# A non-ambiguous decomposition of regular languages and factorizing codes ${ }^{\text {to }}$ 

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#### Abstract

Given languages $Z, L \subseteq \Sigma^{*}, Z$ is $L$-decomposable (finitely $L$-decomposable, resp.) if there exists a non-trivial pair of languages (finite languages, resp.) ( $A, B$ ), such that $Z=A L+B$ and the operations are non-ambiguous. We show that it is decidable whether $Z$ is $L$-decomposable and whether $Z$ is finitely $L$-decomposable, in the case $Z$ and $L$ are regular languages. The result in the case $Z=L$ allows one to decide whether, given a finite language $S \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$, there exist finite languages $C, P$ such that $S C^{*} P=\Sigma^{*}$ with non-ambiguous operations. This problem is related to Schützenberger's Factorization Conjecture on codes. We also construct an infinite family of factorizing codes.


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## 1. Introduction

In the theory of formal languages the problem of decomposing languages is central. The aim is to simplify the structure of languages of a certain type. Also the reverse problem of composing languages is important in order to construct more complicated languages from simple ones, while preserving some particular properties.

There is a wide variety of problems dealing with language decomposition in the literature. We will equivalently call them factorization problems. A first factorization problem was given in 1965 by Paz and Peleg. They asked whether every regular language decomposes as a product of a finite number of stars and primes (see [29]).

[^0]A positive answer was given in [15]. In the same paper it was posed another (still open) question known as the Star Removal Problem. It concerns the decomposition of a regular language $L$ as $L=A_{1}^{*} A_{2}^{*} \cdots A_{n}^{*} B_{n}$ (see [14]). Other factorization problems are the ones of deciding, given language $L \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$, whether $L^{*}=(1 \cup L)^{n}$ [38], as well as whether there exists a language $X$ such that $L=X^{n}$ [33] or $L=X^{n_{1}} \cup \cdots \cup X^{n_{k}}$ [6]. The problem of characterizing languages $L$ such that $L L=\Sigma^{*}$ is solved in [22], for a particular case. Other problems of decomposition of regular languages have been very recently considered in [36].

Some factorization problems require that factorizations be non-ambiguous. Roughly speaking, a factorization is non-ambiguous if any word decomposing in a right way, has only one such decomposition. The concept of non-ambiguity appears many times in theoretical computer science, for example concerning (non-) ambiguity of machines recognizing languages, of grammars generating languages or of operations on languages. Non-ambiguity means uniqueness in relation to the existence of a path, derivation, or decomposition for a word.

In 1991 Perrin proposed some problems [13,8] dealing with the non-ambiguous equation: $\Sigma^{*}=L_{1} L_{2} \cdots L_{n}$ (see [26] for a partial solution). The problem of factorizing a finite prefix-closed language as a non-ambiguous product of two languages is studied in [12]. Another non-ambiguous factorization problem is to find the square root of a language $L$, i.e. a language $X$ such that $L=X X$ with a non-ambiguous product $[10,28]$ or solving the polynomial equation $L=A_{0}+A_{1} X+\cdots+A_{n} X^{n}$ for given $L, A_{0}, A_{1}, \ldots, A_{n} \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$. In [21] an algorithm for decomposing any recognizable language in terms of unitary and prefix (-free) languages is given.

Some other problems of non-ambiguous factorization of languages are related to Schützenberger's Factorization Conjecture $[37,8]$. This conjecture is very crucial in the theory of codes, in view of structurally characterizing codes. Here code means uniquely dechifrable variable-length code, i.e. $C \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$ is a code if any word in $\Sigma^{*}$ has at most one factorization as a concatenation of elements in $C$. It is said maximal if it is not a proper subset of another code. It is said factorizing if there exist finite languages $S, P$ such that $S C^{*} P=\Sigma^{*}$ with non-ambiguous operations. Schützenberger's Conjecture claims that every finite maximal code is factorizing. The solution of this conjecture seems to be hard: it is still open after more than 30 years and the efforts of many researchers (see $[37,11,13,18,19,31,34,20,39]$ for some partial results). In this paper we solve a problem related to the non-ambiguous equation $S C^{*} P=$ $\Sigma^{*}$ as above, as a byproduct of the solution of the main problems here investigated.

The main problems in this paper are the following non-ambiguous language factorization problems. Consider two languages $Z, L \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$. Define pair $(A, B)$ is a $d e$ composition of ( $Z, L$ ) if $Z=A L \cup B$ and the operations are non-ambiguous. Decomposition $(A, B)$ is a finite decomposition if $A, B$ are finite. Moreover we define $Z$ is L-decomposable (finitely L-decomposable, resp.) if ( $Z, L$ ) has a non-trivial decomposition (finite decomposition, resp.). We say $(A, B)$ is non-trivial if $(A, B) \neq(\emptyset, Z),(1, \emptyset)$. Indeed $Z=A L \cup B$ always holds with $(A, B)=(\emptyset, Z)$ and also with $(A, B)=(1, \emptyset)$ when $Z=L$.

Main problems: Given regular languages $Z, L \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$ :
(1) Is $Z, L$-decomposable?
(2) Is $Z$ finitely $L$-decomposable?

In this paper we show that the main problems are both decidable and provide non-trivial decompositions, whenever the answer is positive. The initial motivation for studying these problems came from Schützenberger's Conjecture. Even though, the topic might be of interest in its own or have some practical byproducts: for instance, in comparing, manipulating and characterizing the nucleotide sequences in some data base. We emphasize that in this paper we will be more specifically concerned with regular languages. Given regular languages $Z$ and $L$, deciding whether $Z$ is $L$-decomposable is not so difficult. More complex is to decide whether $Z$ is finitely $L$-decomposable. This one will be the problem more extensively studied in this paper. We solve it and provide a set of finite decompositions, in the case when a finite decomposition exists. Such finite decompositions are minimal in length (Proposition 45), and maximal in the sense specified in Proposition 47. Examples of the construction are given at the end of Section 6 .

The search of and the construction of a finite decomposition start from the observation (Theorem 8) of the recursive nature of the problem: if $Z$ is finitely $L$-decomposable and $(A, B)$ is a finite decomposition then also languages $a^{-1} Z \backslash L$ are finitely $L$-decomposable, for any $a$ in the prefix-part $P P(A)$ of $A$. We construct $(A, B)$ starting from $P P(A)$. We notice (Theorem 22) that the search of $P P(A)$, for some finite decomposition $(A, B)$ of $(Z, L)$, can be restricted to a finite set, called $\operatorname{MIN}(Z, L)$. The set $\operatorname{MIN}(Z, L)$ is defined referring to a deterministic automaton recognizing $Z$. Moreover we find that also the search of finite decompositions can be restricted to a sub-class of them (Proposition 43). Using these considerations (and some others more) an algorithm can be designed for deciding the finite decomposability of a regular language and for eventually constructing some finite decompositions. Observe that, when looking for a finite decomposition $(A, B)$, we focus our attention on $A$. Language $B$ is step by step constructed dependently to words inserted in $A$.

We then consider the case when a finite decomposition does not exist. Remark that in Proposition 6 we prove that it is decidable whether $Z$ is $L$-decomposable, and that an (infinite) decomposition can be easily provided, when $Z, L$ are regular languages. However we generalize the main construction in order to obtain an algorithm that provides special (infinite) decompositions. These decompositions have some property of maximality, as specified in Proposition 58. Examples are given in Sections 7.1 and 7.2.

We also consider the question of how many non-trivial decompositions (finite decompositions, resp.) a given pair ( $Z, L$ ) can have. We show that if $Z=L$ and ( $Z, L$ ) has a non-trivial decomposition (finite decomposition, resp.) then ( $Z, L$ ) has an infinite number of non-trivial decompositions (finite decompositions, resp.) (Corollary 63). On the contrary, when $Z \neq L$, then $(Z, L)$ can admit only a finite number of non-trivial decompositions (Example 65).

Further, Corollary 63 suggests a way to construct an infinite family of non-trivial decompositions (finite decompositions, resp.) of ( $L, L$ ), starting from one of them. The construction is based on an operation here introduced and called substitution. As a consequence, this operation allows us to construct an infinite family of factorizing
codes, starting from one of them. Substitution is indeed an operation preserving the property of being a factorizing code, just as composition [8].

A byproduct of the solution of the main problems is the solution of the following problem related to Schützenberger's Conjecture, firstly considered in [18].

Problem SCP: Given finite language $S \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$, do there exist finite languages $C, P$, with $C$ maximal code, such that $S C^{*} P=\Sigma^{*}$ with non-ambiguous operations?

A language $S$ for which Problem SCP has positive answer is said a polynomial having solutions in [18] and a strong factorizing language in [3]. Remark that exchanging the roles of $S$ and $P$ would provide a dual problem. Let us recall some known results. First: if $S C^{*} P=\Sigma^{*}$ in a non-ambiguous way then $C$ is necessarily a maximal code [37,8]. Further if finite languages $S, C, P$ satisfy the non-ambiguous equation $S C^{*} P=\Sigma^{*}$, then $S Z=\Sigma^{*}$ in a non-ambiguous way with $Z=C^{*} P$. Then, given regular language $S$, it is decidable whether there exists a language $Z$ such that $S Z=\Sigma^{*}$ with non-ambiguous operations $[4,5]$. Finally, when such $Z$ exists, then $Z$ is unique, regular and we can construct an automaton recognizing $Z$ from an automaton recognizing $S$ [4,5]. Therefore we can solve Problem $S C P$ if we prove that it is decidable whether a regular language $Z$ decomposes in a non-ambiguous way as $Z=C^{*} P$ with $C, P$ finite languages. The decidability of this problem (Theorem 66) follows from the main result of this paper (Theorem 44) and from the observation that $Z=C^{*} P$ iff $Z=C Z+P$.

Proofs in this paper widely use (formal power) series theory. Roughly a series is a generalization of a language, where a "number" is associated with each word (see Section 2.2 for more details). Furthermore, we associate labelled trees to decompositions (see Section 5), as a tool for proving results in Sections 6 and 7. We also define (Definitions 39 and 53) labelled trees that represent all recursive calls of the procedure Find-Fin-Dec (Find-Max-Dec, resp.) for computing a given finite decomposition (decomposition, resp.) of a given input. These definitions are useful for proving that the corresponding procedures are correct and always stop.

In this paper we do not consider complexity aspects of presented problems and algorithms.

The paper is organized as follows. Section 2 recalls basic definitions and notations used in the paper. In Section 3 the main problems are stated. Section 4 contains some theoretical results on finite decomposability and Section 5 a graphical representation of a decomposition by means of labelled trees. The main construction of finite decompositions is presented in Section 6. Section 7 contains a generalization of the construction to the case when a finite decomposition does not exist. Section 8 shows how many decompositions pair $(Z, L)$ can have. Last section contains the results concerning strong factorizing languages and factorizing codes.

A preliminary and partial version of this paper is contained in [1].

## 2. Background and notations

Let us introduce basic definitions and notations used in the sequel. Classical references to formal languages and automata are [8,24], to formal power series are $[9,21,35]$ and to graphs are [23].

### 2.1. Languages

Given finite alphabet $\Sigma$, let $\left\langle\Sigma^{*}, \cdot, 1\right\rangle$ be the free monoid generated by it.
The union of languages $X, Y$ is $X \cup Y=\{w \mid w \in X$ or $w \in Y\}$; it is said non-ambiguous when $X \cap Y=\emptyset$. The product of languages $X, Y$ is $X Y=\{w \mid w=x y, x \in X, y \in Y\}$; it is said non-ambiguous when $w=x y=x^{\prime} y^{\prime}$ with $x, x^{\prime} \in X, y, y^{\prime} \in Y$ implies $x=x^{\prime}$ and $y=y^{\prime}$. The star of language $X$ is $X^{*}=1 \cup X \cup X^{2} \cup \cdots$ and it is said non-ambiguous when all unions and products in the definition are non-ambiguous. In this paper $X \subset Y$ means that $X \subseteq Y$ and $X \neq Y$.

Recall that word $x \in \Sigma^{*}$ is a prefix of a word $w \in \Sigma^{*}$, in symbols $x \leqslant w$, if $w=x y$, with $y \in \Sigma^{*}$; it is a proper prefix, in symbols $x<w$, if $y \in \Sigma^{+}$. Notation $\operatorname{Pre} f(X)$ is used for the set of proper prefixes of words in $X$. Language $X$ is prefix (-free) if, whenever $w, w^{\prime} \in X, w \neq w^{\prime}$, then neither $w \leqslant w^{\prime}$ nor $w^{\prime} \leqslant w$. Given languages $X, Y$, pair $(X, Y)$ is prefix-free if no word in $X$ is prefix of a word in $Y$ and conversely. Remark that if language $X$ is prefix-free, then for any language $L$, the union $\bigcup_{x \in X} x L$ is non-ambiguous. The prefix part of language $A$ is the language $P P(A)=A \backslash A \Sigma^{+}$. Given $w \in \Sigma^{*}, X \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$, we denote $w^{-1} X=\{z \mid w z \in X\}$.

Note 1: For the sake of simplicity, in some cases we write $A=1$ instead of $A=\{1\}$ and denote a set by additive notation.

### 2.2. Formal power series

Given alphabet $\Sigma$ and semi-ring $K$, a (formal power) series in non-commuting variables $\Sigma$ and coefficients in $K$ is a function $s: \Sigma^{*} \rightarrow K$. Let $w \in \Sigma^{*}$. The value of $s$ on $w$ is denoted by $(s, w)$ and the power series is written as a formal sum $s=\sum_{w \in \Sigma^{*}}(s, w) w$. The sum of series $s, s^{\prime}$ is defined by $\left(s+s^{\prime}, w\right)=(s, w)+\left(s^{\prime}, w\right)$ and has 0 as its identity. The product of series $s, s^{\prime}$ is defined by $\left(s s^{\prime}, w\right)=\sum_{w=x y}\left((s, x)\left(s^{\prime}, y\right)\right)$ and has 1 as its identity. The star $s^{*}$ of series $s$ such that $(s, 1) \neq 0$ is defined by $s^{*}=1+s+s^{2}+\cdots$. We have that $s^{*}=(1-s)^{-1}$. For a word $x$ and a series $s$, the series $x^{-1} s$ is defined by $\left(x^{-1} s, w\right)=(s, x w)$. Notice that $x^{-1}\left(s+s^{\prime}\right)=x^{-1} s+x^{-1} s^{\prime}$.

The characteristic series of language $X \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$, denoted $\underline{X}$, is the power series mapping words belonging to $X$ to 1 , and words not belonging to $X$ to 0 . Note that $\underline{\{1\}}=1, \underline{\emptyset}=0$. Using this formalism, we have that union $X \cup Y$ is non-ambiguous iff $\underline{\bar{X} \cup} Y=\underline{X}+\underline{Y}$; product $X Y$ is non-ambiguous iff $\underline{X Y}=\underline{X} \cdot \underline{Y}$; star $X^{*}$ is non-ambiguous iff $\underline{X^{*}}=(\underline{X})^{*}$.

Note 2: In this paper an upper case letter denotes a language in formulas with set-symbols (such as $\subseteq, \in, \cap, \backslash, \cdots$ ); it denotes the characteristic series of the language in formulas with series-symbols (such as $+, \cdot,{ }^{*}$ ).

### 2.3. Graphs

An (undirected) graph $G$ is a pair $(V, E)$ where $V$ is the (finite or infinite) set of vertices and $E$ consists of unordered pairs of vertices, called edges. A (rooted) tree is a connected, acyclic, undirected graph $T=(V, E)$ in which one of the vertices is distinguished from the other ones and called the root of the tree. Tree $T$ can also be given by $T=(V$, child $)$ where child $: V \rightarrow 2^{V}$ and $E=\{(i, j) \mid i, j \in V, j \in \operatorname{child}(i)\}$.

A labelled tree with labels in a semi-ring $K$ is a triplet $T=(V$, child, lab $)$ where ( $V$, child ) is a tree and $\operatorname{lab}(i, j) \in K$ is the label of edge $(i, j)$. Let $T$ be a tree (labelled tree, resp.) and $i$ a vertex. A path in $T$ is a sequence $\left(i_{0}, i_{1}\right)\left(i_{1}, i_{2}\right) \cdots\left(i_{n-1}, i_{n}\right)$ of consecutive edges. Vertex $i$ is a leaf if $\operatorname{child}(i)=\emptyset$; it is an internal vertex, otherwise. An ancestor of $i$ is any vertex on the unique path from the root to $i$. The depth of $i$ is the length of the path from the root to $i$. The depth of $T$ is either the maximum depth of a leaf of $T$, if it is finite, or $\infty$ otherwise. The breadth of $i$ is either the cardinality of child( $i$ ), if it is finite, or $\infty$ otherwise. The breadth of $T$ is either the maximum breadth of its vertices, if it is finite or $\infty$, otherwise.

### 2.4. Automata

A (finite) automaton over $\Sigma$, is a quadruple Aut $=(Q, 1, \delta, F)$, where $Q$ is a finite set of states, $1 \in Q$ is the initial state, $F \subseteq Q$ is the set of final states and $\delta: Q \times \Sigma \rightarrow 2^{Q}$ is the transition function. A transition is any $(q, \sigma, p) \in Q \times \Sigma \times Q$ such that $\delta(q, \sigma)=p$. The automaton Aut is deterministic if $\delta: Q \times \Sigma \rightarrow Q$. Note that, in general, we do not require the transition function $\delta$ to be total, i.e., to be defined for every pair in $Q \times \Sigma$. If $\delta$ is total then we call Aut a complete automaton. Remark that any automaton can be completed. It is sufficient to add a non-final state $s$, called a $\sin k$, and to extend $\delta$ to pairs $(q, \sigma) \in Q \times \Sigma$, for which $\delta$ was not defined, by: $\delta(q, \sigma)=s$.

A path is a sequence $p=\left(q_{1}, \sigma_{1}, q_{2}\right)\left(q_{2}, \sigma_{2}, q_{3}\right) \cdots\left(q_{n}, \sigma_{n}, q_{n+1}\right)$ of consecutive transitions. The label of $p$ is $\sigma_{1} \sigma_{2} \cdots \sigma_{n}$. A sub-path of $p$ is any sequence of consecutive transitions $\left(q_{i}, \sigma_{i}, q_{i+1}\right)\left(q_{i+1}, \sigma_{i+1}, q_{i+2}\right) \cdots\left(q_{j}, \sigma_{j}, q_{j+1}\right)$, for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant j \leqslant n$. Path $p$ is successful if $q_{1}=1$ and $q_{n+1} \in F$. The language $L$ (Aut) recognized by Aut is the set of the labels of all successful paths in Aut. A language is said regular if it is recognized by a finite automaton. It is well-known that emptiness, finiteness of a regular language and inclusion between regular languages are all decidable problems [24].

An automaton is trim if every state $q$ is both accessible (there exists a path from 1 to $q$ ) and coaccessible (there exists a path from $q$ to a final state). We trim an automaton when we remove all states $q$ that are not both accessible and coaccessible, together with all transitions $\left(p, \sigma, p^{\prime}\right)$ with $p=q$ or $p^{\prime}=q$.

Given a complete automaton Aut $=(Q, 1, \delta, F)$, the complement of Aut is the automaton $\mathrm{Aut}^{c}=(Q, 1, \delta, Q \backslash F)$. Remark that $L\left(\mathrm{Aut}^{c}\right)=\Sigma^{*} \backslash L$ (Aut). The intersection of two complete deterministic automata $\mathrm{Aut}_{A}=\left(Q_{A}, 1_{A}, \delta_{A}, F_{A}\right)$ and $\mathrm{Aut}_{B}=\left(Q_{B}, 1_{B}, \delta_{B}, F_{B}\right)$ is the automaton $\mathrm{Aut}_{A} \otimes \operatorname{Aut}_{B}=(Q, 1, \delta, F)$ where $Q=Q_{A} \times Q_{B}, 1=\left(1_{A}, 1_{B}\right), F=$ $F_{A} \times F_{B}$ and $\delta\left(\left(q_{A}, q_{B}\right), \sigma\right)=\left(\delta_{A}\left(q_{A}, \sigma\right), \delta_{B}\left(q_{B}, \sigma\right)\right)$, for all $q_{A} \in Q_{A}, q_{B} \in Q_{B}$. Remark that $L\left(\mathrm{Aut}_{A} \otimes \mathrm{Aut}_{B}\right)=L\left(\mathrm{Aut}_{A}\right) \cap L\left(\mathrm{Aut}_{B}\right)$.

Given an automaton Aut $=(Q, 1, \delta, F)$, we say that $p, q \in Q$ are distinguishable if $\exists x \in \Sigma^{*}$ such that $\delta(p, x) \in F$ and $\delta(q, x) \notin F$, or vice versa. A classical minimization algorithm is based on (not) distinguishable states (cf. [24]).

Given word $w \in \Sigma^{*}$ and deterministic automaton $\operatorname{Aut}=(Q, 1, \delta, F)$, we use the following notations:

- $q \cdot w$ is the ending state of the (unique) path from $q$ labelled $w$
- $q(w)=1 \cdot w$
- $p(w)$ is the (unique) path from the initial state labelled $w$
- $q \cdot L=\{q \cdot w \mid w \in L\}$
- $L_{q, F}$ is the set of the labels of all paths from $q$ to a state in $F$.


## 3. Main problems

In this section we introduce the non-ambiguous factorization problems we deal with in this paper.
Let us consider the question: Given languages $Z, L \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$, do there exist languages $A, B \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$ such that $Z=A L+B$ ?

Recall that by notation, $Z=A L+B$ means $\underline{Z}=\underline{A} \underline{L}+\underline{B}$. Remark that if we put no restrictions on, a trivial solution to this problem is always $A=\emptyset, B=Z$. Further, if $Z=L$ then $A=1, B=\emptyset$ is another trivial solution.

Remark 1. We have that $L=A L+B$ iff $L=(A)^{*} B$ (see e.g. [9,30]). Indeed $L=A L+B$ implies $1 \notin A$ and $L=A L+B$ iff $(1-A) L=B$ iff $L=(1-A)^{-1} B$ iff $L=(A)^{*} B$. Recall that $A^{*}$ exists iff $1 \notin A$ and in this case $(A)^{*}=(1-A)^{-1}$.

Proposition 2. If $Z, L, A, B \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$ are such that $Z=A L+B$ then the following properties hold.
(1) $B \subseteq Z$
(2) $1 \in L$ implies $A \subseteq Z$
(3) $1 \in L$ implies $A \cap B=\emptyset$
(4) $1 \in A$ implies $L \subseteq Z$
(5) $Z=L$ and $1 \in A$ imply $(A, B)=(1, \emptyset)$
(6) $1 \in A$ and $(A, B) \neq(1, \emptyset)$ imply $L \subset Z$
(7) $Z=L$ and $(A, B) \neq(1, \emptyset)$ imply $(1 \in L$ iff $1 \in B)$.

Proof. Items (1), (2), (3), (4) are straightforward. Let us prove item (5). Indeed, $Z=L$ and $1 \in A$ imply $L=(A \backslash 1) L+L+B$ which is an ambiguous equality, unless $(A, B)=(1, \emptyset)$. In order to prove item (6), note that $1 \in A$ implies $L \subseteq Z$ and the case $Z=L$ is forbidden by item (5). Item (7) follows from previous ones.

Let us state basic definitions.
Definition 3. Given languages $Z, L \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$, a decomposition of $(Z, L)$ is a pair $(A, B)$, $A, B \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$ such that $Z=A L+B$. A decomposition $(A, B)$ is trivial if $(A, B)=(\emptyset, Z)$ or $(1, \emptyset)$. Language $Z$ is $L$-decomposable if $(Z, L)$ has a non-trivial decomposition.

Definition 4. Given languages $Z, L \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$, a finite decomposition of $(Z, L)$ is a decomposition $(A, B)$ of $(Z, L)$ with $A, B$ finite. A finite decomposition $(A, B)$ is trivial if $(A, B)=(\emptyset, Z)$ or $(1, \emptyset)$. Language $Z$ is finitely L-decomposable if $(Z, L)$ has a non-trivial finite decomposition.

Example 5. Let us consider some pairs of languages $(Z, L)$ and study their decomposability or finite decomposability.
(1) Let $Z=a^{*}+b a^{*}, L=a^{*}$. Language $Z$ is $L$-decomposable: non-trivial (infinite) decompositions are $\left(1, b a^{*}\right)$ and $\left(b, a^{*}\right)$. Language $Z$ is also finitely $L$-decomposable: finite decompositions are $(a+b, 1),(a a+b, 1+a),(a a+b a, 1+a+b)$, and so on.
(2) Let $Z=L$ be the language recognized by the deterministic automaton shown in Fig. 2. Using algorithm Fin-Dec of Section 6 we will find that $L$ is finitely $L$-decomposable and that $\left(a+a b+b^{2}, 1\right)$ is a finite decomposition of $(L, L)$ (see Section 6.1). According to Proposition 62 another non-trivial finite decomposition is $\left(a b+b^{2}+a^{2}+a^{2} b+a b^{2}, 1+a\right)$ and an infinite number of other non-trivial finite decompositions exists.
(3) Let $Z=L$ be the language recognized by the deterministic automaton shown in Fig. 3. Using algorithm Fin-Dec of Section 6 we will find that $L$ is not finitely $L$-decomposable (see Section 6.2). An infinite decomposition $(A, B)$ is computed in Section 7.1 using algorithm Max-Dec of Section 7: $(A, B)=\left(\left(a^{2}\right)^{+} a b+\left(a^{2}\right)^{+} b a+\right.$ $\left.\left(a^{2}\right)^{+} b a a b+b+b a+b a^{2} b,\left(a^{2}\right)^{*}\right)$.
(4) Let $Z=a^{2} b^{+}, L=a b^{*}$. In Example 65 it is shown that the only non-trivial decompositions of $(Z, L)$ are $(\emptyset, Z)$ and $(a, \emptyset)$. Hence $Z$ is $L$-decomposable and finitely $L$-decomposable.

Main problems: Given regular languages $Z, L \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$ :
(1) Is $Z, L$-decomposable?
(2) Is $Z$ finitely $L$-decomposable?

We will show that the main problems are both decidable. Furthermore the presented decision procedures also provide some non-trivial decompositions. Let us now show a solution of main problem (1).

Proposition 6. It is decidable whether, given regular languages $Z, L \subseteq \Sigma^{*}, Z$ is $L$ decomposable.

Proof. Language $Z$ is $L$-decomposable iff there exists a non-empty word $u \in \Sigma^{+}$such that $u L \subseteq Z$. In this case $(u, Z \backslash u L)$ is a non-trivial decomposition of $(Z, L)$. The decidability of this property is easy to show. It suffices to consider an automaton recognizing $Z$ and decide whether there exists an accessible state $q$ such that $q=q(w)$ for some $w \in \Sigma^{+}$and $L \subseteq L_{q, F}$. The decidability of this property follows from the decidability of inclusion between regular languages.

Proposition 6 solves main problem (1). Note that the decomposition $(u, Z \backslash u L)$ provided in the proof of Proposition 6, is often not a finite decomposition. Indeed to decide whether a language is finitely decomposable is much more complex. This is the problem more extensively considered in the next sections. Also note that in Section 7 we will present another way of solving main problem (1), that yet provides special decompositions.

## 4. Finite decomposability of regular languages

In this section we consider the second main problem of the paper: Given regular languages $Z, L \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$, is $Z$ finitely $L$-decomposable? An algorithm for solving this problem is presented in Section 6. Here we show the theoretical foundations of such algorithm. Theorem 8 shows the recursive nature of the problem: if $Z$ is finitely $L$-decomposable and $(A, B)$ is a finite decomposition then any language $a^{-1} Z \backslash L$ is finitely $L$-decomposable, for any $a$ in the prefix-part $P P(A)$ of $A$. We will construct $(A, B)$ starting from $P P(A)$. Theorem 22 shows that the search of $P P(A)$ can be restricted to a finite set, called $\operatorname{MIN}(Z, L)$. The set $\operatorname{MIN}(Z, L)$ is defined in terms of a deterministic, trim and complete automaton recognizing $Z$.

Firstly let us show a result concerning non-trivial decompositions. We will then precise it for non-trivial finite decompositions. Remark that the hypothesis of regularity of languages is not yet necessary.

Theorem 7. Let $Z, L \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$ be languages.
If $(A, B)$ is a non-trivial decomposition of $(Z, L)$ then $P P(A)$ is a prefix-free set and for any $a \in P P(A),\left(a^{-1} A \backslash 1, a^{-1} B\right)$ is a decomposition of $\left(a^{-1} Z \backslash L, L\right)$. Moreover $\left(a^{-1} A \backslash 1, a^{-1} B\right)$ is not trivial if $a^{-1} A \backslash 1 \neq \emptyset$.

Conversely, let $A_{p}$ be a non-empty prefix-free set such that for any $a \in A_{p}, L \subseteq$ $a^{-1} Z$ and $a^{-1} Z \backslash L=B_{a}+A_{a} L$. Then $(A, B)$ is a decomposition of $(Z, L)$, where: $A=A_{p} \cup\left(\bigcup_{a \in A_{p}} a A_{a}\right)$ and $B=Z \backslash A_{p} \Sigma^{*} \cup\left(\bigcup_{a \in A_{p}} a B_{a}\right)$. Moreover $(A, B)$ is not trivial if $A_{p} \neq 1$ or $Z \backslash L \neq \emptyset$.

Proof. Let $(A, B)$ be a non-trivial decomposition of $(Z, L)$.
Language $P P(A)$ is prefix-free by definition. Let $a \in P P(A)$. By hypothesis, $Z=A L+B$ and thus $a^{-1} Z=a^{-1}(A L+B)=a^{-1} A L+a^{-1} B=\left(a^{-1} A\right) L+a^{-1} B=L+\left(a^{-1} A-1\right) L+a^{-1} B$. Notice that we have used the additivity of operator $a^{-1}$ on series (see Section 2). Therefore ( $a^{-1} A \backslash 1, a^{-1} B$ ) is a decomposition of ( $a^{-1} Z \backslash L, L$ ). Further $a^{-1} A \backslash 1 \neq 1$ and thus ( $a^{-1} A \backslash 1, a^{-1} B$ ) is not trivial if $a^{-1} A \backslash 1 \neq \emptyset$.

For the converse part, let $A_{p}$ be as in the hypothesis. Remark that $1 \notin A_{a}$ since $L \subseteq a^{-1} Z \backslash L$ does not hold (see Proposition 2). Thus $a^{-1} Z=L+B_{a}+A_{a} L$. Further $Z$ can be decomposed with respect to $A_{p}$ in the following non-ambiguous way: $Z=Z \backslash$ $A_{p} \Sigma^{*}+Z \cap A_{p} \Sigma^{*}=Z \backslash A_{p} \Sigma^{*}+\sum_{a \in A_{p}} a\left(a^{-1} Z\right)=Z \backslash A_{p} \Sigma^{*}+\sum_{a \in A_{p}} a L+\sum_{a \in A_{p}} a B_{a}+$ $\sum_{a \in A_{p}} a A_{a} L=A L+B$, where:
$A=A_{p} \cup\left(\bigcup_{a \in A_{p}} a A_{a}\right)$ and
$B=Z \backslash A_{p} \Sigma^{*} \cup\left(\bigcup_{a \in A_{p}} a B_{a}\right)$.
Moreover if $A_{p} \neq 1$ then $A \neq 1, \emptyset$ and thus $(A, B)$ is not trivial. If $A=1$ and $Z \backslash L \neq \emptyset$ then $A_{a} \cup B_{a} \neq \emptyset$ and finally $(A, B)$ is not trivial. We also have that $1 \notin A$ iff $1 \notin A_{p}$.

Let us present a result characterizing finite decompositions. This result is the core of the recursive algorithm for finding finite decompositions presented in Section 6.

Theorem 8. Let $Z, L \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$ be languages.
If $(A, B)$ is a non-trivial finite decomposition of $(Z, L)$ then $P P(A)$ is a prefix-free finite set such that $Z \backslash P P(A) \Sigma^{*}$ is finite and for any $a \in P P(A), a^{-1} Z \backslash L$ is either finitely L-decomposable or (if not) finite.

Conversely, let $A_{p}$ be a non-empty prefix-free finite set such that $Z \backslash A_{p} \Sigma^{*}$ is finite and for any $a \in A_{p}, L \subseteq a^{-1} Z$ and $a^{-1} Z \backslash L=B_{a}+A_{a} L$, with $A_{a}, B_{a}$ finite. Then $(A, B)$ is a finite decomposition of $(Z, L)$, where: $A=A_{p} \cup\left(\bigcup_{a \in A_{p}} a A_{a}\right)$ and $B=Z \backslash A_{p} \Sigma^{*} \cup\left(\bigcup_{a \in A_{p}} a B_{a}\right)$. Moreover $(A, B)$ is not trivial if $A_{p} \neq 1$ or $Z \backslash L \neq \emptyset$.

Proof. Let $(A, B)$ be a non-trivial finite decomposition of $(Z, L)$.
Language $P P(A)$ is prefix-free by definition and it is finite since it is a subset of $A$. Moreover $Z \backslash P P(A) \Sigma^{*}$ is finite because it is contained in $Z \backslash A L=B$. It remains to show that for any $a \in P P(A)$, then $a^{-1} Z \backslash L$ is either finitely $L$-decomposable or (if not) finite. Let $a \in P P(A)$. By hypothesis, $Z=A L+B$ and thus $a^{-1} Z=a^{-1}(A L+B)=$ $a^{-1} A L+a^{-1} B=\left(a^{-1} A\right) L+a^{-1} B=L+\left(a^{-1} A-1\right) L+a^{-1} B$. Notice that we have used the additivity of operator $a^{-1}$ on series (see Section 2).

If $a^{-1} A \backslash 1 \neq \emptyset$ then $\left(a^{-1} A \backslash 1, a^{-1} B\right)$ is a non-trivial finite decomposition of ( $a^{-1} Z \backslash$ $L, L)$. Otherwise, $\left(\emptyset, a^{-1} B\right)$ is a (trivial) decomposition of ( $\left.a^{-1} Z \backslash L, L\right)$. Therefore $a^{-1} Z \backslash L=a^{-1} B$ and language $a^{-1} Z \backslash L$ is finite since $B$ is finite.

For the converse part, let $A_{p}$ be as in the hypothesis and for any $a \in A_{p}$, let $a^{-1} Z \backslash$ $L=B_{a}+A_{a} L$, with $A_{a}, B_{a}$ finite and possibly empty. Remark that $1 \notin A_{a}$ since $L \subseteq$ $a^{-1} Z \backslash L$ does not hold (see Proposition 2). Thus $a^{-1} Z=L+B_{a}+A_{a} L$. Further $Z$ can be decomposed in a non-ambiguous way as $Z=A L+B$, where: $A=A_{p} \cup\left(\bigcup_{a \in A_{p}} a A_{a}\right)$ and $B=Z \backslash A_{p} \Sigma^{*} \cup\left(\bigcup_{a \in A_{p}} a B_{a}\right)$ (see the proof of Theorem 7).

The finiteness of $A_{p}, Z \backslash A_{p} \Sigma^{*}, A_{a}, B_{a}$ implies the finiteness of $A, B$. Moreover if $A_{p} \neq 1$ then $A \neq 1, \emptyset$ and thus $(A, B)$ is not trivial. If $A=1$ and $Z \backslash L \neq \emptyset$ then $A_{a} \cup B_{a} \neq \emptyset$ and finally $(A, B)$ is not trivial. We also have that $1 \notin A$ iff $1 \notin A_{p}$.

Remark 9. Any finite decomposition $(A, B)$ of $\left(a^{-1} Z \backslash L, L\right)$ is such that $1 \notin A$ since $L \subseteq a^{-1} Z \backslash L$ does not hold (see Proposition 2).

Remark 10. Let $(A, B)$ be a non-trivial finite decomposition of $(Z, L)$. If $1 \in A$ then $(A \backslash 1, B)$ is a non-trivial finite decomposition of $(Z \backslash L, L)$. Indeed $Z=L+(A \backslash 1) L+B$ and $Z \backslash L=(A \backslash 1) L+B$.

From now on, we consider the case when $Z, L$ are regular languages. We fix some notations used in this section and in the following ones:

- $Z, L \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$ are regular languages
- $\operatorname{Aut}_{Z}=(Q, 1, \delta, F)$ is a deterministic, complete and trim automaton recognizing $Z$
- $Q_{y}=\left\{q \in Q \mid L \subseteq L_{q, F}\right\}$
- $A_{y}$ is the set of labels of all paths from 1 to a state of $Q_{y}$.

Remark 11. The sets $Q_{y}, A_{y}$ are constructible from Autz. For any state $q \in Q$ it is decidable whether $q \in Q_{y}$, that is whether $L \subseteq L_{q, F}$. Indeed $L_{q, F}$ is recognized by the
automaton ( $Q, q, \delta, F$ ) and the inclusion between regular languages is decidable. Then $A_{y}$ is the language recognized by $\left(Q, 1, \delta, Q_{y}\right)$.

Remark 12. For any finite decomposition $(A, B)$ of $(Z, L)$ we have that $A \subseteq A_{y}$ and $Z \backslash A \Sigma^{*} \subseteq B$. Indeed $w \in A$ implies $w L \subseteq A L \subseteq Z$ and $Z \backslash A \Sigma^{*} \subseteq Z \backslash A L=B$.

Theorem 8 does not directly provide a constructive way to decide whether $Z$ is finitely $L$-decomposable. Even in the case when $Z, L$ are regular languages, the family of all languages $A_{p}$ 's as in Theorem 8 could be infinite. This is the reason why we introduce the set $\operatorname{MIN}(Z, L)$. It is a finite family and it can be used as a test-family for deciding whether a regular language is finitely decomposable or not (Theorem 22).

Definition 13. Family $\operatorname{MIN}(Z, L)$ is the class of all non-empty prefix-free finite languages $A=\left\{a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{n}\right\}$ such that:
(1) $A \subseteq A_{y}$
(2) for any $i=1,2, \ldots, n$, path $p\left(a_{i}\right)=\left(q_{1}, \sigma_{1}, q_{2}\right) \cdots\left(q_{n}, \sigma_{n}, q_{n+1}\right)$ is such that $q_{j}=q_{k}$ with $1 \leqslant j<k \leqslant n+1$ implies $j=1, k=n+1\left(q_{j}=q_{k}=1\right)$.

Remark that $\operatorname{MIN}(Z, L)$ is a finite family. In some cases we write MIN instead of $\operatorname{MIN}(Z, L)$, if no ambiguity is possible on languages $Z, L$ referred to.

Example 14. If no loop exists on a state of $Q \backslash Q_{y}$ then $P P\left(A_{y}\right) \in \operatorname{MIN}(Z, L)$.
In order to present the main result of this section (Theorem 22), let us give some definitions and preliminary results.

Definition 15. Let $Q^{\prime} \subseteq Q$ and $p=\left(q_{0}, \sigma_{0}, q_{1}\right)\left(q_{1}, \sigma_{1}, q_{2}\right) \cdots\left(q_{n}, \sigma_{n}, q_{n+1}\right)$ be a path in Aut $_{Z}$. Let $i$ be the lowest index $1 \leqslant i \leqslant n$ such that $\exists i<k \leqslant n+1$ and $q_{k}=q_{i} \in Q^{\prime}$.

A $Q^{\prime}$-reduction of $p$ is the path obtained from $p$ by removing the sub-path from the first occurrence of $q_{i}$ to its last occurrence.

Moreover $\operatorname{red}_{Q^{\prime}}(p)$ is the path obtained from $p$ by repeated $Q^{\prime}$-reductions until no other $Q^{\prime}$-reduction is possible.

Definition 16. Let $Q^{\prime} \subseteq Q, x \in \Sigma^{+}, p(x)=\left(1, \sigma_{0}, q_{1}\right)\left(q_{1}, \sigma_{1}, q_{2}\right) \cdots\left(q_{n}, \sigma_{n}, q_{n+1}\right)$ and $w$ the label of $\operatorname{red}_{Q^{\prime}}\left(\left(q_{1}, \sigma_{1}, q_{2}\right) \cdots\left(q_{n}, \sigma_{n}, q_{n+1}\right)\right)$. The word $\operatorname{Red}_{Q^{\prime}}(x) \in \Sigma^{+}$is either the label of $\operatorname{red}_{Q^{\prime}}(p(x))$ if it is not 1 or $\sigma_{0} w$ otherwise.

Definition 17. Let $X \subset \Sigma^{*}$ be a prefix-free language. Language $\operatorname{Red}_{Q^{\prime}}(X)$ is the set $\operatorname{Red}_{Q^{\prime}}(X)=\left\{\operatorname{Red}_{Q^{\prime}}(x) \mid x \in X\right\}$. Moreover $\operatorname{Red}(X)$ is the set $\operatorname{Red}(X)=\operatorname{Red}_{Q}(X)$.

Remark 18. Let $X$ be a language. Then $\{q(a) \mid a \in \operatorname{Red}(X)\}=\{q(x) \mid x \in X\}$.
Remark 19. Let $Z, L$ be regular languages and $X \subseteq A_{y}$ be a non-empty language. Then $A=P P(\operatorname{Red}(X)) \in \operatorname{MIN}(Z, L)$. Indeed $A$ is finite, non-empty, prefix-free and for any $a \in A, p(a)=\left(q_{1}, \sigma_{1}, q_{2}\right) \cdots\left(q_{n}, \sigma_{n}, q_{n+1}\right)$ is such that $q_{j}=q_{k}$, with $1 \leqslant j<k \leqslant n+1$ implies $j=1, k=n+1$, by definition of $Q$-reduction.

Remark 20. If $a \in \Sigma^{*}$ then $L_{q(a), F}=a^{-1} Z$.
Lemma 21. Let $Z, L \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$ be regular languages, $Z$ infinite and $(A, B)$ be any finite decomposition of $(Z, L)$.

For any $x, t \in \Sigma^{*}, y \in \Sigma^{+}$such that $x y^{*} t \subseteq Z$, there exists $k \geqslant 0$ such that $P P(A) \cap$ $\operatorname{Pref}\left(\left\{x y^{k}\right\}\right) \neq \emptyset$.

Conversely, for any $a \in A$, there exist $k \geqslant 0, x, t \in \Sigma^{*}, y \in \Sigma^{+}$such that $x y^{*} t \subseteq Z$ and $a \in \operatorname{Pref}\left(\left\{x y^{k}\right\}\right)$.

Proof. Suppose by the contrary, that $\forall k \geqslant 0, \operatorname{PP}(A) \cap \operatorname{Pref}\left(\left\{x y^{k}\right\}\right)=\emptyset$. Then $A \cap \operatorname{Pref}\left(\left\{x y^{k}\right\}\right)=\emptyset$ holds. Therefore an infinite set of words $x y^{i} t_{i}$, with $t_{i} \leqslant t$, is a subset of $A \cup B$, against the finiteness of $A, B$.

Conversely, if $Z$ is infinite then $L$ is infinite. Hence for any $a \in A$, language $Z \cap a \Sigma^{*}$ is infinite because $a L \subseteq Z \cap a \Sigma^{*}$. Moreover $Z \cap a \Sigma^{*}$ is regular since it is the intersection of two regular languages. Therefore $\exists x, t \in \Sigma^{*}, y \in \Sigma^{+}$such that $x y^{*} t \subseteq$ $Z \cap a \Sigma^{*}$.

We are now able to present the main result of this section.
Theorem 22. Let $Z, L \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$ be regular languages. Language $Z$ is finitely $L$-decomposable iff $\operatorname{MIN}(Z, L) \neq \emptyset$ and there exists $A \in \operatorname{MIN}(Z, L)$ such that:
(1) $Z \backslash A \Sigma^{*}$ is finite,
(2) for any $a \in A, a^{-1} Z \backslash L$ is either finitely $L$-decomposable or (if not) finite,
(3) $A \neq 1$ or $Z \backslash L \neq \emptyset$.

Proof. (Direct implication) Let $Z=B_{f}+A_{f} L$ where ( $A_{f}, B_{f}$ ) is a non-trivial finite decomposition of $(Z, L)$.

If $P P\left(A_{f}\right)=1$ then $A=1 \in \operatorname{MIN}(Z, L)$ and it satisfies (1), (2), (3). Indeed $Z \backslash A \Sigma^{*}=$ $Z \backslash \Sigma^{*}=\emptyset$ is finite, $Z \backslash L$ is either finitely $L$-decomposable or (if not) finite (Remark 10 ) and $Z \backslash L \neq \emptyset$ since otherwise $\left(A_{f}, B_{f}\right)=(1, \emptyset)$ is trivial.
If $P P\left(A_{f}\right) \neq 1$ then let $A=P P\left(\operatorname{Red}\left(P P\left(A_{f}\right)\right)\right.$ ). We have that $A \in \operatorname{MIN}(Z, L)$ (Remark 19) and thus in particular $\operatorname{MIN}(Z, L) \neq \emptyset$. Let us now show that $A$ has properties (3), (2), (1).
(3) We have $A \neq 1$ from definition of $A$.
(2) Remark that for any $a \in A, q(a)=q(w)$ for $w \in P P\left(A_{f}\right)$ such that $a=\operatorname{Red}(w)$. Then $a^{-1} Z \backslash L=L_{q(a), F} \backslash L=L_{q(w), F} \backslash L$ is either finitely $L$-decomposable or (if not) finite by Theorem 8.
(1) If $Z$ is finite then $Z \backslash A \Sigma^{*}$ is trivially finite. We claim that if $Z$ is infinite then $A \subseteq \operatorname{Pref}\left(P P\left(A_{f}\right)\right) \cup P P\left(A_{f}\right)$ and thus $Z \backslash A \Sigma^{*} \subseteq Z \backslash P P\left(A_{f}\right) \Sigma^{*}$ is finite. Indeed for any $w \in A_{f}, w$ is a prefix of $x y^{k}$ for some $x, t \in \Sigma^{*}, y \in \Sigma^{+}, k \geqslant 0$ such that $x y^{*} t \subseteq Z$ (Lemma 21). Therefore for any $w \in A_{f}$, there exist in $\mathrm{Aut}_{Z}$ a path from $q(w)$ to a state $s$ labelled $x^{\prime}$, a loop on $s$ labelled $y^{\prime}$ and a path from $s$ to a final state labelled $t$, for some $x^{\prime} \in \Sigma^{*}, y^{\prime} \in \Sigma^{+}$. Recall that for any $a \in A, q(a)=q(w)$ for some $w \in P P\left(A_{f}\right)$ such that $a=\operatorname{Red}(w)$. The existence of such $x^{\prime}, y^{\prime}, t$ implies (Lemma 21 again) that for any $a \in A$ there exists $w^{\prime} \in P P\left(A_{f}\right)$ such that $w^{\prime} \leqslant a x y^{h}$, for some $h \geqslant 0$. Further it is
not the case $w^{\prime}<a$, otherwise $\operatorname{Red}\left(w^{\prime}\right)=w^{\prime}<a$, against the definition of $A$. Therefore $a \leqslant w^{\prime}$ and $w^{\prime} \in P P\left(A_{f}\right)$.
(Inverse implication) Any $A \in M I N(Z, L)$ that has properties (1), (2) and (3), satisfies the hypothesis of the converse part of Theorem 8 and thus the claim.

Example 23. Let $\Sigma=\{a, b\}$ and $Z=L=\Sigma^{*}$. Language $L$ is finitely $L$-decomposable. For instance $L=A_{f} L+B_{f}$ with $A_{f}=a a+a b+b, B_{f}=1+a$. Let Aut $_{\mathrm{L}}=(\{1\}, 1, \delta,\{1\})$ where $\delta(1, a)=\delta(1, b)=1$. Consider $A=P P\left(\operatorname{Red}\left(P P\left(A_{f}\right)\right)\right)$, as in the proof of Theorem 22. We find $A=P P(\operatorname{Red}(a a+a b+b))=P P(a+b)=a+b$. According to Theorem 22, $A \in \operatorname{MIN}(L, L)$ and (1) $L \backslash A \Sigma^{*}=1$ is finite; (2) $a^{-1} L \backslash L=b^{-1} L \backslash L=\emptyset$ is finite and (3) $A \neq 1$.

Remark 24. Theorem 22 in particular shows that if $\operatorname{MIN}(Z, L)=\emptyset$ then the only finite decomposition of $(Z, L)$ is the trivial one $(\emptyset, Z)$ if $Z$ is finite. Observe that if $(1, \emptyset)$ is a finite decomposition of $(Z, L)$ then $Z=L$ and $\{1\} \in \operatorname{MIN}(Z, L)$. Also remark that $\operatorname{MIN}(Z, L)=\emptyset$ iff $Q_{y}=\emptyset$.

## 5. A graphical representation of decompositions

In this section we present a graphical representation of decompositions. We associate a labelled tree to any decomposition. This representation will be useful in the next sections. Algorithm Fin-Dec in Section 6 constructs a finite decomposition following its associated tree, starting from the root and proceeding by increasing depth of the vertices.

Definition 25. Let $Z, L \subseteq \Sigma^{*},(A, B)$ be a decomposition of $(Z, L)$ with $A=\left\{a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots\right.$, $\left.a_{n}, \ldots\right\} \neq \emptyset$. The tree associated to $(A, B)$ is the labelled tree $T_{A, B}=(V$, child, lab $)$ where:

- $V=\{0,1, \ldots, n, \ldots\}$
- the root is 0
- $\operatorname{child}(0)=\left\{j \in V \mid a_{j} \in P P(A)\right\}$
- for any $i \in V \backslash\{0\}, \operatorname{child}(i)=\left\{j \in V \mid a_{i}<a_{j}\right.$ and $\nexists a \in A$ s.t. $\left.a_{i}<a<a_{j}\right\}$
- the label of edge $(i, j)$ is $\operatorname{lab}(i, j)=x_{i, j}$ s.t. $a_{j}=a_{i} x_{i, j}$.

Moreover the languages associated to $T_{A, B}$ are:

- $R_{0}=Z, R_{j}=x_{i, j}^{-1} R_{i} \backslash L$, for any $j \in V, j \in \operatorname{child}(i)$
- $B_{i, j}=\left\{a_{i}^{-1} b \in B \mid a_{i}<b<a_{j}\right\}$, for any internal vertex $i \in V$ and $j \in \operatorname{child}(i)$
- $B_{i, \infty}=\left\{a_{i}^{-1} b \in B \mid a_{i}<b\right\}$, for any leaf $i$.

Example 26. Let $(A, B)$ be a finite decomposition of some pair of languages $(Z, L)$. Suppose that $A=\left\{a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{9}\right\}$ where $a_{1}<a_{4}, a_{5}, a_{2}<a_{6}, a_{7}, a_{5}<a_{8}, a_{9}$ and no other prefix relation holds among words in $A$. Tree $T_{A, B}$ associated to $(A, B)$ is shown in Fig. 1.


Fig. 1. The tree $T_{A, B}$.

We have that $P P(A)=\left\{a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}\right\}$, $\operatorname{Pref}(P P(A)) \cap Z=B_{0,1} \cup B_{0,2} \cup B_{0,3}$ and $Z=Z \backslash P P(A) \Sigma^{*}+a_{1} \Sigma^{*} \cap Z+a_{2} \Sigma^{*} \cap Z+a_{3} \Sigma^{*} \cap Z=Z \backslash P P(A) \Sigma^{*}+a_{1} L+a_{1} x_{1,4} L+$ $a_{1} x_{1,5} L+a_{1} x_{1,5} x_{5,8} L+a_{1} x_{1,5} x_{5,9} L+a_{1} B_{1,4}+a_{1} B_{1,5}+a_{1} x_{1,5} B_{5,8}+a_{1} x_{1,5} B_{5,9}+a_{1} x_{1,4} B_{4, \infty}+$ $a_{1} x_{1,5} x_{5,8} B_{8, \infty}+a_{1} x_{1,5} x_{5,9} B_{9, \infty}+a_{2} L+a_{2} x_{2,6} L+a_{2} x_{2,7} L+a_{2} B_{2,6}+a_{2} B_{2,7}+a_{2} x_{2,6} B_{6, \infty}+$ $a_{2} x_{2,7} B_{7, \infty}+a_{3} L+a_{3} B_{3, \infty}$.

We also have that:
$R_{1}=a_{1}^{-1} Z \backslash L=x_{1,4} L+x_{1,5} L+x_{1,5} x_{5,8} L+x_{1,5} x_{5,9} L+B_{1,4}+B_{1,5}+x_{1,5} B_{5,8}+x_{1,5} B_{5,9}+$ $x_{1,4} B_{4, \infty}+x_{1,5} x_{5,8} B_{8, \infty}+x_{1,5} x_{5,9} B_{9, \infty}$;
$R_{2}=a_{2}^{-1} Z \backslash L=x_{2,6} L+x_{2,7} L+B_{2,6}+B_{2,7}+x_{2,6} B_{6, \infty}+x_{2,7} B_{7, \infty} ;$
$R_{3}=a_{3}^{-1} Z \backslash L=B_{3, \infty} ;$
$R_{4}=x_{1,4}^{-1} R_{1} \backslash L=B_{4, \infty} ;$
$R_{5}=x_{1,5}^{-1} R_{1} \backslash L=x_{5,8} L+x_{5,9} L+B_{5,8}+B_{5,9}+x_{5,8} B_{8, \infty}+x_{5,9} B_{9, \infty} ;$
$R_{6}=x_{2,6}^{-1} R_{2} \backslash L=B_{6, \infty}$;
$R_{7}=x_{2,7}^{-1} R_{2} \backslash L=B_{7, \infty} ;$
$R_{8}=x_{5,8}^{-1} R_{5} \backslash L=B_{8, \infty} ;$
$R_{9}=x_{5,9}^{-1} R_{5} \backslash L=B_{9, \infty}$.
We remark that $P P(A)=\left\{a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}\right\}$ is a prefix-free finite set such that $Z \backslash P P(A) \Sigma^{*} \subseteq$ $B$ is finite and $\forall a \in P P(A), a^{-1} Z \backslash L$ is finitely $L$-decomposable, as in Theorem 8. For any $i=1,2,3$ we have $a_{i}^{-1} Z \backslash L=R_{i}$. Moreover $\left(A_{1}, B_{1}\right)=\left(x_{1,4}+x_{1,5}+x_{1,5} x_{5,8}+\right.$ $\left.x_{1,5} x_{5,9}, B_{1,4}+B_{1,5}+x_{1,5} B_{5,8}+x_{1,5} B_{5,9}+x_{1,4} B_{4, \infty}+x_{1,5} x_{5,8} B_{8, \infty}+x_{1,5} x_{5,9} B_{9, \infty}\right)$ is a finite decomposition of $\left(R_{1}, L\right) ;\left(A_{2}, B_{2}\right)=\left(x_{2,6}+x_{2,7}, B_{2,6}+B_{2,7}+x_{2,6} B_{6, \infty}+x_{2,7} B_{7, \infty}\right)$ is a finite decomposition of $\left(R_{2}, L\right) ;\left(A_{3}, B_{3}\right)=\left(\emptyset, B_{3, \infty}\right)$ is a finite decomposition of $\left(R_{3}, L\right)$.

The following Propositions 27 and 28 are a transposition of Theorems 7 and 8 in terms of the trees associated to decompositions.

Proposition 27. Let $Z, L \subseteq \Sigma^{*},(A, B)$ be a non-trivial decomposition of $(Z, L), T_{A, B}=$ ( $V$, child, lab) be the associated tree and $i \in V$ be an internal vertex.

Then the sub-tree rooted in $i$ is the tree associated to a non-trivial decomposition of $\left(R_{i}, L\right)$.

Conversely if $\left(A_{i}, B_{i}\right)$ is any non-trivial decomposition of $\left(R_{i}, L\right)$ then the tree obtained by replacing the sub-tree rooted in $i$ with $T_{A_{i}, B_{i}}$ is the tree associated to a non-trivial decomposition of $(Z, L)$.

Proof. The statement of the proposition trivially holds for $i=0$. Now we prove it for $i \in \operatorname{child}(0)$. The result for any internal vertex $i$ follows by induction on the depth of $i$.

Observe that when $i \in \operatorname{child}(0)$ then $x_{0, i}=\operatorname{lab}(0, i)=a_{i}$ and $\left\{a_{i} \mid i \in \operatorname{child}(0)\right\}=P P(A)$. Moreover child $(i) \neq \emptyset$ since $i$ is not a leaf. Following Theorem $8,\left(a_{i}^{-1} A \backslash 1, a_{i}^{-1} B\right)$ is a non-trivial decomposition of $\left(R_{i}, L\right)$. The sub-tree of $T_{A, B}$ rooted in $i$ is the tree associated to ( $\left.a_{i}^{-1} A \backslash 1, a_{i}^{-1} B\right)$.

For the converse part, let $i \in \operatorname{child}(0)$ and $\left(A_{i}, B_{i}\right)$ be a non-trivial decomposition of $\left(R_{i}, L\right)$. We have that $Z=Z \backslash a_{i} \Sigma^{*}+a_{i} L+a_{i} R_{i}=Z \backslash a_{i} \Sigma^{*}+a_{i} L+a_{i}\left(A_{i} L+B_{i}\right)=(A \backslash$ $\left.a_{i} \Sigma^{*}\right) L+B \backslash a_{i} \Sigma^{*}+a_{i} L+a_{i} A_{i} L+a_{i} B_{i}=\left(A \backslash a_{i} \Sigma^{+}+a_{i} A_{i}\right) L+B \backslash a_{i} \Sigma^{*}+a_{i} B_{i}$. Define $A^{\prime}=A \backslash a_{i} \Sigma^{+} \cup a_{i} A_{i}$ and $B^{\prime}=B \backslash a_{i} \Sigma^{*} \cup a_{i} B_{i}$. Pair $\left(A^{\prime}, B^{\prime}\right)$ is thus a decomposition of $(Z, L)$. It is non-trivial since $\left(A_{i}, B_{i}\right)$ is non-trivial. The associated tree is exactly the tree obtained by replacing the sub-tree rooted in $i$ with $T_{A_{i}, B_{i}}$.

Proposition 28. Let $Z, L \subseteq \Sigma^{*},(A, B)$ be a non-trivial finite decomposition of $(Z, L)$, $T_{A, B}=(V$, child, lab) be the associated tree and $i \in V$ be an internal vertex.

Then $R_{i}$ is finitely $L$-decomposable and the sub-tree rooted in $i$ is the tree associated to a non-trivial finite decomposition of $\left(R_{i}, L\right)$.

Conversely if $\left(A_{i}, B_{i}\right)$ is any non-trivial finite decomposition of $\left(R_{i}, L\right)$ then the tree obtained by replacing the sub-tree rooted in $i$ with $T_{A_{i}, B_{i}}$ is the tree associated to $a$ non-trivial finite decomposition of $(Z, L)$.

Proof. The statement of the proposition trivially holds for $i=0$. Now we prove it for $i \in \operatorname{child}(0)$. The result for any internal vertex $i$ follows by induction on the depth of $i$.

Observe that when $i \in \operatorname{child}(0)$ then $x_{0, i}=\operatorname{lab}(0, i)=a_{i}$ and $\left\{a_{i} \mid i \in \operatorname{child}(0)\right\}=P P(A)$. Moreover child $(i) \neq \emptyset$ since $i$ is not a leaf. The language $R_{i}=a_{i}^{-1} Z \backslash L$ is not finite since $x_{i, j} L \subseteq R_{i}$ for any $j \in \operatorname{child}(i)$. Therefore $R_{i}$ is finitely $L$-decomposable by Theorem 8 . Following the proof of Theorem 8, $\left(a_{i}^{-1} A \backslash 1, a_{i}^{-1} B\right)$ is a non-trivial finite decomposition of $\left(R_{i}, L\right)$. The sub-tree of $T_{A, B}$ rooted in $i$ is the tree associated to $\left(a_{i}^{-1} A \backslash 1, a_{i}^{-1} B\right)$.

The proof of the converse part is the same as the one of Proposition 27.
Remark 29. If $(A, B)$ is a finite decomposition of $(Z, L)$ and $i$ is a leaf in $T_{A, B}$, then $R_{i}$ is finite. Indeed if $i$ is a leaf then $\nexists k \in V$ such that $a_{i}<a_{k}$. Hence $R_{i}=a_{i}^{-1} Z \backslash L=$ $\left(L \cup a_{i}^{-1} B\right) \backslash L=B_{i, \infty}$ is finite since $a_{i} B_{i, \infty} \subseteq B$ is finite.

Example 30. Consider $Z, L, A, B, T_{A, B}$, as in Example 26. We have $\operatorname{child}(0)=\{1,2,3\}$. For any $i \in\{1,2,3\}, R_{i}=a_{i}^{-1} Z \backslash L$ is finitely $L$-decomposable. A non-trivial finite decomposition of $\left(R_{i}, L\right)$ is $\left(A_{i}, B_{i}\right)$ as defined in Example 26. Further for any $i \in\{1,2,3\}$, the sub-tree rooted in $i$ is the tree associated to $\left(A_{i}, B_{i}\right)$. Consider now vertex 4 ; it is a leaf and $R_{4}=B_{4, \infty}$ is finite.

The following results allow us to restrict the search of finite decompositions to a sub-class of them: if a finite decomposition exists then a finite decomposition of a special kind exists.

Definition 31. Let $T_{A, B}$ be the tree associated to decomposition $(A, B)$ of $(Z, L)$. Tree $T_{A, B}$ is $R$-simple if for any path from the root $0 \rightarrow i_{1} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow i_{n}$ we have $R_{i_{j}} \neq R_{i_{k}}$ for any $1 \leqslant j<k \leqslant n$. Tree $T_{A, B}$ is normal if it is $R$-simple and for any internal vertex $i$ of $T_{A, B}, \operatorname{Lab}(i) \in \operatorname{MIN}\left(R_{i}, L\right)$ and $R_{i} \backslash \operatorname{Lab}(i) \Sigma^{*}$ is finite, where $\operatorname{Lab}(i)$ denotes set $\left\{x_{i, j} \mid j \in \operatorname{child}(i)\right\}$.

Remark 32. If $T_{A, B}$ is $R$-simple then any sub-tree of $T_{A, B}$ is $R$-simple; if $T_{A, B}$ is normal then any sub-tree of $T_{A, B}$ is normal.

Proposition 33. Let $Z, L \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$. If $Z$ is finitely L-decomposable then $(Z, L)$ has a non-trivial finite decomposition $(A, B)$ whose associated tree $T_{A, B}$ is $R$-simple.

Proof. Suppose that the statement does not hold for some $(Z, L)$. Let $T_{A, B}$ be the tree associated to a finite decomposition $(A, B)$ of $(Z, L)$ and $0 \rightarrow i_{1} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow i_{n}$ be a path from the root such that $R_{i_{j}}=R_{i_{k}}$ for some $1 \leqslant j<k \leqslant n$. Suppose without loss of generality, that $i_{n}$ is a leaf. If $k=n$ then $R_{i_{j}}=R_{i_{k}}$ is finite (Remark 29). We can thus remove the sub-tree rooted in $i_{j}$ and obtain a tree associated to a finite decomposition of $(Z, L)$. If $k<n$ then the sub-tree rooted in $i_{k}$ is the tree associated to a finite decomposition of $\left(R_{i_{k}}, L\right)=\left(R_{i_{j}}, L\right)$ (Proposition 28). Therefore we can replace the sub-tree rooted in $i_{j}$ by the one rooted in $i_{k}$ and obtain a tree associated to a finite decomposition of ( $Z, L$ ) (Proposition 28). Repeating such removals or replacement until there is no path $0 \rightarrow h_{1} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow h_{m}$ such that $R_{h_{j}}=R_{h_{k}}$ for some $1 \leqslant j<k \leqslant m$, we obtain a tree associated to a finite decomposition of $(Z, L)$ as required. This contradicts the initial hypothesis.

Proposition 34. Let $Z, L \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$. If $Z$ is finitely L-decomposable then $(Z, L)$ has a non-trivial finite decomposition $(A, B)$ whose associated tree $T_{A, B}$ is normal.

Proof. Let $Z$ be a finitely $L$-decomposable language. We show that $(Z, L)$ has a non-trivial finite decomposition $(X, Y)$ such that $T_{X, Y}$ is $R$-simple, and for $i=0, P P(X)=$ $\operatorname{Lab}(i) \in \operatorname{MIN}\left(R_{i}, L\right), R_{i} \backslash \operatorname{Lab}(i) \Sigma^{*}$ is finite and for every $h \in \operatorname{child}(i)$, the sub-tree rooted in $h$ is $R$-simple. The general statement will follow by induction on depth of $i$.

If $Z$ is finitely $L$-decomposable then $(Z, L)$ has a non-trivial finite decomposition ( $X^{\prime}, Y^{\prime}$ ) such that $T_{X^{\prime}, Y^{\prime}}$ is $R$-simple (Proposition 33). Let $P P\left(X^{\prime}\right)=\left\{a_{1}, \ldots, a_{k}\right\}$. For any $j=1, \ldots, k$, language $R_{j}=L_{q\left(a_{j}\right), F} \backslash L$ is finitely L-decomposable (Proposition 28).

Further the sub-tree rooted in $j$ is $R$-simple (Remark 32) and is the tree associated to a finite decomposition of $\left(R_{j}, L\right)$ (Proposition 28). Consider $A=P P\left(\operatorname{Red}\left(P P\left(X^{\prime}\right)\right)\right.$ ). We have $A \in \operatorname{MIN}(Z, L)$ (Remark 19) and for any $a \in A, a^{-1} Z \backslash L=L_{q(a), F} \backslash L=R_{j}$ for some $j \in\{1, \ldots, k\}$ (Remark 18). Applying Theorem 8, we obtain a finite decomposition $(X, Y)$ of $(Z, L)$ where $T_{X, Y}$ is $R$-simple, $P P(X)=A \in \operatorname{MIN}\left(R_{0}, L\right), R_{0} \backslash \operatorname{Lab}(0) \Sigma^{*} \subseteq Y$ is finite and $\forall h \in \operatorname{child}(0)$ the sub-tree rooted in $h$ is $R$-simple. Indeed the sub-tree rooted in $h$ is the sub-tree rooted in some $j \in\{1, \ldots, k\}$ of $T_{X^{\prime}, Y^{\prime}}$. The decomposition ( $X, Y$ ) is not trivial since $A \neq 1, \emptyset$, by definition of Red.

Next lemmas will be used in Section 7. Note that they hold for any decomposition.
Lemma 35. Let $Z, L \subseteq \Sigma^{*}, T_{A, B}=(V$, child, lab) be the tree associated to decomposition $(A, B)$ of $(Z, L)$ and $i, j$ two vertices in $T_{A, B}$. If $i$ is an ancestor of $j$ in $T_{A, B}$ then $R_{i}=w R_{j}+A^{\prime} L+B^{\prime}$, where $w$ is the label of the path from vertex $i$ to vertex $j$ and $A^{\prime}, B^{\prime} \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$.

Proof. Let us suppose, without loss of generality, that the path from $i$ to $j$ is $i \rightarrow$ $i+1 \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow j-1 \rightarrow j$. Remark that for any $h=i, \ldots, j-1, R_{h}$ is either $R_{h}=$ $w_{h, h+1} L+w_{h, h+1} R_{h+1}+R_{h} \backslash w_{h, h+1} \Sigma^{*}$, if $h \neq 0$ or $R_{h}=w_{h, h+1} L+w_{h, h+1} R_{h+1}+R_{h} \backslash$ $w_{h, h+1} \Sigma^{*}+Z \backslash A \Sigma^{*}$, if $h=0$. Consider the tree obtained from the sub-tree rooted in $h$ by removing $h+1$ from child $(h)$. Using a proof similar to the one of Proposition 27, it can be shown that ( $R_{h} \backslash w_{h, h+1} \Sigma^{*}, L$ ) has a finite decomposition $\left(A_{h}, B_{h}\right)$. Let us denote for any $h=i, \cdots, j, w_{h}=w_{i, i+1} \cdots w_{h-1, h}$. Suppose $i \neq 0$. Then $R_{i}=w_{j} R_{j}+$ $\sum_{h=i+1, \ldots, j} w_{h} L+\sum_{h=i+1, \ldots, j-1} w_{h}\left(A_{h} L+B_{h}\right)$. Equality $R_{i}=w R_{j}+A^{\prime} L+B^{\prime}$ thus holds $w=w_{j}, A^{\prime}=\sum_{h=i+1, \ldots, j} w_{h}+\sum_{h=i+1, \ldots, j-1} w_{h} A_{h}$ and $B^{\prime}=\sum_{h=i+1, \ldots, j-1} w_{h} B_{h}$. If $i=0$ then the equality holds with $B^{\prime}=\sum_{h=i+1, \ldots, j-1} w_{h} B_{h}+Z \backslash A \Sigma^{*}$.

Lemma 36. Let $Z, L \subseteq \Sigma^{*}, T_{A, B}=(V$, child, lab) be the tree associated to decomposition $(A, B)$ of $(Z, L)$. Let $i_{0} \in V$ and $I$ a set of vertices in the sub-tree rooted in $i_{0}$ such that $\forall i \in I, R_{i}=R_{i_{0}}$. Then $\exists W, A, B \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$ such that $R_{i_{0}}=W R_{i_{0}}+A L+B$.

Proof. By a proof similar to the one of Lemma 35, one can prove that $R_{i_{0}}=\sum_{i \in I} w_{i} R_{i}+$ $A L+B$ for some $w_{i} \in \Sigma^{*}, A, B \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$. Since $\forall i \in I, R_{i}=R_{i_{0}}$, we have $R_{i_{0}}=W R_{i_{0}}+A L+B$, with $W=\sum_{i \in I} w_{i}$.

## 6. Main construction

Theorem 22 in Section 4 suggests a recursive way to construct a finite decomposition of $(Z, L)$, when $Z, L$ are regular languages. Indeed a finite decomposition of $(Z, L)$ can be obtained from finite decompositions of $\left(a^{-1} Z \backslash L, L\right)$ for $a \in A$ and $A \in \operatorname{MIN}(Z, L)$. The basis of this recursion is the case when $\operatorname{MIN}(Z, L)=\emptyset$ : if $Z$ is finite then a finite decomposition is simply obtained, otherwise no finite decomposition exists at all. Based on these results, we design an algorithm for deciding whether $(Z, L)$ has a non-trivial finite decomposition and for eventually providing some ones. Proposition 42 ensures
that the algorithm always stops in a finite number of steps and Proposition 43 states its correctness.

We fix some notations:

- $Z, L$ are regular languages
- $\mathrm{Aut}_{Z}$ is a deterministic, complete and trim automaton recognizing $Z$
- $\mathrm{Aut}_{L}$ is a deterministic, complete and trim automaton recognizing $L$.

We are going to sketch algorithm Fin-Dec working on input $\left(Z, L, \mathrm{Aut}_{Z}, \mathrm{Aut}_{L}\right)$. The algorithm calls procedure Find-Fin-Dec. In procedure Find-Fin-Dec, $\mathrm{Aut}_{X}=(Q, 1, \delta, F)$ denotes a deterministic, trim automaton recognizing $X$ and $\mathrm{Aut}_{a}$ is the automaton recognizing $L_{q(a), F} \backslash L=L_{q(a), F} \cap\left(\Sigma^{*} \backslash L\right)$ obtained by intersection of $(Q, q(a), \delta, F)$ and the complement of $\mathrm{Aut}_{L}$ (see Section 2). We emphasize that the algorithm is written in an informal way.
$\operatorname{Fin}^{-D e c}\left(Z, L, \operatorname{Aut}_{Z}, \operatorname{Aut}_{L}\right)$

```
Find-Fin-Dec \(\left(Z, L\right.\), Aut \(_{Z}\), Aut \(\left._{L},\{Z\}\right)\)
if \(\mathrm{FD}(\mathrm{Z}, \mathrm{L}) \neq \emptyset\)
        then return \(\mathrm{FD}(\mathrm{Z}, \mathrm{L})\)
        else return "丑 finite decompositions"
Find-Fin-Dec ( \(X, L\), Aut \(_{X}\), Aut \(_{L}\), Track \()\)
    \(\mathrm{FD}(\mathrm{X}, \mathrm{L}) \leftarrow \emptyset\)
        if \(X\) is finite
            then \(F D(X, L) \leftarrow F D(X, L) \cup\{(\emptyset, X)\}\)
        if \(\operatorname{MIN}(X, L) \neq \emptyset\)
            then for any \(A \in \operatorname{MIN}(X, L)\) s.t. \(X \backslash A \Sigma^{*}\) finite and
                \(\forall a \in A, L_{q(a), F} \backslash L \notin T R A C K\)
                do for any \(a \in A\)
                    do \(I \leftarrow\left(L_{q(a), F} \backslash L, L, \mathrm{Aut}_{a}, \mathrm{Aut}_{L}, T R A C K \cup\left\{L_{q(a), F} \backslash L\right\}\right)\)
                    Find-Fin-Dec \((I)\)
            if \(\forall a \in A, F D\left(L_{q(a), F} \backslash L\right) \neq \emptyset\)
                then for any \(a \in A\) and \(\left(A_{a}, B_{a}\right) \in F D\left(L_{q(a), F} \backslash L\right)\)
                    do \(A_{M} \leftarrow A \cup\left(\bigcup_{a \in A} a A_{a}\right)\)
                        \(B_{M} \leftarrow X \backslash A \Sigma^{*} \cup\left(\bigcup_{a \in A} a B_{a}\right)\)
                        \(F D(X, L) \leftarrow F D(X, L) \cup\left\{\left(A_{M}, B_{M}\right)\right\}\)
```

Note that in the sequel, $\operatorname{FD}(Z, L)$ denotes the set returned by $\operatorname{Find}-\operatorname{Fin}-\operatorname{Dec}\left(Z, L, \operatorname{Aut}_{Z}\right.$, Aut $_{L},\{Z\}$ ).

Remark 37. When looking for a finite decomposition $(A, B)$ in algorithm Fin-Dec we focus on $A$. Language $B$ is step by step constructed dependently to words inserted in $A$, in such a way it is finite too.

Our goal is now to prove that algorithm Fin-Dec always stops. Let us state a preliminary lemma and then define a labelled tree associated to ( $Z, L, A_{M}, B_{M}$ ) where $\left(A_{M}, B_{M}\right) \in F D(Z, L)$. The structure of such a tree exactly mirrors the structure of
recursive calls of the procedure Find-Fin-Dec when it adds pair $\left(A_{M}, B_{M}\right)$ to $F D(Z, L)$ with initial call to $\left(Z, L, \mathrm{Aut}_{Z}, \mathrm{Aut}_{L},\{Z\}\right)$.

Lemma 38. Let $\mathrm{Aut}_{A}, \mathrm{Aut}_{B}$ be deterministic, complete and trim automata. Let $\mathrm{Aut}_{0}=$ $\operatorname{Aut}_{A}$ and $\forall i \geqslant 1, \operatorname{Aut}_{i}=\left(Q_{i}, q_{i}, \delta_{i}, F_{i}\right)$ where $\left(Q_{i}, q_{i}^{0}, \delta_{i}, F_{i}\right)=\operatorname{Aut}_{i-1} \otimes \operatorname{Aut}_{B}$ and $q_{i} \in Q_{i}$. Then $\left\{L\left(\operatorname{Aut}_{i}\right) \mid i \geqslant 0\right\}$ is finite.

Proof. Let $\mathrm{Aut}_{A}=\left(Q_{A}, q_{A}, \delta_{A}, F_{A}\right)$ and $\mathrm{Aut}_{B}=\left(Q_{B}, q_{B}, \delta_{B}, F_{B}\right)$. We associate to each Aut $_{i}$ an automaton Aut ${ }_{i}^{\prime}$ with states in $Q_{A} \times 2^{Q_{B}}$ and show that for every $i \geqslant 0, L\left(\mathrm{Aut}_{i}\right)=$ $L\left(\right.$ Aut $\left._{i}^{\prime}\right)$. Since $Q_{A}, Q_{B}$ are finite, then $Q_{A} \times 2^{Q_{B}}$ is finite too. Thus the family $\left\{\mathrm{Aut}_{i}^{\prime} \mid i \geqslant 0\right\}$ is finite and the goal is achieved.

Let $p, p^{\prime} \in Q_{i}, p=\left(\ldots\left(p_{0}, p_{1}\right), \ldots, p_{i}\right), p^{\prime}=\left(\ldots\left(p_{0}^{\prime}, p_{1}^{\prime}\right), \ldots, p_{i}^{\prime}\right)$, with $p_{0}, p_{0}^{\prime} \in Q_{A}$, and $\forall j=1, \ldots, i, p_{j}, p_{j}^{\prime} \in Q_{B}$. We claim that if $\left\{p_{1}, \ldots, p_{i}\right\}=\left\{p_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, p_{i}^{\prime}\right\}$ then $p, p^{\prime}$ are not distinguishable, i.e. $L_{p, F_{i}}=L_{p^{\prime}, F_{i}}$. Denote $P=\left\{p_{1}, \ldots, p_{i}\right\}$. For any word $w \in \Sigma^{*}, w \in L_{p, F_{i}}$ iff $\left(p_{0} \cdot w \in F_{A}\right.$ and $\left.\forall j=1, \ldots, i, p_{j} \cdot w \in F_{B}\right)$ iff $\left(p_{0} \cdot w \in F_{A}\right.$ and $\left.\forall p \in P, p \cdot w \in F_{B}\right)$ iff $\left(p_{0} \cdot w \in F_{A}\right.$ and $\left.\forall j=1, \ldots, i, p_{j}^{\prime} \cdot w \in F_{B}\right)$ iff $w \in L_{p^{\prime}, F_{i}}$.

From results of automata theory, $L\left(\mathrm{Aut}_{i}\right)=L\left(\mathrm{Aut}_{i}^{\prime}\right)$, where $\mathrm{Aut}_{i}^{\prime}$ is obtained by identifying (not distinguishable) states $p=\left(\ldots\left(p_{0}, p_{1}\right), \ldots, p_{i}\right), p^{\prime}=\left(\ldots\left(p_{0}^{\prime}, p_{1}^{\prime}\right), \ldots, p_{i}^{\prime}\right), \ldots$, $p^{(n)}=\left(\ldots\left(p_{0}^{(n)}, p_{1}^{(n)}\right), \ldots, p_{i}^{(n)}\right)$ such that $\left\{p_{1}, \ldots, p_{i}\right\}=\left\{p_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, p_{i}^{\prime}\right\}=\cdots=\left\{p_{1}^{(n)}, \ldots, p_{i}^{(n)}\right\}$ in a unique state renamed $\left(p_{0},\left\{p_{1}, \ldots, p_{i}\right\}\right)$.

Definition 39. Let $Z, L \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$ and $\left(A_{M}, B_{M}\right) \in F D(Z, L)$.
The tree $F\left(Z, L, A_{M}, B_{M}\right)$ is the following labelled tree $F\left(Z, L, A_{M}, B_{M}\right)=(V$, child, lab $)$ where vertices are languages on $\Sigma$ and labels are words on $\Sigma$.

The root is $Z$. The set $\operatorname{child}(Z)$ is the set of all languages $Z_{i}$ such that, when considering $A=P P\left(A_{M}\right)$ in line 5 of Find-Fin-Dec, then Find-Fin-Dec calls Find-Fin-Dec $\left(Z_{i}, L\right.$, $\left.\operatorname{Aut}_{Z_{i}}, \operatorname{Aut}_{L},\left\{Z \cup Z_{i}\right\}\right)$ in line 8.

The label $\operatorname{lab}\left(Z, Z_{i}\right)=a_{i}$, where $P P\left(A_{M}\right)=\left\{a_{1}, \ldots, a_{k}\right\}$ and $Z_{i}=L_{q\left(a_{i}\right), F} \backslash L$.
For any $i=1, \ldots, k$, the sub-tree rooted in $i$ is $F\left(Z_{i}, L, a_{i}^{-1} A_{M} \backslash 1, a_{i}^{-1} B_{M}\right)$ if $\operatorname{MIN}\left(Z_{i}, L\right)$ $\neq \emptyset$ or the tree composed of the only vertex $Z_{i}$, otherwise.

An example of tree $F\left(Z, L, A_{M}, B_{M}\right)$ is given in Section 6.1, below.
Remark 40. Suppose that Fin-Dec applies to input ( $Z, L, \mathrm{Aut}_{Z}, \mathrm{Aut}_{L}$ ), it returns $F D(Z, L)$ $\neq \emptyset$ and $\left(A_{M}, B_{M}\right) \in F D(Z, L)$.

If during the computation of $\left(A_{M}, B_{M}\right)$, the procedure Find-Fin-Dec is called on $\left(X, L, \mathrm{Aut}_{X}, \mathrm{Aut}_{L}, \mathrm{TRACK}\right)$ then Track contains all ancestors of $X$ in $F\left(Z, L, A_{M}, B_{M}\right)$.

Remark 41. Let $(A, B)$ be a finite decomposition of $(Z, L)$.
The trees $F(Z, L, A, B)$ and $T_{A, B}$ are related by a one-to-one correspondence mapping vertices of $F(Z, L, A, B)$ to vertices of $T_{A, B}$. The correspondence maps root $Z$ of $F(Z, L, A, B)$ to root 0 of $T_{A, B}$. Further if the correspondence maps vertex $Z_{i}$ of $F(Z, L, A, B)$ to vertex $i$ of $T_{A, B}$ then it maps child $\left(Z_{i}\right)$ to child( $i$ ). Observe that if the correspondence maps $Z_{i}$ to vertex $i$ then $R_{i}=Z_{i}$.

Proposition 42. The algorithm Fin-Dec always stops.
Proof. Let us suppose Fin-Dec applies to input $\left(Z, L, \operatorname{Aut}_{Z}, \mathrm{Aut}_{L}\right)$. Let $C\left(\mathrm{Aut}_{Z}, \mathrm{Aut}_{L}\right)$ denote the family of all languages $X$ 's such that Find-Fin-Dec is recursively called on $\left(X, L, \mathrm{Aut}_{X}, \mathrm{Aut}_{L}, \mathrm{TRACK}\right)$ during the execution of Fin-Dec. We have that $C\left(\mathrm{Aut}_{Z}, \mathrm{Aut}_{L}\right)$ is finite by Lemma 38. Indeed $\mathrm{Aut}_{Z}$ and $\mathrm{Aut}_{L}$ are finite automata, each language $X$ is $X=L_{q(a), F} \backslash L$ for some $a$, and the automaton $\mathrm{Aut}_{a}$ is obtained by intersection of $(Q, q(a), \delta, F)$ and the complement of Aut $_{L}$. Consider now the set $\{F(Z, L, A, B) \mid(A, B)$ $\in F D(Z, L)\}$. Note that such a set shows all recursive calls to Find-Fin-Dec necessary to compute set $F D(Z, L)$. This set is finite since $\operatorname{MIN}(X, L)$ is finite for any regular language $X \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$ and any $X=L_{q(a), F} \backslash L$ is a regular language. Moreover the breadth of any vertex in $F(Z, L, A, B)$ is finite since any $A \in M I N$ is finite. Finally any $F(Z, L, A, B)$ has finite depth because $\mathrm{C}\left(\mathrm{Aut}_{Z}, \mathrm{~A}_{L}\right)$ is finite and because of the condition $L_{q(a), F} \backslash L \notin \mathrm{TRACK}$ in line 5 of Find-Fin-Dec and the meaning of the set Track in Remark 40.

Let us now prove that algorithm Fin-Dec computes in $F D(Z, L)$ a set of special finite decompositions of ( $Z, L$ ).

Proposition 43. Let $Z, L \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$ be regular languages.
Then $F D(Z, L) \backslash\{(\emptyset, Z)\}=\operatorname{NORM}(Z, L)$, where $\operatorname{NORM}(Z, L)$ is the set of all finite decompositions $(A, B)$ of $(Z, L)$ such that $T_{A, B}$ is normal.

Proof. First we show the inclusion $F D(Z, L) \backslash\{(\emptyset, Z)\} \subseteq \operatorname{NORM}(Z, L)$. Let $\left(A_{M}, B_{M}\right)$ $\in F D(Z, L) \backslash\{(\emptyset, Z)\}$. We prove that $\left(A_{M}, B_{M}\right)$ is a finite decomposition and that $T_{A_{M}, B_{M}}$ is normal by induction on the depth $d$ of $F\left(Z, L, A_{M}, B_{M}\right)=(V$, child, lab $)$. Note that if $d=0$ then $\left(A_{M}, B_{M}\right)=(\emptyset, Z)$.

Suppose $d=1$. For any leaf $Z_{i}$ of $F\left(Z, L, A_{M}, B_{M}\right)$ we have $F D\left(Z_{i}, L\right)$ is either $\left\{\left(\emptyset, Z_{i}\right)\right\}$ if $Z_{i}$ is finite or $\emptyset$. From the construction of $A_{M}$ (line 11 of Find-Fin-Dec), we necessarily have that $A_{M}=P P\left(A_{M}\right)$. Moreover the condition for entering the for loop of line 5 implies that $A_{M} \in \operatorname{MIN}(Z, L), Z \backslash A_{M} \Sigma^{*}$ is finite and $\forall a \in A_{M}, L_{q(a), F} \backslash L \neq Z$. Therefore $A_{M}$ satisfies all hypothesis of Theorem 8 (converse part). Then ( $A_{M}, B_{M}$ ) is a finite decomposition since it is constructed (lines 11-12) according to Theorem 8. Further $T_{A, B}$ is $R$-simple because of the condition $L_{q(a), F} \backslash L \notin \mathrm{~T} R A C K$ for entering for loop in line 5 and because of Remark 40. Moreover it is normal. The only internal node is $i=0$. For $i=0$ we have $\operatorname{Lab}(0)=A_{M} \in \operatorname{MIN}(Z, L)$ and $R_{0} \backslash \operatorname{Lab}(0) \Sigma^{*}=Z \backslash A_{M} \Sigma^{*}$ is finite.

Suppose now $d>1$. The construction of $A_{M}$ (line 11) implies that Find-Fin-Dec applied to $\left(Z, L, \mathrm{Aut}_{Z}, \mathrm{Aut}_{L}\right)$ executes the for loop in line 5 with $A=P P\left(A_{M}\right)$. Therefore $P P\left(A_{M}\right) \in \operatorname{MIN}(Z, L), Z \backslash P P\left(A_{M}\right) \Sigma^{*}$ is finite and $\forall a \in P P\left(A_{M}\right), L_{q(a), F} \backslash L \neq Z$. Moreover the procedure Find-Fin-Dec calls itself on ( $L_{q(a), F}, L, \mathrm{Aut}_{a}, \mathrm{Aut}_{L}$ ) for any $a \in P P\left(A_{M}\right)$. For any $a \in L_{q(a), F} \backslash L$ and $(A, B) \in F D\left(L_{q(a), F} \backslash L, L\right)$, the depth of $F\left(L_{q(a), F} \backslash\right.$ $L, L, A, B)$ is less than $d$. By the inductive hypothesis $F D\left(L_{q(a), F} \backslash L, L\right) \backslash\left\{\left(\emptyset, L_{q(a), F} \backslash\right.\right.$ $L)\}=\operatorname{NORM}\left(L_{q(a), F} \backslash L, L\right)$. Therefore $\left(A_{M}, B_{M}\right)$ is a finite decomposition since it is constructed (line 11) according to Theorem 8. Further $T_{A_{M}, B_{M}}$ is normal. Indeed it is
$R$-simple because of the condition $L_{q(a), F} \backslash L \notin \mathrm{~T} R A C K$ each time necessary for entering the for loop of line 5 and because of Remark 40. Moreover let $i$ be any internal vertex of $T_{A_{M}, B_{M}}$. If $i=0$ then $\operatorname{Lab}(0)=P P\left(A_{M}\right)$ and $R_{0} \backslash \operatorname{Lab}(0) \Sigma^{*}=Z \backslash P P\left(A_{M}\right) \Sigma^{*}$ are both finite languages because of the condition for entering the for loop of line 5 . If $i \neq 0$ then $i$ is an internal vertex of the sub-tree $T_{k}$ of $T_{A_{M}, B_{M}}$ rooted in some $k \in \operatorname{child}(0)$. Further $R_{i}$ is the language associated to some vertex of $T_{k}$ because of the definition of languages associated to $T_{A_{M}, B_{M}}$. Therefore $\operatorname{Lab}(i)$ and $R_{i} \backslash \operatorname{Lab}(i) \Sigma^{*}$ are both finite by inductive hypothesis.

Let us now show that $\operatorname{NORM}(Z, L) \subseteq F D(Z, L) \backslash\{(\emptyset, Z)\}$. Let $(A, B)$ be a finite decomposition of $(Z, L)$ such that $T_{A, B}=(V$, child, lab $)$ is normal. We have $(A, B) \neq(\emptyset, Z)$ since the definition of $T_{A, B}$ forbids that $A=\emptyset$. We prove that $(A, B) \in F D(Z, L)$ by induction on the depth $d$ of $T_{A, B}$.

If $d=0$ then $A=1$ and $B=Z \backslash L$. Hence $A \in \operatorname{MIN}(Z, L), Z \backslash A \Sigma^{*}=\emptyset$ is finite and $L_{q(1), F} \backslash L=Z \backslash L=B$ is finite. Therefore $A$ is processed in line 5 of Find-Fin-Dec $\left(Z, L, \mathrm{Aut}_{Z}, \mathrm{Aut}_{L}\right)$ and $(A, B) \in F D(Z, L)$.

Suppose $d>0$. We have $P P(A)=\operatorname{Lab}(0), Z \backslash P P(A)=R_{0} \backslash \operatorname{Lab}(0)$ and $\forall a \in P P(A)$, $L_{q(a), F} \backslash L=R_{i(a)}$ for some $i(a) \in \operatorname{child}(0)$. Therefore when executing Find-Fin-Dec $\left(Z, L, \operatorname{Aut}_{Z}, \operatorname{Aut}_{L},\{Z\}\right)$ we find $P P(A) \in \operatorname{MIN}(Z, L), Z \backslash P P(A)$ is finite and $L_{q(a), F} \backslash L \notin$ $\operatorname{Track}(=\{Z\})$. Hence Find-Fin-Dec is called on $\left(L_{q(a), F} \backslash L, L, \operatorname{Aut}_{a}, \operatorname{Aut}_{L},\left\{Z, L_{q(a), F} \backslash L\right\}\right)$ for any $a \in P P(A)$. Consider now for any $a \in P P(A)$ the sub-tree $T_{a}$ of $T_{A, B}$ rooted in $i(a)$. If $T_{a}$ is empty then $L_{q(a), F} \backslash L$ is finite. Otherwise $T_{a}$ is the tree associated to some finite decomposition $\left(A_{a}, B_{a}\right)$ of ( $L_{q(a), F} \backslash L, L$ ) (Proposition 28). Further it is normal since it is the sub-tree of a normal tree (Remark 32). By the inductive hypothesis $F D\left(L_{q(a), F} \backslash L, L\right) \backslash\left\{\left(\emptyset, L_{q(a), F} \backslash L\right)\right\}=\operatorname{NORM}\left(L_{q(a), F} \backslash L, L\right)$. Hence $\left(A_{a}, B_{a}\right) \in F D\left(L_{q(a), F} \backslash\right.$ $L, L)$. Observe now that when calling $\operatorname{Fin}-\operatorname{Dec}\left(L_{q(a), F} \backslash L, L, \operatorname{Aut}_{a}, \operatorname{Aut}_{L}\right)$ we find $Z_{i} \notin$ TRACK for any vertex $Z_{i}$ of $F\left(L_{q(a), F} \backslash L, L, A_{a}, B_{a}\right)$. Moreover, this situation holds also if the initial call is $\operatorname{Fin}-\operatorname{Dec}\left(Z, L, \operatorname{Aut}_{Z}, \operatorname{Aut}_{L}\right)$, because $T_{A, B}$ is $R$-simple. Finally $(A, B) \in F D(Z, L)$ since its construction (line 11) follows Theorem 8.

We are now able to state the main result of this section.
Theorem 44. It is decidable (in a constructive way) whether, given regular languages $Z, L \subseteq \Sigma^{*}, Z$ is finitely L-decomposable.

Proof. Let $Z, L \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$ be regular languages. In order to decide whether $Z$ is finitely $L$-decomposable or not, we choose a deterministic, complete and trim automaton $\mathrm{Aut}_{Z}$ recognizing $Z$ and a deterministic, complete and trim automaton Aut ${ }_{L}$ recognizing $L$. Then we use algorithm Fin-Dec and the decidability of inclusion, emptiness and finiteness for regular languages. From Proposition 34, we have that $(Z, L)$ has a finite decomposition not $(\emptyset, Z)$ iff $\operatorname{NORM}(Z, L) \neq \emptyset$. Moreover consider the set $F D(Z, L)$ returned by Find-Fin-Dec $\left(Z, L, \operatorname{Aut}_{Z}, \operatorname{Aut}_{L},\{Z\}\right)$. We have (Proposition 43) that $F D(Z, L) \backslash$ $\{(\emptyset, Z)\}=\operatorname{NORM}(Z, L)$. Hence algorithm Fin-Dec applied to $\left(Z, L\right.$, Aut $_{Z}$, Aut $\left._{L}\right)$ returns in $F D(Z, L)$ either a non-empty set of finite decompositions of $(Z, L)$, if $(Z, L)$ has some finite decomposition not $(\emptyset, Z)$, or the message " $\nexists$ finite decompositions", otherwise. In order to decide whether $Z$ is finitely $L$-decomposable or not, we can thus
apply Fin-Dec to $\left(Z, L, \operatorname{Aut}_{Z}, \mathrm{Aut}_{L}\right)$ and decide that $Z$ is finitely $L$-decomposable iff $F D(Z, L) \backslash\{(1, \emptyset)),(\emptyset, Z)\} \neq \emptyset$.

We show now that the finite decompositions provided by Find-Fin-Dec, if any, are minimal with respect to the length and maximal in the sense specified here below. We denote by $|w|$ the length of word $w$ and by $l(X)$ the length of finite language $X$, that is $l(X)=\sum_{x \in X}|x|$.

Proposition 45. Let $Z, L \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$ be regular languages.
If $Z$ is finitely L-decomposable then for every non-trivial finite decomposition $(X, Y)$ of $(Z, L)$ such that $(X, Y) \notin F D(Z, L)$, then there exists a finite decomposition $(A, B) \in F D(Z, L)$ such that $l(A)<l(X)$ and $l(B)<l(Y)$.

Proof. Let $(X, Y)$ be a non-trivial finite decomposition of $(Z, L)$ such that $(X, Y) \notin$ $F D(Z, L)$. Let $A^{\prime}=P P(\operatorname{Red}(P P(X)))$. As shown in Theorem 22, $A^{\prime} \in \operatorname{MIN}(Z, L), Z \backslash$ $A^{\prime} \Sigma^{*}$ is finite and for any $a \in A^{\prime}, L_{q(a), F} \backslash L$ is either finitely $L$-decomposable or (if not) finite. Therefore, we can apply Theorem 8 and obtain a finite decomposition $(A, B)$ of $(Z, L)$ with $P P(A)=A^{\prime}$. Indeed $A=A^{\prime} \cup\left(\bigcup_{a \in A^{\prime}} a A_{a}\right)$ and $B=Z \backslash A^{\prime} \Sigma^{*} \cup\left(\bigcup_{a \in A^{\prime}} a B_{a}\right)$, where $L_{q(a), F} \backslash L=B_{a}+A_{a} L$ and $\left(A_{a}, B_{a}\right) \in F D\left(L_{q(a), F} \backslash L, L\right)$. From Proposition 43, $(A, B) \in F D(Z, L)$.

Moreover, in the proof of Theorem 22, we have shown that $Z \backslash A^{\prime} \Sigma^{*} \subseteq Z \backslash P P(X) \Sigma^{*}$. Hence $l\left(Z \backslash A^{\prime} \Sigma^{*}\right) \leqslant l\left(Z \backslash P P(X) \Sigma^{*}\right)$. We are now able to show that $l(A)<l(X)$ and $l(B)<l(Y)$. Indeed, for any $x \in P P(X)$ it holds $|\operatorname{Red}(x)| \leqslant|x|$ and since $(X, Y) \notin$ $F D(Z, L)$ implies $P P(X) \notin M I N$ then there exists $x \in P P(X)$ such that $|\operatorname{Red}(x)|<|x|$. Therefore:

$$
l(A)=l\left(A^{\prime}\right)+\sum_{a \in A^{\prime}}|a| l\left(A_{a}\right)<l(P P(X))+\sum_{x \text { s.t } \operatorname{Red}(x)=a}|x| l\left(A_{a}\right)=l(X)
$$

and

$$
\begin{aligned}
l(B) & =\sum_{a \in A^{\prime}}|a| l\left(B_{a}\right)+l\left(Z \backslash A^{\prime} \Sigma^{*}\right) \\
& <\sum_{x \text { s.t. } \operatorname{Red}(x)=a}|x| l\left(B_{a}\right)+l\left(Z \backslash P P(X) \Sigma^{*}\right)=l(Y)
\end{aligned}
$$

Remark 46. Let $(A, B),\left(A^{\prime}, B^{\prime}\right)$ two finite decompositions of $(Z, L)$. If $L$ is infinite then neither $A^{\prime} \subset A$ nor $A \subset A^{\prime}$. Indeed if $A \subset A^{\prime}$ then there exists $a \in A^{\prime} \backslash A$ and $a L \subseteq Z$. Hence $Z \backslash A \Sigma^{*}$ would contain the infinite language $a L$, against $Z \backslash A \Sigma^{*} \subseteq B$ is finite.

Proposition 47. Let $Z, L \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$ be regular languages.
If $Z$ is finitely $L$-decomposable then for every non-trivial finite decomposition $(X, Y)$ of $(Z, L),(X, Y) \notin F D(Z, L)$, such that $A \subseteq X$ for some $(A, B) \in F D(Z, L)$, we have $A=X$.

Proof. Let $(X, Y),(A, B)$ as in the hypothesis. Note that $(A, B)$ is a finite decomposition of $(Z, L)$ (Theorem 43). If $L$ is infinite then $A \subset X$ cannot hold (Remark 46). Hence $A=X$. If $L$ is finite then $Z$ is finite too, since $Z=A L+B$ and $A, B, L$ are finite.


Fig. 2. The automaton $\mathrm{Aut}_{L}$ of Section 6.1.

Therefore no loop exists on a state of $\operatorname{Aut}_{Z}$. Hence $\operatorname{MIN}(Z, L)=\left\{X \mid X \subseteq A_{y}, X\right.$ prefixfree $\}$. Moreover for any $\left(A_{M}, B_{M}\right) \in F D(Z, L)$, any vertex $Z_{i}$ of $F\left(Z, L, A_{M}, B_{M}\right)$ is finite. Finally $F D(Z, L)$ is exactly the set of all finite decompositions of $(Z, L)$. In other words no finite decomposition $(X, Y)$ exists such that $(X, Y) \notin F D(Z, L)$.

### 6.1. A first example of execution of Fin-Dec

Let $Z=L$ be the language recognized by deterministic automaton $\mathrm{Aut}_{L}=(Q, 1, \delta, F)$ shown in Fig. 2. Let us apply algorithm Fin-Dec to input ( $L, L, \mathrm{Aut}_{L}, \mathrm{Aut}_{L}$ ) and follow the computation of a pair $\left(A_{M}, B_{M}\right)$ in $F D(Z, L)$.

The algorithm calls the procedure Find-Fin-Dec on $\left(L, L, \operatorname{Aut}_{L}, \operatorname{Aut}_{L},\{L\}\right)$. Since $L$ is infinite, it looks for $\operatorname{MIN}(L, L)$. We have that $Q_{y}=\{1,3,4\}$. Further $\operatorname{MIN}(L, L) \neq \emptyset$ and $A=\left\{b^{2}, a\right\} \in \operatorname{MIN}(L, L)$. Language $A$ satisfies the conditions for entering the for loop in line 5. Indeed $L \backslash A \Sigma^{*}=\{1\}$ is finite. Consider $L_{q\left(b^{2}\right), F} \backslash L$ and $L_{q(a), F} \backslash L$. We find $L_{q\left(b^{2}\right), F} \backslash L=L_{1, F} \backslash L=L \backslash L=\emptyset \notin \mathrm{TRACK}(=\{L\})$. The language $L_{q(a), F} \backslash L=L_{3, F} \backslash L$ is the language recognized by the automaton $\mathrm{Aut}_{3}=(Q, 3, \delta, F) \otimes(Q, 1, \delta, Q \backslash F)$, where $(Q, 3, \delta, F)$ and ( $Q, 1, Q \backslash \delta, F)$ are both canonically completed (Section 1). We find $L_{3, F} \backslash L \notin \operatorname{TRACK}(=\{L\})$. Thus the for loop in line 6 is executed for any element of $A$ and Find-Fin-Dec is called on input $I_{b^{2}}=\left(\emptyset, L, \operatorname{Aut}_{b^{2}}, \mathrm{Aut}_{L},\{L, \emptyset\}\right)$ and $I_{a}=\left(L_{3, F} \backslash\right.$ $\left.L, L, \operatorname{Aut}_{a}, \operatorname{Aut}_{L},\left\{L, L_{3, F} \backslash L\right\}\right)$.

Procedure Find-Fin- $\operatorname{Dec}\left(I_{b^{2}}\right)$ returns $F D(\emptyset, L)=\{(\emptyset, \emptyset)\}$. Consider now $I_{a}$. We find $\operatorname{MIN}\left(L_{3, F} \backslash L, L\right) \neq \emptyset$ and $A^{\prime}=\{b\} \in \operatorname{MIN}\left(L_{3, F} \backslash L, L\right)$. Looking at Aut ${ }_{3}$, we find $L_{(4,2),(F, Q \backslash F)}=L$. Hence Find-Fin-Dec $\left(L_{3, F} \backslash L, L\right)$ adds $(b, \emptyset)$ to $F D\left(L_{3, F} \backslash L\right)$.

Finally the pair $\left(A_{M}, B_{M}\right)=\left(\left\{b^{2}, a, a b\right\},\{1\}\right)$ is constructed (lines 11-12) and added to $F D(L, L)$ (line 13). Indeed $L=1+b^{2} L_{1, F}+a L_{3, F}=1+b^{2} L+a(L+b L)$.

Consider tree $F\left(L, L, A_{M}, B_{M}\right)$. Its root is $L$; $\operatorname{child}(L)=\left\{\emptyset, L_{3, F} \backslash L\right\}$; the vertex $\emptyset$ is a leaf and $\operatorname{child}\left(L_{3, F} \backslash L\right)=\{\emptyset\}$. Moreover $\operatorname{lab}(L, \emptyset)=b^{2}, \operatorname{lab}\left(L, L_{3, F} \backslash L\right)=a$ and $\operatorname{lab}\left(L_{3, F} \backslash L, \emptyset\right)=b$.

The tree associated to $\left(A_{M}, B_{M}\right)$ is $T_{A_{M}, B_{M}}=(V$, child, lab $)$, where $V=\{0,1,2,3\}$; the root is $0 ; \operatorname{child}(0)=\{1,2\}$, $\operatorname{child}(2)=\{3\}$ and 1,3 are leaves. Further


Fig. 3. The automaton $\mathrm{Aut}_{L}$ of Section 6.2.
$\operatorname{lab}(0,1)=b^{2}, \operatorname{lab}(0,2)=a$ and $\operatorname{lab}(2,3)=b$. Note the correspondence between $F\left(L, L, A_{M}, B_{M}\right)$ and $T_{A_{M}, B_{M}}$, as pointed out in Remark 41.

### 6.2. A second example of execution of Fin-Dec

Let $Z=L$ be the language recognized by deterministic automaton $\mathrm{Aut}_{L}=(Q, 1, \delta, F)$ shown in Fig. 3. Let us apply algorithm Fin-Dec to input ( $L, L, \mathrm{Aut}_{L}, \mathrm{Aut}_{L}$ ) and follow the computation of a pair $\left(A_{M}, B_{M}\right)$ in $F D(Z, L)$. The procedure Find-Fin-Dec is called on $\left(L, L, \operatorname{Aut}_{L}, \operatorname{Aut}_{L},\{L\}\right)$. We have $Q_{y}=\{1,5,7\}$. For $A=\{1\} \in \operatorname{MIN}(L, L)$ we find $L \backslash A \Sigma^{*}=\emptyset$ is finite and $L_{1, F} \backslash L=\emptyset \notin \operatorname{TRACK}(=\{L\})$. Therefore the pair $(1, \emptyset)$ is added to $F D(L, L)$. For any other $A \in \operatorname{MIN}(L, L), A \neq\{1\}$, we find that $L \backslash A \Sigma^{*}$ is infinite since it necessarily contains $\left(a^{2}\right)^{+}$. Indeed for every $i \geqslant 1$, word $a^{2 i} \in L$ and $p\left(a^{2 i}\right)$ never passes through a state of $Q_{y}$. Procedure $\operatorname{Fin}-\operatorname{Dec}\left(L, L, \operatorname{Aut}_{L}, \mathrm{Aut}_{L}\right)$ thus returns $F D(L, L)=\{(1, \emptyset)\}$. According to Theorem 44, $(L, L)$ has no non-trivial finite decomposition.

## 7. A generalization to infinite decompositions

In the previous sections, we have looked for finite decompositions of a pair $(Z, L)$ of regular languages. Assume now that $(Z, L)$ has no non-trivial finite decomposition. We sketch here a construction generalizing the one in Section 6. It provides non-trivial (infinite) decompositions of ( $Z, L$ ) having some property of maximality (Proposition 58). Observe that we have already proved (Proposition 6) that it is decidable whether $Z$ is $L$-decomposable, for given regular languages $Z, L$. However the decompositions there provided had not in general the property here mentioned.

We fix some notations:

- $Z, L \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$ are regular languages
- $\operatorname{Aut}_{Z}=(Q, 1, \delta, F)$ is a deterministic, trim and complete automaton recognizing $Z$
- $\mathrm{Aut}_{L}=\left(Q_{L}, 1_{L}, \delta_{L}, F_{L}\right)$ is a deterministic, trim and complete automaton recognizing $L$
- $Q_{y}=\left\{q \in Q \mid L \subseteq L_{q, F}\right\}$
- $A_{y}$ is the set of labels of all paths from 1 to a state of $Q_{y}$.

Generalizing the definition of $\operatorname{MIN}(Z, L)$ in Section 6, let us define the family $M I N^{\infty}(Z, L)$. It turns out that $M I N^{\infty}(Z, L)$ can be used for constructing (infinite) non-trivial decompositions of $(Z, L)$ having some maximality property.

Definition 48. Family $\operatorname{MIN}^{\infty}(Z, L)$ is the class of all non-empty prefix-free languages $A=\left\{a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{n}, \ldots\right\}$ such that:
(1) $A \subseteq A_{y}$,
(2) for any $i=1,2, \ldots n, \ldots$, path $p\left(a_{i}\right)=\left(q_{1}, \sigma_{1}, q_{2}\right) \cdots\left(q_{n}, \sigma_{n}, q_{n+1}\right)$ is such that $q_{j}=q_{k}$, with $1 \leqslant j<k \leqslant n+1$ implies either $j=1$ and $k=n+1$ or $q_{j} \notin Q_{y}$.

We will simply write $M I N^{\infty}$ when no ambiguity is possible on languages $Z, L$ referred to.

Theorem 49. Let $Z, L \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$ be regular languages.
Language $Z$ is L-decomposable iff $\operatorname{MIN}^{\infty}(Z, L) \neq \emptyset$ and $\exists A \in \operatorname{MIN}^{\infty}(Z, L)$ such that $A \neq 1$ or $Z \backslash L \neq \emptyset$.

Proof. The proof uses Theorem 7 and mimics the proof of Theorem 22.
Suppose that $Z$ is $L$-decomposable and $(A, B)$ is a non-trivial decomposition of $(Z, L)$. If $A=1$ then $B \neq \emptyset$ and $A$ satisfies the requirements of the theorem. Let us suppose that $A \neq 1$. Let $A^{\prime}=P P\left(\operatorname{Red}_{Q_{v}}(P P(A))\right)$. One can easily show that $A^{\prime} \neq 1, \emptyset$ and $A^{\prime} \in M I N^{\infty}(Z, L)$. In particular $M^{\infty}(Z, L) \neq \emptyset$.

For the converse part, let us suppose $\operatorname{MIN}^{\infty}(Z, L) \neq \emptyset$ and $A \in \operatorname{MIN}^{\infty}(Z, L)$ is such that either $A \neq 1$ or $Z \backslash L \neq \emptyset$. For any $a \in A$ let $a^{-1} Z \backslash L=B_{a}+A_{a} L$, where $\left(A_{a}, B_{a}\right)$ is eventually trivial. Remark that $1 \notin A_{a}$ because $L \subset a^{-1} Z \backslash L$ does not hold (Proposition 2). Thus $a^{-1} Z=L+B_{a}+A_{a} L$ and $Z$ can be decomposed with respect to $A$ as $Z=A^{\prime} L+B^{\prime}$ where: $A^{\prime}=A \cup\left(\bigcup_{a \in A} a A_{a}\right)$ and $B^{\prime}=Z \backslash A \Sigma^{*} \cup\left(\bigcup_{a \in A} a B_{a}\right)$ (for details see the proof of the vice versa in Theorem 7). The decomposition $\left(A^{\prime}, B^{\prime}\right)$ is not trivial since either $A \neq 1$ or $A_{a} \cup B_{a} \neq \emptyset$, for $a=1$.

Lemma 50. Let $Z, L \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$ be regular languages. Any $A \in M I N^{\infty}(Z, L)$ maximal in MIN ${ }^{\infty}(Z, L)$ with respect to inclusion can be decomposed as $A=\bigcup_{q \in Q(A)} X_{q}$ for some $Q(A) \subseteq Q_{y}$ and $X_{q} \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$. Moreover the set of all $A \in \operatorname{MIN}^{\infty}(Z, L)$ that are maximal in MIN ${ }^{\infty}(Z, L)$ with respect to inclusion is finite.

Proof. Languages $A \in \operatorname{MIN}^{\infty}(Z, L)$ that are maximal in $\operatorname{MIN}^{\infty}(Z, L)$ with respect to inclusion, can be decomposed as $A=\bigcup_{q \in Q(A)} X_{q}$ for some $Q(A) \subseteq Q_{y}$ and $X_{q}$ is the language of labels of all paths from 1 to $q$ without loops on states of $Q_{y}$. The finiteness of the set of all $A \in M I N^{\infty}(Z, L)$ that are maximal in $\operatorname{MIN}^{\infty}(Z, L)$ with respect to inclusion, follows from the finiteness of $Q_{y}$.

Lemma 51. Let $Z, L \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$ be regular languages. Let $A \in M I N^{\infty}(Z, L)$ maximal in MIN ${ }^{\infty}(Z, L)$ with respect to inclusion, $A=\bigcup_{q \in Q(A)} X_{q}$ and $L_{q, F} \backslash L=A_{q} L+B_{q}$. Then $Z=A_{M} L+B_{M}$ where $A_{M}=A \cup\left(\bigcup_{q \in Q(A)} X_{q} A_{q}\right), B_{M}=Z \backslash A \Sigma^{*} \cup\left(\bigcup_{q \in Q(A)}\right.$ $X_{q} B_{q}$ ).

Proof. From Theorem 7, we have that $Z=A^{\prime} L+B^{\prime}$ where $A^{\prime}=A \cup\left(\bigcup_{a \in A} a A_{a}\right), B^{\prime}=Z \backslash$ $A \Sigma^{*} \cup\left(\bigcup_{a \in A} a B_{a}\right)$ and $L_{q(a), F} \backslash L=A_{a} L+B_{a}$. Remark that $L_{q(a), F} \backslash L=A_{q(a)} L+B_{q(a)}$ and $X_{q}=\{a \mid q(a)=q\}$. Hence $A^{\prime}=A \cup\left(\bigcup_{a \in A} a A_{a}\right)=A \cup\left(\bigcup_{a \in A} a A_{q(a)}\right)=A \cup\left(\bigcup_{q \in Q(A)} X_{q} A_{q}\right)$ and $B^{\prime}=Z \backslash \Sigma^{*} \cup\left(\bigcup_{a \in A} a B_{a}\right)=Z \backslash \Sigma^{*} \cup\left(\bigcup_{a \in A} a B_{q(a)} x s\right)=Z \backslash \Sigma^{*} \cup\left(\bigcup_{q \in Q(A)} X_{q} B_{q}\right)$.

We sketch now an algorithm that applied to input $\left(Z, L, \operatorname{Aut}_{Z}, \operatorname{Aut}_{L}\right)$, where $Z$ is not finitely $L$-decomposable, tests whether $Z$ is $L$-decomposable and eventually returns some non-trivial decompositions of $(Z, L)$. Such decompositions are maximal in the sense specified in Proposition 58.

Note that in the following procedure Find-Max-Dec, for any set $A$ considered in line 3, $Q(A)$ and $X_{q}$ denote the sets such that $A=\bigcup_{q \in Q(A)} X_{q}$, as in Lemma 50 . We emphasize that the algorithm is written in an informal way.
$\operatorname{Max}-\operatorname{Dec}\left(Z, L, \mathrm{Aut}_{Z}, \mathrm{Aut}_{L}\right)$
Find-Max-Dec $\left(Z, L, \operatorname{Aut}_{Z}, \operatorname{Aut}_{L},\{Z\}\right)$
if $M D(Z, L) \backslash\{(\emptyset, Z),(1, \emptyset)\} \neq \emptyset$
3 then return " $Z$ is $L$-decomposable"
4 else return " $Z$ is not $L$-decomposable"
Find-Max-Dec $\left(X, L, \operatorname{Aut}_{X}, \operatorname{Aut}_{L}\right.$, TRACK)
if $\operatorname{MIN}^{\infty}(X, L)=\emptyset$
then $M D(X, L) \leftarrow\{(\emptyset, X)\}$
else for any $A \in \operatorname{MIN}^{\infty}(X, L)$ maximal w.r.t. inclusion
do for any $q \in Q(A)$ s.t. $L_{q, F} \backslash L \in T R A C K$
and $L_{q, F} \backslash L=W\left(L_{q, F} \backslash L\right)+A^{\prime} L+B^{\prime}$
do $M D\left(L_{q, F} \backslash L, L\right) \leftarrow M D\left(L_{q, F} \backslash L, L\right) \cup\left\{\left(W^{*} A^{\prime}, W^{*} B^{\prime}\right)\right\}$
for any $q \in Q(A)$ s.t. $L_{q, F} \backslash L \notin T R A C K$
do $I \leftarrow\left(L_{q, F} \backslash L, L, \mathrm{Aut}_{a}\right.$, Aut $\left._{L}, T R A C K \cup\left\{L_{q, F} \backslash L\right\}\right)$
Find-Max-Dec ( $I$ )
for any $q \in Q(A)$ and $\left(A_{q}, B_{q}\right) \in M D\left(L_{q, F} \backslash L, L\right)$
do $A_{M} \leftarrow A \cup\left(\bigcup_{q \in Q(A)} X_{q} A_{q}\right)$
11
12

$$
B_{M} \leftarrow X \backslash A \Sigma^{*} \cup\left(\cup_{q \in Q(A)} X_{q} B_{q}\right)
$$

$$
M D(X, L) \leftarrow M D(X, L) \cup\left\{\left(A_{M}, B_{M}\right)\right\}
$$

Note that in the sequel $M D(Z, L)$ denotes the set returned by $\operatorname{Find}-\operatorname{Max}-\operatorname{Dec}\left(Z, L, \operatorname{Aut}_{Z}\right.$, $\operatorname{Aut}_{L},\{Z\}$ ).

Remark 52. Set $\mathrm{MD}(\mathrm{Z}, \mathrm{L})$ is always non-empty. If $\operatorname{MIN}^{\infty}(Z, L)=\emptyset$ then $M D(Z, L)$ contains the trivial and infinite decomposition ( $\emptyset, Z$ ), else it contains all pairs $\left(A_{M}, B_{M}\right)$ constructed as in lines $10-11$.

During the execution of algorithm Max-Dec with a given input, a language $A$ is considered in line 3 , even if it is infinite. In the case when $A$ in line 3 is infinite, we say that the resulting decomposition $\left(A_{M}, B_{M}\right)$ is breadth-infinite. Further in the case when the for loop of line 4 is executed, we say that the resulting decomposition $\left(A_{M}, B_{M}\right)$ is depth-infinite. The terms breadth-infinite and depth-infinite are in relation to tree $T_{A_{M}, B_{M}}$ associated to decomposition $\left(A_{M}, B_{M}\right)$ (see Section 5).

Suppose now that Max-Dec applies to input ( $Z, L, \mathrm{Aut}_{Z}, \mathrm{Aut}_{L}$ ). Let us recursively define for any $\left(A_{M}, B_{M}\right) \in M D(Z, L)$, a labelled tree. Its structure exactly mirrors the structure of recursive calls of the procedure Max-Dec when it computes ( $A_{M}, B_{M}$ ) and adds it to $M D(Z, L)$. This definition will be useful in proving that algorithm Max-Dec always stops.

Definition 53. Let $Z, L \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$ and $\left(A_{M}, B_{M}\right) \in M D(Z, L)$.
The tree $M\left(Z, L, A_{M}, B_{M}\right)$ is the following labelled tree $M\left(Z, L, A_{M}, B_{M}\right)=$ ( $V$, child, lab) whose vertices and labels are languages on $\Sigma$.

The root is $Z$. The set $\operatorname{child}(Z)$ is the set of all languages $Z_{i}$ such that, when considering $A=P P\left(A_{M}\right)$ in line 3 of Find-Max-Dec, then Find-Max-Dec calls Find-Max-Dec $\left(Z_{i}, L, \operatorname{Aut}_{Z_{i}}, \operatorname{Aut}_{L},\left\{Z \cup Z_{i}\right\}\right)$ in line 8, where $A=\bigcup_{q \in Q(A)} X_{q}, Q(A)=\left\{q_{1}, \ldots, q_{k}\right\}$, and $Z_{i}=L_{q_{i}, F} \backslash L$, for any $i=1, \ldots, k$.

The label $\operatorname{lab}\left(Z, Z_{i}\right)=X_{q_{i}}$.
For any $i=1, \ldots, k$, the sub-tree rooted in $i$, is $M\left(Z_{i}, L, \bigcup_{a \in A} a^{-1} A_{M} \backslash 1, \bigcup_{a \in A} a^{-1} B_{M}\right)$ if $M I N^{\infty}\left(Z_{i}, L\right) \neq \emptyset$ or the tree composed of the only vertex $Z_{i}$, otherwise.

Some examples of trees $M(Z, L, A, B)$ are given in Sections 7.1 and 7.2.
Remark 54. Let $(A, B) \in M D(Z, L)$. As pointed out in the proof of Proposition 56, tree $M(Z, L, A, B)$ is always a finite tree: it has finite breadth and finite depth. On the other hand, if $(A, B)$ is not a finite decomposition then $T_{A, B}$ is an infinite tree: it has either infinite breadth or infinite depth, following that $(A, B)$ is either a breadth-infinite or a depth-infinite decomposition, respectively.

Remark 55. Suppose that Max-Dec applies to input $\left(Z, L, \operatorname{Aut}_{Z}, \mathrm{Aut}_{L}\right)$ and $\left(A_{M}, B_{M}\right) \in$ $M D(Z, L)$. If during the computation of $\left(A_{M}, B_{M}\right)$, the procedure Find-Max-Dec is called on $\left(X, L, \mathrm{Aut}_{X}, \mathrm{Aut}_{L}, T R A C K\right)$ then Track contains all ancestors of $X$ in $M\left(Z, L, A_{M}, B_{M}\right)$.

Proposition 56. The algorithm Max-Dec always stops.
Proof. The proof mimics the one of Proposition 42. Let us suppose that Max-Dec applies to input $\left(Z, L, \mathrm{Aut}_{Z}, \mathrm{Aut}_{L}\right)$. Let $C_{\text {max }}\left(\mathrm{Aut}_{Z}, \mathrm{Aut}_{L}\right)$ denote the family of all languages $X$ 's such that Find-Max-Dec is recursively called on ( $X, L, \mathrm{Aut}_{X}, \mathrm{Aut}_{L}$, TRACK) during the execution of Max-Dec. We have that $C_{\text {max }}\left(\mathrm{Aut}_{Z}, \mathrm{Aut}_{L}\right)$ is finite by Lemma 38. Indeed $\mathrm{Aut}_{Z}$ and $\mathrm{Aut}_{L}$ are finite automata, each set $X$ is $X=L_{q, F} \backslash L$ for some $q \in Q$, and the automaton $\mathrm{Aut}_{a}$ is obtained by intersection of $(Q, q, \delta, F)$ and the complement of $\mathrm{Aut}_{L}$. Consider now the set $\{M(Z, L, A, B) \mid(A, B) \in F D(Z, L)\}$. Note that such a set shows all recursive calls to Find-Max-Dec necessary to compute $M D(Z, L)$. This set is
finite since the set of all $A \in \operatorname{MIN}^{\infty}(X, L)$ maximal with respect to inclusion is finite for any regular language $X$ (Lemma 50) and $X=L_{q, F} \backslash L$ is a regular language. Moreover the breadth of any vertex in $M(Z, L, A, B)$ is finite since $Q(A)$ is finite. Finally any $M(Z, L, A, B)$ has finite depth since $\mathrm{C}_{\text {max }}\left(\mathrm{Aut}_{Z}, \mathrm{Aut}_{L}\right)$ is finite and Find-Max-Dec calls itself only if $L_{q(a), F} \backslash L \notin T R A C K$ (see line 8 and Remark 55).

Let us now prove that algorithm Max-Dec computes in $M D(Z, L)$ a set of special decompositions of $(Z, L)$. Observe that Proposition 57 can be used to prove that it is decidable whether $Z$ is $L$-decomposable, for given regular languages $Z, L$ (by a proof similar to that of Theorem 44). This decidability result was already proved in Proposition 6. However the decompositions provided in Proposition 6 have not in general the maximality property of the decompositions constructed by algorithm Max-Dec (Proposition 58).

Proposition 57. Let $Z, L \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$ be regular languages.
The language $Z$ is L-decomposable iff $M D(Z, L) \backslash\{(1, \emptyset),(\emptyset, Z)\} \neq \emptyset$. Moreover any $(A, B) \in M D(Z, L)$ is a decomposition of $(Z, L)$.

Proof. We prove that
(1) any $\left(A_{M}, B_{M}\right) \in M D(Z, L)$ is a decomposition of $(Z, L)$
(2) if $(Z, L)$ has a non-trivial decomposition then $M D(Z, L) \backslash\{(1, \emptyset),(\emptyset, Z)\} \neq \emptyset$.
(1) Let $\left(A_{M}, B_{M}\right) \in M D(Z, L)$. We prove that $\left(A_{M}, B_{M}\right)$ is a decomposition of $(Z, L)$ by induction on the depth $d$ of $M\left(Z, L, A_{M}, B_{M}\right)$.

If $d=0$ then either $\left(A_{M}, B_{M}\right)=(\emptyset, Z)$ (and it is a decomposition of $(Z, L)$ ) or $\left(A_{M}, B_{M}\right)$ is constructed in lines $10-11$ as $A_{M}=A \cup\left(\bigcup_{q \in Q(A)} X_{q} A_{q}\right), B_{M}=Z \backslash A \Sigma^{*} \cup$ $\left(\bigcup_{q \in Q(A)} X_{q} B_{q}\right)$, where $A=\bigcup_{q \in Q(A)} X_{q}, L_{q, F} \backslash L=W\left(L_{q, F} \backslash L\right)+A^{\prime} L+B^{\prime}$ and $A_{q}=$ $W^{*} A^{\prime}, B_{q}=W^{*} B^{\prime}$. Using formal power series theory, we have that $L_{q, F} \backslash L=W\left(L_{q, F} \backslash\right.$ $L)+A^{\prime} L+B^{\prime}$ iff $(1-W)\left(L_{q, F} \backslash L\right)=A^{\prime} L+B^{\prime}$ iff $L_{q, F} \backslash L=W^{*}\left(A^{\prime} L+B^{\prime}\right)=W^{*} A^{\prime} L+W^{*} B^{\prime}$. Therefore $\left(A_{M}, B_{M}\right)$ is a decomposition of ( $Z, L$ ) applying Theorem 7 and Lemma 51.

If $d \geqslant 1$ then $\left(A_{M}, B_{M}\right)$ is constructed in lines $10-11$ as $A_{M}=A \cup\left(\bigcup_{q \in Q(A)} X_{q} A_{q}\right), B_{M}=$ $Z \backslash A \Sigma^{*} \cup\left(\bigcup_{q \in Q(A)} X_{q} B_{q}\right)$, where $\left(A_{q}, B_{q}\right) \in M D\left(L_{q, F} \backslash L, L\right)$. By inductive hypothesis $\left(A_{q}, B_{q}\right)$ is a decomposition of $\left(L_{q, F} \backslash L, L\right)$ since $M\left(L_{q, F} \backslash L, L, A_{q}, B_{q}\right)$ has depth less than $d$. The goal thus follows from Theorem 7 and Lemma 51.
(2) If $(Z, L)$ has a non-trivial decomposition then (Theorem 49) there exists $X \in$ $M I N^{\infty}(Z, L)$, such that $X \neq 1$ or $Z \backslash L \neq \emptyset$. If there exists $A_{\text {max }} \in M I N^{\infty}(Z, L)$ maximal with respect to inclusion and $A_{\text {max }} \neq 1$ then the pair $\left(A_{M}, B_{M}\right)$ constructed in lines 10-11 starting from $A=A_{\text {max }}$ is added to $M D(Z, L)$ (line 12). Moreover $\left(A_{M}, B_{M}\right) \in M D(Z, L) \backslash$ $\{(1, \emptyset),(\emptyset, Z)\}$ since $A_{M} \neq 1, \emptyset$. If the only $A_{\max } \in M I N^{\infty}(Z, L)$ maximal with respect to inclusion is $A_{\max }=1$ then $Z \backslash L \neq \emptyset$. Hence the pair $\left(A_{M}, B_{M}\right)$ constructed in lines $10-11$ starting from $A=1$ is $\left(A_{M}, B_{M}\right)=(1, Z \backslash L)$. Therefore $(1, Z \backslash L) \in M D(Z, L)$. Moreover $(1, Z \backslash L) \in M D(Z, L) \backslash\{(1, \emptyset),(\emptyset, Z)\}$ since $Z \backslash L \neq \emptyset$.

In dealing with infinite decompositions we cannot talk about minimality in length, as it was the case for finite decompositions (Proposition 45). What characterizes decompositions returned by algorithm Max-DEC is the maximality property, hereafter stated.

Proposition 58. Let $Z, L \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$ be regular languages. If $Z$ is $L$-decomposable then for every non-trivial decomposition $(X, Y)$ of $(Z, L),(X, Y) \notin M D(Z, L)$ such that $A \subseteq X$, for some $(A, B) \in M D(Z, L)$ we have $A=X$.

Proof. Let $Z, L$ be infinite languages and $(X, Y),(A, B)$ as in the hypothesis. Let $T_{A, B}=\left(V_{A}\right.$, child $_{A}$, lab $\left._{A}\right)$ be the tree associated to $(A, B)$ and $T_{X, Y}=\left(V_{X}\right.$, child $_{X}$, lab $\left._{X}\right)$ be the tree associated to $(X, Y)$. For any vertex $i \in V_{A}\left(V_{X}\right.$, resp.), let $R_{i}(A, B)\left(R_{i}(X, Y)\right.$, resp.) be the language associated to $i$ in $T_{A, B}\left(T_{X, Y}\right.$, resp.). As pointed out in Proposition 28, for any vertex $i$ in $T_{A, B}\left(T_{X, Y}\right.$, resp.) language $R_{i}(A, B)\left(R_{i}(X, Y)\right.$, resp.) is finitely $L$-decomposable and the sub-tree rooted in $i$ is the tree associated to some finite decomposition $\left(A_{i}, B_{i}\right)\left(\left(X_{i}, Y_{i}\right)\right.$, resp.) of $\left(R_{i}(A, B), L\right)\left(R_{i}(X, Y)\right.$, resp.). Define a numbering $n: V \rightarrow \mathbb{N} \cup\{0\}$ on ( $V$, child, lab), where $\left(V\right.$, child, lab) is $\left(V_{A}\right.$, child $_{A}$, lab $\left._{A}\right)$ or ( $V_{X}$, child $_{X}, l a b_{X}$ ), in such a way that for any $i, j \in V$ :
(1) $n(i)=0$ if $i$ is the root,
(2) $n(j)>n(i)$ for any $j \in \operatorname{child}(i)$,
(3) $i<j$ implies $n(h)<n(k)$ for any $h \in \operatorname{child}(i), k \in \operatorname{child}(j)$,
(4) if $\operatorname{lab}(i, j)$ is less than $\operatorname{lab}(i, k)$ in the lexicographical order then $n(j)<n(k)$,
(5) $n$ is surjective on $\{0,1, \ldots, \operatorname{card}(V)\}$.

Suppose now $A \subset X$ and let $i$ be the first vertex in $V_{A}$ (following numbering $n$ ) such that $P P\left(A_{i}\right) \subset P P\left(X_{i}\right)$. Observe that $R_{i}(A, B)=R_{i}(X, Y)$ because $R_{0}(A, B)=R_{0}(X, Y)=Z$ and the labels of the paths from the root to $i$ in $T_{A, B}$ and $T_{X, Y}$ are equal. Let $R_{i}=$ $R_{i}(A, B)$.

Firstly, consider the case when $A_{i}=P P\left(A_{i}\right)=\emptyset$. The set $\operatorname{MIN}^{\infty}\left(R_{i}(A, B), L\right)=\emptyset$ (this is the only case Find-Fin-Dec returns $A_{i}=\emptyset$ ). By Remark 24 any other finite decomposition of $\left(R_{i}(A, B), L\right)=\left(R_{i}(X, Y), L\right)$ is trivial. If $i$ is the root then $\left(R_{i}, L\right)$ has no non-trivial finite decomposition. If $i$ is not the root then any trivial finite decomposition of $\left(R_{i}(X, Y), L\right)$ is $\left(\emptyset, R_{i}(X, Y)\right)$. Pair $(1, \emptyset)$ cannot be a finite decomposition of $\left(R_{i}(X, Y), L\right)$ since $R_{i} \neq L$. Therefore $A_{i}=X_{i}$ and this contradicts $P P\left(A_{i}\right) \subset$ $P P\left(X_{i}\right)$.

Consider now the case when $P P\left(A_{i}\right) \subset P P\left(X_{i}\right)$ and $P P\left(A_{i}\right) \neq \emptyset$. Note that $\operatorname{MIN}^{\infty}\left(R_{i}, L\right) \neq \emptyset$ and $P P\left(A_{i}\right) \in \operatorname{MIN}^{\infty}\left(R_{i}, L\right)$, by construction. Let $x \in P P\left(X_{i}\right) \backslash P P\left(A_{i}\right)$. We have $\{x\}$ and $P P\left(A_{i}\right)$ are prefix-free. This implies $P P\left(A_{i}\right) \cup\{x\} \in M I N^{\infty}$, against the maximality with respect to inclusion of $P P\left(A_{i}\right)$, as required in line 3 of Find-Max-Dec.

Remark 59. Proposition 58 in particular shows that if $(A, B),\left(A^{\prime}, B^{\prime}\right) \in M D(Z, L)$ then neither $A^{\prime} \subset A$ nor $A \subset A^{\prime}$.

Proposition 60. Let $Z, L \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$ be regular languages. If $\left(A_{M}, B_{M}\right)$ is any decomposition in $M D(Z, L)$ then $A_{M}, B_{M}$ are regular languages.

Proof. The proof uses induction on the number of calls of procedure Find-Max-Dec. The basic cases are when the procedure adds to $M D(Z, L)$ the pair $\left(A_{M}, B_{M}\right)=(\emptyset, Z)$ (line 2) or the pair ( $W^{*} A^{\prime}, W^{*} B^{\prime}$ ) (line 5). In the first case $A_{M}, B_{M}$ are trivially regular. In the second case $A_{M}, B_{M}$ are regular since $W, A^{\prime}, B^{\prime}$ can be obtained from
finite languages using a finite number of union, product and star (see the proof of Lemma 36).

Consider the case when $\left(A_{M}, B_{M}\right)$ is constructed after entering the for loop in line 6. As observed in Lemma 50 , languages $A \in M I N^{\infty}$ maximal with respect to inclusion, can be decomposed as a finite union $A=\bigcup_{q \in Q(A)} X_{q}$, where $X_{q}$ is the language of labels of all paths from 1 to $q$ without loops on states of $Q_{y}$. Note that any $X_{q}$ is a regular language. Languages $A_{M}, B_{M}$ are constructed as $A_{M}=\bigcup_{q \in Q(A)} X_{q} \cup\left(\bigcup_{q \in Q(A)} X_{q} A_{q}\right)$ and $B_{M}=Z \backslash A \Sigma^{*} \cup\left(\bigcup_{q \in Q(A)} X_{q} B_{q}\right)$, where $\left(A_{q}, B_{q}\right)$ is a decomposition of $\left(L_{q, F} \backslash L, L\right)$. Therefore $A_{M}, B_{M}$ are obtained by a finite number of unions of some $X_{q}$ 's, $A_{q}$ 's and $B_{q}$ 's, where $A_{q}$ 's and $B_{q}$ 's are regular by inductive hypothesis. Hence $A_{M}, B_{M}$ are regular languages.

### 7.1. An example of a breadth-infinite decomposition

Let $Z=L$ be the language recognized by the automaton in Fig. 3, as considered in Section 6.2. In Section 6.2 we noticed that $(Z, L)$ has no non-trivial finite decomposition. We want now to construct a non-trivial infinite decomposition of $(Z, L)$, using algorithm Max-Dec. Let us apply Find-Max-Dec to ( $Z, L, \operatorname{Aut}_{Z}, \operatorname{Aut}_{L},\{Z\}$ ). Looking for $M I N^{\infty}(Z, L)$, we find $Q_{y}=\{1,5,7\}$. Furthermore any $A$ in $M I N^{\infty}(Z, L), A \neq 1$, is infinite. Therefore, when considering any $A, A \neq 1$ (line 3 ), we will construct a breadth-infinite decomposition. Consider for example $A=\left\{\left(a^{2}\right)^{+} a b,\left(a^{2}\right)^{+} b a, b\right\}$. We have $A \in \operatorname{MIN}^{\infty}(Z, L)$ and $A$ maximal with respect to inclusion. Since $Q(A)=\{1,5,7\}$, Find-Max-Dec is called on ( $L_{i, F} \backslash L, L, \operatorname{Aut}_{i}, \operatorname{Aut}_{L},\left\{Z, L_{i, F} \backslash L\right\}$ ), where $i=1,5,7$ and $\mathrm{Aut}_{i}=(Q, i, \delta, F) \otimes(Q, 1, \delta, Q \backslash F)$.

We find that $L_{1, F} \backslash L=L \backslash L=\emptyset$ and thus Find-Max-Dec returns $M D\left(L_{1, F} \backslash L, L\right)=$ $\{(\emptyset, \emptyset)\}$. Further $L_{5, F} \backslash L=a b L$. Consider now state 7. We have that $L_{7, F} \backslash L=\Sigma^{*} \backslash L$ and Aut $_{7}=(Q, 1, \delta, Q \backslash F)$. Further $A^{\prime}=\{a\} \in \operatorname{MIN}^{\infty}\left(L_{7, F} \backslash L, L\right)$. It is maximal with respect to inclusion, since $q(a)=2$ and $L \subseteq L_{2, Q \backslash F}$. Recursively calling the procedure with $X=L_{2, Q \backslash F} \backslash L$, we find $L_{2, Q \backslash F} \backslash L=a b L_{(4, s),(Q \backslash F, Q \backslash F)}$. After a last step we find $L_{(4, s),(Q \backslash F, Q \backslash F)} \backslash L=\emptyset$.

Therefore $(\{a b\}, \emptyset)$ is a decomposition in $M D\left(L_{2, Q \backslash F} \backslash L, L\right)$ and $\left(\left\{a, a^{2} b\right\}, \emptyset\right)$ is a decomposition in $M D\left(L_{7, F} \backslash L, L\right)$. Remarking that $Z \backslash A \Sigma^{*}=\left(a^{2}\right)^{*}$, we finally have that pair ( $A_{M}, B_{M}$ ), where $A_{M}, B_{M}$ are as follows, is constructed (lines 10-11) and added to $M D(Z, L)$ (line 12):
$A_{M}=\left\{\left(a^{2}\right)^{+} a b,\left(a^{2}\right)^{+} b a,\left(a^{2}\right)^{+} b a a b, b, b a, b a^{2} b\right\}$,
$B_{M}=\left(a^{2}\right)^{*}$.
Indeed

$$
\begin{aligned}
Z & =\left(a^{2}\right)^{*}+\left(a^{2}\right)^{+} a b L_{1, F}+\left(a^{2}\right)^{+} b a L_{5, F}+b L_{7, F} \\
& =\left(a^{2}\right)^{*}+\left(a^{2}\right)^{+} a b L+\left(a^{2}\right)^{+} b a(L+a b L)+b\left(L+a L+a^{2} b L\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Tree $M\left(Z, L, A_{M}, B_{M}\right)$ is given in Fig. 4. On the other hand, the tree associated to decomposition ( $A_{M}, B_{M}$ ) is infinite since the root $Z$ has a child for any word in $A$. This is the reason why we call the decomposition $\left(A_{M}, B_{M}\right)$ breadth-infinite.


Fig. 4. The tree $M\left(Z, L, A_{M}, B_{M}\right)$ of Section 7.1.


Fig. 5. The automaton $\mathrm{Aut}_{Z}$ of Section 7.2.

### 7.2. An example of a depth-infinite decomposition

Let $Z=L$ be the language recognized by the deterministic automaton $\mathrm{Aut}_{Z}=$ ( $Q, 1, \delta, F$ ) shown in Fig. 5. The automaton is completed by adding a sink state $s$ (not shown in the figure). Let us apply Max-Dec to ( $Z, L$, Aut $_{Z}$, Aut $_{L}$ ). Looking for $\operatorname{MIN}^{\infty}(Z, L)$, we find $Q_{y}=\{1,7\}$. Further we have that $A=\left\{a^{3} b, a^{2} b a^{2} b, a^{2} b a b, b\right\} \in$ $M_{I N}{ }^{\infty}(Z, L)$ and $A$ is maximal with respect to inclusion. The procedure Find-Max-Dec calls itself on input $I_{q}=\left(L_{q, F} \backslash L, L, \mathrm{Aut}_{q}, \mathrm{Aut}_{L},\left\{Z, L_{q, F} \backslash L\right\}\right)$ for $q \in\{1,7\}$ and $\mathrm{Aut}_{q}=$ $(Q, q, \delta, F) \otimes(Q, 1, \delta, Q \backslash F)$.

Note that $L_{1, F} \backslash L=L \backslash L=\emptyset$, which is finite. Thus $M D\left(L_{1, F} \backslash L, L\right)=\{(\emptyset, \emptyset)\}$. Consider now state 7 . We have that $L_{7, F} \backslash L=\Sigma^{*} \backslash L$ and $\operatorname{Aut}_{7}=(Q, 1, \delta, Q \backslash F)$. Further $A^{\prime}=\{a\} \in \operatorname{MIN}^{\infty}\left(\Sigma^{*} \backslash L, L\right)$ and it is maximal with respect to inclusion. We have $q(a)=2$ and it can be shown that $L \subseteq L_{2, Q \backslash F}$. Recursively calling the procedure with $X=L_{2, Q \backslash F} \backslash L$, we find that $A^{\prime \prime}=\left\{a b, a^{3}, a^{2} b a^{3}\right\} \in \operatorname{MIN}^{\infty}\left(L_{2, Q \backslash F} \backslash L, L\right)$ and is maximal with respect to inclusion. Considering the automaton $\mathrm{Aut}_{2}=(Q, 2, \delta, Q \backslash F) \otimes(Q, 1, \delta, Q \backslash$ $F$ ), we have $L_{2, Q \backslash F} \backslash L=a b L_{(4, s),(Q \backslash F, Q \backslash F)}+\left(a^{3}+a^{2} b a^{3}\right) L_{(s, 6),(Q \backslash F, Q \backslash F)}$. It can also be shown that $L_{4, F}=\Sigma^{*} \backslash L$ and then $L_{(4, s),(Q \backslash F, Q \backslash F)}=\Sigma^{*} \backslash L_{4, F}=L$. Let us denote now $L_{6}=L_{(s, 6),(Q \backslash F, Q \backslash F)}$. Constructing, in the usual way, an automaton recognizing $L_{6} \backslash L$, we find that $L_{6} \backslash L=a L_{2, Q \backslash F}$. Further $\{a\} \in \operatorname{MIN}^{\infty}\left(L_{6} \backslash L, L\right)$ and it is maximal with respect to inclusion, since $L \subseteq L_{2, Q \backslash F}$. Then the procedure Find-Max-Dec is called on $\left(L_{2, Q \backslash F} \backslash L, L, \mathrm{Aut}_{2}, \mathrm{Aut}_{L}, \mathrm{TRACK}\right.$ ) with $\mathrm{TRACK}=\left\{Z, L_{7, F} \backslash L, L_{2, Q \backslash F} \backslash L, L_{6} \backslash L\right\}$. Since $L_{2, Q \backslash F} \backslash L \in \mathrm{~T} A C K$, we are in a depth-infinite case. Indeed denoting $X=L_{2, Q \backslash F} \backslash L$, we have $X=a b L+\left(a^{3}+a^{2} b a^{3}\right) L+\left(a^{3}+a^{2} b a^{3}\right) a L+\left(a^{3}+a^{2} b a^{3}\right) a X$ and then $X=$ $\left[\left(a^{3}+a^{2} b a^{3}\right) a\right]^{*}\left[a b+\left(a^{3}+a^{2} b a^{3}\right)+\left(a^{3}+a^{2} b a^{3}\right) a\right] L$. Moreover $Z=\left(a^{3} b+a^{2} b a^{2} b\right) L+$ $\left(a^{2} b a b+b\right) L+\left(a^{2} b a b+b\right) a X$.

Finally ( $Z, L$ ) has no finite decomposition. An infinite decomposition of $(Z, L)$ is ( $A_{M}, B_{M}$ ) where:
$A_{M}=\left\{a^{3} b, a^{2} b a^{2} b, a^{2} b a b, b,\left\{a^{2} b a b, b\right\} a\left\{a^{3} a, a^{2} b a^{3} a\right\}^{*}\left\{a b, a^{3}, a^{2} b a^{3}, a^{4}, a^{2} b a^{4}\right\}\right\}$, $B_{M}=\{1\}$.
Tree $M\left(Z, L, A_{M}, B_{M}\right)$ is given in Fig. 6. Tree $T_{A_{M}, B_{M}}$ is given in Fig. 7, where $T_{5}$ is the sub-tree rooted in vertex 5 . The tree $T_{A_{M}, B_{M}}$ has finite breadth, but infinite depth.

## 8. How many decompositions?

In this section we consider the problem of how many non-trivial decompositions (finite decompositions, resp.) a pair ( $Z, L$ ) of languages can have. We show that if $Z=L$ and $L$ is $L$-decomposable (finitely $L$-decomposable, resp.) then it has an infinite number of non-trivial decompositions (finite decompositions, resp.). This is not the case when $Z \neq L$. We introduce an operation called substitution. It allows to construct an infinite family of non-trivial decompositions of $(L, L)$, starting from some known ones.

Definition 61. Given languages $A, B, A^{\prime}, B^{\prime} \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$, with $A \neq \emptyset$, a substitution of ( $A^{\prime}, B^{\prime}$ ) in ( $A, B$ ) with respect to $a \in A$ is the pair $\left(A-a+a A^{\prime}, B+a B^{\prime}\right)$.

Proposition 62. Let $L \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$ and $\left(A^{\prime}, B^{\prime}\right),(A, B)$ be two decompositions of $(L, L)$. If $A, A^{\prime} \neq \emptyset$ and $\left(A^{\prime}, B^{\prime}\right),(A, B) \neq(1, \emptyset)$ then for all $a \in A$ the substitution $\left(A^{\prime \prime}, B^{\prime \prime}\right)$ of $\left(A^{\prime}, B^{\prime}\right)$ in $(A, B)$ with respect to a is a non-trivial decomposition of $(L, L)$. Moreover if $A, B, A^{\prime}, B^{\prime}$ are finite languages then $A^{\prime \prime}, B^{\prime \prime}$ are finite and $l(A \cup B), l\left(A^{\prime} \cup B^{\prime}\right)<l\left(A^{\prime \prime} \cup\right.$ $B^{\prime \prime}$ ).

Proof. $L=A L+B=(A-a) L+a L+B=(A-a) L+a\left(B^{\prime}+A^{\prime} L\right)+B=\left(A-a+a A^{\prime}\right) L+$ $\left(B+a B^{\prime}\right)$. Notice that all equalities are unambiguous. Remark that since $L$ denotes a characteristic series then also $A-a+a A^{\prime}$ and $B+a B^{\prime}$ are characteristic series. In particular $A \backslash\{a\} \cap a A^{\prime}=\emptyset$ and $B \cap a B^{\prime}=\emptyset$.


Fig. 6. The tree $M\left(Z, L, A_{M}, B_{M}\right)$ of Section 7.2.

Corollary 63. Let $L \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$. If $L$ is L-decomposable (finitely L-decomposable, resp.), then $(L, L)$ has an infinite number of non-trivial decompositions (finite decompositions, resp.).

Example 64. Let $(A, B)$ be a non-trivial decomposition of $(L, L)$ with $A=\left\{a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{n}\right\}$. Consider the substitution of $(A, B)$ in $(A, B)$ with respect to $a_{1}$, say $\left(A_{1}, B_{1}\right)$, then the substitution of $(A, B)$ in $\left(A_{1}, B_{1}\right)$ with respect to $a_{2}$ and so on. We obtain that $\left(A^{2}, B+\right.$ $A B)$ is a decomposition of $(L, L)$. Indeed, $L=A L+B=A(B+A L)+B=A^{2} L+B+A B$. Another example is Example 5.

Consider now the case when $Z \neq L$. We show that $(Z, L)$ can have only a finite number of non-trivial decompositions by the following example. Remark that this is not always the case. Let $Z=a^{*}+b a^{*}, L=A^{*}$, as in Example 5. We have that for any $n \geqslant 1$, pair $\left(a^{n}+b, 1+a+\cdots+a^{n-1}\right)$ is a finite decomposition of $(Z, L)$.

Example 65. Let $Z=a^{2} b^{*}, L=a b^{*}$. The equality $Z=a^{2} b^{*}=A a b^{*}+B$ implies $B=$ $a a b^{*}-A a b^{*}=(a-A) a b^{*}=(a-A) a(1-b)^{-1}$, that implies $B(1-b)=(a-A) a=a^{2}-A a$. If $B=\emptyset$ then $(a, \emptyset)$ is a non-trivial decomposition. If $B \neq \emptyset$ let $w$ be the shortest word in $B$. Then $(B-B b, w)=1$. Since $(-A a, w) \leqslant 0$ then $\left(a^{2}, w\right)=1$ and $(-A a, w)=0$.


Fig. 7. The tree $T_{A_{M}, B_{M}}$ of Section 7.2.
This means $w=a^{2}$ and $(A, a)=0$, i.e. $a \notin A$. On the other hand, for every $i \geqslant 1$ we have $a^{2} b^{i} \in B$ since $a^{2} b^{i} \in Z$ and $a^{2} b^{i} \notin A a b^{*}$. Therefore $B=a^{2} b^{*}=Z, A=\emptyset$. Finally the only decompositions of $(Z, L)$ are $(a, \emptyset)$ and $(\emptyset, Z)$.

## 9. An application to the Factorization Conjecture

We present here some results in the theory of codes, as developed by Schützenberger and his school. Many deep results about codes have been proved (see [8] for a complete survey on this topic and [13] for a list of open problems in this area). Nevertheless, the structure of these objects is not yet completely investigated. In particular, more than thirty years ago Schützenberger gave the following Factorization Conjecture which is still open (see [37,11,13,18,19,31,34,20,39] for some partial results). We show here some results related to this conjecture. They are based on results shown in previous sections.

We say that $C \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$ is a code (over $\Sigma$ ) if for any $c_{1}, \ldots, c_{h}, c_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, c_{k}^{\prime} \in C, c_{1} \cdots c_{h}=$ $c_{1}^{\prime} \cdots c_{k}^{\prime}$ implies $h=k$ and for every $i \in\{1, \ldots, h\}, c_{i}=c_{i}^{\prime}$. In terms of series $C$ is a code iff $\underline{C^{*}}=(\underline{C})^{*}$. A code $C$ is maximal (over $\Sigma$ ) if for any code $C^{\prime}$ over $\Sigma$ then $C \subseteq C^{\prime}$ implies that $C=C^{\prime}$. A code $C$ is factorizing (over $\Sigma$ ) if there exist finite subsets $S, P$ of $\Sigma^{*}$ such that $\underline{S} \underline{C}^{*} \underline{P}=\underline{\Sigma}^{*}$. Pair $(S, P)$ is called a factorization of $C$. As an example, maximal prefix codes $C$ are factorizing, by taking $S=1$ and $P=\operatorname{Pref}(C)$.

Factorization Conjecture (Schützenberger [37]).

Any finite maximal code is factorizing.
In this paper we consider the following problem related to Factorization Conjecture.
Problem SCP: Given finite language $S$, do there exist finite languages $C, P$, with $C$ maximal code, such that $S C^{*} P=\Sigma^{*}$ with non-ambiguous operations?
Problem $S C P$ was first proposed in [18]. A language $S$ for which Problem $S C P$ has a positive answer is said a polynomial having solutions in [18] and a strong factorizing language in [5]. Remark that exchanging the roles of $S$ and $P$ gives raise to a dual problem.

Theorem 66. It is decidable (in a constructive way) whether given a finite language $S \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$ there exist finite languages $C, P$, with $C$ maximal code, such that $\underline{S} \underline{C}^{*} \underline{P}=\underline{\Sigma}^{*}$.

Proof. Let $S \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$ be a finite language. From results in [3,4] we know that it is decidable whether there exists an (infinite) language $Z$ such that $\underline{S} \underline{Z}=\underline{\Sigma}^{*}$, that $Z$ is regular and that an automaton recognizing $Z$ can be constructed starting from one recognizing $S$. Because $\underline{S} \underline{C}^{*} \underline{P}=\underline{\Sigma}^{*}$ implies $\underline{S} \underline{C}^{*} P=\underline{\Sigma}^{*}$, then, if there does not exist a language $Z$ such that $\underline{S} \underline{Z}=\underline{\Sigma}^{*}$, then also Problem SCP has no solution. Otherwise, let $Z$ such a solution. Recall that if finite languages $S, C, P$ satisfy the non-ambiguous equation $S C^{*} P=\Sigma^{*}$, then $C$ is necessarily a maximal code $[37,8]$. The problem reduces to the problem of factorizing in a non-ambiguous way the regular language $Z$ as $Z=C^{*} P$ with $C, P$ finite languages. In other words, we have to decide whether $Z$ is finitely $Z$-decomposable and eventually provide a finite decomposition. This problem is solved in previous sections.

Example 67. Let $S=1+a+a^{2} b$. We know [4,5] that there exists a language $Z$ such that $\underline{S} \underline{Z}=\underline{\Sigma}^{*}$. Further, applying techniques shown in [2], we have that $Z$ is recognized by the automaton in Fig. 3. As shown in Section 6.2, language $Z$ is not finitely $Z$-decomposable, i.e. there do not exist finite languages $C, P$ such that $\underline{Z}=\underline{C}^{*} \underline{P}$. We can thus claim that there do not exist finite languages $C, P$ such that $\underline{S} \underline{C}^{*} \underline{P}=\underline{\Sigma}^{*}$.

We show now how to construct an infinite family of factorizing codes, starting from one of them, as a byproduct of results in previous sections. We define the operation of substitution on languages and show that it preserves the property of being a factorizing code.

Definition 68. Given languages $C, C^{\prime} \neq \emptyset$ a substitution of $C^{\prime}$ in $C$ with respect to $c \in C$ is the language $C \backslash\{c\} \cup c C^{\prime}$.

Proposition 69. If $C$ and $C^{\prime}$ are factorizing codes with factorizations $(S, P)$ and ( $S, P^{\prime}$ ), respectively, then $C^{\prime \prime}=C \backslash c \cup c C^{\prime}$ is a factorizing code, $C^{\prime \prime} \neq C, C^{\prime}$. Moreover $\left(S, P \cup c P^{\prime}\right)$ is a factorization of $C^{\prime \prime}$ and $l(C), l\left(C^{\prime}\right)<l\left(C^{\prime \prime}\right)$.

Proof. By hypothesis, $\underline{S} \underline{C}^{*} \underline{P}=\underline{S}{\underline{C^{\prime}}}^{*} \underline{P^{\prime}}=\underline{\Sigma^{*}}$. By the uniqueness of language $Z$ such that $\underline{S} \underline{Z}=\underline{\Sigma}^{*}[3,4]$, we have $Z=C^{*} P=C^{* *} P^{\prime}$. Moreover $(C, P)$ and ( $C^{\prime}, P^{\prime}$ ) are two
non-trivial finite decompositions of $(Z, Z)$. The goal thus follows from Proposition 62.

Corollary 70. Given a factorizing code $C$, we can construct an infinite family $\left\{C_{i} \mid i \in N\right\}$ of factorizing codes.

Proof. Consider for example $C_{0}=C$, and $C_{i}=C_{i-1} \backslash\{c\} \cup c C_{i-1}$, for some $c \in C_{i-1}$.

## 10. Uncited References

[7,16,17,25,27,32]

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