Inclusion Between the Frontier Language of a Non-Deterministic Recursive Program Scheme and the Dyck Language is Undecidable

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Abstract

In 1970's, Nivat studied recursive program schemes (a.k.a. order-1 higher-order recursion schemes in modern terminology), first-order tree grammars for generating possibly infinite trees. We consider the inclusion problem between the frontier language of a non-deterministic recursive program scheme (equivalently, an order-2 word language or indexed language) and the Dyck language, and prove that it is undecidable by a reduction from the undecidability of Hilbert’s 10th problem. Essentially the same result has recently been proved by Uezato and Minamide, but our proof is arguably more direct, demonstrating the expressive power of higher-order grammars.

Keywords: recursive program schemes, higher-order languages, Dyck language, Diophantine equations

1. Introduction

In 1970's, Nivat et al. [1, 2, 3, 4] studied recursive program schemes, first-order tree grammars that generate possibly infinite trees. They were later extended to higher-order ones (called higher-order recursion schemes or HORS in short, in modern terminology) [5, 6], and associated model checking problems (of checking whether the trees generated by HORS satisfy a given property) have been studied recently [7, 8, 9]. The studies on HORS model checking further laid a foundation for automated verification of higher-order programs [10, 11, 9, 12].

From a language-theoretic point of view (cf. the automata-theoretic approach to model checking [13, 14]), the HORS model checking problem may
be viewed as the inclusion problem (or the membership problem, if HORS is deterministic) between higher-order languages and \(\omega\)-regular word/tree languages. Since finite state model checking problems may be viewed as the inclusion problem between \(\omega\)-regular languages, HORS model checking may be considered an extension of finite state model checking, where the lefthand side of the language inclusion has been extended from regular (i.e. order-0) to higher-order languages. In contrast, extending the righthand side has been considered difficult. In fact, even the inclusion between regular and context-free languages is known to be undecidable [15]. A few positive results exist, however: the inclusion between context-free and superdeterministic languages is decidable [16]. Furthermore, as a special case, the inclusion between context-free languages and the Dyck language can be decided in polynomial time [17, 18]. A natural question is, therefore, whether these positive results can be extended to the case where the lefthand side is a higher-order language.

In the present article, we give a negative answer to the question above. More precisely, the inclusion problem: \(L \subseteq D\) is undecidable, where \(L\) is an order-2 word language (equivalently, the frontier language of a non-deterministic recursive program scheme) [6] and \(D\) is the Dyck language. The proof is based on a reduction from the undecidability of Hilbert’s 10th problem (i.e., unsolvability of Diophantine equations) [19]. Incidentally, the Dyck language was also the subject of studies of Nivat [20]. Since the class of order-2 word languages coincides with that of indexed languages [21], our result is essentially the same as that of Uezato and Minamide [22] on the undecidability of the inclusion between indexed languages and the Dyck language. Our proof is, however, arguably more direct.\(^1\)

The rest of this article is structured as follows. Section 2 reviews basic definitions. Sections 3 and 4 prove the main result stated above. Section 5 discusses related work and Section 6 concludes the article.

2. Preliminaries

We recall below the definition of (unsafe) non-deterministic higher-order recursion schemes [7, 8] as generators of word/tree languages, and the relationship with relevant notions, such as recursive program schemes studied

\(^1\)Actually, our result was announced earlier than theirs [22] through the unpublished manuscript titled “Balancedness of the Words Generated by a Recursion Scheme is Undecidable”, cited by [9]. The present paper is a revised version of the manuscript.
by Nivat et al. [1, 2, 3, 4] and high-level languages studied by Damm [6].

We write \( \text{dom}(f) \) for the domain of a map \( f \). For two maps \( f \) and 
\( g \) such that \( \text{dom}(f) \cap \text{dom}(g) = \emptyset \), we write \( f \cup g \) for the map \( h \) such that
\( \text{dom}(h) = \text{dom}(f) \cup \text{dom}(g) \), \( h(x) = f(x) \) for each \( x \in \text{dom}(f) \), and
\( h(x) = g(x) \) for each \( x \in \text{dom}(g) \). We write \( \{ x_1 \mapsto c_1, \ldots, x_k \mapsto c_k \} \)
for the map \( f \) such that \( \text{dom}(f) = \{ x_1, \ldots, x_k \} \) and \( f(x_i) = c_i \) for each
\( i \in \{ 1, \ldots, k \} \).

Let \( A \) be a ranked alphabet, i.e., a map from a finite set of symbols to the set \( \text{Nat} \) of natural numbers. For a symbol \( a \in \text{dom}(A) \), \( A(a) \) is called the
arity of \( a \). The set of \( A \)-labeled trees, denoted by \( \text{Tree}_A \), is inductively
defined by the rule: \( a T_1 \cdots T_k \in \text{Tree}_A \) if \( A(a) = k \) and \( T_1, \ldots, T_k \in \text{Tree}_A \)
(note that \( k \) may be 0; thus, \( a \in \text{Tree}_A \) if \( A(a) = 0 \)).

The set of types is given by:
\[
\kappa ::= \omega | \kappa_1 \rightarrow \kappa_2.
\]
Intuitively, the type \( \omega \) describes trees (or words, represented as unary trees),
and the type \( \kappa_1 \rightarrow \kappa_2 \) describes functions that take an element of type \( \kappa_1 \)
and return an element of type \( \kappa_2 \). The order of a type \( \kappa \), written \( \text{order}(\kappa) \)
is defined by:
\[
\text{order}(\omega) = 0 \quad \text{order}(\kappa_1 \rightarrow \kappa_2) = \max(\text{order}(\kappa_1) + 1, \kappa_2).
\]
As usual, we assume that \( \rightarrow \) is right-associative, so that \( \kappa_1 \rightarrow \kappa_2 \rightarrow \kappa_3 \)
means \( \kappa_1 \rightarrow (\kappa_2 \rightarrow \kappa_3) \). We often write \( \kappa^n \rightarrow \kappa' \) for \( \underbrace{\kappa \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow}_n \kappa \rightarrow \kappa' \). A type
environment is a map from a finite set of symbols to types. For a ranked
alphabet \( A \), we write \( \mathcal{K}_A \) for the type environment \( \{ a \mapsto \sigma^{A(a)} \rightarrow \omega | a \in \text{dom}(A) \} \). The set of applicative terms of type \( \kappa \) under a type environment \( \mathcal{K} \),
written \( \text{ATerms}_{\mathcal{K}, \kappa} \), is defined inductively by: (i) \( x \in \text{ATerms}_{\mathcal{K}, \kappa} \) if \( \mathcal{K}(x) = \kappa \), and (ii) \( t_1 t_2 \in \text{ATerms}_{\mathcal{K}, \kappa} \) if \( t_1 \in \text{ATerms}_{\mathcal{K}, \kappa \rightarrow \kappa_1} \) and \( t_2 \in \text{ATerms}_{\mathcal{K}, \kappa_1} \). When \( t \in \text{ATerms}_{\mathcal{K} \cup \{ x_1 \rightarrow \kappa_1, \ldots, x_k \rightarrow \kappa_k \}, \kappa} \)
and \( t_i \in \text{ATerms}_{\mathcal{K}, \kappa_i} \) for each \( i \in \{ 1, \ldots, k \} \), we write \( [t_1/x_1, \ldots, t_k/x_k] t \in \text{ATerms}_{\mathcal{K}, \kappa} \) for the
applicative term obtained from \( t \) by simultaneously replacing each occurrence of \( x_i \)
with \( t_i \). When \( t_1 \in \text{ATerms}_{\mathcal{K}, \kappa} \) and \( t_2 \in \text{ATerms}_{\mathcal{K}, \kappa} \), we often write \( t_1 t_2 \) for the term \( t_1 (\cdots (t_1 t_2) \cdots) \). We assume that there exists a countably
infinite set \( V \) of variables.

**Definition 1.** A (non-deterministic) higher-order recursion scheme (HORS, for short) \( G \) is a quadruple \( (A, \mathcal{N}, \mathcal{R}, S) \), where
• $\mathcal{A}$ is a ranked alphabet. We call an element of $\text{dom}(\mathcal{A})$ a terminal symbol.

• $\mathcal{N}$ is a map from a finite set of symbols called non-terminals to types. We use metavariables $F,G,\ldots$ for non-terminals.

• $\mathcal{R}$ is a set of rewrite rules of the form $Fx_1\cdots x_k \rightarrow t$, where $x_1,\ldots,x_k \in \mathcal{V}$, $\mathcal{N}(F) = \kappa_1 \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow \kappa_k \rightarrow o$, and $t \in \text{ATerms}_{\mathcal{K},\mathcal{A} \cup N \cup \{x_1 \mapsto \kappa_1,\ldots,x_k \mapsto \kappa_k\}, o}$ for some $\kappa_1,\ldots,\kappa_k$.

• $S$, called the start symbol, is a non-terminal such that $\mathcal{N}(S) = o$.

The order of a HORS is the largest order of the types of non-terminals.

A rewriting relation $t \xrightarrow{G} t'$, where $t,t' \in \text{ATerms}_{\mathcal{K},\mathcal{A} \cup N, o}$, is defined by: (i) $Ft_1\cdots t_k \xrightarrow{G} [t_1/x_1,\ldots,t_k/x_k]t$ if $Fx_1\cdots x_k \rightarrow t \in \mathcal{R}$; and (ii) $at_1\cdots t_i\cdots t_k \xrightarrow{G} at_1\cdots t'_i\cdots t_k$ if $t_i \xrightarrow{G} t'_i$.

The tree language of $G$, written by $\mathcal{TL}(G)$, is defined by:

$$\mathcal{TL}(G) = \{T \in \text{Tree}_\mathcal{A} | S \xrightarrow{G}^* T\}.$$

Given a HORS $G$, we sometimes refer to the four components of $G$ by $\mathcal{A}_G, \mathcal{N}_G, \mathcal{R}_G$, and $S_G$. An order-1 HORS is just a non-deterministic recursive program scheme studied by Arnold and Nivat [3] (though they considered non-deterministic recursive program schemes also as generators of infinite trees; see Section 5).

In the present article, we are only interested in HORS's as generators of word languages. There are two ways to define the word language generated by a HORS [6]. One is via the so called front operation [6]. For a tree $T$, we define $\text{front}(T) \in \{a | \mathcal{A}(a) = 0\}^*$ inductively by: (i) $\text{front}(a) = a$ if $\mathcal{A}(a) = 0$, and (ii) $\text{front}(aT_1\cdots T_k) = \text{front}(T_1)\cdots\text{front}(T_k)$. Then, the frontier language of $G$, written $\mathcal{FL}(G)$, is defined by:

$$\mathcal{FL}(G) = \{\text{front}(T) | T \in \mathcal{TL}(G)\}.$$

The other way is to consider paths. When the arity of each terminal symbol of a HORS $G$ is at most 1, for each (unary) tree $T \in \text{Tree}_{\mathcal{A}_G}$, we define $\text{path}(T)$ inductively by: (i) $\text{path}(a) = \epsilon$ if $\mathcal{A}(a) = 0$ and (ii) $\text{path}(aT) = a\text{path}(T)$ if $\mathcal{A}(a) = 1$. The word (or path) language generated by $G$ is defined by:

$$\mathcal{L}(G) = \{\text{path}(T) | T \in \mathcal{TL}(G)\}.$$

Henceforth, we call the word language generated by an order-$k$ HORS an order-$k$ word language.
Example 1. Consider the order-1 HORS $G_1 = (\{\text{br} \mapsto 2, a \mapsto 0, b \mapsto 0, c \mapsto 0\}, \mathcal{N}, \mathcal{R}, S)$ where

$$\mathcal{N} = \{ S \mapsto o, F : o \rightarrow o \rightarrow o \rightarrow o \}$$

$$\mathcal{R} = \{ S \rightarrow F \ a \ b \ c, \ F \ x \ y \ z \rightarrow \text{br} \ x \ (\text{br} \ y \ z), \ F \ x \ y \ z \rightarrow F \ (\text{br} \ a \ x) \ (\text{br} \ b \ y) \ (\text{br} \ c \ z) \}.$$

We can rewrite $S$ as follows.

$$S \rightarrow F \ a \ b \ c \rightarrow^* F \ ((\text{br} \ a)^{m-1}a) \ ((\text{br} \ b)^{m-1}b) \ ((\text{br} \ c)^{m-1}c) \rightarrow^* \text{br} \ ((\text{br} \ a)^{m-1}a) \ (\text{br} \ ((\text{br} \ b)^{m-1}b) \ ((\text{br} \ c)^{m-1}c))$$

Thus, $FL(G_1) = \{a^m b^m c^m \mid m \geq 1\}$. □

Example 2. Consider the order-2 HORS $G_2 = (\{a \mapsto 1, b \mapsto 1, c \mapsto 1, e \mapsto 0\}, \mathcal{N}, \mathcal{R}, S)$ where

$$\mathcal{N} = \{ S \mapsto o, F : o \rightarrow o \rightarrow o \rightarrow o \rightarrow o, \ C : o \rightarrow o \rightarrow o \rightarrow o \rightarrow o \}$$

$$\mathcal{R} = \{ S \rightarrow F \ a \ b \ c, \ F \ x \ y \ z \rightarrow x(y(z \ e)), \ F \ x \ y \ z \rightarrow F \ (C \ a \ x) \ (C \ b \ y) \ (C \ c \ z), \ C \ x \ y \ w \rightarrow x(y \ w) \}.$$

We can rewrite $S$ as follows.

$$S \rightarrow F \ a \ b \ c \rightarrow^* F \ (((C \ a)^{m-1}a) \ ((C \ b)^{m-1}b) \ ((C \ c)^{m-1}c) \rightarrow^* (C \ a)^{m-1}a) \ ((C \ b)^{m-1}b) \ ((C \ c)^{m-1}c) e) \rightarrow^* a^m (b^m (c^m e)).$$

Thus, $L(G_2) = \{a^m b^m c^m \mid m \geq 1\}$. □

We summarize below known relationships between order-$k$ word languages and other notions of word languages.

- The class of order-$k$ word languages includes that of Damm’s level-$k$ OI languages [6]. In fact, the definition is almost identical except the subtle condition on “safety” (we do not discuss the safety condition here; see, e.g., [23]). The two classes coincide [24] up to order-2, but it is open whether the inclusion is strict for order-3 or higher.

- The classes of order-0, order-1, and order-2 word languages respectively coincide with those of regular, context-free, and indexed languages [6, 25].
• For $k \geq 1$, the class of order-$k$ word languages that do not contain the empty word $\epsilon$ coincides with the class of frontier languages of order-$(k-1)$ HORS’s [6, 26]. In particular, the class of order-2 word languages that do not contain $\epsilon$ coincides with the class of frontier languages of non-deterministic recursive program schemes. Furthermore, given an order-$k$ HORS $G$ with a ranked alphabet consisting of symbols of arity at most 1, an order-$(k-1)$ HORS $G'$ such that $FL(G') = L(G) \setminus \{\epsilon\}$ can be effectively constructed, and vice versa [26].

We consider the inclusion problem between an order-$k$ word language and the Dyck language $D$, i.e., the set of well-bracketed words. In this article, we write $a$ and $b$ for left and right brackets.

**Definition 2 (Dyck language).** We write $\#_a(w)$ ($\#_b(w)$, resp.) for the number of occurrences of $a$ ($b$, resp.) in $w$. The Dyck language, written $D$, is the set of words $w \in \{a, b\}^*$ such that (i) $\#_a(w) = \#_b(w)$, and (ii) for every prefix $v$ of $w$, $\#_a(v) \geq \#_b(v)$.

The following property, which we use later, follows immediately from the definition.

**Fact 1.** Let $p$ and $q$ be natural numbers. $a^pb^qa^qb^p \not\in D$ if and only if $p < q$.

### 3. Main Result

This section proves the undecidability of the inclusion problem between an order-2 word language and the Dyck language (Theorem 3 below). The proof uses the following lemma, whose proof is deferred to Section 4.

**Lemma 2.** Let $P_i(x_1, \ldots, x_m)(i \in \{1, 2, 3, 4\})$ be polynomials with non-negative integer coefficients. Then, one can effectively construct an order-2 HORS $G$ such that

$$L(G) = \{a^{P_1(x_1, \ldots, x_m)}b^{P_2(x_1, \ldots, x_m)}a^{P_3(x_1, \ldots, x_m)}b^{P_4(x_1, \ldots, x_m)} | x_1, \ldots, x_m \in \text{Nat}\}.$$

**Theorem 3.** The decision problem “Given an order-$k$ HORS $G$, does $L(G) \subseteq D$ hold?” is undecidable for $k \geq 2$.

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2Note that by the definition, $FL(G)$ does not contain $\epsilon$. 
Proof. The proof is by reduction from the undecidability of Hilbert’s 10th problem (i.e., the unsolvability of Diophantine equations) [19]. Let $D(x_1, \ldots, x_m)$ be a polynomial (possibly with both positive and negative integer coefficients). Then, we have $D(x_1, \ldots, x_m) = 0$ if and only if $D(x_1, \ldots, x_m)^2 - 1 < 0$. $D(x_1, \ldots, x_m)^2 - 1$ can be represented in the form $P(x_1, \ldots, x_m) - Q(x_1, \ldots, x_m)$ by using polynomials $P$ and $Q$ with non-negative integer coefficients. For such polynomials $P$ and $Q$, $D(x_1, \ldots, x_m) = 0$ has a solution (in natural numbers) if and only if $P(x_1, \ldots, x_m) < Q(x_1, \ldots, x_m)$ has a solution.

By Lemma 2, one can construct an order-2 HORS $G$ such that:

$$\mathcal{L}(G) = \{a^{P(x_1, \ldots, x_m)}b^{Q(x_1, \ldots, x_m)}a^{Q(x_1, \ldots, x_m)}b^{P(x_1, \ldots, x_m)} \mid x_1, \ldots, x_m \in \text{Nat}\}.$$  

By Fact 1, $\mathcal{L}(G) \subseteq D$ if and only if $\exists x_1, \ldots, x_m \in \text{Nat}. P(x_1, \ldots, x_m) < Q(x_1, \ldots, x_m)$, and if and only if $\exists x_1, \ldots, x_m \in \text{Nat}. D(x_1, \ldots, x_m) = 0$. Since the last property is undecidable [19], so is $\mathcal{L}(G) \subseteq D$. □

By slightly modifying the proof of the theorem above, we also obtain the following variations.

**Theorem 4.** Let $L_1 = \{w \in \{a, b\}^* \mid \#_a(w) \geq \#_b(w)\}$ and $L_2 = \{w \in \{a, b\}^* \mid \#_a(w) \neq \#_b(w)\}$. The decision problems: $\mathcal{L}(G) \subseteq L_1$ and $\mathcal{L}(G) \subseteq L_2$ are undecidable for order-2 HORS $G$.

Proof. For $\mathcal{L}(G) \subseteq L_1$, prepare the same polynomials $P$ and $Q$ as those in the proof of Theorem 3. By Lemma 2, one can construct an order-2 HORS $G$ such that:

$$\mathcal{L}(G) = \{a^{P(x_1, \ldots, x_m)}b^{Q(x_1, \ldots, x_m)} \mid x_1, \ldots, x_m \in \text{Nat}\}$$

(let the polynomials $P_1, P_2, P_3$ and $P_4$ be $P$, $Q$, 0 and 0 respectively). Then, $D(x_1, \ldots, x_m) = 0$ is not satisfiable if and only if $P(x_1, \ldots, x_m) \geq Q(x_1, \ldots, x_m)$ for all $x_1, \ldots, x_m \in \text{Nat}$, if and only if $\mathcal{L}(G) \subseteq L_1$. For $\mathcal{L}(G) \subseteq L_2$, let $P(x_1, \ldots, x_m)$ and $Q(x_1, \ldots, x_m)$ be polynomials with non-negative coefficients such that $D(x_1, \ldots, x_m) = P(x_1, \ldots, x_m) - Q(x_1, \ldots, x_m)$, and construct an order-2 HORS $G$ such that:

$$\mathcal{L}(G) = \{a^{P(x_1, \ldots, x_m)}b^{Q(x_1, \ldots, x_m)} \mid x_1, \ldots, x_m \in \text{Nat}\}.$$  

Then, $D(x_1, \ldots, x_m) = 0$ is not satisfiable if and only if $\mathcal{L}(G) \subseteq L_2$. □

**Remark 1.** We do not know whether the following problem is decidable for order-2 HORS $G$.

$$\mathcal{L}(G) \subseteq \{w \in \{a, b\}^* \mid \#_a(w) = \#_b(w)\}.$$
4. Proof of Lemma 2

To clarify the idea of the construction of a HORS that satisfies the property of Lemma 2, we first give an order-3 HORS that generates the same word language:

\[ L_0 = \{ a^{P_1(x_1, \ldots, x_m)} b^{P_2(x_1, \ldots, x_m)} a^{P_3(x_1, \ldots, x_m)} b^{P_4(x_1, \ldots, x_m)} \mid x_1, \ldots, x_m \in \text{Nat} \}. \]

We then modify the construction to obtain an order-2 HORS that generates the same language.

The idea of the first part is to construct a HORS that corresponds to the following grammar, which uses natural numbers and operations on them in addition to ordinary primitives for HORS.

\[
\begin{align*}
S & \rightarrow F \ 0 \ \cdots \ 0. \\
F \ x_1 \ \cdots \ x_m & \rightarrow G \ x_1 \ \cdots \ x_m. \\
F \ x_1 \ \cdots \ x_m & \rightarrow F \ (x_1 + 1) \ x_2 \ \cdots \ x_m. \\
\cdots & \\
F \ x_1 \ \cdots \ x_m & \rightarrow F \ x_1 \ x_2 \ \cdots \ (x_m + 1). \\
G \ x_1 \ \cdots \ x_m & \rightarrow A_{P_1} \ x_1 \ \cdots \ x_m (B_{P_2} \ x_1 \ \cdots \ x_m (A_{P_3} \ x_1 \ \cdots \ x_m (B_{P_4} \ x_1 \ \cdots \ x_m e))). \\
A_{P_1} \ x_1 \ \cdots \ x_m \ y & \rightarrow a^{P_1(x_1, \ldots, x_m)}(y). \\
B_{P_2} \ x_1 \ \cdots \ x_m \ y & \rightarrow b^{P_2(x_1, \ldots, x_m)}(y). \\
A_{P_3} \ x_1 \ \cdots \ x_m \ y & \rightarrow a^{P_3(x_1, \ldots, x_m)}(y). \\
B_{P_4} \ x_1 \ \cdots \ x_m \ y & \rightarrow b^{P_4(x_1, \ldots, x_m)}(y).
\end{align*}
\]

By using the rules for \( S \) and \( F \), we can rewrite \( S \) to \( G \ n_1 \ \cdots \ n_m \) for any natural numbers \( n_1, \ldots, n_m \). The term \( G \ n_1 \ \cdots \ n_m \) can then be rewritten to:

\[
a^{P_1(n_1, \ldots, n_m)} (b^{P_2(n_1, \ldots, n_m)} (a^{P_3(n_1, \ldots, n_m)} (b^{P_4(n_1, \ldots, n_m)} e))),
\]

by using the rules for \( G, A_{P_1}, B_{P_2}, A_{P_3}, \) and \( B_{P_4} \). Thus, the above rewriting rules generate the language \( L_0 \).

It remains to remove operations on natural numbers, which can be easily performed in the order-3 case, by using the Church encoding:

\[
\begin{align*}
Zero \ x \ y & \rightarrow y. \\
Succ \ n \ x \ y & \rightarrow n \ x \ (x \ y). \\
Plus \ m \ n \ x \ y & \rightarrow m \ x \ (n \ x \ y). \\
Mult \ m \ n \ x \ y & \rightarrow m \ (n \ x) \ y.
\end{align*}
\]

Here, non-terminals have the following types:

\[
\begin{align*}
Zero : \ & \text{nat} \\
Succ : \ & \text{nat} \rightarrow \text{nat} \\
Plus, Mult : \ & \text{nat} \rightarrow \text{nat} \rightarrow \text{nat}
\end{align*}
\]
where \texttt{nat} is an abbreviation of \((\mathbf{0} \rightarrow \mathbf{0}) \rightarrow \mathbf{0} \rightarrow \mathbf{0}\). (Note that since HORS must be simply-typed, not all operations on natural numbers can be represented as non-terminals; for example, we cannot express subtraction.) By using the encodings above, we can replace 0 and \(x_i\) with Zero and \(\text{Succ } x_i\) respectively. We can also define non-terminals \(P'_i\) \((i \in \{1, 2, 3, 4\})\) such that \(P'_i x_1 \ldots x_m y z, \ldots\) reduces to \(y^{P_i(x_1, \ldots, x_m)}(z)\). For example, if \(m = 2\) and \(P_i(x_1, x_2) = x_1^2 + x_2\), then \(P'_i\) can be defined by:

\[
P'_i x_1 x_2 y z \rightarrow \text{Plus}(\text{Mult } x_1 x_1) x_2 y z.
\]

Thus, the rules for \(A_{P_1}, B_{P_2}, A_{P_3}, B_{P_4}\) can be replaced with:

\[
A_{P_1} x_1 \ldots x_m z \rightarrow P'_i x_1 \ldots x_m a y.
\]

\[
B_{P_2} x_1 \ldots x_m z \rightarrow P'_i x_1 \ldots x_m b y.
\]

\[
A_{P_3} x_1 \ldots x_m z \rightarrow P'_i x_1 \ldots x_m a y.
\]

\[
B_{P_4} x_1 \ldots x_m z \rightarrow P'_i x_1 \ldots x_m b y.
\]

The resulting rewriting rules form an order-3 HORS, which generates the language \(L_0\).

We now modify the above construction to obtain an order-2 HORS that generates the same language. The idea is, instead of passing the values of \(x_1, \ldots, x_m\) (of type \texttt{nat} = \((\mathbf{0} \rightarrow \mathbf{0}) \rightarrow \mathbf{0} \rightarrow \mathbf{0}\)) as parameters of \(F\), to pass \(\lambda y. a^{x_1^{k_1} \ldots x_m^{k_m}}(y)\) (abbreviated to \(a^{x_1^{k_1} \ldots x_m^{k_m}}\) below) and \(\lambda y. b^{x_1^{k_1} \ldots x_m^{k_m}}(y)\), of type \(\mathbf{0} \rightarrow \mathbf{0}\). For example, if \(m = 1\), \(P_1(x) = P_4(x) = x^2 + 2\) and \(P_2(x) = P_3(x) = 2x^2 + 1\), then we pass \(a^{x^2}, a^{x^1}(= a), a^{x^0}(= a), b^{x^2}, b^{x^1}\) and \(b^{x^0}\) to \(F\) for each natural number \(x\). Thus, in this case, an order-2 HORS that generates \(L_0\) is given by:

\[
S \rightarrow \text{II} \text{I} \text{a} \text{I} \text{b}.
\]

\[
F v_{x_2} v_{x_1} w_{x_2} w_{x_1} w_1 \rightarrow G v_{x_2} v_{x_1} w_{x_2} w_{x_1} w_1.
\]

\[
F v_{x_2} v_{x_1} w_{x_2} w_{x_1} w_1 \rightarrow F(A_{(x+1)^2} v_{x_2} v_{x_1} v_1 (A_{(x+1)^2} v_{x_2} w_{x_2} w_{x_1} (A_{(x+1)^2} v_{x_2} v_{x_1} w_1)) w_1.
\]

\[
i y \rightarrow y.
\]

\[
A_{(x+1)^2} z_{x_2} z_{x_1} y \rightarrow z_{x_2}(z_{x_1}(z_1 y)).
\]

\[
A_{x_2+1} z_{x_2} z_{x_1} y \rightarrow z_{x_2}(z_{x_1}(z_1 y)).
\]

\[
G v_{x_2} v_{x_1} w_{x_2} w_{x_1} w_1 \rightarrow P_1 v_{x_2} v_{x_1} (P_2 w_{x_2} w_{x_1} w_1)(P_2 v_{x_2} v_{x_1} (P_1 w_{x_2} w_{x_1} w_1)) w_1).
\]

\[
P_1 v_{x_2} z_{x_2} z_{x_1} y \rightarrow z_{x_2}(z_{x_1}(z_1 y)).
\]

\[
P_2 v_{x_2} z_{x_2} z_{x_1} y \rightarrow z_{x_2}(z_{x_1}(z_1 y)).
\]

The formal parameters \(v_{x_2}, v_{x_1}, w_{x_2}, w_{x_1}, w_1\) of \(F\) are bound to \(a^{x^2}, a^{x^1}, b^{x^2}, b^{x^1}\), and \(b^{x^1}\) respectively. The non-terminal \(A_{(x+1)^2}\) defined in the fifth
rule computes \( a^{(x+1)^2} \), given \( a^x \), \( a^x \), and \( a \) as the values of \( z_{x_2}, z_x \) and \( z_1 \), using the fact \( a^{(x+1)^2}(y) = a^{x^2+x+1}(y) = a^{x^2}(a^x(a^x(y))). \) Similarly, \( A_{x+1} \) computes \( a^{x+1} \), given \( a^x \) and \( a \) as values of \( z_x \) and \( z_1 \). Thus, for every natural number \( n \), \( S \) can be rewritten to \( G a^n a^1 b^n a^n b^n a^1 \) (modulo the semantic equivalence of terms). The non-terminals \( P_1 \) and \( P_2 \) defined in the last two rules compute \( a^{P_1(n)} \) and \( a^{P_2(n)} \) respectively, given \( a^{n^2}, a^n \), and \( a \) as the values of \( z_n, z_n \), and \( z_1 \); thus \( G a^{n^2} a^n b^n a^n b^n a^n \) can be rewritten to

\[
a^{P_1(n)}(b^{P_2(n)}(a^{P_3(n)}(b^{P_4(n)}e))),
\]

for \( P_1(x) = P_4(x) = x^2 + 2 \) and \( P_2(x) = P_3(x) = 2x^2 + 1 \).

We now present the general construction. Let \( d_i (i \in \{1, \ldots, m\}) \) be the largest degree of \( P_1(x_1, \ldots, x_m) + \cdots + P_4(x_1, \ldots, x_m) \) in variable \( x_i \). Then, each \( P_i(x_1, \ldots, x_m) \) can be represented as a linear combination of monomials \( x_1^{j_1} \cdots x_m^{j_m} \) \((j_1 \leq d_1, \ldots, j_m \leq d_m)\):

\[
\sum_{j_1 \leq d_1, \ldots, j_m \leq d_m} c_{i,j_1,\ldots,j_m} x_1^{j_1} \cdots x_m^{j_m}.
\]

Let \( \ell \) be \((d_1 + 1) \cdots (d_m + 1) \). Then, an order-2 HORS \( G_{L_0} \) that generates \( L_0 \) is given in Figure 1. Here, \( \bar{v} \) and \( \bar{w} \) denote the sequences of variables \( v_{x_1}^{d_1} \cdots x_m^{d_m} \cdots v_{x_1}^{0} \cdots x_m^{0} \) and \( w_{x_1}^{d_1} \cdots x_m^{d_m} \cdots w_{x_1}^{0} \cdots x_m^{0} \) respectively. The non-terminal \( A_{x_1^{j_1} \cdots x_k^{j_k} \cdots x_m^{j_m}} \) computes \( a^{n_1^{j_1} \cdots (n_k+1) \cdots n_m^{j_m}} \), given \( a^{n_1^{d_1} \cdots n_m^{d_m}}, \ldots, a^{n_1^{0} \cdots n_m^{0}} \) as the values of \( \bar{v} = v_{x_1}^{d_1} \cdots x_m^{d_m}, \ldots, v_{x_1}^{0} \cdots x_m^{0} \). Thus, for every tuple \((n_1, \ldots, n_m)\) of natural numbers, \( S \) can be rewritten to (modulo the semantic equivalence of terms):

\[
G a^{n_1^{d_1} \cdots n_m^{d_m}} \cdots a^{n_1^{0} \cdots n_m^{0}} b^{n_1^{d_1} \cdots n_m^{d_m}} \cdots b^{n_1^{0} \cdots n_m^{0}}.
\]

It can then be rewritten to

\[
a^{P_1(n_1, \ldots, n_m)}(b^{P_2(n_1, \ldots, n_m)}(a^{P_3(n_1, \ldots, n_m)}(b^{P_4(n_1, \ldots, n_m)} e))),
\]

by using the rules for \( G \) and \( P_i \). From the discussion above, it should be clear that \( L(G_{L_0}) = L_0 \). This completes the proof.

5. Related Work

Arnold and Nivat [3] considered non-deterministic recursive program schemes (i.e. order-1 non-deterministic higher-order recursion schemes) as
\( G_{L_0} = (\{a \mapsto 1, b \mapsto 1\}, \mathcal{N}, \mathcal{R}, S) \)
\[ \begin{align*}
\mathcal{N} &= \{ S \mapsto o, F \mapsto (o \rightarrow o)^{2\ell} \rightarrow o, G \mapsto (o \rightarrow o)^{2\ell} \rightarrow o, I \mapsto o \rightarrow o \} \\
\mathcal{R} &= \{A_{x_1 \ldots x_m} \mapsto (o \rightarrow o)^{\ell} \rightarrow o \rightarrow o \mid i \in \{1, \ldots, m\}, j_i \in \{0, \ldots, d_i\} \} \\
\mathcal{P} &= \{P_i \mapsto (o \rightarrow o)^{\ell} \rightarrow o \rightarrow o \mid i \in \{1, 2, 3, 4\} \}
\end{align*} \]

\( \mathcal{R} \) consists of:

\( S \rightarrow F \overline{I} \ldots \overline{I} a \overline{I} \ldots \overline{I} b. \)

\( F \overline{I} \overline{w} \rightarrow G \overline{v} \overline{w}. \)

\( F \overline{v} \overline{w} \rightarrow F (A_{x_1}^{d_1} \ldots x_m^{d_m} \overline{v}) \ldots (A_{x_1}^{0} \ldots x_m^{0} \overline{v}) (A_{x_1}^{d_1} \ldots x_m^{d_m} \overline{w}) \ldots (A_{x_1}^{0} \ldots x_m^{0} \overline{w}). \)

\( \ldots \)

\( F \overline{v} \overline{w} \rightarrow F (A_{x_1}^{d_1} \ldots (x_m+1)^{d_m} \overline{v}) \ldots (A_{x_1}^{0} \ldots (x_m+1)^{0} \overline{v}) (A_{x_1}^{d_1} \ldots (x_m+1)^{d_m} \overline{w}) \ldots (A_{x_1}^{0} \ldots (x_m+1)^{0} \overline{w}). \)

\( I y \rightarrow y. \)

\( A_{x_1 \ldots x_k}^{d_1 \ldots x_m^{d_m} y} \rightarrow \)

\( v_{x_1 \ldots x_k}^{d_1 \ldots x_m^{d_m}} (\cdots (v_{x_1 \ldots x_k}^{0 \ldots x_m^{0} y} \cdots) \cdots) \) (for each \( k \in \{1, \ldots, m\}, j_1 \leq d_1, \ldots, j_m \leq d_m \)).

\( G \overline{v} \overline{w} \rightarrow P_1 \overline{v} (P_2 \overline{w} (P_3 \overline{v} (P_4 \overline{w} e))). \)

\( P_i \overline{v} \overline{y} \rightarrow (v_{x_1}^{d_1} \ldots x_m^{d_m})^{(c_i, \ldots, d_m)} (\cdots (v_{x_1}^{0} \ldots x_m^{0} y) \cdots) \) (for each \( i \in \{1, 2, 3, 4\} \)).

Figure 1: An order-2 HORS \( G_{L_0} \) that generates \( L_0 \).
generators of both finite tree languages \( \mathcal{TL}(G) \) in Section 2) and infinite tree languages, and gave fixpoint characterizations.

Higher-order grammars as generators of word/tree languages have been actively studied, especially in 1970’s and 80’s (see, e.g. [6, 23]). To our knowledge, however, the inclusion problem with the Dyck language has not been studied until recently. As already mentioned, Uezato and Minamide [22] have shown that the inclusion between an indexed language and the Dyck language is undecidable. Since the class of indexed languages and the class of order-2 word languages (which is also known as OI languages) coincide and there exist effective mutual translations ([21], Theorem 5.3), the result of Uezato and Minamide [22] is the same as ours. Their proof is somewhat indirect, however, which uses an undecidability result on DT0L systems [27]. Our proof is arguably more direct, demonstrating the power of order-2 grammars to express polynomials.

6. Conclusion

We have shown that the inclusion between an order-2 word language and the Dyck language is undecidable, by a reduction from the undecidability of Hilbert’s 10th problem. By using the technique of [10, 9] to convert higher-order functional programs to HORS that generate the set of all the event sequences, one can deduce from the undecidability result that certain program verification problems like “Does a program output a string conforming to a valid HTML?” and “Does a program access a certain resource in a stack-like manner?” are undecidable even for a restricted, Turing-incomplete higher-order language (more precisely, for the simply-typed \( \lambda \)-calculus with recursion and primitives for printing strings or accessing resources).

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