

# Algorithmic Language

Ștefan Ciobâcă, Dorel Lucanu

Faculty of Computer Science  
Alexandru Ioan Cuza University, Iași, Romania  
`stefan.ciobaca@info.uaic.ro`, `dlucanu@info.uaic.ro`

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## 1 Introduction

## 2 Alk Language

- Memory model
- Values
- Operations
- Expressions and instructions
  - Syntax
  - Semantics

## 3 Testing the algorithms with Alk Interpreter

# Plan

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# What is an algorithm?

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"A set of **mathematical instructions** that must be followed in a fixed order, and that, especially if given to a computer, will help to calculate an answer to a **mathematical problem**."

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"An algorithm is a well-ordered collection of **unambiguous and effectively computable operations** that when executed produces **a result and halts in a finite amount of time**."

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"An algorithm is a well-ordered collection of **unambiguous and effectively computable operations** that when executed produces **a result and halts in a finite amount of time**."

Gersting and Schneider 2012 (Invitation for Computer Science, 6nd edition):

"An algorithm is an ordered sequence of instructions that is **guaranteed to solve a specific problem**."

# What is an algorithm?

Wikipedia:

"In mathematics and computer science, an algorithm is a step-by-step procedure for calculations. Algorithms are used for **calculation, data processing, and automated reasoning**.



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An algorithm is an effective method expressed as a **finite list** of well-defined **instructions** for calculating a function. Starting from an **initial state** and **initial input** (perhaps empty), the instructions describe a computation that, when executed, proceeds through a **finite number of well-defined successive states**, eventually producing "**output**" and terminating at a **final ending state**.

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"In mathematics and computer science, an algorithm is a step-by-step procedure for calculations. Algorithms are used for **calculation, data processing, and automated reasoning**.

An algorithm is an effective method expressed as a **finite list** of well-defined **instructions** for calculating a function. Starting from an **initial state** and **initial input** (perhaps empty), the instructions describe a computation that, when executed, proceeds through a **finite number of well-defined successive states**, eventually producing "**output**" and terminating at a **final ending state**. The **transition** from one state to the next is not necessarily **deterministic**; some algorithms, known as **randomized algorithms**, incorporate random input."

# Basic ingredients: computation model, solved problem

All these definitions share the following items:

- a computation model consisting of:
  - memory/store/state/configuration
  - instructions/commands
  - syntax
  - semantics
- an algorithm must solve a problem

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A definition for problem in this context: a pair (input,output)

# How to describe an algorithm?

There are various ways to describe an algorithm:

- **informal**: natural language
- **formal**
  - mathematical notation
  - programming languages
- **semiformal**
  - pseudo-code
  - graphical notation

# Is formalisation needed?

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- before the 20th century only intuitive definitions for algorithm were used
- in 1900, at the Congress of the mathematicians from Paris, David Hilbert formulated 23 problems as "challenges of the new century"
- the 10th problem asked for "finding a process that determines whether an integer polynomial has an integer root"
- Hilbert didn't pronounce the term of algorithm



# Is formalisation needed?

- Hilbert's 10th problem is **non-solvable/non-computable**
- this fact cannot be proved having only the intuitive notion of algorithm
- to prove that there is no algorithm that solve this problem, we need a formal definition for algorithm

# Concept of algorithm, formally

- 1933, Kurt Gdel, with Jacques Herbrand: **general (partial) recursive functions**  
Alonso Church, 1936:  **$\lambda$ -calculus**
- Alan Turing, 1936: **Turing machines**
- the three models are equivalent
- since then were defined many other computation models equivalent to Turing machines
- în 1970 Yuri Matijasevic showed that the Hibert's 10th problem is non-solvable

# $\lambda$ -calculus

- The language:

$x$

$\lambda x.M$  (abstraction)

$M N$  (application)

- Booleans:

$true \triangleq \lambda a.\lambda b.a$

$false \triangleq \lambda a.\lambda b.b$

- Integers:

$0 \triangleq \lambda f.\lambda x.x$  (equivalent to *false*)

$1 \triangleq \lambda f.\lambda x.f x$

$2 \triangleq \lambda f.\lambda x.f(f x)$

...

$succ = \lambda n.\lambda f.\lambda x.f(n f x)$

- Operational Semantics:

$(\lambda x.M)N \Rightarrow M[N/x]$  ( $\beta$ -reduction)



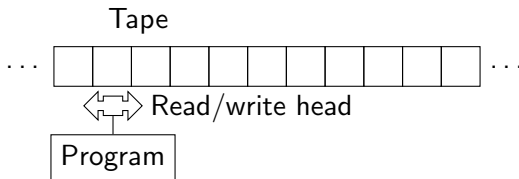
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# Turing Machine 1/3



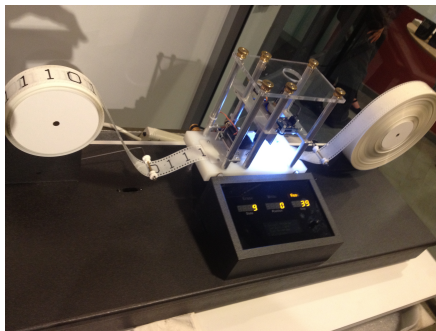
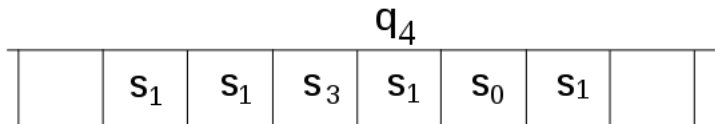
Source: <https://www.iwm.org.uk/history/how-alan-turing-cracked-the-enigma-code>  
<https://www.decodedscience.org/what-is-universal-turing-machine/>

# Turing Machine 2/3



Instruction:  $\langle q, s, q', s', d \rangle$ , where  
 $q, q' \in Q$  (= a finite set of states)  
 $s, s' \in \Sigma$  (= finite alphabet)  
 $d \in \{L, R, N\}$  (= moving directions)

# Turing Machine 3/3



Source: By Gabrielf - Own work, CC BY-SA 3.0, <https://commons.wikimedia.org/w/index.php?curid=26270095>

# Church-Turing Thesis

## Turing Thesis:

LCMs [logical computing machines: Turing's expression for Turing machines] can do anything that could be described as "rule of thumb" or "purely mechanical". (Turing 1948)

## Church Thesis:

Real-world calculation can be done using the lambda calculus, which is equivalent to using general recursive functions. (Church 1935, 1936)

Kleene (1967) introduced the term of **Church-Turing Thesis**:

"So Turing's and Church's theses are equivalent. We shall usually refer to them both as Church's thesis, or in connection with that one of its . . . versions which deals with Turing machines as the Church-Turing thesis."

# The level of formalisation

What is the most suitable language for representing the algorithms?

- Turing machines, lambda-calculus, recursive functions: easy mathematical definitions, hard to use in practice
- programming languages easy(?) to use in practice, hard to use in proofs
- the most simple language equivalent to Turing machines: counting machines
- a structured version : while programs



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# Motivation

The goal (for this lecture) is to have a language that is:

- simple to be easily understood;
- expressive enough;
- abstract;
- to supply a rigorous computation model suitable to analyse algorithms;
- executable;
- input and output are given as abstract data types.

The Alk language was developed to meet these requirements.

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# Memory model

- the memory is a set of variables
- a variable is a pair:

mathematical notation      $\text{variable-name} \mapsto \text{value}$

graphical notation       $\text{variable-name}$

- a value is an object of an (abstract) data type
- examples of values:
  - scalars
  - arrays
  - structures
  - lists
  - ...
- $Val$  denotes the set of all values

# Examples of variables

math notation

$b \mapsto true$     $i \mapsto 5$     $a \mapsto [3, 0, 8]$

graphical notation

<i>true</i>
<i>b</i>

5
<i>i</i>

0	1	2
3	0	8
<i>a</i>		

Each notation is in fact the abstract representation of a function  $\sigma : \{b, i, \dots\} \rightarrow Val$  given by, e.g.,  $\sigma(b) = true$ ,  $\sigma(i) = 5$ , ...

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# Value dimension

Data type = values (constants) + operations

Each value is represented using a memory space.

For the values of each data type, the dimension/size of representation must be mentioned.

There are two ways to define the dimension of values:

- uniform:  $|v|_{\text{unif}}$
- logarithmic:  $|v|_{\log}$
- linear:  $|v|_{\text{lin}}$

# Scalars

primitive types: booleans, integers, floating point numbers, strings,...

An important feature of these values is that they have **finite representations**.

Question: the irrational numbers, e.g.,  $\sqrt{2}$ , could be scalars?



# Scalars (cont)

- integers:

$$Int = \{\dots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots\}$$

- uniform dimension:  $|n|_{\text{unif}} = 1$
- logarithmic dimension:  $|n|_{\log} = \log_2 \text{abs}(n)$
- linear dimension:  $|n|_{\text{lin}} = \text{abs}(n)$

- booleans:

$$Bool = \{false, true\}$$

- uniform dimension:  $|b|_{\text{unif}} = 1$
- logarithmic dimension:  $|b|_{\log} = 1$
- linear dimension:  $|b|_{\text{lin}} = 1$

- floating point numbers:

$$Float = \text{rational numbers}$$

- uniform dimension:  $|v|_{\text{unif}} = 1$
- logarithmic dimension:  $|v|_{\log} = \log_2(\text{mantisă}) + \log_2(\text{exponent})$
- linear dimension:  $|v|_{\text{lin}} = \text{mantisă} \times 10^{\text{exponent}} + \text{exponent}$

- ...

We have  $Int \cup Bool \cup Float \cup \dots \subseteq Val$ .

# Arrays

- $a = [a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{n-1}]$
- $|a|_d = |a_0|_d + |a_1|_d + \dots + |a_{n-1}|_d, d \in \{\text{unif}, \text{log}, \text{lin}\}$
- $Arr_n\langle V \rangle = \{[a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{n-1}] \mid v_i \in V, i = 0, \dots, n-1\}$
- $\bigcup_{n \geq 1} Arr_n\langle V \rangle \subset Val$  for each data-type  $V \subset Val$
- bidimensional arrays are arrays of unidimensional arrays,
- tridimensional arrays are arrays of bidimensional arrays,
- etc.

# Structures

Example: the plane point  $(2, 7)$  is represented by the structure  
 $\{x \rightarrow 2 \ y \rightarrow 7\}.$

$$F = \{f_1, \dots, f_n\}$$

$$s = \{f_1 \rightarrow v_1, \dots, f_n \rightarrow v_n\}$$

$$|s|_d = |v_0|_d + |v_1|_d + \dots + |v_{n-1}|_d, \ d \in \{\text{unif}, \text{log}, \text{lin}\}$$

$$\text{Str}\langle f_1:V_1, \dots f_n:V_n \rangle = \{\{f_1 \rightarrow v_1, \dots, f_n \rightarrow v_n\} \mid v_1 \in V_1, \dots, f_n \in V_n\}$$

Example (Fixed Size Linear Lists):

$$\text{FSLL} = \{\text{len}, \text{arr}\}$$

$$\text{Str}\langle \text{len} : \text{Int}, \text{arr} : \text{Arr}_{100}\langle \text{Int} \rangle \rangle =$$

$$\{\{\text{len} \rightarrow n \ \text{arr} \rightarrow a\} \mid n \in \text{Int}, a \in \text{Arr}_{100}\langle \text{Int} \rangle\}$$

$$\text{Str}\langle f_1:V_1, \dots f_n:V_n \rangle \subset \text{Val} \ \text{for each structure } F = \{f_1:V_1, \dots f_n:V_n\}.$$

# Linear lists

A list value is a sequence  $l = \langle v_0, v_1, \dots, v_{n-1} \rangle$ .

$|l|_d = |v_0|_d + |v_1|_d + \dots + |v_{n-1}|_d$ ,  $d \in \{\text{unif}, \text{log}, \text{lin}\}$

$LLin\langle V \rangle = \{ \langle v_0, \dots, v_{n-1} \rangle \mid v_i \in V, i = 0, \dots, n \}$

Example:  $LLin\langle Int \rangle$ ,  $LLin\langle Arr_n \rangle$ ,  $LLin\langle Arr_n\langle Float \rangle \rangle$

We have  $LLin\langle V \rangle \subset Val$  for each data type  $V$ .

# Complex values: graphs

The graph  $G = (\{0, 1, 2, 3\}, \{(0, 1), (0, 2), (0, 3), (1, 2)\})$  is represented by the following value (using the external adjacency lists):

$$\begin{aligned} &\{ \\ &\quad n \rightarrow 4 \\ &\quad a \rightarrow [\langle 1, 2, 3 \rangle, \langle 0, 2 \rangle, \langle 0, 1 \rangle, \langle 0 \rangle] \\ &\} \end{aligned}$$

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# Data type (cont.)

Data type = objects + operations

Each operation  $op$  has a time cost  $time(op)$ .

For each operation of any data type must the cost time must be mentioned.

There three ways to measure the time (inherited from the value dimension):

**uniform:**  $time_{unif}(op)$  – uses the uniform dimension of values

**logarithmic:**  $time_{log}(op)$  – uses the logarithmic dimension of values

**linear:**  $time_{lin}(op)$  – uses the linear dimension of values

# Operations with scalars

Integers:

Operation	$time_{unif}(op)$	$time_{log}(op)$
$a +_{Int} b$	$O(1)$	$O(\max(\log a, \log b))$
$a *_{Int} b$	$O(1)$	$O(\log a \cdot \log b)$ $O(\max(\log a, \log b)^{1.545})$
...	...	...

The linear case: on the blackboard.



# Arrays

Operație	$time_{\text{unif}}(op)$	$time_{\text{log}}(op)$
$A.\text{lookup}(i)$	$O(1)$	$O(i + \log a_i)$
$A.\text{update}(i, v)$	$O(1)$	$O(i + \log v)$

where  $A \mapsto [a_0, \dots, a_{n-1}]$

The linear case: on the blackboard.

# Structures

Operation	$time_{\text{unif}}(op)$	$time_{\text{log}}(op)$
$S.\text{lookup}(x)$	$O(1)$	$O(\log s_x)$
$S.\text{update}(x, v)$	$O(1)$	$O(\log v)$

where  $S \mapsto \{\dots x \rightarrow s_x, \dots\}$

# Linear lists: operations definition

<code>emptyList()</code>	returns the empty list $[]$
<code>L.topFront()</code>	returns $v_0$
<code>L.topBack()</code>	returns $v_{n-1}$
<code>L.lookup(i)</code>	returns $v_i$
<code>L.insert(i,x)</code>	returns $[\dots v_{i-1}, x, v_i, \dots]$
<code>L.remove(i,x)</code>	returns $[\dots v_{i-1}, v_{i+1}, \dots]$
<code>L.size()</code>	returns $n$
<code>L.popFront()</code>	returns $[v_1, \dots, v_{n-1}]$
<code>L.popBack()</code>	returns $[v_0, \dots, v_{n-2}]$
<code>L.pushFront(x)</code>	returns $[x, v_0, \dots, v_{n-1}]$
<code>L.pushBack(x)</code>	întoarce $[v_0, \dots, v_{n-1}, x]$
<code>L.update(i,x)</code>	returns $[\dots v_{i-1}, x, v_{i+1}, \dots]$

where  $L \mapsto [v_0, \dots, v_{n-1}]$

# Linear lists: operations (version 1)

- corresponds to the implementations with arrays

Operation	$time_{\text{unif}}(op)$	$time_{\log}(op)$
$L.\text{lookup}(i)$	$O(1)$	$O(\log i +  v_i _{\log})$
$L.\text{insert}(i, x)$	$O(L.\text{size}() - i)$	$O(\log i +  x _{\log})$
$L.\text{remove}(i)$	$O(L.\text{size}() - i)$	$O(\log i +  v_i _{\log} + \dots +  v_{n-1} _{\log})$
...	...	...

The linear case: on the blackboard.

# Linear lists: operations (version 2)

- corresponds to the implementation with double linked lists

Operation	$time_{unif}(op)$	$time_{log}(op)$
$L.lookup(i)$	$O(i)$	$O(\log(1 + \dots + i) +  v_i _{\log})$
$L.insert(i, x)$	$O(i)$	$O(\log(1 + \dots + i) +  x _{\log})$
$L.remove(i)$	$O(i)$	$O(\log(1 + \dots + i))$
...	...	...

The linear case: on the blackboard.

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# Expressions: syntax

Similar to that of C++:

- arithmetic expressions:  $a * b + 2$
- relational expressions:  $a < 5$
- boolean expressions:  $(a < 5) \ \&\& \ (a > -1)$
- set expressions:  $s1 \cup s2 \quad s1 \wedge s2 \quad s1 \setminus s2$
- function call:  $f(a*2, b+5)$
- operation call for lists/array/...:  $l.update(2,55) \quad l.size()$

# Instructions: syntax

- assignment:  $a = E$ ;  $a[i] = E$ ;  $p.x = E$ ;



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- conditional instructions:  
     $\text{if } ( E ) St$   
     $\text{if } ( E ) St_1 \text{ else } St_2$

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     $\text{while } ( E ) St$

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  - $\text{for } ( X = E; E'; ++X ) S$

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- return:  $\text{return } E$ ;

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- iterative instructions:  
 $\text{while } ( E ) St$   
 $\text{forall } X \text{ in } S St$   
 $\text{for } ( X = E; E'; ++X ) S$
- return: `return E`;
- sequential composition:  $St_1 St_2$

Alk is extendable: it can be added new data type and operations, mentioning the dimensions and resp. the time costs.



# Data types

Are predefined in Alk.

It does not exist variable declarations; we assume that there is some meta-information mentioning the type of each variable.

## Example of program

```

/*
  This example includes the recursive version of the DFS algorithm.
  @input: a digraf D and a vertex i0
  @output: the list S of the verices reachable from i0
*/

// the recursive function
dfsRec(i) {
  if (S[i] == 0) {
    // visit i
    S[i] = 1;
    p = D.a[i];
    while (p.size() > 0) {
      j = p.topFront();
      p.popFront();
      dfsRec(j);
    }
  }
}

// the calling program
i = 0;
while (i < D.n) {
  S[i] = 0;
  i = i + 1;
}
dfsRec(1);

```

# Semantics: Expressions valuation

Consider a function  $\llbracket \_ \rrbracket (\_) : \text{Expresii} \rightarrow (\text{Stare} \rightarrow \text{Valori})$ , where  $\llbracket E \rrbracket (\sigma)$  return the value of the expression  $E$  computed in the state  $\sigma$ .

Example: Let  $\sigma$  be a state that includes  $a \mapsto 3$   $b \mapsto 6$ . We have:

$$\llbracket a + b * 2 \rrbracket (\sigma) =$$

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$$\llbracket a \rrbracket (\sigma) +_{Int} \llbracket b * 2 \rrbracket (\sigma) =$$

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Consider a function  $\llbracket \_ \rrbracket (\_) : \text{Expresii} \rightarrow (\text{Stare} \rightarrow \text{Valori})$ , where  $\llbracket E \rrbracket (\sigma)$  return the value of the expression  $E$  computed in the state  $\sigma$ .

Example: Let  $\sigma$  be a state that includes  $a \mapsto 3$   $b \mapsto 6$ . We have:

$$\begin{aligned} \llbracket a + b * 2 \rrbracket (\sigma) &= \\ \llbracket a \rrbracket (\sigma) +_{Int} \llbracket b * 2 \rrbracket (\sigma) &= \\ 3 +_{Int} \llbracket b \rrbracket (\sigma) *_{Int} \llbracket 2 \rrbracket (\sigma) &= \\ 3 +_{Int} 6 *_{Int} 2 &= \\ 3 +_{Int} 12 &= 15 \end{aligned}$$

where  $+_{Int}$  represents the algorithm for integer addition and  $*_{Int}$  represents the algorithm for integer multiplication.

# Time cost for evaluation

$$\begin{aligned}
 &time_d(\llbracket a + b * 2 \rrbracket(\sigma)) = \\
 &time_d(\llbracket a \rrbracket(\sigma)) + time_d(\llbracket b \rrbracket(\sigma)) + time_d(6 *_{Int} 2) + time_d(3 +_{Int} 122), \\
 &d \in \{\text{unif}, \text{log}, \text{lin}\}.
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\sigma = a \mapsto 3 \quad b \mapsto 6$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &time_{\text{log}}(\llbracket a \rrbracket(\sigma)) = \log 3, \quad time_{\text{log}}(\llbracket b \rrbracket(\sigma)) = \log 6 \\
 &time_{\text{unif}}(\llbracket a \rrbracket(\sigma)) = 1, \quad time_{\text{unif}}(\llbracket b \rrbracket(\sigma)) = 1 \\
 &time_{\text{lin}}(\llbracket a \rrbracket(\sigma)) = 3, \quad time_{\text{lin}}(\llbracket b \rrbracket(\sigma)) = 6
 \end{aligned}$$



# Semantics: Configurations

A configuration is a pair  $\langle \textit{piece-of-program}, \textit{state} \rangle$

Example:

$\langle x = x + 1; y = y + 2 * x;, x \mapsto 7 \ y \mapsto 12 \rangle$

$\langle s = 0; \text{while } (x > 0) \{s = s+x; x = x-1;\}, x \mapsto 5 \ s \mapsto -15 \rangle$

# Semantics: Execution steps

An execution step is a transition relation between configurations:

$$\langle S, \sigma \rangle \Rightarrow \langle S', \sigma' \rangle$$

iff

executing the first instruction from  $S$  in the state  $\sigma$  we obtain the piece of program  $S'$ , which follows to be executed in the state  $\sigma'$

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Execution steps are described by rules  $\langle S_1, \sigma_1 \rangle \Rightarrow \langle S_2, \sigma_2 \rangle$ , where  $S_1, S_2, \sigma_1, \sigma_2$  are terms with variables (patterns).

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To compute the time of an execution step, we describe how compute the time for each rule application.

# Semantics: Assignment

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where  $\sigma$  of the form  $\dots x \mapsto v \dots$  and  $\sigma'$  of the form  $\dots x \mapsto \llbracket E \rrbracket(\sigma) \dots$  (the rest is the same as in  $\sigma$ ).

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Time cost:

$$time_d(\langle x = E; S, \sigma \rangle \Rightarrow \langle S, \sigma' \rangle) = time_{\log}(\llbracket E \rrbracket(\sigma) + |\llbracket E \rrbracket(\sigma)|)_d$$

where  $d \in \{\text{unif}, \text{log}, \text{lin}\}$ .

# Semantics: if command

if: if ( $E$ ) then  $S$  else  $S'$

- *informal*: evaluate  $e$ ; if the result is *true*, then execute  $S$ , else execute  $S'$



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if: if (E) then S else S'

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- *formal*:

$\langle \text{if } (E) \text{ } S \text{ else } S' \text{ } S'', \sigma \rangle \Rightarrow \langle S \text{ } S'', \sigma \rangle$  dacă  $\llbracket E \rrbracket(\sigma) = \text{true}$

$\langle \text{if } (E) \text{ } S \text{ else } S' \text{ } S'', \sigma \rangle \Rightarrow \langle S' \text{ } S'', \sigma \rangle$  dacă  $\llbracket E \rrbracket(\sigma) = \text{false}$

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Time cost:

$$\text{time}_d(\langle \text{if } (E) \text{ } S' \text{ else } S'' \text{ } S, \sigma \rangle \Rightarrow \langle -, \sigma \rangle) = \text{time}_d(\llbracket E \rrbracket(\sigma))$$

$$d \in \{\text{unif}, \text{log}, \text{lin}\}.$$

# Semantics: while command

**while:** `while (E) S`

- *informal*: evaluate  $e$ ; if the result is *true*, then execute  $S$ , then evaluate again  $e$  and ...; otherwise the execution of the instruction stops

# Semantics: while command

**while:** while ( $E$ )  $S$

- *informal*: evaluate  $e$ ; if the result is *true*, then execute  $S$ , then evaluate again  $e$  and ...; otherwise the execution of the instruction stops
- *formal*: it is described using *if*:  
$$\langle \text{while } (e) \ S \ S', \sigma \rangle \Rightarrow$$
$$\langle \text{if } (e) \ \{ \ S \ ; \ \text{while } (e) \ S \} \ \text{else } \{ \ } S', \sigma \rangle$$

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Time cost:

$time_d(\langle \text{while } (E) \ \text{then } S \ \text{else } S' \ S, \sigma \rangle \Rightarrow \langle \text{if } (e) \ \dots S, \sigma \rangle) = 0,$   
 $d \in \{\text{unif}, \text{log}, \text{lin}\}.$

# Semantics: Function call

Consider  $f(a, b) \{ S_f \}$ .

We have to add stacks to the configurations.

The evaluation  $f(e_1, e_2)$  consists of:

$$\langle f(e_1, e_2) S, \sigma, \text{Stack} \rangle \Rightarrow$$

$$\langle S_f, \sigma \cup \{a \mapsto \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket(\sigma) \mid b \mapsto \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket(\sigma)\}, (S, \sigma) \text{Stack} \rangle \Rightarrow^*$$

$$\langle v, \sigma', (S, \sigma) \text{Stack} \rangle \Rightarrow$$

$$\langle v S, \text{updateGlobals}(\sigma, \sigma'), \text{Stack} \rangle$$

Assumption: the time cost of a function call is the sum of time for parameters evaluation and the time for executing the function body.

# Computation (execution)

A computation (an execution) is a sequence of execution steps:

$$\tau = \langle S_1, \sigma_1 \rangle \Rightarrow \langle S_2, \sigma_2 \rangle \Rightarrow \langle S_3, \sigma_3 \rangle \Rightarrow \dots$$

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The cost of a computation:

$$time_d(\tau) = \sum_i time_d(\langle S_i, \sigma_i \rangle \Rightarrow \langle S_{i+1}, \sigma_{i+1} \rangle), d \in \{unif, log, lin\}$$



# Computation: example

$$\begin{aligned}
 &\langle \text{if } (x > 3) \ x = x + y; \text{ else } x = 0; \ y = 4; \ ,x \mapsto 7 \ y \mapsto 12 \rangle \Rightarrow \\
 &\langle x = x + y; \ y = 4; \ ,x \mapsto 7 \ y \mapsto 12 \rangle \Rightarrow \\
 &\langle y = 4; \ ,x \mapsto 19 \ y \mapsto 12 \rangle \Rightarrow \\
 &\langle \cdot, x \mapsto 19 \ y \mapsto 4 \rangle
 \end{aligned}$$

We used:

$$\llbracket x > 3 \rrbracket (x \mapsto 7 \ y \mapsto 12) = \text{true}$$

$$\llbracket x + y \rrbracket (x \mapsto 7 \ y \mapsto 12) = 19$$

$$\llbracket 4 \rrbracket (x \mapsto 19 \ y \mapsto 12) = 4$$

The cost:

uniform cost: 3 (= the number of steps)

logarithmic cost:  $\log 7 + \log 7 + \log 12 + \log 19 + \log 4$

linear cost:  $7 + 7 + 12 + 19 + 4$

## Computation: example

$$\begin{aligned}
 &\langle \text{while } (i > 5) \ i--; , i \mapsto 6 \ x \mapsto 12 \rangle \Rightarrow \\
 &\langle \text{if } (i > 5) \ \{ \ i \ --; \ \text{while } (i > 5) \ i--; \} , i \mapsto 1 \ x \mapsto 12 \rangle \Rightarrow \\
 &\langle \{ i \ --; \ \text{while } (i > 5) \ i--; \} , i \mapsto 6 \ x \mapsto 12 \rangle \Rightarrow \\
 &\langle i \ --; \ \text{while } (i > 5) \ i--; , i \mapsto 6 \ x \mapsto 12 \rangle \Rightarrow \\
 &\langle \text{while } (i > 5) \ i--; , i \mapsto 5 \ x \mapsto 12 \rangle \Rightarrow \\
 &\langle \cdot , i \mapsto 5 \ x \mapsto 12 \rangle
 \end{aligned}$$

We used:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \llbracket i > 5 \rrbracket (i \mapsto 6 \ x \mapsto 12) &= \text{true} \\
 \llbracket i \ -- \rrbracket (i \mapsto 6 \ x \mapsto 12) &= 0 \\
 \llbracket i > 5 \rrbracket (i \mapsto 5 \ x \mapsto 12) &= \text{false}
 \end{aligned}$$

The cost:

uniform cost: 5 (= numărul de pași)

logarithmic cost:  $\log 6 + \log 6 + \log 5 + \log 5$

# Plan

## 1 Introduction

## 2 Alk Language

- Memory model
- Values
- Operations
- Expressions and instructions
  - Syntax
  - Semantics

## 3 Testing the algorithms with Alk Interpreter

# Running the algorithm DFS recursive

To execute the above algorithm on the digraph:

$$D.n = 3,$$

$$D.a[0] = \langle 1, 2 \rangle$$

$$D.a[1] = \langle 2, 0 \rangle$$

$$D.a[2] = \langle 0 \rangle$$

create a file "dfs.in" with the following contents:

```
D |-> { n -> 3
      a -> [ < 1, 2 >, < 2, 0 >, < 0 > ] }
      i0 |-> 1
```

and then execute the algorithm with this input:

```
> alki -a dfsrec.alk -i dfs.in
[1, 1, 1]
```

# Demo