

From star-free closure to mixed polynomial closure:
the incredible story of operators.

Thomas Place

LaBRI, Bordeaux University

May 31, 2022

Classes of regular languages
and their *investigation*

General context

- ▶ Setting: **finite words** and **regular languages** (alphabet A).
- ▶ Goal: investigate **sub-classes** of the regular languages.

General context

- ▶ Setting: **finite words** and **regular languages** (alphabet A).
- ▶ Goal: investigate **sub-classes** of the regular languages.

Each sub-class is based on a **piece of syntax** defining its languages:

Two main kinds

General context

- ▶ Setting: **finite words** and **regular languages** (alphabet A).
- ▶ Goal: investigate **sub-classes** of the regular languages.

Each sub-class is based on a **piece of syntax** defining its languages:

Two main kinds

1. Classes based on **regular expressions**:
A restriction of the regular expression yields a sub-class.

General context

- ▶ Setting: **finite words** and **regular languages** (alphabet A).
- ▶ Goal: investigate **sub-classes** of the regular languages.

Each sub-class is based on a **piece of syntax** defining its languages:

Two main kinds

1. Classes based on **regular expressions**:
A restriction of the regular expression yields a sub-class.
2. Classes based on **logic**. By Büchi's theorem, $\text{MSO} = \text{REG}$:
A restriction of MSO yields a sub-class.

The overused historical example: **first-order logic**

First-order logic over words (FO(<))

- ▶ Word: sequence of labeled positions that can be quantified:

$$\begin{array}{cccccccccc} a & b & b & b & c & a & a & a & & \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 & 9 \end{array} \in A^*$$

- ▶ Two kinds of predicates:
 1. for each letter $a \in A$, $a(x)$ selects positions x with label “ a ”.
 2. single binary predicate for the (strict) order: $x < y$.
- ▶ A sentence defines a language:

$$\begin{array}{l} \exists x \exists y a(x) \wedge b(y) \wedge x < y \wedge (\forall z x < z < y \Rightarrow c(z)) \\ \text{defines } A^* a c^* b A^* \end{array}$$

The overused historical example: **first-order logic**

First-order logic over words (FO(<))

- ▶ Word: sequence of labeled positions that can be quantified:

$$\begin{array}{cccccccccc} a & b & b & b & c & a & a & a & & \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 & 9 \end{array} \in A^*$$

- ▶ Two kinds of predicates:
 1. for each letter $a \in A$, $a(x)$ selects positions x with label “ a ”.
 2. single binary predicate for the (strict) order: $x < y$.
- ▶ A sentence defines a language:

$$\begin{array}{c} \exists x \exists y a(x) \wedge b(y) \wedge x < y \wedge (\forall z x < z < y \Rightarrow c(z)) \\ \text{defines } A^* a c^* b A^* \end{array}$$

Informal objective

“**Understand**” the **expressive power** of FO(<):

- ▶ What regular languages can we express?
- ▶ What are those that we cannot express ?

The overused historical example: **star-free languages**

The class of **star-free languages** (SF) is the least one such that:

The overused historical example: **star-free languages**

The class of **star-free languages** (SF) is the least one such that:

Example of star free language: $A^*ac^*bA^*$ ($A = \{a, b, c\}$).

$$A^*ac^*bA^* = A^* a \overline{(A^*aA^* \cup A^*bA^*)} b A^*$$

The overused historical example: **star-free languages**

The class of **star-free languages** (SF) is the least one such that:

- ▶ contains \emptyset (empty language) and A^* (universal language).

Example of star free language: $A^*ac^*bA^*$ ($A = \{a, b, c\}$).

$$A^*ac^*bA^* = A^* a \overline{(A^*aA^* \cup A^*bA^*)} b A^*$$

Theorem of McNaughton-Papert'71: $SF = FO(<)$

Given a language L , the following are equivalent:

- ▶ L may be defined by a **first-order logic** sentence ($FO(<)$).
- ▶ L is **star-free** (i.e. $L \in SF$).

The overused historical example: **star-free languages**

The class of **star-free languages** (SF) is the least one such that:

- ▶ contains \emptyset (empty language) and A^* (universal language).
- ▶ closed under **union** and **complement**.

$$K, L \mapsto K \cup L \qquad K \mapsto \overline{K}$$

Example of star free language: $A^*ac^*bA^*$ ($A = \{a, b, c\}$).

$$A^*ac^*bA^* = A^* a \overline{(A^*aA^* \cup A^*bA^*)} b A^*$$

Theorem of McNaughton-Papert'71: $SF = FO(<)$

Given a language L , the following are equivalent:

- ▶ L may be defined by a **first-order logic** sentence ($FO(<)$).
- ▶ L is **star-free** (i.e. $L \in SF$).

The overused historical example: **star-free languages**

The class of **star-free languages** (SF) is the least one such that:

- ▶ contains \emptyset (empty language) and A^* (universal language).
- ▶ closed under **union** and **complement**.

$$K, L \mapsto K \cup L \qquad K \mapsto \overline{K}$$

- ▶ closed under **marked concatenation**:

$$\text{for a letter } a \in A \qquad K, L \mapsto KaL$$

Example of star free language: $A^*ac^*bA^*$ ($A = \{a, b, c\}$).

$$A^*ac^*bA^* = A^* a \overline{(A^*aA^* \cup A^*bA^*)} b A^*$$

Theorem of McNaughton-Papert'71: SF = FO(\langle)

Given a language L , the following are equivalent:

- ▶ L may be defined by a **first-order logic** sentence (FO(\langle)).
- ▶ L is **star-free** (i.e. $L \in \text{SF}$).

What does it mean to “investigate” $\text{FO}(<)/\text{SF}$

Informal objective

“**Understand**” star-free languages and **expressive power** of $\text{FO}(<)$.

What does it mean to “investigate” $\text{FO}(<)/\text{SF}$

Informal objective

“**Understand**” star-free languages and **expressive power** of $\text{FO}(<)$.

Standard approach: **membership algorithm** for $\text{SF} = \text{FO}(<)$:

- ▶ **INPUT**: A regular language L .
- ▶ **OUTPUT**: Decide if L is star-free (*i.e.* $L \in \text{SF}$).

What does it mean to “investigate” $\text{FO}(<)/\text{SF}$

Informal objective

“**Understand**” star-free languages and **expressive power** of $\text{FO}(<)$.

Standard approach: **membership algorithm** for $\text{SF} = \text{FO}(<)$:

- ▶ **INPUT**: A regular language L .
- ▶ **OUTPUT**: Decide if L is star-free (*i.e.* $L \in \text{SF}$).

Solution obtained from Schützenberger’s theorem (1965)

Given a regular language L , the following are equivalent:

1. L is star-free.
2. The **syntactic monoid** of L is **aperiodic**.

What does it mean to “investigate” $\text{FO}(<)/\text{SF}$

Informal objective

“**Understand**” star-free languages and **expressive power** of $\text{FO}(<)$.

Standard approach: **membership algorithm** for $\text{SF} = \text{FO}(<)$:

- ▶ **INPUT**: A regular language L .
- ▶ **OUTPUT**: Decide if L is star-free (*i.e.* $L \in \text{SF}$).

Solution obtained from Schützenberger’s theorem (1965)

Given a regular language L , the following are equivalent:

1. L is star-free.
2. The **syntactic monoid** of L is **aperiodic**.

What does this mean ? Why does this give a membership algorithm ?

Monoids, regular languages: the (very) quick reminder

The basics

- ▶ A^* is a **monoid** (multiplication is word concatenation).
- ▶ We may look at **morphisms** $\alpha : A^* \rightarrow M$ into a monoid M .
- ▶ A language L is **recognized** by α if $L = \alpha^{-1}(F)$ for $F \subseteq M$.

Monoids, regular languages: the (very) quick reminder

The basics

- ▶ A^* is a **monoid** (multiplication is word concatenation).
- ▶ We may look at **morphisms** $\alpha : A^* \rightarrow M$ into a monoid M .
- ▶ A language L is **recognized** by α if $L = \alpha^{-1}(F)$ for $F \subseteq M$.

Monoid definition of the regular languages

L **regular** iff L recognized by a morphism into a **finite monoid**.

Monoids, regular languages: the (very) quick reminder

The basics

- ▶ A^* is a **monoid** (multiplication is word concatenation).
- ▶ We may look at **morphisms** $\alpha : A^* \rightarrow M$ into a monoid M .
- ▶ A language L is **recognized** by α if $L = \alpha^{-1}(F)$ for $F \subseteq M$.

Monoid definition of the regular languages

L **regular** iff L recognized by a morphism into a **finite monoid**.

Syntactic morphism

For each regular language L , there exists a **canonical morphism into a finite monoid** $\alpha_L : A^* \rightarrow M_L$ recognizing L :

- ▶ α_L is called the **syntactic morphism** of L
- ▶ M_L is called that **syntactic monoid** of L

Monoids, regular languages: the (very) quick reminder

The basics

- ▶ A^* is a **monoid** (multiplication is word concatenation).
- ▶ We may look at **morphisms** $\alpha : A^* \rightarrow M$ into a monoid M .
- ▶ A language L is **recognized** by α if $L = \alpha^{-1}(F)$ for $F \subseteq M$.

Monoid definition of the regular languages

L **regular** iff L recognized by a morphism into a **finite monoid**.

Syntactic morphism

For each regular language L , there exists a **canonical morphism into a finite monoid** $\alpha_L : A^* \rightarrow M_L$ recognizing L :

- ▶ α_L is called the **syntactic morphism** of L
- ▶ M_L is called that **syntactic monoid** of L

The syntactic morphism **can be computed**.
(monoid counterpart of the minimal automaton).

What does it mean to “investigate” $\text{FO}(<)/\text{SF}$

“Understand” star-free languages and **expressive power** of $\text{FO}(<)$.

Standard approach: **membership algorithm** for $\text{SF} = \text{FO}(<)$:

- ▶ **INPUT**: A regular language L .
- ▶ **OUTPUT**: Decide if L is star-free (*i.e.* $L \in \text{SF}$).

Solution obtained from Schützenberger’s theorem (1965)

Given a regular language L , the following are equivalent:

1. L is star-free.
2. The **syntactic monoid** M_L is **aperiodic**.

What does it mean to “investigate” $\text{FO}(<)/\text{SF}$

“Understand” star-free languages and **expressive power** of $\text{FO}(<)$.

Standard approach: **membership algorithm** for $\text{SF} = \text{FO}(<)$:

- ▶ **INPUT**: A regular language L .
- ▶ **OUTPUT**: Decide if L is star-free (*i.e.* $L \in \text{SF}$).

Solution obtained from Schützenberger’s theorem (1965)

Given a regular language L , the following are equivalent:

1. L is star-free.
2. The **syntactic monoid** M_L satisfies $s^\omega = s^{\omega+1}$ for all $s \in M_L$.

“ ω ” is a computable number associated to a **finite** monoid M :
for every $t \in M$, t^ω is **idempotent** ($t^\omega = t^\omega t^\omega$).

What does it mean to “investigate” $\text{FO}(<)/\text{SF}$

“Understand” star-free languages and **expressive power** of $\text{FO}(<)$.

Standard approach: **membership algorithm** for $\text{SF} = \text{FO}(<)$:

- ▶ **INPUT**: A regular language L .
- ▶ **OUTPUT**: Decide if L is star-free (*i.e.* $L \in \text{SF}$).

Solution obtained from Schützenberger’s theorem (1965)

Given a regular language L , the following are equivalent:

1. L is star-free.
2. The **syntactic monoid** M_L satisfies $s^\omega = s^{\omega+1}$ for all $s \in M_L$.
 \Rightarrow Decidable condition.

“ ω ” is a computable number associated to a **finite** monoid M :
for every $t \in M$, t^ω is **idempotent** ($t^\omega = t^\omega t^\omega$).

What does it mean to “investigate” $\text{FO}(<)/\text{SF}$

“Understand” star-free languages and **expressive power** of $\text{FO}(<)$.

Standard approach: **membership algorithm** for $\text{SF} = \text{FO}(<)$:

- ▶ **INPUT**: A regular language L .
- ▶ **OUTPUT**: Decide if L is star-free (*i.e.* $L \in \text{SF}$).

Solution obtained from Schützenberger’s theorem (1965)

Given a regular language L , the following are equivalent:

1. L is star-free.
2. The **syntactic monoid** M_L satisfies $s^\omega = s^{\omega+1}$ for all $s \in M_L$.
 \Rightarrow Decidable condition.

“ ω ” is a computable number associated to a **finite** monoid M :
for every $t \in M$, t^ω is **idempotent** ($t^\omega = t^\omega t^\omega$).

Important: constructive proof for 2) \Rightarrow 1)

Normal forms for descriptions of star-free/first-order languages.

Do we truly understand the “whole” first-order logic ?

Many “variants” of first-order logic: each associated to a **signature**.

- ▶ $\text{FO}(<)$: linear ordering.

Do we truly understand the “whole” first-order logic ?

Many “variants” of first-order logic: each associated to a **signature**.

- ▶ $\text{FO}(<)$: linear ordering.
- ▶ $\text{FO}(<, \text{MOD})$: linear order, **modular predicates**.

for $d, m \in \mathbb{N}$, predicate $M_{d,m}(x)$ expressing,
“position x is congruent to d modulo m ”.

Do we truly understand the “whole” first-order logic ?

Many “variants” of first-order logic: each associated to a **signature**.

- ▶ $\text{FO}(<)$: linear ordering.
- ▶ $\text{FO}(<, MOD)$: linear order, **modular predicates**.

for $d, m \in \mathbb{N}$, predicate $M_{d,m}(x)$ expressing,
“position x is congruent to d modulo m ”.

- ▶ $\text{FO}(<, AMOD)$: linear order, **alphabetic modular predicates**.

for $a \in A$ and $d, m \in \mathbb{N}$, predicate $M_{d,m}^a(x)$ expressing,
“there are d modulo m positions $y < x$ with label “ a ”.

Do we truly understand the “whole” first-order logic ?

Many “variants” of first-order logic: each associated to a **signature**.

- ▶ $\text{FO}(<)$: linear ordering.
- ▶ $\text{FO}(<, \text{MOD})$: linear order, **modular predicates**.

for $d, m \in \mathbb{N}$, predicate $M_{d,m}(x)$ expressing,
“position x is congruent to d modulo m ”.

- ▶ $\text{FO}(<, \text{AMOD})$: linear order, **alphabetic modular predicates**.

for $a \in A$ and $d, m \in \mathbb{N}$, predicate $M_{d,m}^a(x)$ expressing,
“there are d modulo m positions $y < x$ with label “ a ”.

- ▶ $\text{FO}(+1)$: successor (binary predicate “ $x + 1 = y$ ”).

Do we truly understand the “whole” first-order logic ?

Many “variants” of first-order logic: each associated to a **signature**.

- ▶ $\text{FO}(<)$: linear ordering.
- ▶ $\text{FO}(<, MOD)$: linear order, **modular predicates**.

for $d, m \in \mathbb{N}$, predicate $M_{d,m}(x)$ expressing,
“position x is congruent to d modulo m ”.

- ▶ $\text{FO}(<, AMOD)$: linear order, **alphabetic modular predicates**.

for $a \in A$ and $d, m \in \mathbb{N}$, predicate $M_{d,m}^a(x)$ expressing,
“there are d modulo m positions $y < x$ with label “ a ”.

- ▶ $\text{FO}(+1)$: successor (binary predicate “ $x + 1 = y$ ”).

We want to **simultaneously investigate** all “natural” variants
 \Rightarrow more thorough understanding of FO.

Do we truly understand the “whole” first-order logic ?

Many “variants” of first-order logic: each associated to a **signature**.

- ▶ $\text{FO}(<)$: linear ordering.
- ▶ $\text{FO}(<, MOD)$: linear order, **modular predicates**.

for $d, m \in \mathbb{N}$, predicate $M_{d,m}(x)$ expressing,
“position x is congruent to d modulo m ”.

- ▶ $\text{FO}(<, AMOD)$: linear order, **alphabetic modular predicates**.

for $a \in A$ and $d, m \in \mathbb{N}$, predicate $M_{d,m}^a(x)$ expressing,
“there are d modulo m positions $y < x$ with label “ a ”.

- ▶ $\text{FO}(+1)$: successor (binary predicate “ $x + 1 = y$ ”).

We want to **simultaneously investigate** all “natural” variants
 \Rightarrow more thorough understanding of FO.

In the talk, we look at variants allowing **at least the linear order**.

Defining families of logical classes:
Fragments of FO as *operators*

Signature associated to a class of languages \mathcal{C}

We associate a **signature** $S_{\mathcal{C}}$ to every class \mathcal{C} . It contains the labels and, for each $L \in \mathcal{C}$, a binary predicate $F_L(x, y)$ such that,

$$a_1 a_2 a_3 \cdots a_n \models F_L(i, j) \iff i < j \text{ and } a_{i+1} \cdots a_{j-1} \in L.$$

Signature associated to a class of languages \mathcal{C}

We associate a **signature** $\mathbb{S}_{\mathcal{C}}$ to every class \mathcal{C} . It contains the labels and, for each $L \in \mathcal{C}$, a binary predicate $F_L(x, y)$ such that,

$$a_1 a_2 a_3 \cdots a_n \models F_L(i, j) \iff i < j \text{ and } a_{i+1} \cdots a_{j-1} \in L.$$

- ▶ For each class \mathcal{C} : we consider the logical class $\text{FO}(\mathbb{S}_{\mathcal{C}})$.

Signature associated to a class of languages \mathcal{C}

We associate a **signature** $\mathbb{S}_{\mathcal{C}}$ to every class \mathcal{C} . It contains the labels and, for each $L \in \mathcal{C}$, a binary predicate $F_L(x, y)$ such that,

$$a_1 a_2 a_3 \cdots a_n \models F_L(i, j) \iff i < j \text{ and } a_{i+1} \cdots a_{j-1} \in L.$$

- ▶ For each class \mathcal{C} : we consider the logical class $\text{FO}(\mathbb{S}_{\mathcal{C}})$.
- ▶ More generally, we may look at **fragments of FO**:
 \Rightarrow for each fragment \mathcal{F} , this define an operator $\mathcal{C} \mapsto \mathcal{F}(\mathbb{S}_{\mathcal{C}})$.

Signature associated to a class of languages \mathcal{C}

We associate a **signature** $\mathbb{S}_{\mathcal{C}}$ to every class \mathcal{C} . It contains the labels and, for each $L \in \mathcal{C}$, a binary predicate $F_L(x, y)$ such that,

$$a_1 a_2 a_3 \cdots a_n \models F_L(i, j) \iff i < j \text{ and } a_{i+1} \cdots a_{j-1} \in L.$$

- ▶ For each class \mathcal{C} : we consider the logical class $\text{FO}(\mathbb{S}_{\mathcal{C}})$.
- ▶ More generally, we may look at **fragments of FO**:
 \Rightarrow for each fragment \mathcal{F} , this define an operator $\mathcal{C} \mapsto \mathcal{F}(\mathbb{S}_{\mathcal{C}})$.

Example: the trivial class $\mathcal{C} = \{\emptyset, A^*\}$

- ▶ $F_{A^*}(x, y)$ is equivalent to $x < y$.
- ▶ $F_{\emptyset}(x, y)$ is equivalent to \perp (false).
- ▶ \Rightarrow we get $\mathcal{F}(\mathbb{S}_{\{\emptyset, A^*\}}) = \mathcal{F}(<)$.

Signature associated to a class of languages \mathcal{C}

We associate a **signature** $\mathbb{S}_{\mathcal{C}}$ to every class \mathcal{C} . It contains the labels and, for each $L \in \mathcal{C}$, a binary predicate $F_L(x, y)$ such that,

$$a_1 a_2 a_3 \cdots a_n \models F_L(i, j) \iff i < j \text{ and } a_{i+1} \cdots a_{j-1} \in L.$$

- ▶ For each class \mathcal{C} : we consider the logical class $\text{FO}(\mathbb{S}_{\mathcal{C}})$.
- ▶ More generally, we may look at **fragments of FO**:
 \Rightarrow for each fragment \mathcal{F} , this define an operator $\mathcal{C} \mapsto \mathcal{F}(\mathbb{S}_{\mathcal{C}})$.

Example: the trivial class $\mathcal{C} = \{\emptyset, A^*\}$

- ▶ $F_{A^*}(x, y)$ is equivalent to $x < y$.
- ▶ $F_{\emptyset}(x, y)$ is equivalent to \perp (false).
- ▶ \Rightarrow we get $\mathcal{F}(\mathbb{S}_{\{\emptyset, A^*\}}) = \mathcal{F}(<)$.

Definition robust when \mathcal{C} is a **Boolean algebra** (union, intersection and complement) closed under **quotients**.

Key input classes: **Group languages** (1)

- ▶ Recognized by a **morphism into a finite group**.
- ▶ Equivalently recognized by a **permutation automaton**.

Permutation Automaton

Complete deterministic finite automaton (DFA) such that:

each letter induces a **permutation of the states**

Key input classes: **Group languages** (1)

- ▶ Recognized by a **morphism into a finite group**.
- ▶ Equivalently recognized by a **permutation automaton**.

Permutation Automaton

Complete deterministic finite automaton (DFA) such that:

each letter induces a **permutation of the states**

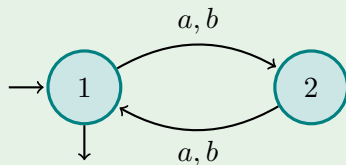
Example 1: even length ($A = \{a, b\}$)

$a : 1 \mapsto 2$

$2 \mapsto 1$

$b : 1 \mapsto 2$

$2 \mapsto 1$



Represents the class MOD: **modulo languages**.

Key input classes: **Group languages** (1)

- ▶ Recognized by a **morphism into a finite group**.
- ▶ Equivalently recognized by a **permutation automaton**.

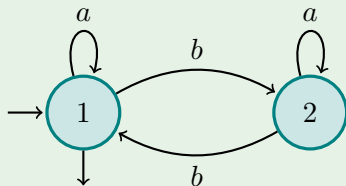
Permutation Automaton

Complete deterministic finite automaton (DFA) such that:

each letter induces a **permutation of the states**

Example 2: even number of “ b ”, abelian language ($A = \{a, b\}$)

$$\begin{aligned} a : 1 &\mapsto 1 \\ &2 \mapsto 2 \\ b : 1 &\mapsto 2 \\ &2 \mapsto 1 \end{aligned}$$



Represents the class AMT: **alphabet modulo testable languages**.

Key input classes: **Group languages** (1)

- ▶ Recognized by a **morphism into a finite group**.
- ▶ Equivalently recognized by a **permutation automaton**.

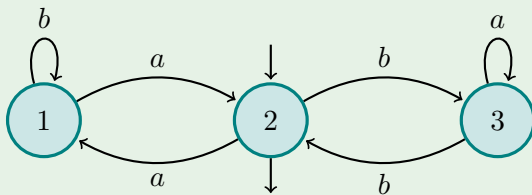
Permutation Automaton

Complete deterministic finite automaton (DFA) such that:

each letter induces a **permutation of the states**

Example 3: $(ab^*a + ba^*b)^*$ ($A = \{a, b\}$)

$a : 1 \mapsto 2$
 $2 \mapsto 1$
 $3 \mapsto 3$
 $b : 1 \mapsto 1$
 $2 \mapsto 3$
 $3 \mapsto 2$



Represents the class GR: **all group languages**.

Key input classes: **Group languages** (2)

- ▶ Pick a **class of group languages** \mathcal{G} .
- ▶ Pick a **fragment of first-order logic** \mathcal{F} .

Key input classes: **Group languages** (2)

- ▶ Pick a **class of group languages** \mathcal{G} .
- ▶ Pick a **fragment of first-order logic** \mathcal{F} .

We have $\mathcal{F}(\mathbb{S}_{\mathcal{G}}) = \mathcal{F}(<, \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{G}})$.

For each $L \in \mathcal{G}$, $\mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{G}}$ contains unary predicate $P_L(x)$ such that,

$$a_1 a_2 a_3 \cdots a_n \models P_L(i) \iff a_1 \cdots a_{i-1} \in L.$$

- ▶ Trivial class: $\mathcal{F}(\mathbb{S}_{\{\emptyset, A^*\}}) = \mathcal{F}(<)$ (linear order).

Key input classes: **Group languages** (2)

- ▶ Pick a **class of group languages** \mathcal{G} .
- ▶ Pick a **fragment of first-order logic** \mathcal{F} .

We have $\mathcal{F}(\mathbb{S}_{\mathcal{G}}) = \mathcal{F}(<, \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{G}})$.

For each $L \in \mathcal{G}$, $\mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{G}}$ contains unary predicate $P_L(x)$ such that,

$$a_1 a_2 a_3 \cdots a_n \models P_L(i) \iff a_1 \cdots a_{i-1} \in L.$$

- ▶ Trivial class: $\mathcal{F}(\mathbb{S}_{\{\emptyset, A^*\}}) = \mathcal{F}(<)$ (linear order).
- ▶ Modulo languages: $\mathcal{F}(\mathbb{S}_{\text{MD}}) = \mathcal{F}(<, \text{MOD})$
(linear order + modular predicates).

Key input classes: **Group languages** (2)

- ▶ Pick a **class of group languages** \mathcal{G} .
- ▶ Pick a **fragment of first-order logic** \mathcal{F} .

We have $\mathcal{F}(\mathbb{S}_{\mathcal{G}}) = \mathcal{F}(<, \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{G}})$.

For each $L \in \mathcal{G}$, $\mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{G}}$ contains unary predicate $P_L(x)$ such that,

$$a_1 a_2 a_3 \cdots a_n \models P_L(i) \iff a_1 \cdots a_{i-1} \in L.$$

- ▶ Trivial class: $\mathcal{F}(\mathbb{S}_{\{\emptyset, A^*\}}) = \mathcal{F}(<)$ (linear order).
- ▶ Modulo languages: $\mathcal{F}(\mathbb{S}_{\text{MD}}) = \mathcal{F}(<, \text{MOD})$
(linear order + modular predicates).
- ▶ Alphabet modulo languages: $\mathcal{F}(\mathbb{S}_{\text{AMT}}) = \mathcal{F}(<, \text{AMOD})$
(linear order + alphabetic modular predicates).

Key input classes: **Group languages** (3)

- ▶ Pick a **class of group languages** \mathcal{G} .
- ▶ Pick a **fragment of first-order logic** \mathcal{F} .

Key input classes: **Group languages** (3)

- ▶ Pick a **class of group languages** \mathcal{G} .
- ▶ Pick a **fragment of first-order logic** \mathcal{F} .
- ▶ Let \mathcal{G}^+ be the **least Boolean algebra** containing \mathcal{G} and $\{\varepsilon\}$.

Key input classes: **Group languages** (3)

- ▶ Pick a **class of group languages** \mathcal{G} .
- ▶ Pick a **fragment of first-order logic** \mathcal{F} .
- ▶ Let \mathcal{G}^+ be the **least Boolean algebra** containing \mathcal{G} and $\{\varepsilon\}$.

We have $\mathcal{F}(\mathbb{S}_{\mathcal{G}^+}) = \mathcal{F}(<, +1, \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{G}})$.

Adds the **successor predicate “+1”**:

corresponds to the binary factor predicate $F_{\{\varepsilon\}}(x, y)$.

Key input classes: **Group languages** (3)

- ▶ Pick a **class of group languages** \mathcal{G} .
- ▶ Pick a **fragment of first-order logic** \mathcal{F} .
- ▶ Let \mathcal{G}^+ be the **least Boolean algebra** containing \mathcal{G} and $\{\varepsilon\}$.

We have $\mathcal{F}(\mathbb{S}_{\mathcal{G}^+}) = \mathcal{F}(<, +1, \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{G}})$.

Adds the **successor predicate “+1”**:

corresponds to the binary factor predicate $F_{\{\varepsilon\}}(x, y)$.

- ▶ Trivial class: $\mathcal{F}(\mathbb{S}_{\{\emptyset, A^*\}^+}) = \mathcal{F}(<, +1)$ (linear order + successor).
- ▶ Modulo languages: $\mathcal{F}(\mathbb{S}_{\text{MD}^+}) = \mathcal{F}(<, +1, \text{MOD})$
(linear order + successor + modular predicates).
- ▶ Alphabet modulo languages: $\mathcal{F}(\mathbb{S}_{\text{AMT}^+}) = \mathcal{F}(<, +1, \text{AMOD})$
(linear order + successor + alphabetic modular predicates).

New objective

For a fragment of first-order logic \mathcal{F} (e.g. FO itself):

- ▶ **Objective:** understand the **operator** $\mathcal{C} \mapsto \mathcal{F}(\mathbb{S}_{\mathcal{C}})$.

New objective

For a fragment of first-order logic \mathcal{F} (e.g. FO itself):

- ▶ **Objective:** understand the **operator** $\mathcal{C} \mapsto \mathcal{F}(\mathbb{S}_{\mathcal{C}})$.

For each fragment \mathcal{F} , we look at **two main questions**:

1. Reformulating $\mathcal{C} \mapsto \mathcal{F}(\mathbb{S}_{\mathcal{C}})$ using “regular expressions”.
2. Connecting **membership** for $\mathcal{F}(\mathbb{S}_{\mathcal{C}})$ to properties of \mathcal{C} .

New objective

For a fragment of first-order logic \mathcal{F} (e.g. FO itself):

- ▶ **Objective:** understand the **operator** $\mathcal{C} \mapsto \mathcal{F}(\mathbb{S}_{\mathcal{C}})$.

For each fragment \mathcal{F} , we look at **two main questions**:

1. Reformulating $\mathcal{C} \mapsto \mathcal{F}(\mathbb{S}_{\mathcal{C}})$ using “regular expressions”.
2. Connecting **membership** for $\mathcal{F}(\mathbb{S}_{\mathcal{C}})$ to properties of \mathcal{C} .

In the talk, we look at several prominent fragments.

Capturing first-order logic:

Star-free closure

Star-free closure

Idea: replace **basic languages** (\emptyset, A^*) with a **larger input class** \mathcal{C} .

- ▶ yields closure operator $\mathcal{C} \mapsto \text{SF}(\mathcal{C})$.

Star-free closure

Idea: replace **basic languages** (\emptyset, A^*) with a **larger input class** \mathcal{C} .

- ▶ yields closure operator $\mathcal{C} \mapsto \text{SF}(\mathcal{C})$.

For an alphabet A , $\text{SF}(\mathcal{C})$ is the least class of languages such that:

- ▶ contains \mathcal{C} .
- ▶ closed under **union** and **complement**.

$$K, L \mapsto K \cup L \qquad K \mapsto A^* \setminus K$$

- ▶ closed under **marked concatenation**:

$$\text{for a letter } a \in A \qquad K, L \mapsto KaL$$

Star-free closure

Idea: replace **basic languages** (\emptyset, A^*) with a **larger input class** \mathcal{C} .

- ▶ yields closure operator $\mathcal{C} \mapsto \text{SF}(\mathcal{C})$.

For an alphabet A , $\text{SF}(\mathcal{C})$ is the least class of languages such that:

- ▶ contains \mathcal{C} .
- ▶ closed under **union** and **complement**.

$$K, L \mapsto K \cup L \qquad K \mapsto A^* \setminus K$$

- ▶ closed under **marked concatenation**:

$$\text{for a letter } a \in A \qquad K, L \mapsto KaL$$

For each class \mathcal{C} , we have the correspondence $\text{SF}(\mathcal{C}) = \text{FO}(\mathbb{S}_{\mathcal{C}})$.

Membership: the **general case** (P., Zeitoun'19)

\mathcal{C} a class, L a regular language, $\alpha : A^* \rightarrow M$ its syntactic morphism.
The following properties are equivalent.

1. $L \in \text{SF}(\mathcal{C}) = \text{FO}(\mathbb{S}_{\mathcal{C}})$.
2. For all $s \in M$, if s is a **\mathcal{C} -stutter**, then $s^{\omega+1} = s^{\omega}$.

Membership: the **general case** (P., Zeitoun'19)

\mathcal{C} a class, L a regular language, $\alpha : A^* \rightarrow M$ its syntactic morphism.
The following properties are equivalent.

1. $L \in \text{SF}(\mathcal{C}) = \text{FO}(\mathbb{S}_{\mathcal{C}})$.
2. For all $s \in M$, if s is a **\mathcal{C} -stutter**, then $s^{\omega+1} = s^{\omega}$.

$s \in M$ is a \mathcal{C} -stutter if and only if for every **finite** set $\mathbf{K} \subseteq \mathcal{C}$ such that $\alpha^{-1}(s) \subseteq \bigcup_{K \in \mathbf{K}} K$, there exists $K \in \mathbf{K}$ such that $K \cap KK \neq \emptyset$.

Membership: the **general case** (P., Zeitoun'19)

\mathcal{C} a class, L a regular language, $\alpha : A^* \rightarrow M$ its syntactic morphism.
The following properties are equivalent.

1. $L \in \text{SF}(\mathcal{C}) = \text{FO}(\mathbb{S}_{\mathcal{C}})$.
2. For all $s \in M$, if s is a **\mathcal{C} -stutter**, then $s^{\omega+1} = s^{\omega}$.

$s \in M$ is a \mathcal{C} -stutter if and only if for every **finite** set $\mathbf{K} \subseteq \mathcal{C}$ such that $\alpha^{-1}(s) \subseteq \bigcup_{K \in \mathbf{K}} K$, there exists $K \in \mathbf{K}$ such that $K \cap KK \neq \emptyset$.

\Rightarrow $\text{SF}(\mathcal{C})$ -membership decidable provided that \mathcal{C} -stutters are computable.

Membership: the **general case** (P., Zeitoun'19)

\mathcal{C} a class, L a regular language, $\alpha : A^* \rightarrow M$ its syntactic morphism.
The following properties are equivalent.

1. $L \in \text{SF}(\mathcal{C}) = \text{FO}(\mathbb{S}_{\mathcal{C}})$.
2. For all $s \in M$, if s is a **\mathcal{C} -stutter**, then $s^{\omega+1} = s^{\omega}$.

$s \in M$ is a \mathcal{C} -stutter if and only if for every **finite** set $\mathbf{K} \subseteq \mathcal{C}$ such that $\alpha^{-1}(s) \subseteq \bigcup_{K \in \mathbf{K}} K$, there exists $K \in \mathbf{K}$ such that $K \cap KK \neq \emptyset$.

\Rightarrow $\text{SF}(\mathcal{C})$ -membership decidable provided that \mathcal{C} -stutters are computable.

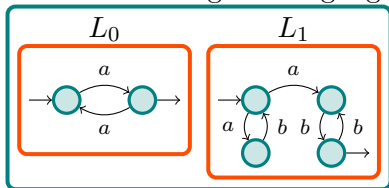
What is this weird condition ?!

Fortunately, the special case of **group** classes is simpler.

Towards the group case: **separation** and **pairs**

Separation problem for a class \mathcal{C}

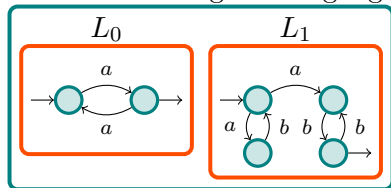
INPUT: **two** regular languages



Towards the group case: **separation** and **pairs**

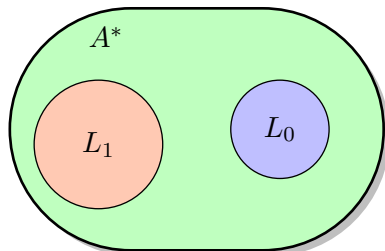
Separation problem for a class \mathcal{C}

INPUT: two regular languages



QUESTION

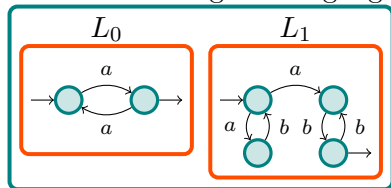
Can L_0 be separated from L_1 with a language of \mathcal{C} ?



Towards the group case: **separation** and **pairs**

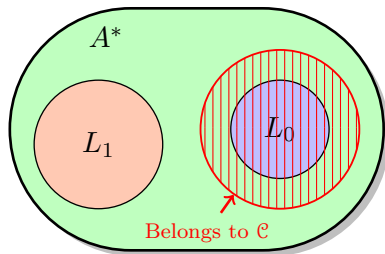
Separation problem for a class \mathcal{C}

INPUT: **two** regular languages



QUESTION

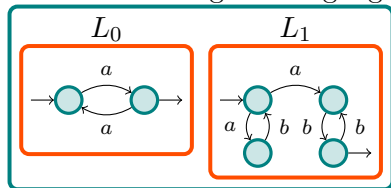
Can L_0 be separated from L_1 with a language of \mathcal{C} ?



Towards the group case: **separation** and **pairs**

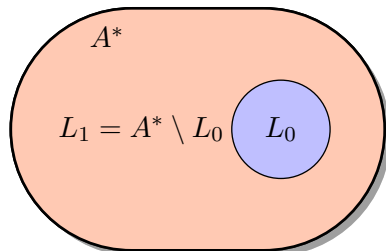
Separation problem for a class \mathcal{C}

INPUT: **two** regular languages



QUESTION

Can L_0 be separated from L_1 with a language of \mathcal{C} ?

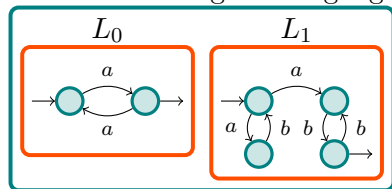


Effective **reduction**
from membership to separation

Towards the group case: **separation** and **pairs**

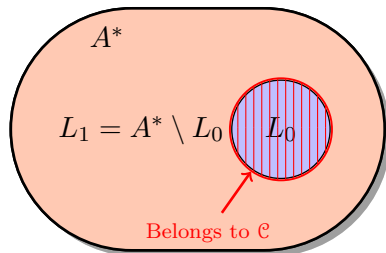
Separation problem for a class \mathcal{C}

INPUT: **two** regular languages



QUESTION

Can L_0 be separated from L_1 with a language of \mathcal{C} ?

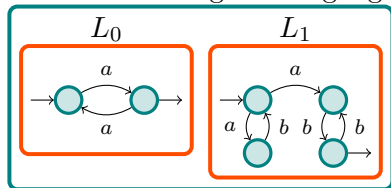


Effective **reduction**
from membership to separation

Towards the group case: **separation** and **pairs**

Separation problem for a class \mathcal{C}

INPUT: **two** regular languages



OUTPUT

Can L_0 be separated from L_1
with a language of \mathcal{C} ?

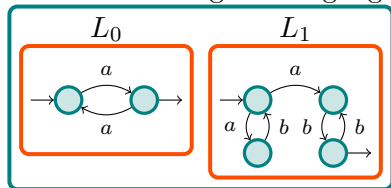
The \mathcal{C} -pairs associated to a morphism

Given a morphism $\alpha : A^* \rightarrow M$ a **\mathcal{C} -pair for α** is a pair $(s, t) \in M^2$ such that $\alpha^{-1}(s)$ is **not** \mathcal{C} -separable from $\alpha^{-1}(t)$.

Towards the group case: **separation** and **pairs**

Separation problem for a class \mathcal{C}

INPUT: **two** regular languages



OUTPUT

Can L_0 be separated from L_1 with a language of \mathcal{C} ?

The \mathcal{C} -pairs associated to a morphism

Given a morphism $\alpha : A^* \rightarrow M$ a **\mathcal{C} -pair for α** is a pair $(s, t) \in M^2$ such that $\alpha^{-1}(s)$ is **not** \mathcal{C} -separable from $\alpha^{-1}(t)$.

Key point: \mathcal{C} -pairs can be computed when \mathcal{C} -separation is decidable.

Membership: the **group case** (\mathcal{G} is a group class)

L a regular language and $\alpha : A^* \rightarrow M$ its syntactic morphism.
The following properties are equivalent.

1. $L \in \text{SF}(\mathcal{G}) = \text{FO}(<, \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{G}})$.
2. For every $s \in M$, if $(1_M, s)$ is a **\mathcal{G} -pair**, then $s^{\omega+1} = s^{\omega}$.

Membership: the **group case** (\mathcal{G} is a group class)

L a regular language and $\alpha : A^* \rightarrow M$ its syntactic morphism.
The following properties are equivalent.

1. $L \in \text{SF}(\mathcal{G}) = \text{FO}(<, \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{G}})$.
2. For every $s \in M$, if $(1_M, s)$ is a **\mathcal{G} -pair**, then $s^{\omega+1} = s^{\omega}$.

\Rightarrow $\text{SF}(\mathcal{G})$ -membership is decidable when \mathcal{G} -separation is decidable.

Membership: the **group case** (\mathcal{G} is a group class)

L a regular language and $\alpha : A^* \rightarrow M$ its syntactic morphism.
The following properties are equivalent.

1. $L \in \text{SF}(\mathcal{G}) = \text{FO}(<, \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{G}})$.
2. For every $s \in M$, if $(1_M, s)$ is a **\mathcal{G} -pair**, then $s^{\omega+1} = s^{\omega}$.

\Rightarrow $\text{SF}(\mathcal{G})$ -membership is decidable when \mathcal{G} -separation is decidable.

Remark 1

We do not consider \mathcal{G}^+ here since $\text{SF}(\mathcal{G}) = \text{SF}(\mathcal{G}^+)$.

Membership: the **group case** (\mathcal{G} is a group class)

L a regular language and $\alpha : A^* \rightarrow M$ its syntactic morphism.
The following properties are equivalent.

1. $L \in \text{SF}(\mathcal{G}) = \text{FO}(<, \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{G}})$.
2. For every $s \in M$, if $(1_M, s)$ is a **\mathcal{G} -pair**, then $s^{\omega+1} = s^{\omega}$.

\Rightarrow $\text{SF}(\mathcal{G})$ -membership is decidable when \mathcal{G} -separation is decidable.

Remark 1

We do not consider \mathcal{G}^+ here since $\text{SF}(\mathcal{G}) = \text{SF}(\mathcal{G}^+)$.

Remark 2: actually, we can do **much better**

$\text{SF}(\mathcal{G})$ -**separation** is decidable when \mathcal{G} -separation is decidable.
(but this would be a story for another talk).

The story so far for a **group class** \mathcal{G}

Logic	Operator
first-order logic: $\text{FO}(<, \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{G}})$	star-free closure: $\text{SF}(\mathcal{G})$

Membership decidable if **\mathcal{G} -separation decidable**.

Let's move to other operators:
Concatenation hierarchies

Concatenation hierarchies (Brzozowski, Cohen '71)

What is a “simple” star-free language?

- ▶ $A^*aA^*bcA^*aA^*$.
- ▶ $(ab)^* = \overline{aA^* \cup A^*aaA^* \cup A^*bbA^* \cup A^*a}$.

What is a “complicated” star-free language

- ▶ $A^*a \left(\overline{A^*ab \left(\overline{A^*a \left(\overline{A^*bbA^*} \right) acA^*} \right) cc \left(\overline{A^*bcaA^*} \right) baA^*} \right) cbA^*$.

Concatenation hierarchies (Brzozowski, Cohen '71)

What is a “simple” star-free language?

- ▶ $A^*aA^*bcA^*aA^*$.
- ▶ $(ab)^* = \overline{aA^* \cup A^*aaA^* \cup A^*bbA^* \cup A^*a}$.

What is a “complicated” star-free language

- ▶ $A^*a \left(\overline{A^*ab \left(\overline{A^*a \left(\overline{A^*bbA^*} \right) acA^*} \right) cc \left(\overline{A^*bcaA^*} \right) baA^*} \right) cbA^*$.

Complicated = Alternation between concatenation and complement.

Intuition is mathematically validated:

- ▶ Deciding emptiness of a star-free language is **non-elementary**. (Meyer, Stockmeyer 73).
- ▶ Lower bound tied to alternations concatenation/complement.

Concatenation hierarchies (Brzozowski, Cohen '71)

For an input class \mathcal{C} (**basis**), classify $SF(\mathcal{C})$ into **half** and **full levels**.

Complexity measure: **alternation complement/concatenation**.

$$0 \longrightarrow \frac{1}{2} \longrightarrow 1 \longrightarrow \frac{3}{2} \longrightarrow 2 \longrightarrow \frac{5}{2} \longrightarrow 3 \dots\dots SF(\mathcal{C})$$

Concatenation hierarchies (Brzozowski, Cohen '71)

For an input class \mathcal{C} (**basis**), classify $SF(\mathcal{C})$ into **half** and **full levels**.

Complexity measure: **alternation complement/concatenation**.

$$0 \longrightarrow \frac{1}{2} \longrightarrow 1 \longrightarrow \frac{3}{2} \longrightarrow 2 \longrightarrow \frac{5}{2} \longrightarrow 3 \dots\dots SF(\mathcal{C})$$

\mathcal{C}

Concatenation hierarchies (Brzozowski, Cohen '71)

For an input class \mathcal{C} (**basis**), classify $SF(\mathcal{C})$ into **half** and **full levels**.

Complexity measure: **alternation complement/concatenation**.

$$0 \xrightarrow{\text{Pol}} \frac{1}{2} \longrightarrow 1 \xrightarrow{\text{Pol}} \frac{3}{2} \longrightarrow 2 \xrightarrow{\text{Pol}} \frac{5}{2} \longrightarrow 3 \dots\dots SF(\mathcal{C})$$

\mathcal{C}

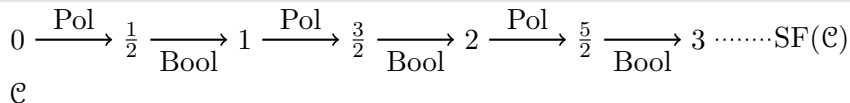
Polynomial closure

$Pol(\mathcal{D})$ finite unions of **marked products** $L_0 a_1 L_1 \cdots a_n L_n$ where $a_1, \dots, a_n \in A$ and $L_0, \dots, L_n \in \mathcal{D}$.

Concatenation hierarchies (Brzozowski, Cohen '71)

For an input class \mathcal{C} (**basis**), classify $SF(\mathcal{C})$ into **half** and **full levels**.

Complexity measure: **alternation complement/concatenation**.



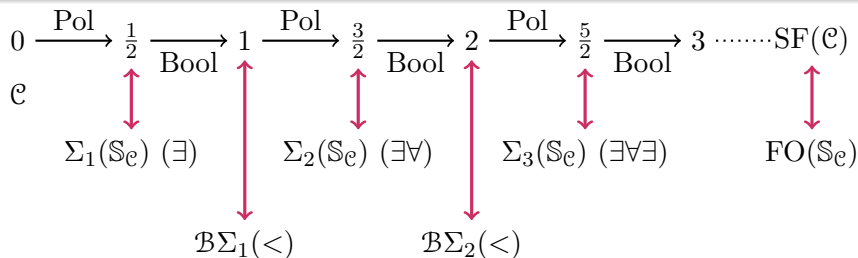
Boolean closure

$Bool(\mathcal{D})$: least **Boolean algebra** containing \mathcal{D} (closure under union and complement).

Concatenation hierarchies (Brzozowski, Cohen '71)

For an input class \mathcal{C} (**basis**), classify $SF(\mathcal{C})$ into **half** and **full levels**.

Complexity measure: **alternation complement/concatenation**.

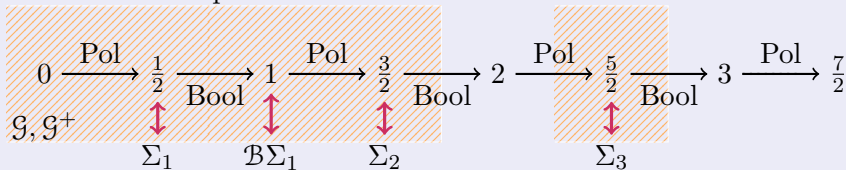


Logical point of view: **quantifier alternation** (Thomas 1982).

Overview of the membership results for group classes

\mathcal{G} a group class **with decidable separation**. The bases \mathcal{G} and \mathcal{G}^+ :

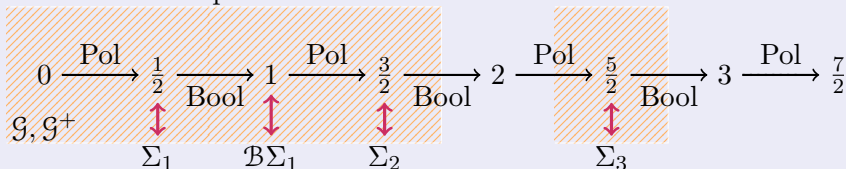
Membership decidable



Overview of the membership results for group classes

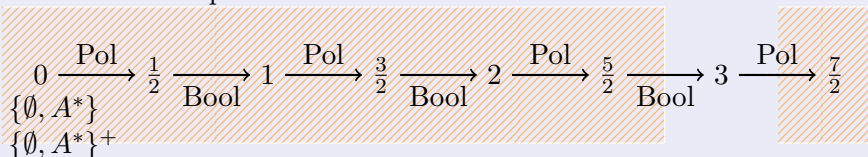
\mathcal{G} a group class **with decidable separation**. The bases \mathcal{G} and \mathcal{G}^+ :

Membership decidable



Specialized techniques for the bases $\{\emptyset, A^*\}$ and $\{\emptyset, A^*\}^+$:

Membership decidable



In other words, we may also handle the classes:

- ▶ $\mathcal{B}\Sigma_2(<)$, $\Sigma_4(<)$, $\mathcal{B}\Sigma_2(<, +1)$ and $\Sigma_4(<, +1)$.

Membership for the **level one** (\mathcal{G} is a group class)

Let us illustrate with the class $Bool(Pol(\mathcal{G})) = \mathcal{B}\Sigma_1(<, \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{G}})$.

We write it $BPol(\mathcal{G})$ for short.

Membership for the **level one** (\mathcal{G} is a group class)

Let us illustrate with the class $Bool(Pol(\mathcal{G})) = \mathcal{B}\Sigma_1(<, \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{G}})$.

We write it $BPol(\mathcal{G})$ for short.

L a regular language and $\alpha : A^* \rightarrow M$ its syntactic morphism.

The following properties are equivalent:

1. $L \in BPol(\mathcal{G}) = \mathcal{B}\Sigma_1(<, \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{G}})$.
2. For $q, r, s, t \in M$, if (q, s) is a \mathcal{G} -pair, $(qr)^{\omega+1}(st)^{\omega} = (qr)^{\omega}qt(st)^{\omega}$.

Membership for the **level one** (\mathcal{G} is a group class)

Let us illustrate with the class $Bool(Pol(\mathcal{G})) = \mathcal{B}\Sigma_1(<, \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{G}})$.

We write it $BPol(\mathcal{G})$ for short.

L a regular language and $\alpha : A^* \rightarrow M$ its syntactic morphism.

The following properties are equivalent:

1. $L \in BPol(\mathcal{G}) = \mathcal{B}\Sigma_1(<, \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{G}})$.
2. For $q, r, s, t \in M$, if (q, s) is a \mathcal{G} -pair, $(qr)^{\omega+1}(st)^{\omega} = (qr)^{\omega}qt(st)^{\omega}$.

$\Rightarrow BPol(\mathcal{G})$ -membership is decidable when \mathcal{G} -separation is decidable.

Membership for the **level one** (\mathcal{G} is a group class)

Let us illustrate with the class $Bool(Pol(\mathcal{G})) = \mathcal{B}\Sigma_1(<, \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{G}})$.

We write it $BPol(\mathcal{G})$ for short.

L a regular language and $\alpha : A^* \rightarrow M$ its syntactic morphism.

The following properties are equivalent:

1. $L \in BPol(\mathcal{G}) = \mathcal{B}\Sigma_1(<, \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{G}})$.
2. For $q, r, s, t \in M$, if (q, s) is a \mathcal{G} -pair, $(qr)^{\omega+1}(st)^{\omega} = (qr)^{\omega}qt(st)^{\omega}$.

$\Rightarrow BPol(\mathcal{G})$ -membership is decidable when \mathcal{G} -separation is decidable.

Remark 1

A similar characterization holds for $BPol(\mathcal{G}^+) = \mathcal{B}\Sigma_1(<, +1, \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{G}})$.

Remark 2: actually, we can do **much better**

$BPol(\mathcal{G})$ -**separation** is decidable when \mathcal{G} -separation is decidable.

(But this would be a story for another talk).

The story so far for a **group class** \mathcal{G}

Logic	Operator
first-order logic: $\text{FO}(<, \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{G}})$	star-free closure: $\text{SF}(\mathcal{G})$
$\mathcal{B}\Sigma_1(<, \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{G}})$ and $\mathcal{B}\Sigma_1(<, +1, \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{G}})$	$\text{BPol}(\mathcal{G})$ and $\text{BPol}(\mathcal{G}^+)$

In **all cases**, membership decidable if **\mathcal{G} -separation decidable**.

A weaker operator:

Unambiguous polynomial closure

Unambiguous polynomial closure: definition

$L_0 a_1 L_1 \cdots a_n L_n$ is **unambiguous** if every word $w \in L_0 a_1 L_1 \cdots a_n L_n$ admits a **unique** decomposition witnessing this membership:

Unambiguous polynomial closure: definition

$L_0 a_1 L_1 \cdots a_n L_n$ is **unambiguous** if every word $w \in L_0 a_1 L_1 \cdots a_n L_n$ admits a **unique** decomposition witnessing this membership:

if $u_i, v_i \in L_i$ for all $i \leq n$ and $u_0 a_1 u_1 \cdots a_n u_n = v_0 a_1 v_1 \cdots a_n v_n$,
then $u_i = v_i$ for every $i \leq n$.

Unambiguous polynomial closure: definition

$L_0 a_1 L_1 \cdots a_n L_n$ is **unambiguous** if every word $w \in L_0 a_1 L_1 \cdots a_n L_n$ admits a **unique** decomposition witnessing this membership:

if $u_i, v_i \in L_i$ for all $i \leq n$ and $u_0 a_1 u_1 \cdots a_n u_n = v_0 a_1 v_1 \cdots a_n v_n$,
then $u_i = v_i$ for every $i \leq n$.

► $b^* a A^*$ is unambiguous.

Unambiguous polynomial closure: definition

$L_0 a_1 L_1 \cdots a_n L_n$ is **unambiguous** if every word $w \in L_0 a_1 L_1 \cdots a_n L_n$ admits a **unique** decomposition witnessing this membership:

if $u_i, v_i \in L_i$ for all $i \leq n$ and $u_0 a_1 u_1 \cdots a_n u_n = v_0 a_1 v_1 \cdots a_n v_n$,
then $u_i = v_i$ for every $i \leq n$.

- ▶ $b^* a A^*$ is unambiguous.
- ▶ If $A^* a \{\varepsilon\} b \{\varepsilon\}$ is unambiguous (it defines $A^* ab$).

Unambiguous polynomial closure: definition

$L_0 a_1 L_1 \cdots a_n L_n$ is **unambiguous** if every word $w \in L_0 a_1 L_1 \cdots a_n L_n$ admits a **unique** decomposition witnessing this membership:

if $u_i, v_i \in L_i$ for all $i \leq n$ and $u_0 a_1 u_1 \cdots a_n u_n = v_0 a_1 v_1 \cdots a_n v_n$,
then $u_i = v_i$ for every $i \leq n$.

- ▶ $b^* a A^*$ is unambiguous.
- ▶ If $A^* a \{\varepsilon\} b \{\varepsilon\}$ is unambiguous (it defines $A^* ab$).
- ▶ If $(ab)^* a (ca)^*$ is unambiguous.

Unambiguous polynomial closure: definition

$L_0 a_1 L_1 \cdots a_n L_n$ is **unambiguous** if every word $w \in L_0 a_1 L_1 \cdots a_n L_n$ admits a **unique** decomposition witnessing this membership:

if $u_i, v_i \in L_i$ for all $i \leq n$ and $u_0 a_1 u_1 \cdots a_n u_n = v_0 a_1 v_1 \cdots a_n v_n$,
then $u_i = v_i$ for every $i \leq n$.

- ▶ $b^* a A^*$ is unambiguous.
- ▶ If $A^* a \{\varepsilon\} b \{\varepsilon\}$ is unambiguous (it defines $A^* ab$).
- ▶ If $(ab)^* a (ca)^*$ is unambiguous.
- ▶ If $(a + c)^* b (a + b)^* c A^* a (b + c)^*$ is unambiguous.

Unambiguous polynomial closure: definition

$L_0 a_1 L_1 \cdots a_n L_n$ is **unambiguous** if every word $w \in L_0 a_1 L_1 \cdots a_n L_n$ admits a **unique** decomposition witnessing this membership:

if $u_i, v_i \in L_i$ for all $i \leq n$ and $u_0 a_1 u_1 \cdots a_n u_n = v_0 a_1 v_1 \cdots a_n v_n$,
then $u_i = v_i$ for every $i \leq n$.

- ▶ $b^* a A^*$ is unambiguous.
- ▶ If $A^* a \{\varepsilon\} b \{\varepsilon\}$ is unambiguous (it defines $A^* ab$).
- ▶ If $(ab)^* a (ca)^*$ is unambiguous.
- ▶ If $(a + c)^* b (a + b)^* c A^* a (b + c)^*$ is unambiguous.

Tied to the **product itself**, not only on the resulting language

- ▶ $b^* a (a + b)^*$ is unambiguous.
- ▶ $(a + b)^* a (a + b)^*$ is **not** unambiguous.

These two products evaluate to the same language.

Unambiguous polynomial closure: definition

$L_0 a_1 L_1 \cdots a_n L_n$ is **unambiguous** if every word $w \in L_0 a_1 L_1 \cdots a_n L_n$ admits a **unique** decomposition witnessing this membership:

if $u_i, v_i \in L_i$ for all $i \leq n$ and $u_0 a_1 u_1 \cdots a_n u_n = v_0 a_1 v_1 \cdots a_n v_n$,
then $u_i = v_i$ for every $i \leq n$.

- ▶ $b^* a A^*$ is unambiguous.
- ▶ If $A^* a \{\varepsilon\} b \{\varepsilon\}$ is unambiguous (it defines $A^* ab$).
- ▶ If $(ab)^* a (ca)^*$ is unambiguous.
- ▶ If $(a + c)^* b (a + b)^* c A^* a (b + c)^*$ is unambiguous.

Unambiguous polynomial closure

$UPol(\mathcal{D})$: finite **disjoint** unions of **unambiguous** marked products $L_0 a_1 L_1 \cdots a_n L_n$ where $a_1, \dots, a_n \in A$ and $L_0, \dots, L_n \in \mathcal{D}$.

$UPol$ defined since the 70s/80s (Schützenberger'76, Pin'81).

Membership for UPol (P., Zeitoun'18)

\mathcal{C} a class, L a regular language, $\alpha : A^* \rightarrow M$ its syntactic morphism.
The following properties are equivalent:

1. $L \in UPol(\mathcal{C})$.
2. for all $s, t \in M$, if (s, t) is a \mathcal{C} -pair, then $s^{\omega+1} = s^{\omega}ts^{\omega}$.

Membership for UPol (P., Zeitoun'18)

\mathcal{C} a class, L a regular language, $\alpha : A^* \rightarrow M$ its syntactic morphism.
The following properties are equivalent:

1. $L \in UPol(\mathcal{C})$.
2. for all $s, t \in M$, if (s, t) is a \mathcal{C} -pair, then $s^{\omega+1} = s^{\omega}ts^{\omega}$.

$\Rightarrow UPol(\mathcal{C})$ -membership is decidable if \mathcal{C} -separation is decidable.

Membership for $UPol$ (P., Zeitoun'18)

\mathcal{C} a class, L a regular language, $\alpha : A^* \rightarrow M$ its syntactic morphism.
The following properties are equivalent:

1. $L \in UPol(\mathcal{C})$.
2. for all $s, t \in M$, if (s, t) is a \mathcal{C} -pair, then $s^{\omega+1} = s^{\omega}ts^{\omega}$.

$\Rightarrow UPol(\mathcal{C})$ -membership is decidable if \mathcal{C} -separation is decidable.

We can do **better**.

Membership for UPol (P., Zeitoun'18)

\mathcal{C} a class, L a regular language, $\alpha : A^* \rightarrow M$ its syntactic morphism.
The following properties are equivalent:

1. $L \in UPol(\mathcal{C})$.
2. for all $s, t \in M$, if (s, t) is a \mathcal{C} -pair, then $s^{\omega+1} = s^{\omega}ts^{\omega}$.

$\Rightarrow UPol(\mathcal{C})$ -membership is decidable if \mathcal{C} -separation is decidable.

For every morphism $\alpha : A^* \rightarrow M$, we define an equivalence $\sim_{\mathcal{C}}$ on M :

$s \sim_{\mathcal{C}} t$ if and only if $s \in F \Leftrightarrow t \in F$ for all $F \subseteq M$ s.t. $\alpha^{-1}(F) \in \mathcal{C}$.

Key point: $\sim_{\mathcal{C}}$ can be computed if \mathcal{C} -membership is decidable.

Membership for UPol (P., Zeitoun'18)

\mathcal{C} a class, L a regular language, $\alpha : A^* \rightarrow M$ its syntactic morphism.
The following properties are equivalent:

1. $L \in UPol(\mathcal{C})$.
2. for all $s, t \in M$, if (s, t) is a \mathcal{C} -pair, then $s^{\omega+1} = s^{\omega}ts^{\omega}$.
3. for all $s, t \in M$, if $s \sim_{\mathcal{C}} t$, then $s^{\omega+1} = s^{\omega}ts^{\omega}$.

$\Rightarrow UPol(\mathcal{C})$ -membership is decidable if \mathcal{C} -separation is decidable.

For every morphism $\alpha : A^* \rightarrow M$, we define an equivalence $\sim_{\mathcal{C}}$ on M :

$s \sim_{\mathcal{C}} t$ if and only if $s \in F \Leftrightarrow t \in F$ for all $F \subseteq M$ s.t. $\alpha^{-1}(F) \in \mathcal{C}$.

Key point: $\sim_{\mathcal{C}}$ can be computed if \mathcal{C} -membership is decidable.

Membership for UPol (P., Zeitoun'18)

\mathcal{C} a class, L a regular language, $\alpha : A^* \rightarrow M$ its syntactic morphism.
The following properties are equivalent:

1. $L \in UPol(\mathcal{C})$.
2. for all $s, t \in M$, if (s, t) is a \mathcal{C} -pair, then $s^{\omega+1} = s^{\omega}ts^{\omega}$.
3. for all $s, t \in M$, if $s \sim_{\mathcal{C}} t$, then $s^{\omega+1} = s^{\omega}ts^{\omega}$.

$\Rightarrow UPol(\mathcal{C})$ -membership is decidable if \mathcal{C} -**membership** is decidable.
i.e., $UPol$ **preserves the decidability of membership**.

For every morphism $\alpha : A^* \rightarrow M$, we define an equivalence $\sim_{\mathcal{C}}$ on M :

$s \sim_{\mathcal{C}} t$ if and only if $s \in F \Leftrightarrow t \in F$ for all $F \subseteq M$ s.t. $\alpha^{-1}(F) \in \mathcal{C}$.

Key point: $\sim_{\mathcal{C}}$ can be computed if \mathcal{C} -**membership** is decidable.

Back to logic: what are the good input classes ?

Using **group classes** directly is **pointless**:

For every group class \mathcal{G} , we have $UPol(\mathcal{G}) = \mathcal{G}$.

Back to logic: what are the good input classes ?

Using **group classes** directly is **pointless**:

For every group class \mathcal{G} , we have $UPol(\mathcal{G}) = \mathcal{G}$.

If K, L are group languages and $a \in A$, KaL is **not** unambiguous:

Back to logic: what are the good input classes ?

Using **group classes** directly is **pointless**:

For every group class \mathcal{G} , we have $UPol(\mathcal{G}) = \mathcal{G}$.

If K, L are group languages and $a \in A$, KaL is **not** unambiguous:

- ▶ K, L are recognized by a morphism $\alpha : A^* \rightarrow G$ into a group.
- ▶ Let $u \in K, v \in L$ and $x \in A^*$ such that $\alpha(x) = (\alpha(av))^{-1}$.

Back to logic: what are the good input classes ?

Using **group classes** directly is **pointless**:

For every group class \mathcal{G} , we have $UPol(\mathcal{G}) = \mathcal{G}$.

If K, L are group languages and $a \in A$, KaL is **not** unambiguous:

- ▶ K, L are recognized by a morphism $\alpha : A^* \rightarrow G$ into a group.
- ▶ Let $u \in K$, $v \in L$ and $x \in A^*$ such that $\alpha(x) = (\alpha(av))^{-1}$.
- ▶ $\alpha(uavx) = \alpha(u) \Rightarrow uavx \in K$.
- ▶ $\alpha(vxav) = \alpha(v) \Rightarrow vxav \in L$.

Back to logic: what are the good input classes ?

Using **group classes** directly is **pointless**:

For every group class \mathcal{G} , we have $UPol(\mathcal{G}) = \mathcal{G}$.

If K, L are group languages and $a \in A$, KaL is **not** unambiguous:

- ▶ K, L are recognized by a morphism $\alpha : A^* \rightarrow G$ into a group.
- ▶ Let $u \in K$, $v \in L$ and $x \in A^*$ such that $\alpha(x) = (\alpha(av))^{-1}$.
- ▶ $\alpha(uavx) = \alpha(u) \Rightarrow uavx \in K$.
- ▶ $\alpha(vxav) = \alpha(v) \Rightarrow vxav \in L$.
- ▶ Altogether, we have $uavxav \in KaL$ and **two decompositions** witness this membership.

Back to logic: what are the good input classes ?

Using **group classes** directly is **pointless**:

For every group class \mathcal{G} , we have $UPol(\mathcal{G}) = \mathcal{G}$.

If K, L are group languages and $a \in A$, KaL is **not** unambiguous:

- ▶ K, L are recognized by a morphism $\alpha : A^* \rightarrow G$ into a group.
- ▶ Let $u \in K$, $v \in L$ and $x \in A^*$ such that $\alpha(x) = (\alpha(av))^{-1}$.
- ▶ $\alpha(uavx) = \alpha(u) \Rightarrow uavx \in K$.
- ▶ $\alpha(vxav) = \alpha(v) \Rightarrow vxav \in L$.
- ▶ Altogether, we have $uavxav \in KaL$ and **two decompositions** witness this membership.

The **important input classes** are $BPol(\mathcal{G})$ and $BPol(\mathcal{G}^+)$.

Logical characterization of UPol: **two-variable FO**

FO²: the **two-variable** restriction of FO

At most two (reusable) variables are allowed in an FO² sentence:

$$\exists x \exists y (a(x) \wedge b(y) \wedge x < y \wedge (\exists x (c(x) \wedge y < x))) .$$

This FO² sentence defines $A^*aA^*bA^*cA^*$.

Logical characterization of UPol: **two-variable FO**

FO²: the **two-variable** restriction of FO

At most two (reusable) variables are allowed in an FO² sentence:

$$\exists x \exists y (a(x) \wedge b(y) \wedge x < y \wedge (\exists x (c(x) \wedge y < x))).$$

This FO² sentence defines $A^*aA^*bA^*cA^*$.

For every group class \mathcal{G} , the following correspondences hold:

- ▶ $\text{FO}^2(<, \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{G}}) = \text{UPol}(\text{BPol}(\mathcal{G}))$.
- ▶ $\text{FO}^2(<, +1, \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{G}}) = \text{UPol}(\text{BPol}(\mathcal{G}^+))$.

(This was first proved by Thérien and Wilke'98 for $\mathcal{G} = \{\emptyset, A^*\}$).

Logical characterization of UPol: **two-variable FO**

FO²: the **two-variable** restriction of FO

At most two (reusable) variables are allowed in an FO² sentence:

$$\exists x \exists y (a(x) \wedge b(y) \wedge x < y \wedge (\exists x (c(x) \wedge y < x))).$$

This FO² sentence defines $A^*aA^*bA^*cA^*$.

For every group class \mathcal{G} , the following correspondences hold:

- ▶ $\text{FO}^2(<, \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{G}}) = \text{UPol}(\text{BPol}(\mathcal{G}))$.
- ▶ $\text{FO}^2(<, +1, \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{G}}) = \text{UPol}(\text{BPol}(\mathcal{G}^+))$.

(This was first proved by Thérien and Wilke'98 for $\mathcal{G} = \{\emptyset, A^*\}$).

Warning: **specific to group classes**.

$\text{UPol}(\text{BPol}(\mathbb{C}))$ **strictly included** in $\text{FO}^2(\mathbb{S}_{\mathbb{C}})$ in general.

Logical characterization of UPol: **two-variable FO**

FO²: the **two-variable** restriction of FO

At most two (reusable) variables are allowed in an FO² sentence:

$$\exists x \exists y (a(x) \wedge b(y) \wedge x < y \wedge (\exists x (c(x) \wedge y < x))).$$

This FO² sentence defines $A^*aA^*bA^*cA^*$.

For every group class \mathcal{G} , the following correspondences hold:

- ▶ $\text{FO}^2(<, \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{G}}) = \text{UPol}(\text{BPol}(\mathcal{G}))$.
- ▶ $\text{FO}^2(<, +1, \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{G}}) = \text{UPol}(\text{BPol}(\mathcal{G}^+))$.

(This was first proved by Thérien and Wilke'98 for $\mathcal{G} = \{\emptyset, A^*\}$).

Warning: **specific to group classes**.

$\text{UPol}(\text{BPol}(\mathcal{C}))$ **strictly included** in $\text{FO}^2(\mathbb{S}_{\mathcal{C}})$ in general.

Consequence: if \mathcal{G} -**separation** is decidable, membership is decidable for $\text{FO}^2(<, \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{G}})$ and $\text{FO}^2(<, +1, \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{G}})$.

The story so far for a **group class** \mathcal{G}

Logic	Operator
first-order logic: $\text{FO}(<, \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{G}})$	star-free closure: $\text{SF}(\mathcal{G})$
$\mathcal{B}\Sigma_1(<, \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{G}})$ and $\mathcal{B}\Sigma_1(<, +1, \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{G}})$	$\text{BPol}(\mathcal{G})$ and $\text{BPol}(\mathcal{G}^+)$
two-variable first-order logic: $\text{FO}^2(<, \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{G}})$ and $\text{FO}^2(<, +1, \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{G}})$	$\text{UPol}(\text{BPol}(\mathcal{G}))$ and $\text{UPol}(\text{BPol}(\mathcal{G}^+))$

In **all cases**, membership decidable if **\mathcal{G} -separation decidable**.

Let's look at even weaker operators:
Deterministic polynomial closures

Deterministic marked polynomial closures

Consider a marked product $L_0 a_1 L_1 \cdots a_n L_n$. For $1 \leq i \leq n$, we write $L'_i = L_0 a_1 L_1 \cdots a_{i-1} L_{i-1}$ and $L''_i = L_i a_{i+1} \cdots L_{n-1} a_n L_n$.

$L_0 a_1 L_1 \cdots a_n L_n$ is **left deterministic** if $L'_i \cap L'_i a_i A^* = \emptyset$ for all i .

- ▶ $b^* a A^*$ is left deterministic.
- ▶ $(ab)^* b (ba)^* a A^*$ is left deterministic.

Deterministic marked polynomial closures

Consider a marked product $L_0 a_1 L_1 \cdots a_n L_n$. For $1 \leq i \leq n$, we write $L'_i = L_0 a_1 L_1 \cdots a_{i-1} L_{i-1}$ and $L''_i = L_i a_{i+1} \cdots L_{n-1} a_n L_n$.

$L_0 a_1 L_1 \cdots a_n L_n$ is **left deterministic** if $L'_i \cap L'_i a_i A^* = \emptyset$ for all i .

- ▶ $b^* a A^*$ is left deterministic.
- ▶ $(ab)^* b (ba)^* a A^*$ is left deterministic.

$L_0 a_1 L_1 \cdots a_n L_n$ is **right deterministic** if $L''_i \cap A^* a_i L''_i = \emptyset$ for all i .

- ▶ $A^* a b^*$ is right deterministic.
- ▶ $A^* a (ab)^* a (ba)^*$ is right deterministic.

Deterministic marked polynomial closures

Consider a marked product $L_0 a_1 L_1 \cdots a_n L_n$. For $1 \leq i \leq n$, we write $L'_i = L_0 a_1 L_1 \cdots a_{i-1} L_{i-1}$ and $L''_i = L_i a_{i+1} \cdots L_{n-1} a_n L_n$.

$L_0 a_1 L_1 \cdots a_n L_n$ is **left deterministic** if $L'_i \cap L'_i a_i A^* = \emptyset$ for all i .

- ▶ $b^* a A^*$ is left deterministic.
- ▶ $(ab)^* b (ba)^* a A^*$ is left deterministic.

$L_0 a_1 L_1 \cdots a_n L_n$ is **right deterministic** if $L''_i \cap A^* a_i L''_i = \emptyset$ for all i .

- ▶ $A^* a b^*$ is right deterministic.
- ▶ $A^* a (ab)^* a (ba)^*$ is right deterministic.

$L_0 a_1 L_1 \cdots a_n L_n$ is **mixed deterministic** if either $L'_i \cap L'_i a_i A^* = \emptyset$ or $L''_i \cap A^* a_i L''_i = \emptyset$ for all i .

- ▶ $a^* b A^* a b^*$ is mixed deterministic (but neither left nor right).
- ▶ $(ac)^* a (ba)^*$ is **not** mixed deterministic (but it is unambiguous).

Deterministic marked polynomial closures

Left, right and mixed polynomial closures

Three new operators $LPol(\mathcal{D})$, $RPol(\mathcal{D})$ and $MPol(\mathcal{D})$.

$MPol(\mathcal{D})$: finite **disjoint** unions of **mixed deterministic** marked products $L_0 a_1 L_1 \cdots a_n L_n$ where $L_0, \dots, L_n \in \mathcal{D}$.

$LPol/RPol$ defined alongside $UPol$ (Schützenberger'76, Pin'81).

On the other hand, **$MPol$ is new** (P.'22).

Deterministic marked polynomial closures

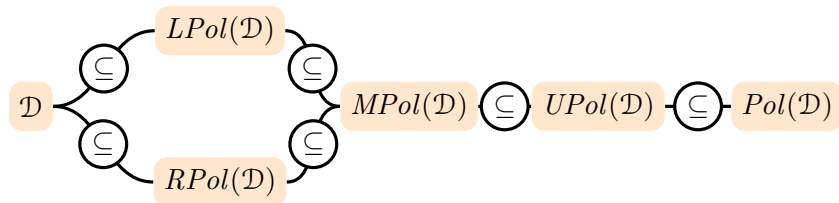
Left, right and mixed polynomial closures

Three new operators $LPol(\mathcal{D})$, $RPol(\mathcal{D})$ and $MPol(\mathcal{D})$.

$MPol(\mathcal{D})$: finite **disjoint** unions of **mixed deterministic** marked products $L_0 a_1 L_1 \cdots a_n L_n$ where $L_0, \dots, L_n \in \mathcal{D}$.

$LPol/RPol$ defined alongside $UPol$ (Schützenberger'76, Pin'81).

On the other hand, **$MPol$ is new** (P.'22).



I will now convince you that $MPol$ is the **best operator ever**.

LPol, RPol, MPol: algebraic characterizations (P.'22)

\mathcal{C} a class, L a language, $\alpha : A^* \rightarrow M$ its syntactic morphism.

LPol, RPol, MPol: algebraic characterizations (P.'22)

\mathcal{C} a class, L a language, $\alpha : A^* \rightarrow M$ its syntactic morphism.

For $LPol(\mathcal{C})$, the following properties are equivalent:

1. $L \in LPol(\mathcal{C})$.
2. for all $s, t \in M$, if $s \sim_{\mathcal{C}} t$, then $s^{\omega+1} = s^{\omega}t$.

LPol, RPol, MPol: algebraic characterizations (P.'22)

\mathcal{C} a class, L a language, $\alpha : A^* \rightarrow M$ its syntactic morphism.

For $LPol(\mathcal{C})$, the following properties are equivalent:

1. $L \in LPol(\mathcal{C})$.
2. for all $s, t \in M$, if $s \sim_{\mathcal{C}} t$, then $s^{\omega+1} = s^{\omega}t$.

For $RPol(\mathcal{C})$, the following properties are equivalent:

1. $L \in RPol(\mathcal{C})$.
2. for all $s, t \in M$, if $s \sim_{\mathcal{C}} t$, then $s^{\omega+1} = ts^{\omega}$.

LPol, RPol, MPol: algebraic characterizations (P.'22)

\mathcal{C} a class, L a language, $\alpha : A^* \rightarrow M$ its syntactic morphism.

For $LPol(\mathcal{C})$, the following properties are equivalent:

1. $L \in LPol(\mathcal{C})$.
2. for all $s, t \in M$, if $s \sim_{\mathcal{C}} t$, then $s^{\omega+1} = s^{\omega}t$.

For $RPol(\mathcal{C})$, the following properties are equivalent:

1. $L \in RPol(\mathcal{C})$.
2. for all $s, t \in M$, if $s \sim_{\mathcal{C}} t$, then $s^{\omega+1} = ts^{\omega}$.

For $MPol(\mathcal{C})$, the following properties are equivalent:

1. $L \in MPol(\mathcal{C})$.
2. for all $q, r, s, t \in M$, if $s \sim_{\mathcal{C}} t$, then $(sq)^{\omega}s(rs)^{\omega} = (sq)^{\omega}t(rs)^{\omega}$.

LPol, RPol, MPol: algebraic characterizations (P.'22)

\mathcal{C} a class, L a language, $\alpha : A^* \rightarrow M$ its syntactic morphism.

For $LPol(\mathcal{C})$, the following properties are equivalent:

1. $L \in LPol(\mathcal{C})$.
2. for all $s, t \in M$, if $s \sim_{\mathcal{C}} t$, then $s^{\omega+1} = s^{\omega}t$.

For $RPol(\mathcal{C})$, the following properties are equivalent:

1. $L \in RPol(\mathcal{C})$.
2. for all $s, t \in M$, if $s \sim_{\mathcal{C}} t$, then $s^{\omega+1} = ts^{\omega}$.

For $MPol(\mathcal{C})$, the following properties are equivalent:

1. $L \in MPol(\mathcal{C})$.
2. for all $q, r, s, t \in M$, if $s \sim_{\mathcal{C}} t$, then $(sq)^{\omega}s(rs)^{\omega} = (sq)^{\omega}t(rs)^{\omega}$.

$\Rightarrow LPol, RPol, MPol$ **preserve the decidability of membership.**

Logical application
of **mixed polynomial closure**.

The quantifier alternation hierarchy of FO^2

For $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $\mathcal{B}\Sigma_n^2$ denotes the **formulas** which belong to both:

- ▶ FO^2 (two-variable first-order logic).
- ▶ $\mathcal{B}\Sigma_n$ (in the quantifier hierarchy of full first-order logic).

The quantifier alternation hierarchy of FO^2

For $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $\mathcal{B}\Sigma_n^2$ denotes the **formulas** which belong to both:

- ▶ FO^2 (two-variable first-order logic).
- ▶ $\mathcal{B}\Sigma_n$ (in the quantifier hierarchy of full first-order logic).

All levels $\mathcal{B}\Sigma_n^2(<)$ (the “linear order variant”): decidable membership.
Independent proofs by Kufleitner-Weil’12 and Krebs-Straubing’12.

The quantifier alternation hierarchy of FO^2

For $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $\mathcal{B}\Sigma_n^2$ denotes the **formulas** which belong to both:

- ▶ FO^2 (two-variable first-order logic).
- ▶ $\mathcal{B}\Sigma_n$ (in the quantifier hierarchy of full first-order logic).

All levels $\mathcal{B}\Sigma_n^2(<)$ (the “linear order variant”): decidable membership.
Independent proofs by Kufleitner-Weil’12 and Krebs-Straubing’12.

I will use my own approach based on **mixed polynomial closure**.
Yet, there is a connection to the Kufleitner-Weil approach.

Deterministic hierarchies (1)

Design principle: in general $LPol(\mathcal{C})$ and $RPol(\mathcal{C})$ are **incomparable**.

Deterministic hierarchies (1)

Design principle: in general $LPol(\mathcal{C})$ and $RPol(\mathcal{C})$ are **incomparable**.

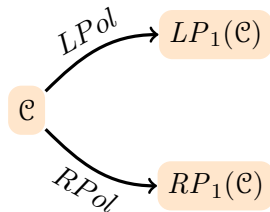
⇒ Idea: apply $LPol$ and $RPol$ alternately to build a hierarchy from \mathcal{C} (the **deterministic hierarchy of basis \mathcal{C}**).

\mathcal{C}

Deterministic hierarchies (1)

Design principle: in general $LPol(\mathcal{C})$ and $RPol(\mathcal{C})$ are **incomparable**.

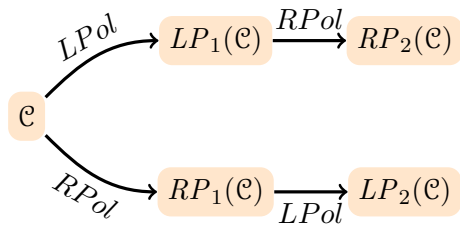
⇒ Idea: apply $LPol$ and $RPol$ alternately to build a hierarchy from \mathcal{C} (the **deterministic hierarchy of basis \mathcal{C}**).



Deterministic hierarchies (1)

Design principle: in general $LPol(\mathcal{C})$ and $RPol(\mathcal{C})$ are **incomparable**.

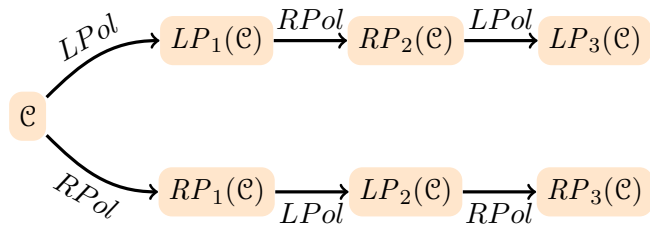
⇒ Idea: apply $LPol$ and $RPol$ alternately to build a hierarchy from \mathcal{C} (the **deterministic hierarchy of basis \mathcal{C}**).



Deterministic hierarchies (1)

Design principle: in general $LPol(\mathcal{C})$ and $RPol(\mathcal{C})$ are **incomparable**.

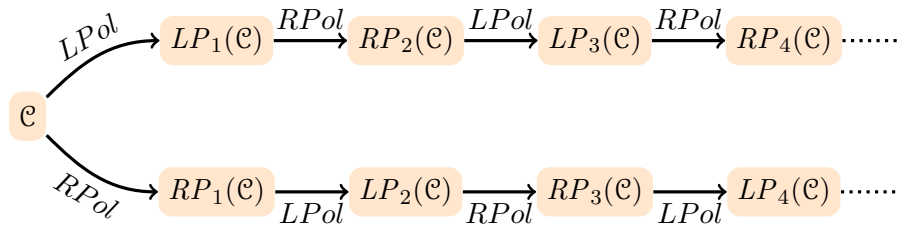
⇒ Idea: apply $LPol$ and $RPol$ alternately to build a hierarchy from \mathcal{C} (the **deterministic hierarchy of basis \mathcal{C}**).



Deterministic hierarchies (1)

Design principle: in general $LPol(\mathcal{C})$ and $RPol(\mathcal{C})$ are **incomparable**.

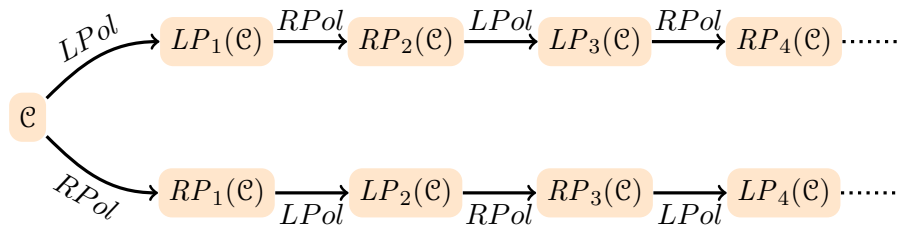
⇒ Idea: apply $LPol$ and $RPol$ alternately to build a hierarchy from \mathcal{C} (the **deterministic hierarchy of basis \mathcal{C}**).



Deterministic hierarchies (1)

Design principle: in general $LPol(\mathcal{C})$ and $RPol(\mathcal{C})$ are **incomparable**.

⇒ Idea: apply $LPol$ and $RPol$ alternately to build a hierarchy from \mathcal{C} (the **deterministic hierarchy of basis \mathcal{C}**).

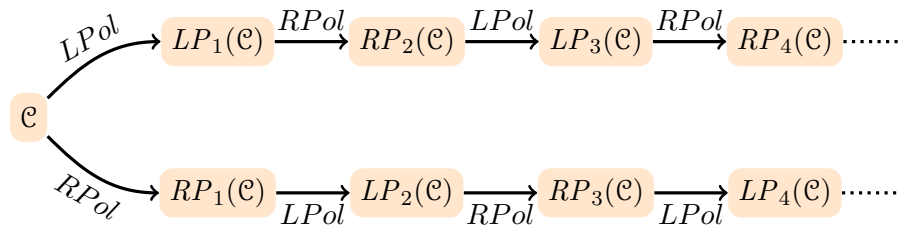


The **union of all levels** is $UPol(\mathcal{C})$ (P., Zeitoun'18).

Deterministic hierarchies (1)

Design principle: in general $LPol(\mathcal{C})$ and $RPol(\mathcal{C})$ are **incomparable**.

⇒ Idea: apply $LPol$ and $RPol$ alternately to build a hierarchy from \mathcal{C} (the **deterministic hierarchy of basis \mathcal{C}**).



The **union of all levels** is $UPol(\mathcal{C})$ (P., Zeitoun'18).

If \mathcal{C} -membership is decidable, then the problem is also decidable for **all** levels in this hierarchy.

Deterministic hierarchies (2)

Consider the class $BPol(\{\emptyset, A^*\})$.

Deterministic hierarchies (2)

Consider the class $BPol(\{\emptyset, A^*\})$.

Theorem (Kufleitner-Weil'12)

For every level $n \geq 1$:

$$\mathcal{B}\Sigma_n^2(<) = LP_n(BPol(\{\emptyset, A^*\})) \cap RP_n(BPol(\{\emptyset, A^*\})).$$

Deterministic hierarchies (2)

Consider the class $BPol(\{\emptyset, A^*\})$.

Theorem (Kufleitner-Weil'12)

For every level $n \geq 1$:

$$\mathcal{B}\Sigma_n^2(<) = LP_n(BPol(\{\emptyset, A^*\})) \cap RP_n(BPol(\{\emptyset, A^*\})).$$

This fails in general for the logics $\mathcal{B}\Sigma_1^2(<, \mathbb{P}_g)$ and $\mathcal{B}\Sigma_1^2(<, +1, \mathbb{P}_g)$.

Let us explain why.

The approach based on **mixed polynomial closure**

Dealing with the first level (applies to **all input classes**)

\mathcal{C} a class. Then $\mathcal{B}\Sigma_1(\mathcal{S}_{\mathcal{C}}) = \mathcal{B}\Sigma_1^2(\mathcal{S}_{\mathcal{C}}) = \mathit{BPol}(\mathcal{C})$.

Hence, if \mathcal{G} group class, then,

- ▶ $\mathcal{B}\Sigma_1^2(<, \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{G}}) = \mathit{BPol}(\mathcal{G})$.
- ▶ $\mathcal{B}\Sigma_1^2(<, +1, \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{G}}) = \mathit{BPol}(\mathcal{G}^+)$.

The approach based on **mixed polynomial closure**

Dealing with the first level (applies to **all input classes**)

\mathcal{C} a class. Then $\mathcal{B}\Sigma_1(\mathcal{S}_{\mathcal{C}}) = \mathcal{B}\Sigma_1^2(\mathcal{S}_{\mathcal{C}}) = BPol(\mathcal{C})$.

Hence, if \mathcal{G} group class, then,

- ▶ $\mathcal{B}\Sigma_1^2(<, \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{G}}) = BPol(\mathcal{G})$.
- ▶ $\mathcal{B}\Sigma_1^2(<, +1, \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{G}}) = BPol(\mathcal{G}^+)$.

Climbing with *MPol* (specific to the **group input classes**)

\mathcal{G} a group class. Then, for every $n \geq 1$,

- ▶ $\mathcal{B}\Sigma_{n+1}^2(<, \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{G}}) = MPol(\mathcal{B}\Sigma_n^2(<, \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{G}}))$.
- ▶ $\mathcal{B}\Sigma_{n+1}^2(<, +1, \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{G}}) = MPol(\mathcal{B}\Sigma_n^2(<, +1, \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{G}}))$.

\Rightarrow If \mathcal{G} has decidable separation, then membership is decidable for **all** levels $\mathcal{B}\Sigma_n^2(<, \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{G}})$ and $\mathcal{B}\Sigma_n^2(<, +1, \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{G}})$.

Connection with the Kuffleitner-Weil characterization

First result: intersection levels can be climbed with *MPol* (P.'22)

For every class \mathcal{C} and $n \geq 1$,

$$LP_{n+1}(\mathcal{C}) \cap RP_{n+1}(\mathcal{C}) = MPol(LP_n(\mathcal{C}) \cap RP_n(\mathcal{C})).$$

Connection with the Kuffleitner-Weil characterization

First result: intersection levels can be climbed with $MPol$ (P.'22)

For every class \mathcal{C} and $n \geq 1$,

$$LP_{n+1}(\mathcal{C}) \cap RP_{n+1}(\mathcal{C}) = MPol(LP_n(\mathcal{C}) \cap RP_n(\mathcal{C})).$$

Second result: **specific to** $BPol(\{\emptyset, A^*\})$ (standard)

$$LP_1(BPol(\{\emptyset, A^*\})) \cap RP_1(BPol(\{\emptyset, A^*\})) = BPol(\{\emptyset, A^*\}).$$

(fails in general for the classes $BPol(\mathcal{G})$ and $BPol(\mathcal{G}^+)$).

Connection with the Kuffleitner-Weil characterization

First result: intersection levels can be climbed with $MPol$ (P.'22)

For every class \mathcal{C} and $n \geq 1$,

$$LP_{n+1}(\mathcal{C}) \cap RP_{n+1}(\mathcal{C}) = MPol(LP_n(\mathcal{C}) \cap RP_n(\mathcal{C})).$$

Second result: **specific to** $BPol(\{\emptyset, A^*\})$ (standard)

$$LP_1(BPol(\{\emptyset, A^*\})) \cap RP_1(BPol(\{\emptyset, A^*\})) = BPol(\{\emptyset, A^*\}).$$

(fails in general for the classes $BPol(\mathcal{G})$ and $BPol(\mathcal{G}^+)$).

Combined with the “ $MPol$ characterization” of the levels $\mathcal{B}\Sigma_n^2(<)$, this yields the Kuffleitner-Weil characterization:

$$\mathcal{B}\Sigma_n^2(<) = LP_n(BPol(\{\emptyset, A^*\})) \cap RP_n(BPol(\{\emptyset, A^*\})) \quad \text{for all } n \geq 1.$$

To conclude : another fun result about *MPol*

- ▶ Reminder: $LP_n(\mathcal{C})$ and $RP_n(\mathcal{C})$ are incomparable in general.
- ▶ \Rightarrow let's look at the least Boolean algebra containing both classes:

we write it $LP_n(\mathcal{C}) \vee RP_n(\mathcal{C})$.

To conclude : another fun result about *MPol*

- ▶ Reminder: $LP_n(\mathcal{C})$ and $RP_n(\mathcal{C})$ are incomparable in general.
- ▶ \Rightarrow let's look at the least Boolean algebra containing both classes:

we write it $LP_n(\mathcal{C}) \vee RP_n(\mathcal{C})$.

Theorem: joined levels can be climbed with *MPol* (P.'22)

For every class \mathcal{C} and $n \geq 1$,

$$LP_{n+1}(\mathcal{C}) \vee RP_{n+1}(\mathcal{C}) = MPol(LP_n(\mathcal{C}) \vee RP_n(\mathcal{C})).$$

To conclude : another fun result about *MPol*

- ▶ Reminder: $LP_n(\mathcal{C})$ and $RP_n(\mathcal{C})$ are incomparable in general.
- ▶ \Rightarrow let's look at the least Boolean algebra containing both classes:

we write it $LP_n(\mathcal{C}) \vee RP_n(\mathcal{C})$.

Theorem: joined levels can be climbed with *MPol* (P.'22)

For every class \mathcal{C} and $n \geq 1$,

$$LP_{n+1}(\mathcal{C}) \vee RP_{n+1}(\mathcal{C}) = MPol(LP_n(\mathcal{C}) \vee RP_n(\mathcal{C})).$$

\Rightarrow Membership is decidable for **all** levels $LP_n(\mathcal{C}) \vee RP_n(\mathcal{C})$ as soon as this is the case for the first one (*i.e.*, $LP_1(\mathcal{C}) \vee RP_1(\mathcal{C})$).

Conclusion

The story ends here today (for a **group class** \mathcal{G})

Logic	Operator
first-order logic: $\text{FO}(<, \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{G}})$	star-free closure: $\text{SF}(\mathcal{G})$
$\mathcal{B}\Sigma_1(<, \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{G}})$ and $\mathcal{B}\Sigma_1(<, +1, \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{G}})$	$\text{BPol}(\mathcal{G})$ and $\text{BPol}(\mathcal{G}^+)$
two-variable first-order logic: $\text{FO}^2(<, \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{G}})$ and $\text{FO}^2(<, +1, \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{G}})$	$\text{UPol}(\text{BPol}(\mathcal{G}))$ and $\text{UPol}(\text{BPol}(\mathcal{G}^+))$
FO^2 hierarchy: all levels $\mathcal{B}\Sigma_n^2(<, \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{G}})$ and $\mathcal{B}\Sigma_n^2(<, +1, \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{G}})$	start from $\text{BPol}(\mathcal{G})$ and $\text{BPol}(\mathcal{G}^+)$, climb with MPol

In **all cases**, membership decidable if **\mathcal{G} -separation decidable**.

Thank you !