

Limits of Computation

Feedback for Exercises 4

Dr Bernhard Reus

WHILE-programs, WHILE-decidability, WHILE-computability (Lectures 7–9)

1. By writing a WHILE-program, show that $A = \{4, 6, 8\} \subseteq \mathbb{D}$ is WHILE-decidable. Test your program by running it in `hwhile`.

Answer:

```
decisionProc read X {  
  switch X {  
    case 4: result:= true  
    case 6: result:= true  
    case 8: result:= true  
    default: result := false  
  }  
}  
write result
```

2. Show that *any* finite set $A \subseteq \mathbb{D}$ is WHILE-decidable.
Hint: assume without loss of generality that the finite set has n elements $A = \{d_1, d_2, \dots, d_n\}$ and write the decision procedure for this A .

Answer:

```
dpF read X {  
  switch X {  
    case d1: result:= true  
    case d2: result:= true  
    :  
    case dn: result:= true  
    default: result := false  
  }  
}  
write result
```

Note that in `hwhile` we can directly inject trees `d` as *tree literals*, an extension of pure WHILE (we have not discussed in detail).

One way is to construct them explicitly with `cons` and `nil` in `WHILE`. (Alternatively we can deal with them in ASTs via `quote` without having to change the self-interpreter.)

Clearly, `dpf` always terminates. It is also rather obvious that it returns `true` if and only if, the argument `X` is equal to one of the d_i in A (for $1 \leq i \leq n$). And by definition of A this means that $\llbracket \text{dpF} \rrbracket(d) = \text{true}$ if, and only if, $d \in A$ for any $d \in \mathbb{D}$.

Another solution (some students always suggest) would be to convert the set A of binary trees into a list and then run through this list as follows:

```
test2 read X {
  A:= [d1,d2,...,dn];
  while A {
    Y := hd A;
    if X=Y {
      result := true;
      A := nil      // loop exit
    }
    else { A:= tl A
          }
  }
}
write result
```

Again `di` means the representation of element $d_i \in \mathbb{D}$ in a `WHILE`-program. It is important to understand, however, that the list of elements is *not* an argument of the decision procedure. It is supposed to test membership in this (fixed) set.

In the seminars, students often wanted to make `A` the parameter of the decision procedure, but this is wrong. The decision procedure is for *deciding membership in A*. Its argument is an arbitrary tree for which we want to know whether it is in `A` or not!

3. Show that, if $A \subseteq \mathbb{D}$ is `WHILE`-decidable then so is the complement of A , that is $\mathbb{D} \setminus A$.

Hint: assume A is `WHILE`-decidable and thus we have a `WHILE`-program p that decides A . Now write a `WHILE`-program q that decides the complement of A . Of course, you can and should use p .

Answer:

Assume $A \subseteq \mathbb{D}$ is decidable. Thus, there is a program p that decides A . This means in particular that p always terminates.

Now let us construct a program q that decides $\mathbb{D} \setminus A$, the complement of A , as follows:

```

q read X {
  Y := <p> X;
  if Y {
    result := false
  }
  else
  {
    result := true
  }
}
write result

```

We obviously get that q always terminates, since p does. We also see quickly that $\llbracket q \rrbracket(d) = \text{true}$ if, and only if, $\llbracket p \rrbracket(d) \neq \text{true}$ and therefore $d \in \mathbb{D} \setminus A$ iff $d \notin A$, which is exactly what we need.

4. Why is any WHILE-decidable set automatically WHILE-semi-decidable.

Answer: Because a decision procedure is automatically a semi-decision procedure by definition. It is one that always terminates.

5. Write a WHILE-program `equal` that does not use the built-in equality (but can use all other extensions). The program `equal` takes a list of two trees $[l, r]$ and tests whether the trees are equal, i.e. whether $l = r$. The function `equal` can be defined recursively as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{equal}([\text{nil}, \text{nil}]) &= \text{true} \\
 \text{equal}([\text{nil}, \langle l.r \rangle]) &= \text{false} \\
 \text{equal}([\langle l.r \rangle, \text{nil}]) &= \text{false} \\
 \text{equal}([\langle l.r \rangle, \langle s.t \rangle]) &= \text{equal}([l, s]) \wedge \text{equal}([r, t])
 \end{aligned}$$

Unfortunately WHILE does not provide any recursive features. So your implementation has to traverse both input trees using a while-loop. One way to do this is to generalise the equality test to stacks of pairs of trees represented as a list of pairs of trees:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{equalG}([]) &= \text{true} \\
 \text{equalG}([[\text{nil}, \text{nil}], S]) &= \text{equalG}(S) \\
 \text{equalG}([[\text{nil}, \langle l.r \rangle], S]) &= \text{false}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{equalG}([\langle 1.r \rangle, \text{nil}], S) = \text{false}$$

$$\text{equalG}([\langle 1.r \rangle, \langle s.t \rangle], S) = \text{equalG}([1, s], [r, t], S)$$

(If the input list contains more than two trees, those following the first two shall be simply ignored.) One can now define

$$\text{equal}(L) = \text{equalG}(L)$$

The definition of `equalG` is a so-called *tail-recursive* definition which means it can relatively straightforwardly be transformed into a while loop like so

```

equalG read L {
  res:= true;
  while L {
    X:= hd L;
    ...
    res:= ...
    if res
      { L := tl L // tail recursive call
      }
    else
      { res:= false;
        L:= nil // loop exit
      }
  }
}
write res

```

where some bits (represented by ...) have been left out for you to fill in. Test your program in `hwhile`.

Answer: See Canvas (program section).