# Undecidability of finite convergence for concatenation, insertion and bounded shuffle operators\*

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#### Abstract

The k-insertion and shuffle operations on formal languages have been extensively studied in the computer science and control systems literature. These operations can be viewed as purely abstract, as representations of biological processes or as models of the interleavings of concurrent processes. Questions naturally arise about closure and decidability. Many have been previously answered, especially as regards closure and non-closure of these operations on regular and context free languages. Here we will show the undecidability of a number of problems concerning the interaction of regular and context free languages under insertion and bounded shuffle, and the interaction of context free languages under self insertion and self bounded shuffle. Most of these proofs are consequences of the fact that the problem to decide if a Turing machine has an upper limit on execution time, independent of input, is undecidable.

*Keywords:* Concatenation; Shuffle and insertion operators; Bounded shuffle; Self insertion and self shuffle; Context free languages; Regular languages; Mortality; Constant execution time; Undecidability

# 1 Introduction

Define the *k*-insertion operation  $\triangleright^{[k]}$  on pairs of languages over some alphabet  $\Sigma$  by  $\mathbf{A} \triangleright^{[k]} \mathbf{B} = \{ \mathbf{x_1 y_1 x_2 y_2 \dots x_k y_k x_{k+1} \mid y_1 y_2 \dots y_k \in \mathbf{A}, \mathbf{x_1 x_2 \dots x_k x_{k+1} \in \mathbf{B}, x_i, y_j \in \Sigma^* \}$ Read  $\triangleright^{[k]}$  as "A k-insert into B". If  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{B}$ , we refer to the operation as *k*-self insertion. When  $\mathbf{k} = \mathbf{1}$ , the superscript will be omitted; we will then refer to the operations simply as insertion and self insertion, respectively.

The insertion operation merely splits elements of **A** into **k** parts, and then breaks an element of **B** apart into **k+1** segments, so there are **k** places into which the parts of the **A** element can be inserted. This is done for all elements of **A** and **B** and for all possible ways to segment and then merge these elements according to the above rules. This means that we could choose to break the element of **B** so that we keep it intact and consider the **k** insert points to be at the start of the **B** word. Thus, the concatenation of **A** with **B**, **A** • **B**, is contained in **A**  $\triangleright^{[k]}$  **B**, for all **k**.

Shuffle is an extension of insertion (or insertion is a simplification of shuffle). We define the *shuffle product* on pairs of languages over some alphabet  $\Sigma$  by  $\mathbf{A} \diamond \mathbf{B} = \bigcup_{j \ge 1} \mathbf{A} \triangleright^{[j]} \mathbf{B}$ . Since a **k**+1 insert always includes all the strings in a **k** insert, one is tempted to define shuffle closure

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as  $\mathbf{A} \diamond \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{A} \triangleright^{[k]} \mathbf{B}$ , where **k** is the smallest integer greater than 1 such that  $\mathbf{A} \triangleright^{[k]} \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{A} \triangleright^{[k+1]} \mathbf{B}$ . The problem is that such a finite **k** might not exist. In fact, in this paper we will show that it is undecidable to determine whether or not such a **k** exists, when **A** is either regular or context free, and **B** is context free. One may define a *bounded shuffle* operation  $\mathbf{A} \diamond^{[k]} \mathbf{B} = \bigcup_{1 \le j \le k} \mathbf{A} \triangleright^{[j]} \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{A} \triangleright^{[k]} \mathbf{B}$ , but it is easily seen that  $\mathbf{A} \diamond^{[k]} \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{A} \triangleright^{[k]} \mathbf{B}$ , which shows that this operation reduces to **k**-insertion.

The shuffle operation [1] and the more primitive insertion operator [22] have been studied extensively in the computer science literature due to their inherent mathematical interest and their relation to other problems, such as interleaved execution in concurrent systems. More recently, these operations have become of interest in molecular computing, with the proof that contextual insertions and deletions are sufficient to simulate Turing machines, showing the computational completeness of molecular systems based on these two simple operations alone [6], [19].

Issues of closure of classes of languages under the insertion and shuffle operations have been addressed in many papers including [3], [14], [15], [16], [19], [22], with the closure properties of the related deletion operation addressed in [21]. Decidability properties were considered in [19] for shuffle and in [7] for deletion. A comprehensive presentation of these topics and a more complete discussion of the notation used here may be found in [13].

# 2 Undecidability of convergence of simple self insertion

In [9], the authors presented a very simple proof that one cannot decide, for an arbitrary context free language L, whether or not  $\mathbf{L} \cdot \mathbf{L} = \mathbf{L}$ . The proof, repeated here, is the basis for our first undecidability result concerning insertion.

Theorem 1 (Hughes and Selkow [10]):

The problem to determine if  $\mathbf{L} = \Sigma^*$  is Turing reducible to the problem to decide if  $\mathbf{L} \bullet \mathbf{L} \subseteq \mathbf{L}$ , so long as  $\mathbf{L}$  is selected from a class of languages  $\mathfrak{C}$  over the alphabet  $\Sigma$  for which we can decide if  $\Sigma \cup \{\lambda\} \subseteq \mathbf{L}$ .

#### **Proof:**

Let L be an arbitrary language in  $\mathbb{C}$ . We claim that  $L = \Sigma^*$  iff

(1)  $\Sigma \cup {\lambda} \subseteq L$ ; and

(2)  $L \bullet L = L$ .

Clearly, if  $L = \Sigma^*$  then (1) and (2) trivially hold. Conversely, we have

$$\Sigma^* \subseteq L^{*=} \bigcup_{n \ge 0} L^n \subseteq L,$$

which shows that  $L = \Sigma^*$  (the first inclusion follows from (1), and the second one from (2)).

The above property (decidability of  $\Sigma \cup \{\lambda\} \subseteq L$ ) holds for the regular, context free and context sensitive classes of languages, but not for type 0, as that class's membership problem is undecidable. In general, this result holds so long as we can determine membership of strings of length at most one, that is, alphabetic characters and the empty string.

#### **Corollary 1:**

The problem "is  $\mathbf{L} \bullet \mathbf{L} = \mathbf{L}$ , for  $\mathbf{L}$  context free or context sensitive?" is undecidable.

## **Proof:**

This follows from the fact that the membership problem for context sensitive languages is decidable and the problem to decide if  $L = \Sigma^*$  is undecidable, for L a context free language.

We will now show the corresponding theorem for any operation,  $\otimes$ , that subsumes self concatenation, that is where  $\mathbf{L} \bullet \mathbf{L} \subseteq \mathbf{L} \otimes \mathbf{L}$ . The simplest form of insertion, self insertion, is such an operation, since  $\mathbf{L} \bullet \mathbf{L} \subseteq \mathbf{L} \triangleright \mathbf{L}$ .

## **Theorem 2:**

The problem to determine if  $\mathbf{L} = \Sigma^*$  is Turing reducible to the problem to decide if  $\mathbf{L} \otimes \mathbf{L} \subseteq \mathbf{L}$ , so long as  $\mathbf{L} \bullet \mathbf{L} \subseteq \mathbf{L} \otimes \mathbf{L}$  and  $\mathbf{L}$  is selected from a class of languages  $\mathfrak{C}$  over  $\Sigma$  for which we can decide if  $\Sigma \cup \{\lambda\} \subseteq \mathbf{L}$ .

## **Proof:**

Let **L** be an arbitrary language in  $\mathbb{C}$ . We claim that  $\mathbf{L} = \Sigma^*$  iff

(1)  $\Sigma \cup \{\lambda\} \subseteq L$  and

(2)  $L \otimes L \subseteq L$ .

Clearly, if  $L = \Sigma^*$  then (1) and (2) hold. The converse can be seen from

$$\Sigma^* \subseteq L^* = \cup_{n \ge 0} L^n \subseteq L.$$

The first inclusion follows from (1), and the second from (1), (2) and the fact that  $L \bullet L \subseteq L \otimes L$ .  $\Box$ 

# **Corollary 2:**

The problem "is  $L \triangleright L = L$ , for L context free or context sensitive?" is undecidable.

# **Proof:**

This follows from the fact that the membership problem for context sensitive languages is decidable and the problem to decide if  $L = \Sigma^*$  is undecidable, for L a context free language.

# **3 Mortality**

The *Mortality Problem* for Turing machines with an infinite input tape is the problem to determine, for an arbitrary machine **M**, whether or not **M** eventually halts no matter in what configuration it is started. This is not the *Halting Problem*, since it means that we cannot just consider well-behaved machines that always start in their start states, positioned to the right of their arguments and which always end up to the right of the answer, which immediately follows these arguments (a convention called *Standard Turing Computation*). It also means that we might start with an infinite number of marked squares on the tape, unlike a normal Turing machine, which must start with its tape only finitely marked.

As is commonly done with Turing machines, we can, without loss of generality, limit the tape alphabet to  $\{0,1\}$ , where 0 denotes a blank, and 1 is the only mark (non-blank). Using that limitation on the tape alphabet, consider a function to compute x+1 from x, using Standard

Turing Computation and unary representations of numbers. Such a machine could copy its one argument to the immediate right of the original scanned square and then move to the end of the copy appending a **1**. This machine always halts if it is started on a finitely marked tape, with the Standard Turing conventions obeyed. In fact, it can be written so it will always halt so long as the tape is finitely marked, even if the machine is started in other than the correct state and other than on the correct square. However, this machine is not mortal since, for example, it would run forever if started just to the right of an infinite sequence of 1's; the copy operation could never end.

The Mortality Problem was shown to be undecidable by Hooper [8]. This problem, although known to be decidable for some models of computation other than Turing machines, has been shown to be undecidable for two-counter machines [2]. The undecidability of this problem has turned out to be very useful in showing undecidability results for dynamical systems [2], [4], [5]. Although this paper does not address such results, we strongly believe that the results shown here may have significant applications to these problems.

# 4 Constant time execution

A Turing machine,  $\mathbf{M}$ , is said to run in *constant time* if there is some finite positive integer  $\mathbf{s}$  such that  $\mathbf{M}$ , when started on any arbitrary finitely marked tape, executes at most  $\mathbf{s}$  steps before halting. Formally, the set of all such machines can be described as

Constant Time = { M |  $\exists s \forall C$  [ STP(C, M, s) ] }, where STP is the computable predicate that returns true if and only if **M**, when started in the configuration **C**, halts in no more than **s** steps. This **STP** function is the one used in standard proofs of the existence of a universal machine. It is actually primitive recursive, and hence always halts no matter what input it is given. When one looks at this description of the set Constant Time, it may seem that the problem of membership is not recursively enumerable since there are two alternating unbounded quantifiers. This is, however, deceptive, since in time s we cannot navigate over more than s tape squares. Thus,  $\forall C$ can be replaced by the bounded version  $\forall C | C | \leq s$ , where |C| means the number of tape squares in C. This then reduces the predicate to a single unbounded existential quantifier, showing the problem to be recursively enumerable. Intuitively, we can check to see if the machine always halts in at most 1 step by writing down all configurations with one square (the scanned one) and an arbitrary state. If **M** halts in all cases, then it runs in constant time of 1. If this fails, then try all configuration of length at most 2. Continue this process, successively increasing the configuration length until a value is found for which M halts on all configurations of no greater length. This is guaranteed to halt if  $M \in Constant$  Time. If, however, M is not in this set, then the procedure we just described runs forever. Thus, Constant Time is semi-decidable (equivalently, recursively enumerable).

The undecidability of **Constant\_Time** was shown in [10] in 1981, but this result has remained essentially unknown, perhaps because the paper's primary goal was showing a formal languages result, with **Constant\_Time** being a vehicle to attain that result. In any case, we will outline the proof from that paper, since this is the key result we need to show the undecidability of a number of properties of the insertion and shuffle operations.

Consider an arbitrary Turing machine M operating on a finitely marked tape. If  $M \in Constant_Time$ , then M clearly is mortal since it would never care about infinite

markings, always stopping after some fixed number of steps, s, no matter what is on the tape. If, on the other hand,  $M \notin Constant_Time$ , then there are three cases we must consider. (1) M, starting on some finite C, loops within some finite set of configurations; or (2) M, starting on some finite C, runs forever without repeating any previously visited configuration; or

(3) M halts on all finite configurations, but there is no fixed maximum running time. If either of cases (1) or (2) holds, then M is not mortal. For the other case, we need to start with a simple notation. Define  $\mathcal{I}$  to be a set of configurations such that if  $C \in \mathcal{I}$  then M will scan all squares of C before it scans a square that is not part of C. Let  $\{q_1, q_2, ..., q_m\}$  be the states of M. We create a tree as follows. The root is an abstract node without a label. Its children are the m nodes labeled with each of the states of M,  $q_i$ , one node per state. If  $C_0$ ,  $C_1 \in \mathcal{I}$  and  $q_j$  is a symbol of  $C_0$  and  $C_1$ , and  $C_1 = \alpha C_0$  or  $C_1 = C_0 \alpha$ , where  $\alpha$  is a tape symbol (0 or 1), then  $C_0$  is the parent of  $C_1$  in the subtree whose root is labeled  $q_j$ . Since C is not in Constant\_Time, but every finite configuration causes it to halt, at least one of the subtrees must be infinite. Since the degree of each node is finite (all but the root have degree at most 2, and the root has degree m), König's Infinity Lemma states that at least one of the trees must have an infinite branch. Therefore, there must exist an infinite configuration that causes M to travel an infinite distance on the tape. It follows that M is immortal.

#### Theorem 3 (Hughes and Selkow [10]):

The set of mortal Turing machines is precisely the same as the set of Constant Running Time Turing machines.

**Theorem 4** (Hooper [8]; Hughes and Selkow [10]):

The set of Constant Running Time Turing machines is recursively enumerable, non-recursive.

# 5 Valid traces and false traces of Turing computation

Turing machine computations are often represented by traces. A trace displays successive configurations, where configuration i+1 in the trace is the immediate successor of configuration i. Such traces typically require separators between configurations, and often have every other configuration displayed as the reverse of the actual configuration string. The reason for the reversals is that a single step computation (2 successive configurations) can be expressed by a context free language. Expressing successive Turing configurations without the reversal requires a context sensitive grammar, although other forms of computation such as single letter, single premise Post Canonical Systems do not require string reversal (a configuration is just a single number in unary notation).

One form of a *valid trace* of computation by a Turing machine M is a word  $C_1 \# C_2^R \ C_3 \# C_4^R \dots \ C_{2k-1} \# C_{2k}^R \$ , where  $k \ge 1$  and  $C_i \Rightarrow_M C_{i+1}$ , for  $1 \le i < 2k$ . Here,  $\Rightarrow_M$  just means derive in M, and  $C^R$  means C with its characters reversed. An alternative notation, and the one primarily used in this paper is

observed in numerous other papers. Our use of many separators, #, @, ! and \$%, may seem to be overkill, but their uses will be evident in later proofs.

A *false trace* is a word that has the above form, but for which there is some  $i, 1 \le i < 2k$ , for which it is not the case that  $C_i \Rightarrow_M C_{i+1}$ . Realize that a false trace just requires one mistake, whereas a valid trace requires all pairs to be correct. It can and has been proven many times that valid traces are context sensitive, non-context free languages, but false traces are context free. The idea is that one error can be checked for non-deterministically by a PDA, but any correct trace with three or more configurations requires a more sophisticated store than is provided by a PDA.

The set of valid traces of constant time Turing machines has the interesting property of having a fixed bound on the number of configurations in any trace. That fixed value is the constant time. It is this feature that we will use here to prove the undecidability of determining convergent properties for shuffle and insertion. In fact, this is what was also used to prove that the *Finite Power Property* for context free languages is undecidable.

#### **Theorem 5** (Hughes and Selkow [9]):

The problem to determine, for an arbitrary context free language L, if there exist a finite n such that  $L^n = L^{n+1}$  is undecidable, where  $L^k$  is a shorthand for  $L \bullet L \bullet \dots \bullet L$ , where concatenation is repeated k times.

#### **Proof:**

The purpose for presenting this already-published proof is to provide context for later proofs. Part of that context will be seeing how much easier concatenation is than insertion; this realization will help the reader to understand the manner chosen for subsequent constructions. The notation for traces used here is the first form presented above.

We will show that for each Turing machine M we can define a language L such that M is in **Constant\_Time** iff there exists an **n** for which  $L^n = L^{n+1}$ . Let M be a Turing machine. Define the languages:

- 1.  $L_1 = \{ C_1 \# C_2 R \$ | C_1, C_2 \text{ are configurations } \},$
- 2.  $L_2 = \{ C_1 \# C_2^R \$ C_3 \# C_4^R \dots \$ C_{2k-1} \# C_{2k}^R \$ | \text{ where } k \ge 1 \text{ and, for some } i, 1 \le i \le 2k, \text{ it is not true that } C_i \Rightarrow_M C_{i+1}, \text{ for } 1 \le i \le 2 \},$
- 3.  $L = L_1 \cup L_2 \cup \{\lambda\}.$

It is easy to see that L is context free. Moreover, any product of  $L_1$  and  $L_2$ , which contains  $L_2$  at least once, is  $L_2$ . For instance,  $L_1 L_2 = L_2 L_1 = L_2 L_2 = L_2$ . This property shows that

 $(L_1 \cup L_2)^n = L_1^n \cup L_2$ . Thus,  $L^n = \{\lambda\} \cup L_1 \cup L_1^2 \dots \cup L_1^n \cup L_2$ . Analyzing  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  we see that  $L_1^n \cap L_2 \neq \emptyset$  just in case there is some word  $C_1 \# C_2^R \$ C_3 \# C_4^R \dots \$ C_{2n-1} \# C_{2n}^R \$$  in  $L_1^n$  which is not also in  $L_2$ . But this is so just in case there is some valid trace of length 2n. Clearly then, L has the finite power property if and only if M is in Constant\_Time.  $\Box$ 

# 6 Undecidability of convergence for limited shuffle and insertion of regular into context free

To simplify some of what follows, we will introduce a small amount of new notation. For languages L1, L2, define L1 (m)  $\triangleright^{[n]}$  L2 to be shorthand for the successive n-insertion set  $L1 \triangleright^{[n]}$  (L1  $\triangleright^{[n]}$  (L1  $\triangleright^{[n]}$  ... (L1  $\triangleright^{[n]}$  L))),

where this repetition occurs **m** times. More precisely:

- L1 (1)  $\triangleright^{[n]}$  L2 = L1  $\triangleright^{[n]}$  L2;
- L1 (k+1)  $\triangleright^{[n]}$  L2 = L1  $\triangleright^{[n]}$  (L1 (k)  $\triangleright^{[n]}$  L2).

The self insertion L (m)  $\triangleright^{[n]}$  L is simplified to L (m)  $\triangleright^{[n]}$ .

We also use a little more shorthand, letting  $\triangleright [1]$  be abbreviated  $\triangleright$  in all contexts. For example, L1 (m)  $\triangleright [1]$  L2 is abbreviated L1 (m)  $\triangleright L2$  and L (m)  $\triangleright [1]$  is abbreviated L (m)  $\triangleright$ .

# **Theorem 6:**

The problem to decide whether or not  $\exists m R (m) \triangleright L = R (m+1) \triangleright L$  is undecidable for L a context free language and R a regular language.

## **Proof:**

Let  $\mathbf{M} = (\mathbf{Q}, \{0, 1\}, \mathbf{T})$  be an arbitrary Turing Machine. Here  $\mathbf{Q}$  is the finite set of states,  $\mathbf{0}$  is the blank tape symbol,  $\mathbf{1}$  is the only non-blank tape symbol and  $\mathbf{T}$  is the set of 4-tuples (the rules in Post notation).

Consider the following four languages, two content free (L1 and L2) and two regular (L3 and R) over the alphabet  $\Sigma = (\{\#, \$, 1, 0\} \cup Q)$ 

- $L1 = \{ \#C_1 \#C_3 \# \dots \#C_{2k-1} @ \%^k \mid k \ge 1 \text{ and each } C_i, 1 \le i \le k, \text{ is a configuration of } M \}$ L1 is just strings that look like the starts of traces for M up to the @ center split and followed by separators for the even configurations of the trace.
- $L2 = \{ \#C_1 \#C_3 \# \dots \#C_{2k-1} @X_{2k} \% X_{2k-2} \% \dots X_2 \%, \text{ where } k \ge 1 \text{ and each } X_{2p} \text{ is either } empty \text{ or of the form } !C_{2p} R\$ \text{ and, for some } 1 \le i < 2k, \text{ it's false that } C_i \Rightarrow_M C_{i+1} \}$ L2 is similar to a false trace for M, with a twist. We allow some of the even configurations to

be missing; just including the %'s to stand in for these missing configurations. We still, however, require at least one even configuration to be there so we can have a derivation error.

 $L3 = \{ w \mid w \text{ has a single } @ \text{ and either (1) a ! precedes the } @; \text{ or (2) a ! without matching } \% \\ \text{ follows the } @ \text{ and a series of balanced } \% \text{ (empty) and ! ... } \% \text{ (configuration) segments } \\ R = \{ !C^R \} \mid C \text{ is a configuration of } M \} \cup \{ \lambda \}$ 

Context free grammars (L1 and L2) and regular expressions (L3) are shown in Figure 1. We use  $<A\_BadPairInM>$  for a set of rules that generates strings of the form C1 A C2<sup>R</sup> where it's false that C1  $\Rightarrow_M$  C2; and  $<A\_BadPairInMRev>$  for a set of rules that generates C1#C3 A X4<sup>R</sup>%!C2<sup>R</sup> where it's false that C2  $\Rightarrow_M$  C3; here A is a non-terminal, C1 is a

configuration, and X4 is either empty or of the form  $!C4^{R}$ , where C4 is a configuration. These latter two languages are known to be context free.

```
L1:
    S1
                        → # C S1 %
                           # C @ %
L2:
                       → # <Step1Error> %
    S2
                           # <C> S2' ! <CReversed> $%
                           # <C> S2' %
    S2'
                       → # <LaterError> %
                           # <C> S2' ! <CReversed> $%
                           # <C> S2' %
                       \rightarrow # <C> A ! <CReversed> $%
    GotError
                           # <C> A %
                           (a)
                       → < GotError BadPairInM>
    <Step1Error>
                       → < GotError BadPairInM>
    <LaterError>
                           < GotError BadPairInMRev>
C = ((1(0+1)^* + \lambda) Q (0+1) ((0+1)^* 1 + \lambda))
L3a = (0+1+\#+!+\$+Q)*!(0+1+\#+!+\$+Q)*(a)(0+1+\%+!+\$+Q)*
L3b = (\#C)^{+} (a) ((!C^{R} + \lambda))^{*} ((!C^{R})^{+} + ((0+1+Q)^{*} ! (0+1+Q)^{*} (!+\%) (0+1+\%+!+\$+Q)^{*})))
L3 = L2a + L3b
R1 = !C^{R} + \lambda
```

Figure 1: Grammars and regular expressions

Now, let  $L = L1 \cup L2 \cup L3$ .

It's possible to see that **R1** (1)  $\triangleright$  L = L  $\cup$  T1, where

T1 = {  $\#C_1 \#C_3 \# \dots \#C_{2k-1} @X_{2k} \% X_{2k-2} \% \dots X_2 \%$ , where  $k \ge 1$  and each  $X_{2p}$  is empty

except one that is of the form  $C_{2p}^{R}$  and either or both of the following hold,  $C_{2p-1} \Rightarrow_{M} C_{2p}$ ,

 $C_{2p} \Rightarrow_M C_{2p+1}$ , the second choice only being possible if p < k }

This can be explained by realizing the following:

- R1 ▷ L1 results in some string already in L2 or L3, plus strings in T1, if any exist. Inserting an element of R1 before the @ produces a string already in L3 (see L3a). Inserting it after the last % also produces an element in L3 (see L3b). Placing it before a % gets us an element that is either already in L2 (a trace error is produced) or an element in T1. Note that some exist in T1 if there are valid traces of length at least one.
- R1 ▷ L2 results in strings already in L2 or L3. The additions to L2 occur when the element of R1 is placed in an available slot (between the symbols @% or %%). This improves the appearance of the trace (filling in open slots), but does not change a false trace into a valid one (the error is still there). If the element of R1 is placed before the @, after the last #, or in the middle of a slot that was already taken, the result is a member of L3.
- R1 ▷ L3 results in strings already in L3. Elements of L3 cannot be repaired by insertions fromR1. That is critical to the effectiveness of our construction, and is the reason we used so many

separators. For instance, if we had omitted the \$, then elements of this new R1 could fix errors, e.g., by being inserted into an ill-formed slots that doesn't have a state symbol, fixing it and creating an element of **T1**. The problem is then that all valid traces could be created in just one step, destroying the connection between the number of insertion stages to reach convergence and the constant associated with execution time, should this machine M be a member of

# Constant Time.

The second insertion must deal with the fact that elements of **T1** with one correct configuration to the right of the (a) can be formed after the first insertion, but then that adds just one new type of string, members of T1 with one correct configuration to the right of the (a). Subsequent insertions have the similar property of adding one more correct configuration, if a valid trace of that length exists. Note that our inclusion of  $\lambda$  in **R1** lets us carry forward all the strings formed in early stages.

R1 (2)  $\triangleright$  L = L  $\cup$  { #C<sub>1</sub>#C<sub>3</sub># ...#C<sub>2k-1</sub>@X<sub>2k</sub>%X<sub>2k-2</sub>% ... X<sub>2</sub>%, where k  $\ge$  2 and each X<sub>2n</sub> is empty except two that are of the form  $C_{2p}R$  and either or both of the following hold,  $C_{2p-1} \Rightarrow_M C_{2p}, C_{2p} \Rightarrow_M C_{2p+1}$ , the second choice only being possible if p < k }

•••

R1 (j)  $\triangleright$  L = L  $\cup$  { #C<sub>1</sub>#C<sub>3</sub># ...#C<sub>2k-1</sub>@X<sub>2k</sub>%X<sub>2k-2</sub>% ... X<sub>2</sub>%, where k  $\ge$  j and each X<sub>2p</sub> is empty except j that are of the form  $C_{2p}^{R}$  and either or both of the following hold,  $C_{2p-1}$  $\Rightarrow_M C_{2p}, C_{2p} \Rightarrow_M C_{2p+1}$ , the second choice only being possible if p < k }

From this we see that if there is a fixed bound, K, on the number of steps for all computations in M and hence of the length of any valid trace, then R1 (K)  $\triangleright$  L = R1 (K+1)  $\triangleright$  L. If no such bound exists then there is always a longer trace than any fixed value, and hence there is no m, such that R1 (m)  $\triangleright$  L = R1 (m+1)  $\triangleright$  L.  $\Box$ 

# **Theorem 7:**

The problem to decide whether or not  $\exists n R_2 \diamond [n] L = R_2 \diamond [n+1] L$  is undecidable for L a context free language and R2 a regular language.

# **Proof:**

Based on an observation made earlier in this paper, we can recast this to the question  $\exists n R2 \triangleright [n] L = R2 \triangleright [n+1] L$ . This is possible since  $A \triangleright [k] B \subset A \triangleright [k+1] B$ . As we noted before, this substitution is only acceptable for bounded shuffle closure, not for the more standard unbounded shuffle closure operation. However, if there exists an **n**, as described in the theorem, then the unbounded shuffle closure,  $\mathbf{R2} \diamond \mathbf{L}$ , produces no more than  $\mathbf{R2} \diamond [n] \mathbf{L} = \mathbf{R2} \triangleright [n] \mathbf{L}$ .

We use the same notation and sets as in Theorem 6, except that

 $\mathbf{R2} = (\mathbf{!C})^+$ , or in terms of trace components,  $\mathbf{R2} = \{ \mathbf{C_1} : \mathbf{C_2} : \dots : \mathbf{C_k} \mid k \ge 1 \text{ and } \mathbf{C_i}, 1 \le i \le k, \text{ is a configuration of } \mathbf{M} \} \cup \{\lambda\}.$ 

With this simple change, we get the results that correspond to those seen before. That is,  $R2 \triangleright [1] L = R1 (1) \triangleright L$ 

 $R2 \triangleright [2] L = R1 (2) \triangleright L$ ...  $R2 \triangleright [j] L = R1 (j) \triangleright L$ 

The key here is that the value of **j** in  $\mathbf{R2} > [j] \mathbf{L}$  tells us how many segments into which we split an element of **R2**. These splits, when they occur at the right spots (just after each \$) in a string of the form  $(!C\$)^j$ , act like the **j**-th stage in the iterated insertion of Theorem 6. When the splits are made in the wrong places, or the word chosen from **R2** does not have precisely **j** configuration segments, we get garbage words that are already in **L3**.

From this we see that if there is a fixed bound, **K**, on the number of steps for all computations in **M** and hence of the length of any valid trace, then  $\mathbf{R2} \triangleright [K] \mathbf{L} = \mathbf{R2} \triangleright [K+1] \mathbf{L}$ . If no such bound exists then there is always a longer trace than any fixed value, and hence there is no **m**, such that  $\mathbf{R2} \triangleright [m] \mathbf{L} = \mathbf{R2} \triangleright [m+1] \mathbf{L}$ .  $\Box$ 

# 7 Undecidability of convergence for limited self shuffle and self insertion of context free

#### **Theorem 8:**

The problem to decide whether or not  $\exists m L(m) \triangleright = L(m+1) \triangleright$  is undecidable for L a context free language.

#### **Proof:**

We use the same notation and sets as in Theorem 6, except that

- L =  $L1 \cup L2 \cup L3 \cup L4 \cup L5 \cup R1$ , where L4 and L5 are the regular sets
- $L4 = \{ @, \#, !, \$, 0, 1 \} \cup Q \}^* @ \{ @, \#, !, \$, 0, 1 \} \cup Q \}^* @ \{ @, \#, !, \$, 0, 1 \} \cup Q )^*$

= { w | w is over ({@,#,!,\$,0,1}  $\cup$  Q) and has at least two occurrences of the symbol @ } and L5 = ! ({!,\$,0,1}  $\cup$  Q)\* ! ({!,\$,0,1}  $\cup$  Q)\*

= { w | w is over ({!,\$,0,1}  $\cup$  Q), starts with !, and has two !'s }

The only new interactions here over Theorem 6 are

- L1  $\triangleright$  L results in L1 plus strings already in L4
- $L2 \triangleright L$  results in L2 plus strings already in L4
- $L3 \triangleright L$  results in L3 plus strings already in L4
- $L4 \triangleright L$  results in strings already in L4
- $L5 \triangleright L$  results in L5 plus strings already in L3
- $R1 \triangleright R1$  results in R1 plus strings already in L5

From this we see that if there is a fixed bound, **K**, on the number of steps for all computations in **M** and hence of the length of any valid trace, then  $L(K) \triangleright = L(K+1) \triangleright$ . If no such bound exists then there is always a longer trace than any fixed value, and hence there is no **m**, such that  $L(m) \triangleright = L(m+1) \triangleright$ .  $\Box$ 

#### Theorem 9:

The problem to decide whether or not  $\exists n L \diamond [n] L = L \diamond [n+1] L$  is undecidable for L a context free language.

## **Proof:**

Again, based on an observation made earlier in this paper, we can recast this to the question  $\exists n \ L \triangleright [n] = L \triangleright [n+1]$ . Details of our reasoning can be found in the start of Theorem 7. We use the same notation and sets as in Theorem 7, except that

L =  $L1 \cup L2 \cup L3 \cup L4 \cup L6 \cup R2$ , where L6 is the regular set

 $L6 = ! (\{!,\$,0,1\} \cup Q)^* (\{!,0,1\} \cup Q) ! \{!,\$,0,1\} \cup Q)^* + !! (\{!,\$,0,1\} \cup Q)^*$ 

= { w | w is over ( $\{!,\$,0,1\} \cup Q$ ), starts with !, and has a later ! not immediately preceded by \$}

The only new interactions here over Theorem 7 are

L1  $\triangleright$  <sup>[k]</sup> L results in L1 plus strings already in L4

 $L2 \triangleright [k]$  L results in L2 plus strings already in L4

 $L3 \triangleright [k] L$  results in L3 plus strings already in L4

L4  $\triangleright$  [*k*] L results in strings already in L4

 $L6 \triangleright [k] L$  results in L6 plus strings already in L3

 $R2 \triangleright [k] R2$  results in R2 plus strings already in L6

From this we see that if there is a fixed bound, **K**, on the number of steps for all computations in **M** and hence of the length of any valid trace, then  $L \triangleright [k] = L \triangleright \triangleright [k+1]$ . If no such bound exists then there is always a longer trace than any fixed value, and hence there is no **m**, such that  $L \triangleright [m] = L \triangleright \triangleright [m+1]$ .

# 8 Conclusions and future avenues of investigation

We have shown the undecidability of a number of problems concerning the interaction of regular and context free languages under insertion and bounded shuffle, and the interaction of context free languages under self insertion and self bounded shuffle. All the problems addressed here are in some way connected to finite convergence, whether based on the number of iterations of a single insert or the degree of an insertion (the number of splits to a string in a single bounded shuffle).

While the application of these results is not addressed here, we believe that they are significant and important to the areas of concurrency, molecular computing, dynamical systems and evolutionary computing. Specifically, the inability to determine fixed finite convergence criteria is potentially important to areas where the interaction of a population with its own members, or the cross interactions with another population is one of the bases for evolution. A simple example of this can be seen by realizing that a generalization of the genetic algorithm crossover operation fits the characteristics of Theorem 2, where  $A \otimes B = \{ux, wv \mid uv \in A \text{ and } wx \in B\}$ , since  $L \bullet L \subseteq L \otimes L$ 

Finally, we believe that the proofs shown here, while not terribly complex, can be greatly simplified if the starting point were a model other than Turing machines. In particular, we

believe that Factor Replacement Systems, a simple form of the single premise, one-letter Post canonical systems, are the right starting point [9], [12]. Unfortunately, the constant-time execution property for this class of systems remains an open problem.

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