

On the coinductive nature of centralizers

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Commutation of words

Consider the **word equation**

$$x \cdot w = w \cdot x$$

Solution: a word x which is **a prefix and a suffix** of w .

Well-known fact: if

$$w = u^n$$

(u being minimal), the solutions are

$$\{ u^m \mid m \in \mathbb{N} \}$$

Commutation of words

Example:

$$x \cdot abab = abab \cdot x$$

Solutions: $\{(ab)^m \mid m \in \mathbb{N}\}$.

Generalization to polynomials or formal series (variables do not commute).

What about commutation of languages ?

Centralizers

Consider the **language commutation** equation

$$X \cdot L = L \cdot X \quad (1)$$

X solution iff for all $(w, x) \in L \times X$,

$$w \cdot x \in L \cdot X$$

can be **factored** as

$$x' \cdot w' \in X \cdot L$$

with $x' \in X$ and $w' \in L$.

(and conversely)

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Centralizers: an example

Consider (from Choffrut-Karhumäki-Ollinger):

$$L = \{a, a^3, b, ba, ab, aba\}$$

then a solution of the commutation equation is

$$X = L \cup \{a^2\}$$

A few verifications:

$$a^2 \cdot b = a \cdot ab$$

$$a^2 \cdot aba = a^3 \cdot ba$$

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Centralizers

$$X \cdot L = L \cdot X$$

always has solutions, among which obviously:

$$\emptyset \quad \text{and} \quad \{\epsilon\} \quad \text{and} \quad L \quad \text{and} \quad L^* \quad \text{and} \quad L^+$$

The union of two solutions is a solution: if

$$X_1 \cdot L = L \cdot X_1 \quad \text{and} \quad X_2 \cdot L = L \cdot X_2$$

then

$$(X_1 \cup X_2) \cdot L = L \cdot (X_1 \cup X_2)$$

Same for intersection.

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Centralizers

$$X \cdot L = L \cdot X$$

has a **greatest solution**: the **union** of all solutions (we will see why later).

It is the **centralizer** of L , denoted $\mathcal{C}(L)$.

It contains ϵ . Denote $\mathcal{C}_+(L)$ the largest solution not containing ϵ .

Centralizers

Approximation results:

$$L^* \subseteq \mathcal{C}(L) \subseteq \text{Pref}(L^*) \cap \text{Suff}(L^*)$$

$$L^+ \subseteq \mathcal{C}_+(L) \subseteq \text{Pref}_+(L^+) \cap \text{Suff}_+(L^+)$$

Centralizers, game-theoretically

Centralizers have a natural **interactive** interpretation: consider a two-player game, starting on a word

$$u \in A^*$$

Adam **adds a word** $w \in L$ to a side of u , and reaches Eve's position:

$$u \cdot w \in A^* \cdot L$$

Eve answers by **removing a word** $v \in L$ on the other side, reaching:

$$v^{-1} u w \in L^{-1} \cdot A^* \cdot L \subseteq A^*$$

Adam plays again, and so on:

$$u \xrightarrow{\text{Adam}} u \cdot w \xrightarrow{\text{Eve}} v^{-1} u w \xrightarrow{\text{Adam}} s v^{-1} u w \xrightarrow{\text{Eve}} \dots$$

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Centralizers, game-theoretically

If Eve can not answer at some point, she loses.

If she can play forever, Adam loses.

Eve's winning plays explore **the commutation orbit of the initial word**:

$u \in \mathcal{C}(L)$ iff Eve can win every play starting from it

A key proposition on centralizers

The game-theoretic interpretation, rephrased:

Proposition

Given $u, v \in L$, suppose that

$$u \cdot x = y \cdot v \tag{2}$$

Then

$$x \in C(L) \iff y \in C(L)$$

Note that (2) means that x and y can commute with **one** word of L , and that this assumption is one-sided.

Commutation game: examples

$$L = a^+b$$

Does $b \in \mathcal{C}(L)$?

$$b \xrightarrow{A,g} a^2b^2 \xrightarrow{E,d} \emptyset$$

No.

(Adam could play any word of L on the left side).

Commutation game: examples

$$L = a^+b + b(a^2)^+$$

Does $bab \in \mathcal{C}(L)$?

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No – but Adam could have been smarter.

Commutation game: examples

$$L = a^+b + b(a^2)^+$$

Does $bab \in \mathcal{C}(L)$?

$$bab \xrightarrow{A,d} babw$$

(for any $w \in L$)

Commutation game: examples

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Does $bab \in \mathcal{C}(L)$?

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Can Adam always win in a move?

Commutation game: examples

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Does $ba^2b \in C(L)$?

$$ba^2b \xrightarrow{A, g} a^2b^2a^2b$$

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Does $ba^2b \in C(L)$?

$$ba^2b \xrightarrow{A,g} a^2b^2a^2b \xrightarrow{E,d} a^2b^2 \xrightarrow{A,g} aba^2b^2 \xrightarrow{E,d} \emptyset$$

Not always: ba^2b has both a suffix and a prefix in L , so that Eve can always play a move.

Centralizers

Conway's problem: if L is regular, what can be said of $\mathcal{C}(L)$?

Open problem for a long time; it seems that people expected some regularity. Until:

Theorem (Kunc 2006)

- There exists a *regular, star-free language* L such that $\mathcal{C}(L)$, $\mathcal{C}_+(L)$ and $\mathcal{C}(L) \setminus \mathcal{C}_+(L)$ are *not recursively enumerable*.
- There exists a *finite language* L such that $\mathcal{C}(L)$ and $\mathcal{C}_+(L)$ are *not recursively enumerable*.

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In this talk:

- we *describe* the main elements of Kunc's proof,
- we *rephrase* it in an alternate model of computation,
- and we *reveal* an important key for understanding this theorem: centralizers are *coinductive*.

Elements of Kunc's proof

First step: **encode the behaviour of a Turing-complete machine** in $\mathcal{C}(L)$.

We can **only build L** ...

Two dual purposes:

- add words to **simulate** the machine's transitions,
- add words to **restrict** the centralizer (it should only “simulate” the transitions of the machine)

Encoding Minsky machines

Kunc encodes **Minsky machines**:

- **two counters** storing integers,
- a finite set of **states**,
- **increasal/decreasal** of counters,
- **conditional** operation (does a counter store 0?)

They are **Turing-complete**.

Encoding Minsky machines

Typical configuration:

$$(q, i, j) \in Q \times \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$$

Transitions update the counters.

If q is a state increasing the first counter and going to q' :

$$(q, i, j) \longrightarrow (q', i + 1, j)$$

Encoding Minsky machines

Kunc designs L such that $\mathcal{C}(L)$ contains every word

$$a^{n+1} b \widehat{a}^{m+1} \widehat{d}_q^2$$

encoding a configuration

$$(q, n, m)$$

How do the encodings of configurations relate ?

Encoding Minsky machines

To simulate in $\mathcal{C}(L)$ the **increasing** transition

$$(q, i, j) \longrightarrow (q', i + 1, j)$$

Kunc uses the “game-theoretic interpretation” to obtain:

$$\iff \begin{array}{l} a^{n+1} b \widehat{a}^{m+1} \widehat{d}_q^2 \in \mathcal{C}(L) \\ a^{n+2} b \widehat{a}^{m+1} \widehat{d}_{q'}^2 \in \mathcal{C}(L) \end{array}$$

Encoding Minsky machines

Indeed, start from

$$a^{n+1} b \widehat{a}^{m+1} \widehat{d}_q^2 \in A^*$$

Then

$$g_q \cdot a \cdot a^{n+1} b \widehat{a}^{m+1} \widehat{d}_q^2 \in L \cdot A^*$$

And

$$g_q \cdot a^{n+2} b \widehat{a}^{m+1} \widehat{d}_q \cdot \widehat{d}_q \in A^* \cdot L$$

So that, by the Proposition,

$$a^{n+1} b \widehat{a}^{m+1} \widehat{d}_q^2 \in C(L) \iff g_q a^{n+2} b \widehat{a}^{m+1} \widehat{d}_q \in C(L)$$

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Then, from

$$g_q \cdot a^{n+2} b \hat{a}^{m+1} \hat{d}_q \in A^*$$

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$$e_q \cdot f_q \cdot g_q \cdot a^{n+2} b \hat{a}^{m+1} \hat{d}_q \in L \cdot A^*$$

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L is defined such that **only valid transitions** can be simulated in $\mathcal{C}(L)$.

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Encoding Minsky machines: a summary

$$\begin{aligned} & a^{n+1} b \hat{a}^{m+1} \hat{d}_q^2 \in \mathcal{C}(L) \\ \iff & g_q a^{n+2} b \hat{a}^{m+1} \hat{d}_q \in \mathcal{C}(L) \\ \iff & e_q f_q g_q a^{n+2} b \hat{a}^{m+1} \in \mathcal{C}(L) \\ \iff & f_q g_q a^{n+2} b \hat{a}^{m+1} \hat{d}_{q'} \in \mathcal{C}(L) \\ \iff & a^{n+2} b \hat{a}^{m+1} \hat{d}_{q'}^2 \in \mathcal{C}(L) \end{aligned}$$

$e_q, f_q g_q, \dots \in L$ allow to **manipulate** data: add or remove letters, and carry state information.

\hat{d}_q does not affect data, but **updates the state information**.

Encoding Minsky machines: a summary

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Encoding Minsky machines: a summary

Similar encoding of decreaseal/counter testing, for both counters.

Second counter: symmetry and use of:

$$a^{n+1} b \widehat{a}^{m+1} \widehat{d}_q^2 \in \mathcal{C}(L) \iff \widehat{d}_q^2 a^{n+1} b \widehat{a}^{m+1} \in \mathcal{C}(L)$$

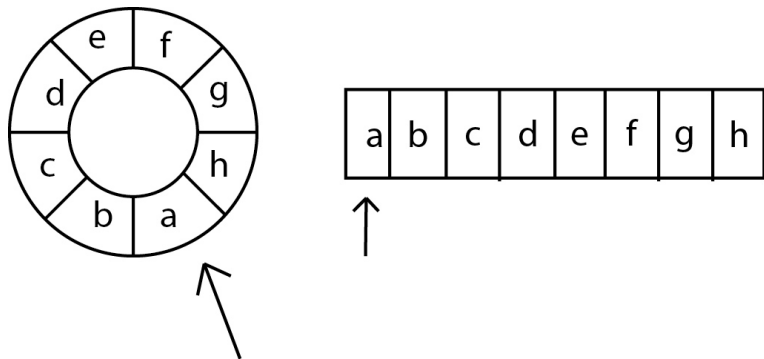
Minsky machines have too many operations. **Let's use a simpler model!**

Clockwise Turing machines

Clockwise Turing machines (Neary -Woods) have only **one** kind of transition.

- one **circular** tape,
- a **clockwise**-moving head,
- can output **two symbols** at once to extend the tape.

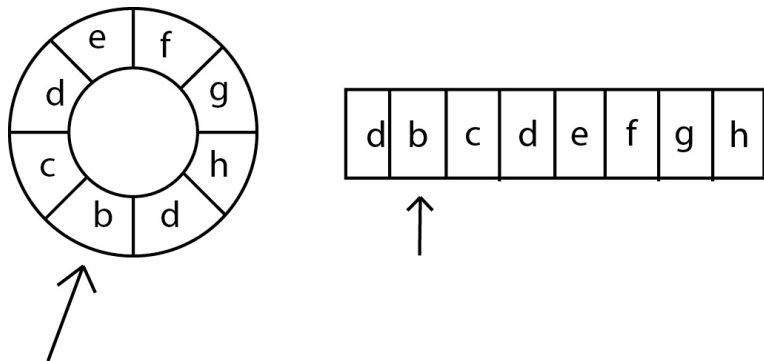
Clockwise Turing machines vs. Turing machines



Both machines in state q .

The Turing machine reads a , writes d and moves head to the right. . .

Clockwise Turing machines vs. Turing machines



where both machines have state q' .

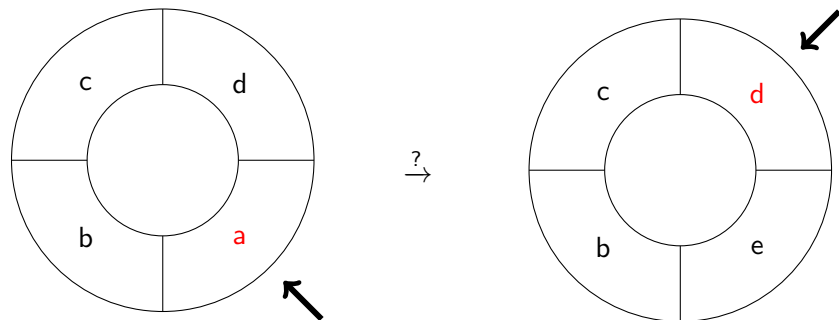
Clockwise Turing machines

Clockwise Turing machines simulate Turing machines.

No need to store the size of the tape to simulate a counter-clockwise transition. Just need about $|Q| \times |\Sigma|$ more states.

(crucial! encoding an unbounded register \Rightarrow infinite alphabet)

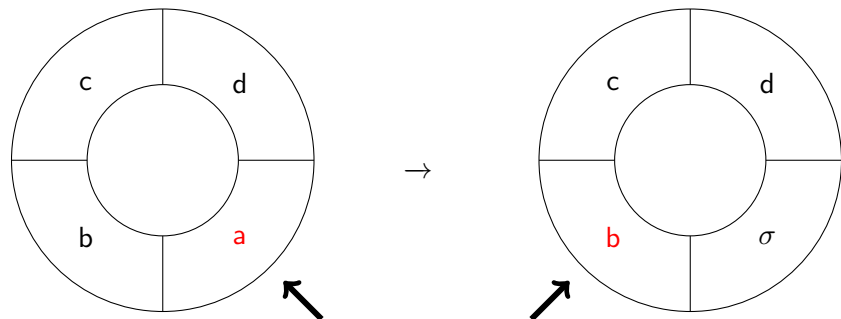
Clockwise Turing machines



Head on *a*.

We want to write *e* and move **counter-clockwise**.

Clockwise Turing machines

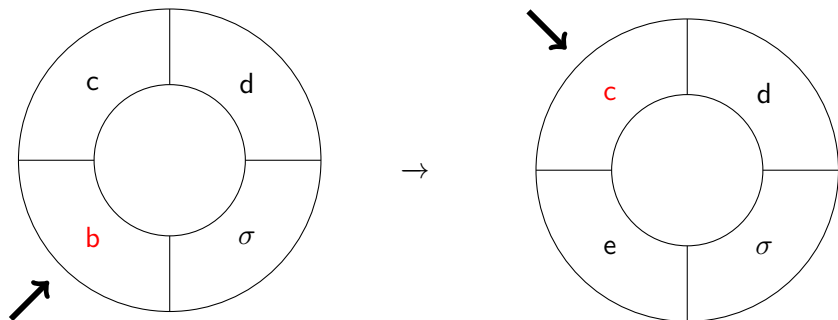


a is replaced with a special symbol σ .

The state “remembers” that e needs to be translated.

The head moves clockwise.

Clockwise Turing machines

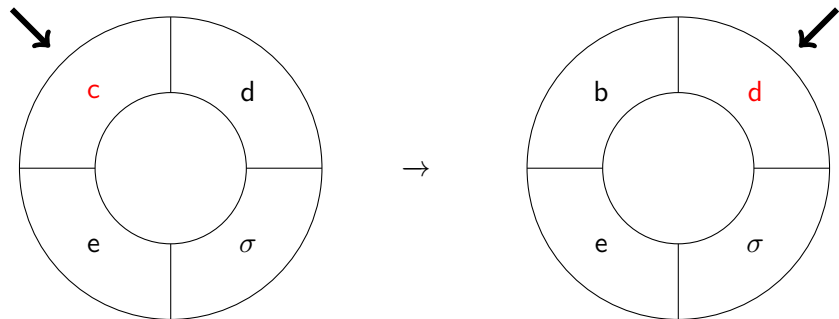


b is replaced with e .

The state “remembers” that b needs to be translated.

The head moves clockwise.

Clockwise Turing machines

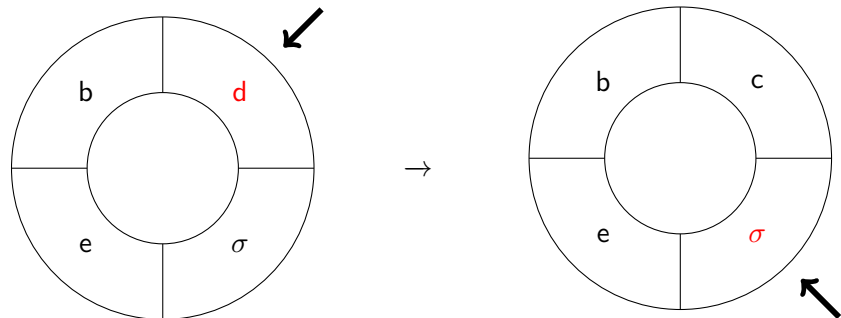


c is replaced with b .

The state “remembers” that c needs to be translated.

The head moves clockwise.

Clockwise Turing machines

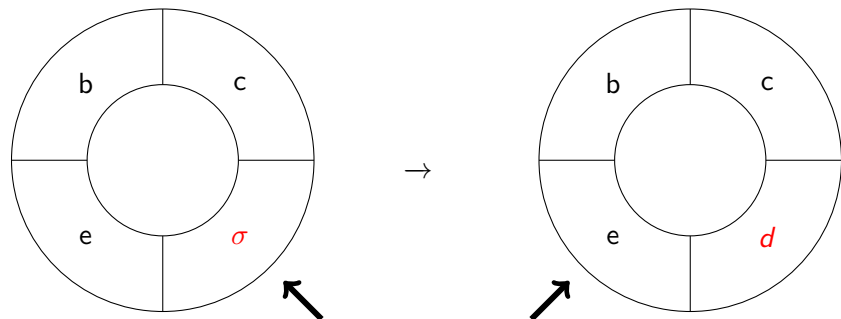


d is replaced with c .

The state “remembers” that d needs to be translated.

The head moves clockwise.

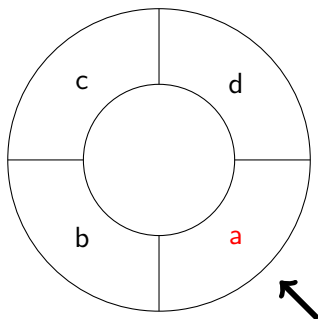
Clockwise Turing machines



σ is replaced with d .
The state changes to q' .
The head moves clockwise.

Simulation is performed, up to a harmless rotation.

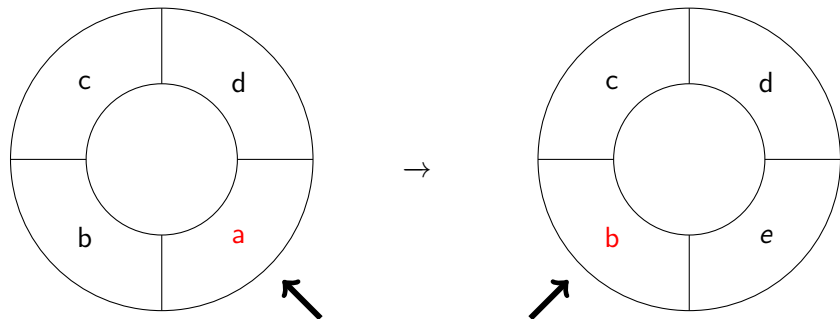
Clockwise Turing machines: encoding configurations



in state q is encoded as the word

$a b c d \widehat{d}_q^2$

Clockwise Turing machines: encoding configurations



from state q to state q' will be encoded as

$$a b c d \widehat{d}_q^2 \in C(L) \iff b c d e \widehat{d}_q^2 \in C(L)$$

Clockwise Turing machines

We can use Kunc's ideas to define L such that a transition

$$\delta(q, u_1) = (v, q')$$

when the circular tape contains $u_1 \cdots u_n$ corresponds to:

$$\begin{array}{l}
 \iff u_1 u_2 \cdots u_n \widehat{d}_q^2 \in C(L) \\
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Elements of the centralizer

We can prove that the encoding of every configuration is in $\mathcal{C}(L)$.

As in Kunc's proof: check by hand that the set of encodings commutes with L .

Recursive enumerability

With this encoding, we intuitively get that centralizers can encode **recursively enumerable** languages, as they simulate the behaviour of Turing machines.

But where does the **non-r.e.** comes from ?

Intuition is somehow misleading, because centralizers are **coinductive**.

As such, they **compute the whole configuration graph of the machine**.

Another key ingredient of Kunc's proof is to **remove encodings of the initial configurations of $\mathcal{C}(L)$** : what remains corresponds to the complementary of the language of the encoded machine.

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Induction vs. coinduction

Inductive construction:

- start from some **initial element**
- iterate a **construction** over it.

Point of view of **calculus**: a machine starts on an initial configuration and iterates its transition function over it.

Inductive interpretations only build **finitary** objects \rightarrow terminating computations.

Induction vs. coinduction

Coinductive construction:

- start from **all elements**
- iterate a **destruction** over it (remove the elements contradicting some construction/deduction rule).

For calculus, this corresponds to the **configuration graph** of a machine:

- 1 Start with the (countable) **complete** graph whose vertices are the configurations:

$$V = A^* \times Q$$

- 2 Iteratively **remove** the edges which do not correspond to a transition of the machine.

Induction vs. coinduction: lattices and fixed points

Theorem (Tarski-Knaster)

Let \mathcal{L} be a complete lattice and let

$$f : \mathcal{L} \longrightarrow \mathcal{L}$$

be an order-preserving function.

Then the set of fixed points of f in \mathcal{L} is also a complete lattice.

In other terms: if you define a function f on an ordered structure with supremum, infimum, least and greatest element, then it has fixed points.

Moreover, there is a **least** and a **greatest** fixed points of f .

And the greatest is the supremum of all fixed points.

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Induction vs. coinduction: lattices and fixed points

Inductive constructions correspond to **least fixpoints**

$$\text{lfp}(f) = \bigvee_i f^i(\perp)$$

and **coinductive** ones to **greatest fixpoints**

$$\text{gfp}(f) = \bigwedge_i f^i(\top)$$

(note that in some cases i may have to take ordinal values... but not in this talk)

Induction vs. coinduction: lattices and fixed points

$$\text{lfp}(f) = \bigvee_i f^i(\perp)$$

precisely means that **inductive constructions** start over **some element** (in a lattice $\mathcal{P}(S)$, it is the empty set), and **construct iteratively** a solution.

This is the spirit of the calculus of a machine.

Induction vs. coinduction: lattices and fixed points

$$\text{gfp}(f) = \bigwedge_i f^i(\top)$$

precisely means that **coinductive constructions** start from **all elements** (in a lattice $\mathcal{P}(S)$, it is S), and **“destruct it” iteratively** until obtaining a solution.

This is the spirit of the “computation” of the configuration graph of the machine.

Induction vs. coinduction: intuitions

Two different understandings of the word **infinity**:

- **Induction** generates infinite structure, in the sense that they are **unbounded**.
- **Coinduction** generates infinite structures, in the sense that they can contain infinite (**countable or more**, depending on the framework) sequences.

Typically:

- Induction generates trees with arbitrary long but **finite** branches,
- Coinduction generates trees with **countable** (or even more) branches.

Induction vs. coinduction: examples

Inductive	Coinductive
Languages of words Finite trees Lists Computation	Languages of ω -words Infinite trees Streams Configuration graph

Other applications of coinduction

Coinduction is used to:

- Study the behavioural equivalence of (potentially infinite) processes: **bisimulation** relation
- Define **infinite data types** (infinite trees, streams. . .)
- In μ -calculus, to **specify properties about infinite behaviour** of programs (cf. also LTL and CTL)
- More generally, it hides in every **“relation refinement” algorithm**, as in the computation of the minimal automaton for example.

Centralizers are coinductive

Over the lattice $\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{P}(A^*)$, the function

$$\phi : X \mapsto (L^{-1}X) \cdot L \cap L \cdot (X L^{-1})$$

is order-preserving. As a consequence, it has **fixed points**, which form a **complete lattice**.

Notice that X is a fixed point of ϕ if and only if

$$X = (L^{-1}X) \cdot L \quad \text{and} \quad X = L \cdot (X L^{-1})$$

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$$X \cdot L = L \cdot X$$

The **greatest fixpoint** is $\mathcal{C}(L)$. It can be defined as the union (supremum) of all solutions.

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Coinduction and game interpretation

Game-theoretically, we can understand **coinductive constructions** as games where Eve can prove during “long-enough plays” (here, countably infinite ones) that she has a justification for her moves iff she starts from an element of the coinductive object.

Recall the situation for centralizers: starting from some word, Eve had a winning strategy iff the word was in $\mathcal{C}(L)$.

These orbits correspond to the notion of **self-justifying sets**, which is **typical of coinduction**.

Coinduction and centralizers

We can design a language L such that

- 1 It contains the **encoding of the configurations** of a circular Turing machine
- 2 The coinductive interpretation says that it even encodes the **configuration graph** of the machine
- 3 Two encodings are in the **same commutation orbit** if and only if they are in the **same connected component** of the configuration graph.
- 4 We can **exclude some configurations** of $\mathcal{C}(L)$

Coinduction and centralizers

Adapting Kunc's proof, we modify L so that precisely every initial configuration of the machine is removed from $\mathcal{C}(L)$.

It removes their commutation orbits: the computations of the machine.

Coinduction and centralizers

At this stage, $\mathcal{C}(L)$ contains only

- commutation orbits corresponding to infinite computations (**non-terminating** ones), which do not compute elements of the language of the machine,
- and commutation orbits which may reach a final configuration but **not accessible** from an initial configuration: that is, elements of the complementary of the machine's language.

Coinduction and centralizers

In other terms:

$\mathcal{C}(L)$ contains the encoding of the complementary of the language of a (circular) Turing machine.

Taking a universal machine gives Kunc's theorem:

$\mathcal{C}(L)$ is not recursively enumerable
(but it is co-r.e.).

Centralizers of finite languages

Recall the second part of the Theorem: **L can be finite.**

So far, the language we built is star-free – yet defined with stars.

It consists on a **finite amount** of interaction words: $f_{u,q} g_{u,q}, \hat{d}_q, \dots$ used for simulating transitions, and of an **infinite amount** of restriction words, designed to restrict the centralizer to actual simulations of transitions.

Informally, they ensure that if you remove more than you should, then you have to remove so much that you will eventually "lose the game".

$$e_q f_q g_q a^{n+2} b \hat{a}^{m+1}$$

Kunc gives a manner to "**cut the stars**" into **finite words**, while "forcing the players to respect them in their plays".

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This gives a **finite language L** , obtained from the star-free language one. However, it requires a huge number of impossibility words.

The main reason for us to use a circular Turing machine – and not a Minsky machine – was in fact to **estimate the cardinality of this finite language**.

For the smallest universal Turing machine we know (4 states over a 4-symbol alphabet), it is about 10^{21} words; almost all of them are restriction words.

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Conclusion

We sketched a variant of Kunc's proof, which has three strengths:

- **Only one kind of transition** has to be considered, unlike for Minsky machines (or usual Turing ones)
- The **coinductive** nature of centralizers helps the understanding of the result and the presentation of the proof
- **Cardinality** of L can be estimated more accurately in the finite case.

For further discussions: my other research topics. . .

. . . are mainly about **higher-order computations**. That is, models of calculus in which **functions manipulate functions**.

- **Higher-order model-checking**: does a higher-order program, modelled as an infinite tree, satisfy a property? Needs to understand how tree automata generalize to automata checking functions manipulating functions. . .
- **Probabilistic termination**: a criterion for higher-order languages ensuring almost-sure termination, that is, that non-terminating computations are of measure 1?

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