First-order logic with reachability for infinite-state systems

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Abstract

First-order logic with the reachability predicate (FO[R]) is an important means of specification in system analysis. Its decidability status is known for some individual types of infinite-state systems such as pushdown (decidable) and vector addition systems (undecidable).

This work aims at a general understanding of which types of systems admit decidability. As a unifying model, we employ valence systems over graph monoids, which feature a finite-state control and are parameterized by a monoid to represent their storage mechanism. As special cases, this includes pushdown systems, various types of counter systems (such as vector addition systems) and combinations thereof. Our main result is a characterization of those graph monoids where FO[R] is decidable for the resulting transition systems.

Categories and Subject Descriptors    F1.1 [Models of Computation]: Automata

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1. Introduction

In the context of model checking, proving correctness of a system amounts to proving that a model of the system’s behaviour, often given in the form of an automaton, complies with a specification, typically defined by a formula in a logic over the configuration graph of the automaton model. To obtain an automated correctness proof, care needs to be taken in choosing the expressivity of the automaton model and of the logic:

First-order logic with reachability (FO[R]) can uniformly specify a wide range of correctness properties. Safety specifications can be expressed with a simple existential quantification: Can some error configuration be reached? Violations of liveness specifications can be found by checking the existence of a loop that avoids desirable behaviour, that is, by solving a recurrent reachability problem, also expressible in FO[R]. In general, quantifier alternation provides a means to specify how the system should react to an environment:

No matter what the choices of the environment are (∀), the system should be able to react (∃) in a way that guarantees some objective is met. Moreover, FO[R] can provide a useful middle ground between first-order logic without reachability and monadic second-order logic: The latter significantly increases expressivity but at the cost of being decidable for fewer models.

Despite its importance in system analysis, the decidability status of FO[R] for infinite state systems is only known for a handful of prominent models. Using Caucal’s interpretation technique, positive results have been shown for the (higher-order) pushdown automata family (Caucal 1996; Carayol and Wûthle 2003). In the parallel setting, there are positive results for PA (Lugiez and Schnoebelen 2000) and vector addition systems with states (VASS) of dimension two (Leroux and Sutre 2004). For general VASS (equivalently, Petri Nets), close to no flavour of first-order logic (even without reachability) is decidable (Darondeau et al. 2011). However, to the best of our knowledge, there is no systematic account of decidability of FO[R] for general classes of storage mechanisms. The question we address in this paper is:

Which features of the storage mechanism of the automaton model determine the decidability status of FO[R]?

In order to investigate this question, we need a unifying framework that encompasses and generalizes all the aforementioned infinite-state models. We thus set out to study FO[R] on the configuration graphs of valence systems: Finite state automata with auxiliary storage, where the storage mechanism is specified via a monoid. In this model, a configuration of a valence system over a monoid M consists of a pair (q,m) where q is a control state and m is the storage content, an element of M. A transition (q,r,q’) has the effect of multiplying r ∈ M (to the right) to the current storage content. In order to model actions that are not allowed at the current storage content (such as popping the wrong stack symbol), we restrict the configurations to right-invertible monoid elements. As an example, a stack can be modeled by the monoid whose elements can be represented by sequences of non-barred (a) and barred (˘a) versions of each stack symbol (representing a push and a pop respectively) with the rule ˘a = a. Then, the right-invertible elements are the sequences over non-barred symbols. A counter over N with increment and decrement (which we call a partially blind counter) can be similarly modeled by having only one stack symbol. Correspondingly, a blind counter is a counter over Z, represented by also having a = ˘a.

Most importantly, new storage mechanisms can be built by composing monoids using two kinds of products. The direct product M × N of two monoids M and N allows the automaton to use the two storage mechanisms independently. This permits, for example, building counter systems of any finite dimension. The free product M ∗ N amounts, roughly speaking, to forming stacks whose entries alternate between elements of M and elements of N. A valence system over M ∗ N can push elements of N or M into the stack, manipulate the top entry using the relevant storage mechanism (N or M) and pop the top of the stack when empty.

To systematize our study, we consider the so-called graph monoids — monoids that are defined by graph presentations. Formally, a graph Γ induces a quotient MΓ over a free monoid: Each
node represents a pair of dual letters a and a, which always cancel out (i.e. a a · a = e) — in other words, nodes represent copies of what is known in the literature as the bicyclic monoid B. Edges represent a commutativity relation used to quotient the monoid. If two nodes u and v are adjacent, the letters they represent commute with each other, i.e. x−u x−v = x−v x−u for x−w ∈ {a−u, a−w}, w ∈ {u, v}. If a node has a self loop, the two dual letters it represents commute, i.e. a a = a a. A partially blind counter is thus represented by a graph with one node and no edges; a blind counter is realized by a graph on a simple graph-theoretic property of storage mechanisms M

Contributions

Our main result is a full characterization of the storage mechanisms M − M that admit decidability of FO[R], based on a simple graph-theoretic property of Γ. We call a graph a B 2-triangle if it is one of the graphs in Fig. 1. A graph is said to be B 2-triangle-free if it does not contain a B 2-triangle as an induced subgraph. In Theorem 2.1 we prove that requiring Γ to be a disjoint union of cliques, where each clique is B 2-triangle-free, is a sufficient and necessary condition for decidability of FO[R].

To establish our decidability results, we employ a strong notion of automaticity for monoids, which implies automaticity of the resulting transition systems, including the reachability predicate. To be more precise, we define a notion of automatic rational multiplication — multiplication in the monoid by elements of a rational subset being representable by a synchronous relation on a regular encoding. We then characterize the shape of storage mechanisms satisfying our graph-theoretic condition as the closure under free products of the monoids B × Z k for k ∈ N and B × B. To show that, in the base case, B × Z k and B × B have automatic rational multiplication, we establish Presburger-definability of the reachability relation. In the induction step, we give a direct construction for deriving automatic rational multiplication in M + N, assuming M, N have automatic rational multiplication.

For the undecidability results, we first show that the decomposition into cliques is needed. If Γ is not a disjoint union of cliques, then M − M contains (a, b)∗ × {e}∗ as a submonoid of right-invertible elements, which, as we show, offers enough structure to make the Σ 2 fragment of FO[R] undecidable. On the other hand, if Γ decomposes into cliques but is not B 2-triangle-free, then we show how to interpret the Σ 1 theory of arithmetic with addition and multiplication, (N, +, ·), in the Σ 2 fragment of FO[R] on valence systems. In both cases, undecidability already holds for a fixed valence system.

One notable consequence of our result is that FO[R] is decidable for d-dimensional VASS if and only if d ≤ 2.

Outline

In Section 2 we recall the basic notions around valence systems and state our main theorem. Sections 3 and 4 are devoted to proving the decidability and the undecidability results, respectively.

1.1 Related Work

A variety of positive results have been developed for the pushdown family. Notably, the Caucal hierarchy (Caucal 1996) admits a decidable MSO theory, via MSO-interpretations and graph unfoldings. The configuration graphs in the Caucal hierarchy are the ones generated by higher-order pushdown automata (Carayol and Wörnle 2003), which therefore enjoy a decidable MSO theory. Walukiewicz (Walukiewicz 1996) obtained upper complexity bounds on μ-calculus model checking for pushdown systems. The interpretation idea has been generalized by Colcombet (2002) to regular ground tree rewriting. MSO is also known to be decidable on trees generated by higher-order recursion schemes (Ong 2006). Schulz (2010) showed, using an interpretation-based approach, that FO[R] is decidable over a class of grid-like structures. Beyond such iterated interpretation ideas, we are not aware of results that target general storage mechanisms. While the storage mechanisms we consider are quite general, higher-order features cannot be captured by graph monoids: Higher-order pushdown systems have decidable MSO, but all graph monoids over which valence systems have decidable MSO generate only ordinary pushdown graphs.

In the concurrent setting, variants of first-order theories with reachability have been shown decidable by Lugiez and Schnoebelen (2000) for PA processes. For Petri nets, a thorough study of plain first-order logic without reachability showed that the logic is undecidable even for very weak predicates (Daroneau et al. 2011). Crucially, this holds only when one restricts the structures to the reachable configurations: when the unrestricted structure is considered, Petri net configuration graphs are automatic. For our setting, the restriction does not make a difference since the presence of the reachability predicate would allow us to restrict or relativize quantifiers within the logic.

Ideas akin to automaticity are also applied in the area of regular model checking (Abdulla et al. 2004). There, the goal is to approximate the transitive closure of the transition relation, using widenings and acceleration-based techniques on regular transducers. Instead of studying decidability, termination is enforced at the price of precision, obtaining constructions that are useful in practice.

Valence automata over graph monoids have recently been used to study other computational properties. For example, there is a full characterization of those graph monoids that guarantee semilinear Parikh images (Buckheister and Zetzsche 2013) and partial characterizations of those with decidable reachability (Zetzsche 2015) and of those where ε-transitions can be eliminated (Zetzsche 2013).

2. Concepts and Main Result

A finite automaton is a tuple (X, Q, q0, E, F) where X is a finite alphabet, Q is a finite set of states, q0 ∈ Q is the initial state,
$E \subseteq Q \times X^* \times Q$ is a set of edges, and $F \subseteq Q$ is the set of final states. The language recognized by the automaton $A$ is denoted $L(A)$; for two states $p$ and $q$ of $A$, we denote by $L_{pq}(A)$ the set of words that label paths from $p$ to $q$ in $A$.

**Valence Systems**

We represent storage mechanisms as monoids. Let $M$ be a monoid; we denote multiplication in the monoid by juxtaposition, and the neutral element by 1. The elements of $M$ are actions that can be applied to the storage content and the elements of $\mathcal{R}_1(M) := \{ x \in M \mid \exists y \in M : xy = 1 \}$ correspond to valid storage contents. The elements of $\mathcal{R}_1(M)$ are said to be right-invertible. A valence system over $M$ is a tuple $S = (Q, M, E)$, in which (i) $Q$ is a finite set of states, (ii) $E$ is a finite subset of $Q \times M \times Q$, called the set of edges. A configuration of $S$ is a pair $(q, r) \in Q \times \mathcal{R}_1(M)$. For $p, q \in Q$ and $s, r \in \mathcal{R}_1(M)$, we write $(p, r) \to s (q, s)$ if there is an edge $(p, m, q) \in E$ such that $s = rm$. The reflexive transitive closure of $\to s$ is denoted $\to^* s$.

**Graphs**

A graph is a pair $\Gamma = (V, E)$ where $V$ is a finite set and $E$ is a subset of $\{ \{ v, w \} \mid 1 \leq |S| \leq 2 \}$. The elements of $V$ are called vertices and those of $E$ are called edges. Vertices $v, w, x \in V$ are adjacent if $\{ v, w \} \in E$. If $\{ v \} \in E$ for some $v \in V$, then $v$ is called a looped vertex, otherwise it is unlooped. A subgraph of $\Gamma$ is a graph $(V', E')$ with $V' \subseteq V$ and $E' \subseteq E$. Such a subgraph is called induced (by $V'$) if $E' = \{ \{ v \} \mid v \in V' \}$, i.e., $E'$ contains all edges from $E$ between vertices from $V'$. By $\Gamma \setminus \{ v \}$, for $v \in V$, we denote the subgraph of $\Gamma$ induced by $V \setminus \{ v \}$. Moreover, a clique is a graph in which any two distinct vertices are adjacent. Finally, $\Gamma^{-}$ denotes the graph obtained from $\Gamma$ by deleting all self loops: We have $\Gamma^{-} := (V, E^{-})$, where $E^{-} = \{ \{ v \} \mid |S| = 2 \}$. Finally, a graph is transitive if for $x, y, z \in V$, pairwise distinct, we have that $\{ x, y \}, \{ y, z \} \in E$ implies $\{ x, z \} \in E$.

**Graph monoids**

Let $A$ be a (not necessarily finite) set of symbols and $R$ be a subset of $A^* \times A^*$. The pair $(A, R)$ is called a (monoid) presentation. The smallest congruence of $A^*$ containing $R$ is denoted by $\equiv_R$ and we will write $[w]_R$ for the congruence class of $w \in A^*$. The monoid presented by $(A, R)$ is defined as $A^*/\equiv_R$. Note that since we did not impose a finiteness restriction on $A$, up to isomorphism, every monoid has a presentation. Furthermore, for monoids $M_1, M_2$ we can find presentations $(A_1, R_1)$ and $(A_2, R_2)$ such that $A_1 \cap A_2 = \emptyset$. We define the free product $M_1 \star M_2$ to be presented by $(A_1 \cup A_2, R_1 \cup R_2)$. Note that $M_1 \star M_2$ is well-defined up to isomorphism. In analogy to the $n$-fold direct product, we write $M^{(n)}$ for the $n$-fold free product of $M$.

With each graph $\Gamma = (V, E)$, we associate the alphabet of generators $X_\Gamma := \{ a_x, \bar{a}_x \mid v \in V \}$, and the smallest congruence $\equiv_\Gamma$ satisfying

\[
\begin{align*}
& a_x \bar{a}_x \equiv_\Gamma \varepsilon & \text{for each } v \in V, & (1) \\
& xy \equiv_\Gamma yx & \text{for each } x \in \{ a_v, \bar{a}_v \}, & (2) \\
& y \in \{ a_v, \bar{a}_v \} & \text{with } \{ v, w \} \in E.
\end{align*}
\]

In particular, we have $a_x \bar{a}_x \equiv_\Gamma \bar{a}_x a_x$ whenever $\{ v \} \in E$. With each graph $\Gamma$, we associate the monoid $\text{MG} := X_\Gamma/\equiv_\Gamma$. The monoids of the form $\text{MG}$ are called graph monoids.

Let us briefly discuss how to realize storage mechanisms by graph monoids. First, suppose $\Gamma_0$ and $\Gamma_1$ are disjoint graphs. If $\Gamma$ is the union of $\Gamma_0$ and $\Gamma_1$, then $\text{MG} \cong \text{MG}_0 \star \text{MG}_1$ by definition. Moreover, if $\Gamma$ is obtained from $\Gamma_0$ and $\Gamma_1$ by drawing an edge between each vertex of $\Gamma_0$ and each vertex of $\Gamma_1$, then $\text{MG} \cong \text{MG}_0 \times \text{MG}_1$.

If $\Gamma$ consists of one vertex $v$ and has no edges, the only congruence rule is $a_v \bar{a}_v \equiv_\Gamma \varepsilon$. In this case, $\text{MG}$ is also denoted $\mathbb{B}$ and we will refer to it as the bicyclic monoid. The generators $a_v$ and $\bar{a}_v$ are then also written $a$ and $\bar{a}$, respectively. Observe that $\text{MG}(\mathbb{B}) = \{ a \}^*$ and thus $\text{MG}(\mathbb{B}) \cong \mathbb{N}$. Multiplying $a$ or $\bar{a}$ on the right represents increment or decrement, respectively. Since $a$ and $\bar{a}$ do not commute, $\mathbb{B}$ corresponds to a partially blind counter, i.e., one that attains only non-negative values. For instance, starting from $a$, we cannot decrement twice and add one by multiplying $\bar{a}a$ because $\bar{a}a \equiv_\Gamma \neq \mathcal{R}_1(\mathbb{B})$.

Moreover, if $\Gamma$ consists of one looped vertex, then $\text{MG}$ (and also $\text{MG}(\mathbb{M})$) is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}$ and thus realizes a blind counter, which can go below zero.

If one storage mechanism is realized by a monoid $M$, then the monoid $\mathbb{B} \star M$ corresponds to the mechanism that builds stacks: A configuration of this new mechanism consists of a sequence $c_0a_1c_2 \cdots ac_n$, where $c_0, \ldots, c_n$ are configurations of the mechanism realized by $M$. We interpret this as a stack with the entries $c_0, \ldots, c_n$. One can open a new stack entry on top (by multiplying $a \in \mathbb{B}$), remove the topmost entry if empty (by multiplying $\bar{a} \in \mathbb{B}$) and operate on the topmost entry using the old mechanism (by multiplying elements from $M$). In particular, $\mathbb{B} \star \mathbb{B}$ describes a pushdown stack with two stack symbols. Observe that $\text{MG}(\mathbb{B} \star \mathbb{B})$ is isomorphic to the monoid of words over two symbols, i.e., stack words. Table 1 shows a few more examples. See (Zetzsche 2013) for details.

**Logic**

Let $S$ be a valence system over the monoid $M$. Then the first-order logic with reachability for $S$, $\text{FO}[R(S)]$, consists of the first-order formulas over the following signature:

- The constant symbols are the configurations of $S$.
- $\text{state}_q(\cdot)$: A unary state predicate for each $q \in Q$.
- $\text{step}(\cdot, \cdot)$: The binary step predicate for one-step reachability.
- $\text{reach}(\cdot, \cdot)$: The binary reachability predicate.

Given a valence system $S$, its reachability structure is the relational structure with domain $Q \times \mathcal{R}_1(M)$ over the above signature defined in the obvious way. For a first-order formula $\varphi$, we write $S \models \varphi$ when $\varphi$ holds on the reachability structure of $S$. The first-order theory with reachability over $S$ is then the set of formulas $\{ \varphi \in \text{FO}[R(S)] \mid S \models \varphi \}$.

### 2.1 Main Result

We call $\Gamma$ a $\mathbb{B}^2$-triangle if it is one of the graphs of Fig. 1. A graph $\Gamma$ is said to be $\mathbb{B}^2$-triangle-free if it does not contain a $\mathbb{B}^2$-triangle as an induced subgraph.

**Theorem 2.1.** Let $\Gamma$ be a graph. The first-order theory with reachability for valence systems over $\text{MG}$ is decidable if and only if $\Gamma$ is a disjoint union of $\mathbb{B}^2$-triangle-free cliques.

Before we move to the proof, let us elaborate on the concrete shape of the graphs satisfying the condition of Theorem 2.1. If $\Delta$ is a $\mathbb{B}^2$-triangle-free clique, then $\Delta$ either (i) consists of at most two unlooped vertices or (ii) contains at most one unlooped vertex and a number of looped vertices. Since all these vertices are adjacent, this means we either have $\Delta \cong \mathbb{B}^2 \times \mathbb{N}^\ast$ for $r \in \{0, 1\}$ and $s \in \mathbb{N}$, if $\Gamma$ is a disjoint union of $\mathbb{B}^2$-triangle-free cliques $\Delta_1, \ldots, \Delta_n$, then $\text{MG}$ is the free product of the $\text{MG}_\Delta$.

Operationally, the storage mechanism implemented by such an $\text{MG}$ is composed of a stack, each entry of which is either (i) a pair of partially blind counters, or (ii) a partially blind counter with a number of blind counters.
3. Decidability

In this section, we show that $\text{FO}[R]$ is decidable for valence systems over $\mathcal{M}^\Gamma$ whenever $\Gamma$ is a disjoint union of $\mathbb{B}^2$-triangle-free cliques. More specifically, we prove that the transition systems—with the reachability relation—generated by such systems over $\mathcal{M}^\Gamma$ (effectively) automatic. We deduce this property from a slightly more abstract concept, which we call automatic rational multiplication.

As we argued in the previous section, if $\Gamma$ is a disjoint union of $\mathbb{B}^2$-triangle-free cliques, then $\mathcal{M}^\Gamma$ is isomorphic to the free product of a finite number of monoids, each of which is isomorphic either to $\mathbb{B}^2$ or to $\mathbb{B}^3 \times \mathbb{Z}^2$, for $r \in \{0,1\}$ and $s \in \mathbb{N}$. Therefore, we proceed as follows:

(i) We show that $\mathbb{B} \times \mathbb{Z}^n$ has automatic rational multiplication for each $n \geq 0$. Here, we use a direct construction showing that the reachability relation for two fixed states is Presburger-definable and can thus conclude automaticity.

(ii) We observe that $\mathbb{B} \times \mathbb{B}$ has automatic rational multiplication. Note that $\mathcal{R}_1(\mathbb{B} \times \mathbb{B}) \cong \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$ and that valence systems over $\mathbb{B} \times \mathbb{B}$ are essentially two-dimensional vector addition systems with states. We can therefore apply a result of Leroux and Sutre (2004), stating that the binary reachability relation of such systems is effectively semilinear. Specifically, given a rational subset $R$ of $\mathbb{B} \times \mathbb{B}$, one can easily construct a 2-dim. VASS whose binary reachability relation for two states is precisely all those $((x,y),(x',y'))$ for which there is an $r \in R$ with $(x,y)r=(x',y')$. Since this semilinearity implies Presburger-definability, we directly obtain an encoding with automatic rational multiplication.

(iii) We obtain a general transfer result, stating that if two monoids $M_0$ and $M_1$ each have automatic rational multiplication, then so do their free product $M_0 \ast M_1$. Here, we use a generalization of the saturation method for pushdown automata (Benois 1969; Bouajjani et al. 1997) to obtain automaticity.

Hence, for the decidability, it remains to prove (i) and (iii), which we do in Sections 3.2 and 3.3, respectively. We begin with the required concepts.

3.1 Automaticity

Let $X$ be an alphabet and $\circ \notin X$. We define the alphabet $X(2,\circ)$ as $(X \cup \{\circ\})^2 \setminus \{(\circ,\circ)\}$ and the convolution $u \circ v \in X(2,\circ)^*$ of words $u, v \in X^*$ inductively as follows. We have

$$au \circ bv = (a,b)(u \circ v), \quad \circ \circ = \epsilon$$

$$a \circ b = (a,b)(\epsilon \circ v) \quad a \epsilon = (a,\epsilon)(u \circ \epsilon)$$

for $a, b \in X$ and $u, v \in X^*$. For a relation $R \subseteq X^* \times X^*$, we write $R^\circ = \{u \circ v \mid (u,v) \in R\}$. Such a relation is called regular if $R^\circ$ is a regular language.

Let $(D, R_1, \ldots, R_n)$ be a relational structure with domain $D$ and relations $R_1, \ldots, R_n$ of arities $r_1, \ldots, r_n \leq 2$ (for our purposes, it suffices to consider arities $\leq 2$). This structure is called automatic if there is a regular language $L \subseteq X^*$, and a bijection $\theta : L \to D$ such that each of the relations

$$R_i^\theta = \{(x_1, \ldots, x_r) \in L^{r_i} \mid (\theta(x_1), \ldots, \theta(x_r)) \in R_i\}$$

is regular. The first-order theory of each automatic structure is decidable (Khoussainov and Nerode 1995), even when extended by the infinity quantifier (Blumensath and Grädel 2000) and the modulo quantifier (Khoussainov et al. 2004).

We will show that in the decidable case of Theorem 2.1, the reachability structure of each such valence system is (effectively) automatic. Here, it will be convenient to prove a more abstract condition, termed ‘automatic rational multiplication’, which implies the desired automaticity. We say that a monoid $M$ is finitely generated if there is an alphabet $X$ and a surjective morphism $[\cdot] : X^* \to M$. The image of $w \in X^*$ under $[\cdot]$ will be denoted $[w]$ and we write $[K] = \{[w] \mid w \in K\}$ when $K \subseteq X^*$. Note that if $M$ is finitely generated, we can denote elements of $M$ by words over $X$. From now on, we assume that $M$ is finitely generated and fix $X$ and $[\cdot]$. While the following definitions make reference to $X$ and $[\cdot]$, it is easy to see that they do not depend on this choice. A subset $R \subseteq M$ is called rational if there is a regular language $K \subseteq X^*$ such that $R = [K]$. We will represent such a rational subset of $M$ by a finite automaton for $K$.

Definition 3.1. Let $M$ be finitely generated. An encoding for $M$ is a bijection $\theta : L \to \mathcal{R}_1(M)$ where $L$ is a regular language. We say that $\theta$ has automatic rational multiplication if for each rational subset $R \subseteq M$, the relation

$$R^\circ := \{(u,v) \in L \times L \mid \exists r \in R : \theta(u)r = \theta(v)\}$$

is effectively regular, i.e. one can compute a finite automaton for $(R^\circ)^\circ$. In this case, we also say that $M$ has automatic rational multiplication.

Note that here, the alphabet of $L$ is usually not $X$.

Theorem 3.2. Suppose $M$ has an encoding with automatic rational multiplication. Then each valence system over $M$ has an effectively automatic reachability structure.

The proof of Theorem 3.2 is not difficult. One has to extend the encoding with the states of a given valence system. One then observes that the configurations in state $q$ reachable from $(p,m)$ are precisely those of the form $(q, m, r)$, where $r$ is drawn from a rational set. Hence, the reachability relation is regular. Moreover, encodings of step relation and configurations follows from the special case where the rational set is finite.

3.2 Base Case $\mathbb{B} \times \mathbb{Z}^k$

We show that $\mathbb{B} \times \mathbb{Z}^k$ has automatic rational multiplication. The key observation is that a rational set over this monoid behaves like a 1-counter automaton (1CM) over $\mathbb{N}$ that is decorated with further counters over $\mathbb{Z}$. Decorated means only the $\mathbb{N}$-counter influences the behavior of the automaton, the $\mathbb{Z}$-counters do not.

To prove automaticity, we show that the reachability relation in such decorated $1CM$ is Presburger definable. Automaticity then follows from automaticity of Presburger arithmetic. To establish Presburger definability of the reachability relation, we make use of semilinearity of the Parikh images of $1CM$ languages, combined with the equivalence of semilinear and Presburger-definable sets.

Proposition 3.3. $\mathbb{B} \times \mathbb{Z}^k$ has automatic rational multiplication.

The monoid $\mathbb{B} \times \mathbb{Z}^k$ is finitely generated by definition. Since we have an isomorphism $\mathcal{R}_1(\mathbb{B} \times \mathbb{Z}^k) \cong \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{Z}^k$, we can identify the elements of $\mathcal{R}_1(\mathbb{B} \times \mathbb{Z}^k)$ with pairs $(m, \vec{c}) \in \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{Z}^k$. Consider a rational set $R \subseteq \mathbb{B} \times \mathbb{Z}^k$. We have to characterize the set of pairs $(m, \vec{c})$ for which there is an element $r \in R$ so that $(m, \vec{c})r = (n, \vec{d})$. In the latter situation, $(n, \vec{d})$ is said to be reachable from $(m, \vec{c})$. More precisely, we choose a regular language $L$ where each word $w \in L$ encodes an element $\theta(w)$ of $\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{Z}^k$. Then, we show that the set of pairs $(u, v) \in L \times L$ such that $\theta(u)$ is reachable from $\theta(v)$ is synchronous rational. Fortunately, we can express reachability of $(n, \vec{d})$ from $(m, \vec{c})$ in Presburger arithmetic, for which a suitable encoding is already available. Presburger arithmetic is the first-order logic over $(\mathbb{Z}, \leq, +)$. 
Lemma 3.4. Given a rational set \( R \subseteq \mathbb{B} \times \mathbb{Z}^k \), one can construct a Presburger formula \( \varphi_R(x_1, y_1, x_2, y_2) \) so that for all \((m, c)\) and \((n, d)\) from \( \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{Z}^k \) we have

\[
\exists r \in R: (m, c)r = (n, d) \quad \text{iff} \quad \varphi_R(m, c, n, d) \text{ holds}.
\]

Before we turn to the construction, we explain why the result guarantees the encoding requirement. The structure \((\mathbb{Z}, +, \leq)\) has a first-order interpretation in \((\mathbb{N}, +, \leq)\), the more common formulation of Presburger arithmetic. (One idea is to provide two variables over the naturals for each integer). Automaticity of Presburger arithmetic over \( \mathbb{N} \) goes back to (Büchi 1960). To be precise, there is a bijection between the naturals and the elements in a regular language. Moreover, there are automata for the encodings of solutions to Presburger-definable relations. Automaticity is preserved under first-order interpretations (Blumensath and Grädel 2000). A direct encoding of \((\mathbb{Z}, +, \leq)\) into automata (sign followed by most-significant bit) is given in (Boigelot and Wolper 1998). Finally, the set \( \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{Z}^k \) is first-order definable, meaning we can find an encoding of precisely the elements of \( \mathbb{R}_A(\mathbb{B} \times \mathbb{Z}^k) \).

To compute the Presburger formula \( \varphi_R \), we develop an understanding of the rational set \( R \subseteq \mathbb{B} \times \mathbb{Z}^k \) as a 1CM. By definition, the rational set is represented by a finite automaton \( N \) over letters say \( a \) and \( \bar{a} \) for \( \mathbb{B} \) and \( b_i \) and \( \bar{b}_i \) for each copy of \( Z_i \), \( i = 1, \ldots, k \). We interpret \( B \) and \( Z \) as counters (partially blind and blind, respectively). With this point of view, \( a \) and \( \bar{a} \) similarly \( b_i \) and \( \bar{b}_i \) are increment and decrement operations on the respective counters. An element \( r \in R \) is thus represented by a sequence of increment and decrement operations on the counters that is accepted by \( N \).

The formula \( \varphi_R \) is supposed to capture the pairs \((m, c)\) and \((n, d)\) from \( \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{Z}^k \) so that \((m, c)r = (n, d)\) for some \( r \in R \). With the above discussion, finding such an element \( r \in R \) means finding a sequence of increment and decrement operations in the automaton \( N \) that, when applied to the initial value \((m, c)\), yields \((n, d)\). The only requirement on this application is that the \( \mathbb{N} \)-counter is never decremented below zero. However, this is precisely the semantics of a 1CM over \( \mathbb{N} \). Our \( \varphi \) thus induces the 1CM \( (\mathbb{B} \times \mathbb{Z}^k, \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}, \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{Z}^k, m, \bar{m}, q_0, q_f, \varphi_{\mathbb{B}}) \).

Lemma 3.5. There is an \( r \in R \) so that \((m, c)r = (n, d)\) if and only if there is an \( \alpha \in \mathcal{L}(C_N, m) \) so that

\[
y = \alpha + (\psi(\sigma))(z) - (\psi(\sigma))(z)
\]

for all \((x, y, z) \in \{(m, n, a), (c_1, d_1, b_1), \ldots, (c_k, d_k, b_k)\} \).

The lemma rephrases the existence of \( r \in R \) as the existence of a \( C_N \)-computation. The main message is that the effect on the counters can be deduced from the Parikh image of the computation. This holds true even for the \( \mathbb{N} \)-counter. Nevertheless, we need the semantics of a 1CM (rather than all computations of the finite automaton \( N \)) to make sure the \( \mathbb{N} \)-counter stays non-negative also in all intermediary configurations.

Lemma 3.6 can be read as follows. For a fixed value \( m \), it characterizes the suitable \( \bar{c}, \bar{d} \) and \( n \) in terms of the Parikh images of the computations of \( C_N \). To give a characterization for all \( m \), we guess the initial value of the \( \mathbb{N} \)-counter. Let \( C_N \) coincide with \( C_N \) for a fresh initial state \( q_{\text{new}} \) and a fresh letter \( \bar{a} \). The new state carries a loop \((q_{\text{new}}, \bar{a}, 1, q_{\text{new}})\) and has an \( \varepsilon \)-transition to the former initial state, \((q_{\text{new}}, \varepsilon, 0, q_0)\).

Since \( C_N \) is an ordinary 1CM, its language is context-free. With Parikh’s theorem (Parikh 1966), the Parikh image of this language is a semilinear set, and hence Presburger definable. The equations in the lemma explain how to turn a Presburger formula for \( \psi(\mathcal{L}(C_N, 0)) \) into a formula for our set of pairs.

3.3 Induction Step

In this section, we show that the property of having automatic rational multiplication is passed on to free products. This means, we prove the following:

Theorem 3.7. If the monoids \( M_0 \) and \( M_1 \) have automatic rational multiplication, then so does \( M_0 \ast M_1 \).

Let us briefly sketch the proof steps. First, we devise a saturation procedure for rational sets (Lemma 3.9). This allows us to assume that in the automata over \( M_0 \ast M_1 \), every element can be accepted through a word in a normal form. This normal form is amenable to an analysis of how elements can cancel during multiplication (Lemma 3.10). Then, we use Lemma 3.10 to show that for each rational set, the set of encodings of its members and that of their inverses is effectively regular (Lemma 3.12). Finally, we use this and the possible cancellation cases from Lemma 3.10 again to construct a regular relation for each of these cases.

Let \( M_0 \) and \( M_1 \) be monoids with automatic rational multiplication. Then, \( M_0 \) and \( M_1 \) are finitely generated, so assume alphabets \( X_0 \) and \( X_1 \) with \( X_0 \cap X_1 = \emptyset \) and a surjective morphism \( \cdot \colon X_0^* \to M, \) for each \( i \in \{0, 1\} \). For the monoid \( M = M_0 \ast M_1 \), we pick the surjective morphism \( \cdot \colon X^* \to M \times X_0 \cup X_1 \) that extends \([0] \cdot [1]\).

By our assumption, for each \( i \in \{0, 1\} \), there is an encoding \( \theta_i \colon L_i \to \mathcal{R}_1(M_i) \) with automatic rational multiplication. It is an easy exercise to show that we may assume \( \varepsilon \in L_i \), \( \theta_i(1) = 1 \). We may also assume \( Y_0 \cap Y_1 = \emptyset \), where \( Y_i \) is the finite alphabet of the language \( L_i \). In our encoding for \( M_0 \ast M_1 \), we take \( Y = Y_0 \cup Y_1 \) as the alphabet and \( L = (L_0 \cup L_1)^* \) as the regular language. In order to define \( \theta \colon L \to \mathcal{R}_1(M_0 \ast M_1) \), we need some terminology.

Let \( w \in X^* \) and \( i \in \{0, 1\} \). A non-empty factor \( w \) of \( w \) is called an i-block (or block of type i) if \( f \in X_i^* \) and \( f \) has no neighboring symbol in \( X_i \). It is called a block if it is an i-block for some \( i \in \{0, 1\} \). The unique decomposition \( w = w_1 \cdots w_n \) where each \( w_i \) is a block of \( w \) is called \( w \)'s block decomposition. Note that since also \( Y = Y_0 \cup Y_1 \) and \( Y_0 \cap Y_1 = \emptyset \), we may apply the terms block and block decomposition analogously for words over \( Y \). We call a word \( w \in X^* \) reducible if for some \( i \in \{0, 1\} \), it has a block \( f \) with \( |f| = 1 \). Otherwise, \( w \) is called reduced. The following follows easily from the definition of the free product.
Fact 3.8. Suppose $u$ and $v$ are reduced and have block decompositions $u = u_1 \cdots u_m$ and $v = v_1 \cdots v_n$. Then $[u] = [v]$ if and only if $m = n$ and $[u_i] = [v_i]$ for every $i \in [1, n]$.

We are now ready to define the map $\theta : L \to \mathcal{R}_1(M)$. It is well-known (and can be deduced from Lemma 3.10) that $\mathcal{R}_1(M_0 \ast M_1) = \mathcal{R}_1(M_0) \ast \mathcal{R}_1(M_1)$. For $w \in L_i$, $i \in \{0, 1\}$, we define $\theta_i(w) = 0_i(w)$. Recall that we have $L_0 \cap L_1 = \{ e \}$, but this causes no contradiction because the neutral elements of $M_0$ and $M_1$ are identified in $M_0 \ast M_1$. For the general case, suppose $w \in L$ with block decomposition $w = u_1 \cdots u_m$. Then we have $u_i \in L_0 \cup L_1$ for $j \in [1, m]$ and we set $\theta(w) := \theta(u_1) \cdots \theta(u_m)$. Observe that $\theta$ is surjective because $\theta_0$ and $\theta_1$ are. Moreover, it follows from Fact 3.8 that $\theta$ is injective.

Rational subsets of $M = M_0 \ast M_1$ are represented by finite automata over $X$. Of course, such an automaton might accept words that are not reduced. However, we will see that we can always construct an automaton $A$ for $R$ that is saturated, meaning that $[\mathcal{L}(A)] = R$ and whenever $m \in [\mathcal{L}(A)]$ for states $p$, $q$, then there is a reduced word $w \in \mathcal{L}(A)$ with $[w] = m$.

Lemma 3.9. For each rational subset $R \subseteq M = M_0 \ast M_1$, we can compute a saturated automaton for $R$.

Here, the idea is to introduce an $\varepsilon$-edge between $p$ and $q$ whenever $1 \in [\mathcal{L}(A)]$. If we do this until we reach a fixpoint, we arrive at a saturated automaton. 

Proof. We are given $R$ as a finite automaton $A = (X, Q, q_0, E, F)$ such that $[\mathcal{L}(A)] = R$. We define, for states $p, q \in Q$, the finite automaton $A_{pq}$ as $(X, X \cdot \{ p \}, E, \{ q \})$. In other words, we take $A$ and designate $p$ and $q$ as initial and (only) final state, respectively.

First, observe that if $N$ is a monoid with automatic rational multiplication, then given a rational subset $R \subseteq N$, it is decidable whether $1 \in R$: We have $1 \in R$ if and only if $(e, e) \in R^o$, which we can check because $R^o \subseteq R$ is effectively regular.

We apply a saturation procedure, in which we successively add edges to $E$. We begin with $E_0 = E$ and assume we have constructed $E_i$. Consider the automaton $A_i = (X, Q, q_0, E_i, F)$. We check whether there is a pair $(p, q)$ of states such that there is no edge $(p, e, q)$ and we have $1 \in [\mathcal{L}(A_i)]$. This is decidable by our observation since $[\mathcal{L}(A_i)]$ is rational. If we find such a pair of states, we set $E_{i+1} = E_i \cup \{(p, e, q)\}$. If there is no such pair, the procedure terminates.

We clearly have $E_0 \subseteq E_1 \subseteq \cdots$ and since we add no states to the automaton, the procedure has to terminate with some $E_k$. We claim that then, $A_k$ has the desired property.

First of all, it is clear that in each step, we have $[\mathcal{L}(A_i)] = [\mathcal{L}(A_{i+1})]$. The inclusion “$\subseteq$” holds trivially and the other inclusion holds by the choice of $p$ and $q$. In particular, we have $[\mathcal{L}(A_k)] = R$. Now let $p, q \in Q$ and $m \in [\mathcal{L}(A_k)]$, and choose a word $w \in \mathcal{L}(A_k)$ with $[w] = m$ such that $w$ has a minimal number of blocks. Suppose $w$ is not reduced, i.e. $w = ufv$ with a block $f$ such that $|f| = 1$. By construction of $A_k$, this means $uv \in L_k(A_k)$. However, since $[w] = [w]$, $w$ must have at least one block less than $w$, this contradicts the choice of $w$. Hence, $w$ must be reduced. \□

For our proof, we need to understand how multiplication works in $M_0 \ast M_1$, in terms of reduced words. We identify four cases, the simplest being the “non-merging” case. Let $u = u_1 \cdots u_m$ and $v = v_1 \cdots v_n$ be block decompositions of $u, v \in X^*$. We call $u$ and $v$ non-merging if $uv$ and $v$ are blocks of distinct types. Otherwise, we say that $u$ and $v$ are merging. Of course, when $u$ and $v$ are non-merging, then $uv$ is again a reduced word and represents $[u][v]$. As above, since we have $Y_0 \cap Y_1 = \emptyset$, the notion of merging words also applies to encodings, i.e. members of $L$. Note that if $x$ and $y$ are non-merging and $x, y \in L$, then $xy \in L$ and $\theta(xy) = \theta(x)\theta(y)$.

We now want to understand multiplication in the merging case. For a proof of the following lemma, see Appendix B.

Lemma 3.10. Let $u, v, w \in X^*$ be reduced and let $u$ and $v$ be merging; moreover, let $w = w_1 \cdots w_k$ be the block decomposition of $w$. Then we have $[uw] = [w]$ if and only if one of the following holds:

(i) We have $m \leq n$ and
   - for every $j \in [1, m]$, we have $[u_{m-j+1}v_j] = 1$,
   - $k = n - m$, and
   - $[w_1 \cdots w_k] = [v_{m+1} \cdots v_n]$.
(ii) We have $m > n$ and
   - for every $j \in [1, n]$, we have $[u_{m-j+2}v_j] = 1$,
   - $k = m - n$, and
   - $[w_1 \cdots w_k] = [u_{1} \cdots u_k]$.
(iii) There is an $i \in [0, \min(m, n)]$ such that
   - for every $j \in [1, i]$, we have $[u_{m-j+i+1}v_j] = 1$,
   - $k = m - n - i + 1$, and
   - $[w_{m-n-i+1} \cdots w_k] = [v_{i+1} \cdots v_n]$.

For relations $S, T \subseteq X^* \times X^*$, we define

$S \cdot T := \{(x_1, y_1, y_2) \mid (x_1, y_1) \in S, (x_2, y_2) \in T\}$.

When constructing regular relations, we employ the following fact, which is well-known and easy to see.

Fact 3.11. Let $S \subseteq X^* \times X^*$ be regular and let $C \subseteq Y^* \times Y^*$ be regular. Then, the relation $S \cdot (C \times D)$ is regular as well. Moreover, if every pair $(x, y) \in S$ satisfies $|x| = |y|$ and $T \subseteq X^* \times Y^*$ is regular, then $S \cdot T$ is also regular.

We now show that for the encoding $\theta$, the right-invertible members of a rational set have effectively regular encodings, and the same is true for their left-inverses. Let us define this precisely. Suppose $N$ is a monoid and we have an encoding $\eta : K \to \mathcal{R}_1(N)$. Then, for rational subsets $R \subseteq N$, we define

$R^\circ := \{w \in K \mid \eta(w) \in R\}$,

$R^\circ := \{w \in K \mid \exists r \in R : \eta(w)r = 1\}$.

If the encoding function has automatic rational multiplication, these sets are always regular. This is because the set $R^\circ$ is the projection of $R^o \cap \{(\eta^{-1}(1)) \times X^*\}$ onto the right component. Hence, $R^\circ$ is regular. Analogously, $R^\circ$ is the projection of the relation $R^o \cap (X^* \times (\eta^{-1}(1)))$ onto the left component. We now lift this effective regularity to our encoding for $M_0 \ast M_1$. The idea is to (i) decompose each run of an automaton for $R$ into blocks representing elements $\neq 1$ (which is possible thanks to Lemma 3.9) and (ii) replace each of them with the encoding (employing effective regularity for $M_0$ and $M_1$). In the case of $R^\circ$, we have to reverse the sequence of blocks.

Lemma 3.12. For each rational subset $R \subseteq M = M_0 \ast M_1$, the sets $R^\circ$ and $R^\circ$ are effectively regular.

Proof. Suppose that $R = [\mathcal{L}(A)]$ for the finite automaton $A = (X, Q, q_0, E, F)$. By Lemma 3.9, we may assume that every element of $R$ is represented by a reduced word. Observe that it is decidable whether $1 \in R$: The only reduced word that can represent $1 \in M$ is the empty word, meaning we need to check whether $e \in \mathcal{L}(A)$. Recall that $X = X_0 \cup X_1$. By $\{1\}$, we denote the automaton obtained from $A$ by deleting all edges labeled with $X_1$. We begin with the set $R^\circ$. We will construct a regular language $K$ and a regular substitution $\sigma$ such that $\sigma(K) = R^\circ$, which
implies effective regularity of $R^\circ$. The set $K$ is a language over $Z = Q \times \{0, 1\} \times Q$ and consists of all non-empty words

$$(p_0, i_1, p_1)(p_1, i_2, p_2) \cdots (p_{n-1}, i_n, p_n)$$

such that $p_0 = q_0$, $p_n \in F$, and for every $j \in [1, n - 1]$, we have $i_j + 1 = i_{j+1}$. Moreover, we add $\varepsilon$ to $K$ if and only if $1 \in R$. We will use the rational set $R_{pq}(A)$, defined by

$R_{pq}(A) = \{\varepsilon\}$. The substitution $\sigma : Z \to \mathbb{P}(Y^*)$ is defined as follows. For $(p, i, q) \in Z$, we set $\sigma(z) := R_{pq}(A) \{\varepsilon\}$, where $R_{pq}(A)$ is effectively regular by our observation above. One can now show that $R^\circ = \sigma(K)$ (see Appendix C).

Let us now show regularity of $R^\circ$. We use the language $K$ from above, but in reverse, and instead of $\sigma$, we use the substitution $\tau : Z \to \mathbb{P}(X^*)$ where for $z = (p, i, q)$, we set $\tau(z) := R_{pq}(A) \{\varepsilon\}$. Again, one can show that $R^\circ = \tau(K^{\text{rev}})$ (see Appendix C).

We are now ready to show Theorem 3.7, i.e. regularity of $R^\circ$. Here, our strategy is to construct a regular relation for each of the four cases of a multiplication ("non-merging" and the three cases of Lemma 3.10). In order to show that the constructed relations are regular, we first introduce some auxiliary sets. Let $R = [C(A)]$ be a rational subset of $M = M_0 \times M_1$, where $A = (X, Q, q_0, E, F)$. We may assume that $A$ is saturated (Lemma 3.9) and that $A$ has only one final state, $F = \{f\}$. The first set we use consists of all encoding pairs that are equal and either empty or end in an $\ell$-block:

$$E_{\ell} := \{(u, u) \mid u \in \{\varepsilon\} \cup (L_0 \cup L_1)^* L_\ell\}.$$ (3)

$E_{\ell}$ is clearly regular. In order to describe the result of canceling elements of $R$ with others, we employ the set $R_{pq, \ell} := \{L_{pq}(A)\}$, which is a rational subset of $M_\ell$. Since we assume $\theta_\ell$ to have automatic rational multiplication, the following is effectively regular:

$$P_{pq, \ell} := \{(u, v) \in L_{\ell} \times (L_{\ell} \setminus \{\varepsilon\}) \mid \exists r \in R_{pq, \ell}:$$

$$\theta_{\ell}(u) r = \theta_{\ell}(v)\}.$$ (4)

Note that the right component is required to be non-empty, so this set is not quite the same as $R_{pq, \ell}$, but it can be obtained from the latter by an intersection with the regular relation $L_{\ell} \times (L_{\ell} \setminus \{\varepsilon\})$ (recall that regular relations are closed under intersection (Elgot and Mezei 1965)). We also need two variants of $R_{pq, \ell}$, namely those that pick only encodings that are empty or start (end) in an $\ell$-block:

$$I_{p,q,\ell} = R_{pq,\ell}^* \cap (\{\varepsilon\} \cup L_\ell (L_0 \cup L_1)^*)$$ (5)

$$I_{p,q,\ell}^* = R_{pq,\ell}^* \cap (\{\varepsilon\} \cup (L_0 \cup L_1)^* L_\ell)$$ (6)

Finally, we use a variant of $R_{pq,\ell}$ that requires encodings to be empty or to start in an $\ell$-block:

$$W_{pq,\ell} = R_{pq,\ell}^* \cap (\{\varepsilon\} \cup (L_0 \cup L_1)^*)$$ (7)

According to Lemma 3.12, the sets in Eqs. (5) to (7) are effectively regular.

Our task is to show that the set of pairs $(u, v)$ such that there is an $r \in R$ with $\theta(u)r = \theta(v)$ is regular. To this end, we want to apply Lemma 3.10, which is, however, expressed in terms of monoid elements represented as sequences of generators and $[\cdot]$, and not via $\theta$. However, since for a word $w \in Y^*$ and a block decomposition $w = w_1 \cdots w_n$, with $w_1 \in Y^*$, we have $\theta(w) = \theta_1(w_1) \theta_1^{-1}(w_2) \theta(w_3) \cdots$, the product of two encodings via $\theta$ is built according to the same pattern of cancelation and of multiplication analyzed in Lemma 3.10 for sequences of generators.

Thus, Lemma 3.10 (and the remark above it) tell us that there are four possible situations. We call these cases non-merging (if $x$ and $y$ are non-merging), suffix (case (i) of Lemma 3.10), prefix (case (ii)), and mixed (case (iii)).

The simplest case is the non-merging case, since we just have to concatenate encodings $x$ and $y$ to get $z$. This means, the two components have a common prefix (corresponding to $x$) and then the second component proceeds with the encoding of an element of $R$. Hence, these pairs are represented in the following set:

$$T_1 := \bigcup_{\ell \in \{0, 1\}} E_{\ell} \cdot (\{\varepsilon\} \times W_{0, q, 1-\ell}).$$

In the suffix case, $y$ is split up in $y = y_1y_2$ such that $x$ cancels with $y_1$, so that the result is $y_2$. Therefore, we first guess the type $\ell$ of the last block of $y_1$ and we guess the state $p$ that is in after it has read the part $y_1$. Then, in the left component, we generate $x$ as an element that can be canceled by one that is read from $q_0$ to $p$. In the right component, we generate $y_2$ as an element that is read by $A$ from $p$ to the final state:

$$T_2 := \bigcup_{\ell \in \{0, 1\}} E_{\ell} \cdot (I_{0, q, 1-\ell} \times \{\varepsilon\}).$$

Now, the prefix case works similarly to the suffix case: Here, $x$ is split up as $x = x_1x_2$ such that $x_2$ cancels with $y$:

$$T_3 := \bigcup_{\ell \in \{0, 1\}} E_{\ell} \cdot (I_{0, q, 1-\ell} \times \{\varepsilon\}).$$

The mixed case is more involved. As depicted in Fig. 2, $x$ and $y$ decompose as $x = x_1x_2x_3$ and $y = y_1y_2y_3$ (which is not necessarily a block decomposition) such that (i) $x_3$ cancels with $y_1$, (ii) $x_2$ and $y_2$ are blocks of the same type $\ell$ that are multiplied as in $M_\ell$ and yield a result $\neq 1$, and (iii) the prefix $x_1$ of $x$ and the suffix $y_3$ of $y$ are passed to the result without modification. This is realized as follows. First, we guess the block type $\ell$ of $x_2$ and $y_2$ and which states the automaton $A$ is in after it reads the part $y_1(p)$ and after it reads $y_2(q)$. The relation $E_{1-\ell}$ copies the unchanged prefix $x_1$. Afterwards, the relation $P_{pq, \ell}$ generates $x_3$ on the left side and the product of $x_2$ and $y_2$ on the right side. Then, $x_3$ is described by $I_{0, p, \ell}$: Recall that $x_3$ cancels with $y_1$, which is read from $q_0$ to $p$. Finally, $y_3$ is described by $W_{q, f, 1-\ell}$:

$$T_4 := \bigcup_{\ell \in \{0, 1\}} E_{1-\ell} \cdot P_{pq, \ell} \cdot (I_{0, q, 1-\ell} \times W_{q, f, 1-\ell}).$$

By Fact 3.11, each of the relations $T_1, T_2, T_3, T_4$, and hence their union, is regular. It can be verified that $R^\circ$ equals $T_1 \cup T_2 \cup T_3 \cup T_4$. See Appendix D for a detailed proof.

4. Undecidability

We show that if $\Gamma$ is not a disjoint union of $B^+\!-\!$triangle-free cliques, the first-order theory with reachability is undecidable — even for a fixed valence system over $M^\Gamma$ (as a graph is a disjoint union of cliques if and only if it is transitive). Therefore, a graph can fail to be a disjoint union of $B^+\!-\!$triangle-free cliques for two reasons: Either $\Gamma$ contains the graph $\bullet \bullet \bullet$ as an induced subgraph, or $\Gamma$ contains a $B^+$-triangle. To each of these cases we devote one section.
4.1 Undecidability: Non-Transitive Graphs

Suppose \( \mathcal{G}^- \) contains \( \bullet \bullet \bullet \) as an induced subgraph. This means \( \mathcal{G}^- \) contains a submonoid \( (M_0 \times M_1) \times M_2 \), where each \( M_i \) is either \( \mathbb{B} \) or \( \mathbb{Z} \). In any case, \( R_1(\mathcal{G}^-) \) contains a submonoid that is isomorphic to \( \{a, b\}^* \times \{c\}^* \). We will show that undecidability can be proved by just relying on the submonoid \( \{a, b\}^* \times \{c\}^* \); operationally, this means we will restrict ourselves to automata that never make use of barred symbols. That is, if we interpret \( a \) and \( b \) as the two symbols of a stack and \( c \) as representing a counter, the systems we will construct never perform a pop, nor a decrement. This is in sharp contrast to other questions in automata theory, where even bounding reversals yields decidability results (Ibarra 1978). Our main finding is that we can in fact give two arguments for undecidability, one where the formula is fixed, and one for a fixed valence system.

**Theorem 4.1.** Assume \( \mathcal{G}^- \) is as discussed above. 
(i) There is a fixed \( \text{FO}[R] \)-formula that cannot be checked for valence systems over \( \mathcal{G}^- \).
(ii) There is a fixed valence system over \( \mathcal{G}^- \) with an undecidable first-order theory with reachability.

For the first claim, we require the following undecidable problem to ours:

**Theorem 4.2.** (Sakarovitch (1992)). Given a rational subset \( R \) of \( \{a, b\}^* \times \{c\}^* \), it is undecidable to determine whether \( R \) equals \( \{a, b\}^* \times \{c\}^* \).

Let \( R \subseteq \{a, b\}^* \times \{c\}^* \) be a rational set as recognized by the finite state automaton \( A \). The automaton \( A \) can be turned into a valence system \( S_A \) with states \( q_f \) and \( q_0 \), such that \( (q_f, m) \) is reachable from \( (q_0, 1) \) if and only if \( m \in R \). We now construct the following valence system, which we call \( S_A^* \):

\[
\begin{array}{c}
{q_0} \\
{S_A} \\
{q_f} \quad t \quad a & b \\
{c}
\end{array}
\]

In this new system, we can use the transitions on \( s \) to reach, from \( (s, 1) \) all and only the configurations \( (t, m) \) with \( m \in \{a, b\}^* \times \{c\}^* \); moreover, from \( (q_0, 1) \) we can reach \( (t, m) \) if and only if \( m \in R \). We therefore obtain that \( S_A^* \models \forall c: \text{state}(c) \wedge \text{reach}(s, 1, c) \rightarrow \text{reach}(q_f, 1, c) \) holds if and only if \( R = \{a, b\}^* \times \{c\}^* \). Note that the formula can be evaluated on any valence system having three states named \( t \), \( s \), and \( q_0 \) respectively.

To establish the second claim, we require a variant of Post’s Correspondence Problem (PCP). The initialized PCP that we rely on is the following:

**Theorem 4.3.** (Harju et al. (1996)). There is a fixed alphabet \( X \), a fixed alphabet \( Y \), and fixed morphisms \( \alpha, \beta: X^* \rightarrow Y^* \) such that the following problem is undecidable: Given a word \( u \in Y^* \), is there a word \( w \in X^* \) satisfying \( \alpha(u) = \beta(w) \)?

We encode an instance of initialized PCP into checking a \( \Sigma_1 \) formula over a valence system. The precise statement is in the next lemma, a proof of which concludes the proof of Theorem 4.1.

**Lemma 4.4.** Take \( X, Y, \alpha, \beta \) from Theorem 4.3. There is a fixed valence system \( S_{\alpha, \beta} \) and a mapping from \( u \in Y^* \) to the \( \Sigma_1 \) formula \( \varphi_u \), so that \( S_{\alpha, \beta} \models \varphi_u \) iff \( \alpha(u) = \beta(w) \) for some \( w \).

In the original result, the problem is finding \( w \) such that \( \alpha(u) = \beta(w) \). Our variant is equivalent via word reversal.

We give a construction that depends on \( X, Y, \alpha, \beta \). By choosing the parameters appropriately, we arrive at the lemma. We begin with the construction of \( S_{\alpha, \beta} \). The alphabets \( X \) and \( Y \) can be assumed to be disjoint. We encode their union \( X \cup Y = \{a_1, \ldots, a_n\} \) as words over the alphabet \( \{a, b\} \). (Remember that we are sure to have the submonoid \( \{a, b\}^* \times \{c\}^* \).) The encoding is via the morphism \( \gamma: (X \cup Y)^* \rightarrow \{a, b\}^* \) with \( \gamma(a_i) = ab^{i+1} \).

We now show how to represent morphisms \( \mu: X^* \rightarrow Y^* \) by rational sets. In a first step, we represent \( \mu \) as \( W_\mu \subseteq \{a, b\}^* \times \{c\}^* \). The set encodes the pairs \( w \mu(w) \) together with information about the length of \( \mu(w) \). Formally, we have

\[
W_\mu := \{(\gamma(u \mu(w)), c^k) \mid w \in X^*, k = |\mu(w)|\}.
\]

In a second step, and this is the point in the definition of \( W_\mu \), we observe that the complement \( W_\mu = \{a, b\}^* \times \{c\}^* \setminus W_\mu \) is rational and effectively computable from \( \mu \), due to Sakarovitch (1992). Intuitively, since we have negation in the logic, it will not matter whether we use \( W_\mu \) or its complement to represent \( \mu \).

An automaton recognizing \( W_\mu \) can be turned into a valence system \( S_{\mu, \beta} \). To this end, we introduce distinguished states \( s_{\mu} \) and \( t_{\mu} \), such that the \( t_{\mu} \)-configurations reachable from \( (s_{\mu}, 1) \) are exactly of the form \( (t_{\mu}, m) \) with \( m \in W_\mu \). We can make sure \( t_{\mu} \) does not have outgoing edges.

We construct \( S_{\alpha, \beta} \) by taking the union of \( S_{\alpha} \) and \( S_{\beta} \) obtained as above, and adding new states \( q_{\beta} \) and \( q_0 \) as below:

\[
\begin{array}{c}
{q_0} \\
{S_A} \\
{q_f} \quad t \quad a & b \\
{c}
\end{array}
\]

Note that \( m \in W_\mu \) iff \( (t_{\mu}, m) \) is not reachable from \( (s_{\alpha}, 1) \), and similar for \( (t_{\beta}, m) \).

We now construct the formula \( \varphi_u \) for the given word \( u \in Y^* \). To explain the idea, consider a configuration \( e_1 = (t_{\alpha}, (v_1, c_1^{k_1})) \) that is not reachable from \( (s_{\alpha}, 1) \). With the previous note, this means \( v_1 = \gamma(u \alpha(w)) \) and \( k_1 = |\alpha(w)| \) for some \( w \in X^* \). Assume \( e_1 \) leads to \( e_2 = (t_{\beta}, (v_2, c_2^{k_2})) \) via a path that multiplies \( \gamma(u) \) to the store. Then we have \( v_2 = v_1 \gamma(u) = \gamma(u \alpha(w)u) \) and \( k_2 = k_1 + |u| = |\alpha(w)u| \). The relationship with the instance of the initialized PCP problem is as follows. Configuration \( e_2 \) is not reachable from \( (s_{\beta}, 1) \) iff \( v_2 = \gamma(w' \beta(u')) \) and \( k_2 = |\beta(u')| \) for some \( w' \in X^* \). But since we also have \( v_2 = \gamma(u \alpha(w)u) \) and \( k_2 = |\alpha(w)u| \), we can conclude \( w' = w \). We found a solution, namely \( \beta(u) = \alpha(u)w \) to the initialized PCP instance.

Formula \( \varphi_u \) phrases the above setting in first-order logic. It is \( \Sigma_1 \) as we only have to existentially quantify over \( e_1 \) and \( e_2 \). Assume for the moment we have a predicate path\( u \)(\( e_1, e_2 \)) that guarantees the following. If it holds for configurations \( e_1 = (t_{\alpha}, (v_1, c_1^{k_1})) \) and \( e_2 = (t_{\beta}, (v_2, c_2^{k_2})) \), then \( v_2 = v_1 \gamma(u) \) and \( k_2 = k_1 + |u| \). With this predicate, formula \( \varphi_u \) is

\[
\exists e_1, e_2: \text{state}_{\beta}(e_2) \wedge \text{reach}(s_{\alpha}, 1, e_1) \\
\wedge \text{state}_{\beta}(e_2) \wedge \neg\text{reach}(s_{\beta}, 1, e_2) \\
\wedge \text{path}_{\gamma}(e_1, e_2).
\]

The argumentation in the previous paragraph derives the desired equivalence in Lemma 4.4.
We can express \( \pi(e) \leq \pi(d) \) with \( \exists e : \pi(e) \leq \pi(e) \land \pi(e) = \pi(e) \land \pi(e) = \pi(d) \).

Note how all these formulas belong to the \( \Sigma_1 \) fragment of the logic. Now we are ready to show how to interpret first-order logic over the naturals.

**Domain** We represent the domain of the naturals with the configurations satisfying \( \text{state}_e(x) \land \pi_2(x) = 0 \land \pi_3(x) = 0 \).

**Addition** To represent addition, we include in \( S_0 \) the state \( a \) and the relevant portion of the gadget in Fig. 4, again sharing \( q \) with the rest of the construction. We can then express \( \pi_1(d) = \pi_1(e) + \pi_2(e) \) with the \( \Sigma_2 \) formula:

\[
(\exists e_1 e_2 d : \text{state}_e(e_1) \land \pi(e_1) \land \pi(e_2) \land \pi(e_3) = 0 \land \pi(d) = \pi_1(d).
\]

The trick is to add the second to the first counter of \( c \), and make sure the first counter of \( d \) matches this value. To be more precise, we guess a configuration \( e_1 \) that has the same counter values as \( c \). This is guaranteed by \( \text{step}(e_1, e) \). Then we transfer the value of the second counter in \( e_1 \) to the first counter, using the path from \( e_1 \) to \( e_2 \). We have to check that we have transferred the full counter value \( \pi_2(e_1) \).

To this end, we perform a transition from \( e_2 \) to the \( q \)-configuration \( d' \) and check \( \pi_3(d') = 0 \). Note that the auxiliary predicate \( \pi_3(d') = 0 \) can only be used, because \( d' \) is a \( q \)-configuration. It cannot be used for \( e_2 \). All that remains is to compare the value of the first counter in \( d \) to the first counter in \( d' \), again using one of the auxiliary predicates.

With the above, we can interpret \( \pi_1(e) = \pi_1(c) + \pi_1(d) \) in \( \Sigma_1 \) with the formula \( \exists e' : \pi_1(e') = \pi_1(e) \land \pi_3(e') = \pi_1(d) \land \pi_1(e') = \pi_3(e') + \pi_3(d) \).

**Squaring** To interpret squaring we add the transitions in Fig. 4 to \( S_0 \). We then express squaring in two steps.

First, we express \( \pi_1(d) \leq \pi_1(e)^2 \). We rely on the fact that \( n^2 = \sum_{i=0}^{n-2} 2i + 1 \). With this equation, it is sufficient to reach all configurations \( (q, 0, 0, n') \) where \( n' \leq \sum_{i=1}^{n} 2(n-i) + 1 \). Indeed, the desired inequality can now be phrased as \( \pi_3(d) \) being one of the values \( n' \). To compute the sum, we define a configuration \( c' \), using the interpretation for addition above, such that \( c' = (q, 2n-1, 0, 0) \). We write this property as \( \text{init}(c, c') \).

The trick for making sure that \( n' \leq \sum_{i=1}^{n} (2(n-i) + 1) \) is the following. We start with the value \( 2n-1 \) in the first counter. We think of the counter values as tokens that can be moved, so that we have \( 2n-1 \) tokens in the first component. Intuitively, we move the counter value back and forth between the first and the second component. This happens between the states \( m_3 \) and \( m_5 \). However, each time we move the tokens from one component to the other, we lose 2 tokens. Moreover, each time we move one token from the first to the second component, we increment the third. Now if we could make sure to move all tokens in every iteration, we would end up with counter value \( \sum_{i=1}^{n} (2(n-i) + 1) = n^2 \) in the third component. This we cannot guarantee, but we know that each time we take at most the tokens that are there (recall that the first two components
of our storage are $\mathbb{B}$, i.e. partially blind counters). Hence, we end up with counter value at most $n^2$ in the third component.

We return to our formula. Starting in configuration $(m, 0, 0, 0)$ we increment the first counter to value $n_1$ and move to $c_1 = (m_1, n_1, 0, 0)$. We have to ensure that $n_1 = 2n - 1$. To this end, we require the existence of a path from $c_1$ via $m_2$ to a configuration $c'$ that satisfies $\text{init}(c, c')$. That the path is via $m_2$ guarantees $n_1 = \pi_1(c')$. That the init predicate holds yields $\pi_1(c') = 2n - 1$.

Together, this is the equality we need.

We have to do the summation. From $c_1 = (m_1, n_1, 0, 0)$, we go to $c_3 = (m_3, n_3, 0, 0)$ from which we execute the $m_3$-$m_2$-loop. Eventually, we leave the loop and get to $d' = (q, \ldots, n')$. Since this is a $q$-configuration, we can use the auxiliary predicates and require $\pi_1(d) = \pi_3(d')$. The above argumentation on the construction of the gadget together with the fact that $n_1 = 2n - 1$ guarantees that we leave the loop with $n' \leq \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} (n - i) + 1 = n^2$.

Formally, we interpret $\pi_1(d) \leq \pi_3(c(e))^2$ with the $\Sigma_1$ formula $\varphi_{\leq \Sigma_1}(c, e)$ defined as follows:

$$
\exists c' \, d' \, c_1 \, c_2 \, c_3 \, \text{init}(c, c') \land \text{state}_{\Sigma_1}(d') \land \pi_1(d) = \pi_3(d') \land \text{reach}(\{m, 0, 0, 0\}, c_1) \land \text{state}_{\Sigma_2}(c_1) \land \text{step}(c_1, c_2) \land \text{state}_{\Sigma_2}(c_2) \land \text{step}(c_2, c_3) \land \text{reach}(c_3, d').
$$

In Appendix E, we elaborate on the correctness of the encoding.

To complete the construction we express $\pi_1(d) = \pi_3(e)^2$ in $\Pi_1$. We state that $d$ is the $q$-configuration with the maximal value in the first counter that is below $\pi_1(c(e))^2$. Formally, for every $q$-configuration $e$ we either have $\pi_1(e) > \pi_1(c(e))^2$ or $\pi_1(e) \leq \pi_1(d)$.

The corresponding $\Pi_1$ formula is:

$$
\varphi_{\leq \Pi_1}(c, d) := \forall c' \, d' \, c_1 \land \forall e : \neg \varphi_{\leq \Pi_1}(c, e) \land \pi_1(e) \leq \pi_1(d).
$$

Formula $\varphi_{\leq \Pi_1}(c, d)$ is the needed interpretation of $\pi_1(d) = \pi_3(e)^2$.

If we now take a $\Sigma_1$ formula over $\{\mathbb{N}, +, \cdot\}$ and express addition as above and multiplication via $\varphi_{\leq \Pi_1}(\cdot, \cdot)$ and the identity $2ab = (a + b)^2 - a^2 - b^2$, we arrive at a $\Sigma_1$ formula. On the whole, we obtain the following result.

**Lemma 4.6.** Assume $\Gamma$ is not $\mathbb{B}^2$-triangle-free and construct the (fixed) valence system $\Sigma_0$ over $\mathbb{M}$ above. For each first-order formula $\varphi$ over the naturals with addition and multiplication, we can produce a $\varphi'$ over the configuration graph so that

$$
\mathbb{N}, +, \cdot \models \varphi \iff \mathbb{S}_N \models \varphi'.
$$

Moreover, if $\varphi$ belongs to the $\Sigma_1$ fragment, then $\varphi'$ is in $\Sigma_2$.

To deduce undecidability of the $\Sigma_1$ fragment of $\text{FO[\mathbb{R}]}$ for a fixed valence system, note that the $\Sigma_1$ fragment of arithmetic with addition and multiplication is undecidable (Matiyasevich 1993). This concludes the proof of Theorem 4.5.

## 5. Discussion and Future Work

We provided a sufficient and necessary condition on a graph $\Gamma$ such that $\text{FO[\mathbb{R}]}$ for valence systems over the monoid $\mathbb{M}$ is decidable. This result generalizes previous results on verification of infinite-state systems and provides a full characterization of the shape of the storage mechanisms enjoying decidability of $\text{FO[\mathbb{R}]}$. The techniques employed in the proofs are robust enough to support extensions. For example, the results would still hold when adding a finite input alphabet $X$ to valence systems and adding labeled predicates $\text{step}_X(x)$ with $x \in X$ and $\text{reach}_X(x, \cdot)$ for a regular language $R \subseteq X^*$. As future work, it could be interesting to study whether similar characterizations exist for ordinary first-order logic or richer branching-time logics, such as the modal $\mu$-calculus.

References


A. Proof of Theorem 3.2
Suppose the monoid $M$ has an encoding $\theta : L \to \mathcal{R}_1(M)$, $L \subseteq Y^*$, with a valuation structure over $M$. Since $M$ is finitely generated, we have a surjective morphism $\theta : X^* \to M$.

The reachability structure for $S$ has the domain $D = Q \times \mathcal{R}_1(M)$, so we assume $Q \cap Y = \emptyset$ and take the regular language $QL = \{px \mid q \in Q, x \in L\}$ to represent $D$. As expected, the bijection is then $\eta : QL \to D$ with $\eta(qx) = (q, \theta(x))$, where $q \in Q$ and $x \in L$. We have to verify that each of the relations in the reachability structure have regular encodings.

(i) The $\text{state}(\cdot)$ predicate. Clearly, the set of its encodings is $QL$, which is regular.

(ii) The reachability predicate $\text{reach}(\cdot, \cdot)$. For each pair $p, q \in Q$, the set $R_{pq}$ of all $m \in M$ such that $(p, 1) \rightarrow_{\sigma}^* (q, m)$ is a rational set: Take the automaton $A$ with state set $Q$ and whenever there is an edge $(r, m, s) \in S$, with $m = |w|$, create an edge labeled $w$ between $r$ and $s$. This automaton clearly satisfies $\mathcal{L}(A) = R_{pq}$, so that $R$ is rational. The word relation corresponding to reachability can now be written as

\[ \bigcup_{p, q \in Q} \{(px, qy) \in QL \times QL \mid \exists r \in R_{pq} \mid \theta(x)r = \theta(y)\} \]

\[ = \bigcup_{p, q \in Q} \{(px, qy) \in QL \times QL \mid (\theta(x), \theta(y)) \in R_{pq}\} \]

which is regular (Fact 3.11).

(iii) The one-step reachability relation $\text{step}(\cdot, \cdot)$. Here, we can proceed as in the previous case, except that instead of the above $R_{pq}$, we take the finite set of all $m \in M$ for which there is a transition $(p, m, q)$ in $S$. Note that every finite set is rational.

(iv) Constants. Again, we use the fact that one-element subsets of $M$ are rational. Hence, given a state $q \in Q$ and a word $w \in X^*$ such that $|w| \in \mathcal{R}_1(M)$, we can clearly compute the word $x \in L$ such that $\theta(x) = |w|$ and thus $\eta(qx) = (q, |w|)$.

B. Proof of Lemma 3.10
Proof. The “if” statement can be checked straightforwardly. We prove the “only if” direction. Let $i \in [0, \min(m, n)]$ be maximal with the property that for all $j \in [1, i]$, we have $[u_{m-j+i}v_j] = 1$.

We distinguish three cases.

• Suppose $i = \min(m, n)$ and $m \leq n$. We claim that we are in situation (i) above. The first condition is clearly fulfilled.

Moreover, the equations $[u_{m-j+i}v_j] = 1$ for $j \in [1, m]$ mean that

\[ [w_1 \cdots w_k] = [w] = [u_1 \cdots u_m v_1 \cdots v_n] = [v_{m+1} \cdots v_n]. \]

Hence, Fact 3.8 yields the second and third condition.

• Suppose $i = \min(m, n)$ and $m > n$. We claim that we are in situation (ii) above. This can be shown analogously to the second case.

• Suppose $i < \min(m, n)$. We claim that we are in situation (iii) above. The first three conditions are clearly met. Furthermore, the equations $[u_{m-j+i}v_j] = 1$ for $j \in [1, i]$ imply that

\[ [w_1 \cdots w_k] = [w] = [u_1 \cdots u_m v_{i+1} \cdots v_n]. \]

and since $[u_{m-i} v_{i+1}] \neq 1$ by maximality of $i$, the word $u_1 \cdots u_{m-i} v_{i+1} \cdots v_n$ is reduced. According to Fact 3.8, this entails the last three conditions.

C. Proof of Lemma 3.12
We begin with the identity $R^C = \sigma(K)$. Suppose $w \in R^C$ and let $w = u_1 \cdots u_n$ be the block decomposition. Then $\theta(w) = \theta(u_1) \cdots \theta(u_n)$ and $\theta(w) \neq 1$ for $i \in [1, n]$. This means there is a word $v \in X^*$ with block decomposition $v = v_1 \cdots v_n$ such that $[v] = \theta(v_i)$ for $i \in [1, n]$. Note that $v$ is reduced. Since $[v] = \theta(w) \in R$, there is a word $u \in \mathcal{L}(A) \mid [v] = [u]$. Because of our saturation, we may assume that $u$ is reduced. If $u = u_1 \cdots u_m$ is its block decomposition, then this implies $m = n$ and $[u] = [v_i]$ for $i \in [1, n]$. We distinguish two cases.

• If $n = 0$, then we have $[v] = [u] = 1$ and thus $w = \theta^{-1}([v]) = \varepsilon$. On the other hand, this means $1 \in R$ and therefore $\varepsilon \in K$. Thus, we have $w = \varepsilon = \sigma(K)$.

• Suppose $n > 0$ and consider a computation of $A$ that reads $u = u_1 \cdots u_n$:

\[ q_0 \xrightarrow{u} q_1 \xrightarrow{u_2} \cdots \xrightarrow{u_n} q_n. \]

Moreover, let $i_j \in \{0, 1\}$ be the number with $u_j \in X_j^*$ for $j \in [1, n]$. Then, clearly, the word $x = (q_0, i_1, q_1)(q_1, i_2, q_2) \cdots (q_{n-1}, i_n, q_n)$ is contained in $K$. Moreover, since $[u] = [v] = [u_1 \cdots u_n] = \theta(w)$, we have $[u] = \sigma(q_{i_j-1}, i_j, q_j)$ for all $j \in [1, n]$ (recall that $u_{n-j+1} \neq \varepsilon$ because $\theta(u_{n-j+1}) \neq 1$). This means $w = u_1 \cdots u_n \in \sigma(x)$.

This proves $R^C \subseteq \sigma(K)$. We turn to the converse inclusion. Let $w \in \sigma(K)$. If $w = \varepsilon$, then $\varepsilon \in K$ and hence $1 \in R$ by definition of $K$. This means $w = \varepsilon \in R^C$. Suppose $w \neq \varepsilon$ and let $x = (p_0, i_1, p_1)(p_1, i_2, p_2) \cdots (p_{n-1}, i_n, p_n)$ be the word such that $w = \sigma(x)$. This means $w = u_1 \cdots u_n$ such that $w_j = \sigma(p_{j-1}, i_j, p_j)$. This implies that for each $j \in [1, n]$, we have $\theta(w_j) = [u_j]$ for some $u_j \in \mathcal{L}(A_{ij})$. Then the word $u = u_1 \cdots u_n$ is accepted by $A$ and satisfies $[u] = \theta(w)$. Since this means $\theta(w) = [u] \in R$, we have $w \in R^C$. This completes the proof of $R^C = \sigma(K)$.

We now turn to the identity $R^R = \tau(K^rev)$. Let $w \in R^R$ and let $w = u_1 \cdots u_n$ be the block decomposition. Then $\theta(w) = \theta(u_1) \cdots \theta(u_n)$ and $\theta(w) \neq 1$ for $i \in [1, n]$. This means there is a word $x \in X^*$ with block decomposition $v = v_1 \cdots v_n$ such that $[v] = \theta(u_i)$ for $i \in [1, n]$. Note that $v$ is reduced. Since there is an $r \in R$ with $[v]r = \theta(w) = 1$, there is a word $w \in \mathcal{L}(A)$ with $[r] = w$ and thus $[vu_n] = [v][u_n] = 1$. Since we saturated $A$, we may assume that $u$ is reduced. Let $u = u_1 \cdots u_m$ be its block decomposition. Now we have $u$ and $v$ reduced and we know $[vu_n] = 1$. The words $u$ and $v$ clearly have to be merging, since otherwise the equality $[vu_n] = [v]$ would contradict Fact 3.8. We can therefore apply Lemma 3.10. Note that the only case where the resulting word can be empty is case (i). This implies that $m = n$ and $[v_{n-j+1}u_j] = 1$ for all $j \in [1, n]$. As above, we distinguish two cases.

• If $n = 0$, then we have $[v] = [u] = 1$ and thus $w = \theta^{-1}([v]) = \varepsilon$. On the other hand, this means $1 \in R$ and therefore $\varepsilon \in K^rev$. Thus, we have $w = \varepsilon = \tau(K^rev)$.

• Suppose $n > 0$ and consider a computation of $A$ that reads $u = u_1 \cdots u_n$:

\[ q_0 \xrightarrow{u} q_1 \xrightarrow{u_2} \cdots \xrightarrow{u_n} q_n. \]

Moreover, let $i_j \in \{0, 1\}$ be the number with $u_j \in X_j^*$ for $j \in [1, n]$. Then, clearly, the word $x = (q_0, i_1, q_1)(q_1, i_2, q_2) \cdots (q_{n-1}, i_n, q_n)$ is contained in $K^rev$. Moreover, since $[w_{m-n+j-1}] = [u_{m-n+j}]$, we have $[u_{m-n+j}] = 1$ and $[u] \in \mathcal{L}(A_{ij}) = R_{pq}$, we have $u_{m-n+j} = \sigma(q_{i_j-1}, i_j, q_j)$ for all $j \in [1, n]$ (recall that $u_{n-j+1} \neq \varepsilon$ because $\theta(u_{n-j+1}) \neq 1$). In other words, we have $w_j \in \varepsilon$. 

The prefix case (case (ii)). We have \(1 \leq \tau(x) \leq \tau(K^{rev})\).

This proves \(R^\ominus \subseteq \tau(K^{rev})\). Now suppose \(w \in \tau(K^{rev})\). Again, \(w = \varepsilon\) clearly implies \(w \in K\) and hence \(1 \in R\) and thus \(w = \varepsilon \in R^\ominus\). Suppose \(w \neq \varepsilon\). Then there is an \(x = (q_{n-1}, i_n, q_n) \cdot (q_{n-2}, i_{n-1}, q_{n-1}) \cdots (q_0, i_1, q_1)\) such that \(w = w_1 \cdots w_n\) with

\[w_j \in \tau((q_{n-j}, i_{n-j+1}, q_{n-j+1})).\]

This implies that for each \(j \in [1, n]\), there is a \(u_j \in L_{q_{n-j}, i_{n-j+1}}(A)_{i_{n-j+1}}\) with \(\theta(w_j)[u_j] = 1\). Therefore, if we set \(u = u_n \cdots u_1\), then we have \(u \in L(A)\) and thus \(u \in R\). Hence

\[\theta(w)[u] = \theta(u) \cdots \theta(u_n)[u_n] = 1\]

and thus \(w \in R^\ominus\). This completes the proof of \(R^\ominus = \tau(K^{rev})\).

\[\text{D. Proof of Theorem 3.7}\]

It remains to be shown that \(R^\ominus = T_1 \cup T_2 \cup T_3 \cup T_4\). We begin with the inclusion “\(\subseteq\)”, so we assume that \(x, y, z \in L\) with \(\theta(x)[y] = \theta(z)\) for some \(\theta(y) \in R\). We want to show that \((x, z) \in T_1 \cup T_2 \cup T_3 \cup T_4\). There are reduced words \(w, u \in X^+\) and \(v \in L(A)\) with \(w = \theta(x), v = \theta(y),\) and \(w = \theta(z)\) (recall that \(A\) is saturated). Let

\[u = u_1 \cdots u_m, \quad x = x_1 \cdots x_m, \quad y = y_1 \cdots y_n, \quad w = w_1 \cdots w_n, \quad z = z_1 \cdots z_k,\]

be block decompositions (note that since \(u, v, w\) are reduced, they have the same number of blocks as \(x, y, z\), respectively). Then we have \(u[v] = \theta(x)[v], [v] = \theta(y),\) and \([v] = \theta(z)\) for all possible indices \(i\). Since \(v \in L(A)\), there is a computation

\[q_0 \xrightarrow{\theta(x)} q_1 \xrightarrow{v} q_2 \xrightarrow{w} \cdots \xrightarrow{v} q_n\]

with \(qn = f \in A\).

Since \(u[v] = [w]\), we can apply Lemma 3.10, which leaves us with four cases.

(i) Non-merging. If \(u, v, w\) are non-merging, then \(u = wv\) and hence \(z = xy\). Note that \(y \in W_{q_0, f, 1-\ell}\) for some \(\ell \in [0, 1]\), whether \(y\) is empty or not. Then, since \(y, v, w\) are non-merging, we have \((x, z) \in T_1\). (ii) The suffix case (case (i)). We have \(m = n \leq n\) and \([u_{m-1} \cdots +1v_1] = 1\) for \(j \in [1, m]\). This means that \(\theta(x)[y_1 \cdots y_m] = 1\) and thus \(x \in R^\ominus_{q_0, q_m}\) since \(\theta(y_1 \cdots y_m) \in R_{q_0, q_m}\).

Note that \(y_{m-1} \cdots y_n \in R_{q_0, f}\). There is clearly an \(\ell \in [0, 1]\) such that \(x \in I_{q_0, q_m, \ell}\) and \(y_{m-1} \cdots y_n \in W_{q_m, f, 1-\ell}\). Hence, we have

\[(x, z) \in (x_1 \cdots x_{m-1}y_{m-1} \cdots y_n) \in T_2.\]

(iii) The prefix case (case (ii)). We have \(m > n\) and \([u_{m-1} \cdots +1v_1] = 1\) for \(j \in [1, m]\). This means that \(\theta(x)[y] = \theta(x_1 \cdots x_{m-n})\) and hence \(z = x_1 \cdots x_m \cdot z\). Since \(m > n\), \(z\) is non-empty, so there is a unique \(\ell \in [0, 1]\) with \((z, z) \in E_{c}\). Since \([u_{m-1} \cdots +1u]\) \(\in R, \) we have \((x_1 \cdots x_{m-1}y_1 \cdots y_n) \in T_2.\)

(iv) The mixed case. We have an \(i \in [0, \min(m, n)]\) so that \([u_{m-1} \cdots +1v_1] = 1\) for \(j \in [1, i]\) and \([u_{m-1} \cdots +1v_1] \neq 1\). From conditions (iii) and (iii), Fact 3.8, and the injectivity of \(\theta, \) we may conclude

\[z_1 \cdots z_{m-1-1} = x_1 \cdots x_{m-1-1}, \quad z_{m-1} \cdots z_{m-1} \in y_{i+2} \cdots y_n.\]

Let \(\ell \in [0, 1]\) be the type of the block \(v_{i+1}\) (and hence of \(u_{m-1}\) and \(x_{m-1}\)). Then \(x_{m-1}\) is of type \(1 - \ell\) and thus

\[(x_1 \cdots x_{m-i-1}, z_1 \cdots z_{m-1}) \in E_{1-\ell}.\]

Note that since we have the computation (8), if we set \(p = q_i\) and \(q = q_{i+1}\), then we have \([v_{i+1}] \in R_{p, q, \ell}\).

This means we have \([v_{i+1}] = \theta(z_{m-1})\). We have

\[(x_{m-1}, z_{m-1}) \in P_{q, q, \ell}\]

Furthermore, \([v_{i+2} \cdots v_{n}] \in R_{q_{i+1}, p, f, 1-\ell}\) and

\[\theta(x_{m-1} \cdots z_{m-1})[v_{i+1} \cdots v_n] = [w_{m-i}] = \theta(z_{m-1})\]

which together implies

\[(x_{m-1} \cdots z_{m-1}) \in P_{q, q, \ell}\]

Finally, we have \([v_{i+2} \cdots v_{n}] \in R_{p, q, 1-\ell}\).

Thus, \(z_{m-1} \cdots z_{m-1} \in W_{q_{i+1}, f, 1-\ell}\).

Together, Eqs. (9) to (12) imply that \((x, z) \in T_4\).

This proves \(R^\ominus \subseteq T_1 \cup T_2 \cup T_3 \cup T_4\).

Suppose \((x, z) \in T_1\). This means we have \(z = xy, x\) is either empty or ends in an \(\ell\)-block, and \(y \in W_{q_0, f, 1-\ell}\). In particular, we have \(\theta(y) \in R\), so that there is a reduced word \(v \in L(A)\) with \([v] = \theta(y)\). Let \(u, w \in X^+\) be reduced words with \([u] = \theta(x)\) and \([w] = \theta(z)\). Since \(y\) is empty or begins in a block of type \(1 - \ell\), the same is true of \(v\). For similar reasons, \(u\) is empty or ends in an \(\ell\)-block. Hence, \(u, v, w\) are non-merging and we have

\[\theta(x)[y] = [u][v] \in [z] = \theta(z)\]

with \(\{x, z\} \in R^\ominus\).

Now assume \((x, z) \in T_2\). Then there is an \(\epsilon \in [0, 1]\) and a \(p \in Q\) such that \(x \in I_{q_0, p, f, 1-\ell}\) and \(z \in W_{q_0, p, f, 1-\ell}\). The former yields an element \(r \in R_{q_0, p, f, 1-\ell}\) and the latter implies \(\theta(z) \in R_{q_0, p, f, 1-\ell}\). Since \(A\) is saturated, we can therefore pick reduced words \(v \in L(q_0, p)\) and \(w \in L(p, f, 1-\ell)\) such that \([v] = r\) and \([w] = \theta(z)\). Then we have \(uv \in L(A)\) and thus \([uv]\) \(\in R\).

We want to construct an \(r \in R\) with \(\theta(x)[y] = \theta(z)\). We shall construct an encoding for \(r\) in the form \(y_{i+2}z_{m-1}\) that in this decomposition, each factor is non-merging with the next. Since
we can find a

\(y\)

(i) the maximum number of iterations is given by

\(\lfloor \ell \rfloor\)

Together with the non-merging relationships, this implies

\(q\)

and thus

\(\lfloor\)

starting from

\(k\)

and (ii) at each iteration we add

\(x\)

\(h\)

respectively. Let us write the configurations before the execution, the self loops at

\(m\)

there will be a number of executions of the configuration passing through an

\(m\)

step

Let

\(c\)

confirming

\(\theta\)

\(\theta\)

\(\theta\)

\(\theta\)

\(\theta\)

\(\theta\)

\(\theta\)

\(\theta\)

\(\theta\)

\(\theta\)

\(\theta\)

\(\theta\)

confirming \((x, z) \in R^\circ\). This proves \(R^\circ = T_1 \cup T_2 \cup T_3 \cup T_4\).

E. Correctness of squaring gadget

Let \(c_1 = (m_1, 2n - 1, 0, 0)\), as guaranteed by \(\text{init}(c, c')\), \(\text{step}(c_1, c_2)\), and \(\text{step}(c_2, c')\). Any run going from \(c_1\) to a \(q\)-configuration passing through an \(m_3\)-configuration will be of the following shape: After a first transition \(c_1 \rightarrow (m_3, 2n - 1, 0, 0)\), there will be a number of executions of the \(m_3\)-\(m_3\)-loop. At the \(i\)-th execution, the self loops at \(m_3\) and \(m_5\) are fired \(k_i\) and \(h_i\) times, respectively. Let us write the configurations before the \(i\)-th \(m_3\)-\(m_3\)-loop as \((m_3, x_i, y_i, z_i)\). The cumulative effect of an execution of the \(m_3\)-\(m_3\)-loop is then \((\bar{c}_1 \bar{c}_2 c_3)^{h_i} \bar{c}_2 \bar{c}_2 (\bar{c}_2 c_1)^{h_i}\), with \(k_i \leq x_i\) and \(h_i \leq y_i + k_i - 2\). We obtain that \(x_{i+1} + y_{i+1} = x_i + y_i - 2\), so \(x_{i+1} \leq x_i + y_i - 2\). The consequence of this estimation is that (i) the maximum number of iterations is given by \(\lfloor (x_0 + y_0)/2\rfloor\) and (ii) at each iteration we add \(k_i\) (so, at most \(x_i\)) to \(z_i\). Hence, starting from \((m_3, 2n - 1, 0, 0)\) \((x_0 = 2n - 1, y_0 = 0, z_0 = 0,\) and thus \(\lfloor(x_0 + y_0)/2\rfloor = n - 1\) we can reach precisely those \(q\)-configurations \(d'\) where \(\pi_3(d')\) is any number between 0 and \(n^2\).