# A Programming Formalism for $\mathcal{P} \mathcal{R}^{*}$ 


#### Abstract

A brief note that assumes access to [Tou12].


George Tourlakis

February 5, 2018

## 1 Syntax and Semantics of Loop Programs

Loop programs were introduced by D. Ritchie and A. Meyer ([MR67]) as program-theoretic counterpart to the number theoretic introduction of the set of primitive recursive functions $\mathcal{P} \mathcal{R}$. This programming formalism among other things connected the definitional (or structural) complexity of primitive recursive functions with their (run time) computational complexity.

Loop programs are very similar to programs written in FORTRAN, but have a number of simplifications, notably they lack an unrestricted do-while instruction (equivalently, goto instruction). What they do have is
(1) Each program references (uses) a finite number of variables that we denote metamathematically by single letter names (upper or lower case is all right) with or without subscripts or primes ${ }^{1}$
(2) Instructions are of the following types ( $X, Y$ could be any variables below, including the case of two identical variables):
(i) $X \leftarrow 0$
(ii) $X \leftarrow Y$
(iii) $X \leftarrow X+1$
(iv) Loop $X \ldots$. end, where ". .." represents a sequence of syntactically valid instructions (which in 1.1 will be called a "loop program"). The Loop part is matched or balanced by the end part as it will become evident by the inductive definition below (1.1).

Informally, the structure of loop programs can be defined by induction:
Definition 1.1 Every instruction of type (i)-(iii) standing by itself is a loop program. If we already have two loop programs $P$ and $Q$, then so are

[^0]- P;Q, built by superposition (concatenation) and normally denoted vertically, without the separator ";", like this:

$$
P
$$

and, for any variable $X$ (that may or may not be in $P$ ),

- Loop $X$; $P$; end, called loop closure (of $P$ ), and normally written vertically without separators ";" like this:


## Loop $X$ <br> $P$ <br> end

Definition 1.2 The set of all loop programs will be denoted by $L$.
The informal semantics of loop programs are precisely those given in [Tou12] (and in class) and will not be repeated here. Similarly, the symbol $P_{Y}^{\vec{X}_{n}}$ is as for the URMs: It is the function computed by loop program $P$ if we use $\vec{X}_{n}=X_{1}, X_{2}, \ldots, X_{n}$ as the input and $Y$ as the output variables. Of course, we know from [Tou12], and from class, that all such $P_{Y}^{\vec{X}_{n}}$ are total. Quite a few examples are given in loc. cit.

We defined the set of loop programmable functions, $\mathscr{L}$ :
Definition 1.3 The symbol $\mathscr{L}$ stands for $\left\{P_{Y}^{\vec{X}_{n}}: P \in L\right\}$.

## $2 \mathscr{P} \mathscr{R}$ vs. $\mathscr{L}$

Theorem 2.1 $\mathscr{P} \mathscr{R} \subseteq \mathscr{L}$.
Proof By induction over $\mathscr{P} \mathscr{R}$ and brute-force programming:
Basis: $\lambda x . x+1$ is $P_{X}^{X}$ where $P$ is $X \leftarrow X+1$. Similarly, $\lambda \vec{x}_{n} \cdot x_{i}$ is $P_{X_{i}}^{\vec{X}_{n}}$ where $P$ is

$$
X_{1} \leftarrow X_{1} ; X_{2} \leftarrow X_{2} ; \ldots ; X_{n} \leftarrow X_{n}
$$

The case of $\lambda x .0$ is as easy.
How does one compute $\lambda x . f(g(x))$ if $g$ is $G_{X}^{X}$ and $f$ is $F_{X}^{X}$ ? One uses

$$
\binom{G^{\prime}}{F}_{X}^{X}
$$

where $G^{\prime}$ is $G$ modified to avoid side-effects: One must ensure that all the variables of $F$ other than $X$-which were referenced in $G$ - are set to 0 upon exit from $G$ because $F$ expects all these variables to be 0 in order to compute $f$ correctly. $G^{\prime}$ does that, if necessary, by us placing at the end of $G$ several statements of the type $Y \leftarrow 0$.

The general case $\lambda \vec{x}_{m} \cdot f\left(g_{1}\left(\vec{x}_{m}\right), \ldots, g_{n}\left(\vec{x}_{m}\right)\right)$ is programmed similarly.
Finally, we indicate in pseudo-code how to compute $f\left(x, \vec{y}_{n}\right)$ where

$$
\begin{aligned}
f\left(0, \vec{y}_{n}\right) & =h\left(\vec{y}_{n}\right) \\
f\left(x+1, \vec{y}_{n}\right) & =g\left(x, \vec{y}_{n}, f\left(x, \vec{y}_{n}\right)\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

assuming we have loop programs $H$ and $G$ for $h$ and $g$ respectively. The pseudo-code is

$$
\begin{aligned}
& z \leftarrow h\left(\vec{y}_{n}\right) \\
& i \leftarrow 0 \\
& \quad \quad \mathbf{L o o p} x \\
& \quad z \leftarrow g\left(i, \vec{y}_{n}, z\right) \\
& \quad i \leftarrow i+1 \\
& \quad \text { end }
\end{aligned}
$$

The pseudo-code above means -for example, by " $z \leftarrow h\left(\vec{y}_{n}\right)$ "- that we rather have placed the program $H$ in the place of that pseudo-instruction, with input variables $\vec{y}_{n}$ and output variable $z$. Similar comment for $G$.

Once again one has to eliminate side-effects. For example, neither $H$ nor $G$ are allowed to change $\vec{y}_{n}$. $G$ must not change $i$ either $\left[^{2}\right.$ Any non input variables of $G$ must be explicitly set to $0(W \leftarrow 0)$ at the end of $G$-by a modified $G$ if the original was not doing this- so that $G$ correctly computes "according to its spec" every time we enter this sub program while we are looping around the loop $x$ times. Indeed, any non input variables of $G$ that occur in $H$ must also be set explicitly to 0 at the end of $H$ so that $G$ computes correctly the first time we enter the loop.

To handle the converse of the preceding theorem we define
Definition 2.2 For any $P \in L$ and any variable $Y$ in $P$, the symbol $P_{Y}$ is an abbreviation of $P_{Y}^{\vec{X}_{n}}$, where $\vec{X}_{n}$ are all the variables that occur in $P$.

Theorem 2.3 $\mathscr{L} \subseteq \mathscr{P} \mathscr{R}$.
Proof The plan is to use induction over the definition of $L$ 1.1) and prove that for every $P \in L$ and any $Y$ in $P, P_{Y} \in \mathscr{P} \mathscr{R}$.

## Why is the above plan sufficient, for what we want, which is to show (1) below?

For all $P \in L$, and any input set $\vec{X}_{n}$ and output variable $Y$, all in $P$, that $P_{Y}^{\vec{X}_{n}} \in \mathscr{P} \mathscr{R}$ (1)

[^1]Because, say we picked a $P \in L$ and a $Y$ in $P$ as output variable. Say $\vec{X}_{n}, \vec{W}_{m}$ is the set of all variables of $P$. But then, if our plan succeeds we have that

$$
P_{Y}=P_{Y}^{\vec{X}_{n}, \vec{W}_{m}} \in \mathscr{P} \mathscr{R}
$$

If we now set $P_{Y}=\lambda \vec{X}_{n} \vec{W}_{m} \cdot f\left(\vec{X}_{n}, \vec{W}_{m}\right)$, we have $f \in \mathscr{P} \mathscr{R}$, and -by Grzegorczyk substitution- that also

$$
\lambda \vec{X}_{n} \cdot f(\vec{X}_{n}, \underbrace{0, \ldots, 0}_{m \text { zeros }}) \in \mathscr{P} \mathscr{R}
$$

But

$$
\lambda \vec{X}_{n} \cdot f(\vec{X}_{n}, \underbrace{0, \ldots, 0}_{m \text { zeros }})=P_{Y}^{\vec{X}_{n}}
$$

On to our plan then!
For the basis, we have cases:

- $P$ is $X \leftarrow 0$. Then $P_{X}=\lambda x .0 \in \mathscr{P} \mathscr{R}$.
- $P$ is $X \leftarrow Y$. Then $P_{X}=\lambda x y . y \in \mathscr{P} \mathscr{R}$, while $P_{Y}=\lambda x y . y \in \mathscr{P} \mathscr{R}$.
- $P$ is $X \leftarrow X+1$. Then $P_{X}=\lambda x . x+1 \in \mathscr{P} \mathscr{R}$

Let next do the induction step:
(A) $P$ is $Q ; R$.
(i) Case where no variables are common between $Q$ and $R$. Let the $Q$ variables be $\vec{z}_{k}$ and the $R$ variables be $\vec{u}_{m}$.

- What can we say about $(Q ; R)_{z_{i}}$ ?

If we let $\lambda \vec{z}_{k} . f\left(\vec{z}_{k}\right)$ stand for $Q_{z_{i}}$, then $f \in \mathcal{P} \mathcal{R}$ by the I.H. But then, so is $\lambda \vec{z}_{k} \vec{u}_{m} \cdot f\left(\vec{z}_{k}\right)$ by Grzegorczyk Ops. But this is $(Q ; R)_{z_{i}}$.

- Similarly we argue for $(Q ; R)_{u_{j}}$.
(ii) Case where $\vec{y}_{n}$ are common between $Q$ and $R . \vec{z}$ and $\vec{u}$ are the NON-common variables.
- Thus the set of variables of $(Q ; R)$ is $\vec{y}_{n} \vec{z}_{k} \vec{u}_{m}$

Now, pick an output variable $w_{i}$.

- If $w_{i}$ is among the $z_{j}$, then we are back to the first bullet of case (i).
- So let the $w_{i}$ be a component of the vector $\vec{y}_{n} \vec{u}_{m}$ instead. This case is fully captured by the figure below.

(B) $P$ is Loop $x ; Q$; end.

There are two subcases: $x$ in $Q$, or not.
(a) $x$ not in $Q$ :

So, let $\vec{y}_{n}$ be all the variables of $Q ; x$ is not being one of them. Let

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lambda x \vec{y}_{n} \cdot f_{0}\left(x, \vec{y}_{n}\right) \text { denote } P_{x} \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

and, for $i=1, \ldots, n$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lambda x \vec{y}_{n} . f_{i}\left(x, \vec{y}_{n}\right) \text { denote } P_{y_{i}} \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Moreover, let

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lambda \vec{y}_{n} . g_{i}\left(\vec{y}_{n}\right) \text { denote } Q_{y_{i}} \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

By the I.H., the $g_{i}$ are in $\mathcal{P} \mathcal{R}$ for $i=1,2, \ldots, n$.
We want to prove that the functions in (5) and (6) are also in $\mathcal{P} \mathcal{R}$. Since $f_{0}=$ $\lambda x \vec{y}_{n} . x$ (Why?), we only deal with the $f_{i}$ for $i>0$.

The plan is to set up a simultaneous recursion that produces the $f_{i}$ from the $g_{i}$.

Now imagine the computation of $P$ with input $x, y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n}$. We have two subsubcases:

- $x=0$. In this sub-subcase, the loop is skipped and no variables are changed by the program. In terms of (5) and (6), what I just said translates into

$$
\begin{equation*}
f_{0}\left(0, \vec{y}_{n}\right)=0 \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
f_{i}\left(0, \vec{y}_{n}\right)=y_{i}, \text { for } i=1, \ldots, n \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

- $x=k+1$, i.e., positive. The effect of $P$ is


What is $f\left(k+1, \vec{y}_{n}\right)$ ? Well, consult the picture below:


We now have a simultaneous primitive recursion that yields the $f_{i}$ from the $g_{i}$. The latter being in $\mathscr{P} \mathscr{R}$ by the I.H. on $Q$, so are the former.
(b) $x$ in $Q$ :

So, let $x, \vec{y}_{n}$ be all the variables of $Q$. Let

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lambda x \vec{y}_{n} \cdot f_{0}\left(x, \vec{y}_{n}\right) \text { denote } P_{x} \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

and, for $i=1, \ldots, n$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lambda x \vec{y}_{n} . f_{i}\left(x, \vec{y}_{n}\right) \text { denote } P_{y_{i}} \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

Moreover, let

$$
\begin{align*}
& \lambda x \vec{y}_{n} \cdot g_{0}\left(x, \vec{y}_{n}\right) \text { denote } Q_{x}  \tag{13}\\
& \lambda x \vec{y}_{n} \cdot g_{i}\left(x, \vec{y}_{n}\right) \text { denote } Q_{y_{i}} \tag{14}
\end{align*}
$$

By the I.H., the $g_{i}$ are in $\mathcal{P} \mathcal{R}$ for $i=1,2, \ldots, n$.
We want to prove that the functions in (11) and (12) are also in $\mathcal{P} \mathcal{R}$ by employing an appropriate simultaneous recursion. The basis equations are the same as (8) and (9).

For $x=k+1$ we simply consult the figure below, to yield the recurrence equations


As the $g_{j}$ are in $\mathcal{P} \mathcal{R}$, so are the $f_{j}$.

All in all, we have that

$$
\mathscr{P} \mathscr{R}=\mathscr{L}
$$

## 3 Incompleteness of $\mathcal{P} \mathcal{R}$

We can now see that $\mathcal{P} \mathcal{R}$ cannot possibly contain all the intuitively computable total functions. We see this as follows:
(A) Since the language $L$ is context free, we can decide (algorithmically, intuitively speaking) for any string $\alpha$ whether it belongs to $L$ (is a well-formed program) or not.
(B) We can algorithmically build the list, $L i s t_{1}$, of all strings over $\Sigma$ : List by length; in each length group lexicographically ${ }^{3}$
(C) Simultaneously to building List $_{1}$ build List $_{2}$ as follows: For every string $\alpha$ generated in $L i s t_{1}$, copy it into $L i s t_{2}$ iff $\alpha \in L$ (which we can test by $\Delta$ ).
(D) Simultaneously to building List $_{2}$ build List $_{3}$ : For every $P$ (program) copied in $L_{\text {List }}^{2}$ copy all the finitely many strings $P_{Y}^{X}$ (for all choices of $X$ and $Y$ in $P$ ) alphabetically (think of the string as " $P ; X ; Y$ ").

At the end of all this we have an algorithmic list of all the functions $\lambda x . f(x)$ of $\mathcal{P} \mathcal{R}$, listed by their aliases, the $P_{Y}^{X}$. Let us call this list

$$
f_{0}, f_{1}, f_{2}, \ldots, f_{x}, \ldots
$$

By Cantor's "diagonalization method" we define a new function $d$ for all $x$ as follows:

$$
\begin{equation*}
d(x)=f_{x}(x)+1 \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Two observations:

1. $d$ is total (obvious, since each $f_{x}$ is) and intuitively computable. Indeed, to compute $d(a)$ generate the lists long enough until you have the $a$-th item (counting as in $0,1,2, \ldots, a$ ) in $\mathrm{List}_{3}$. This item has the format $P_{Y}^{X}$. I.e., we have a loop program and designated input (one) and output variables. Start this program with input the value $a$ (in $X$ ). On termination add 1 to what $Y$ holds and return. This is $d(a)$.
2. $d$ is not in the list! For otherwise, $d=f_{i}$ for some $i \geq 0$. We get a contradiction:

$$
f_{i}(i) \stackrel{\text { by }}{d=f_{i}}={ }^{2}(i) \stackrel{\text { by }(1) \text { above }}{=} f_{i}(i)+1
$$

## References

[MR67] A. R. Meyer and D. M. Ritchie, Computational complexity and program structure, Technical Report RC-1817, IBM, 1967.
[Tou12] G. Tourlakis, Theory of Computation, John Wiley \& Sons, Hoboken, NJ, 2012.

[^2]
[^0]:    *Supplementary lecture notes for CS4111/5111; Winter 2018
    ${ }^{1}$ The precise syntax of variables will be given shortly, but even after this fact we will continue using signs such as $X, A, Z^{\prime}, Y_{34}^{\prime \prime}$ for variables-i.e., we will continue using metanotation.

[^1]:    ${ }^{2}$ To make any variable "read only", for example $i$, it is very easy: Change all occurrences of $i$ in $G$ to a new variable $i^{\prime}$. Add the instruction $i^{\prime} \leftarrow i$ at the very beginning of the so modified $G$.

[^2]:    ${ }^{3}$ Fix the ordering of $\Sigma$ as listed in (1) on p.??.

