{N}]$  to denote the logic obtained as a restriction of  $(\mathfrak{Q})[\mathfrak{N}]$  to formulas in which quantifiers in  $\mathfrak{Q}$  are only applied to interpretations of dimension 1.

All the logics we consider are substitution closed in the sense of [7]. This means in particular that if a quantifier Q is definable in a logic  $(\mathfrak{Q})[\mathfrak{N}]$ , then extending the logic with the quantifier Q does not add to its expressive power. This is because we can replace occurrences of the quantifier Q by its definition, with a suitable substitution of the interpretation for the relation symbols. Hence, if Q is definable in  $(\mathfrak{Q})[\mathfrak{N}]$ , then  $\mathcal{L}((\mathfrak{Q})[\mathfrak{N}]) = \mathcal{L}((\mathfrak{Q} \cup \{Q\})[\mathfrak{N}])$ .

A remark is due on our notation for numerical predicates. All structures we consider are ordered, including those defining the quantifiers. Thus the order predicate is implicitly present in the collection of numerical predicates  $\mathfrak N$  and is used (implicitly) to define the interpretations to a quantifier. We sometimes write  $(\mathfrak Q)[\varnothing]$  to indicate a logic in which this is the only use of the order that is allowed. By our choice of notation, the order symbol then does not appear explicitly in the syntax of the formulas.

### 2.3 Multiplication Quantifiers

The definition of multiplication quantifier has its origin in Barrington, Immerman, and Straubing [1, Section 5] where they were referred to as monoid quantifiers; the authors proved that the languages in DLogTime-uniform  $NC^1$  are exactly those expressible by first-order logic with quantifiers whose truth-value is determined via multiplication in a finite monoid. The notion was extended by Lautemann et al. [13] to include quantifiers for the word problem over more general algebras with a binary operation. Multiplication quantifiers over a finite monoid M can be understood as generalized quantifiers corresponding to languages recognized by M, and here we define them as such.

Fix a monoid M, a set  $B \subseteq M$  and a positive integer k. Let  $\Sigma_k$  denote the set  $\{0,1\}^k$  which we think of as an alphabet of size  $2^k$ , and fix a function  $\gamma: \Sigma_k \to M$ . We extend  $\gamma$  to strings in  $\Sigma_k^*$  inductively in the standard way:  $\gamma(\epsilon) = 1_M$  and  $\gamma(wa) = \gamma(w)\gamma(a)$ . Together these define a language

$$L_{\gamma}^{M,B} = \{ x \in \Sigma_k^* \mid \gamma(x) \in B \}.$$

We can now define a multiplication quantifier. In the following,  $S_L$  denotes the class of structures associated with a language L in the sense of Definition 3.

▶ **Definition 5.** Let  $\tau$  be a vocabulary including an order symbol < and k unary relations. For a monoid M, a set  $B \subseteq M$ , a positive integer k and a function  $\gamma : \{0,1\}^k \to M$ , the multiplication quantifier  $\Gamma_{\gamma}^{M,B}$  is the Lindström quantifier associated with the class of structures  $\mathcal{S}_{L_{\alpha}^{M,B}}$ .

We also write  $\Gamma_{d,\gamma}^{M,B}$  for the vectorization of this quantifier of dimension d. If B is a singleton  $\{s\}$ , then we often write  $\Gamma_{d,\gamma}^{M,s}$  for short.

Recall that  $U_1$  denotes the two-element monoid  $\{0,1\}$  with standard multiplication. Then, it is easily seen that  $\Gamma_{1,\gamma}^{U_1,0}$ , where  $\gamma:\{0,1\}\to U_1$  such that  $\gamma(0)=1$  and  $\gamma(1)=0$ , is the standard existential quantifier. The universal quantifier can be defined similarly.

 $\triangleright$  **Definition 6.** For a monoid M, we define the following collections of quantifiers:

$$\Gamma^M = \{\Gamma^{M,B}_{\gamma} \mid B \subseteq M, \ \gamma : \{0,1\}^k \to M, \ and \ k \ge 1\}$$

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\Gamma_{d}^{M} = \left\{ \Gamma_{d,\gamma}^{M,B} \mid B \subseteq M \text{ and } \gamma : \{0,1\}^{k} \to M \right\}
\Gamma_{\gamma}^{M} = \left\{ \Gamma_{\gamma}^{M,B} \mid B \subseteq M \right\}
\Gamma_{d,\gamma}^{M} = \left\{ \Gamma_{d,\gamma}^{M,B} \mid B \subseteq M \right\}
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Finally, let  $\Gamma^{\text{fin}}$  be the collection of all multiplication quantifiers over finite monoids.

From [1, Corollary 9.1], we know that DLogTime-uniform  $NC^1$  is characterized by (FO)[+,  $\times$ ] equipped with finite multiplication quantifiers:

- Theorem 7 ([1]). DLogTime-uniform  $NC^1 = \mathcal{L}((\Gamma^{fin})[+,\times])$ .
- Remark 8. In fact, simply adding multiplication quantifiers for some fixed finite, non-solvable monoid to  $(FO)[+, \times]$  suffices. The definition of "non-solvable monoid" is not needed for our proofs here but, for example, the *symmetric group of degree five*, denoted  $S_5$ , is a non-solvable monoid. Therefore, we know that DLogTime-uniform  $NC^1 = \mathcal{L}((FO \cup \Gamma^{S_5})[+, \times])$ .

In the absence of the arithmetic predicates for addition and multiplication, the logic of multiplication quantifiers over finite monoids only allows us to define regular languages. Specifically, Barrington et al. [1] established that the regular languages are characterized by the logic using such quantifiers with only unary interpretations.

- **Theorem 9** ([1]). REG =  $\mathcal{L}((\Gamma_1^{\text{fin}})[<])$ .
- Later, Lautemann et al. [13, Theorem 5.1] showed that allowing interpretations of higher dimension to the quantifiers does not increase the expressive power when order is the only numerical predicate.
- Proof 10. Reg =  $\mathcal{L}((\Gamma^{\mathrm{fin}})[<])$ .

Our main technical result shows that this is true even in the presence of other numerical predicates and, therefore,  $\Gamma^{\text{fin}}$  can be replaced by  $\Gamma^{\text{fin}}_1$  even in Theorem 7.

### 2.4 Typed Monoids

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In this subsection, we review the definitions and results from [3, 10] on typed monoids, their relationship to languages and corresponding characterizations of complexity classes.

A typed monoid is a monoid equipped with a collection of *types*, which form a Boolean algebra, and a set of *units*. We only deal with concrete Boolean algebras, given as collections of subsets of a fixed universe.

▶ **Definition 11** (Boolean Algebra). A Boolean algebra over a set S is a set  $B \subseteq \wp(S)$  such that  $\varnothing, S \in B$  and B is closed under union, intersection, and complementation. If B is finite, we call it a finite Boolean algebra.

We call  $\varnothing$  and S the trivial elements (or in some contexts, the trivial types) of B.

A homomorphism between Boolean algebras is defined as standard. That is, if  $B_1$  and  $B_2$  are Boolean algebras over sets S and T, respectively, then we call  $h: B_1 \to B_2$  a homomorphism if  $h(\varnothing) = \varnothing$ , h(S) = T, and for all  $s_1, s_2 \in B_1$ ,  $h(s_1 \cap s_2) = h(s_1) \cap h(s_2)$ ,  $h(s_1 \cup s_2) = h(s_1) \cup h(s_2)$ , and  $h(s^C) = (h(s))^C$ . Now we are ready to define typed monoids.

**Definition 12** (Typed Monoid). Let M be a monoid, G a Boolean algebra over M, and E a finite subset of M. We call the tuple T = (M, G, E) a typed monoid over M and the

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elements of G types and the elements of E units. We call M the base monoid of T. If M is a group, then we may also call T a typed group.

Say  $G = \{\emptyset, A, M - A, M\}$ . Then, we often abbreviate T as (M, A, E), i.e., the Boolean algebra is signified by an element, or elements, which generates it—in this case, A.

We say that a typed monoid (M, G, E) is finite if M is.

We also need a notion of morphism between typed monoids.

- **Definition 13.** A typed monoid homomorphism h from (S, G, E) to (T, H, F) is a triple  $(h_1, h_2, h_3)$  where  $h_1: S \to T$  is a monoid homomorphism,  $h_2: G \to H$  is a homomorphism of Boolean algebras, and  $h_3: E \to F$  is a mapping of sets such that the following conditions hold:
  - (i) For all  $A \in G$ ,  $h_1(A) = h_2(A) \cap h_1(S)$ .
  - (ii) For all  $e \in E$ ,  $h_1(e) = h_3(e)$ .

Note that  $h_3$  is redundant in the definition as it is completely determined by  $h_1$ . We retain it as part of the definition for consistency with [3, 10].

To motivate the definitions, recall that a language  $L \subseteq \Sigma^*$  is recognized by a monoid M if there is a homomorphism  $h: \Sigma^* \to M$  and a set  $B \subseteq M$  such that  $L = h^{-1}(B)$ . When the monoid M is infinite, the languages recognized form a rather rich collection and we aim to restrict this in two ways. First, B cannot be an arbitrary set but must be an element of the algebra of types. Secondly, the homomorphism h must map the letters in  $\Sigma$  to units of the typed monoid. Formally, we have the following definition.

▶ **Definition 14.** A typed monoid T = (M, G, E) recognizes a language  $L \subseteq \Sigma^*$  if there exists a typed monoid homomorphism from  $(\Sigma^*, L, \Sigma)$  to T. We let  $\mathcal{L}(T)$  denote the set of languages recognized by T.

When the base monoid of a typed monoid is finite, we recover the classical definition of a recognition. Hence, the languages recognized by finite typed monoids are necessarily regular.

**Proposition 15.** If T is a finite typed monoid, then  $\mathcal{L}(T) \subseteq \text{Reg.}$ 

We can now state the definitions of the key relationships between typed monoids.

- **Definition 16.** Let (S, G, E) and (T, H, F) be typed monoids.
- 285 A typed monoid homomorphism  $h = (h_1, h_2, h_3) : (S, G, E) \to (T, H, F)$  is injective (surjective, or bijective) if all of  $h_1$ ,  $h_2$ , and  $h_3$  are.
- $(S,G,E) \ \ is \ a \ \ typed \ submonoid \ \ (or,\ simply,\ \ "submonoid"\ \ when\ \ context\ \ is\ \ obvious)$  of  $(T,H,F),\ \ denoted\ \ (S,G,E) \le (T,H,F),\ \ if\ \ there\ \ exists\ \ an\ \ injective\ \ typed\ \ monoid$  homomorphism  $h:(S,G,E) \to (T,H,F).$
- (S,G,E) divides (T,H,F), denoted  $(S,G,E) \leq (T,H,F)$ , if there exists a surjective typed monoid homomorphism from a typed submonoid of (T,H,F) to (S,G,E).

These have the expected properties.

- Proposition 17 ([3]). Let  $T_1$ ,  $T_2$ , and  $T_3$  be typed monoids.
- Typed monoid homomorphisms are closed under composition.
- Division is transitive: if  $T_1 \leq T_2$  and  $T_2 \leq T_3$ , then  $T_1 \leq T_3$ .
- 296 If  $T_1 \leq T_2$ , then  $\mathcal{L}(T_1) \subseteq \mathcal{L}(T_2)$ .

We can formulate the notion of the *syntactic typed monoid* of a language L as an extension of the syntactic monoid of L with a minimal collection of types and units necessary.

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▶ **Definition 18.** Let T = (M, G, E) be a typed monoid. A congruence  $\sim$  over M is a typed congruence over T if for every  $A \in G$  and  $s_1, s_2 \in M$ , if  $s_1 \sim s_2$  and  $s_1 \in A$ , then  $s_2 \in A$ .

For a typed congruence  $\sim$  over T, let

```
302 A/\sim = \{[x]_{\sim} \mid x \in A\} \text{ where } A \subseteq M
303 G/\sim = \{A/\sim \mid A \in G\}
304 E/\sim = \{[x]_{\sim} \mid x \in E\}.
```

Then,  $T/\sim := (M/\sim, G/\sim, E/\sim)$  is the typed quotient monoid of T by  $\sim$ .

Let  $\sim_T$  denote the typed congruence on T such that for  $s_1, s_2 \in S$ ,  $s_1 \sim_T s_2$  iff for all  $x, y \in S$  and  $A \in G$ ,  $xs_1y \in A$  iff  $xs_2y \in A$ . We then refer to the quotient monoid  $T/\sim_T$  as the minimal reduced monoid of T.

Recall that  $\sim_L$  is the syntactic congruence of L, defined in Definition 1.

Definition 19. For a language  $L \subseteq \Sigma^*$ , the syntactic typed monoid of L, denoted syn(L), is the typed monoid  $(\Sigma^*, L, \Sigma)/\sim_L$ .

We also get the canonical typed monoid homomorphism,  $\eta_L:(\Sigma^*,L,\Sigma)\to \mathrm{syn}(L)$  induced by the syntactic homomorphism of L.

We now turn to the relationship between the expressive power of logics with multiplication quantifiers and typed monoids. A formal association is defined through the definition below.

**Definition 20.** For a multiplication quantifier  $Q = \Gamma_{\gamma}^{M,B}$  where  $\gamma : \{0,1\}^k \to M$ , we define the typed quantifier monoid of Q to be the syntactic typed monoid of the language  $L_{\gamma}^{M,B}$ .

It turns out that we can give a purely structural characterization of those typed monoids that are syntactic monoids.

Proposition 21 ([10]). A typed monoid is the syntactic monoid of a language if, and only if, it is reduced, generated by its units, and has four or two types.

In case it has just two types, then it only recognizes the empty language or the language of all strings.

We now want to state the formal connection between the languages expressible in a logic with a collection of quantifiers and the corresponding class of typed monoids. For this we need the notion of the *ordered strong block product closure* of a set of typed monoids T, which we denote  $\operatorname{sbpc}_{<}(T)$ . The definition is technical and can be found in [10] and is also reproduced in the appendix for ease of reference.

From [10, Theorem 4.14], we then get the following relationship between logics and algebras: $^{1}$ 

Theorem 22. Let  $\mathfrak Q$  be a collection of quantifiers and Q the corresponding set of typed quantifier monoids for  $\mathfrak Q$ . Then,  $\mathcal L((\mathfrak Q_1)[<])=\mathcal L(\operatorname{sbpc}_<(Q))$ .

Recall that " $\mathfrak{Q}_1$ " here is used to denote the restriction of our logic to only uses where quantifiers are applied to interpretations of dimension 1.

The theorem in [10] is actually more general as it allows for more predicates than just order; however, for our purposes, order alone suffices.

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# 3 Simplifying Multiplication Quantifiers

To use Theorem 22 to obtain an algebraic characterization of  $NC^1$ , we need to characterize this class in a logic with only unary quantifiers, i.e. where quantifiers are only applied to unary interpretations. Remark 8 gives us a characterization using first-order quantifiers and  $\Gamma^{S_5}$ . Our aim in this section is to show that we can eliminate the use of interpretations of dimension higher than 1 in this logic. As a first step, we show that we can restrict ourselves to quantifiers  $\Gamma^{S_5,B}_{\delta}$  for a fixed function  $\delta$ .

**Lemma 23.** For every finite monoid M, there exists a function  $\delta: \{0,1\}^{|M|} \to M$  such that for every  $B \subseteq M$  and  $\gamma: \{0,1\}^k \to M$ , the quantifier  $\Gamma_{\gamma}^{M,B}$  is definable in  $(\Gamma_{\delta}^{M,B})[\varnothing]$ .

**Proof.** Recall that  $\Gamma_{\gamma}^{M,B}$  is the class of structures  $\mathfrak{A}$  in a vocabulary  $\tau$  with one binary relation < and k unary relations  $R_1, \ldots, R_k$  such that  $\gamma(w_{\mathfrak{A}}) \in B$  where  $w_{\mathfrak{A}}$  is the string associated with  $\mathfrak{A}$  as in Def. 2.

Let c = |M|, fix an enumeration  $\{s_1, \ldots, s_c\}$  of M, and let z be an arbitrary element of M. Let  $\delta : \{0,1\}^c \to M$  be the function where  $\delta(w) = s_i$  if w is the one-hot encoding of i and  $\delta(w) = z$  otherwise (that is, if the number of occurrences of the symbol 1 in the string w is not exactly one).

For each  $t \in M$ , define the formula  $\psi_t(x)$  as follows:

$$\psi_t(x) := \bigvee_{w \in \{0,1\}^k : \gamma(w) = t} \left( \bigwedge_{i \in [k] : w_i = 1} R_i(x) \wedge \bigwedge_{i \in [k] : w_i = 0} \neg R_i(x) \right).$$

It is easy to see that in a  $\tau$ -structure  $\mathfrak{A}$ , we have  $\mathfrak{A} \models \psi_t[a]$  if, and only if, the ath element of  $w_{\mathfrak{A}}$  is mapped by  $\gamma$  to t. Thus, in particular, the formulas  $\psi_{s_1}, \ldots, \psi_{s_c}$  define disjoint sets that partition the universe of  $\mathfrak{A}$ . We now claim that the quantifier  $\Gamma_{\gamma}^{M,B}$  is defined by the formula:

$$\Gamma_{\delta}^{M,B}(\psi_{s_1}\ldots,\psi_{s_c}).$$

To see this, let I denote the unary interpretation  $(\psi_{s_1}, \dots, \psi_{s_c})$  so that  $w_{I(\mathfrak{A})}$  is a string over  $\{0,1\}^c$ . By the fact that the sets defined by the formulas  $\psi_{s_1}, \dots, \psi_{s_c}$  partition  $|\mathfrak{A}|$  it follows that each letter of  $w_{I(\mathfrak{A})}$  is a vector in  $\{0,1\}^c$  with exactly one 1. Indeed, the ath element of  $w_{I(\mathfrak{A})}$  is the one-hot encoding of i precisely if  $\mathfrak{A} \models \psi_{s_i}[a]$ . Since  $\delta$  takes the one-hot encoding of i to  $s_i$ , we have for any  $a \in |\mathfrak{A}|$ 

Hence,  $\delta(w_{I(\mathfrak{A})}) = \gamma(w_{\mathfrak{A}})$  and therefore  $I(\mathfrak{A}) \in \Gamma_{\delta}^{S,B}$  if, and only if,  $\mathfrak{A} \in \Gamma_{\gamma}^{S,B}$  as required.

It then follows from Lemma 23 and the substitution property of quantifiers that the expressive power of  $(\mathfrak{Q} \cup \Gamma^M)[\mathfrak{N}]$  is the same as that of  $(\mathfrak{Q} \cup \Gamma^M_{\delta})[\mathfrak{N}]$ . Indeed, any application of a quantifier in  $\Gamma^M$  to an interpretation of dimension d can be replaced by an application of a quantifier in  $\Gamma^M_{\delta}$  to an interpretation of the same dimension. We next aim to show that an application of a quantifier  $\Gamma^{M,B}_{\delta}$  to an interpretation of dimension d can be replaced by d nested applications of quantifiers to interpretations of dimension 1.

▶ **Lemma 24.** For any collection  $\mathfrak{Q}$  of quantifiers, any formula of  $(\mathfrak{Q} \cup \Gamma_{\delta}^{M})[\mathfrak{N}]$  is equivalent to one of  $(\mathfrak{Q} \cup \Gamma_{1,\delta}^{M})[\mathfrak{N}]$ .

Proof. Again, fix an enumeration  $M = \{s_1, \dots, s_c\}$  of M and recall that  $\delta : \{0, 1\}^c \to M$  takes the one-hot encoding of i to  $s_i$ .

We show, by induction on d that if we have a formula

$$\Phi := \Gamma_{\delta}^{M,B} x_1, \dots, x_d(\phi_1(x_1, \dots, x_d), \dots, \phi_c(x_1, \dots, x_d))$$

where each formula  $\phi_i$  is in  $(\mathfrak{Q} \cup \Gamma_{1,\delta}^M)[\mathfrak{N}]$ , then  $\Phi$  is equivalent to a formula of  $(\mathfrak{Q} \cup \Gamma_{1,\delta}^M)[\mathfrak{N}]$ .

The result then follows by induction on the structure of the formula.

The base case when d=1 is trivially true. Assume then that we have the formula  $\Phi$  for d>1 and let I denote the interpretation  $(\phi_1(x_1,\ldots,x_d),\ldots,\phi_c(x_1,\ldots,x_d))$  of dimension d. We claim that  $\Phi$  is equivalent to the formula

$$\Phi_1 := \Gamma_{\delta}^{M,B} x_1(\theta_1(x_1), \dots, \theta_c(x_1))$$

where  $\theta_i$  is the formula

$$\theta_i(x_i) := \Gamma_{\delta}^{M,s_i} x_2, \dots, x_d(\phi_1(x_1, \dots, x_d), \dots, \phi_c(x_1, \dots, x_d)).$$

Thus,  $\Phi_1$  is obtained by the application of  $\Gamma_{\delta}^{M,B}$  to a unary interpretation

$$I_1 := (\theta_1(x_1), \dots, \theta_c(x_1))$$

where each formula  $\theta_i$  is obtained as the application of a quantifier  $\Gamma_{\delta}^{M,s}$  to an interpretation of dimension d-1 defined by formulas of  $(\mathfrak{Q} \cup \Gamma_{1,\delta}^M)[\mathfrak{N}]$ . Thus, by the inductive hypothesis, each  $\theta_i$  is equivalent to a formula of  $(\mathfrak{Q} \cup \Gamma_{1,\delta}^M)[\mathfrak{N}]$  and we are done.

It remains to show that  $\Phi$  and  $\Phi_1$  are equivalent on any string structure  $\mathfrak{A}$ . To see this, fix an assignment  $\alpha$  of values in  $|\mathfrak{A}|$  to the free variables of  $\Phi$ . We need to show that  $\mathfrak{A} \models \Phi[\alpha]$  if, and only if,  $\mathfrak{A} \models \Phi_1[\alpha]$ . Let n be the length of  $\mathfrak{A}$  and assume without loss of generality that the elements of  $|\mathfrak{A}|$  are  $\{1,\ldots,n\}$  in that order.

Now,  $w_{I(\mathfrak{A},\alpha)}$  denotes the string associated with the structure  $I(\mathfrak{A},\alpha)$  and note that this is a string of length  $n^d$  whose elements are indexed by d-tuples of elements of  $\mathfrak{A}$ . By definition,  $\mathfrak{A} \models \Phi[\alpha]$  precisely if  $\delta(w_{I(\mathfrak{A},\alpha)}) \in B$ . We can also regard I as an interpretation of dimension d-1 obtained by treating the variable  $x_1$  as a parameter. We write  $w_{I(\mathfrak{A},\alpha[a/x_1])}$  for the string of length  $n^{d-1}$  that results from applying this interpretation with the assignment of a to the variable  $x_1$ . Since the ordering of d-tuples in  $w_{I(\mathfrak{A},\alpha)}$  is lexicographic, we have

$$w_{I(\mathfrak{A},\alpha)} = w_{I(\mathfrak{A},\alpha[1/x_1])} \cdots w_{I(\mathfrak{A},\alpha[n/x_1])}$$

and thus

$$\delta(w_{I(\mathfrak{A},\alpha)}) = \delta(w_{I(\mathfrak{A},\alpha[1/x_1])}) \cdots \delta(w_{I(\mathfrak{A},\alpha[n/x_1])}).$$

Now, by definition of  $\theta_i$ , we have  $\mathfrak{A} \models \theta_i[\alpha[a/x_1]]$  if, and only if,  $\delta(w_{I(\mathfrak{A},\alpha[a/x_1])}) = s_i$ . Thus, for each  $a \in |\mathfrak{A}|$ , there is exactly one i such that  $\mathfrak{A} \models \theta_i[\alpha[a/x_1]]$ . Thus,  $w_{I_1(\mathfrak{A},\alpha)}$  is the string of length n whose ath element is the one-hot encoding of i exactly when  $\delta(w_{I(\mathfrak{A},\alpha[a/x_1])}) = s_i$ . In other words,  $\delta((w_{I_1(\mathfrak{A},\alpha)})_a) = \delta(w_{I(\mathfrak{A},\alpha[a/x_1])})$ . Thus,

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$$\mathfrak{A} \models \Phi[\alpha]$$
402 iff  $\delta(w_{I(\mathfrak{A},\alpha)}) \in B$ 
403 iff  $\delta(w_{I(\mathfrak{A},\alpha[1/x_1])}) \cdots \delta(w_{I(\mathfrak{A},\alpha[n/x_1])}) \in B$ 
404 iff  $\delta((w_{I_1(\mathfrak{A},\alpha)})_1) \cdots \delta((w_{I_1(\mathfrak{A},\alpha)})_n) \in B$ 
405 iff  $\delta(w_{I_1(\mathfrak{A},\alpha)}) \in B$ 
406 iff  $\mathfrak{A} \models \Phi_1[\alpha]$ .

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# 23:12 Characterizing NC<sup>1</sup> with Typed Monoids

Now we are ready to state the main theorem of this section.

Theorem 25. For every finite monoid M, there exists a function  $\delta: \{0,1\}^{|M|} \to M$  such that for any collection of quantifiers  $\mathfrak Q$  and any set  $\mathfrak N$  of numerical predicates, every formula of  $(\mathfrak Q \cup \Gamma^M)[\mathfrak N]$  is equivalent to a formula of  $(\mathfrak Q \cup \Gamma^M)[\mathfrak N]$ .

Proof. Let  $\phi$  be any formula of  $(\mathfrak{Q} \cup \Gamma^M)[\mathfrak{N}]$ . By Lemma 23 we can replace all occurrences of quantifiers  $\Gamma_{\gamma}^{M,B}$  by their definitions using  $\Gamma_{\delta}^{M,B}$  to get a formula  $\phi'$  of  $(\mathfrak{Q} \cup \Gamma_{\delta}^{M})[\mathfrak{N}]$  equivalent to  $\phi$ . Finally, by Lemma 24, there is a formula of  $(\mathfrak{Q} \cup \Gamma_{1,\delta}^{M})[\mathfrak{N}]$  equivalent to  $\phi'$ .

Note that for a finite monoid M, while  $\Gamma^M$  and  $\Gamma^M_1$  are infinite sets,  $\Gamma^M_{1,\delta}$  is a finite set.

Therefore, this gives us a logic characterizing DLogTime-uniform NC<sup>1</sup> which not only uses unary quantifiers but also only has a finite number of quantifiers:

Large Corollary 26. There exists a  $\delta: \{0,1\}^k \to S_5$  such that

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DLogTime-uniform NC^1 = \mathcal{L}((FO \cup \Gamma_{1,\delta}^{S_5})[+,\times])
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This simplifies our construction of an algebra capturing DLogTime-uniform NC<sup>1</sup>.

Moreover, this theorem serves as an alternative proof of Theorem 10 ([13, Theorem 5.1]) which, unlike the original proof, does not rely on the use of automata. Furthermore, resolves an open question from [13]:

 $\triangleright$  Corollary 27.  $\mathcal{L}((\Gamma^{\mathrm{fin}})[+,\times]) = \mathcal{L}((\Gamma^{\mathrm{fin}}_1)[+,\times])$ 

# 4 The Algebraic Characterization

Now that we have an extension of first-order logic capturing DLogTime-uniform NC<sup>1</sup> using only quantifiers acting on unary interpretations of unary dimension, we are able to apply Theorem 22 to construct an algebra for it. We just need to obtain an equivalent logic using only the numerical predicate < without introducing quantifiers of higher dimension.

To do this, we follow the construction of an algebra for  $TC^0$ . The *majority* quantifier Maj is the collection of strings over the alphabet  $\{0,1\}$  in which at least half of the symbols are 1. The *square* quantifier Sq is the collection of strings over the alphabet  $\{0,1\}$  in which the number of 1s is a positive square number (i.e. and element of  $\mathbb{S}$ ). In the logics we define below, we always use these quantifiers only with unary interpretations.

The following lemma displays some known results about the expressiveness of these quantifiers:

### ▶ Lemma 28.

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- (i) Maj is definable in  $(\Gamma^{fin})[+,\times]$ . (cf. [1])
- (ii) The quantifiers in FO are definable in (Maj)[<]. (/12, Theorem 3.2))
- (iii) The numerical predicate + is definable in (Maj)[<]. ([12, Theorem 4.1])
- (iv) The numerical predicate  $\times$  is definable in ({Maj, Sq})[<] and Sq is definable in (Maj)[<, +,  $\times$ ]. (cf. [15, Theorem 2.3.f] and [11, Section 2.3])

Bringing everything together, we get the following algebraic characterization of DLogTIME-uniform NC<sup>1</sup>:

### ▶ Theorem 29.

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DLogTime-uniform NC<sup>1</sup> = \mathcal{L}(\text{sbpc}_{<}(\{(\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}^+, \pm 1), (\mathbb{N}, \mathbb{S}, \{0, 1\}), (S_5, \wp(S_5), S_5)\})).
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Proof. Let \delta: \{0,1\}^c \to S_5 be as it was defined in Lemma 23. It is easy to see that the typed
      quantifier monoid for Maj is (\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}^+, \pm 1), for Sq is (\mathbb{N}, \mathbb{S}, \{0, 1\}), and for \Gamma_{1, \delta}^{S_5, s} is (S_5, \{s\}, S_5).
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           By Corollary 26, we have that
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           DLogTime-uniform NC^1 = \mathcal{L}((FO \cup \Gamma_{1.\delta}^{S_5})[+, \times]).
450
      Lemma 28 (ii)-(iv) allow us to define FO, +, and × in ({Maj, Sq})[<] and (i) and (iv) allow
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      us to define Maj and Sq in (FO \cup \Gamma_{1,\delta}^{S_5})[+,\times]. Therefore,
          DLogTime-uniform NC^1 = \mathcal{L}((\Gamma_{1,\delta}^{S_5} \cup \{Maj, Sq\})[<]).
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      Theorem 22 gives us the algebraic characterization of
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           DLogTime-uniform NC^1 = \mathcal{L}(\operatorname{sbpc}_{<}(\{(\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}^+, \pm 1), (\mathbb{N}, \mathbb{S}, \{0, 1\})\})
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                                                                          \cup \{(S_5, A, S_5) \mid A \in \wp(S_5)\})
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      Because (S_5, A, S_5) \prec (S_5, \wp(S_5), S_5) for all A \in \wp(S_5), we lose no expressive power by
      consolidating all elements (S_5, A, S_5) with (S_5, \wp(S_5), S_5). We neither gain expressive power
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      because \mathcal{L}((S_5, \wp(S_5), S_5)) \subseteq \text{Reg} \subseteq \text{DLogTime-uniform NC}^1. Therefore, we have our final
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      characterization:
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           DLogTime-uniform NC<sup>1</sup> = \mathcal{L}(\operatorname{sbpc}_{\leq}(\{(\mathbb{Z},\mathbb{Z}^+,\pm 1),(\mathbb{N},\mathbb{S},\{0,1\}),(S_5,\wp(S_5),S_5)\})).
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# 5 Conclusion

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In this work, we constructed a class of typed monoids exactly recognizing DLogTIME-uniform NC<sup>1</sup>. To do so, we proved results regarding the expressive power of logics with quantifiers defined over finite monoids. Specifically, we established that the expressive power is not changed by restricting the dimension of the interpretations on which the quantifiers act, regardless of which numerical predicates are available.

Therefore, we were able to provide a logic characterizing DLogTime-uniform  $NC^1$  which only uses unary quantifiers and use this logic to construct an algebraic characterization of DLogTime-uniform  $NC^1$ . This result marks the second circuit complexity class to be characterized in a such a way, with the first being DLogTime-uniform  $TC^0$  [11].

An interesting future direction would be to construct similar algebraic characterization of other complexity classes beyond NC<sup>1</sup>. It seems this would require the development of new algebraic tools. In particular, the block product is a key tool used to characterize first-order quantification and more generally quantification over interpretations of dimension one. To extend the work to other complexity classes, it would be worthwhile investigating other product constructions that might similarly relate to quantification on interpretations of higher dimension as well as higher-order quantifiers.

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# A Strong Block Product Closure

### A.1 Weakly Closed Classes

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- ▶ **Definition 30** (Direct Product of Monoids). The direct product of two monoids  $(S, \cdot_S)$  and  $(T, \cdot_T)$  is the monoid  $(S \times T, \cdot)$  where  $(s_1, t_1) \cdot (s_2, t_2) = (s_1 \cdot_S s_2, t_1 \cdot_T t_2)$ .
- ▶ **Definition 31** (Direct Product of Boolean Algebras). We define the direct product of Boolean algebras  $B_1$  and  $B_2$ , denoted  $B_1 \times B_2$ , to be the Boolean algebra generated by the set  $\{A_1 \times A_2 \mid A_1 \in B_1 \text{ and } A_2 \in B_2\}$ .
- Definition 32 (Direct Product of Typed Monoids). ▶
- The direct product  $(S, G, E) \times (T, H, F)$  is the typed monoid  $(S \times T, G \times H, E \times F)$ .
- ▶ **Definition 33** (Trivial Extension). If there exists a surjective typed monoid homomorphism from (S, G, E) to (T, H, F), then we say that (S, G, E) is a trivial extension of (T, H, F).
- $\triangleright$  **Definition 34** (Weakly Closed Class). We call a set of typed monoids T a weakly closed class if it is closed under
- Division: If  $(S, G, E) \in T$  and  $(S, G, E) \leq (T, H, F)$ , then  $(T, H, F) \in T$ .
- Direct Product: If  $(S, G, E), (T, H, F) \in T$ , then  $(S, G, E) \times (T, H, F) \in T$ .
- Trivial Extension: If (S, G, E) is a trivial extension of (T, H, F) and  $(T, H, F) \in T$ , then  $(S, G, E) \in T$ .
- We write wc(T) to denote the smallest weakly closed set of typed monoids containing T.

#### A.2 The Block Product

The block product will be our main tool for the construction of algebraic characterizations of language classes via logic. Historically, the "wreath product" was first used for this purpose. Since [14], however, the block product has typically been the preferred and easier-to-work-with tool of choice. We now build up to its definition:

▶ **Definition 35** (Left and Right Actions). A left action  $\star_l$  of a monoid  $(N, \cdot)$  on a monoid (M, +) is a function from  $N \times M$  to M such that for  $n, n_1, n_2 \in N$  and  $m, m_1, m_2 \in M$ ,

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$$n \star_l (m_1 + m_2) = n \star_l m_1 + n \star_l m_2$$
  
541  $(n_1 \cdot n_2) \star_l m = n_1 \star_l (n_2 \star_l m)$   
542  $n \star_l 1_M = 1_M$   
543  $1_N \star_l m = m$ 

The right action  $\star_r$  of  $(N,\cdot)$  on (M,+) is defined dually. We say that left and right actions of  $(N,\cdot)$  on (M,+) are compatible if for all  $n_1,n_2\in N$  and  $m\in M$ ,

$$(n_1 \star_l m) \star_r n_2 = n_1 \star_l (m \star_r n_2).$$

When clear from context, we may simply write nm for  $n \star_l m$  and mn for  $m \star_r n$ .

▶ **Definition 36** (Two-sided Semidirect Product). For a pair of compatible left and right actions,  $\star_l$  and  $\star_r$  of  $(N, \cdot)$  on (M, +), the two-sided (or bilateral) semidirect product of (M, +) and  $(N, \cdot)$  with respect to  $\star_l$  and  $\star_r$  is the monoid  $(M \times N, \star)$  where for  $(m_1, n_1), (m_2, n_2) \in M \times N$ ,

$$(m_1, n_1) \star (m_2, n_2) = (m_1 n_2 + n_1 m_2, n_1 \cdot n_2).$$

▶ **Definition 37** (Block Product). The block product of  $(M, \cdot_M)$  with  $(N, \cdot_N)$ , denoted  $M \square N$ , is the two-sided semidirect product of  $(M^{N \times N}, +)$  and  $(N, \cdot)$  with respect to the left and right actions  $\star_l$  and  $\star_r$  where for  $f, g \in M^{N \times N}$  and  $n, n_1, n_2 \in N^1$ ,

 $(M^{N\times N},+)$  is the monoid of all functions from  $N\times N$  to M under componentwise product +:

$$(f+g)(n_1,n_2) = f(n_1,n_2) \cdot_M g(n_1,n_2).$$

The left action  $\star_l$  of  $(N,\cdot)$  on  $(M^{N\times N},+)$  is defined by

$$(n \star_l f)(n_1, n_2) = f(n_1 \cdot_N n, n_2).$$

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The right action  $\star_r$  of  $(N,\cdot)$  on  $(M^{N\times N},+)$  is defined by

$$(f \star_r n)(n_1, n_2) = f(n_1, n \cdot_N n_2).$$

### A.3 The Typed Block Product

▶ **Definition 38** (Typed Block Product). Let (S,G,E) and (S',G',E') be typed monoids and  $C \subseteq S'$  be a finite set. Then, the typed block product with C of (S,G,E) and (S',G',E'), denoted  $(S,G,E) \boxdot_C(S',G',E')$ , is the typed monoid (T,H,F) where

- (1)  $T \leq S \square S'$  such that T is generated by the elements (f, s') such that
  - (a)  $s' \in E' \cup C$  and
  - (b)  $f \in E^{S' \times S'}$  such that for  $b_1, b_2, b_3, b_4 \in S'$ , if for all  $c \in C$  and all  $A' \in G'$ ,  $b_1cb_2 \in A'$  iff  $b_3cb_4 \in A'$ , then  $f(b_1, b_2) = f(b_3, b_4)$ ,

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(2) H = \{\{(f, s) \mid f(1, 1) \in A\} \mid A \in G\} where 1 is the identity of S',
         (3) and F = \{(f, s') \mid (f, s) \text{ is a generator of } T \text{ and } s' \in E'\}.
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     ▶ Definition 39. Because the typed monoid corresponding to the order predicate will be a very
     common, it is convenient to define an ordered typed block product, (S, G, E) \boxtimes_C (S', G', E')
     which will help simplify our algebraic representations whose numerical predicates only include
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     order; this is defined the same as the typed block product above but with a change to condition
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        (1)(b_{<}) f \in E^{S' \times S'} such that for b_1, b_2, b_3, b_4 \in S', if for all c \in C and all A' \in G',
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                          (i) b_1cb_2 \in A' \text{ iff } b_3cb_4 \in A',
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                          (ii) b_1c \in A' iff b_3c \in A',
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                         (iii) and cb_2 \in A' iff cb_4 \in A',
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                    then f(b_1, b_2) = f(b_3, b_4).
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ightharpoonup Definition 40. For a set of typed monoids W, we let
         W_0 = \operatorname{wc}(W)
     and for each k \geq 1,
     W_k = \{S_1 \boxdot_C S_2 \mid S_1 \in W_0, S_2 \in W_{k-1}, \text{ and finite } C \subseteq S_2\}
    W_k^{<} = \{ S_1 \boxtimes_C S_2 \mid S_1 \in W_0, \ S_2 \in W_{k-1}^{<}, \ and \ finite \ C \subseteq S_2 \}
     We define the (ordered) strong block product closure of W, denoted sbpc(W) (sbpc_{<}(W)), as
     = sbpc(W) = \bigcup_{k \in \mathbb{N}} W_k
     bpc_{<}(W) = \bigcup_{k \in \mathbb{N}} W_k^{<}.
```